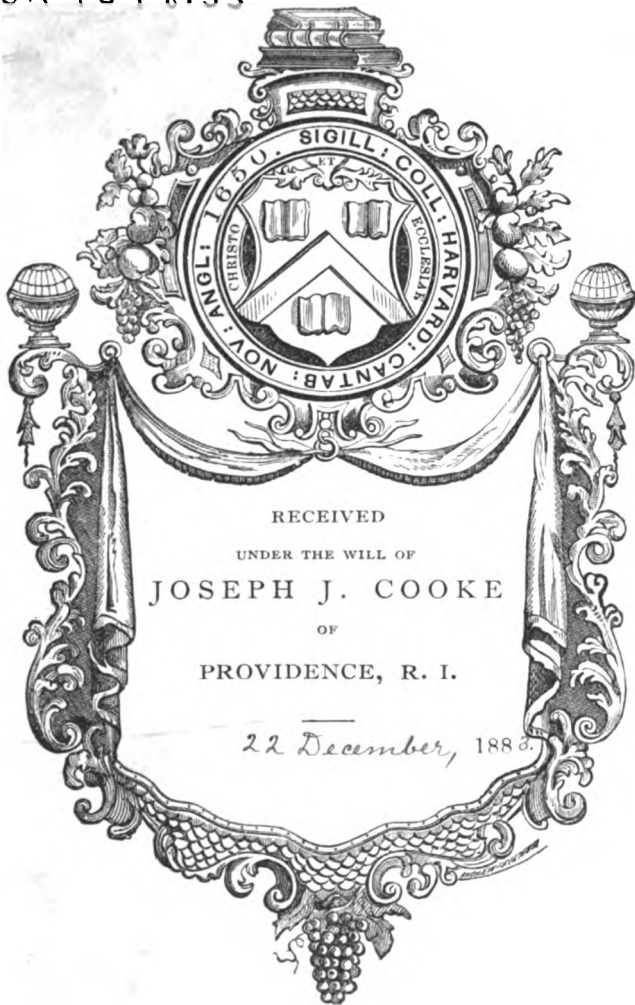




The History of British Guiana

Henry G. Dalton

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22 December, 1888.

THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GULANA.

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THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GUIANA.

COMPRISING

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE COLONY;
A NARRATIVE OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS FROM THE EARLIEST
PERIOD OF ITS DISCOVERY TO THE PRESENT TIME;

TOGETHER WITH
AN ACCOUNT OF ITS CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, STAPLE PRODUCTS,
AND NATURAL HISTORY.

BY

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OF THE ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY, LONDON; CORRESPONDING MEMBER OF THE
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YORK, ETC. ETC.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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1855.

DEDICATION

TO

HIS EXCELLENCY SIR HENRY BARKLY, K.C.B.

ETC. ETC.

IN dedicating the following imperfect sketch of the history of a colony over which your Excellency has so ably presided for several years, I am actuated solely by the conviction that I could not have addressed myself to one who has a higher appreciation of the capabilities of the country, a more sincere interest in its progress and welfare, or a more thorough knowledge of its resources, than your Excellency.

It would be unbecoming in me to attempt to trace the vast amount of good your Excellency's administration has conferred on the colony, or the many benefits which have resulted from your statesmanlike and judicious measures. The good result may be traced in the impulse given to agriculture, in the steady if not flourishing condition of the commercial interests, and in the general advancement of our legal, political, and social institutions.

I may, however, be permitted to observe, that the administration of your Excellency has been fully appreciated by the intelligent and respectable classes of the community, who by a late testimonial presented to your Excellency have given a convincing proof of their sincerity. As regards myself, I feel that it is chiefly through your Excellency's encouragement and support I have been enabled to complete the present work; and, while I regret that it is not more worthy of your consideration, and of the subject of which it treats, I beg to inscribe it to your Excellency as an inadequate testimony of the gratitude and respect with which

I have the honour to be,

Your Excellency's

Most obedient, humble Servant,

HENRY G. DALTON.

P R E F A C E.

IN submitting the following work to the notice of the public, and to that of my fellow-colonists in particular, I feel myself called upon to offer some explanation as to its appearance.

Shortly after my arrival in this colony in 1842—a colony in which I was deeply interested by the ties of birth and family connexions—I felt a great desire to become acquainted with the history of the country in which I was about to reside, and I naturally looked around for any work which would enlighten me on this subject.

To my surprise and regret, however, I found that no connected history of British Guiana had ever been published.

Interesting and numerous as were the facts connected with the rise and progress of the colony, and its general and natural history, no attempt to collect them had been made for many years. For want of such a record, the valuable discoveries of naturalists and travellers, the praiseworthy labours of Humboldt, the two Schomburgks, Hillhouse, Hancock, and others, were inaccessible and unavailing. A description of the colony sixty years ago, written in Dutch, a sketch by Bolingbroke

and Montgomery Martin, a short account by the Chevalier Schomburgk in 1840, with his Reports to the Royal Geographical Society, and a recent publication in German by his brother, constituted nearly all the information which had been gathered with regard to the colony.

Sir Robert Schomburgk had done more than any other individual in making us acquainted with the capabilities, resources, and natural productions of this country; but although he acquired for himself an honourable fame for his interesting and successful explorations of the interior of British Guiana, he did not, unfortunately for the public, devote his talents, knowledge, and industry to the completion of a work comprising a general account of the province in which he had spent so many years of his life.

Disappointed at not finding any authentic source from whence I could obtain the information I desired, I determined to seek it for myself, and for several years devoted as much leisure to the arduous task as the harassing nature of my professional pursuits would admit.

In the course of my researches I found that my materials had accumulated to such an extent as to interest others as well as myself, and at length I entertained the idea of arranging them in some definite shape, with a view to publication.

I make no pretension to write a complete history of this important colony—the attempt would be beyond my capability or opportunities—but simply to give a general sketch of the history of British Guiana from the earliest discovery and exploration to the present time, including the eventful periods of slavery, apprenticeship,

and emancipation, together with a description of the surface, and some notices of the natural history of the country.

In the prosecution of my undertaking I have encountered more labour and difficulty than I had anticipated; for although I was incidentally indebted to the preceding authors who had severally illustrated different branches of the subject, I yet found that I was entering upon, for the most part, a new and entangled field, where I had to seek much for myself.

Whatever information I have derived from others I have honestly acknowledged; for the rest I hold myself responsible, and bespeak indulgence.

“He who first undertakes to bring into form the scattered elements of any subject, can only accomplish his task imperfectly; but the attempt has its value if it is based on a right principle.” I have made the attempt, and it will be for the reader to decide upon the result. If I have succeeded in producing a work calculated to interest, amuse, or instruct, and to excite attention to the invaluable resources and vast capabilities of this magnificent province, I shall be amply repaid for the toil, anxiety, and care I have expended upon its production.

With respect to the chapters on the natural history of the colony, it is proper I should say that I do not aspire to be able to treat such a variety of subjects with the scientific accuracy they demand. The information I have collected has been derived exclusively from my own researches and personal observation, without being able to command any of those collateral aids which such inquiries, above all others, stand most in need of. These circum-

stances will, I hope, extenuate any imperfections which may be found in this part of the work. In compiling it, I have derived much important information from a work lately published by Herr Richard Schomburgk in German,* which gives a comprehensive and scientific account of the Fauna and Flora of British Guiana.

To those who have kindly assisted me in procuring information, to his Excellency Governor Barkly, to the members of the Combined Court, and to others who have encouraged me in this laborious undertaking, I tender my grateful acknowledgments.

Finally, I trust that the defects of the writer may not be permitted to prejudice the object he has had in view, which is to rescue a valuable colony from neglect, and to attract towards it the notice and consideration its history and resources will be found amply to repay.

* "Reisen in British Guiana."

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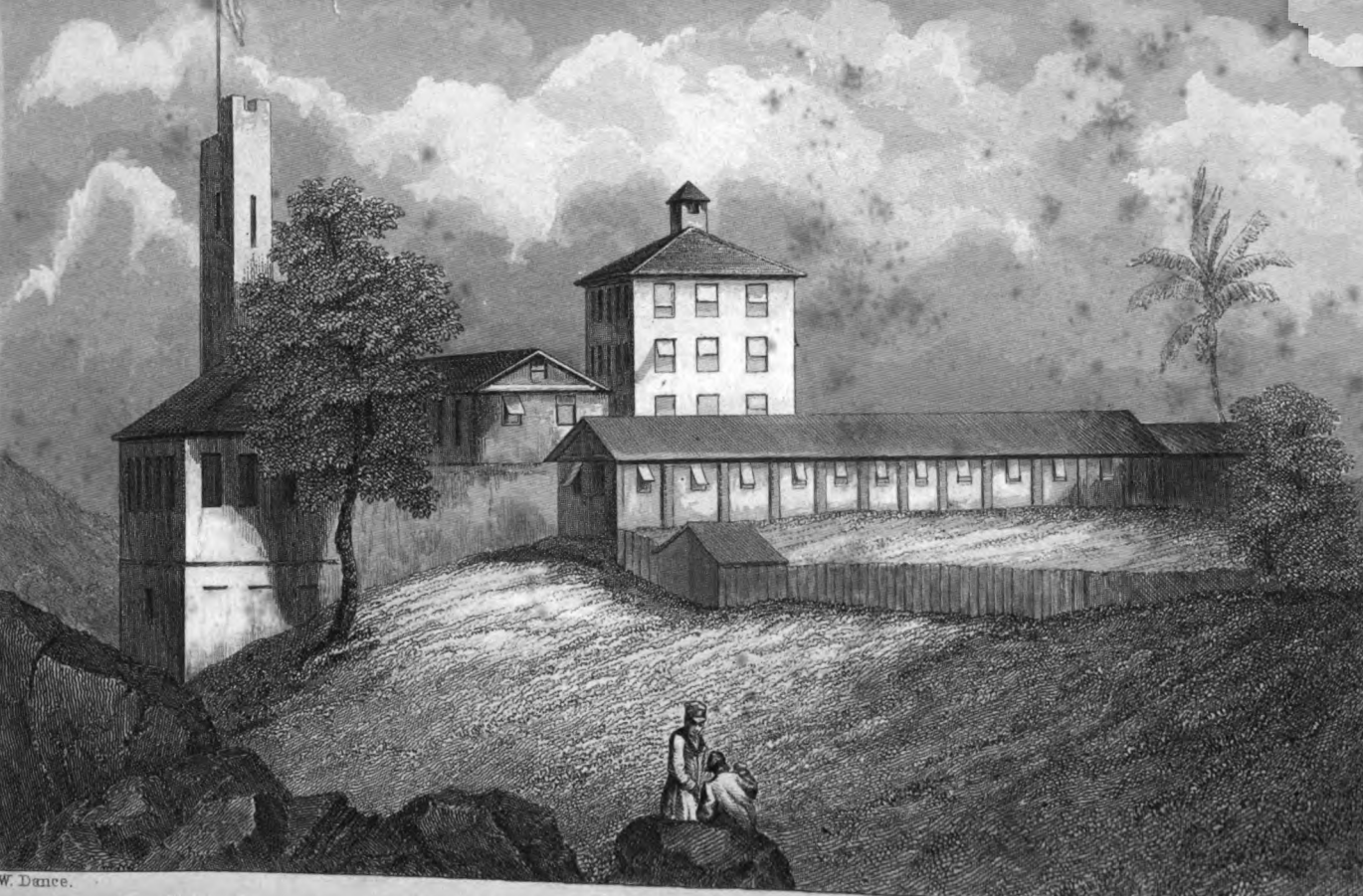
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W. Dance.

H. M. PENAL SETTLEMENT ON THE

F.P. B.

THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GUIANA.

INTRODUCTORY CHAPTER.

DESCRIPTION OF BRITISH GUIANA—ITS EXTENT—ALLUVIAL LAND—SAND DISTRICTS—MOUNTAINS—THE SAVANNAHS—THE FORESTS—DESCRIPTION OF THE RIVERS: THE RIVER DEMERARA, THE ESSEQUEBO, THE CORENTYN, THE BERBICE, THE WARINA, THE BARIMA, THE POMEROON—CATARACTS—NATURAL CURIOSITIES: ATARAIPU ROCK, PURÉ-PIAPA, MARA-ETSHIBA, GRANITE PILES, COMUTI-ROCK, PICTURE-WRITING OR TEHMEHBI, ROCK CRYSTALS, AGATE, GOLD REGIONS, PRECIOUS STONES—RETROSPECT.

THE History of a Nation may be compared to the life of an individual—it has its birth, infancy, maturity, and decline; and as there are few lives which do not present some points of interest and instruction, so from the various phases of a nation may be gathered many curious points for speculation and inquiry. This observation may be said to be inapplicable to the rise and progress of a mere colony; but, after all, what is a colony but a nation in its youth? The mind of man, having no traditions to fall back upon, and being bound to the past by no transmitted usages, forms, or institutions, must carve out its own destiny by such means as circumstances have placed within its reach. The History of a Colony traces the course of this curious and instructive process.

It has been said,* that in the decline of a nation commerce flourishes, and becomes the prevailing occupation. This does not obtain with regard to a colony. Commerce here may be said to give rise to its origin. It is certain, that whatever may be the means of acquiring or establishing a possession, the motives generally may be traced to the desire of gain or glory. What else induced the followers of Columbus, or Cortes, to leave their then over-populated countries, and struggle for territory and riches with the inhabitants of a newly-discovered world? What else could have tempted the bold adventurers on the ocean from all nations, to barter for, and purchase, cargoes of human beings in order to hurry their degraded victims to a life of slavery? or persuaded the inhabitants of England to quit their native soil, and in the immensity of Eastern possessions to contend for conquest or death? It is, perhaps, well that it is so; all things work to a good purpose, and the individual who is prompted by necessity to seek other scenes for his talents and industry, involuntarily contributes his mite towards relieving his country from the evils of a too thickly populated soil, and at the same time assists in the diffusion of population over countries where fruitful nature pines for the help of industry and skill.

These considerations lead us directly to our subject. But before we enter upon an examination of the races that originally peopled the surface of Guiana, or the colonisers that gradually settled amongst them, it is desirable to lay before the reader a description of the country itself.

Guiana, Guayana, or Guianna, consists of a large tract of country in the southern continent of America, whose natural boundaries seem to be the river Orinoco, and its branches on the west and north-west; the Atlantic Ocean

* Bacon's Essays.

on the north-east and east; and the mighty river Amazon, with its tributary streams, on the south and south-west. This extensive territory is largely encircled and intersected by rivers which flow in almost uninterrupted communication throughout the land.* The South-American Indian, seated in his buoyant boat, the stripped bark of some forest tree, might have entered the broad mouth of the Amazon, and wending his solitary way along the southern boundary, have entered the broad tributary stream of the river Negro, and ascending its waters along the western outline of this tract of country, persevered through the natural canal of Cassiquiare and the southern branches of the Orinoco until he reached that river; and here his course would be unbroken to the wide waters of the Atlantic, a few degrees higher to the north than where he commenced his voyage.

According to modern geographers,† the extensive country of Guiana lies between 8 deg. 40 min. north latitude and 3 deg. 30 min. south latitude, and between the 50th and 68th deg. of longitude west of Greenwich. Its greatest extent between Cape North and the confluence of the river Xie with the river Negro is 1090 geographical miles; its greatest breadth between Punta Barima, at the mouth of the Orinoco to the confluence of the river Negro with the Amazon, is 710 geographical miles. A line of sea-coast extends between the river Orinoco and the Amazon, and is now divided into the Venezuelan or Spanish, the British, the Dutch, the French, and the Brazilian or Portuguese Guianas; but their respective and definite inland limits have never been satisfactorily arranged. That portion of this fertile but wild country (for by the Dutch it was called Guiana, or the Wild Coast) to which we must chiefly limit our-

* This statement, however, is not intended to justify the ignorance of many persons in England who speak and write of British Guiana as an island.

† Schomburgk.

selves—the present British Guiana—is generally considered as extending from the mouth of the river Corentyn in 56 deg. 58 min. west longitude, to Punta Barima in 60 deg. 6 min. west longitude, and comprising an area of 100,000 square miles in extent.

According to a modern writer on the subject,* who has been the principal traveller in this country, “if we follow the limits which nature prescribes by its rivers and mountains, and include all the regions which are drained by the streams which fall into the river Essequibo within the British territory, and adopting the river Corentyn as its eastern boundary, then British Guiana would consist of 76,000 square miles.” But according to the Brazilians, who have lately claimed as far north as the mouth of the river Siparumes, its area would be reduced to about 12,000 square miles; and it would form the smallest of the Guianas which are possessed by Europeans, as indeed stated on French authority.†

Assuming, however, that it covers an area of nearly 100,000 square miles, the districts of Demerara and Essequibo may be computed at 70,000 square miles, while those in Berbice may be estimated at 25,000 square miles. But only a small portion of this extensive tract is colonised and in a state of cultivation.

Before the arrival of the European, the lofty mountain heights of the interior, the fertile and undulating valleys of the hilly region, and the borders of the illimitable forests and savannahs, were alone tenanted by the various tribes of Indians who were scattered throughout this vast domain. Their fragile canoes were occasionally seen gliding along the large rivers and the numerous tributary streams which intersect the country; a dense mass of unrivalled foliage, comprising palms, mangroves, cou-

* Schomburgk.

† Dictionnaire Geographique Universel, Paris, 1828, vol. iv. p. 615, where the area of British Guiana is stated to consist only of 3120 leagues.

ridas, and ferns, fringed the banks of the rivers and the margins of the coasts, while a thicker bush of an infinite variety of trees extended inland over an uncleared territory, where the prowling beast, the dreaded reptile, the wild bird, and the noxious insect, roamed at large; but when colonisation commenced and civilisation progressed, the flat lands bordering on the coasts and rivers were cleared and cultivated; the savage forests and their occupants retreated before the encroaching step of civilisation and the march of industry; plantations were laid out, canals and trenches dug, roads formed, and houses raised over the level plain of alluvial soil, which, without a hill or elevation of any kind, stretches for many miles between the sand-hill regions and the Atlantic Ocean.

British Guiana, estimated as containing 100,000 square miles, lies between 1 deg. and 8 deg. 40 min. north latitude, and between 57 deg. and 61 deg. west longitude, with a sea-coast line of about 200 miles in extent, running in an oblique course from east to west, and stretching along part of the alluvial main formed by the deltas of the rivers Amazon and Orinoco. This line of coast is intersected at various distances by several large rivers, namely, the Essequibo, the Demerara, the Berbice, and the Corentyn, which latter separates British from Dutch Guiana; but besides these large rivers, there are several smaller streams, such as the Barima, the Warina, the Morocco, the Pomeroun, the Mahaica, the Mahaiconi, the Abari, &c., which, although tolerably large, have been improperly called creeks when compared with the larger streams.

The course of these rivers is from south to north—their origin difficult to trace in the wild and mountainous interior—and their mouths opening into the vast Atlantic. Their discoloured waters dye the waves of the ocean for many miles to seaward. On approaching the land from

the north and north-east, the blue waters of the Atlantic begin to be tinged with a dirty green at least 100 miles off the land, by degrees assuming a yellowish tinge until about forty or fifty miles off the coast, when a marked line of yellow may be seen, carried by a powerful current towards the Orinoco, after passing which the traveller enters the shallow, turbid, yellow waters, which announce the close proximity of the flat but fertile shores of Guiana.

The whole line of coast is skirted by mud-flats and sand-banks, especially about the Demerara and Essequibo. The mud-flats extend seaward about twelve miles, and render the approach of large vessels impracticable, unless in the hands of pilots and others acquainted with the coast. The approach to the rivers is along a narrow channel, for numerous shoals exist which render it difficult even for schooners and other small craft to navigate. Large sand-banks also stretch out along the coasts, but as these will be more particularly noticed in reference to the rivers whose navigation they obstruct, I will add nothing further than that the true limits of many have not accurately been defined, although buoys and beacons are placed on several. Besides these, a quantity of drift mud and sand is frequently shifting about and interfering with the drainage on the coasts.

The first indication of land is characterised by a long, irregular outline of thick bush, on approaching which, groups of elevated trees, chiefly palms, with occasionally an isolated silk-cotton, or the tall chimneys of the sugar plantations, with the smoke curling upwards, begin rapidly to be recognised, and indicate to the experienced trader almost the very spot he has made. On nearing the land the range of plantations may be easily marked by the line of chimneys; the dense foliage of the coast partly intercepts the view of any buildings, the low ground being covered with mangroves (*Rhizophora*

Mangle) and courida bushes (*Avicennia Nitida*), ferns, and other plants, but behind this wooded barrier numerous dwelling-houses, extensive villages, and the sugar manufactories, extend along the belt of land which, in an unbroken level, constitutes the cultivated districts of the colony.

Once in sight of the land the scene rapidly changes in appearance—from a long, low outline of bush to the different objects which characterise the attractive scenery of the tropics. The bright green palm-trees, with their huge leaves, fanned briskly by the sea-breeze, and the lofty silk-cotton-tree (*Bombax Ceiba*) are plainly visible, while a confused but picturesque group of trees and plants of tropical growth, with white and shining houses interspersed among them, present to the stranger rather the appearance of a large garden than the site of an extensive and busy city. Before the river Demerara is fairly entered, the course steered is towards the light-ship, situated about twelve miles from Georgetown. This beacon is a floating vessel at the entrance of the difficult navigation of the river. In fine weather, and during the daytime, it may readily be seen with the naked-eye, and at night a bright fixed light indicates to the navigator the anxious object of his search.

Pilots are procured at the light-ship, and conduct the numerous vessels which arrive into the river, whose locality is clearly indicated by the tall masts of ships, which, like forest trees stripped of their foliage, peer distinctly above the houses and other edifices of the city.

The light-house and fort are soon recognised, and very often, in little more than an hour after gazing with anxiety upon an unbroken mass of water, the traveller, as if by magic, is ushered through a crowd of ships and small vessels into a busy town, with its motley inhabitants collected from almost every part of the globe.

The geological structure of the inhabited districts, or

of the land on the banks of the rivers and along the sea-coasts between the mouths of the rivers, is entirely alluvial. The soil is covered with perennial foliage, nourished by the frequent rains and balmy atmosphere of the tropics. The rapid rivers in their course carry down from the far interior the detritus of mouldering mountains and decrepid forests. The crumbling rocks of the interior, mingled with vegetable matter, formed at one time the only burden which these waters bore to the sea ; but this was no mean freight. By degrees, deposit on deposit, formed at the deltas of the several streams stretching also along the coasts, produced at last an alluvial soil, which has not its equal in the world, save perhaps the overflowed plains of the Nile. The soil, so simple and yet so productive, has been the formation of centuries; huge rocks have crumbled to give it existence, mighty forests have contributed to sustain it; the streams that bore it to its resting-place have had their waters dyed by its circulation, as if to leave an imperishable memento of its singular formation; and for miles around these rivers carry to the blue ocean their stained waters, to arrest the adventurous traveller who, exploring the wide Atlantic, seeks for a new country that is worthy of his industry.

This alluvial tract extends inland to variable distances, from ten to forty miles, and, consisting of different kinds of clay, impregnated with salt and decayed vegetable matter, rests at varying depths of 50 to 200 feet on a granitic bed. It is almost level throughout its whole extent, a gentle descent of about one foot in many hundred rods being scarcely perceptible.

The depth of soil varies in different places, but, as a general rule, may be considered as greatest towards the borders of the coasts and river-banks, diminishing more or less regularly as it extends inland. The maximum depth may be considered about 200 feet, as on the east

coasts. The minimum depth about 50 feet. The greater part, if not the whole, of this fertile alluvion has been under water, but has been gradually recovered from the sea and rivers by natural as well as artificial means.

The natural means which have contributed to reclaim portions of land from the overflowing waters are the gradual accumulation of soil, occasioned by the deposition of the tides and the drifting of small particles of earth towards the deltas of the rivers. Slowly and by degrees did the work of superimposition proceed, until in some places a natural barrier was opposed to the inroads of the waves, unless on extraordinary occasions, as during the prevalence of high winds and spring tides, where miles of land became temporarily flooded by the swollen waters.

From a consideration of its composition (which will be shortly noticed), it has been thought by some that these alluvial shores have increased to their present extent by the deposition of earthy matter brought down by the rivers, together with decaying and decayed vegetable matter, &c., so that in time the deposit of mud has been sufficient to throw back the sea, and emerge from obscurity, to become of use to mankind.

Another authority has, however, rather boldly conceived "that some years ago this continent was habitable fifty feet below the present surface, and that it was then covered with an immense forest of courida-trees, which was destroyed by conflagration, as appears by the ochrous substratum. The sea must, at that time, have been confined to the blue water, where there is now eight or nine fathoms; and whatever may have been the comparative level between the Pacific and Atlantic on this side of the Isthmus of Darien, the surface must have been then fifty feet lower than now." It would be useless to speculate upon what we cannot easily prove. Either theory accounts partially for the fact that a large

portion of this country was originally under water ; but Mr. Hillhouse is wrong in conceiving that, because strata of decayed wood composed a portion of the soil, it implied the land to have been habitable. One circumstance in the chemical composition of the soils on the coasts and those on the banks of the rivers—viz., the existence of large quantities of saline substances in the former, and comparatively little in the latter—would lead us to believe, that however true it may be that some portion of the coasts has been under the sea, yet that the waters of the ocean have not very recently covered the alluvion of the rivers.

The artificial means made use of by the inhabitants of the country to keep off the encroachments of the sea and rivers consisted in the embankments or dams thrown up during the formation of estates. Owing to the natural level of the cultivated districts being lower than that of the sea and river at high water of spring tides,* it became of importance both for safety and for the purposes of agriculture that such means should be as effectual as possible ; but even at the present day these means are scarcely found sufficient to protect either the town or country. The dams raised are often insufficient in structure, and barely high enough to resist the march of the watery elements.

The alluvial soil, in general, consists of stiff clay, varying in colour, and in the quantity of organic and inorganic matters they contain. Some of these clays are blue in colour, contain much organic matter, and are in general singularly fertile ; others, again, are yellow, and are not so productive ; while in many places the soil is covered over at different depths with layers of a substance called "Pegass," a black, light mould, composed of vege-

* In some places it is as much as four or five feet below the level of high water—as on the east coast ; but up the rivers the difference is less, and higher up, altogether disappears.

table detritus, deposited at the mouths of the rivers. This peculiar substance, made up of decomposing vegetable fibre, and regarded by some as a kind of peat, is injurious to the productiveness of the soil.

The analysis made of those soils have been of two kinds: textural, or mechanical, and chemical.

By the former method, chiefly ascertained through the diligent exertions of our scientific agricultural chemist, Dr. Shier, the alluvial clay is found to consist of argillaceous or impalpable matter, and portions of sand of different degrees of coarseness, besides organic matter and soluble substances. Thus, in round numbers, out of 100 parts of soil, about fifty per cent. may be estimated as argillaceous or clayey, forty-three per cent. as sandy matter, two per cent. soluble saline matter, and the rest organic matter and adherent moisture, as better illustrated by the annexed tables composed by that gentleman.

Little or no lime is ever found in the soil along the alluvial or maritime portion of land; indeed, its presence anywhere throughout the country has been denied by most persons. A scientific traveller, Dr. Hancock, affirmed that none of the soil along the rivers Essequibo, Orinoco, or Barima, could be made to effervesce with an acid; but in Schomburgk's account of the ascent of the river Corentyn in October, 1836,* he describes a calcareous clay† as occurring in the composition of the hills "Oreala," or Alivavarra.

The chemical composition of the different kinds of soil met with on the coasts, the banks of the rivers, and the interior, has been but little studied; of late, however, several portions of soil in the cultivated districts have been analysed by chemists both in Europe and in this country, and the results published. They present a few peculiarities which deserve consideration. The speci-

* Transactions of the Royal Geographical Society.

† A recent analysis, however, has demonstrated that it contains no lime.

mens examined have been found remarkably rich in organic matter (chiefly vegetable), which accounts for the singular fertility of the land in general; as much as ten and fifteen per cent. has been detected in some lands; generally five to ten.

This organic matter is little else than the thoroughly decomposed vegetable substances which have become incorporated with the inorganic bodies; the organic remains of animals form but a very trifling portion of its bulk. It may be regarded as a kind of natural manure to the rest of the soil, and is found in great abundance in all parts of the colony. Organic matter is found very plentifully in pegass lands, but, existing only in a partially decomposed state, is comparatively unfit for the growth of plants.

Another peculiarity of the soil is the large quantity of iron met with in its composition. This exists probably in the state of a protoxide, which towards the surface is often converted into a peroxide. Iron ore is therefore met with, combined with varying proportions of the oxygen of the atmosphere. It is not unlikely that phosphates of iron, combined with alumina, also exist. The soil in many places is quite discoloured from the abundance of iron it contains, and the waters flowing through it are impregnated largely with some of its salts. In some specimens of earth which I have myself analysed, I have found as much as five to ten per cent. of iron in some form or other.

The quantity of soluble saline substances met with in the soil varies greatly in different parts of the colony. The salts chiefly found are those of soda and potash. The former (common salt especially) abounds in many places, particularly in the neighbourhood of the sea-coasts. The old planters knew this practically, by observing that estates in this district were better adapted for cotton than sugar, coffee or plantains; and it was

only when the altered duties on the former threatened to ruin them, that they reluctantly abandoned the culture of cotton on these properties for that of sugar, &c. It was, however, reserved for our agricultural chemist, Dr. Shier, to demonstrate scientifically the influence that such an abundance of saline matter exerted upon the products raised from such soils, thus pointing imperatively to an altered system of drainage.

His attention was first directed to the subject by "observing that the water from the reservoir, in a thoroughly drained field at plantation La Penitence, was very perceptibly salt to the taste, even after it had been pumped out at least twelve times." He immediately instituted a series of interesting experiments on the waters of the colony, such as those in the Artesian wells, in the rivers, creeks, estuary, and sea, as well as others on the cane-juice and molasses raised from such lands, and published the result of his experiments in a short treatise on the subject of "Thorough Drainage," for which he greatly merits the thanks of the planters.

A more important fact has not been announced for many years in the colony, and as its practical value is at once apparent, I have inserted, with his permission, some of the tables, which illustrate this subject in a forcible manner.

From what has been already stated with regard to the probable submersion of a great part of our cultivated lands, it is not difficult to account for such large quantities of salt as have been met with, and the vicinity of the sea sufficiently accounts for the greater portion met with in coast lands.

Where the rich alluvial district terminates, a range of unproductive sand-hills and sand-ridges rises up, the former attaining a height varying from 30 to 120 feet. In some places, as on the coast of Essequebo, they

approach the sea within a few miles. If followed upwards from that point they take first a south-east by south, and afterwards a south-east direction, traversing the whole colony. About twenty-five miles up the river Demerara a number of these sand-hills are met with, their height varying from 100 to 150 feet.

The rest of the land is covered with trees and shrubs, constituting what is called "The Bush."

Behind several estates, along the west bank of the same river, sand-ridges are met with; and both in Essequibo and Berbice large tracts of sand are to be found.

Almost parallel with the ridge of sand-hills several detached groups of hillocks of moderate elevation are met with. They are seldom more than 200 feet high; they cross the river Essequibo at Osterbecke Point, in lat. 6 deg. 15 min. north; the Demerara, at Arobaya, in 6 deg. 5 min.; the Berbice, in 5 deg.*

The sand procurable from the various sand regions varies both in appearance and quality, and is much in demand in the colony for road-making, ballast, and other purposes. The white sand occurs both in the districts of Demerara and Essequibo.

From the sand-hills up the river Demerara a white sand is procured, which is useful for ordinary purposes; it contains much silex, is evidently well suited for glass-making, and may be obtained in any quantity.

Some time ago a specimen of white sand was sent to Boston in the United States, and on trial in the glass manufactories it was found superior to that in general use at that period. Specimens forwarded to Liverpool, and to the Great Exhibition of 1851, were much admired. I have myself remarked elevations of a fine white sand some distance up the Itaribice Creek, but have seen

* Schomburgk.

specimens far superior to this which were procured from some banks above the falls of the river Essequibo.

A species of black sand is found at the sand-hills up the river Demerara, specimens of which have been forwarded to Europe and America.

I have been informed that in some places a kind of mixed sand is met with, alternate layers of the white and dark variety being visible.

A common yellow sand forms banks and ridges in various parts of the colony. On the Arabian coast of Essequibo miles of road of loose sand are found, and beautiful sand beaches line many of the plantations which front the sea.

The term "caddy" is applied to fine comminuted shell, or fine sand intermixed with organic matter, and is much used as ballast for ships.

The mountains of British Guiana are far removed from the coasts, and are so difficult of access as to be rarely seen by the inhabitants. Beyond a few enterprising travellers, and the Indian tribes who live in their vicinity, they have been seldom visited, and from want of accurate information respecting them, the remarks which follow are necessarily scanty.*

At present considerably removed from the Atlantic, it is more than probable that formerly the waves of that ocean washed the bases of the numerous chains of primitive rocks which stretch across this part of the continent of South America in various degrees of latitude, and that these granitic formations acted as a sort of dyke or boundary to that vast body of water which has since receded to so great a distance from its former situation.

Evidences of such a retreat of the ocean may be

* For a further and better account of the numerous mountains and hills met with in the interior of this magnificent country, the reader is referred to Sir Robert Schomburgk's reports to the Royal Geographical Society.

gathered from a variety of sources; such as the presence of huge boulders of stone, found frequently in situations where the action alone of the water could account for their smooth and polished exterior; the indications of submersion furnished by large tracts of land now in cultivation, or occupied by forest trees; and the existence of numerous ridges of sand, which either as ranges of hillocks or in banks are so frequently found in various parts of the colony.

Between the 1st and 2nd parallels of north latitude, and between the 57th and 59th deg. of western longitude, are situated an irregular group of mountains, called the Ouangouwai, or Mountains of the Sun, close to the sources of both the Corentyn and Essequibo rivers. They may be regarded as offsets of the vast chain of the Sierra Acarai, and form a kind of connecting link between the Acarai and Carawaimi mountains.

The natives called this range the Wanguwai, the highest peak of which is estimated at 3000 feet above the plain. Its latitude is 1 deg. 49 min. north. From the river Caneruau, a small stream which joins the river Essequibo from the south-east, a view may be obtained of the chief range of the Sierra Acarai, stretching from north-east round southerly north-west, the outline peaked with sharp ridges, but densely covered with wood. Kaiawako is reputed the highest point, and is probably about 4000 feet high. This region is inhabited by the Woyawais Indians; they are of middle stature, and of a lighter colour than the Tarumas, who live a little further to the north. The former are great hunters, but are very dirty in their habits.

The Carawaimi mountains are situated between the 2nd and 3rd parallels of west latitude, and the 58th and 59th deg. west longitude. A range of hills runs towards them in a south-east direction. They are com-

posed of granite, and are well wooded, with a maximum height of about 2500 feet above the plain, descending to the river Guidaru, a tributary of the river Rupununi. The neighbourhood of these mountains is inhabited by the Wapisiana tribe of Indians, a fine-looking race of men, with regular features and large noses. Another tribe, the Atorais, are likewise found amid these mountain ranges, but little is known respecting their number or habits. It is in this group that the natural pyramid of Ataraipu is met, a description of which will be given when considering the natural curiosities of this romantic country.

In the same parallel of latitude north, but further west, or between the 60th and 61st deg. west longitude, and situated on the banks of the Uraquira, a few mountain groups are placed. Mount Caruma is made up of inclined plains of gneiss, having the appearance in some places of perpendicular walls, over which a streamlet forms a small cascade. From its heights the summits of the Mocajahi mountains are seen to the westward, looking like islands rising out of the ocean.

The Kai-Irita, or Kai-Iwa, or Mountains of the Moon, are situated between 59 and 60 deg. west longitude.

The Tinijau mountains are to the southward of the Caruma, or St. Grande.

The collective name of these detached groups is supposed to have been laid down in former maps as the Sierra Yauina.

Between the 3rd and 4th deg. of north latitude the Cannucu, or Conocon mountains are situated.

This range extends about thirty miles in a north-east and south-west direction, through which the river Rupununi has forced itself a passage. The stream here is about 130 yards wide, and occasionally the mountains rise abruptly to the height of from 2000 to 2500 feet.

The geological formation is primitive, or granitic.

They are well covered with wood; hence the term "Conocon," which, in the Brazilian language, signifies "wooded," in opposition to Pacaraima, which means bare. They are inhabited by a numerous tribe of Indians, called Warpeshanas, or Mapeshanas, as well as by the Macusia, a large and powerful nation. The Cannucu mountains connect the Pacaraima mountains with the Sierra Acarai, in which the Essequibo has its sources. Two points, Nappi and the Curassawaka, are distinguished by their perpendicular walls of granite. Nappi is the Macusi name of the sweet potato. The urari, or wourali plant, from which the famous poison is made, grows on the Cannucu mountains. It was found there in a glen in the months of January and June, 1836, but upon neither occasion was it in flower. The vegetation on these rocky masses consists of the myrtaceæ, clusiaceæ, and orchidaceæ, besides a vast number of plants belonging to other natural orders.

On the banks of the river Essequibo, between the 4th and 5th deg. of north latitude, various mountain ridges are situated.

The Twasinkie mountains, rising 1100 feet above the river on its western banks, extend in a westerly direction, while, three miles beyond, on the right or eastern bank, the Akaywanna mountains, about 900 feet high, stretch to the north-east, and again, about another three miles further off, but on the left or west bank, the Taquiarië, or Comuti mountains, attain an altitude of about 900 feet. "These two ranges, projecting into the river on either hand, cause it to assume the form of an S in its course for about six miles. In this distance are three falls, the most formidable of which, named Yucoorit, is caused by a dyke of stratified granite, or gneiss, crossing the river in a north and south direction, over which the water, hastened by previous rapids, and narrowed in by projecting rocks, precipitates itself with violence. The

surrounding mountains recede and form an amphitheatre, affording a highly picturesque scene."*

Between the same parallels of north latitude the Macary mountains extend in a south-east direction. They are situated on the east or right bank of the river Essequibo, and are very abrupt and ragged, studded with whitish masses of rocks, often perpendicular, and sparsely wooded. Latitude 4 deg. 27½ min. Four miles south of these mountains the rapids again commence, and continue for eight miles, a vast labyrinth of islands intermingling with the foaming waters.

On the opposite or west bank of the river extends a large and important range known as the Cassi mountains, which stretch southwards and become connected with the Pacaraima.

The mountains of Pacaraima approach the river Essequibo in lat. 4 deg. north, and appear to be an offset of the vast Sierra Parima range. Their general direction is east and west, and they are reputed to be of primitive formation. In the eastern part they attain a height of about 1500 feet, and have a westerly course of about 200 miles, forming the separation of waters of the basins of the Orinoko and the Essequibo on the north, and the Rio Branco, a tributary of the Amazons, on the south. At the eastern foot of the Sierra Pacaraima range a settlement called Annay† is placed. The geological structure of these mountains is chiefly granitic. The "Monosuballi," or Twins, are of flinty quartz, and occasionally much chalcedony is found. They are generally bare of wood; the soil at the foot of the mountains is good. The savannahs, on the contrary, are frequently bare of vegetation, with here and there groups of stunted trees, and in other places only covered with short grass. Several

* Report of an Expedition into the Interior of British Guiana in 1835-6. By R. H. Schomburgk, Esq., Corresponding Member R.G.S.

† Annay, in the Macusi language, signifies maize, which is said to grow wild here.

tribes of Indians are located amid these undulating heights, but are widely scattered and few in number; the chief of these are the Wacawais and the Arcumas, whose lonely and isolated position but rarely give the opportunity of intercourse with the more civilised part of the community.

Connected with the main range of the Pacaraima mountains is situated Mount Mairari. It is between the 60th and 61st deg. west longitude. It is a stupendous mass of granitic and gneiss, the lower parts alone being wooded. It is famed for a beautiful species of parokeet (*Psitticaria Solstitialis*). Its height has been computed at 3400 feet above the sea. Other mountain ranges are situated very near. Thus Mount Zabang is found near to the river Cotinga, or Xuruma, which is connected with the river Tacutu, but neither of these two last ranges can be considered as fairly existing within the precincts of British Guiana.

Between the 5th and 6th parallels of north latitude various important groups of mountains are placed. They are composed of granite, gneiss, and trappean rock, with their various modifications. They traverse Guiana in a south-eastern direction, and, according to Sir R. Schomburgk, may be considered as the central ridge of the colony. They have been considered as an offset of the Orinoco mountains, with which they are connected by the Sierra Ussipama of geographers. "Whenever this chain crosses any of the rivers which have been under my investigation, it forms large cataracts—viz., those of Twasinki and Ouropocari in the Essequibo, Itabrou and the Christmas cataracts in the river Berbice, and the great cataracts in the river Corentyn. The highest peak appears to be the mountains of St. George at the Mazaroni, the Twasinki and Maccary on the Essequibo (the latter rising about 1100 feet above the river), and the

mountains of Itabrou on the Berbice, the highest of which, according to my barometrical admeasurement, was 662 feet above the river, and 828 above the sea. This chain appears to be connected with the Sierra Acarai, by the Marowini mountains, and I am inclined to consider it the old boundary of the Atlantic, the geological features of the chain conducing to such a supposition.*

The culminating point of this range is the famous Roraima mountains, about three and a half miles long, but of inconsiderable breadth. From its eastern side flows the river Cotinga, which mingles its waters with those of the Takutu, Branco, and Negro, and ultimately falls into the Amazon.

Roraima is the name given by the Indians (signifying "red rock") to the highest point of a range of sandstone mountains, in latitude 5 deg. 9 min. 30 sec. north, longitude 60 deg. 47 min. west.

"This remarkable mountain group extends twenty-five miles in a north-west and south-east direction, and rises to 5000 feet above the table-land, or 7500 feet above the sea, the upper 1500 feet presenting a mural precipice, more striking than I have ever seen elsewhere. These stupendous walls are as perpendicular as if erected with the plumb-line; nevertheless, in some parts they are overhung with low shrubs, which, seen at a distance, give a dark hue to the reddish rock, and an appearance of being altered by the action of the atmosphere. Down the face of these mountains rush numerous cascades, which, falling from this enormous height, flow in different directions to form the tributaries of three of the largest rivers in South America—namely, the Amazon, the Orinoco, and the Essequibo.

"These mountains form the separation of waters of

* Schomburgk.

the basins of the Orinoco and Essequibo on the north, and the Amazon on the south; and they are, therefore, of the greatest importance in dividing the boundary of British Guiana."*

The waters collected in such abundance on the summit of these heights are supposed by Sir R. Schomburgk to be occasioned by condensation from cold, as the thermometer stood at midnight at 59 deg. Fahrenheit. He further remarks: "The geological character of this is sandstone, with grains of quartz and particles of decomposed feldspar." Romantic and poetical as are these sublimities of nature, they are duly appreciated by the Indians. Their traditions and songs bear constant allusion to this magnificent creation. In their dances they sing of "Roraima, the red-rocked, wrapped in clouds, the ever fertile source of streams;" and, in consequence of the darkness which frequently prevails when thick clouds hover about its summit, it is likewise called the night mountain; "of Roraima, the red-rocked, I sing, where with daybreak the night still prevails."

Several other mountains form with Roraima a sort of quadrilateral arrangement, of which Roraima is the highest point, and the most south-easterly in direction. This quadrangle, according to Sir Robert Schomburgk, "occupies, from south-east to north-west, ten geographical miles. The names of these mountains are Cukenam, Ayang-Catsibang, and Marima."

A rocky height named Irwarkarima is distant about two miles from Ayang-Catsibang. It is bold and rocky, and attains an elevation of about 3600 feet. It is remarkable for an urn-shaped rock on its eastern end, which is about 466 feet high, and at its widest part 381 feet. Next to this height are the Wayaca, Carauringlebuh, Yuruariuma, and Irutibuh, which conclude the group.

* Schomburgk.

Not far from Roraima is the mountain Kaimari, about 4000 feet above the level of the sea. Tracts of pure white clay or decomposed feldspar are met with in it, also a few blocks of compact feldspar of a bluish colour. White clay is, however, found in several other places, and might usefully be employed in the manufacture of ware. Red jasper, or hornstone, is frequently met with in the vicinity of Roraima.

Such are some of the principal mountain ranges of the colony, which divide it, as it were, from the vast plains and wooded lands of the western part of the continent.

Enclosed between these rocky regions and the waters of the Atlantic the rest of the face of the country is marked by a few, but grand features—such as wide-spread savannahs, illimitable forests, undulating plains, gigantic rivers, and the various natural curiosities which present themselves to the traveller.

The term “savannah” has been indiscriminately applied to a variety of grassy, marshy spots, which, however, differ widely from each other. The savannahs met with here may be reduced to about three or four different kinds, and the number of them met with throughout this colony is very remarkable.

The first variety which I shall notice are those which are met with between the rivers Demerara and Corentyn. These are in general large tracts of swampy land, some of which are covered with tall, rank grasses, the abode of reptiles and aquatic birds—such as the stork and rail, &c.; but others are well suited for grazing purposes. In some places they approach the sea-shore, as at the river Berbice, where miles of them occur.

Apparently similar to this kind of savannahs are those which are met with about the rivers and creeks; although not so large in extent, they are covered with a variety

of tall grasses, and afford places of resort to the wild duck, the bittern, rail, and other birds. Some of these savannahs, however, are far from being sterile; those which lie between Demerara and Berbice are admirably suited to the grazing of cattle, and are so used at the present day. Many of the cattle, however, stray, and in these extensive domains become absolutely wild.

A second variety of savannahs consists of those great tracts of marshy land which are encompassed, according to an intelligent traveller,* "by the Sierra Pacaraima to the north, the Cannucu, Taripona, and Carawaimi mountains to the south, the thick forests of the Essequibo and isolated mountains to the east, and the mountains of the Mocajahi, and offsets of the Sierra Parima, to the west."

They are about 14,400 square miles in extent, and have evidently been submerged at no very distant period. These great savannahs are traversed by tortuous streams, whose course may often be traced afar off by an irregular row of trees, which fringe the otherwise scarcely perceptible banks. The same authority informs us that these savannahs are merely covered with grasses and a few stunted trees, except in some places, where tufts of trees rise like verdant isles, or oases in a desert, from amidst these plains.

"This tract contains the lake Amucu, which in the dry season is of small extent, and overgrown with rushes; but during the rainy season it not only inundates the adjacent low countries, but its waters, as I have been assured by Indians, run partly eastward into the Rupuni, and partly westward into the Rio Branco. The small river Pirara has its sources somewhat south of Lake Amucu, flowing through it towards the Rio Mahu. On

* Sir Robert Schomburgk.

the banks of this small lake stands the Macusi village Pirara."

According to Sir Robert Schomburgk, "the geological structure of this region leaves but little doubt that it was once the bed of an inland lake, which by one of those catastrophes, of which even later times give us examples, broke its barrier, forcing for its waters a path to the Atlantic. May we not connect with the former existence of this inland sea the fable of the Lake Parima and the El Dorado? Thousands of years may have elapsed; generations may have been buried and returned to dust; nations who once wandered on its banks may be extinct, and even no more in name: still the tradition of the Lake Parima and the El Dorado survived these changes of time; transmitted from father to son, its fame was carried across the Atlantic, and kindled the romantic fire of the chivalric Raleigh." The vegetation of the districts about the river Rupununi, where this description of savannah is met with, is far from being luxuriant. It consists of arid sands upon a clay substratum, and is unproductive. Similar to this sterile kind of savannah is that met with behind many of the estates on the Arabice coast of Essequibo.

A third variety of savannah is peculiar to the inland portions of this continent, and, although hardly within the limits of British Guiana Proper, requires some notice here, especially as throwing some light on this misapplied word.

These tracts of land are of varying extent, but are marked by an entire absence of hills or irregularities of any kind; hence the term llanos, or plains, which have been applied to them by travellers and others.

According to Humboldt,* "the savannahs, improperly

* Cosmos.

called by some prairies, are true steppes (llanos and pampas of South America). They present a rich covering of verdure during the rainy season, but in the months of drought the earth assumes the appearance of a desert. The turf becomes reduced to powder, the earth gapes in huge cracks. The crocodiles and great serpents lie in a dormant state in the dried mud, until the return of rains and the rise of the waters in the great rivers, which, flooding the vast expanse of level surface, awake them from their slumbers. These appearances are often exhibited over an arid surface of fifty to sixty square leagues; everywhere, in short, where the savannah is not traversed by any of the great rivers."

This description of savannah has been, however, considered by others as the bed of an inland lake, which at some time or other has burst through its banks, and by degrees become gradually dried up. These sterile savannahs are the deserts of the American continent. The hardy grasses which abound are the resort of the serpent and the stork, and present, whether flooded or dried up, a cheerless aspect to the traveller.

Far different to the barren savannahs are the magnificent forests which present to the eye an unfading garment of green, varying in tint from the darkest to the lightest hue. Here are to be seen majestic trees, larger and statelier than the oak; here entwine in voluptuous negligence numerous pliant vines, interlacing and encircling the larger trees, and named by the colonists bush ropes. Here flourish the varieties of the broad-leaved palms, the numerous native fruit trees, and a host of others possessing medicinal and other valuable properties; whilst minute mosses, innumerable lichens, and a variety of ferns and parasitic plants crowd together in social luxuriance; orchideous plants in amazing numbers, perched on the gigantic and forked branches of trees, seeking only for a resting-place,

appear to inhale from the air alone (though so densely crowded by inhabitants) the pabulum which supports their capricious and singular existence.

The whole earth is life, the very air is life, and the foot of man can scarcely tread upon an inch of ground in this magazine of Nature's wonders without crushing some graceful plant or beauteous flower, so densely is it inhabited, so united, peaceful, and thriving are its denizens. The very beams of the bright sun are excluded from these secret haunts. Its rays glance only on the fanciful and glistening leaves which form a veil or mantle to the treasures they conceal. How true and beautiful again is the language of Humboldt, for not alone were trees, and shrubs, and plants glorying in existence; the forest, still and silent as the grave, seemed a city for the reception of all things living save man. "Yet amid this apparent silence, should one listen attentively, he hears a stifled sound, a continued murmur, a hum of insects that fill the lower strata of the air. Nothing is more adapted to excite in man a sentiment of the extent and power of organic life.

"Myriads of insects crawl on the ground, and flutter round the plants scorched by the sun's heat. A confused noise issues from every bush, from the decayed trunks of trees, the fissures of the rocks, and from the ground, which is undermined by lizards, millipedes, and blind worms. It is a voice proclaiming to us that all nature breathes, that under a thousand different forms life is diffused, in the cracked and dusty soil as in the bosom of the waters, and in the air that circulates around us."

Timber trees in every variety, fruit trees in astonishing profusion, medicinal plants of singular efficacy, shrubs and flower-plants in inexhaustible numbers, are found within these fruitful forests, in whose branches nestle a world of birds. The shrill scream of the parrot at morning and evening rends the air, while plaintive and slow

strains may be heard at times from the maam and the powie. The rich plumage of the numerous bird tribes, and their peculiar and varied notes, form a marked contrast to the mute but grand assemblage of living plants. The magnitude and grandeur of these vast forests are almost incredible, save to eye-witnesses. The Indian, the melancholy lord of the soil, alone appreciates their gorgeous beauty and soothing solitudes.

The magnificent rivers of the colony next demand attention; they are the connecting links between the inhabited civilised shores, and the lonely but romantic scenery of the interior.

The river Demerara* is about a mile and a half wide where it joins the Atlantic, and runs in a tortuous course, in a southerly direction, a distance of about 200 miles, and is lost in a small group of mountains which approach the Essequibo in 4 deg. 28 min. north latitude, and are called the Maccary. Its exact origin is not known, but it is said to arise from two small streams: one from the south-west, the other from the south-east, which unite to form this river. For about 100 miles up this stream is navigable for small vessels, and many brigs and barques have sailed nearly that distance to load with timber; the tide extends likewise so far; after that, a great number of rapids and cataracts impede the traveller's progress; and the Indians, in their slight canoes, can scarcely find a pathway. Some of these cataracts are very large, and difficult to overcome. The river receives but few and unimportant tributaries in its course; these are called creeks, and are first met with about two hours' tide; they flow with it on the right and left; some of them, narrow and shallow in their course, meander for many miles through marshy savannahs or wooded plains, occasionally expanding into

* This river was called Lemdrare by Raleigh and his followers; Rio De Mirara by the Spaniards; and Innemary, or Demerary, by the Dutch.

lakes, or shrivelled up into almost impassable beds of water. These creeks are almost abandoned by the natives; a few wood-cutting establishments, and scattered bands of squatters, fast sinking into barbarism, occupy their dreary borders.

As a marked contrast, however, the banks of the Demerara, for about thirty miles, are studded with thriving estates, dwelling-houses, and villages. The tall chimneys of the former, wreathed in smoke, stand like sentinels along the winding stream.

The further you proceed from Georgetown, which is situated on the eastern bank of the river at its embouchure, the traces of civilisation become less distinct, the river narrows considerably, and along its savage and uncleared borders bands of almost lawless Africans and creole negroes live in a state of primitive simplicity. The more honest and industrious have assembled in rude villages, and earn a livelihood by raising ground provisions and cutting wood.

Early in the morning hundreds of corials, deeply loaded with produce, charcoal or wood, may be seen gliding with the tide towards the Georgetown market, and returning in the evening with goods purchased in the city. The tiny and grotesque sails of many are now spread to catch the afternoon breeze, and quickly, if not often safely, the little fleet of boats are scattered over the river, dotting the stream in all directions.

The more ignorant or lazy of the squatters, however, employ themselves in stealing from the others, and, retiring to the secluded creeks or gloomy forests, lead an unprofitable life of savage barbarism.

Situated in the vicinity of larger rivers, the river Demerara loses that importance to which it is otherwise entitled. Its current is very powerful, especially towards its mouth, where it has been computed to flow as rapidly as seven or eight knots an hour, and the under-cur-

rents or eddies must be equally powerful, and act much in the manner of whirlpools, for it has become notorious, by experience, that few persons who have the misfortune to fall into its stream are saved: whether borne away and sucked under by the eddying wave, or devoured by the greedy sharks, which in hundreds abound at its mouth, it is difficult to determine; but the melancholy fact still obtains, and has rendered the mariner cautious and wary in his sports.

The colour of this remarkable river (the supposed origin of its name being De Mirar, or the Wonderful) is of a dirty yellow, being in fact occasioned by the clayey soil or mud which (having been washed down by its rapid waters, and rendering turbid and thick the otherwise pure current of the stream) is deposited at its mouth in banks or deposits of mud-flats, forming natural barriers at the entrance of the stream to any very large vessels.

A bar (as it is here called) of mud "extends about four miles to seaward, with only nine feet of water at half-flood, but the channel along the eastern shore has nineteen feet of water at high tide."* The very beach at its mouth is composed of mud; occasionally large quantities of sand or caddy† drift towards the land, and form temporary beaches, but shortly disappear, and are carried higher up the coast, to return again at varying periods; it should be stated that sand-hills from 100 to 150 feet high, and nearly perpendicular, are met with about thirty miles from the mouth of the river. Numerous islands of variable size obstruct, but not materially, the navigation of the river; the first of any importance, about twenty miles up, was named Borselen, and was afterwards made the head-quarters of the Dutch, and the capital of this settlement.

* Schomburgk.

† The term caddy is applied to a substance composed of comminuted shells, sand, and soil; but chiefly the former.

The river Essequibo, the largest in British Guiana, was called by the Indians "Aranauma;" by Hakluyt, "Devoritia, or Dessekeber;" and is supposed to have received its present name from one of the officers of Diego Columbus—D. Juan Essequibel. Deriving its origin in the Acarai mountains, forty-one miles north of the equator, it pursues a tortuous course for about 600 miles, and discharges its black, but pellucid, waters by four separate channels into the Atlantic Ocean. At its embouchure, or mouth, it is about twenty miles broad. The four channels alluded to are formed by three large islands, which stand crowned with perennial foliage, like monarchs on the frontiers of this watery realm.

These islands became afterwards cultivated, and are now known as—1st. Tiger, or Arowabische Island, about ten miles long, on which three estates have long been in cultivation. 2nd. Leguan* (the most eastern island) is about twelve miles long. In 1770 it had eight or nine coffee estates, and was subsequently laid out in sugar estates. 3rd. Waakenaam,† or Margarita Island, is about fifteen miles long, and had in 1770 about three sugar and four coffee estates.

Most of the estates on the island of Leguan have been partially, some wholly, abandoned; a few, however, are still in active and successful cultivation. In 1829 the sugar crop from about twenty estates was 10,905,911lbs.; while in 1849 it had decreased to 2,504,215lbs.

In Waakenaam, there were formerly twenty estates in active operation; some of these have since failed, but there are still many large and valuable properties. The sugar crop has decreased about 6,000,000lbs. within the last twenty years.

* Leguan derives its name from El Guano, in consequence of the prevalence of guanos—a species of lizard.

† Waakenaam signifies in want of a name.

Numerous other islands in luxuriant beauty are also negligently strewed throughout its course,* some large, some small, all lovely, and said to equal in number the days of the year. In its serpentine course the river Essequibo traverses valleys of surpassing richness and mountains of great height, which, rising from 3000 to 4000 feet above its banks, cast their fearful shadows over its waves. The sombre forests approach in some places to the very water's edge, and the granite rock, with the mouldering forest trees, sink down together beneath its current. The dark colour of the water has been the surprise of every visitor. Regarded at a distance, it looks absolutely black and opaque, but a nearer approach reveals its translucency and bronze-like tinge. It has been supposed by a scientific colonist† that this tint is derived from the iron of the granite rocks, as the waters are as dark at their source as at their termination; but another authority‡ (and with more reason) attributes the stain to the impregnation of carbonaceous or decayed vegetable matter, and remarks, that where any of its branches traverse a different kind of soil to alluvium, as, for instance, a savannah, the colour becomes lighter.

Possibly the two causes assigned, acting together, produce this curious result. Be this as it may, the river Essequibo has other equally singular features. Flowing generally from south to north, it receives a host of tributary streams. Thousands of little rivulets descending from mountain steeps, and meandering along verdant plains and through rocky passes, combine to form the mighty branches which pour their strength into the parent stream. Many of these streamlets are derived from sources not far from the origin or bed of the

* The names of many of these are characteristic; thus the largest are known as Hog, Fort, Lowlow, and Troolie Islands.

† Mr. Hillhouse.

‡ Hancock, p. 40.

great Orinoco. In their course the tributaries of the Essequibo sweep over ledges of rocks of varying magnitude, forming cascades of every size, from the simple rapids to the gigantic cataract. "Some of these falls are most difficult of ascent; the Caboory, for instance, is full thirty feet high, in four different ledges, and requiring one hour's hard labour to get over a space of about 100 yards. The rapids do not run in one sheet over a level ledge, but force themselves through a number of large intermediate blocks of granite, dividing the different hoots of the fall."* The noise of some of the larger cataracts is heard at a distance of several miles. The principal rivers, which like veins flow into one common trunk, are the Cuyuni and Mazaruni, whose united streams, about a mile in width, reach the Essequibo about thirty miles from its mouth; the Potaro, or Black River, from the south-west; the Siparuni, or Red River, also from the south-west; the Rupununi, or White River, a large stream about 220 miles long; the Cuyuwini, the Yuawauri, or Cassi Kityon, from the south-west; and the Camoa, or Owangou, also from south-west; and the Wapua and Canerua from the south-east. It would be needless in this place to enter into a description of the different ramifications of these streams, or to dwell upon the innumerable rapids or cataracts which in many places actually obstruct all progress, especially in the Mazaruni.

The consideration of the numerous wooded islands, with their fascinating scenery, of the luxuriant specimens of vegetation, and of the animals and mineral productions, is left to the future scientific explorer, or enterprising naturalist. The curious on this subject may peruse with advantage the information gathered by such travellers as Schomburgk, Hillhouse, Hancock, and Waterton. Fort Island, called by Hartsink Vlag-

* Schomburgk.

gen Island, is situated at its northerly point about three miles from the sea. It formerly possessed a wooden fort, protected with a palisade work (horenwerk), built near a creek, named Schipper Jans Kreek, but this was destroyed, and in 1740 upon the same spot a stone fort was erected, which in 1743 was finished, and called Fort Zelandia. It was quadrangular, with four bulwarks around mounting eighteen or nineteen guns; inside was a triangular redoubt with a flat roof and embrasures serving as a casern for the soldiers and powder magazine. On the waterside was placed a "horenwerk" with palisades, and protected with twelve cannon. Towards building this fort, each plantation had to contribute so many slaves, but when complete, an agreement was entered into between the company and the planters, whereby the former undertook to maintain it without further aid from the latter. The planters also, for their protection, built a battery, which was armed by the company with four metal culverines, and forty swords, and was manned by the people given by the planters. It proved, however, of very little use, and soon was given up.

In 1746 one Rypersberg travelled very far up the Mazaruni, and states that upon the seventh day of his journey, he met with a high pyramid of hewn stone between very high mountains. He felt curious to visit it, but none of the Indians would accompany him, because they said it was the dwelling-place of Sawahou (Devil). The sea of Parima was the supposed El Dorado, and said to be inhabited by Indians of a fair complexion, and who wore clothes. In 1755 several successive attempts were made by the Spaniards to reach it, but failed, owing to the opposition shown by Indian and other dangers; four of these clothed Indians were taken prisoners, and were said to have been seen by many persons of veracity.

The governor of Essequibo, in 1756, sent thither to procure some of these people, but failed. Post Arinda was the furthest post of the Dutch, on an island close to the falls. The river is here very wide, and studded with islands. In this neighbourhood was a kind of metal like lead, so soft that it could be cut; higher up, and near the river Sibaroua were found mines of crystal; and still higher up, a volcanic mountain, said to have been discovered in 1749. On the banks of the Essequibo there were formerly about sixty estates, near the mouth of the river. The land is low and marshy here, but further in is high and mountainous.

Previously to quitting this account of our earliest historical river, it is to be observed that the entrance to the many wonders it includes is much obstructed by numerous shoals and sand-banks, which, stretching out to seaward, become sources of danger to unwary navigators.

The sugar-bank stretching three miles seaward from the mouth of the Essequibo, is so called from the wrecks in former years of small boats laden with sugar. Formerly the West India Company of the Chambers of Zealand, who managed Essequibo and Demerara, placed a Brandwagt, or guard-house, on the east bank of the river, with two cannons to announce the approach of ships. Vessels of considerable size, however, having found a safe channel, can proceed for about fifty miles up the river, where the commencement of the rapids terminates at once the tide and the progress of a ship. The banks of the river are remarkable for the number of trees and plants which bathe their sunny leaves in the refreshing stream. Within sight, if not within easy reach, arise lofty hills, their summits often hid in clouds, in wandering to which wild-fowl and game in many places abound, while the river itself furnishes numerous kinds of fish. There are

no estates to be seen at present on the borders of this noble stream; its lovely banks are only tenanted by a few impoverished individuals. For many miles no human habitation is visible; the very Indian has deserted the Lower Essequibo; the inevitable bush creeps down to the river's edge; the jabbering monkey, or the startled bird, occasionally breaks the deep silence of the scene; but scarcely an evidence of man's existence is to be traced around. A solitary schooner on its way to the penal settlement, situated on the tributary stream of the Mazaruni, may now and then appear, drifting lazily with the noiseless tide, or an Indian canoe from the quiet missionary settlement at Bartika Point, may be observed stealing silently along the sides of the stream to avoid the objectionable current.

The river Corentyn, or Courantin, separates the British possessions in Guiana from those of the Dutch. It has its origin about the 1st deg. north latitude, and is supposed to rise from the same mountain range as the river Essequibo, at a distance of about twenty-five miles east from the source of that river.

Flowing from the mountains of the sun (Ouanguwai) in a northerly direction, it is impeded in its course between the 4th and 5th parallel of north latitude by the same tract of granitic boulders which cross the rivers Essequibo and Berbice, and which forms a series of formidable cataracts in 4 deg. 20 min., described in another place. The river which had expanded at these rapids now contracts and runs north and north-east until it reaches 5 deg. north latitude, where it flows to the west for about forty miles and receives a large tributary, the river Cabalaba, from the south; further on it is crossed by a range of sandstone rocks, and receives the river Matappe; its course is now to the northwards, and is so tortuous, that in one instance—namely, from the

mouth of the river Paruru to the river Maipuri (small tributaries which flow into it from the westward), it describes almost a circle, the distance by the river being twenty miles, while across the savannah, which here follows its course, it is only one and three-quarter miles. Further on it receives the rivers Wasiappe on the right, and Oreala on the left; the cliffs about Oreala consist of horizontal beds of siliceous conglomerate with sandstone, grains of quartz, and calcareous schistose clay of a bluish colour, and occasionally beds of loose sand and shale; these cliffs stretch north and south; they contain no organic remains; behind them stretch extensive savannahs; opposite to Oreala is Semira, the site of an old Moravian mission, and now consisting of an impoverished settlement. From Oreala the river flows in a northerly course, through a level country, for about fifty miles, and, receiving the tributary river Nickeri on its right bank close to the sea-coast, discharges its turbid waters into the Atlantic. At the mouth of the Nickeri is the Dutch settlement of the same name, with a small garrison and a sea-battery. Opposite to Nickeri, on the British side, was formerly the plantation Mary's Hope; three miles to the northward of this plantation, or in latitude 6 deg. 5 min. north, a soft mud-flat, called the Bar of the River, extends in a direction south-east by east to the distance of seven and a half miles, with a depth of seven and a half feet of water over it at low tide; the mouth of the river, estimated between Mary's Hope and Nickeri, is about ten miles wide; but between Gordon's Point and Plantation Allness, which by some are considered as the extreme points of the mouth of the Corentyn, the distance is eighteen miles.

A sand-bank is situated at the entrance of the river, which is about one mile long from north to south, and about half a mile in breadth, and forms two channels for

vessels to enter; the windward, or eastern, channel is the deepest; it has eight and a half feet water at low water; but at spring tides rises eight and a half feet higher, and at neap three feet; this channel is about two miles wide; while the westerly, or leeward, is shallower, but about the same width. The current of the river is very strong in the wet season, generally from three to four knots an hour, but sets fortunately in the direction of the river. The river Corentyn is navigable as far as the river Cabalaba, for boats that do not draw more than seven feet water, the distance being about 150 miles from the sea, if measured along the windings of the stream. In its course numerous sand-banks and islands are met with; thus in 5 deg. 55 min. north latitude it forms an estuary with navigable channels between the sand and mud-banks.

The river Berbice has its origin probably about the 3rd parallel of north latitude, flowing at first in a north-west direction through a swampy country intersected by offshoots of the Cannucu mountains, which give rise to the formation of innumerable rapids and occasional cascades. In 3 deg. 55 min. north latitude it has assumed the extreme limits of its westerly course, and approaches within about nine miles of the river Essequibo. There is an old path overland to this river across a fertile soil abounding in palm-trees, as well as the crabwood (*Carapa Guianensis*), the souari (*Caryocar tuber-culosum*), the yaruri, the amara, bignonia, and other trees; occasional swamps have to be traversed in following the narrow pathway which leads from one river to the other. The Berbice from hence takes a northerly course, and becomes very narrow and tortuous; now contracting to a width of only ten yards, in other places spreading out into lake-like expansions. The banks are low and marshy, and are not unfrequently under water. The stream now

flows in varying width through a wild and savage wilderness, its banks fringed by the prickly pear, and its current impeded by dense masses of a species of solanum, which is found in abundance. It pursues its winding course to 4 deg. 20 min. north latitude, when boulders of granite rock stud the river, which has previously received a small tributary, called the Black River, from the west. After passing the boulders, numerous cataracts and rapids obstruct the navigation for about fifty miles. The river before had been narrow, studded with islets, and fed by numerous inlets, with palm-trees on its banks, and had traversed a fertile soil impregnated with a chalky marl. It is now crossed by offshoots of the mountain chains already described. In this romantic region the famous Victoria Regia lily was discovered in 1836 by Sir Robert Schomburgk.*

In its rapid and tortuous course the river forms the Christmas Cataract; a series of rapids succeed, and further north it rushes from its northerly bank over a dyke of rocks, giving rise to the Itabru Cataract. The stream now expands into lake-like basins, at other times narrowing, and becomes almost hidden as it flows between the numerous rocks and hills which overhang its banks. The last cataract is in 4 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and after passing the rapids called Marlissae, the river is now free for ordinary boat navigation. In 4 deg. 55 min. north latitude the influence of the tide commences, and the distance from here is about 165 miles to the sea, if the course of the river is followed. A little before reaching this spot the stream becomes less tortuous, and is about eighty yards broad; on its banks are ledges of granitic rocks, of a red colour, with a smooth surface, and coated over with a thick crust of the black oxide of manganese. On these rocks there are

* Ascent of the river Berbice, 1836-7. Transactions of the Royal Geographical Society.

traces of picture-writing, called Tehmehri by the natives, somewhat similar to those found at Warapoota, on the river Essequibo, and other places. From the 5th parallel north latitude the course of the river is in a north-eastern direction to its outflow into the Atlantic. A small brook, the Yariki, flows into it shortly after it has taken this curve; the river now becomes shallow, with numerous inlets, and the last traces of the trappean rocks are met with, distant about seventy miles in a direct line from the sea. From its western bank a path is shortly reached which leads to the river Demerara, while on the eastern side, a little lower down the stream, a similar path conducts to the river Corentyn. The tributary stream of the Yuacari now enters the river from the westward, and if this brook is followed a two days' journey along its banks and one overland, will likewise lead the traveller to the river Demerara. The river next flows through a sandy district, some of the hills of which are 100 feet in height, from the summit of which a fine undulating and wooded landscape may be seen. The stream after this again becomes narrow and tortuous, numerous inlets, called Itabu, occur, and patches of coarse long grass (*Panicum*) and Mocco-Mocco (*Caladium arborescens*) obstruct its course. The Monbacca, a small tributary, joins the river on its eastern side, and lower down, the river Moracco enters it on the opposite direction, where there is a wood-cutting establishment in active operation. Another small stream, the Kabiribirie, famous for the coldness of its waters, and the Paripi, likewise join the river. At the junction of the latter several sand-hills or reefs extend close to the western bank. About ten miles further north, the river Wickie flows into it from the east, behind which extends a marshy district. Sand-hills now succeed, and the valuable wallaba-tree (*Eperua Falcata*) is found plentifully here.

The sandy region extends as far as Peereboom (behind which large savannahs stretch inland), but does not terminate here, for having received the tributary Wieronie in 5 deg. 42 min. north latitude, the former site of an old redoubt and church, and the small river Moshieba and the brook Kaderbicie lower down, the river flows through hillocks of sand termed Hitia by the natives, and narrowed at this point in its course, emerges from the last trace of rising or elevated land. These hillocks are fifty feet in height, and are distant about thirty miles in a direct line from the coast. In 5 deg. 50 min. north latitude it makes a sweep to the north-west, at the southern angle of which is the site of old Fort Nassau, forty-five miles from the mouth of the river along its windings; lower down, the river receives the rivulet Abari-Itabu, which connects it with the river Abari, and beyond this two smaller streams from the north-west, the former situation of Plantation Daagerad. In 6 deg. north latitude the stream is about a mile in width, and makes a considerable bend, remarkable for the strength of the bore, which occasionally rises from twelve to fifteen feet, and proves dangerous to the inexperienced.

After this it is only about half a mile wide, until it approaches New Amsterdam, which is situated a little above the junction of the river Canje, which flows into the Berbice from the east. A short distance from the embouchure of the river a low and bushy island, about a mile in circumference, called Crab Island, is placed in the centre of the stream, and divides it into two navigable channels, of which the eastern is the deepest, being from seventeen to twenty feet at high water. On the eastern bank of the river, opposite Crab Island, are the ruins of old Fort St. Andrew, which formerly mounted eighteen twelve-pounders, and was admirably placed both for offence and defence.

The river Waini, or Guainia, is a small stream, which, rising about the 7th parallel of north latitude, flows for its first half in a north-east, and subsequently in a north-west, direction, anastomosing with several other rivers in its course until it empties itself into the ocean. Shallows and sand-banks block up the entrance here of large vessels, but as it has a navigable channel of twelve to eighteen feet at high water, it may be navigated by schooners and other smaller craft.

A passage, known as the Mora Passage, connects it with the river Barima, which stream, rising in the neighbourhood of the Sierra Imataca, 7 deg. north latitude, flows to the north and west until it reaches the Orinoco close to the Atlantic. At its mouth it labours under similar disadvantages with the Waini; but if once entered, it offers an uninterrupted navigation to vessels of from 250 to 300 tons burthen as high as the junction of the Aruka. Towards the latter part of its course the soil is flat, marshy, and fertile, and covered with the inevitable courida and mangrove trees. By means of the Aruka and Aruan streams it becomes connected with the river Amacura, which, rising about the 8th parallel of north latitude, runs in a north and north-west course towards the Atlantic, where its waters are discharged a little to the westward of the river Barima. But the two rivers Barima and Amacura might be more readily brought into communication by cutting a canal across the portage. Numerous rivulets join the Barima on both its banks, which are, more or less, occupied by the Warraus, with a few families of Waikis.

The river Pomeroon rises about the 7th-parallel of north latitude, and flows for about forty miles in a northerly course until it reaches the sea in 7 deg. 50 min. north latitude, and 59 deg. west longitude. The entrance

to the river is narrow, and bounded on the eastern side by a projecting tongue of land which is called Cape Nassau; the land here is low and woody, and numerous sand-banks extend seaward in front of it.

It was on the eastern side of this river that the first settlements of the Dutch were made in 1580; the sites of the two settlements of Nieu Middleburg and Nova Zelandia are to be seen marked on an old map of the country published in 1759 by Laurens Lodewyk Van Bercheyck. There were formerly many English and Dutch settlers on this river, and many flourishing plantations existed, traces of which remain to the present day. Block houses and stations for the troops were situated along part of the coast, which was not unfrequently visited by Spanish and other privateers in search of plunder. The sea is very rough about the entrance of the river, and the "rollers" or breakers render it at times somewhat dangerous. This river has water communication inland through its tributaries with the river Morocco, and by this latter with the rivers Waini and Barima, so that an inland navigation may be said to exist from the river Essequibo to the Orinoco.

Besides the above, there are the rivers Mahaica, Mahaicony, and Abari, which flow between the larger rivers of Demerara and Berbice. A number of smaller streams or creeks are likewise found, meandering for miles through the most varied landscapes, and opening to the ocean or into the larger streams.

The cataracts and rapids met with in the course of the noble rivers of this province are both numerous and interesting. They are occasioned by the rivers having forced their way through mountain ridges of primitive rocks, which traverse the country in irregular and undulating chains of varying height. At the narrowest part of most of the rivers they succeed each other rapidly; in

other places they are met at short distances from each other, but on the same line, at a part of the river where it has expanded into a kind of lake, and where huge boulders of rocks are strewn across the path of the torrent, as if intent on checking its further progress, but the impetuous stream dashes onwards, and, divided into several currents by the masses of rock in its way, constitutes in its flight and fall those numerous and picturesque cascades which now require our consideration.

However beautiful these are—however exciting to the wearied spirits of the traveller, they yet prove a difficult and sometimes dangerous impediment to his onward course. A few of these cataracts, and many of the rapids, may indeed be passed in the light corials of the Indian tribes, and with the assistance of their calm and skilful piloting, but, as a general rule, it is a dangerous experiment, and one that is rather to be avoided if possible than to be incurred.

In the river Demerara there is but one cataract which merits any notice; it has received the name of the great "Fall of the river Demerara," but is disparagingly spoken of by Robert Schomburgk, who visited it in March, 1837. I have been assured, however, by his Excellency Governor Barkly, who saw it in 1851, that it is a cataract of considerable importance; the height of the whole fall has been estimated at about sixty feet. It is situated about 300 miles from the mouth of the river.

The cataracts and rapids met with in following the course of the river Essequibo are both numerous and beautiful, and as several of the large tributary streams which flow into it are equally studded with these singular formations, it would be tedious to attempt to enter into anything like a formal account of them. To those who are desirous of becoming more acquainted with

them, the accounts furnished by Schomburgk,* Hillhouse, and others, are recommended, unless they possess the leisure and inclination to visit these romantic spots themselves.

Independently of smaller rapids at and after its origin, the course of the Essequibo, after it has received the large tributary stream of Cuyuni in 2 deg. 16 min. north latitude, is, for the distance of about seventy miles, so impeded by cataracts, that it is barely navigable for the small canoes of the natives. It forms, in 3 deg. 15 min. north latitude, a large cataract called William the Fourth's Cataract. Its longitude is 57 deg. 19 min. 54 sec. west. "The river here is narrowed in by mountains to about fifty yards, and precipitates itself with great force over two ledges of rock about twenty-four feet high."

Before the river Rupununi (which has a course of about 229 miles) joins the Essequibo in 4 deg. north latitude, it forms a large cataract in 2 deg. 39 min. This, the largest cataract of the Rupununi, is called by the Wapisianas the Cutatarua, or Truan, and by the Caribs the Corona, signifying respectively "the fall."

After the junction of the Rupununi, another cataract, the Orotoko, obstructs the Essequibo, and further on the cataract of Waraputa appears, until, about fifty miles from its mouth, the last rapids are formed.

The river Berbice is obstructed in its course by a great number of cataracts and rapids. In some places they extend for upwards of a mile and a half in length. The Itabru cataract occurs in a spot where the river is encompassed by a range of hills from 200 to 600 feet high; the fall takes place in 4 deg. 49 min. north latitude, and 58 deg. west longitude. Huge blocks of

* Reports to Royal Geographical Society.

light green chert and decomposing claystone porphyry lie scattered at the sides of the cataract, while one boulder, larger than the rest, awaits at the foot of the fall the shock of the waters dashed against it. The Christmas Cataracts, so named by Sir R. Schomburgk on account of their having been seen upon that day, are situated in 40 deg. 42 min. north latitude, and 57 deg. 54 min. west longitude. They consist of a succession of falls, picturesque in their course, but difficult to surmount. Mr. Reiss, a young man of twenty-two years of age, who accompanied the expedition up this river, was drowned here on the 12th February, 1837. He ventured imprudently to descend one of these falls in a corial manned by Indians. In the rapidity of the descent he lost his balance, and, in endeavouring to recover himself, upset the frail bark. The Indians saved themselves, but the unfortunate European was carried away by the rapids, and his mangled body with difficulty recovered after a long search.

The cataracts met with in the course of the river Corentyn are exceedingly interesting, and are perhaps the largest in the colony. A chain of rocks crossing the river about the 4th parallel of north latitude gives rise to the following falls:

Sir James Carmichael Smyth's Cataract is situated in 4 deg. 21 min. north latitude, and 57 deg. 25 min. west longitude. It is called by the Indians Wanare-Wono-Tobo, and is probably the largest fall of water in British Guiana. The impetuous river rushes violently over a ledge of rocks to a depth of upwards of thirty perpendicular feet. A cloud of spray ascends from the foaming stream below, and adds considerably to the beauty of the scene, composed as it is of huge boulders of rocks, and a gorgeous mass of tropical trees on the river banks. A large boulder of rock separates this cataract from another cas-

cade, which, however, is only to be seen when the river is very full; this has received the name of Governor Barkly's Fall. A little higher up the stream, the body of water diverges in several channels, and at an angle of 60 deg. rushes into a beautiful valley formed by gigantic piles of rocks. The two cascades composing these falls are close together, and present a magnificent sight to the observer.

The greatest height of the next principal fall is, however, only twenty-five feet. It is known by the name of Sir John Barrow's Cataract, but the Indians term it Wotebo-Tobo, from the fact of a fancied resemblance of a particular rock to the human thigh-bone. The centre, or smaller fall has been termed the Middle Fall, and is separated from the others by large masses of rock. The four falls above enumerated cannot be seen at one and the same time. They require to be visited separately, but amply repay the toil and trouble of the traveller, who must force his way along the wooded banks, or encamp upon the projecting rocks or sand-banks, to examine them properly.

On the river Parámu, or Padamo, one of the streams which run into the river Orinoco, there are, perhaps, a greater number of cataracts and rapids than in any other river of British Guiana. Many of them are also of considerable size. One of these, the Mariwacaru, has a fall of thirty feet over a ledge of rocks. Again, where the river Kundanara joins the Paramu, two large cataracts are met with, which, from their size and the picturesque beauty of their situation, have been much expatiated on by travellers.

On the river Barama there is a succession of cataracts, with a fall of about 120 feet in a distance of two miles; but as the stream is very tortuous, they are not seen to

any great advantage. "The grandest sight is offered by the three upper falls, where the river, narrowing into about eighty feet, rushes turbulently down the precipice in three jets, and forms, in the distance of about 100 yards, a fall of thirty-five to forty feet perpendicular."* This part of the fall is called Dowocaima, and the scenery around it is exceedingly picturesque. The ledges of rock are composed of gneiss.

On the river Branco, or Parima, there is a very interesting fall of water, which has received the name of Purumama Iméru. It is formed apparently by the stream forcing its way through a chain of small hillocks, which cross it here. Its latitude is 3 deg. 20 min. north; its longitude 62 deg. 3 min. west. A first fall of about forty-five feet occurs, followed by another of about twenty-five feet.

The natural curiosities met with in the interior of British Guiana, among its mountains, its savannahs, and its magnificent rivers, are some of them very remarkable, and require a particular notice. From the period of its earliest discovery up to the present time, eloquent writers have expatiated on the striking scenes and objects which have presented themselves to their notice.

It is not in the neighbourhood of the coasts, or near the banks of the rivers (although even here the luxuriance of the foliage and breadth of water is very striking), that a stranger should judge of the country. He must pass by the maritime portion, and leave behind him the interminable forests; he must ascend the rivers, and surmount the numerous rapids and cataracts; he must quit the equable but enervating temperature of the low lands, and ascend the granite mountains and sandstone

* Report of Chevalier Schomburgk's Expedition up the Barima and Cuyuni Rivers in 1841.

heights, where the thermometer ranges from 59 deg. to 95 deg. Fah. in the shade, in order to appreciate the grandeur and beauty of the scenery; and to trace with awe, wonder, and admiration the picturesque objects which stud the wooded plains and wandering streams.

Description fails to record, with anything like truth, this magnificent scenery; but according to Sir Robert Schomburgk (whose splendid views alone can convey an idea of the country), the greatest geological wonder of Guiana is no doubt Ataraipu, or the Devil's Rock. This singular rock forms a kind of natural pyramid, and is situated on the western bank of the river Guidaru, in 2 deg. 55 min. north latitude. Its base is wooded for about 350 feet; from thence rises the mass of granite, devoid of all vegetation, in a pyramidal form for about 550 feet more; making its whole height about 900 feet above the river Guidaru,* and 1300 feet above the sea. According to the same author: "In latitude 3 deg. 59 min. north longitude, 59 deg. 28 min. west, a remarkable basaltic column, fashioned by Nature, and compared by the Indians to the trunk of a crownless tree, is called Puré-Piapa, or the 'Felled Tree,' and is of great interest. It occupies the summit of a small hillock at the outskirts of the Pacaraima mountains, and is about twenty-five miles north-north-west from the Macusi village of Pirara. This column, the regular form of which would cause any one who viewed it at some distance to suppose it to be the trunk of a decayed tree, is about fifty feet high." This is the smallest of a group of three masses of rocks of a basaltic nature which were met with by this intelligent traveller on a journey from Pirara to Esmeralda. Mara-Etshiba, the highest, terminates on the summit in one abrupt pillar, about fifty feet in height, a portion of which bulging out in the middle of this mass of rock, has, by the ever fruitful

* Guidaru signifies a kind of war club. This river is a tributary of the Essequibo.

imagination of the Indian, been assimilated to the *Maroca*—a large rattle made of the fruit of the calabash-tree, filled with pebbles, feathers, and snake teeth, and which is the indispensable instrument of the *Piatrary*, *Piai-man*, or Indian sorcerer, during his conjurations. Of this columnar group of trap-rocks, the largest has been named by the *Macusis Canuyé-Piapa*, or the *guava-tree stump*.

It is not to be wondered at that three such remarkable objects as the *Mara-Etshiba*, *Canuyé*, and *Puré-Piapa* have given rise to some tradition; the more so, since the Indian who inhabits the mountains is like other mountaineers, more vivid and fanciful in his imagination, and possessed of a larger stock of traditional history than he of the forest or of the plain. Consequently it is related, that when *Makunaima*, the good spirit, wandered still upon earth, he passed these savannahs, and, fatigued and thirsty, he observed a tree on the summit of a hill, which, in the hope of finding it covered with fruit, he cut with a stone axe. He was disappointed, and proceeded further eastward, and discovered the *canuyé*, or *guava-tree*, full of fruit; he cut it likewise, and after having refreshed himself he proceeded on his journey. It appears that whatever *Makunaima* touched was converted into stone, and thus the trees were changed into this substance. Every rock among these mountains, which is of more than ordinary size, or fantastically shaped by nature, is compared to some bird, animal, or tree, and is supposed to have been petrified by the powerful touch of the *Makunaima*. How similarly constituted after all is the mind of man, whether in his savage state or in his most civilised condition. The primitive speculations of the untutored inhabitant of this land approach in character the mythological traditions of ancient Rome.

“The sides of the *Pourae-Piapa*, or *Puré-Piapa* rock, are partially covered with red lichens, and in some places it is more acted on by the weather than in others. The

delusion being increased by a play of colours, the mind can scarcely divest itself of the belief that it is the gigantic trunk of a tree, the head of which, stricken by years, or shivered by lightning, lies mouldering at its foot.*

In the neighbourhood of the rivers fantastic piles of granite are met with; now soaring as columns nearly 200 feet high, now assuming the forms of familiar objects whose names they bear; thus, on the western bank of the Essequibo, two gigantic piles of granite rise from the declivity of a hill to a height of about 140 to 160 feet. One pile, called by the Arrawak Indians Comuti, and by the Caribs Taquiare, signifying in both languages Water-jar, consists of three huge blocks of bluish granite resting one above the other. The first boulder surpasses in size the celebrated pedestal on which the statue of Peter I. is placed; the second is supported on this by only three points, while on this rests another piece of granite, which resembles a jar in shape; and, to the fanciful imagination of the Indians, the resemblance was rendered complete by a fourth, but small piece of granite, which, occupying the summit, serves as a kind of lid to the jar. The other pile of granite alluded to is called Kamaï by the Indians, from its resemblance to the tube, or strainer, which is used by them for expressing the juice of the cassada root before it is made into bread. It is of a pyramidal shape, and by the measurement of a neighbouring pile, which was 160 feet high, attains nearly to the height of 200 feet. These "giants of the hill," as Mr. Waterton has termed them in his "Wanderings," are both of them inaccessible.

It is in this neighbourhood that Sir R. Schomburgk and others have met with specimens of "picture-writing," or Tehmeñri, the name given by the Indians to the rude and fanciful hieroglyphics carved on the rocks of granite in many places in the interior. The rocks on which

* Schomburgk.

these traces are found are singularly hard. With the sharpest instrument or stone it requires hours of hard work to produce even the slightest impression, and yet some of these figures and sketches are described as upwards of a foot in length, and more than an inch deep. Many of the rocks on which these hieroglyphics occur are at present decomposing; some have crumbled away, the figures destroyed; but on others the evidence remains of an untiring zeal and patient assiduity on the part of the Indian, which otherwise we should not have expected to find in his character.

In his illustrated views of British Guiana, Sir R. Schomburgk remarks, in reference to these rude sculpturings :

“ A mystery, not yet solved, hangs over these sculptured rocks; whatever may be their origin, the subject is one of high interest, and demands the full investigation of the antiquarian and historian. I have myself traced these inscriptions through seven hundred miles of longitude, and five hundred of latitude, or scattered here and there over an extent of three hundred and fifty thousand square miles. I have copied many of them, and, although they do not denote an advanced state of civilisation, in my opinion they have a higher origin and signification than that generally ascribed to them; namely, the idle tracings of hunting nations. It is remarkable that the situation of those which I have seen was generally near cataracts and rapids. The Indian races of the present day can give no account of their origin; some ascribe them to the good spirit, others to their forefathers; and the Taruma Indians, on the river Cuyuwine, a tributary of the Upper Essequibo, gave me in answer to the question, who had made the figures which I saw sculptured on some blocks of green stone in that river, ‘ that women had made them long time ago ! ’ ”

The figures represented are of the most varied and singular description—rude outlines of birds, animals, men and women, and other natural objects; but it is not a little curious that among the sculpturings should be found some clumsy sketches of large vessels with masts, as was observed by the above writer, on some granite rocks at the Ilha de Pedra, on the river Negro.

In many places the hieroglyphics appear to represent writing, and the characters have in many instances been traced to bear resemblance to the Hebrew and other dialects; whether this is merely a coincidence, or whether there actually exists a connexion between the languages of the east and west, is a problem for the learned to solve.

On the river Cuowani there are found some granite rocks, on which are sculptured men's faces, full moons, monkeys, snakes, and birds.

My lamented friend, Dr. Bonyun, showed me, on his return from a tour up the river Essequibo, in 1850, a few copies which he had made of some of this picture-writing, which he found traced on granite boulders; and, on comparing them with the characters of the Hebrew alphabet, we were both surprised at the resemblance many of these hieroglyphics bore to the letters.

The only metallic trace throughout these heights has been that of iron; but as strata of quartz are known to intersect the bed of granite met with in different localities, it is possible that metallic veins of tin, copper, or lead, might be found in some of the numerous specimens of soft granite which abound. The general belief which formerly existed with regard to the existence of gold and silver in the mountainous interior, has almost entirely disappeared. It was formerly supposed that gold was to be found at Saxicalli, on the Essequibo; that copper existed in the river Cuyuni; and that at

Kaytan, on the last river, silver ore had been met with.* The Indians themselves afford us no ground for such a conjecture; the reports of modern travellers are unfavourable to their probable existence; and, although in the vicinity of regions formerly, if not now, abounding in the precious metals, as Mexico, Peru, &c., the hopes of the adventurous ended with the mining undertakings so zealously pursued at an early epoch of our history both by the Spaniards and Dutch. Many substances have at different times been mistaken for metallic ores; and the unskilled traveller is often struck with the delusive appearance of glittering veins which traverse the rocky masses, whether on land or water. Many beautiful specimens of the earthy minerals are, however, met with. Crystals of quartz (rock crystals) abound in the mountains; in colour and transparency they vary, but the white translucent kind is most common. A species examined by Hancock, crystallised into hexagonal columns, was met with by him either solitary or standing together, as if agglutinated; they are transparent, of a water-colour, taking a fine polish, and are nearly as hard as agate. So late as the year 1769 the Governor of Essequibo (Gravesande) sent one Gerrit Janssen, post-holder of Arinda, up the rivers Essequibo, Rupununi, and Maho, to seek for the much-talked-of crystal mines. On this last river he met with one of the native tribes, the Wapisianas, who some years before had murdered three Dutchmen. He was questioned by them as to his object in coming to their neighbourhood, and replied that it was to barter with them, and to make their friendship. He was accordingly introduced to one of their chiefs, who received him with great gravity, arranging his people around the stranger. The Dutch-

* In 1721, the Dutch made an attempt to search for silver on the Cuyuni but the little ore discovered would not pay the expenses.

man recognised some friends among them, but the greater number were armed with bows and arrows. He made them a present of some gunpowder, which was thankfully received; and a kind of friendship having been established, he asked permission to continue his search, but was advised not to cross the river Maho, on account of the wicked character of the Indians there, who might murder him. He was told that there were six or seven hillocks of sand, and crystals in that neighbourhood; and the natives offered him specimens of each, but would not allow him to dig in the ground where they were found. These hillocks or columns were in a large savannah, where grass grew plentifully in some parts, and where the ground towards morning, in the dry weather, was covered with a kind of whitish powder, like hoar frost, which the Indians collected and used as salt. No doubt this was a kind of saltpetre (nitrate of potash). After a journey of about six months Janssen returned to the "post," bringing with him specimens of both crystal and saltpetre. Afterwards a mediator, or peace-maker (bulegger), was sent to that part of the country, who confirmed the statement about these crystal columns, and described them as about six in number.

A species of red agate is found in some of the rivers. Dr. Hancock met with it in the Rio Maow. It is very hard, and is capable of being worked.

A species of red rock, reputed cornelian, is found by the Indians at the western mountains of Parime.

In the neighbourhood of the Boraima mountains numerous rock crystals have been found; they are much weathered from exposure, and are only met with of small size. The natives (the Arecunas) say that formerly much larger specimens were met with, but that the Portuguese have carried them all away. These crystal mountains have given rise to much conjecture on the part of tra-

vellers. It is supposed that their existence was first made known to Europeans by the travels of Nicolas Hortsman, 1740.

Since the above was written, gold has been discovered in the river Yuruari, a tributary of the river Cuyuni, and in the Pacaraima mountains, situate between the 4th deg. and 5th deg. north latitude, and 50 deg. and 60 deg. west longitude. This region is, I believe, beyond the defined limits of British Guiana, and is very difficult of access. Some of the gold sent to Georgetown was of a very pure quality, and has been forwarded to the Industrial Exhibition of Dublin. It is found imbedded in masses of quartz, and will probably, at some future day, become of importance to the country of its discovery.

It is here, also, in the neighbourhood of Roraima, that traces are met with of extinct volcanoes. A writer in 1811* states: "The bed of the river, in the dry season, discovers vast quantities of vitrified, stony, and various mineral substances, and appears to have been the seat of volcanic fires at remote periods of time. These volcanic products are chiefly met with among the falls incumbent on beds of granite, where the soil and lighter materials have been washed away."

Many of the stones, or pebbles, which though quite absent near the coasts and alluvial land are yet found in the interior, are of singular colour and formation, being remarkably smooth, and admitting of a wonderful polish; some of these, from their colour and lustre, have been called diamonds—such as the Marowini pebbles—others, such as the cornelian, are used by the natives in forming articles of earthenware. In connexion with the evidences of a volcanic trace in the interior, travellers have been told that a tradition still exists among the Indians to the truth of that supposition; and even at the present day

* Dr. Hancock.

the old native, when expatiating on the wonders of the land which has been wrested from him, points his shrivelled finger to unexplored regions, where, as he asserts, the fire still burns. It was affirmed by an old writer, that a volcano in active existence was discovered in 1749, but others have failed to find it. Sir R. Schomburgk was told by the Indians of Pirara, "that on the south-western angle of the Sierra Pacaraima there was a mountain whence from time to time detonations are heard." Whatever may be the case in the inland districts, earthquakes are more or less frequent in this country; no injury has, however, ever resulted from a severe "Tremblement de Terre," as the French significantly express it. Of late the shocks, although slight, have become more common, and scarcely a year elapses without some motion being experienced.

It would be idle to attempt a description of the many magnificent and curious flowers abounding in the woods, and decorating the waters of this primitive territory. On the lofty mountains, and in the quiet valleys, in the fertile plains and the grassy marshes, an immense garden, stored with infinite variety, is presented to the observer. Raised and cultivated alone by nature, thousands of plants, the most rich and rare, spring up, blossom, and die. Many of them, however, have been reclaimed by enterprising naturalists, and have been transplanted to delight the senses of a refined community. The time may yet come when the foot of civilisation shall tread a path to these gorgeous regions, and the hand of man shall pluck these lovely plants from the obscurity in which they are now buried.

From these outlines some estimate may be formed of the natural wonders of this country. The little that has been seen has struck all beholders with astonishment and admiration. There may be monotony and sameness in the wonderful extent of its perpetual forests, where the

jaguar, the deer, and troops of monkeys dwell ; but to the lover of nature and of science there is rich reward. There may be difficulty and danger to encounter in its far-stretching savannahs and granite mountains, but to an enterprising spirit there is both interest and honour to be derived by gathering and recording his triumph over the cayman and the serpent. Patience and endurance may be required to trace its numerous streams, and their verdant banks hung with garlands of flowers to the water's edge, but to the poet and the naturalist they are inspiring themes. Industry and perseverance are no doubt required by the man who desires to avail himself of the singularly fertile tract of alluvial land which has passed through so varied a course of agriculture and cultivation, but ample treasures await the individual who possesses such qualities.

CHAPTER I.

THE ABORIGINES OF BRITISH GUIANA—TRADITIONS—PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION—ORIGIN OF WORD "BUCKS"—DRESS AND ORNAMENTS—THE FIVE PRINCIPAL TRIBES: 1. THE ARRAWAKS; 2. THE ACCAWAIS; 3. THE WARROWS; 4. THE MACUSIS; 5. THE CARIBS—PROBABLE ORIENTAL ORIGIN—VARIETY OF LANGUAGES—INDIAN VOCABULARY—WEAPONS AND HUNTING INSTRUMENTS—MODE OF LIVING—ARCHITECTURE OF HUTS—INQUIRY INTO THE ORIGIN AND DESCENT OF THE NATIVES—FEELINGS OF REVENGE—GOVERNMENT—BAPTISMS—BURIALS—MARRIAGES—CONJURORS, OR PRIESTS—RELIGION.

HAVING given some account of the land whose history we are now to trace, the next subject for consideration is,—Who were the races by whom it was originally populated? It would be an unprofitable inquiry to investigate all the fanciful theories which have been promulgated at different times with regard to the origin and history of the various tribes met with in British Guiana. The probability is, that they had one common origin, and that the contrasts now existing amongst them may have been insensibly produced by local and accidental circumstances.

The inhabitant of this soil, before the discovery of **America**, was a stranger to the rest of mankind; he was hardly less isolated in an historical point of view. For him the voice of tradition was silent, or incoherent. Upon the surface of the earth there was no monument of man's fabrication to mark the grandeur or barbarity,

the happiness or misery, of his progenitors; there was no vestige of a higher, or of a more debased state of existence. The evidence revealed by nature, furnished proofs of centuries having elapsed in bringing about the physical changes already noticed; but the tongue of man was mute as to his own career. No record, or memorial of glory, or adventure, survived to transmit the examples of the past, and stimulate the emulation of the future. With these people the life of to-day follows the dreary track of ages of oblivion, and is utterly destitute of energy and excitement. Such seems to have been the unvaried course of generation after generation. The fulfilment of an instinct, the gratification of a passion, summed up the sluggish round of existence. Like the animals which for centuries had trodden the soil, feeding and dying, so the untutored child of this land grew on to manhood, and was returned to the dust without leaving any inheritance but the instincts of his kind.

After an intercourse of 300 years with the white man, the modes and habits of the native have undergone little or no change. With the exception of the efforts of a few zealous missionaries, no attempt has been made to civilise and improve him;* while the intrusion of Europeans into the territories which once belonged to his forefathers, rapidly threatens to extinguish the last remnants of his race. Sinking under impoverished resources and declining power, the fate of the unhappy Indian of British Guiana will, perhaps, in a few years, be as gloomy as that of his North American brother.

The complexion of the native is of a reddish-brown colour, and somewhat glossy, not unlike new and clean copper. He is short in stature, generally from five feet

* According to the evidence of an old inhabitant on this subject, the hauling or cutting of timber on a Sunday, was the only attempt at christianisation within his knowledge.

to five and a half feet high; but is fleshy, and well-formed. The women are somewhat less in size than the men; the head is disproportionately large, and the hair black, long, coarse, and straight; the features are regular but insipid, the eyes black but listless, and somewhat obliquely placed in their orbits. Their expression is unsettled and roving; the mouth is small, with full lips; the teeth good, except when injured by habits peculiar to some of the tribes; no beard grows, nor is allowed to grow, upon the face or body; the character suggested by the countenance is that of languor and apathy—a vacant placidity, unmarked by strong emotions; the limbs are round, and well-proportioned, but not muscular; the legs and arms disproportionately short, the trunk being rather long, the wrists and ankles are remarkably small, especially in the women, who often wear bandages in order to compress them.

In the large head, deep trunk, and short limbs, they approach the Mongolian race, and are apparently descendants of that branch of the human family. Their hands and limbs generally bear no indication of a life of toil or muscular exertion, although it is well known that their activity and powers of endurance are remarkable. Their voices are in general soft, low, and musical; they are chary of speech, and reluctant to enter into conversation; significant, and often graceful gestures, serve to convey their meaning better than words. They are distinguished by a singular calmness and self-possession, the type of indifference and listlessness. The females are shy, modest, and retiring; their figures when young are not unfrequently graceful, but after child-bearing, or when advanced in years, they acquire a coarseness and flabid obesity which is repulsive.

The age of puberty is earlier in British Guiana than in cold climates; but, as a natural sequence, the evi-

dences of old age are soon apparent, and the bloom of youthful beauty is transient and fleeting. The men possess a strange air of independence and dignity in their walk and bearing, which, so far from being traceable to vanity or imitation, is perfectly natural to them. The Buck,* as he is here called, is unmoved by the most startling and novel sights. A smile or frown is scarcely ever seen upon his tranquil countenance, which reflects the impenetrable apathy of his mind. Grave and austere as the Arab, so felicitously described by the illustrious Gibbon, his speech and gestures are slow and solemn.

Like the savages of other nations, he goes about almost naked; a string is passed round the waist to sustain a fold of some vegetable texture, which is slung across the loins. Many of the women wear a fancifully-worked diminutive apron, called a "Queu," made either of beads or shells; in fact, a substitute for a fig-leaf. The bodies of the different tribes are marked by patches of paint, or tattooed streaks, which, in their own eyes, sufficiently distinguish them. They wear few ornaments: a necklace of some bright seed, or burnished tooth or shell; an earring of metal or stone; a coronet of brilliant feathers, gathered from the beautiful plumage of the gaudiest birds, are almost all the appendages to their persons. Of late years there has been a marked advance in their costume, which, with the men, consists of shirt and trousers, and with the women, of gowns and petticoats. This remark, however, applies only to those who have been brought within the pale of civilisation. The children are quite naked, and, as infants, are carried on

* The term Buck is probably derived from the Dutch word "Bok," which was the appellation used by that nation to designate the aboriginal of this land. It is easy to understand the slight alteration from "Bok" to "Buck," and again as to the Dutch term Bok. Doctor Hostman, in his work on the "Civilisation of the Negro Race in America," page 330, says that the origin of the Dutch word "Bok" is to be found in the word *Lokko*, which, in the Arrawaks language, means "*Mam*."

the hip or back. The women occupy the position of domestic slaves, attending to the drudgeries of house and field, while the men rove about hunting, fishing, or shooting with bows and arrows. Polygamy is more or less common, and depends chiefly upon the wealth of the individual, who generally keeps as many wives as his circumstances enable him to support. This practice gives rise here, as elsewhere, to most of the evils consequent upon such an unnatural social state.

Partaking of the same general character, there is, however, a marked difference among these people as regards habits, language, and moral, as well as physical, qualities of the native tribes met with in British Guiana; five only are sufficiently known to merit any particular notice:—1st, the Arrawaks; 2nd, Accawai; 3rd, the Warrows; 4th, the Macusis; 5th, the Carabisee.

1st. The Arrawaks, Arawaaks, or Arowack Indians, in consequence of inhabiting the region of the sea-coasts and mouths of the rivers, became earliest known to the European settlers. Possessed of pleasing, affectionate, and not very warlike qualities, they mingled freely with their invaders, who, disappointed in the hope of making them bondsmen, were not unwilling to secure their friendship and alliance. In physical conformation they may be taken as the type of the whole race, being short in stature and reddish in colour. In their manners the Arrawaks are perhaps less barbarous than the other tribes, and on that account have been much esteemed both by the Dutch and English.

According to the reports of persons who have resided among them, the numerous families of which this tribe is composed all descend in the female line, so that when a woman marries she continues to bear the name she received from her mother, which she transmits to her daughters, who, as well as her sons, are prohi-

bited from intermarrying with individuals of the same name.

They speak of God as Wacinaci (our Father), Wamuretti Kwonei (our Maker), and Aiomum Kondi (the Dweller on High). They also believe in a wicked spirit, whom they designate Yauhahu.

The Arrawaks are seldom more than five feet four inches in height, and are stout and plump in proportion, but not muscular; their necks are short, and their ankles, hands, and feet, particularly those of the women, remarkably small. Their features are in general diminutive, and the expression of the countenance has by some been considered melancholy and demure. They have, however, been termed the "tiger-men," in consequence of the aptitude and skill they display in overcoming the jaguar of the forests and coasts. They possess well-marked imitative powers, and when instruction has been bestowed upon them they have not been found wanting in intellect. The forehead is lower than that of Europeans, but it has been remarked by those engaged in teaching them, that in the children who have been instructed* the forehead rises considerably with the progress of education. They are not in general so dark in colour as many of the other tribes; indeed, some of them are asserted† to be very fair when not exposed much to the influence of the sun and atmosphere. Like most of the native tribes, they have characteristic marks by which they distinguish themselves, but none so obvious as to attract the attention of strangers. Their number has been estimated at about 1500 souls, said to consist of twenty-seven families or castes.‡ They generally tattoo their bodies in preference to dyeing them after the manner of the Caribs, whose peculiarities, however, they imitate in the structure of their huts.

* Bernan's Missionary Labours.

† Hancock.

‡ Montgomery Martin.

2nd. The Wacawoios, Accawais, or Accaways, externally resemble the Arrawaks; their skins are of a deeper red. They generally stain their bodies red or blue, according to taste. They are said to be recognised by a large lump of arnotto (a species of red dye) stuck upon their hair over their foreheads, with which they paint themselves, partly to excite terror, and as a defence against the bites of insects, while the women adopt it as a species of ornament. This peculiarity is claimed also for the Carabisci Indians, whose language is allied to theirs, and who are marked on the forehead by the same colour.

The Accawais reside more inland, and generally occupy the upper rivers of the Demerara and Mazaruni. They are of a nomade, warlike nature, and wandering from the Orinoco to the Amazon, engage in barter or battle with other tribes according to circumstances. As their numbers are large, and their quarrelsome temper well known, they are disliked by the other Indians, in spite of their hospitable and humorous dispositions. Less civilised than the Arrawaks, their lives are passed in improvident activity; their more courageous tempers are unhappily tinged with cruelty. They are the Cossacks of the South, and, like them, prowl about in bands, not very particular as to their acts and manners. The time of peace is usually devoted to festivity and amusement.

3rd. The Warrows, Warrays, or Warraus, are the maritime portion of the native tribes of British Guiana, and inhabit the sea-coast between the rivers Pomeroon and Orinoco. They are a short, hardy race of fishermen and sailors, subsisting chiefly by boat-building. They are not absolutely black, as has been stated by an erudite writer, but are of a dark, dirty red colour, and in their manners are bold, adventurous, and active. They are very improvident, and inclined to dissipation, but have

acquired some renown by their cleverness in boat architecture. From the useful timber-trees which grow in the forests they manufacture canoes and corials of considerable size and strength. Some of these are large enough to carry upwards of a hundred men, besides cannon. They are constructed on the best model for speed, elegance, and safety, without line or compass, and without the least knowledge of hydrostatics;* they have neither joint nor seam, plug nor nail, and are an extraordinary specimen of untaught material skill. These boats are frequently used by the Spaniards as privateering launches. A canoe forty feet long, six broad, and three deep in the centre, capable of carrying twenty-five men, besides baggage and "material" for two months, was bought by Mr. Hillhouse for about ten pounds sterling. He describes it as traversing falls, sailing through rollers, and being hauled over rocks and sands, and capable of lasting for ten years without a patch, and far superior to any European craft for such purposes.

With their skill and assiduity in this particular branch of workmanship, they might soon acquire sufficient means to improve their condition; but their improvident habits render such an expectation hopeless, for they spend in debauchery the money earned by their craft.

The knowledge they display in this particular species of handicraft naturally leads to the inquiry, who imparted it to them? How did they acquire that combination of mechanical powers indispensable to the production of such a proof of ingenuity as a well-built boat, so unlike the rude canoes of the surrounding tribes? It appears reasonable to suppose that they must have obtained this knowledge by admixture with some Old World race, of whose intercourse with them no trace remains.

* Montgomery Martin.

The Warrows inhabit, by preference, a flat marshy land on the Pomeroon coast, between the two rivers above named, and extending twenty or thirty miles into the interior. This tract of land is intersected in all directions by rivers and creeks. The principal of which, the Morocco, the Mora, the Guainia or Waini, and the Barima, frequently inundate the whole territory; so that the inhabitants may almost be said to live in the water. "At the western extremity of the detour of the Morocco is a large savannah, through which runs one of those extraordinary canals without current, which, on a smaller scale, like the Cassiquiare, joins two rivers, and insulates the coast lands from the river Morocco to the Waini, or Guainia. These canals are called 'Etabbo,' from 'Eta' (Mauritia), and 'abbo,' water-course, being generally found in large swamps of Mauritia, which is the case in this instance; the verge of this savannah being so exclusively surrounded by these palms that scarcely another kind of tree is to be recognised."*

From these causes it may be inferred that the culture of the soil is next to impossible. The creeks abound, however, in a variety of fish, especially the siluri, which, eaten both fresh and smoked, supply the natives with food.

At the heads of creeks, where the land is firm and dry, a few ground provisions are grown, and these, with the useful Mauritia palm, furnish sufficient subsistence. This invaluable tree grows in clusters, and almost every part is used. The leaf serves to thatch the huts, raised on a platform just above the level of the water, which in these regions is three feet above the earth for three-fourths of the year. Starch is procured from the pith of the interior of the tree, and a kind of paste or

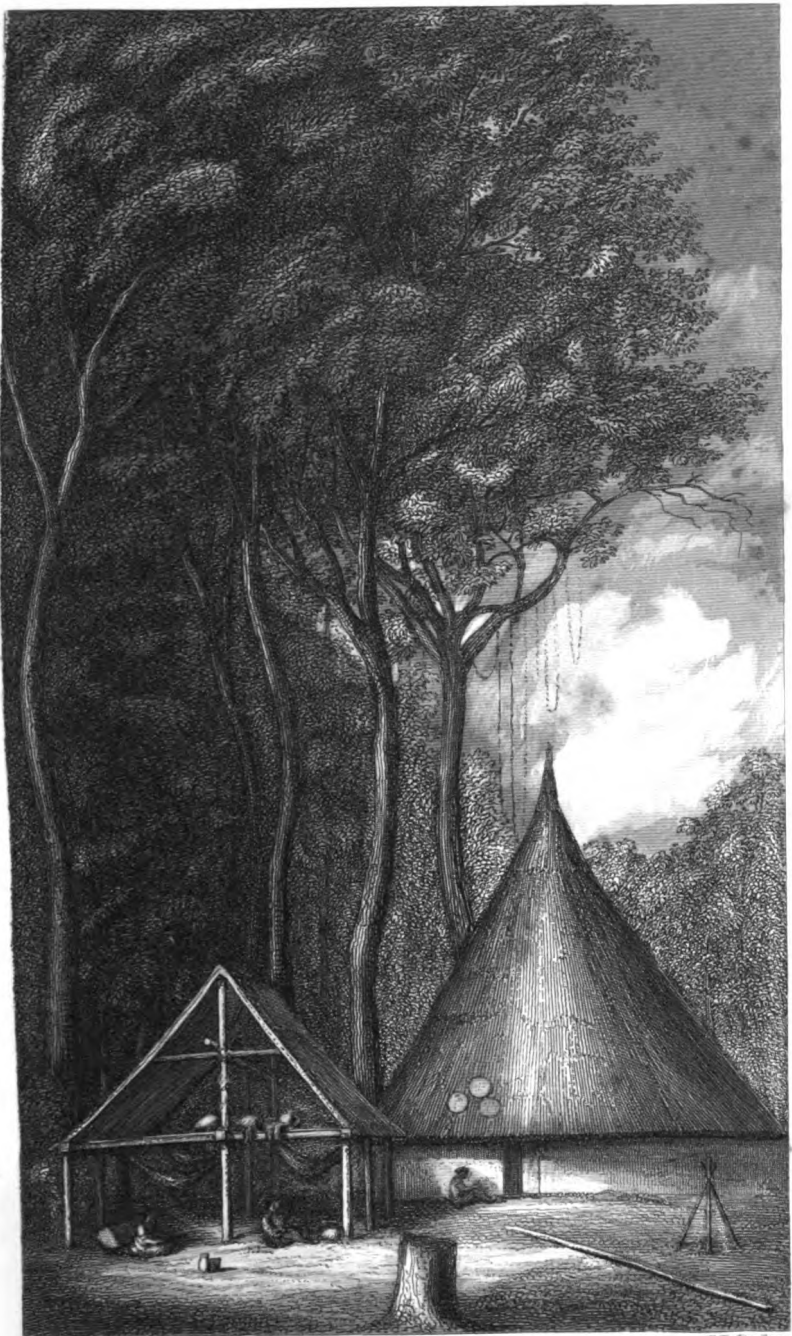
* Warrow Land of British Guiana. Hillhouse.

bread is manufactured from other parts. A beetle burrows in the green part of the trunk, and is considered a great delicacy. The branches of the trees serve to construct the dwelling-houses, which last for a very long period. It has been observed with regard to these singular people, that they have a peculiar broad or spread foot (duck's foot, as it has been termed), which enables them to traverse with some degree of ease the muddy shores and marshes they inhabit. In these and other respects they bear a close resemblance to the littoral or coast tribes of the Maranon, a dirty, indolent, and apathetic race.

4th. The Macousi, Macusi, Macoushi, or Macoosi Indians, occupy the open savannahs of the Rupununi, Barima, and the mountain chains Pacaraima and Canuku, and may be estimated at about 2000 in number.* They have been described as inoffensive, hospitable, industrious and provident; but capable of defending themselves against the more martial Accawais and Caribs. Mr. Hillhouse considers them timid, taciturn, and obedient; but deficient in stature and strength. The Macousi Indian has the credit, if any, of preparing the famous Wourali poison when a supply happens to be required. The Macousi seeks the various ingredients of which this poison is composed in the depths of the forests. The principal is the Wourali vine, which grows wild; having procured a sufficient quantity of this, he next seeks a bitter root, and one or two bulbous plants which contain a green and glutinous juice. These being all tied together, he searches for two species of venomous ants; one large and black, the "muneery,"† about an inch long, and found in nests near to aromatic shrubs; the other a small red one, found under the leaves of

* Bernau's Missionary Labours.

† The sting of the "muneery" is very severe, and occasions fever.



W. Dance.

P. F. Becker.

*House built at the great summit of
mount Orizaba.*

London: Longman & Co.

several kinds of shrubs. Providing himself now with some strong Indian pepper, and the pounded fangs of the "labarri" and "conna-couchi" snakes, the manufacturer of poison proceeds to his deadly task in the following manner:

"He scrapes the Wourali vine and bitter root into thin shavings, and puts them into a kind of colander made of leaves; this he holds over an earthen pot, and pours water on the shavings; the liquor which comes through has the appearance of coffee. When a sufficient quantity has been procured, the shavings are thrown aside. He then bruises the bulbous stalks, and squeezes a proportionate quantity of their juice through his hands into the pot. Lastly, the snakes' fangs, ants, and pepper are bruised, and thrown into it. It is placed then on a slow fire, and as it boils, more of the juice of the Wourali is added, according as it may be found necessary, and the scum is taken off with a leaf; it remains on the fire till reduced to a thick syrup, of a deep brown colour. As soon as it has arrived at this state, a few arrows are poisoned with it, to try its strength."*

Females are excluded during its manufacture, and there are certain forms which are rigidly adhered to in the process.

The Indians themselves consider it a baneful task, and are not very communicative on the subject, so that after all it is possible that the preparation of this deadly poison has never been thoroughly investigated.

It has been stated by Montgomery Martin that the Accawais manufacture the Wourali poison, but I believe this to be incorrect; it is well known, however, that almost all the tribes are acquainted with the use of it, and it is

* Waterton's Wanderings, p. 51.

frequently brought to town for sale by the Arrawaks and others. Weapons charged with it are also sold, but it is commonly believed that the most powerful preparations of the poison are rarely suffered to leave the localities where they are distilled. The Macousis have been described as "residing in the deep recesses of the forests of the interior," and as implacable in their revenge; "probably," adds the same authority, "they are the aborigines of the country, and flying before more civilised tribes, as we find to be the case in every part of the eastern hemisphere."*

To test the strength of the poison on their arrows they wound trees, and if the leaves fall off or die within three days, they consider the poison as sufficiently virulent, but not otherwise.

The Macousis are at present the most numerous of the tribes in British Guiana, but are supposed to have resided formerly on the banks of the Orinoco.

5th. The Carabisce, Carabeesi, Charaibes, Caribs, or Galibis, originally occupied the principal rivers, but as the Dutch encroached upon their possessions they retired inland, and are now daily dwindling away.

According to Mr. Hillhouse, they could formerly muster nearly 1000 fighting men, but are now scarcely able to raise a tenth part of that number. They have been described by other writers as brave, credulous, proud, and obstinate. Probably their pride may be traced to a tradition which prevails amongst them of their having once occupied the Caribbean Islands, and which is in some degree supported by the fact that the names of many rivers, points, and islands, both in Trinidad and the Leeward Islands, are decidedly Caribese.†

* Montgomery Martin.

† Ibid.

They are of a bright copper colour, and are designated by a patch of arnotto on their foreheads. With this dye they also stain their bodies and legs. Their language is allied to that of the Accawai, but they are of a bolder and more independent character. They build their houses in a manner different from that of the other tribes, making them long and round at the top. They dwell in preference in the open lands; and though warlike, they are fond of cultivating land, and disposed to traffic.

They are well inclined to strangers, but require to be treated with some ceremonious consideration. Their friendship has been represented to be as warm as their enmity is dangerous. The Charaibes of Guiana still fondly cherish the tradition of Raleigh's alliance; and, according to Bancroft, "to this day preserve the English colours which he left with them at parting."*

The smaller islands of the Caribbean Sea were formerly thickly populated by this tribe, but now not a trace of them remains. They were considered by Columbus as cannibals; and it is believed by many that, being of a restless, adventurous spirit, they gradually became possessed of the group of the small islands, destroying the original male inhabitants and sparing the women. This argument derives strength from the statement that the former islanders spoke two languages: the men the true Carib dialect, and the women the language peculiar to their race, and to that of the inhabitants of the large islands of Jamaica and Hispaniola, which the Caribs never reached.

The Carib calls himself Banares; literally, a man coming from beyond the sea.†

The Caribs were once, undoubtedly, the lords of the

* Bancroft's Guiana, 1769.

† Labata.

soil.* It has been asserted by Rochefort, however, who published an account of the Antilles, in 1658, that the "Charaibes," as he calls them, were originally a nation of Florida, in North America. He supposes that "a colony of Apalachian Indians, having been driven from that continent, arrived at the Windward Islands, and exterminating the native male inhabitants, took possession of their lands and women." Of the larger islands, he presumes "that the natural strength, extent, and population, affording security to the natives, these happily escaped the destruction which overtook their unfortunate neighbours; and thus arose the distinction observable between the inhabitants of the larger and smaller islands." To this supposition, Bryan Edwards, in his "History of the West Indies," opposes several arguments, the principal of which proves the existence of numerous and powerful tribes of Charaibes on the southern peninsula, extending from the river Orinoco to Essequibo, and throughout the whole province of Surinam even to Brazil; moreover, the language of the Charaibes, or Caribbees, was also that of some of the West India islands; and Rochefort himself admits that the tradition of the islanders referred constantly to Guiana. So that it may be fairly concluded that the inhabitants of the Caribbean Isles were only the descendants of the original Charaibes of South America, and differing altogether from the aborigines of the larger West India Islands, such as Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Hayti.

But where did the continental Charaibes themselves originally come from? There are many writers who ascribe to them an Oriental source from across the Atlantic.

* A tradition formerly existed among some of the Indian tribes, that black men had been known to inhabit the mountainous interior. A similar tradition is reported among the South Sea Islanders.

This is supposed to have occurred in the following manner by Bryan Edwards,* who argues the point at considerable length. He conceives it possible that in ancient times vessels from the east, whilst cruising about, or exploring the coast of Africa, might have been driven out to sea, and, falling in with the trade winds, have been guided to the eastern shores of South America; but there is no proof to support this opinion, and it is opposed to the belief of Dr. Robertson,† who observes “that such events are barely possible, and *may* have happened, but that they ever did happen we have no evidence, either from the clear testimony of history or the obscure intimations of tradition.” The probability of an eastern origin is strengthened, however, by the assertion of a distinguished scientific writer,‡ who, although classing the Caribi, Galibi, or Caribbees as the aborigines of the countries bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, and giving the following description of them by D’Orbigny, “complexion yellowish, stature middle, forehead not so much arched as in other cases, eyes obliquely placed, and raised at the outer angle,” yet observes himself: “These traits, which belong to the great nomadic races of South America, approximate to those of the nomades of High Asia. The complexion is nearly the same, for these nations do not generally belong to the red men of the New World; the face is round, the nose short, but the nostrils are not so wide or patulous, nor do the cheek bones project so much as in the Asiatic races. Von Spix and Martius thought the Caribs strikingly similar to the Chinese and other Oriental tribes.”

Many travellers have also made the same remark. Thus a wanderer in many lands writes to this effect: “They (that is, the Bucks, or Caribs) resemble the

* See *History of the West Indies*.

† *History of America*.

‡ *Pritchard’s History of Man*, p. 465.

Asiatics in more points than any people I ever saw; so much so that I really thought myself once more in Ceylon as I looked upon them here, and as I had seen them in their visits to town and the different estates on which I had been.”*

It is also certainly true that many words used in the Carib language resemble in sound and meaning those in the Oriental dialects, as the following list will show :

Carib Term.	Meaning in French, according to Roehesfort.	Similar Words in Oriental Dialect.	Meaning in English.
Liani	Sa femme	Li Hene	His wife
Yene neri	Ma femme	Hene Herani	My wife
Uae yete	Venez ici	Aca ati	Come hither
Rarbet	Maison publique	Qir, or, gra bit	Walled house
Encka	Collier	Onq	Necklace
Yene kali	Mon collier	E'ouq aii	My necklace
Hue hue	Du bois	Oä	Wood
Nora	Ma peau	Oürri	My skin
Nané-guæte	Je suis malade	Nanecheti	I am sick
Halea tibou	Sois le bien venu	Yeha li e thibou	Good welcome to you
Phoubae	Souffler	Pheuhe	To blow
Toubana vra	Couverture d'une maison	Di bus oür	Roof of a house
Bayou boukaa	Vä'ten	Bous bouak	Go thy way
Baika	Mange	Bge	Eat
Aika	Manger	Akl	To eat
Nichiri	Mon nez	Necheri	My nose
Natoni boman	Donnez moi à boire	Natoni bamen	Give me drink

The Caribs inhabit chiefly the Lower Mazaruni and Cuyuni; a few are found at the Corentyn, the Rupuauni, and the Guidaru rivers. Independently of the analogy arising from language and appearance, many of their habits and customs closely resemble those of the east; such as their mode of burial, the painting of their bodies, their conduct at births and funerals, &c. Polygamy, also, is allowed to, and practised by, those who can afford it.

Some Indian tribes regard certain animals and birds as unclean, or unlawful to be eaten; such as the larger fish, the domestic hog, the cow, &c.

* Life of Alexander. If, as seems probable, the natives of South America are referable to an eastern origin, I know of no better theory of their emigration than that suggested by Robertson in his "History of America."

They eat *parched* corn, like the Egyptians.

The roofs of the huts of some tribes are pointed like those of eastern nations.

A brother of a deceased Indian is expected to take the widow to wife, unless he himself is otherwise provided for. Moreover, as already noticed, the "picture-painting," as observed by travellers in the interior, bears a marked resemblance in character to that of the Hebrew, Syrian, and Chaldean languages.

I have confined this enumeration of the tribes now inhabiting British Guiana, to the principal and well-known castes in the neighbourhood of Georgetown; but I should observe, that early writers have transmitted to us elaborate descriptions of numerous other tribes that are now almost unknown.* When we come to consider their names and numbers, we are forced to conclude either that this part of the world was formerly much more important and thickly populated than it is at present; or to suppose that the varieties thus spoken of, instead of representing any positive differences, consisted merely of divisions and subdivisions of tribes and families, who, settling, for the most part, on the borders of some large stream, or in the vicinity of some mountainous height, derived from that particular locality the names and usages by which they were severally distinguished.

However this may be, it is certain that their number is now constantly diminishing. In the first ages of discovery they were treated as slaves by the Europeans who emigrated to their soil—no longer permitted to cultivate their scanty provision grounds, or to pursue their primitive occupations as huntsmen and fishermen, and compelled to work at unaccustomed labours for the benefit of their conquerors. But this system recoiled

* Sir Walter Raleigh has a long list of the different tribes he met with. See account of Second Voyage, Hakluyt's, vol. iii.

upon its authors, and under the steady colonisation of the Dutch it became a law of the land that no Bok, or Bokken, as these people were called, should be treated as slaves.

The following account of the names and number of minor native tribes formerly inhabiting Guiana, is gathered from different writers on the subject :

The Tavias were tribes who lived near the coasts and rivers, and were about 10,000 or 15,000 in number.

The Itouranes was the name given to an inland people, whose habits and numbers were unknown.

The Guajanas were a small tribe, who inhabited the Carony river, or its neighbourhood.

The Mapoyas inhabited the neighbourhood of the Orinoco as well as the Quirrubas, who lived to the south of that river.

The Andagues and Abavas lived chiefly to the north of the river Orinoco.

The Caberes, Achaguas, and Salivas, resided on the rivers Guabiaris and Bichada.

The Chiricoas and Guajivas dwelt near the river Meta.

The Saruras were established between the rivers Meta and Sinaruco.

The Otkomacquen (a bearded race) and Paos lived between Sinaruco and Apuri.

The Guianos were also a bearded race like the last.

In French Guiana, the Galibes from Cayenne to the Amazon, the Coussari and the Maraones were found.

The Palicouris were marked by black streaks from ear to ear.

The Aromayous and the Noragues lived also near these rivers.

The Pirions, Nacouanis, Maurianse, Tocayennes, Tarcupes, Cousanis, Armagoutous, Maprouanis, lived near the river Oyapoko.

The Akoguovas lived near the river Camopi; they had holes in their cheeks, and were adorned with feathers.

The Mayets, Maracoupes, Mayhas, Kanararious, and Arikozets, Makapus, Oyampis, Ayauainques, Caicoucianes, and Maikichouous, were inland races.

The Aronakaanes, Coumaous, Maykianes, Amacidous, Oaroubas, Amenayous, Apiaoues, Akouchiens, and Tapouyranas, the Baricours, Maroupis, Manaus, Certanes, Arouhayous, Calipoures, Sahaques, Anchious, Ayes, Parahouaries, Cayars, were other tribes but little known.

The Zaparas sprang from an intermarriage of the Macusis and Arecunas; they have been represented as an ugly race, resembling the Macusis. They inhabited the banks of the Barima, and the mountains Tupae Eng and Warkamany, and were about 300 in number.

The Guinau have been said to live in a savage state of perfect nudity, and dwelling on tributaries of the river Parisna. They saluted each other on the rising and setting of the sun.

The Maiougking were allied to the Guinau Indians as to habits and mode of life.

The Kirishanas inhabited the mountains between the rivers Orinoco and Ocamo, and are represented as being very savage and cruel tribes, living in a state of perfect nudity.

The Acosi, Awake, Wapishiana, Altorias, Tarumas, Wiebec, Prianas, Camuuna, Arecunas, and Oewakees, are also the names of several other tribes which have been met with by late travellers. But there is little certainty to be placed either on the names or existence of these various races.

The knowledge we possess of their several languages is too scanty, and our intercourse with them too limited,

to admit of anything like a satisfactory account of the numerous dwellers on this vast tract of country.

The number of Indians who occupy the territories of British Guiana has been estimated at about 7000 by some, while others have computed them at from 15,000 to 20,000, including those from the maritime districts and those extending as far south as the river Rupununi.

These tribes are distributed over different parts of the country, according to chance or caprice. They appear to have no definite or distinct landmarks as respects territory; but nevertheless, among the most savage of the Indians, there is a feeling of delicacy, or an implied understanding, which prevents them from trespassing on lands ordinarily occupied by others. There are striking variances amongst them in physical configuration, character, habits, and language. With respect to the latter, the differences are strongly marked.

The Indian of one tribe rarely understands the dialect of another, and although sometimes separated by only a few leagues, they are unable when they meet to communicate with each other by conversation. Very little accurate information has been obtained concerning their languages. Whenever an attempt has been made by travellers and missionaries to investigate these dialects, it has only led to a confusion that has darkened the inquiry. Thus when the Lord's Prayer was translated into the Arrawak by three or four different gentlemen, no one who compared the translations given by the Rev. Mr. Bernau and Brett, and Mr. Hillhouse, could believe that they were intended to give expression to the same subject. A reference to a table or vocabulary of words furnished by Mr. Hillhouse,* and to his version of the

* Indian Notices.

Lord's Prayer, accompanied by that given by the Rev. Mr. Bernau,* which I have inserted in the Appendix, will sufficiently explain the difficulty of obtaining correct information relative to the languages of the Indians.

The natives are at present sufficiently pacific in their characters or habits, whatever might have been their practices or tendencies in former times. They have been accused of cowardice, but it is notorious that when quarrels or wars arise, the passions of the native are roused to the highest pitch, and human life is held of little account. In such extremities they become perfectly reckless of danger, and indifferent to death; no mercy or quarter is either sought or expected. It is in fact war to the death, and terrible are the incidents which might be selected in illustration of these tragical scenes. Their warlike weapons, and instruments for the chase and fishing, are ingenious and substantial. The tomahawk, or war club, is fashioned into various forms, generally club-shaped, but with sharp angles, and truncated at the extremity. Bows and arrows of several sizes and shapes are manufactured, and the latter are pointed with fish bones, stone, or iron, and frequently steeped in the deadly Wourali poison.

One kind of arrow, called wiawakasi, is used for shooting fish and labba; another kind, called sarapa, for fish only; while a third, called assetaha, is employed in the havoc of birds. The bows are generally made of washeba, or letter wood. A kind of shield, called haha, is used in martial exercises and games. The labba is also destroyed by a species of arrow, termed attum. A kind of harpoon, called natta, or arrow, made of the mid-rib of the leaf of the ita palm, is sometimes used to spear fish, which are also sometimes caught in a trap, named masua. A blowpipe with small arrows is fre-

* Missionary Labours in British Guiana.

quently employed in hunting. They also manufacture anklets of seed, teeth, and other substances, as well as head-dresses, or caps, called garracoom, made of wicker-work and feathers; likewise necklaces, fans, rings, baskets, nets, mats, and other articles.

Rude drums, flutes, harps (tarimba), and whips, named macquari, made of the tibiriri, or threads of spire of the ita palm, are made by them, and used in the war or funeral dances occasionally indulged in.

The games or sports of the Indians are few, frivolous, and not very decorous. They are so dull and uninteresting as to yield little amusement, and even the children have hardly any pleasure in them. Life is either too serious, or too trivial, to be relieved of its monotony and dreariness by such puerile resources.

The domestic habits and qualities of some of these Indian tribes are not a little curious.

Chastity is not considered an indispensable virtue amongst the unmarried women, but when once affianced, they are singularly faithful and constant. Indeed, the fearful vengeance inflicted in the rare cases of infidelity that occur amongst them, tends greatly to preserve untarnished the honour of the Indian dames. They are by no means an immoral race, in spite of the barbarism of their daily life. If an Indian, by good luck, or good management, obtains possession of several wives, the oldest is not discarded or neglected, but on the contrary, exercises supreme authority over the younger females of the household, and occasionally over the gentleman himself, who pays great respect to his ancient squaw, or first love. She acts as a sort of house or hut-keeper to the rest, and cooks their simple meals. It would not, therefore, be difficult for her to poison any one of the family who might offend her.

Parturition is attended with few inconveniences to the



*The "Felle" of the Wapishiana, Meyer's
Expédition.*

female Indian ; as soon as the child is born, it is not an uncommon thing to see the mother proceed to a neighbouring stream, where she performs the necessary ablutions for herself and infant. There is little in the way of dress to give her much trouble, nor does the occurrence occasion any interruption to her usual duties. The husband, however, is not let off so easily ; the etiquette of savage life requires that he should take to his hammock for several days, where, with solemn countenance, and an appearance of suffering, he receives the visits of his acquaintances, who either condole or rejoice with him, as the case may be.

The mode of life of these people is simple and primitive. Every tribe has its own hunting-ground ; each family its own plantation, consisting of a spot of land, cleared of tall trees, and cultivated with provisions, such as cassada, tania, and corn. Each family possesses within itself the few utensils necessary for cooking and eating, such as rude earthenware vessels of various shapes and sizes, which are supposed by some people to bear resemblance to the Etruscan vases in form. How admirably are their simple wants supplied by the multiplied ingenuity of Nature ! for where the intelligence of man is inferior, and his civilisation undeveloped, she seems to compensate for these defects by the greater vigour of her own productions. How congenial such a climate to their modes of life, and to their tastes. Tracking the silent forests in quest of game, or floating along the prolific streams, they become masters of all they see. Unrivalled in dexterity and cunning, they can steal unheard upon the unwary bird, or transfix with the barbed arrow the unsuspecting fish as it basks near the surface of the stream. The food of the Indian consists of fish, birds, and many of the smaller animals, which to European palates would not be very acceptable. The

staff of life with him is the dried root of the cassava, of which there are two kinds, the bitter and the sweet. They are both eaten, and when ground, can be made into an excellent kind of cake or bread; other roots are also eaten, and the succulent and other fruits of the forest furnish a rich dessert. Their drink is water, except upon feast days, or occasions of rejoicing, when a fermented liquor, called *paiwori*, or *piwarri*, is used as an intoxicating beverage, its remarkable diuretic properties alone preserving them from the baneful effects of the fearful potations in which they indulge. They have also another intoxicating beverage, called *cassiri*. The *paiwori* is made of a fermented decoction of the cassava bread, large lumps of which are chewed by the women, to increase the fermentation.* It is like malt liquor in taste and appearance. The hand of civilised man has offered to them other intoxicating drinks, which need not be enlarged upon in this place. Scattered about in various parts of the country, their habitations were, and still are, merely rude huts, raised upon poles or branches, and trunks of trees, and thatched in by the leaves of the *troolie* and other palms. When it is stated that some of the leaves of the *troolie*-tree are nearly thirty feet long, and three broad, it is easy to understand that a substantial covering can thus be made. The *Warrows*, or race of fishermen, use chiefly the *mauritia* or *eta* palm in the construction of their abodes, which are generally raised on the cut stem of these trees over the water, and covered in by these beautiful and useful leaves.

It was in allusion to this race that the learned traveller Humboldt fell into the error of describing them as living "suspended from the tops of trees;" and the scientific Dr. Prichard, who calls the *Warrows* "*Guarannas*," says

* It has been remarked, that the chewing of the bread for this purpose occasions in the women occasionally a kind of scurvy.

“they inhabit the two islands in the delta of the Orinoco, where they build their houses upon trees.” The same author, also, in confirmation of the view that the Caribbees are the true aborigines of the land of Guiana, says that “the lesser Antilles received from this nation the name of Caribbean Islands.” In former times there appears to have been great enmity existing between the Caribbees and Arrawaks, and the charge of cannibalism has been laid at the door of these benighted savages, especially the Caribs. We believe that very few would now deny that such a practice has existed, but either the bitter feuds have passed away which gave rise to such a revolting usage, or the mind of the Indian has insensibly undergone an alteration. It is very true that some of the fiercer passions still rage unchecked in his unchristianised heart. A slight to an Indian is rarely allowed to pass without retaliation; and even among themselves the death of a relation or friend by another party is always sure to be followed by the darkest revenge.* The victim may long escape; he may contrive to put off the evil hour, but an insatiate pursuer is always on his track. Even in cases of ordinary death, suspicion sometimes falls upon some unfortunate individual, especially if, after application to a Pe-i-man, or Piai-man, or conjuror, a murderer is suspected. In order to ascertain by whom the supposed deed was done, the following account is given by a late interesting writer:†—“A pot is filled with certain leaves, and placed over a fire; when it begins to boil over, they consider that on which side the scum falls first, it points out the quarter from whence the murderer came. A consultation is therefore held, and the place is pointed out, and the individual whose death is to atone

* In this and many other respects they resemble the Arabs, as described by the historian Gibbon.

† Bernau, *Missionary Labours*.

for that of the deceased. If he cannot be found, although he will be sought for years, any other member of his family will suffice. One of the nearest relations is charged with the execution of the direful deed. The 'canayi,' or the avenger of blood, forthwith puts on a curiously-wrought cap, takes up his weapons, and pursues his path in search of his victim. From the time of his leaving until his return home he is to abstain from meat, and lives upon what the forest supplies; nor is he allowed to speak with any he may meet on his road. Having made his way to the devoted place, and finding his victim there, he will lurk about for days and weeks till a favourable opportunity shall offer to perpetrate his revenge. If the victim pointed out be a man, he will shoot him through the back; and if he happens to fall dead to the ground, drag the corpse aside, and bury it in a shallow grave. The third night he goes to the grave, and presses a pointed stick through the corpse. If on withdrawing the stick he finds blood on the end of it, he tastes the blood in order to ward off any evil effects that might follow from the murder, returning home appeased, and apparently at ease. But if it happens that the wounded individual is able to return to his home, he charges his relations to bury him, after his death, in some place where he cannot be found, and having done so, he expires, not without great pains and fearful imprecations. The reason why the avenger of blood attacks his victim from behind is evident from the circumstance that the Indian is always found armed, at least with a knife. And again, the reason why the victim desires to be buried where he cannot be found, is to punish the murderer for his deed, inasmuch as the belief prevails that if he tastes not of the blood he must perish by madness. If a woman or child be the victim, their death is brought to pass in a different way. The individual is thrown down on the

ground, the mouth forced open, and the fangs of a venomous serpent driven through the tongue. Before the poor creature can reach home, the tongue becomes inflamed and swollen, and she is unable to tell who did the deed, and death is sure to follow." As the foregoing passage illustrates many of the qualities of the Indian—viz., his vindictiveness, superstition, patience, endurance, and cunning, I may perhaps be excused for having quoted it at such length. Their disposition is otherwise kind, tolerant, and hospitable, and they look for a similar return on the part of those to whom they extend friendly offices. There is very little distinction among them as to rank, or wealth, or honour. They seem to have interests in common, and each tribe, to its minor subdivisions, may be regarded in the light of a petty republic. A chief, or captain, presides over each such division, and he generally has to acquire this position by some trying ordeal or pre-eminent quality.* In no way differing from his adherents, either in mode of life or in the appearance of authority, he yet exercises a tacit control over them. He settles their quarrels, directs their movements in hunting, fishing, and roving, and acts more as the father of a family than the chieftain of a race. They have made but trifling advance in any of the arts.

Beyond building their rude huts, and making their canoes (at which craft the Warrows are far superior to the others), and preparing a few vessels of earthenware, some neat baskets from the beautiful reeds of the interior, and their own cots, or hammocks, from different kinds of grasses, they seem to have lacked the necessity, or the ability, to improve. Their bows and arrows, in spite of the praise that has been bestowed on them, are after all but rudely fashioned. Their knowledge, if any, of work-

* In some tribes both males and females are subjected to some kind of physical torture before they can be considered admissible to associate with adults.

ing the metal has been turned to very little use; a sharpened stone, or pointed fish-bone, are the only occasional attempts to make their weapons formidable, if we except the deadly Wourali poison, or the massive tomahawk, or club which in cases of danger is employed in their defence. True to the spirit of nomades, they have raised no cities, nor restricted themselves to any particular spot or dwelling. Their warfare requires no walls, their barter no chamber of commerce, their science no lecture-room, their religion no temple. Their field of battle is the mountain and the forest; their traffic is with the inhabitants of the air, the river, and the soil. Their science is exhibited alone in their instinct; their worship is nature. Their system of agriculture is simple, and always remains the same. Their amusements are dancing, drinking, and hunting; they have no games. Their rites of baptism, marriage, burial, present no imposing ceremony. The child is named by the piai-man, or conjurer, who in darkness utters a few incantations, for which he is paid. Their marriage is sanctioned neither by form nor contract. The young Indian selects, or has selected for him, a youthful maiden, who with implicit faithfulness and simplicity regards him as a protector and companion; as in olden times, it sometimes happens that he has to win his bride by a short period of servitude. Some tribes, especially the Warrows, place the corpses of distinguished individuals in a canoe, surrounded with almost all their worldly possessions, even, sometimes, to their very dogs. Lamentations and funeral fires ensue; and the widow and children are passed over to the brother or next male relative. And so the drama of life ends.

The Caribs sometimes collect the bones of those they esteem, and have them cleansed, painted, and preserved, or reduced to ashes.

Their religion partakes of the character of their habits. It is fanciful and ideal. They believe in the immortality of the soul. Conscious of a Creator, they feel so incapable of appreciating his existence, that beyond wonder and awe at the sublime phenomena of nature in the thunder-storm and gale of wind, they exhibit no desire to obtain a nearer knowledge of Him; but make themselves familiar with spirits or inferior deities, to whom they attribute the immediate occurrences of daily life, whether of good or evil. To such spirits they never offer worship; although it is stated by a writer on one of the West Indian Islands, that idols have been discovered buried in the ground.* Certain men from each tribe assume to themselves offices similar to that of priests in more civilised countries. They are called Pe-i-men, and act as conjurers, soothsayers, physicians, judges, and priests, thus uniting all the professions in their vicarious persons. They are looked up to with some reverence, and by their mysterious conduct and cunning intelligence, manage to make it a life of some profit to themselves. It would be useless and unprofitable to enter further upon the details of such a creed—if creed it may be called—the chief articles of which are a dim belief in an universal father, whom they called Tamousi, or according to others, Maconaima, and a confident but shapeless faith in a future state.

* Hughes' History of Barbadoes.

CHAPTER II.

SPIRIT OF ADVENTURE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY—THE PROBABLE DISCOVERY OF GUIANA BY COLUMBUS ON HIS THIRD VOYAGE IN 1498—EXPEDITION OF ALONZO DE OJEDA IN 1499; OF VINCENT JANEZ PINZON IN 1500; AND OF DIEGO DE NICUESSA IN 1509—RUMOURS AND FABULOUS ACCOUNTS OF THE EL DORADO—EXPEDITIONS OF DIEGO DE ORDAS IN 1530; OF HERRERA IN 1533; OF ANTONIO SIDERMO AND AUGUSTIN DELGADO IN 1536; AND OF GONZALO PIZARRO AND ORELLANA IN 1540-45—THE FRENCH ATTEMPT TO TRADE WITH BRAZIL AND GUIANA IN 1550-55—EXPEDITIONS OF PEDRO DE OSUA, JUAN CORTESE, GASPAR SYLVA, JUAN GONZALES, PHILIP DE VREN, PEDRO SYLVA, FATHER GALA, PEDRO DE LIMPIAS, GERONIMO ORTOL, PEDRO HERNANDES SERPA, GONZALES CASADA, DIEGO VARGAS, CACERES, ALONZO HERRERA, AND DIEGO LOGARDO—THE DUTCH VISIT GUIANA IN 1580—EXPEDITION OF ANTONIO BERREO OR BERREJO—DOMINGO VERA TAKES FORMAL POSSESSION OF GUIANA IN 1593—SIR WALTER RALEIGH VISITS GUIANA IN 1595; ADVENTURES AND RETURN; SENDS CAPT. KEYMIS IN 1596, AND VISITS IT AGAIN IN 1597, GIVING A DETAILED ACCOUNT OF THE COUNTRY ON HIS RETURN TO EUROPE; HIS FINAL EXPEDITION TO GUIANA IN 1617, AND ITS UNSUCCESSFUL RESULT—REFLECTIONS ON THE EARLIER ADVENTURERS.

THE precise time when the shores of Guiana were first visited cannot be fixed with certainty; but there is no doubt that they were known at a very early period. The spirit of inquiry had been roused to an incredible degree among European nations by the discoveries of Columbus, who explored an ocean then almost unknown, and, believing firmly in the existence of other continents, lived to prove the fact to the incredulous and astonished inhabitants of the Old World. His example was rapidly followed, and adventurers from all parts of the world set

sail in the excitement, and in the hope of adding to the list of discoverers.

The broad Atlantic, so long a wonder to the inquisitive spirit of man, became, in the fifteenth century, a scene of action to the enterprising. The favouring gales which swept the barks over the waters could not but guide some to the prominent eastern boundaries of the South American continent. Conspicuous in this region were found Guiana and its rude inhabitants. A number of marvellous stories are related in the chronicles of these early expeditions, the bulk of which are entitled to no more credit than the legends of the Pantheon. Amongst them we may at once dismiss as a pure fable the reputed discovery of the American continent by the crew of a vessel accidentally driven by an easterly wind to a continent hitherto unknown, who returned, after great distress and difficulty, and who all died shortly after their arrival in Europe, without disclosing to any one, save Columbus, the account of their voyage.*

Contrary to the opinions generally entertained on this subject, it would appear that the discovery of America dates from a period anterior to that of Columbus. The learned Humboldt, in his chapter on oceanic discoveries, assigns the credit of the discovery of America—at least, in its northern portions—to the Northmen of Europe. It occurred in the following manner:—Towards the close of the ninth century, Naddod was driven by storms to Iceland, while attempting to reach the Faroe Islands, which had been already visited by the Irish. The first settlement of the Northmen was made in 875 by Ingolf. The colonisation of Iceland, which Naddod first called Snowland (Snjoland), was carried through Greenland, in a south-western direction, to the new continent. In 986

* Robertson's History of America, vol. vi. p. 336.

parts of America were seen by Bjarne Herjulfsson, in a voyage from Greenland to the southward, but no attempt at landing was made by him. In the year 1000, the continent of North America was discovered by Leif, the son of Eric the Red. He first saw the land at the Island of Nantucket, 1 deg. south of Boston; then in Nova Scotia, and lastly in Newfoundland. But the historical accounts of the intercourse maintained between the settlers in the extreme north of Europe, such as Greenland and Iceland, with the continent of North America, do not extend beyond the fourteenth century, so that the merit of opening this immense continent to the knowledge of Europe, in 1492, really belongs to Columbus, who, unlike the previous discoverers, was not driven thither by storms, but was led to it by his conviction that the eastern territories of the world were to be reached in that direction. Indeed, both Columbus and Amerigo Vespucci died in the belief that they had merely touched on portions of eastern Asia. It was on the 12th October, 1492, that Columbus first discovered the land of Guanahani.

According to the Germans, it would seem that Martin Behaim was one of the discoverers of the New World. He was of the noble family of the Behaims of Nuremberg, and studied under the celebrated Regiomontanus, and proceeding to Lisbon, under the patronage of the Duchess of Burgundy, where he became renowned for his nautical knowledge, he formed the acquaintanceship of Columbus. In 1483, in conjunction with Diego Cano, he commanded a squadron fitted out for discovery, and is said to have discovered the kingdom of Congo. He settled in the island of Fayal, one of the Azores, and drew a map, which is still preserved in Nuremberg. In a copy of this map, as published by Doppilmayer, in

which hardly one place is laid down in its true situation, he delineated an island, which he called St. Brandon, and which it has been imagined was some part of Guiana. But as it is placed in the same latitude with the Cape de Verd Isles, the whole story is rendered absurd. Neither are the pretensions of the Welsh, nor of the Norwegians, nor indeed of other nations, worthy of any notice, as contending for the honour of the discovery of America.

We have good reason, however, to believe that Columbus himself first discovered, or at least made known, the land of Guiana; for in August, 1498, in his third voyage, he made the island of Trinidad, and encountered much difficulty in the mouth of the river Orinoco. "This river rolls towards the ocean such a vast body of water, and rushes into it with such impetuous force, that when it meets the tide, which on that coast rises to an uncommon height, their collision occasions a swell and agitation of the waves no less surprising than formidable. In this conflict the irresistible torrent of the river so far prevails, that it freshens the ocean many leagues with its flood."* Columbus, having escaped the difficulty, "justly concluded that such a vast body of water as this river contained could not be supplied by any island, but must flow through a country of immense extent, and of consequence that he was now arrived at that continent which it had long been the object of his wishes to discover."† He accordingly sailed to the west, and landed on the continent *in several places*.

In the following year (1499), Alonzo de Ojeda, a gallant and active officer, who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage, attended also by the famous Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine gentleman, who had the undeserved honour of giving a name to the world dis-

* Robertson's America, book ii. p. 154.

† Ibid.

covered by another, set out for a voyage of discovery in four ships, provided by the merchants of Seville. Availing themselves of the journal and charts of Columbus in his second voyage, they succeeded in reaching the eastern coast of South America, and are supposed to have made the land of Surinam after a voyage of twenty-four days. They then ran along the coast of the Gulf of Paria, passing *several large rivers*—amongst others, the rivers Essequibo and Orinoco. They saw no natives until their arrival at Trinidad, where, after *trading* with them, they stood to the west, and proceeded as far as Cape de Vela, *ranging along* a considerable extent of coast.

Not long after, Vincent Janez Pinzon, a companion of Columbus in his first voyage, sailed from Patos with four ships, January 13th, 1500, and made the land of Santa Maria de la Consolacion, or Cape St. Augustino, on the eastern angle of South America: he discovered the mighty river of the Amazons, or river Maranon, and landed on the coast at its mouth. From thence he sailed onwards, passing the rivers of Guiana as far as the river Orinoco, where it is supposed by some that he also landed. He afterwards proceeded to Hispaniola and the Bahamas. The Spaniards, according to an old writer,* on ascending the several rivers, were astonished at their size and peculiarities. On exploring the countries in the neighbourhood of the Orinoco, they received information of a territory far in the interior, which abounded in gold and emeralds, and of a salt-water lake, called *Parima*; thus leaving no doubt that so early as the time I have mentioned an acquaintance had been made with some of the tribes belonging to Guiana, among whom a tradition of his visit was known to have existed. A few years later another Spaniard received similar information on the opposite part of the coast.

* Herrera.

Although the discovery of the different portions of America succeeded each other so rapidly, it was not until about ten years after Columbus had made his first successful voyage, that the Spaniards practically attempted to form settlements on the main land. Unsupported by the crown of Spain, and at the sole expense of a few private individuals, this enterprising object was effected, chiefly through the famous Alonzo de Ojeda, who had acquired considerable reputation and wealth in some voyages of discovery; and who was assisted by another Spaniard, Diego de Nicuessa, a successful adventurer. Titles and patents (but nothing else) were granted by Ferdinand, and about 1509 two governments were established on the continent; one extending from Cape de Vela to the Gulf of Darien, and the other from this gulf to Cape Gracias à Dias, from which settlements parties were sent to explore the inland districts. The first government was given to Ojeda, the second to Nicuessa. Much formality and time were wasted in prescribing the mode by which possession should be taken. They were to expound to the natives the principal articles of the Christian Faith; to acquaint them with the powers of the Pope; to inform them of the grant which that formidable prince had made of their country to the King of Spain, and to insist upon their embracing the new religion and submitting to the Spanish authority. In default of the fulfilment of these conditions they were to be punished with fire and the sword, and their wives and families were to be reduced to servitude. As a matter of course, such arguments being rather new to the independent Indian, and somewhat too subtle for their uncultivated understandings, caused considerable confusion and opposition. Force being employed by the Spaniards when they found arguments fail, the insulted Indian, roused to a sense of his danger, replied to

both by *poisoned arrows* (another proof that the natives of Guiana were concerned in these occurrences), and effectually annihilated their invaders. The Spaniards, prevented from escaping by the loss of their ships, perished within a year in the most miserable manner. A few survivors, headed by Vasco Nunez de Bilboa and Francisco Pizarro, formed a feeble colony at Santa Maria de Antigua, on the Gulf of Darien. Such was the first reception given to Europeans in America by the simple aborigines of the interior.

The confused accounts which had been given to the Spaniards in the year 1500, about a rich city abounding in gold, silver, and precious stones, situated on the borders of the lake Parima, within the precincts of Guiana, inflamed the adventurous spirit of the age, and led to numerous enterprises, undertaken in the hope of discovering this famous region. Thus early were the cupidity and the credulity of the Spaniards excited with regard to an ideal city, with its golden palaces, and streets paved with precious stones, reflecting their gorgeous beauty in the translucent waters of the Parima. Thus early was this *El Dorado** of the west, this supposed land of surpassing loveliness and wealth, held up as the greatest object of the Spanish conqueror's ambition. Mexico had been overrun, Peru had been conquered, but still the avarice of the invader had not been satiated, and El Dorado, the highest prize in the lottery of adventure, remained yet to be drawn. Hence ensued the

* The term El Dorado was not originally applied to any particular region, but rather to an individual. According to Father Gumilla, the fable had its origin on the coast of Carthagena and Santa Martha, whence it passed to Bogota. A rumour prevailed through those regions that the sovereign prince of a country which abounded in gold, when he appeared in public, had his body sprinkled over with gold-dust; hence arose the expression of El Dorado, the gilded, or golden, which was subsequently applied to a supposed rich country. Others, however, derive the term from a religious practice among the sect of Bochica, or Idacanzas, whose chief priest stuck gold-dust upon his face and hands before he performed sacrifice.

romantic and spirited exploits, of which the following are instances.

A governor had been sent out by Ferdinand, King of Spain, and was to reside in the then capital of the Guiana del Dorado, viz., Trinidad, an island on its coast.

In the year 1530, Don Diego de Ordaz, the governor of Quito, and one of the captains of Cortes, although living upon the opposite side of the continent, sent some of his people to explore Guiana. They had to pass high mountains and barren plains, and from the difficulty of the journey, and the lack of provisions, were obliged to return. According to the account of Raleigh, it would appear that one Don Martines was an officer under Diego de Ordace, and got into a considerable scrape.

“ For it chanced that while Ordace, with his army, rested at the fort of Morriquito (situated some 300 miles within the land, upon the great Oronoco), and which Ordace was either the first or second that attempted Guiana, by some negligence, the whole store of powder provided for the service was set on fire, and Martines, having the chief charge, was condemned by the general, Ordace, to be executed forthwith. Martines being much favoured by the soldiers, had all the means possible procured for his life, but it could not be obtained in any other sort than this, that he should be set in a canoe alone, without any victuals, only with his arms, and so turned loose in the great river.” This Martines afterwards, who had the honour of christening the city of Manoa by the name of El Dorado, escaped to Trinidad, and from thence to Juan de Puerto Rico, where remaining a long time waiting for a passage into Spain, he died.

Don Diego subsequently returned to Spain, and procured letters patent from the Emperor Charles V., which secured to him all the land he should discover from Cape de la Vela, 300 miles to the east. Still

intent on the discovery of the El Dorado, and whilst cruising near the mouth of the river Amazons, he captured some Indians who had precious stones resembling emeralds in their possession. Deluded by his prisoners into the belief that higher up this river there was a land abounding in similar productions and rich in gold, he proceeded, in 1531, with his force, consisting of several ships and about 400 men, up this mighty river; but dismayed at the loss of one of his ships, and many of his men, and harassed by the strong currents and vexatious calms, he abandoned his object, and sailed for Paria, on the Orinoco, where he found a fort that had been erected by the governor of the Guianas, Don Palameque. He took possession of this fort (although commanded by an officer of the governor's, Juan Goncalves), under pretext of the letter patent granted to him by the emperor, and ascended the river Orinoco,* and although suffering from the want of provisions, and from the mosquitoes, bats, and other plagues, he arrived at the dwelling of the cassique Viapari (the Indian name of the river Orinoco), where, being well received, he remained for some time. On attempting to make further progress up the river, he lost his largest ship, and was obliged in consequence to follow the banks of the stream, with about 200 men, and forty horses. On his route, he met only a few Caribbean fishermen. Having once more re-embarked his troops, he proceeded up the Orinoco, about 300 miles from its mouth, when he met the large tributary stream, the Meta, which, rushing down over the rocks in the form of a huge cataract, joins the Orinoco in this singular manner. Being now obliged to retrace his steps without having succeeded in discovering the coveted El Dorado, he

* Sir W. Raleigh says he reached the river Orinoco by the river Viapari; but this was the name given to the Orinoco by the Spanish and Indians.

descended the river, to about forty-five miles from its mouth, where, on its *eastern* bank, he built a town, which he called *St. Thomas of Guiana*.

Thus had Diego de Ordas the honour of first erecting a town within the precincts of the Guianas. He soon afterwards returned to Spain, and died, either on his passage, or shortly after his arrival. In the course of these expeditions he had transported out of Spain 1000 soldiers. Situated at the confluence of the Caroni and the Orinoco, this town was never of much importance; it consisted of about 150 houses, and the inhabitants planted tobacco, and, encouraged by the fruitful soil and fine pasturage, endeavoured to grow provisions, and to breed cattle and horses, which they procured from Comana; but a few years after, the English and Dutch, jealous of the progress of the Spaniards, disturbed them in their possessions. It was not, however, until the year 1570, that these disturbances commenced, and in 1629, on the 30th November, but according to others, on the 11th December, a Dutch force of nine ships, and some sloops under Admiral Pater, took the town, which they plundered and burned. Some of the inhabitants escaped to Comana, and others repairing about seven miles further up the river, on the same side, erected another town.*

Previously to these occurrences, however, the governor of Paria sent his lieutenant, Alfonso de Herrera, with 200 soldiers, and five vessels, to St. Thomas of Guiana, in 1533. They had several skirmishes with the Caribbean Indians, and killed many of them. Proceeding further, they arrived at the Meta cataract, already alluded to, and, undaunted by its roaring waters, they carried their vessels over the fall, and succeeded in making the ascent of the river. Their success was not unaccom-

* St. Thomé de Nueva Guayana, the present City of Bolivar.

panied by losses and disasters. Herrera and his troops were constantly harassed by the natives, who killed many of them with their poisoned arrows. Herrera himself was severely wounded, and became mad in consequence. During his temporary insanity, Alvaro de Ordas took command of the expedition, and considering discretion the better part of valour, returned to Paria, which he reached in 1536. In the same year another expedition was undertaken by Antonio Sidenno, with whom Herrera and Augustin Delgado were associated in the conquest of Trinidad against Bawcunar, a famous king of that place. Sidenno passed by Maracapaná with 500 chosen men to discover El Dorado. In this journey he is said to have got much gold, and taken many Indian prisoners, whom he manacled in irons, several of them dying on the way. Even in their deaths these Indians became formidable, for the tigers that came to feast on their dead bodies fell upon the Spaniards, who with great difficulty defended themselves from their attacks. Sidenno having died, was buried within the precincts of the empire, near the head of the river Tinados, and most of his people perished.*

Doomed to disappointment by water, in search of the El Dorado, an expedition by land was attempted by Gonzalo Pizarro, who had been appointed governor of Quito, by his brother, the famous Francisco Pizarro, who had deposed Benalcazar. Assembling together about 400 Spaniards, nearly half of whom were horsemen, and 400 Indians, to carry their provisions, which they had in abundance, Gonzalo Pizarro, a man of great courage and ambition, left the capital of Peru (Quito), in the year 1540 (others say 1544), to explore the golden land. Passing over the lofty summits of the Andes, where the cold was severely felt, they descended,

* Raleigh.

after incredible hardships, into the low country, where an almost uninhabited territory, and torrents of rain, awaited them. Advancing for many weeks through dense forests, occasional mountains, and swampy marshes, assailed by numerous insects, serpents, and some tribes of Indians; and suffering from the failure of their provisions, they still persevered, with the prospect of the glittering prize before them, until they reached the banks of the river Napo, a tributary stream of the Amazon, which, in 1536, had been already discovered by Gonzalves Dias de Pineda. Aware of the difficulties by land, they contrived to build a bark for the purpose of seeking provisions, and facilitating their exploration of the country. The command of this expedition was entrusted to Francisco Orellana, the officer next in rank to Pizarro. He had with him about fifty soldiers, and receiving his orders from Pizarro, was directed not to venture far, but to keep within reach of his party; notwithstanding these strict instructions, he boldly entered the river, and, carried away by the current, was soon out of sight. Fearlessly following the stream, this enterprising, but unprincipled officer, reached at length the broader waters of the Amazon, where he held on his course towards the ocean. Struck, as well he might be, by its fruitful banks, he occasionally made excursions on land, where he procured provisions, either by traffic, or by force, from the native tribes. It was whilst combating with some of these, that he observed, with surprise, that the women fought equally with the men, giving rise to the fable of the land of Amazons, for whatever might have been the case in his day, nothing particularly warlike on the part of the female population of that part of the globe has ever since been noticed. It was here, also, that his cupidity was excited by the sight of some precious stones, resembling emeralds, which

the Indians declared abounded higher up the river. Having named the river Orellana, after himself (a name which, though attempted to be retained by some, has given place to the equally unmerited one of Amazon), he, after incredible dangers, launched his adventurous bark into the ocean, and returned to Spain about the year 1545, where he pretended that he had discovered nations so rich, that the roofs of their temples were covered with plates of gold, and dwelt with enthusiasm on his wars with the female republics of the Amazon, and his long voyage, 1550 miles, up the river.

Meanwhile, Gonzalo Pizarro, unwilling to believe in the treachery of Orellana, proceeded along the banks of the Napo as far as its junction with the Amazon, where a rendezvous had been arranged; but receiving no account of the expedition, he tracked the banks about fifty leagues further on. Here, to his dismay, he discovered an officer who had been left to perish in the desert, because he had remonstrated against the perfidy of Orellana. The danger of his situation was now revealed to him, but with undaunted courage he retraced his steps. Distant about 1200 miles from Quito, he had to lead his dispirited and disappointed followers back through the difficult road they had traversed. Their hardships were beyond description; emaciated, worn out with hunger and fatigue, all the Indians, and the greater number of the Spaniards, perished in that fatal campaign—only eighty returned to Quito, and these in the most deplorable state, naked and famished. Thus, in the year 1542, ended one of the most famous expeditions in search of an ideal city, mocking the sun with golden mansions and silver waters.

Nor were the Spaniards the only nation credulous enough to believe in the romantic tale which had now been circulated all over Europe. It would appear that

the French, who were at this time (1550) in the habit of sending ships to the Brazilian coast, to trade with the Indians in pepper, dye, wood, and other native productions, actually undertook several voyages to discover the El Dorado, but with the same results. The cause of their failure is given in a very quaint manner by Sir Walter Raleigh, who, describing the French as taking the course of the Amazon in search of the golden land, declared that they were mistaken in the road, "den rechten Weg niet genomen hadden."*

In one of these voyages, about the year 1555, they rescued from the Indians a Dutch traveller, "Hans-staden," of Homburg, in Hesse (who wrote an account of his travels), and were told by him that he had been a prisoner for about five years among the Indian tribes.

Upon another occasion, one Pedro de Osua, a knight of Navarre, attempted to explore Guiana. Starting from Peru with 400 soldiers, he built his brigantines upon a river called Orio, which riseth to the southward of Quito, and is very large. This Pedro de Osua had among his troops a Biscayan called Agiri, a man meanly born, and who bore no other office than that of sergeant, or alferes. This man induced the soldiers, who were worn with travail, and consumed with famine, to mutiny, and having murdered Osua, and his wife Lady Anes, "who forsook not her lord in all his travels unto death," he took the whole charge and command to himself, with the purpose not only of making himself Emperor of Guiana, but also of Peru, and of all that side of the West Indies. His party amounted to about 700 soldiers; but not being able to reach Guiana by the Amazon, they were "enforced to disembogue at the mouth of the said Amazon, thence he coasted the land till he arrived at Marguarita, to the north of Monpatar, which is, at this day, called

* Hartsink, p. 158.

Puerto de Tyranno, for that he there slew Don Juan de Villa Andreda, governor of Marguarita." Agiri put to the sword all those who opposed him, and took with him certain ceremonies and other desperate companions; with these he went to Cumana, and there slew the governor, and otherwise behaved in the same manner as at Marguarita. He afterwards proceeded to the Coraccas, but was slain in the kingdom of Nuevo Reyno.

The following expeditions were also undertaken about this period. A Spaniard, Juan Corteso, arrived at the river of Amazons, or Orellana, with 300 men, and marched into the country; but neither himself nor his men ever returned again to tell the tale of their adventures.

Gaspar de Sylva, with his two brothers, departed from Teneriffe, accompanied by 200 men, to assist Diego de Ordas. They sought El Dorado by the river of the Amazons; but after staying there a short time, proceeded to Trinidad, where they all died.

Juan Gonsalves set sail from Trinidad to discover Guiana; he trusted more to the faith of his guides than to the number of his men. He found the territory of Guiana, so far as he entered, to be populous, plentiful in provisions, and rich in gold.

Philip de Vren and Pedro de Limpias were leaders in another expedition into Guiana; the latter was slain by an Indian cassique, named Pouina.

Jeronimo de Ortol, with 150 soldiers, failed in an attempt to reach Guiana by sea. He was carried by the current to the coast of Paria, and settled about St. Miguel; after suffering great hardships, and his substance having been all spent, he died at St. Domingo.

Pedro de Sylva, a Portuguese of the family of Rigomes de Sylva, in favour with the King of Spain, was sent with a fleet to explore Guiana, and failed also in his

object. He entered the Amazons, but was attacked by the natives, and utterly overthrown; of his whole army only a few escaped, and of these but two returned to their native country.

A certain friar, Father Sala, once made an excursion into the provinces of Guiana, taking with him only one companion, and some Indian guides. He returned with good intelligence, and is said to have brought with him eagles, idols, and other jewels of gold, in the year 1560. On a second visit to the country he was slain by the Indians.

An attempt to reach Guiana was also made by Pedro Hernandez de Serpa, who landed at Cumana, and took his journey by land towards Orinoco; but before he arrived at the borders of the river, he was attacked by a tribe of Indians, the Wikiri, and so completely routed, that, out of 300 soldiers, besides horsemen, Indians, and negroes, only eighteen returned to give an account of their leader's failure.

Another famous Spaniard, Don Gonsalves Cenunco de Cassada, sought the country by the river Papamura, and effected his return, after a fruitless journey, with much difficulty and cost. It was at his instigation that the gigantic expedition of Don Antonio de Berrejo was undertaken, which the latter declared cost him 300,000 ducats.

Afterwards Diego de Vargas, and his son Don Juan, undertook a similar enterprise, but were slain by the Indians at their first setting out.

Caceres attempted the exploration of Guiana from Nuevo Reyno de Granada, but came no nearer to it than Matachines, which bordered upon the kingdom of Granada, where he remained and peopled that territory.

It was also attempted by Alonço de Herrera upon two different occasions. He endured great misery, but never

entered one league into the country. He sought it by Viapari, or Amana, and was at last slain by a tribe of Indians, called Xaguas.

Augustine Delgado explored the country to the southward of Cumanawgotto, with fifty-three footmen and three horsemen. The wars then existing between the Indians of the vale and those of the mountains assisted him in his object. He advanced until he met with an Indian cassique, named Garamental, who received him with much kindness, and gave him some rich jewels of gold, six seemly pages, ten young slaves, and three beautiful nymphs, who bore the names of the three provinces from whence they had been sent to Garamental. Their names were Guanba, Poloquane, and Marguarata. These provinces were reputed to be very healthful, and to possess a remarkable influence in producing fair women. The Spaniards afterwards requited the manifold courtesies they had received, by absconding with all the gold that they could obtain, and seizing the Indians as prisoners, whom they conveyed in irons to Cubagua, where they sold them as slaves. Delgado was afterwards shot in the eye by an Indian, and died in consequence of the wound. Diego de Losada succeeded in his brother's place. He had many new followers, all of whom, in the end, wasted themselves in mutinies; those that survived returned afterwards to Cubagua.

Reynoso undertook an expedition, but having endured innumerable troubles, "in the discomfort of his mind gave it over, and was buried in Hispaniola."

The Dutch, although in the habit of sending ships for the purposes of trade, which cruised along the coast from the river Amazon to the Orinoco, do not appear to have seriously entertained any scheme for seeking this land of promise. Sedate, calculating, and phlegmatic, they resisted the infatuation, and addressed themselves to

the real and practical advantages the country presented to them.

In the year 1580, some vessels being sent from the province of Zealand to carry on the rude system of barter then practised, some of the persons concerned in the expedition established themselves near the river Pomeeroon, where they formed a settlement which they called New Zealand, while others of the party formed similar settlements on the river Essequibo, and at the mouth of the Abary or Wayabari Creek, where there was an Indian village called Nibie. In June or July of the ensuing year, 1581, these rational movements acquired a more solid character from a wise resolution of the States-General, which granted permission to certain individuals to follow up the experiment by fitting out an expedition for the purpose of trading along the coast and up the rivers.

While the Dutch were thus sagaciously employed, the Spaniards, undeterred by the miserable fate of so many of their countrymen who had perished in the enterprise, resolved to undertake a fresh venture in search of the El Dorado. In 1582, Don Antonio Berrejo,* by command of Don Gonsalvo Ximeny de Quesada, whose daughter he had married, set out from New Granada, and proceeded along the river Papameni, a tributary of the Orinoco. But, notwithstanding the advantages under which he started, he fell into the same errors as his predecessors, and suffered similar disasters — failure of provisions, sickness, an impracticable country, the harassing assaults of the Indians, and insubordination amongst his own troops. Utterly discomfited by these accumulated misfortunes, he returned with the wreck of his followers; but, ashamed to confess his ill success, like a true Spaniard he invented marvellous falsehoods to conceal it, and circulated absurd stories of the

* Raleigh.

sights he had seen and the incidents that had occurred to him, boasting of having a present of ten golden images very artistically worked, "zeer kunstig bewirkt," from an Indian named Anabas, who lived on the borders of Amapaja, and with whom he had concluded a treaty of peace. He very ingeniously got over the difficulty of producing these fabulous images to his countrymen by declaring that he had sent them to the King of Spain. He furthermore stated that he had discovered a civilised people, "Een handelbaar Volk,"* whose chief, Caripana, was above one hundred years old. From this imaginary personage he pretended to have obtained information of another chief named Morequito, who he stated was well acquainted with the *kingdom of Guiana*. This intelligence fired anew the cupidity of his countrymen, and a fresh batch formed themselves into an exploring party, and proceeded, under a commission from Berrejo, to open a negotiation with Morequito; but they had no sooner reached that chief than he put them all to death, with the exception of one man who escaped, and carried back to Berrejo the tidings of the fate that had befallen his companions.† Soon afterwards, however, Morequito paid the full penalty of his cruelty, being himself taken prisoner and executed—a doom which he in vain endeavoured to avert by offering his captors three quintals of gold in ransom. Another Indian, named Tapiawari, uncle to Morequito, and about one hundred years old, was also taken prisoner, and is said to have ransomed himself for one hundred plates of gold, and some green stones which the Spaniards called *pedras hijadas* (spleen stones, according to Raleigh).

On the 23rd of April, 1593, another Spaniard, Domingo de Vera, prosecuted a voyage of discovery, in

* Hartsink.

† A famous account of the expedition of Berrejo is given by Sir Walter Raleigh, vol. i. p. 195.

the hope of meeting with the supposed splendid capital of the Guianas. Failing as a matter of course in his object, he formally took possession of the whole country in the name of his sovereign, Philip the Second. The following translation from Hartsink embodies the substance of the document which testifies to the act :

“ River de Pato, April 23rd, 1593.

“ I, Rodrigues de Corança, secretary of marine, hereby testify that Domingo de Vera, lieutenant of Antonio Berrejo, having called his soldiers together, and placed them in battle array, thus addressed them :

“ ‘ My friends, you know what pains our General Don Antonio Berrejo has taken, and at what expense he has been during the last eleven years in his endeavours to discover the mighty kingdom of Guiana and El Dorado. It is also not unknown to you how he has suffered under the most extraordinary difficulties during this famous undertaking; now, although in consequence of want of food, and the sickness of his people, this great labour and cost has been useless, he has ordered me to renew this undertaking. On that account, to take possession of Guiana in the name of the king and of our general, I command you, Francisco Carillo, to take up the cross which lays there upon the ground, and to turn it towards the east.’

“ Carillo having obeyed this order, the lieutenant and the soldiers threw themselves upon the ground before the cross, and prayed on their knees. After which, Domingo de Vera took a cupful of water and drank it; he then took another cupful and sprinkled it upon the ground, and, drawing his sword, cut down some grass and twigs of trees, saying: ‘ In the name of God I take possession of this land for Don Philip, our noble sovereign;’ upon which all the officers and men again kneeling, answered: ‘ We will protect this possession with the last drop of

our blood.' After which, Domingo de Vera, with his naked sword in his hand, charged me to proclaim this assumption of territory, and to call upon all present to bear witness to the same.

“Signed, Domingo de Vera, through me, Rodrigues de Corança, secretary.”

Besides the foregoing expeditions, a host of other adventurers attempted further enterprises. But there is no further evidence to show that either the Spaniards or Portuguese made additional progress in the possession of Guiana, or built any forts, with the exception of the settlements of the former on the river Orinoco, and of the latter on the Amazon; nor is there any notice in the voyages to these countries, nor any relics to be found, which could lead us to believe that the Spaniards or Portuguese conquered any of the regions between the rivers Orinoco and Amazon, within whose confines were supposed to exist the Golden City and its Silver Lake. The only traces that remain of their presence in the country, are the Portuguese arms rudely carved over the gateway of an abandoned fort, and the names of some Spanish adventurers hewn out on the rocks in the interior.

But before quitting this part of the subject, we must refer briefly to the exploits of some of our own countrymen in this region.

Animated by the same spirit of adventure and inquiry which had been awakened elsewhere by the genius of Columbus, they also despatched vessels in all directions to add to the many triumphs of the sixteenth century.

Pre-eminent among these travellers and heroes was the gifted but unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh, who, after sending expeditions to the northern continent of America, and founding the colony of Virginia, was sent

to the West Indies in command of a fleet of fifteen large ships to harass the Spaniards, with whom the English were then at war. That part of his enterprise, however, does not concern our narrative.

Sir Walter Raleigh, in his retirement, "having had many years since knowledge by relation of that mighty, rich, and beautiful empire of Guiana, and of that great and golden city which the Spaniards call El Dorado, and the natives Manoa," contemplated a voyage to this country, and on Thursday, February 6th, 1595, set sail in his own ship, accompanied by a small bark of Captain Cross's, besides a small gallego, and arrived at Trinidad on March 22, casting anchor at Point Curiapan, which the Spaniards called Punto de Gallo, situated in 8 deg., or thereabout. After having explored a great part of the island of Trinidad, he attacked St. Joseph, the capital, captured the Governor Berrejo, and set fire to it, at the instigation of the Indians, who had been most cruelly ill-treated by the Spaniards. Being reinforced by Captain George Gifford and Captain Keymis, Raleigh proceeded to Guiana; but the distance (according to report, 600 miles,) being greater than he had anticipated, he concealed the fact from the knowledge of the company, who otherwise would never have been induced to attempt the exploration. "In the bottom of an old gallego, which I caused to be fashioned like a galley, and in one barge, two wherries, and a ship's boat, we carried 100 persons, and their victuals for a month, being all driven to lie in the rain and weather, in the open air, in the burning sun, and upon the boards, and to dress our meat, and to carry all manner of furniture in them; wherewith they were so pestered and unsavoury, that what with victuals, being most fish, with the wet clothes of so many men thrust together, and the heat of the sun, I will undertake there was never any person in England that could be

found more unsavoury and loathsome, especially to myself, who had for many years before been dieted and cared for in sort far different." Being obliged to return from many causes, Sir Walter Raleigh enters into a full account of his travels and of the country, declaring "that whatsoever prince shall possess it, that prince shall be lord of more gold, and of a more beautiful empire, and of more cities and people, than either the King of Spain or the Great Turk"—a singular prophecy, and in part fulfilled.

Raleigh, having listened to the long account given of Guiana by Don Antonio Berrejo, resolved to make a trial to discover it, although urgently dissuaded by the Spaniard, who was hitherto unaware of Raleigh's object in coming hither. On the 22nd of May, after having been surrounded with difficulties in the neighbourhood of the Orinoco, as above noticed, he discovered some Indians, who made him acquainted with the country of Guiana. Having provided a vessel that drew very little water, he explored the coast, and discovered several rivers. He saw birds of all colours, "carnation, crimson, orange, tawny, purple, green, and other sorts, both simple and mixed." After innumerable dangers in ascending some of those wild and hitherto unexplored rivers, he discovered on the fifteenth day the distant mountains of Guiana. On his route he fell in with several tribes of Indians, with whom he entered into friendly relations, accompanying them to their several towns. Having arrived at the river Caroli, he marched overland to view the strange waterfalls, and ascended the hills in the neighbourhood to see the adjacent country. There he heard of a great silver-mine. The following is Raleigh's description of the scene :

"I never saw a more beautiful country, nor more lively prospects: hills so raised here and there over the

valleys, the river winding into divers branches, the plains adjoining without bush or stubble; all fair green grass, the ground of hard sand, easy to march on either for horse or foot; the deer crossing in every path, the birds toward the evening singing on every tree with a thousand several tunes, cranes and herons of white, crimson, and carnation, perching on the river's side, the air fresh with a gentle easterly wind, and every stone that we stooped to take up promised either gold or silver by its complexion."

Some of these stones were believed by the Spaniards at Caraccas to be "el madre del oro," and they affirmed that the mine was further in the ground. On the left of the river Caroli dwelt a tribe of Indians, called Iwarawakesi (enemies to the Epuremie), and adjoining a great lake named Cassipa, reported about forty miles broad, dwelt other tribes, called Cassepagotos, Eparegotos, and Arrawagotos. Beyond Caroli was another river, called Arvi, and next it two other rivers, Atoica and Caora, on which latter inhabited the people called Ewaipanoma, "*whose heads appear not above their shoulders*," which fable, indeed, was generally asserted, and was partly credited by Raleigh, who states that "such a nation was written of by Mandeville many years ago."

To the west of Caroli was met with another river, the Casnero, "falling into the Orinoco, and larger than any in Europe. * * * The winter and summer in these regions, as touching cold and heat, differ not, neither do the trees ever sensibly lose their leaves, but have always fruit either ripe or green, and most of them both blossoms, leaves, ripe fruit, and green at one time." To the north of Caroli was the river Cari, beyond it the river Limo, and between these a nation of cannibals, "in whose chief town, called Acamacaris, is a continual market of women, who were bought by the Arwacas for three or four

hatchets a piece, and sold by them to the West Indies. To the west of Limo were the rivers Paø, Caturi, Voari, and Capuri, a branch of the Meta; and mention is also made of several other rivers and provinces inland."

Raleigh next proceeded to trace the Orinoco toward the sea. He described it as being navigable for ships for nearly 1000 miles, and for smaller vessels nearly 2000 miles, which at the present day is known to be incorrect. The winter or wet season having set in, he departed toward the east, "for no half day passed but the river began to rage and overflow very fearfully, and the rains came down in terrible showers, and gusts in great abundance." Raleigh having arrived at the fort of Morequito, sent for an old Indian, Topiawari, uncle to Morequito, to give further information about the country. This old chief dissuaded him from attempting the city of Manoa for many reasons, relating at the same time marvellous tales about plates and images of gold which abounded among the borderers; but when Raleigh, excited by these stories, urged an immediate attack, the crafty old Indian always prayed him to defer it till next year. Fully persuaded that these riches actually existed, he prudently deferred his attack till a more fitting season; and leaving one Francis Sparrow and a boy, called Hugh Godwin, to make further investigations into the country and language, he took with him a son of the old Indian, as a hostage, and departed on his voyage, carefully exploring the country as he proceeded. He found many beautiful valleys abounding in deer, and lakes full of fish and fowl. In one of these lakes he met with "fishes big as a wine-pipe, which they called manati, and which is most excellent and wholesome meat." The manati is better known now as the sea-cow. Raleigh having descended the Orinoco to where it branched into three great rivers, divided his party, and explored the several

branches, on the borders of one of which, the Winicopora, he discovered a mountain of crystal. "We saw it far off, and it appeared like a white church tower of an exceeding height. There falleth over it a mighty river, which toucheth no part of the side of the mountain, but rusheth over the top of it, and falleth to the ground with a terrible noise and clamour, as if a thousand great balls were knocked one against another." Berrejo, his prisoner, told him that this mountain contained diamonds and other precious stones, the shining light of which might be seen at a great distance. Raleigh having explored several other rivers, or branches of the Orinoco, after numerous dangers and difficulties, at length succeeded in reaching Trinidad, where he had the happiness of meeting his ships, and shortly afterwards proceeded to England. His report of Guiana was most favourable. He represented it as richer than Mexico or Peru, as abounding in all manner "of fish, flesh, and fowl," and states "that for health, good air, pleasure, and riches, I am resolved it cannot be equalled by any region either in the East or West." Out of 100 persons who accompanied him in his romantic and perilous expedition, exposed to all the hardships of human life, such as want of food, raiment, habitation, and rest, and subjected to all the vicissitudes of the weather, and perils both by land and sea, not one died. "The soil," he adds, "is so excellent, and so full of rivers, as it will carry sugar, ginger, and all those commodities which the West Indies hath." To conclude, he adds: "Guiana is a country that hath never yet been sacked, turned, nor wrought. The face of the earth has not been torn, nor the virtue and salt of the soil spent by manurance;" and he winds up his exaggerated description of the country by declaring that among the prophecies in Peru, some of which foretold the loss of the said empire, there was one which affirmed

that from "Inglatierra a nation would come which would subdue the conquerors of the Ingas." He further states: "I had sent Captain Widden, the year before, to get what knowledge he could of Guiana; and the end of my journey at this time was to discover and enter the same. But my intelligence was far from truth; for the country is situate above 600 English miles further from the sea than I was made believe it had been.

"But because there may arise many doubts, and how this empire of Guiana is become so populous, and adorned with so many great cities, towns, temples, and treasures, I thought good to make it known, that the emperor now reigning is descended from those magnificent princes of Peru, of whose large territories, of whose policies, conquests, edifices, and riches, Pedro de Ceizor, Francisco Topz, and others, have written large discourses. For when Francisco Pacaro, Diego Almagro, and others, conquered the said empire of Peru, and had put to death Atabalipa, son to Guaynacapa (which Atabalipa had formerly caused his eldest brother Guascar to be slain), one of the younger sons of Guaynacapa fled out of Peru, and took with him many thousands of those soldiers of the empire called orciones, and with those and many others which followed him, he vanquished all that tract and valley of America which is situate between the great rivers of Amazon and Baraquan, otherwise called Maraquon, and Orinoco.*

"The empire of Guiana is directly east from Peru toward the sea, and lieth under the equinoctial line, and it hath more abundance of gold than any part of Peru, and as many or more great cities than ever Peru had when it flourished most. It is governed by the same laws, and the emperor and people observe the same religion, and the same form and policies in government, as

* Discoverie of Gviana by Sir Walter Raleigh, Knt.

was used in Peru, not differing in any part; and, as I have been assured by such of the Spaniards as have seen Manoa, the imperial city of Guiana, which the Spaniards call El Dorado, for the greatness, the riches, and for the excellent seat, far exceedeth any of the world, at least of so much of the world as is known to the Spanish nation. It is founded upon a lake of salt water of 200 leagues long, like unto Mare Caspium, and if we compare it to that of Peru, and but read the report of Francisco Lopez, and others, it will seem more than credible.

“It seemeth to me that this empire is reserved for her Majesty and the English nation, by reason of the hard success which all these and other Spaniards found in attempting the same.” Another strange prophecy.

Sir Walter Raleigh, after his return to England, still brooded over in his mind (already filled with numerous schemes) his “favourite but visionary plan of penetrating into the province of Guiana, where he fondly dreamed of taking possession of inexhaustible wealth, flowing from the richest mines in the New World.”* Prevented himself at that time from undertaking the voyage, he sent out Captain Laurens Keymis, in 1596, to pursue the exploration. This navigator carefully traced the several rivers between the Orinoco and the Amazon, and described them in his travels as sixty-seven in number, enumerating also the names of the Indian tribes that inhabited their banks. On the 6th of April, 1596, he arrived at the Orinoco, sailed up that river, passing by two havens, Topamerica and Topiawari, without meeting any Indians, who since the time that they had trafficked with Raleigh, had been driven away by the Spaniards. Keymis returned to England without making any discovery of importance. Nor did any better success attend another expedition, under Captain Masham, in the same

* Robertson, book ix. p. 184.

year. The following is an account of Captain Keymis's expedition :

On Monday, January 26th, 1596, he sailed from Portland Road in the *Darling*, of London, having in company the *Discoverer*, a small pinnace, which parted from them at sea in foul weather the Thursday following, and which they supposed to be lost. Friday, February 13th, fell in with the Canary Islands, and afterwards steered for the islands of Cape Verd. Thence they sailed February 28, and on Sunday the 14th of March descried a low land in the bottom of a bay, the water very smooth but muddy, and the colour red or tawny. They anchored in the mouth of the river Arrowari, a fair and great river, and there explored the country, meeting the following rivers, Arcooa, Wiapoco, Wanari, Caparwacka, Cawo, Caian, Wia, Macuria, Cawroor, and Curassawini. While ascending some of these streams, he met with Indians, and stated to them that he had come only for the purpose of trading with them. These Indians exhibited a friendly disposition, and sought the aid of the English against another nation, the Arwaccas. Keymis procured a guide from the tribe of the Iaos, "who mark themselves with the tooth of an animal, after divers forms," and this man requested to be carried to England, which was done.

In addition to those already mentioned, the following rivers are enumerated by Keymis: Cunanamma, Vracco, Maivari, Mawarparo, Amouna, Marowini, Oncowi, Wiawiami, Aramatappo, Camaiwini, *Shurinama* (now the Surinam), Shurama, Cupanamma, Juana, Guritini, Winitwari, *Berbice*, *Wopari*, *Maicaiwini*, *Mahawaica*, *Wappari*, *Lemdrare*,* *Dessekebe*,* Caopui, *Paurooma*, Moruga, Waini, Barima, Amacur, Aratoori, *Raleana*, or Orinoco. On the 6th April Keymis and his people

* The present rivers of the Demerara and Essequibo.

came to anchor within the mouth of the last-mentioned river, after spending altogether about twenty-three days in discovery upon the coast.

Having made friendship with the Indians, and promising to assist them against the Spaniards, our party were now in a fair way to obtain some authentic information with regard to Guiana. They heard of several towns in the interior, and of a nation of clothed people, called Cassanari, who dwelt close to the place where the river first took the name of Orinoco, and learned that far within they border upon a sea of salt water, named Parime. The famous city of Manoa, or the El Dorado, was reported to be within twenty days' journey from the mouth of the Wiapoco, sixteen from Barima, thirteen from Amacur, and ten from Aratoori.

They were told also, of a race of headless men, with mouths in their breasts, exceedingly wide, called by the Charibes, Chiparemai, and by the Guianians, Ewiapanomos; and hyperbolic descriptions were communicated to them of the wealth of the interior, and of mines of gold, and precious stones.

Having quitted the Orinoco after repeated conferences with several Indian chiefs, they fell in with their long-lost pinnace, the *Discoverer*, which, after parting from them in a storm, had made the land to the southward of Cape Cecil, and had spent three weeks ranging along the coast. The pinnace being found not seaworthy, was burnt, and the party then proceeded to Trinidad, first making the island of Tobago, and afterwards setting sail through the islands to England, which they reached on the 29th June, having spent five months in their voyage.

Writing to Sir Walter Raleigh upon the subject, Captain Keymis urged strongly upon an English government,

the policy of taking possession of Guiana. "England and Guiana conjoined, are stronger and more easily defended than if England alone should repose herself on her own force and powerfulness. For here," says he, "whole shires of fruitful rich grounds, lying now waste, for want of people, do prostitute themselves unto us, like a fair and beautiful woman in the pride and flower of desired grace." And he concludes in this strain: "In one word, the time serveth, the like occasion seldom happeneth in many ages, the former repeated consideration do all jointly together importune us, now or never to make ourselves rich, our posterity happy, our prince every way stronger than our enemies, and to establish our country in a state flourishing and peaceable. Oh, let not then such an indignity rest on us, as to deprave so notable an enterprise with false rumours, and vain suppositions, to sleep in so serious a matter, and renouncing the honour, strength, wealth, and sovereignty of so famous a conquest, to leave all unto the Spaniards."

In the following year, 1597, Raleigh again appeared in the west, under command of the Earl of Essex, but the object of this expedition was rather for plunder, and to annoy the Spaniards (in which they were evidently successful), than with any view to discovery. The following is an account of this voyage to Guiana:

Upon Thursday, October 14th, 1596, the pinnace called the *Wat* departed from Limehouse, but owing to contrary winds, and other accidents, did not get beyond Weymouth before December 27th. On the 25th January, 1597, they made the Canaries, and meeting with several other vessels, both English and French, sailed in company with them to various places; at last, on February 12th, they set sail from Mayo, and stood for the coast of Guiana, and on February the 27th they

made the land, which appeared low, somewhere about Cape Cecil. They next reached the river Wiapoco (about 4 deg. north of the line), and explored it as far as the fall (about sixteen leagues), and found it full of islands, but met no Indians. They then sailed along the coast and traded with the natives. The traffic was principally in tobacco. They passed by the rivers Euracco and Amana, explored the Marawinne, and on the 4th of April reached the falls, having had frequent and friendly intercourse with the Indians. On the 18th April they entered the river Coritine,* and met with a small town, named Warawalle. In this river they also met a bark, called the *John*, of London, with Captain Leigh on board. They were told here, that on a neighbouring river, the *Dessekebe*,† there were lately about 300 Spaniards, but that most of them were now destroyed, or dead. They also learned that this river stretched so far inland as to be within one day's journey of the lake, called Perima, whereupon Manoa was supposed to stand; "and finding that the river Coritine doth meet with Dessekebe up in the land, we made account to go up into the country, to discover a passage unto that rich city."

Accordingly, on the 28th April, a party, composed of about forty men and twenty Indians, proceeded in two shallops and two canoes to explore this passage. They diligently ascended the Coritine, sleeping at night in the woods and visiting several Indian towns, and arrived on the 2nd of May at the falls, over some of which they passed; but here their determination failed them, for learning that there were other falls not passable, and that the Indians higher up would probably oppose their pro-

* The Corentyn.

† The present river Essequibo.

gress, they resolved to abandon the undertaking, although Mr. Masham *yielded divers reasons to the contrary*. On the 4th of May they regained their ships, and a report having reached them that there were ten canoes of Spaniards in the mouth of the Coritine, they made ready for an assault. It appeared afterwards, however, that this was merely a foraging party in search of provisions for the settlers in Orinoco, Marouco, and Dessekebe. They described the river Coritine as about fifty leagues from the mouth to the first falls, crowded with islands, and having three tributary streams and six towns.

Having no further object to detain them, they cleared the river upon Sunday, the 8th of May, and took their course to the West Indies. Passing by St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Martinique, they arrived at Dominica upon May 13th. Visited Guadaloupe on the 15th, and sailing along Montserrat, Antigua, and Barbadoes, steered across the Atlantic, and arrived at Plymouth on June 28th, without any casualty. The account given of Guiana by Mr. Masham confirmed the favourable evidence of Sir Walter Raleigh. In point of climate they found it temperate and healthy.

“For besides that we lost not a man upon the coast, one that was sick before he came there was nothing sicker for being there, but came home safe—thanks be to God.”

The Indians he describes as “tractable and ingenious, and very loving and kind to Englishmen generally.”

There was great store of fish and fowl of divers sorts. “Tortoise’s flesh plentiful, and tortoise’s eggs innumerable; deer, swine, conies, hares, cocks and hens, with potatoes, more than we could spend, besides all kinds of fruits at all times of the year, and the rarest fruits of the world—the pine, the plantain, with other variable and pleasant

things growing to their hands without planting or dressing."

He makes particular mention of Cassari (Cassava), "which, says he, is as good bread as a man need to eat, and better than we can carry any thither." He describes accurately the mode of preparing it, which is the same as that practised at the present time.

With reference to the commodities of the country, he speaks of a species of hemp, of cotton wool, pitch, gums, pepper, &c.; also of parrots, monkeys, and other animals.

Not discouraged by the ill success of the previous voyages, Sir Walter Raleigh, whilst in prison, still cherished his romantic visions about Guiana, and every second year during his imprisonment continued to send vessels thither to encourage the Indians against the Spaniards, and to prepare them for the protection of the English. At length, when liberated from the Tower, in 1616, he made arrangements for a grand expedition—raised about 10,500*l.* by selling his own and his wife's property, and attracted a great number of adventurers by the splendour of his reputation. A commission, dated 26th of August, 1616, was procured from King James through the influence of Sir Ralph Wiwood; but although released from confinement, and holding this commission, Raleigh had not obtained a formal pardon. It is true that a pardon was offered him for 700*l.* by some of the courtiers, but this he refused, strengthened by the opinion of Bacon, who gave him the following advice:

"Sir, the knee timber of your voyage is money; spare your purse in this particular, for upon my life you have a sufficient pardon for all that is past already, the king having, under his broad seal, made you admiral of your fleet, and given you power of the martial law over your officers and soldiers."

Seven months after the date of the commission the following force was ready for sea:

SHIPS.	COMMANDERS.	TONS.	ORDNANCE.
Destiny	Sir Walter Raleigh	440	36
Jason	John Pennington	240	25
Encounter	E. Hasting (aft. Whitney)	160	17
Thunder	Sir Warham Saint Leger	180	20
Flying Joan	John Chidley	120	14
Southampton	John Bayley	80	6
Page	James Barker	25	3

Before this fleet left the English coast, it was augmented by the addition of the undernamed vessels:

VESSELS.	COMMANDERS.
Convertine	Captain Keymis
Confidence	" Wollaston
Flying Hart	Sir John Ferne
Chudlay	—
A fly boat	Samuel King
Another	Robert Smith
A carvel	—

On the 28th March, 1617, Sir Walter Raleigh dropped down the Thames. In the May following, he published his order to the fleet at Plymouth, but it was late in June, or early in July, before he started. The violence of the weather compelled him to put into Cork, where he was detained till late in August. He made the Canaries in September, the Cape de Verd Islands in October, and finally reached the continent of South America in November, after a very bad passage. They made Guiana on the 12th November.

On board of Raleigh's own ship, principally filled with his friends and relations, a great mortality had occurred. Forty-two persons had died on the voyage, as many more were ill, the great commander himself being amongst the sufferers. In a letter to his wife, after expatiating upon all the disasters he had experienced, he concludes in these words:—"To tell you

that I might be here king of the Indians were a vanity. But my name hath still lived among them here. They feed me with fresh meat, and all that the country yields: all offer to obey me."

This letter was dated: "From Caliana, in Guiana, the 14th November." Raleigh remained at the river Caliana until the 4th December, 1617, recruiting his shattered forces, and subsequently despatched five small vessels, under the charge of Captain Keymis, to the Orinoco, to discover the mines. This little squadron had about 250 men in companies of fifty each, under the command of Captains Parker, North, Raleigh (son to Sir Walter), Thornhurst, and Chidley. The remaining vessels of the fleet (five in number, some having deserted,) proceeded to Trinidad to await the result of the expedition against Orinoco, and to watch the Spaniards. The forces under Captain Keymis having landed on the Orinoco, marched up to the town of St. Thomas, which they attacked and captured, but with considerable loss. Amongst others, young Walter Raleigh fell at the head of his company. Captain Keymis, disheartened at the loss of his best troops, relinquished his search for the mines, and after slaying the governor of the El Dorado, Don Diego Palamica, and several of his captains, withdrew from the town and re-embarked his troops. Raleigh's interview with this commander led to a melancholy catastrophe. Keymis, unable to justify his conduct, retired to his cabin and destroyed himself. ✓

Some of the other adventurers under Captains Whitney and Wallaston sailed back to Granada. These circumstances preyed upon the mind of Raleigh. The darling object of his ambition seemed no longer attainable, and after having sacrificed his son, his health, and

his fortune, he left the Guianas for ever, and repaired to England, doomed to end his chivalrous career upon the scaffold.

Perhaps there is no tissue of romantic adventure in the history of human delusions more extraordinary than the narrative of these expeditions. For a period of upwards of one hundred years the belief in a kingdom abounding in gold and silver, whose capital was paved with the precious metals, and outshone the sun with the splendour of its precious stones, continued to dazzle the imaginations of men in all parts of the world, notwithstanding the repeated proofs which the failure of one undertaking after another furnished of the fallacy of their expectations. The "Arabian Nights" hardly contain an enchantment so marvellous as that which was exercised over the adventurous spirits of the sixteenth century by the poetical fables that were circulated of the El Dorado. They sought it in the east on the margin of the Atlantic; they pursued the phantom to the north of the banks of the wild Orinoco; they followed its imaginary track to the west over the mighty Andes, through savage valleys, interminable forests, and perilous swamps, and to the south over the dark waters of the river Negro and the island-studded Amazon; but the land of promise vanished as they approached, and the further they advanced the more hopeless was the pursuit. But disappointments, instead of damping their ardour, fired their determination anew, and accumulated disasters deemed to confirm their faith. Their bones whitened the banks of rivers—successive expeditions perished—and the few survivors who came back to tell the tale, only served to stimulate the delusion their example should have reprovved and dispelled.

In this more instructed age we look back with wonder

upon the infatuation that led to so vast an expenditure of energy and capital upon so manifest a chimera; but it is impossible at the same time not to admire the courage and perseverance that were wasted upon its pursuit. The resolution of these desperate adventurers mounted with the difficulties and dangers that surrounded them; the poisoned arrows showered upon them from the ambuscades of the trackless woods—the sickly heats of the climate—the horrors of the rainy season—the pestilent morass—the atmosphere charged with miasma—the earth and the air alive with reptiles and insects more formidable than the human foes through whose possessions they had to pass—were encountered with a fanaticism which nothing short of the thirst of gold could have inspired or sustained.

The vision of the Golden City has now faded in the awakening light of knowledge. It has been reserved for a distinguished philosopher of the present age to submit the delusion to the test of science, and dissipate the gorgeous phantasy for ever.

“In the universal search for El Dorado, two places appear more particularly to have attracted general attention—viz., the regions along the eastern slope of the Andes of Candinamarca (New Granada), which have been considered as the birthplace of the fiction, and that part of Guiana which lies between the rivers Rupununi and Branco. A large inland lake, another Caspian Sea, as Raleigh expressed himself, was the constant companion of the golden city. Whether or no this locality referred to the Andes south of Mexico, or to Guiana, we find it surrounded by water. Thus when the space where El Dorado was situated was supposed to be in Guiana, the name of the river Parima, and the inundations to which the flat country or savannahs were

subjected, through which the rivers Parima, Takutu, Xurumu, Maku, and Rupununi take their course, gave rise to the fable of the White Sea, or Laguna del Parima, or Rupununi. Captain Keymis, who, at the expense of Raleigh, undertook a second voyage to Guiana, identified the locality of Dorado with this lake, which, as he imagined, contained the town of Manão; and Humboldt, after fully examining into the subject of the lake Parima, proved that it no longer existed. Its erasure from the maps put an end to the long and painful illusion of the El Dorado."

CHAPTER III.

AGE OF CHIVALRY PASSED AWAY—SETTLEMENTS OF THE DUTCH, 1580—TRADING COMPANY TO GUIANA IN 1602—ENGLISH ATTEMPTS AT COLONISATION IN 1604-5, 6, AND 8—ORIGIN OF FRENCH GUIANA—ORIGIN OF DUTCH GUIANA—SETTLEMENTS AT KYK-OVER-AL, 1613—POSTS ON THE RIVER ESSEQUEBO, 1614—THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES—ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DUTCH WEST INDIA COMPANY, 1621—INTRODUCTION OF SLAVES—ORIGIN OF THE SLAVE-TRADE—SETTLEMENT ON THE RIVER BERBICE, 1626—APPOINTMENT OF DUTCH COMMISSIONERS—SETTLEMENTS ATTACKED BY ENGLISH AND FRENCH—FIRST COMMANDERS ON THE ESSEQUEBO—BOUNDARIES OF DISTRICTS SETTLED—ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NEW GENERAL DUTCH WEST INDIA COMPANY—TRANSFER OF SETTLEMENTS ON THE RIVER BERBICE TO A VAN PEERE, 1678—SUCCESS OF THE DUTCH—MODE OF LIFE OF THE EARLY PLANTERS.

THE age of chivalry and romance in British Guiana passed away with the adventurers of the sixteenth century, never to return. To the ardent and sanguine Spaniard, succeeded the methodical and unimaginative Dutchman, who, accustomed in his own country to the difficulties of a flat and marshy land, settled down in contentment upon the undrained banks of the rivers and sea-coasts, leaving to more credulous and speculative individuals the task of exploring the interior of a country enveloped in mystery and marvels. It has been already shown that the several adventurers from Spain, Portugal, England, and France, although ransacking the country in quest of the treasures it was supposed to contain, left little behind them but the history of their misfortunes and disappointment. The

Spaniards, more particularly, furnished such an example; for although they had long lingered on the "Wild Coast," as Guiana was then denominated, yet they were eventually all driven away, or murdered by the Indians; so that about the end of the sixteenth century they held scarcely a rood of land in this territory.

It has been already noticed that in 1580 the Dutch, under the direction of some Zealand merchants, had commenced a settlement on the banks of the river Pomeroon and at the mouth of the river Essequibo,* from which latter, however, in 1596, they were driven away by the Spaniards and Indians. With the pertinacity, however, peculiar to their character and nation, they did not abandon their object, but proceeded further up this noble river, and, under commander Joost Van der Hoog, effected a settlement on a small island called Kykoveral, situated at the confluence of two tributary streams—viz., the river Cayuni and the river Mazaruni, which will be shortly noticed.

In 1599 another Dutchman, named Adrian Hendricks, an influential inhabitant and burgomaster of Middleburg, sent two ships to the same coast, and asked for sixteen competent soldiers for each vessel from the state of Zealand, knowing the dangerous condition of traffic at that time. Other attempts at settlements were made about the same time from Vlissingen. Whilst these movements were in progress, two forts which the settlers had erected on the Amazon were destroyed by the Portuguese.

Some Zealand merchants shortly afterwards sent an expedition, under the command of Ryk Henderzoon, for the purpose of trade, and to establish a settlement on the

* A settlement formerly existed at Cartabo Point, the tongue of land situated at the confluence of the rivers Mazaruni and Cayuni, tributaries of the river Essequibo.

same coast. The names of these merchants were Van Peeren, Van Rhee, De Moor, De Lampsins, De Vries, and De Hovin. Freedom of convoy was granted to them by the States-General in 1602. Their endeavours to proceed up the river Orinoco were, however, prevented by the Spaniards, who then occupied the neighbourhood of that river.

It would appear also that the English (who had at one time indulged in the same sanguine expectations that had fascinated the Spaniards), profiting by the disastrous results of mere speculative theories, now began to emulate the more sober efforts of the Dutch at colonisation, and actually endeavoured to settle on the coast. In the year 1604, Captain Charles Leigh attempted to plant a colony in Guiana. Leaving England on March 21st, he arrived with his ship, the *Olive Plant*, and forty-six people, at the river Wiapoco (a tributary of the river Orinoco), which he called Caroleigh (May 22nd). He was here well received by the Indians (the Iokos, Armakos, and Sapayos), whom he assisted in their wars with the Caribs. He commenced a settlement near a hill, which he called Oliphe; but the people getting dissatisfied at his selection of a locality, he removed to another hill named Huntly, about two miles westward of the river Caroleigh, calling the settlement Principium, and the hill Howard. Here he waited for reinforcements, which, unfortunately, never arrived. The expected force under Captains Calolone and Nicholas St. John, in the ship *Olive Blossom*, left Woolwich in May, 1605; but, in consequence of adverse winds, went first to Barbadoes, and afterwards to St. Lucia, where they attempted to settle, but were for the most part murdered by the Carib Indians, who had not yet been driven from their fastnesses.* A few, however, escaped, and proceeded to the Caraccas.

* Breen's St. Lucia, p. 45.

In the following year, 1606, Captain Edward Hartley sailed in his vessel, the *Sea Phoenix*, with thirty people and some merchandise to the coast of Guiana. In the course of their cruise they were fortunate enough to meet with Captain Leigh and some of his people; but the information derived from them was not of an encouraging description. The majority of the settlers had suffered severely from the climate and other unlooked-for hardships. Many had died; and Captain Leigh himself, with several others, perished soon after. The *Sea Phoenix* did not remain long in the neighbourhood; yet, in spite of the accounts which they had received, thirty-five people maintained their struggling colony under the command of Richard Lacksia, only, however, to experience in the end the same calamities that had befallen the rest of their countrymen. In a short time many of them died, and at last, Lacksia himself, with fourteen others, gladly seized upon a favourable opportunity, and set sail in some Zealand vessels bound for Middleburg. Another attempt to form a British colony in this neighbourhood terminated still more disastrously. In the year 1608 an expedition, under Commander Harcourt, with thirty people, reached the coast, and settled in the Indian village Caripa, on the river Wiapoco. Nothing more is known of the issue of the undertaking; but little doubt can be entertained as to its fate. Had they succeeded, they must have left some trace behind them, or some account would have come down to us of their proceedings. The probability is, that they perished under the hands of the natives.

Nor was the attempt made at a later period by Captain Marshall and sixty people, to settle in a neighbouring river, the Surinam, attended by much more prosperous results. They erected a small building about ten miles up that river, and also established a fort some sixteen miles further on, with the intention of cultivating to-

bacco. They had at first settled on a small river, the little Coma—the present river Comowini, or Comewyne; but being molested in this place, they proceeded to the great river Coma, now known as the Surinam. When they first landed, a large Indian village, called Paramaribo (Flower-garden), had been abandoned and destroyed by the natives. This village the English rebuilt; but finding themselves harassed by the Indians, and suffering severely from the insalubrity of the climate, they finally abandoned their project. This occurred from the year 1626 to 1630. Ten years afterwards the French invested the evacuated settlement of Paramaribo, but relinquished it for the same reasons as the English. The French settlers, however, proceeded to Cayenne, and there founded what is now known as French Guiana. The origin of the present Dutch Guiana is curious, and deserves, perhaps, in this place a passing notice, although somewhat irrelevant to the immediate subject of our narrative.

In 1652 a body of English settlers again arrived at Paramaribo, and being now freed from the molestation of the Caribbee Indians, who had removed from Warrica to the Coponam, at length succeeded in establishing a settlement. The infant colony prospered, and in 1662 was granted by Charles II. of England to Lord Willoughby, at that time governor of Barbadoes, who changed the Indian name of the river Coma, into Surryham, in honour of the Earl of Surrey, which in the course of time became converted into Surinam. The British Crown afterwards bought this colony from the heirs of Lord Willoughby, and exchanged it with the Dutch Government in 1669 for New Holland, in North America—the present republican city of New York. Thus is the French adage, “L’homme propose, Dieu dispose,” verified in these singular events.

It has been shown that at the end of the sixteenth century, in 1580, the Dutch had already effected a settlement near the river Essequibo, and that in the attempt to establish themselves further upon its west coast, they had been driven away by the Spaniards. In 1613 this little colony had made considerable progress, for in addition to the settlement of New Zealand, held by Commander Joost Van der Hoog, that officer had taken possession of a small island at the confluence of the two great tributary streams the Cayuni and the Mazaruni. He found here the remains of an old fort, built of hewn stone (van klipsteen gebouwd*), with the arms of the Portuguese nation carved over the gateway; but when, or by whom erected, is unknown. To this fort he gave his own name, and the island, from its commanding position, was termed by the Dutch "Kyk over al," literally "See over all." For many years this fort was held for the purpose of defence, but subsequently, in 1764, was destroyed, and part of the hewn stones were used in the erection of a sugar-mill on the Dutch Company's plantation, the Duinenberg, the remainder being similarly employed in 1768 on another plantation, the Lucksbergen. In course of time two churches were built, one at Post-ampa, erected at the cost of the inhabitants, and the other, or company's church, on Fort Island; and a predicant, or preacher, was appointed, at the joint expense of the inhabitants and the company. These arrangements were followed up in 1614 by a general declaration issued by the Government of Zealand (one of the seven United Provinces), granting free trade to certain persons, to the exclusion of all others, who should undertake to explore and navigate the several rivers, havens, and creeks of this country.

It must be borne in mind, in reading the account of

* Hartsink

the subsequent events, that the condition of the Dutch nation at this period was very different from its present constitution.

On the 15th of January, 1579, seven Protestant provinces of the Netherlands, then governed by Philip II., successor to the famous Charles V., threw off the yoke of Spain, and deputies from Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, or Vlissingen, Goningen, Overysse, and Guelderland, the seven provinces, met at Utrecht, and signed the famous Union, to all appearance so slight, but in reality so solid, whereby these provinces, hitherto independent of each other, and actuated by different interests, became as closely connected by the great tie of liberty as the bundle of arrows, the arms and emblem of their republic.

It was agreed that they should unite under one government, each province and city reserving to itself all its own privileges, rights, customs, and statutes; that in all disputes between particular provinces, the rest should interpose only as mediators; and that they should assist each other with life and fortune against every hostile attempt upon any single province. Their motto was "Incertum quo fata ferant," and they adopted for a device on their coin a ship struggling amid the waves, unassisted by sails or oars. The republic had for their rulers, or stadtholders, the princes of the House of Orange.

In 1621 the Dutch West India Company was established, with exclusive control over all the settlements of their nation on the Wild Coast, and also the trade thither. The cultivation of land must already have been in active progress, for reports from the infant colony represented it to be in a flourishing condition; and the abundant fertility of the soil being appreciated, the means only were wanting to carry out the full development of its

resources. Who can contemplate without excitement, the position of the early planters, and the thoughts which must have crowded into their minds, when they found themselves masters of a land teeming on all sides with unbounded natural wealth, and reaching as far as the eye could strain; under the genial influence of perpetual summer? How eager must have been their desires! how jealous their views! how ambitious their enterprising projects! Wealth was before them, but how could they obtain it? Opulence was scattered around them, but how could they collect it? The broad stream had to be crossed, the tall forests levelled, and unprofitable verdure made to give way to more useful culture. The Dutch Government was not backward in aiding the early efforts of the colonists; aware of the advantages which would accrue to their country, and already skilled in colonisation by their rising possessions in the east, they undertook to supply the colonist with the cheapest labour. A company was accordingly formed in 1621, and a monopoly granted to them, for the purpose of introducing *negro slaves* from Africa into their possessions in Guiana.

It is unnecessary in this work to enter at any length into the origin and history of the *slave-trade*. This abominable traffic was introduced so early as the year 1442, to a civilised world, by the Portuguese, who, under the encouragement of their celebrated Prince Henry, were exploring the coast of Africa. About that time, Antonio Gonzalves had seized some Moors near Cape Bajador, but was ordered by the prince to carry them back to their country; he accordingly landed them at the Rio del Oro, and received from the Moors in exchange, ten blacks, and a quantity of gold dust, with which he returned to Lisbon. Stimulated by the prospect of gain which this adventure opened up, his

countrymen were not slow in following his footsteps, and through succeeding years, a number of vessels were fitted out for the same profitable traffic; forts for the protection of this novel trade were erected on the coast of Africa, and the King of Portugal, in addition to his Christian titles, assumed that of "Lord of Guinea."

The Spaniards in 1502, urged on by the avarice and recklessness which in this age characterised their proceedings, greedily entered into the necessary and cruel traffic, and finding the aboriginal inhabitants of the newly-discovered countries too indolent and refractory to assist them in their gold-seeking pursuits, they naturally fell into the tempting project of importing negro slaves for the purpose of labour, but especially for working the mines of the auriferous regions. Hence, in a few years, it became an established and regular branch of commerce. Among other nations, the English did not hesitate to follow the same lucrative trade, for in the records of naval history collected by the famous Hakluyt, particular mention is made of the celebrated "John Hawkins," who afterwards received from Queen Elizabeth the honour of knighthood, and was subsequently made treasurer of the navy. This fortunate captain, says Hakluyt, hearing "that negroes were very good merchandise in Hispaniola, and that store of negroes might easily be had on the Coast of Guinea, he resolved to make trial thereof, and communicated that device with his worshipful friends of London, Sir Lionel Ducket, Sir Thomas Lodge, Master Gemson (his father-in-law), Sir William Winter, Master Bromfield, and others; all which persons *liked so well* of his intention, that they became liberal contributors, and adventurers in the action; for which purpose there were three good ships immediately provided, the *Solomon* of 120 tunnes, wherein Master Hawkins went himself, as general; the

Swallow of 100 tunnes, and the *Jonas*, a bark of 40 tunnes; in which small fleete Master Hawkins took with him 100 men."

He sailed from England for Sierra Leone, in October, 1562, and in a short time after his arrival on the coast, got into his possession, partly by the sword, and partly by other means, about 300 negroes, besides sundry merchandise, with which he proceeded to Hispaniola; and touching at different posts in that island, disposed of the whole of his cargo, in exchange for hides, ginger, *sugar*, and some pearls. He returned to England in September, 1563, after a voyage which had been productive of great profit to the adventurers.* In the following year he undertook another voyage, in which we need not follow him further than to state that, upon this occasion, he was appointed to one of the queen's ships, *Iezus*, of 700 tons; the avarice and cupidity of the British Government being excited by the successful issue of his former expedition. The implied sanction, if not the direct protection and support of Great Britain, was thus given to the slave-trade.

The French nation was also found engaged in a similar traffic, and lastly the Dutch, in the seventeenth century, formally entered upon the heartless, but profitable speculation. The shores of Guiana were perhaps the first territories to which the miserable steps of the captured Africans were directed by their Dutch masters. It was not long before the evidence of the new labour-power was made manifest; the impassable bush was cleared from the land; the soil was tolerably drained of its superabundant moisture; and the fruitful earth, so long undisturbed, was awakened to a new life, and made to give birth to a race of exotic plants, brought to maturity by the skill and industry of man.

* Edwards, p. 48.

The cotton, the coffee, and the sugar-cane, introduced at different periods, into the teeming soil, were reared in such vigour and luxuriance, as to render the name of Guiana familiar in after-times to the whole of Europe. Few people, except the enterprising Dutch, could have seriously entertained the design of establishing extensive cultivation so near to the coast of the Atlantic, and the inundated banks of these rivers. But accustomed in their own country to wrestle with the difficulties of a marshy land, and to defy the encroachment of the seas, they did not hesitate to occupy the muddy shores, and to protect themselves by artificial means from the encroachment of the waves; possibly, also, to rob the waters of their natural boundaries. At first, they were more or less compelled to cultivate the lands up the river, from apprehension of the buccaneers, who occasionally did them the honour of depriving them of the profit of years. But gradually they became bolder, and approached nearer the mouth of the river. This movement was adopted partly for the general purposes of commerce and military strength, and partly to obtain increased shipping facilities, having found it necessary in their early shipments to employ vessels of war in escorting the loaded barks out to sea, beyond the reach of the marauding privateers that cruised about the coast. At the present time, it appears almost incredible that the Dutch should have carried their cultivation so high up the Essequibo, and so far inland. It is asserted by Dr. Hancock, that not many years ago a coffee-field existed at Ooropocary, about forty leagues inland, which had been planted at some unknown period; and the same writer adds, in exemplification of the wonderful fertility of the soil, that the trees were still actually bearing fruit in abundance, "nature alone keeping up the reproduction." It is also evident from the reports of travellers,

that numerous posts, established by the Dutch, are still to be met with on the Essequibo, very far inland.

In 1626, Jan Van Peere, a native of Flushing, who with other settlers had been driven away from the river Orinoco, proceeded to the river Berbice, and commenced to cultivate its banks. His efforts were crowned with success, for in 1627, at a meeting of the West India Company of Holland, or rather of the republic of the seven provinces, a resolution was passed forbidding any one to trade to the coast of Guiana from the Pomeroun to the Corentyn without permission from the said company or from the said Van Peere, who had become a kind of proprietor of the lands in cultivation in Berbice. The company also declared the African slave-trade to this coast to be free, but reserved to themselves the exclusive supply of such settlements as already existed—viz., Surinam, Essequibo, and Berbice.

St. Andries was a fort built subsequently on the east of the river Berbice, about 100 roods from its mouth, opposite Crab Island. This fort was called Andries after the then governor, Johan Andries Lossner, and was built of brick, fortified with twelve cannon, having a paling four feet high, with a ditch or moat outside. In 1746 there were twenty-five men here, under a lieutenant and other officers; but the soldiers deserted, and the fort was pulled down, a stone house built in its place, occupied by a sergeant and five or six men, with a cannon, to establish signals with the settlements; a redoubt and posts were constructed more inland, but were afterwards abandoned. The Redoubt Samson, several miles up on the east bank of the river Berbice, was a bulwark made of earth, afterwards changed into a brick house, with several cannon for protection.

About fifty miles further up, in a direct line, was Fort Nassau, for many years the site of the little capital of

that river. It was occupied by the governor and principal colonists, and was protected by palisades ten feet high, and several cannon. In the interior was a church and a brick building, used as a council-house and governor's residence; the under part was employed as a guard-house and magazine. At the distance of a cannon-shot from Fort Nassau was New Amsterdam, which consisted at first of about twenty scattered houses, with a Lutheran church and minister's house. On the other side of the river a Dutch Reformed church was built at the mouth of the river Waironi, as well as a redoubt or fort, and another small Lutheran church higher up. A fortress, called Zeelandia, was constructed about fifty miles up the river, but was subsequently abandoned.

Acting upon the same principles as their fellow-countrymen on the Essequibo, the colonists of Berbice proceeded to lay out plantations, to form draining and navigation canals, and to raise up dykes, or, as they were afterwards called, dams. The increasing success of these two infant colonies induced numerous persons to flock to them, and led others to attempt similar expeditions elsewhere. A ship, called the *King David*, with fourteen pieces of cannon, twenty-five sailors, and thirty passengers, under the command of Captain David Pietre de Vries, sailed from Texel on the 10th of July, 1634, and proceeded first to Cayenne, which they found settled by the English. They in consequence directed their course to the island Meconia, between the rivers Cayenne and Wia, where they disembarked, and colonising its banks, endeavoured to cultivate tobacco, orlians,* and cotton. In this neighbourhood they met with another body of Dutch settlers, under Claude Prevost, who had arrived

* The orliana-tree, as it was called by the Dutch, yielded the Rocou, or Arnotto dye, which became an article of commerce, and has been used to colour cheese. It is the produce of the *Bixa Orellana* (ord. Flacourtiaceae).

on the island two years before. The new planters likewise discovered the ruins of an old castle, built by the French, on a hill, which they took care to repair for their own protection, and to prevent the approach of hostile ships. Two wells were found sunk within the castle. Moreover, some English and Zealanders were fallen in with, employed in cultivating tobacco and other produce; and such was the extent of the cultivation that had been previously carried on at this place, that they reported having found between 80,000 and 100,000 tobacco-plants, the same number of cotton-trees, and some wild specimens of the sugar-cane, whose stems were as thick as a man's arm!

Captain De Vries left this island on the 14th of October in the same year, taking with him the grandson of a Caribbean chief, named Awaricary, who was anxious to see Europe. Sailing to the river Sinamari, he fell in with twelve French settlers, cultivating pimento and pepper. These people were under the command of an officer named Chambin, and had been here about three years. Visiting next the river Anama, and Marowini, Captain De Vries found them inhabited by Arrawak and Caribbee Indians; on the last river he met with some Dutch settlers. Proceeding subsequently to the Surinam, he saw Captain Marshall and his English settlers. Quitting this river, he passed the Berbice and Demerara, leaving at the latter stream some Indians who had accompanied him from Surinam, and at length reached the settlements at the Essequibo, where he joined the commander, Jan Van der Goss. This governor seriously entertained the idea of the existence of gold mines in the neighbourhood, and actually sent proposals to the West India Company relative to the exploring of such on the Orinoco.

It was very natural that in such new countries the thoughts even of the practical Dutchman should be

diverted by the prospect of finding gold in some shape or other; for in spite of the prospects held out to them by the exuberant richness of the soil, they had many difficulties of no ordinary kind to contend against in its cultivation. The climate was damp, relaxing, and aguish; the land was overrun with creeping plants; the animals and insects were intolerable; and the distance from home occasioned the greatest inconveniences. A few of the necessaries of life could indeed be procured in their adopted land; but their luxuries, and many of their habitual wants, had still to be supplied from an European source, at a distance of about 4000 miles. They bore their hardships with the greatest fortitude and patience, and encountered their difficulties with composure if not cheerfulness; but as yet the produce of the soil was not of a very lucrative nature, and the mere exportation of such articles as tobacco, pepper, pimento, dye-stuffs, and cotton, had not attracted much notice in Europe; indeed, they had made so slight an impression, that in the year 1657 the first Dutch General West India Company, in consequence of recent losses in the Brazils and other causes, were disinclined to take much interest in them, and in the October of that year the management of the settlement in Essequibo was entrusted to a commission of eight persons—viz., two from Middleburg, one from Vlissingen, one from Veere, and four from the Chamber of Zealand, which last had endeavoured to organise the scanty possession on the Essequibo by establishing plantations and introducing more negro labour. The two posts at Pomeroon and Morocco were accordingly settled anew, and the villages or towns of New Zealand and New Middleburg were erected on the banks of these rivers.

The commissioners on behalf of these cities in the Netherlands, which they represented, had the exclusive right of trading to these new settlements on condition of

defraying all the charges of the civil and military establishments; but the evils of war interfered soon after with their new arrangements; the administration of Essequibo was handed over to the Kamer Zeeland, or West India Company of the Chamber of Zeeland.

At the beginning of the war in the year 1665, an English vessel of ten or twelve guns attacked Fort Nassau, and was repulsed. But in the following year, 1666, an English fleet, under Meyer John Schot, furnished by the governor of Barbadoes and some of the other islands, attacked this colony, and compelled the Dutch to capitulate; furthermore, the French, with whom they were also at war, visited the settlements on the Essequibo, and plundered them, but could not take the fort; so that the commander of Berbice, at that time Matthys Bergenjaar, with a few of the settlers, besides a company of negroes and some runaways, proceeded to the rescue of Fort Nassau which had been attacked, and compelled the invaders to withdraw. This was in 1667, when the peace of Buda restored a temporary tranquillity to these shores. The general command was then given to Commander Crynsse, who left the Ensign Baarlaid in charge of the Essequibo, and Commander Saal in charge of the Morocco, but who was succeeded in 1670 by Hendrich Roll, appointed by the Kamer Zeeland as Commander of Essequibo.

Not long after the peace, or about 1669, a serious proposition was made by Frederick Casimir, Count of Hanover, through his privy councillor, Raad Jan Joachim Bekker, to the General West India Company, into whose hands the management of the colony had again fallen under certain conditions confirmed by the States-General. The proposition of Count Hanover was, that a *German* colony, with the consent of the Company, should be formed on the "Wild Coast" of America, between the

Orinoco and the Amazon. This proposal was at once agreed to, and an agreement to the following effect entered into between the parties:—"That the extent of land to be granted should be about 30 miles broad and 100 deep inland, and to be at least six miles from any of the Dutch settlements. That the land so given should be cultivated within twelve years of the grant. That the land should be held as a lien, the count to consider himself as a vassal to the company, giving and receiving assistance. That such land be liable to transfer to children, or other heirs, but that with every transfer a charge of liege money (Heergewaaden) was to be paid—say 5000 lbs. of *sugar*, or 100 ducats. That the company should be bound to maintain and support the rights of the count. That the count should possess sole right over the political, judicial, and military affairs, appeal in certain cases being permitted to be made to the company. That the practice of all kinds of religion should be allowed. That the navigation should be confined to the Netherlands; all 'materiel' and goods to come from that country, and all articles of produce shipped to go there. That *if* any negro slaves should be required, the West India Company should reserve the right of selling them at such rates and on such terms as they were in the habit of doing elsewhere," &c. This carefully concocted scheme, however, was never carried into effect. The same destiny attended a similar proposal made some years after by Camerling.

On the first attempts at settlement, whether on the Essequibo or the Berbice, little attention had been paid by those in charge to their several limits or boundaries; but as the inhabitants increased in number, and as cultivation in each district was followed up with some degree of success, it became necessary to draw the line of demarcation between two such spreading "land streeken," as the

Dutch termed them. The necessity for this arrangement was obvious; for although colonised by individuals of the same nation, yet each colony maintained its separate rights and privileges, and was superintended by a separate commander. To benefit, therefore, the present occupiers of land, and to avoid future litigation, the governor of Essequibo, Hendrich Roll, who had been appointed by the West India Company in 1670, and the Secretary of Berbice, Van Berckel, agreed, in the year 1672, that the boundary line between Berbice and the Essequibo (including in the latter the unsettled river of Demerara) should be the small river Abary, which, arising in a hilly district about the 6th degree of north latitude, runs in a northerly direction towards the Atlantic Ocean, into which, after a course of about fifty miles, it discharges itself. Like most of the other rivers of similar size, this stream was called by the Dutch the Kreek Abari, afterwards translated into English the Creek Abari, which name it retains to the present day.

It was, perhaps, from the greater attention paid by the Dutch to the very large rivers of this new country, or to the contrast which they presented to the smaller ones, that the term "kreek" became applied to so many of the streams in Guiana; for it requires very little geographical knowledge to distinguish between a mere inlet of the sea, and the termination of a bed of water which has its origin inland.

In 1673 a rebellion of the troops broke out, caused by Constapel Dirk Rosenkrans, who was dissatisfied with the diminution of the rations. Owing to the war, no ship had arrived for seventeen months, the one expected, the *Eendracht*, being intercepted by the English. This Rosenkrans put the commander of the troops in prison. In 1674, two ships arrived bringing a new commander for a year, who liberated the former one, and sent him home.

The boundaries being settled, the administration of the Government of Essequibo devolved into the hands of a new General West India Company, which was established in 1674, the first company having been dissolved. The Chamber of Zeeland, however, was still allowed a certain control over the colony, and even an exclusive right of trade with it, which continued till 1770, when the trade was partially thrown open to the other provinces also.

The company appointed an assembly of ten persons to conduct its business, and the colony was presided over locally by an officer or commander, Hendrich Roll, with a small salary, who, assisted by a few of the leading settlers, conducted the trifling judicial, civil, and political business of the settlement. Thus early the elements of a social community began to be developed—so instinctively does man in a civilised state, turn to society for happiness and security.

It has been asserted by a celebrated writer, Hobbes, “that out of society we are defended only by our single strength, in society, by the strength of all. Out of society no man is sure to keep possession of what his industry has gained ; in society, every body is secure from that danger. To conclude, out of society we have the tyranny of passion, war, fear, poverty, filthiness, barbarity, ignorance, and wildness ; in society we have the sway of reason, peace, security, riches, decency of ornament, company, elegancy, knowledge, and benevolence.”

This quaint exposition of the advantages of a social state has, however, been attacked by criticism, and with good reason, since the blessings enumerated do not invariably follow in society, nor are the evils of an opposite state always to be avoided. The reader, in following up the progress of this history, will probably discover cause for dissenting from the unqualified praise

bestowed on the advantages of the social compact by our learned countryman. Such as it was, however, something approaching to an organised social state began now to be displayed in the infant colony. The Assembly of Ten, alluded to, allowed the Chamber of Zeeland, who were more particularly interested in the progress of the Essequibo settlements, to furnish equipments for their military protection, reserving to themselves the right of appointing directors and commanders. They nominated Jacob Hars commander, who was succeeded, in 1678, by Commander Abraham Beckman. The colony of Berbice was under a similar superintendence, and was included in the charter of the West India Company; but in the year 1678, a fresh arrangement was entered into between this company and Abraham Van Peere, magistrate and counsellor of Vlissingen, whose ancestor, Jean Van Peere, as before explained, first managed it about fifty years before.

The following is an extract from the register of the resolution of the directors of the West India Company and the Assembly of Ten:—"Article and condition whereby the gentlemen directors (a committee of the respective Chambers of the General West India Company of the United States), under authority of their High Mightinesses of the States-General, give over a lien to Abraham Van Peere on the colony named Berbice. This colony, with all its appurtenances, to be made over to him under certain conditions. The above Van Peere, his lien, &c., to continue its administration, civil, political, and social as before. To contract alliances, &c., under name and authority of their High Mightinesses and company, and to erect fortresses, &c., for its defence and protection. Ships sent to the colony to be reported to the company, and to take out an act of commission."

By the transfer thus made of this colony, and afterwards renewed in 1703, Abraham Van Peere became in a manner proprietor of the soil.

Supplied as they were with the rudiments of authority, capital, and labour, the two infant colonies, stimulated by an increasing demand for the products of their industry, contrived by their existence to signalise the triumph of the Dutch, and stamp with some celebrity the close of the seventeenth century; but comparing small things with great, it is curious to notice the value of colonial appointments at this period. The first commander of any note in Berbice, was Herr Lucas Condrio, who arrived in 1684, and contributed greatly to the prosperity of the colony. He improved Fort Nassau, and proceeding as a captain to Surinam in 1689, was killed by the French.

The Assembly of Ten having appointed J. P. De Yonge commander of Essequibo in 1680 or 1686, his salary was fixed at 50 florins per month (about 6*l.*), which was just double what his predecessor, Abraham Beckmap, received in 1681; but this sum was protested against by the colonists as an intolerable burden, although it failed to satisfy the ambition of the next commander, Samuel Beckman (appointed November 2, 1690), who in 1695 formally applied for an increase. This year is also memorable for two other reasons—1st. That an application was made for the appointment of a predikant, or clergyman, indicating clearly that up to this period no such functionary existed in Essequibo, and also that some occasion or other led to the declared want of such an acquisition to the social elements; 2nd. That the want of shipping was felt so generally, that application was actually made for leave to send produce by way of Surinam, showing indisputably that the settlers were not idle, or inattentive to their interests, but had already

employed the land to some advantage in the cultivation of tobacco, orlians, cotton, and perhaps sugar. Hence it is clear that at the close of the seventeenth century the persevering natives of the seven united provinces had succeeded in their endeavours to colonise this land. How different the pursuits in which they engaged to those so ardently followed by their predecessors of the sixteenth century! How different the result! The Spaniard, in his thirst for gold, sought an imaginary treasure—the Dutchman contented himself with the culture of the soil. The former wasted his resources and lost his life—the latter lived to enjoy some reward for his efforts. The Spaniard, led by his imagination, explored, amid difficulties and dangers, the far interior, and found a “bourne from whence no traveller returns”—the Dutchman, guided by experience, possessed himself of “things that lie free for any taker.” The one grasped at a shadow, the other seized the substance. In military pomp, and pride, and discipline, the adventurer of Spain sought combat with the sword against aborigines, rude countrymen, without laws or government, free and unrestrained, and thought to wrest a golden prize from their simple hands; the settler from Holland held out the olive-branch to the actual proprietor of the land, whilst at the same time he firmly planted himself on the banks of the rivers and on the sea-coasts. The name of the one became a byword to after nations, and left no trace of greatness or wisdom; the character of the other is still indelibly stamped upon the land, and the genius of the Dutch, as demonstrated by their canals, bridges, drainage, policy, and laws, remains to the present time to illuminate the epoch of their lives.

The investment of large sums of money in the cultivation of property had drawn to this country many men of

tolerable rank and education, who, with the intelligence peculiar to speculators, had prospered in the land, and surrounded by their dependents and slaves, revived in a manner the feudal system of bygone years. Like to the barons of former Europe, the lordly planters of America enacted in the New World scenes similar to those which had nearly been abolished in the civilised parts of Europe. Revelling themselves in luxury and riches, they exacted the most harassing duties from their slaves or vassals, who were made to toil for the advantage, the ease, and the prosperity of their masters. If, unlike the serfs of old, they were exempt from military service, it was simply because no such service was necessary for defence or aggrandisement. The planter lived in a spacious house, in the enjoyment of every comfort that wealth could procure; he was flattered by dependents, who courted his good-will; his equals or neighbours exchanged with him the most friendly acts of hospitality. Aroused at early morn by his attendants, he sipped his cup of coffee; a short toilet followed, during which his nerves were fortified by a glass or two of genuine schiedam by way of an "antifogmatic," a custom ridiculed by the uninitiated, but defensible, nevertheless, as a very prudent and salutary protection against the injurious effects of the morning miasm. A wide straw hat, a nankeen or linen suit, comprised the chief articles of his dress. Having held a parley, or rather "levée," with his assistants or overseers, he sallied forth on horseback, followed by a running footboy or page, armed with the pouch of tobacco or cigars, perhaps having again applied to the "gin-flask," to make precaution "doubly sure." His equestrian tour was round the plantation, along its wide and grassy paths, where his quick eye detected all errors of "omission and commission." After a careful

inspection, and having given necessary orders for the day, he leisurely returned home to an elaborate breakfast—a regular “*déjeûner à la fourchette*,” where fish, hams, sausages, pepperpot, cheese, formed the staple articles. Tea was considered too “bilious,” coffee too heating, and a ready substitute was found in beer or wine. After this solid repast came the hour of contemplation and repose, ushered in by the fumes of the fragrant tobacco. Reading was rarely indulged in. The morning “*siesta*” over, the time was spent in visiting or receiving neighbours, looking over the buildings and machinery, writing, or other light employment, not forgetting a stimulating luncheon and occasional draughts of sangaree, punch, or brandy-and-water. As evening approached, preparations were made for the great object of the day, dinner, which consisted of soups, fish, fowl, and viands of all kinds, to which a vigorous appetite did ample justice. Punch, beer, wine, were again handed round, and attendants in naked grace were employed in beating off with fragrant branches the remorseless mosquitoes, who in hundreds were buzzing about audibly, and no doubt sharpening their “*probosces*” ready for an attack on the vulnerable proportions of the Dutchman. The night was marked by copious libations and smoking, until at length, overpowered with fatigue, repletion, and happiness, the lordly planter sank into the arms of repose, to dream of insurrections and earthquakes.

The other elements of society moved round the planter as their centre; for although not highest in rank, his power was most generally diffused through the different classes. The slaves bought with his money were the servants of his will. Their ignorance and their dependence exaggerated his position. The few tradesmen who there existed had been principally brought from the more civilised West Indian Islands, and they of course

looked up to him for employment and pay. The merchants were but too happy to partake of his patronage; the professional man had no other prospect of subsistence or of acquiring wealth except through his influence; and the civil officers appointed to administer the public functions of the colony found his hospitality so tempting and agreeable, that they were studious of keeping on the best possible terms with him.

We shall, hereafter, see how this elevated position of the planter became gradually altered when it had acquired its maximum of prosperity, and in the course of our history we shall have occasion to trace his subsequent reverses and humiliations to some of those very causes which formerly gave him such unlimited power, influence, and wealth. It is with individuals as with states. In the plenitude of their power and prosperity, men are too apt to suffer luxury and apathy to undermine their greatness.

CHAPTER IV.

THE AFRICAN NEGRO, HIS CHARACTER, IGNORANCE, SUPERSTITION, EMPLOYMENT, AMUSEMENTS, FOOD, LOW MORAL CONDITION—IMPORTATION OF SLAVES—ACCOUNT OF THE SEVERAL TRIBES—SLAVE MARKETS—BUSH NEGROES—HABITS AND MODE OF LIFE—EXPEDITIONS AGAINST THEM—CONCUBINAGE—MIXTURE OF RACES—CHARACTER OF MULATTO.

THE African negro was imported into this country for the purpose of toil. We have seen a company established to buy and use him as a species of cattle. The very contemplation of such a scheme shows us at once the prevailing features of society at the time. No enlightened object of civilisation, no urgent feelings of philanthropy, no Christian zeal led to his introduction. The race from whence he sprang had long been regarded by more civilised Europe as brutalised and benighted. The mind was not considered in this barter; the feelings and the passions of nature were not taken into account; the immortal spirit of the bondsman was treated in this terrible speculation as if it had no existence. The influences of Christian charity had, as yet, scarcely reached these shores. No priest or apostle of the Saviour was seen in this wide field, and the heart, unchecked by reproof, and hardened by iniquity, revelled in its desperate wickedness. The poor African, the child of ignominy and scorn, was found a helpless victim.

His character, to be described impartially, should be traced with pity and toleration. Entering the world with the peculiarity of a different coloured skin to the more enlightened among nations, this circumstance, with others, was turned to his disadvantage, and he was pronounced a fit prey for more civilised beings. Bred up in the lowest state of ignorance and barbarity, under a burning sun, his habits of necessity betrayed an apathy and want of intelligence which were fatal to him. In his own country he had been taught to witness the last degradation of the human character ; he inherited from his parents no qualities but those of the abject bondsman ; his will, his desires, his actions, were not his own, and he was trained in the belief that he was an inferior being, and a culprit from the day of his birth among the sons of Adam. Example had made him callous, idle, and obstinate ; necessity had made him cunning and artful ; want of education had left him helpless, ignorant, and brutal. Right and wrong were terms that conveyed no definite meaning to him ; he knew only what displeased, and what gratified him. Power and authority had made him timid, abject, and debased. He had no object in the world beyond the indulgence of his appetites ; he knew his life was one of servitude, but he had no impulse or ambition for freedom. The yoke was fitted on him, and he grew to it, taking insensibly the shape of the moral deformity it imposed upon him. It was irksome and galling, but he was too indolent and hopeless to shake it off. Yet, under all these blighting disadvantages, he was patient, submissive, affectionate, grateful, and even cheerful. He had felt the rapacity of power in his own country ; he had witnessed scenes of bloodshed and violence, and concluded in his simple mind that the world was filled only with

such scenes. He saw the different races of animals perpetually destroying each other, and he thought himself not so far removed from their condition as to justify the expectation of any happier state of existence for himself. The chiefs among his people, their princes and great men, were regarded as only more fortunate, or more powerful in the strife than the rest, and were considered as maintaining their ascendancy by naked brute force alone. The vast universe was not looked upon as a system of humanity, regulated by the wisdom of Providence ; but as a chaos over which chance and accident presided. The negroes were idolaters; forms of worship were rare amongst them. Their religion consisted in wild appeals to the spirits of evil, to deprecate vengeance, or misfortunes, or to propitiate protection. The calamities of life were attributed to the evil influence of inferior spirits, whom they called Jumbi, and hence it was not strange that the more shrewd among them should pretend to a mysterious intercourse with these spirits, in order to enable them to practise profitable impositions upon the credulity of the ignorant. Such persons received the name of Obeah-men, and dealt in charms, talismans, and artifices. They gave the good spirit no service, thinking him too pure to need it ; some believed that man sprung from a great spider, named Arransie ; others affirmed that the good spirit was called Jan Campas, and called him God, although they say that he was a good man, who made both black and white people, but that the black chose the gift of gold, and the white man that of arts and knowledge, when the first were made servants to the last. Others supposed that men were found in holes and pits. They had no fear of being hanged, because it left them whole and sound to enter upon another state of existence, but they dreaded

being beheaded, or broken on the wheel, because they believed it would incapacitate them from enjoying a future life.

All ages and races have had their superstitions, and it would, indeed, have been singular if the African had formed an exception. The sybils and oracles of ancient Italy and Greece are reflected under a different form in the obeahs and orgies of the uncivilised African.

Torn from his native country, his home, and friends, he was brought into a strange land, and made acquainted with a new taskmaster, who forced upon him the necessity of working. If he refused to work, he was subjected to the cruelty of the lash, which, according to a Dutch writer,* was often steeped in brine, or pickle and peppers, but not, as asserted by him, for the purpose of wanton vengeance, but rather to prevent any evil consequences from its application. Brought as this poor ignorant negro was in contact with a more civilised people, we shall soon see how rapidly his tastes, his habits, and character became modified by such communion; not greater or more marked were the physical and ethnological changes produced by such an intercourse, than the vast moral revolution effected in his nature. The tendency of dependents in every age and in every condition has been to imitate those above them; but the ignorant, who, struck with the novelty or merits of a picture, try to copy it, produce only a caricature. It is the natural tendency of inferiors to model their habits and manners on the example of their superiors; and hence arises—especially in feudal states of society—the great influence which is exercised over the national mind by the conduct of the higher classes. Thus, in Greece, the high refinement of the educated ranks gradually spread to the citizens, and imparted its polish to their tastes and customs. Again, in

* Hartsink.

the Roman Empire the luxury and idleness of the patrician class infected the plebeian orders, till the whole state sank under the enervating influence; and nearer to our own day may be cited the still more striking instance of the French revolution, when the people, debased and rendered desperate by the callous and unprincipled conduct of the nobles, rapidly imbibed those dangerous principles which led to the overthrow of rank and religion. Illustrations of the effects of example upon the uneducated masses need not be accumulated; and if we find this direct action infallibly producing uniform results in the civilised communities of Europe, we cannot be much surprised that it should operate similarly in remote and despotic societies, in which only two classes existed—the masters and the slaves. That there were many excellent and virtuous traits in the character of the old settlers is undeniable. There is scarcely a work published by travellers who had visited the colony at different times, which does not contain numerous instances of creditable humanity and generous feelings; but it is the perverse condition of human nature to copy what is bad rather than what is good, and the negro, if he is unlike his white superior in the best qualities, will be found at least to resemble him in his worst. In order that we may be able to understand more clearly how this spirit of depravity sets in, and is encouraged by circumstances, let us follow the slaves for a moment in their labours and general mode of life.

At early dawn they were summoned forth to work by the stunning clatter of a large bell or gong. The efficient and healthy were then distributed in gangs, according to their age, sex, or capacity, to each of which a headman, or driver (called by the Dutch “Bomba,” or “Mustee Knegt”), was attached. Armed with a little “brief authority”—the whip—this driver followed his gang to

their several duties in the field, where they continued until about eight A.M., when time was allowed for breakfast and rest. Again the bell sounded, and they returned to their labour until twelve; then to dinner, and afterwards to work again until five or six P.M., when they retired to their homes and to their supper. They lived, for the most part, in long ranges of wooden buildings, subdivided into small rooms, to contain one or more families. These buildings were in general tolerably comfortable, and it was no unusual thing for small portions of land to be attached to them, which the slaves were at liberty to cultivate for their own profit. Here they kept pigs and poultry, and the thrifty and industrious had an opportunity of earning a little money, which subsequently became of much importance. They were punished for behaving ill by the whip, or confinement in the stocks, and other measures of severity; but in cases of rebellion, or murder, they were made to undergo a still more terrible chastisement, which cannot be mentioned here.

They were very fond of dancing and music, using a kind of guitar called a "banja," and several varieties of drums and tambarines. They accompanied their dancing with strange songs or chants adapted to the style of the dance—sometimes low and monotonous, at others loud and boisterous. On Sundays, or festival days, there was rarely any work done; and at certain seasons of the year they received presents from the planters of clothing, cooking utensils, ornaments, &c. Spirits were also served out to them occasionally, and thus the taste for intoxication was introduced among them, and led to many depravities and abuses. Their food consisted chiefly of plantains, salt fish, rice, &c., mixed up with the condiments of the country, such as peppers. The sick or infirm were confined to a building called the hospital, which was visited at stated periods by a medical prac-

tioner, who had under him sick nurses and attendants to obey his orders. The health of the slave was, indeed, provided for in the ratio of his value, as farmers provide for their cattle in order to keep them in working condition. A death was grieved for as a loss to the property, and sickness and destitution guarded against as a fire, or any other evil which might interfere with the profits of the estate. There was no attempt made to provide mental or religious education, as it was apprehended that the moral elevation of the slaves would lead to dangerous innovations. Marriage was unknown; but children were born, and grew up to the inheritance of slavery. They received their names* at the hands of their owners, and were often "branded" instead of being baptised. Thus passed away the life of the slave; and, comparing it with the state of the lower orders in most countries, it cannot be denied that it possessed some advantages, so far as physical circumstances were concerned. From the cradle to the grave every want was supplied; and the animal lived, worked, and died without tasting that bitter experience which wrings the stout heart of many a more civilised peasant in the struggle for subsistence.

If the happiness of human beings depended on the regular supply of food, exercise, and medicine, there is no doubt the slave ought to have been happy; and, knowing nothing better, perhaps he was. But it is impossible, from our point of sight, to contemplate with satisfaction a course of treatment which kept him in health only to reduce him to the condition of a working machine or a beast of burden. It is quite true that he had never enjoyed liberty, and was, perhaps, from that

* The most classical names were often given to the slaves; as, for instance, Pompey, Cæsar, Scipio, Hannibal, Jupiter, Venus, Juno, Bacchus, Apollo, &c. The English followed this practice, but introduced a little variety, calling them London, Scotland, Monday, Sambo, Quashy, Prince, Queen, Cuffy, &c.

very circumstance, not very well qualified to enjoy it; it is true, also, that his mental powers had never been developed, and that the privation of mental pleasures was comparatively no great penalty; and that never having felt the high privileges of religious inspirations, the want of religious instruction was a matter of utter indifference to him. But evils are not the less evils because those who suffer them are incapable and ignorant. It is the high mission of civilisation to improve, correct, and elevate; and to draw an argument for the perpetuation of slavery from the mere fact of having found it in existence is as unreasonable and barbarous as it would be for a colony of settlers to excuse themselves from the toil of tilling the ground, on the plea that it came into their hands in a state of nature. But colonists do not apply that argument to the earth—they clear it, plough it, plant it, and work its capabilities to the highest point of cultivation; it is the human serf, the hereditary bondsman alone, they keep in his original condition, or rather whom they plunge into a worse condition, by placing him in new and dangerous circumstances, and expanding before him those advantages of knowledge, power, and freedom, which they permit him to contemplate, but will not suffer him to participate in. They excite strange passions in him, they stimulate his activity, tempt his ignorance, fill his mind with novel desires, awaken his capacity without instructing it, and take advantage of his helplessness to crush him down lower and lower in the scale of humanity.

The slave-trade was in full operation in the eighteenth century, and cargoes of valuable slaves were brought to these shores. They were shipped from the coast of Africa in tolerable health; but after the confinement and cruel hardships of a three or four weeks' passage in the hold of ill-ventilated vessels, they generally arrived in a

deplorable condition. The horrors of the middle passage are too well known to require any description in this place. The closely-packed slaves, when freed from their dens, were often unable to stand; they could not endure the light after having been so long shut up in darkness; and they required the most careful and skilful treatment for many weeks, and sometimes for months, to bring them back into working order. The mortality at times was frightful—as much as 50 or 75 per cent. perished either on the passage or soon after landing; and fearful as were the returns of the deaths at subsequent periods of the free immigrants, the mortality never equalled that which for many years took place among the shackled African slaves. Fortunately, however, this was not always the case, and as it was evidently for the interest of all parties that the slave should be imported in as fine condition as possible, great care was often shown for their comfort and good appearance.

The slaves imported were procured from various parts of the coast and interior of Africa, and their value was differently estimated, as will appear from the following account, chiefly derived from an old Dutch writer,* on the subject:

The *Ardras*, called also *Dongos* (as well as other slaves who had cut marks upon their bodies), were brought from Inda (better known as Tida) and Ardra, towns near the western sea-coast of Africa, from a distance of fifty miles to the north-east of Ardra. They were not, however, of the best sort, although accustomed to agriculture, and capable of being rendered useful. The men, women, and children, had gashes upon their cheeks, but those of rank amongst them were marked only about the forehead. The *Nago* slaves differed little from the above, and were well adapted for labour;

* Hartsink.

they had streaks, or curves, which represented rudely the outline of animals upon their bodies. The *Mallais* slaves were brought to Tida, Ardra, and Jaquire, from a distance of about three months' journey. They were an excellent people, and accustomed to severe labour, which they willingly undertook. They brought high prices in the market. Their tattooed marks differed in some respect from the Tibou and Guiamba negroes. The *Aquiras*, distinguished by lines upon the back and breast in the form of lizards and snakes, had the character of being active and faithful to their masters. The *Tibou* slaves were of the worst kind, good for nothing, except light house work. They had long gashes upon the cheeks, breast, and stomach. The *Foin* slaves were recognised by scratches upon the temples; they were also a bad people, lazy, thievish, and addicted to filthy habits. The *Guiamba* slaves resembled the two last-named races, and were marked like the *Tibous*. The negroes from *Tida* and *Jaquin* committed thefts when they had an opportunity, but were otherwise true to their masters; they had upon their cheeks several spots or points. The *Ayois* negroes, a martial and enterprising race, were well inclined to work, which they performed better than any of the other nations. They were known by long gashes stretching from ear to ear. They were the terror of the rest; held their lives of no account when their passions were roused, and pursued their objects with an ardour it was difficult to restrain.

Other slaves were known by the names of the places they came from. The negroes of Gorée were among the best—strong, honest, and faithful; they had upon the temples three gashes about three fingers broad. The negroes from Sierra Leone were also very strong, and good for employment; they had four gashes upon the forehead. The negroes from Cabo Monto were neither

so strong nor so useful as the others, but made good slaves, and had upon each cheek a gash extending from the head to the chin; they were in general of a lively temperament. The negroes from Cape La Hoe, or Lahore, or the Gold Coast, possessed equally valuable qualities, and were brought in great numbers to Surinam, where a famous traffic was established, and from whence the slaves were carried to other colonies. They were marked over the whole body with figures of birds and animals, and wore round the neck a string of red sea-shells, which was regarded as a kind of amulet or charm. They were for the most part strong, tall, and well made, but not very black in colour; *as a general rule, it was remarked that the darker the colour of the negro, the stronger he was.*

The real *Delmina* negroes were all born in the village, or crom of D'Elmina, and were not saleable, such sale being against the laws. Those people which were purchased at St. George D'Elmina, came from the Asiantyn, Hautaschi, Fantysche, Alguirasche, Wassaches, and Akinsche countries. The men, as well as the women, were marked upon the cheeks and breasts with several gashes. Among these people were found some old slaves quite grey, who had a custom of smearing their hair with charcoal to make it black.

The *Annamaboe* negroes (sometimes called *Fantynes*) belonged to the English, a well-conducted tribe, and best suited of all for the work of the plantations. They were marked upon the forehead with points, or spots, burnt in with gunpowder. Among the *Fantynes* were found some *Akinsche* and *Ashantees*. Between these three nations no marked difference existed except in language.

The *Acra* negroes were brave, strong, and good slaves. These excellent qualities rendered them costly

in the market. They were under the protection of the Danes, but the Dutch and English had the control of such as were located near their forts.

The *Abo* and *Papa* negroes were little meddled with; the last were said to have a kind of poison placed under their nails, with which they threatened to kill any one, if exasperated; hence, perhaps, the disinclination that was shown to interfere with them.

The *Cormantyn* negroes were of a good disposition, but never forgave an injury; they always attempted the life of any person who offended them, and, failing in their purpose, destroyed themselves. They had no characteristic marks, but were known by their fine smooth black skin. The *Loango*, or *Goango* negroes (no doubt the present Kroomen), were a vicious race, and practised cannibalism. Their teeth were so exquisitely sharpened that they could easily bite off a finger, and all the other negroes hated and feared them. At the marriage of their kings a certain proportion of each tribe were killed for the purpose of furnishing a rich banquet. These people were never to be depended upon. They absconded from work, hid in the forests, and lived upon animals and reptiles. To the eastward and southward of the coast the negroes were of a bad quality; whilst from the north-west the best kind were procured.

Such is the account handed down of the qualities and value of the several tribes of Africa imported to this colony. It would be impossible now-a-days to trace out the descendants of any one of these tribes. They have all merged into one large human family, the black creole, and have relinquished, it is to be hoped for ever, most of the characteristic marks, both physical and moral, by which their progenitors were distinguished. The elaborately tattooed skin, the cannibal appetite, the flattened forehead and nose, the prominent jaws and mouth,

have more or less disappeared ; but, unfortunately, the indolence, the superstition, the immorality of the African character obtains to an extent deplorable and alarming. Emancipation and civilisation have but partially done their work, and the abandoned cane-piece and uncultivated lands stand out as evidence of the want of energy and industry among the lower classes. Up to this hour cargoes of liberated Africans are still imported to these shores, but their influence is trifling in the social scale. Their labour is valuable, but their numbers are inadequate to the duties required of them. Eagerly sought after, they receive abundant care and attention, which, however, does not altogether wean them from their native African habits, although they gradually adapt themselves to surrounding circumstances. The change is undoubtedly beneficial to them ; but it is questionable whether they do not keep alive among their black brethren, those feelings of barbarity and superstition which still continue to retard the progress of true civilisation.

Returning to the narrative of the original importation of slaves, we will place before the reader a picture of the slave-trade as it existed in its earliest days in this colony. The arrival of these living cargoes was hailed with general satisfaction, and a *depôt* was established for the reception and convenience of the slaves, where they were kept till the time appointed for their disposal. The *vendue*, or sale, was generally effected publicly, and the manner in which it was conducted affords a curious insight into the habits and character of society at that time.

A slave-market was looked upon as a kind of fair, to which, indeed, it bore a striking resemblance. Public notices were issued, announcing when and where it was to be held. It was looked forward to as a gala day.

Urged on by curiosity, excitement, or speculation, persons of all qualities and ages, and of both sexes, decked out in their gayest apparel, hurried to the scene of barter, where, arranged in lots, and prepared for sale, stood the miserable objects of their cupidity. What a contrast was here presented—the lordly proprietor, the usurious speculator, the insatiate sensualist, the timid female and pampered child, had even gathered in groups about the dark children of Africa, who, with anxious hearts and downcast eyes, awaited the result. It was not long in being decided. A purchaser would approach and investigate the qualities of the animal he was about to buy. The scanty covering which the custom of the day required, threw but a slight veil over the defects or imperfections of physical conformation. The limb was carefully examined, its action tested, the surface of the body scrutinised for the detection of any morbid condition of the skin, the mouth inspected, the functions of walking, running, and lifting were practised at the desire of the party about to make an offer. Delicacy, pity, generosity, never interfered with the mercenary considerations which regulated these proceedings.

It was no unusual thing for ladies to be present during such examinations, and even little children were called upon to choose by chance, or caprice, the future slave who was to obey the wants and calls of little “massa” or “missy.” The following account of one of these sales, of the date of 1796, is furnished by an eye-witness:—
“Not simply from curiosity, but from a desire of acquiring instruction from whatever occurs of peculiar interest, I have again been led to be present at one of those most humiliating scenes, a sale of human merchandise, where I saw what is here termed a prime cargo of 300 men and women from the Gold Coast of Africa, all

human beings like ourselves, exposed to public vendue, even as the herds of sheep and oxen in Smithfield market. But although I had been more than a year in the West Indies, I was glad to find that my European feelings were not so entirely blunted as to allow me to witness such a scene without experiencing the painful sensations which naturally arise in the breast of an Englishman when seeing his fellow-creatures thus miserably degraded. The crowd was as great as at Coventry fair, and amid the throng I observed many females as well white as of colour, who, decked out in tinsel finery, had all come to the mart to buy slaves either for themselves, their masters, or keepers. Infants, too, were brought to point the lucky finger to a sable drudge for little self, upon the same principle which leads mamma to take dear babe to a lottery-office to finger out the happy ticket which is to make little missy's fortune. The poor blacks were not exposed to public gaze upon a high stool, in order to be first examined and then knocked down at the hammer, as at the Dutch sale at Berbische, but were divided into three great lots according to their value, and the price being fixed upon, purchasers were left to select from which ever division they might prefer. Boys from eleven to fourteen years of age sold for 600 or 700 florins; the price of the women was from 700 to 800 florins, and of the men from 700 to 900 florins; but a few of the strongest were valued somewhat higher. The agent who conducted the sale is a liberal man, possessed of human sentiments and a cultivated mind, but it is unfortunately his calling to deal in human flesh, and he very justly remarked to me, that in following this occupation it is necessary to give an opiate to the finer feelings of nature. Amidst a scene everywhere repugnant to humanity, I was pleased to remark that a general

sympathy was excited towards one particular family, whose appeals to the compassion of the multitude were not less powerful than their claims. This family consisted of a mother, three daughters, and a son. The parent, although the days of youth were past, was still a well-looking woman; the children appeared to be from fourteen to twenty years of age; they were very like the mother, and still more resembled each other, being all of distinguished face and figure, and remarkably the handsomest negroes of the whole cargo. Their distress lest they should be separated and sold to different masters was so strongly depicted upon their countenances, and expressed in such lively and impressive appeals, that the whole crowd were led impulsively to commiserate their suffering, and by universal consent they were removed from the three great lots and placed in a separate corner by themselves, in order that they might be sold to the same master. Observing their extreme agitation, I was led particularly to notice their conduct as influenced by the terror of being torn from each other, and I may truly say that I witnessed a just and faithful representation of the distressed mother, and such as might bid defiance even to the all-imaginative power of a Siddons. When any one approached their little group, or chanced to look toward them with the attentive eye of a purchaser, the children in broken sobs crouched to their tearful mother, who in agonising impulse instantly fell down before the spectator, bowed herself to the earth, and kissed his foot; then alternately clinging to his legs and pressing her children to her bosom, she fixed herself upon her knees, clasped her hands together, and in anguish cast up a look of humble petition which might have found its way even to the heart of a Caligula.”*

* Pinckard.

Such was the slave-market in former times ; and little as any one may feel inclined to attribute to the Africans the possession of acute sensibility, it must be admitted that this was a process from which even their dull nature must have instinctively recoiled. That they did recoil from it—that it rendered them desperate, and generated in their minds feelings of horror, is sufficiently proved by the numbers that attempted to make their escape, preferring any risk of danger or destitution to the life of the gang and the lash. Large numbers of slaves annually absconded from the Dutch settlements, and, associating in small parties, hid themselves in the woods. Most of these slaves were of the lowest order of intellect, and actuated by the worst passions of the human race. Many of them had committed serious crimes, and thus sought to evade punishment, while others were filled with projects of plunder and destruction to their masters. They were called “Bush negroes,” from their living in the bush or forests. Their numbers increased to such an extent that they gave serious alarm to the white inhabitants, and measures were repeatedly taken to disperse them. They made predatory excursions in the neighbourhoods they infested, and carried off provisions, or whatever else they could lay their hands upon ; and such were the sentiments of revenge they entertained against the white men, that whenever they happened to surprise any of them, they seized them, hurried them away to the woods, and put them to the most miserable deaths. The mangled bodies of their victims, afterwards discovered, afforded revolting evidence of the most barbarous treatment. Rivalling the ferocity of the animals with whom they herded, they maintained, however, a kind of discipline amongst themselves, electing a chief,

whom they strictly obeyed, and always acting in concert under his orders. Rendered desperate by their situation, these lawless savages became the terror of the country. Fortunately they were at length subdued, and no further instances have since occurred of a similar organisation. Solitary individuals have been encountered in remote places, but they were generally found to be idiots or persons of weak intelligence who had lost their way in the forests, where they supported life by destroying and eating birds, insects, reptiles, and occasionally gathering a few roots and fruits. When found and brought back, they evinced no ferocity, anger, or surprise; apathetic and indifferent to consequences, they slyly and cunningly watched the earliest opportunity to return to their wild and savage life.*

The following description of the habits of the Bush negroes, and the attempts made to subdue them, is from the pen of an early but faithful writer:—"The Bush negroes were men of the worst description, cruel and bloodthirsty, and revolting in combination, plotted the destruction of the planters, in order to take the colony into their possession; but being frustrated in their designs, have saved themselves from punishment by flying into the recesses of the forest, from whence they issued only to ravage and plunder. They had subjected themselves to a sort of regular discipline under captain and lieutenants, and the lower orders of them were compelled to toil in the night, by going out of the woods in plundering parties to steal plantains and other provisions from the estates; but the labour to which they were ex-

* An instance occurred in this country in 1845 of a Bush negro being found. He had long, hard nails, and was decked out in the plumage of wild birds and the skins of animals. He refused to eat the ordinary food at first, and looked longingly upon fowls, which he seemed anxious to devour. He scarcely spoke, but muttered a few words, and remained all day passive and inactive. Crowds of persons went to see him at the lunatic asylum where he was confined.

posed by this night duty was so much more severe than that required of them in their common duty as slaves upon the plantations, that some of them have been known to desert from the woods to resume a life of slavery.

“From the injury done, and the increasing number of these hordes, it was deemed necessary that a body of troops should be sent against them. A party of Dutch soldiers were duly marched to exterminate the brigands; but they were defeated by the negroes, and few escaped, most of them being killed, and their scalps or bodies fixed against the trees. A second expedition was sent out, composed of faithful slaves and the native Indians, who held the Bush negroes in abhorrence. Well provided and equipped, this second band separated into two parties, and boldly advanced into the wood to form a combined attack. Upon their march they passed the dead bodies of the Dutch soldiers tied to the trees. Not deterred by this horrid spectacle, they proceeded onwards, having the sagacious Indian on their flanks, by whose acuteness and penetration they discovered the various situations where the different companies of the brigands had taken up their residence, and by well-concerted attacks defeated and routed them wheresoever they met them. As an encouragement to the able and new-raised troops, a premium was offered for every right hand of a Bush negro which should be brought in; and when they returned from the successful expedition, they appeared with seventy black arms displayed upon the points of their bayonets, causing a very singular and shocking spectacle to the beholders. Three hundred guilders had been fixed upon as the price, but it was found necessary to reduce the premium, lest the slaves should kill their prisoners, or even destroy each other, to

obtain it. The exertion and fatigue required in such an expedition cannot be well conceived by those who are accustomed only to regular and systematic warfare, nor is it probable that such a service could have been supported in this climate by European soldiers. In addition to all the difficulties of making their way through the unknown and almost impenetrable woods, they knew not where to find the enemy's posts, or were at every minute liable to be fallen upon by surprise. At first entering the bush, the march was continued to a great distance nearly knee-deep in water, and when further advanced, the troops had to scramble through the thickets or follow each other by a confined path in Indian file, and after the harassing march of the day to lie down at night on the bare ground under the trees, the officers suspending their hammocks from bough to bough ; they had, moreover, to carry the whole of their provisions, arms, and ammunition, and every other necessary required for their success, upon their backs. But for the assistance given by the Indians, the brigands had probably never been subdued, perhaps not even found! The expertness of these men in such a pursuit is peculiar, and beyond all that could be imagined by those who live in crowded society. They not only hear sounds in the wood, which are imperceptible to others, but judge with surprising accuracy of the distance and direction whence they proceed. The position of a fallen leaf, or the bending of a bramble, too slight to be noticed by an European eye, conveys to them certain intelligence respecting the route taken by those whom they pursue. From constant practice and observation, their organs of sense become highly improved, and they hear with an acuteness and see with a precision truly surprising to those who are unacquainted with their habits and their vigilance. With

such guides the expedition moved in confidence, and was conducted in safety. Some of the encampments of the brigands discovered and routed, had existed during fifteen years, concealed in the profoundest gloom of the forest. The following was the mode usually observed in establishing their fixed places of residence and resort:—Having fixed upon the spot most favourable for their purpose, a circular piece of ground was cleared of its wood, and in the centre of this they built huts, and formed the encampments, planting round about the buildings oranges, bananas, plantains, yams, eddoes, and other kinds of provisions; thus, in addition to the trees of the forest, procuring themselves further concealment by the plantation which gave them food. The eddoes were found in great plenty, and had seemed to constitute their principal diet. Round the exterior of this circular spot was cut a deep and wide ditch, which being filled with water, and stuck round the sides and bottom with sharp-pointed sticks, served as a formidable barrier of defence. The path across this ditch was placed two or three feet below the surface, and wholly concealed from the eye by the water being always thick and muddy. Leaves were strewed, and steppings, similar in their kind, made to the edges of the ditch at various parts, as a precaution to deceive any who might approach respecting the real situation of the path. But the proper place of crossing was found out by the acuteness of the Indians, who soon discovered that to attempt to pass at any other part was to be empaled alive. It was found that the brigands had eight of these encampments, or points of rendezvous, in the woods, one of which still remained undiscovered. After much fatigue in endeavouring to discover it, the search was relinquished, in the idea that some of the prisoners, either by indul-

gence or torture, would be induced to make it known; but this expectation has only led to disappointment. All the means used failed, and the prisoners, faithful to their cause, suffered torture and death rather than betray their forest associates. The cruel punishments that were applied to these miserable blacks would be almost incredible. The ringleaders being taken, were tried and executed. Some were burnt alive, others hung in chains and allowed to perish, lingering out for several days; but they made no complaint or lament. They bore the most severe pain with a firmness truly heroic. No disclosure escaped their lips, no sigh betrayed their emotion. They despised death, and were only concerned as to its mode.

*Pompa mortis magis terret, quam mors ipsa.**

As far as the peculiar conditions of its formation permitted, society may now be said to have reached a certain stage of organisation; yet one essential element was wanted. The hitherto unsettled state of things held out little inducement for European females to venture into the colony, and the few who were to be found in it were not persons whose education or moral habits were likely to exercise a very beneficial influence. The consequences inseparable from such circumstances ensued. Unrestrained by the presence of refined and virtuous women, and enjoying a perfect impunity of power over all surrounding associations, the colonists surrendered themselves to a life of unbridled depravity. Having no scandal of public opinion to encounter, and being wholly liberated from all religious and social obligations, they formed intimate relations with the humblest of their slaves, beginning, perhaps, with some vague sense of personal responsibility, but gradually breaking down all

* Pinckard.

the barriers of honour and decency, until the whole country presented a scene of demoralisation that would scarcely be credited in the present age. The authority of the master was omnipotent, and it was employed without remorse in promoting the indulgence of the worst passions. The result was, that the majority of the old planters of the West adopted the customs and privileges of the despots of the East. A seraglio was established on almost every property; and the harem of a planter, if it did not emulate the luxury and pomp of the Turk, transcended its prototype in coarseness and sensuality. The slave, though raised to her master's embraces, was still his menial; her children became his property, were still accounted slaves, and were often compelled to the labour of the field, without being allowed to derive any advantage from their European descent.* This, however, was not the general rule. The mother and her offspring were frequently made free by purchase, and the children brought up to some trade or business. From these unions sprung the mulatto, which in turn, mingling again with the white, produced the Tercerones and Quadroon, followed by the "Quarterones," the offspring of the white and the Terceron; all distinction finally vanishing in the "Quintérons," who owed their origin to a white and "Quarteron," called also "Mustees." This was the last gradation, there being no visible difference in colour or features between them and the whites; indeed, they were often fairer than Europeans, but generally devoid of the healthy rosy hue so striking in the latter. The children of the negro and mulatto were called "Samboes," and had a

* Many of this class of children were never made free, but left to grow up in ignorance and vice; many were actually included in the claim for compensation, with the connivance of their parents.

disagreeable complexion and features. In glancing at these various classes, we find the character of the mulatto standing out prominently from the rest.

Brown in colour, with short crisp hair, and features between those of the European and African, but generally more nearly resembling the latter, he was strongly formed, and well proportioned; and was marked by some of the most conspicuous traits of his descent on both sides—the prejudices and haughtiness of his European father, and the levity and the idleness of his African mother. He inherited from the former an instinct of independence and a love of authority; but these were neutralised by the languor and disinclination to exertion he derived from the latter. Quick to learn, he had not always the opportunity; eager of enjoyment, his means were restrained; jealous of his parentage, he was denied its privileges. Hence levity, cunning, and recklessness, took the place of those better elements, which, under more favourable circumstances, he might have successfully developed. In the course of time, however, as his position improved, he began to vindicate his European origin, and it would be unjust to deny him the possession of some excellent qualities, such as generosity and humanity. The mulattoes were generally educated in industrial occupations, which they follow to this day, and in which they exhibit much willingness and intelligence, and no inconsiderable capacity.

The negro characteristics, nevertheless, are still predominant—the indolence, the fondness for holidays and finery, and the passion for music and dancing, in which latter they excel. Wanting in the distinctive attributes that constitute an original race, they have failed to strike out a separate course for themselves; but they generally incline towards the customs and practices of the Europeans, and in all cases of conflicting interests they side

with the whites. To the peculiarity of their training, perhaps, may be ascribed the repugnance or contempt with which they regard the blacks; yet not having enough of industry or energy to achieve a high place in society, and abandoning the profitable pursuits of the field for more light and frivolous occupations, they are not unfrequently outstripped in worldly prosperity by the plodding and unambitious negro.

CHAPTER V.

ATTACKS OF THE FRENCH IN 1689, 1709, AND 1712, ON THE SETTLEMENTS OF BERBICE AND ESSEQUEBO RIVERS—BOMBARDMENT OF FORT NASSAU—CAPITULATION AND RANSOM OF BERBICE—TRANSFER OF BERBICE, 1714—ARTICLES OF AGREEMENT ABOUT SLAVES—BERBICE COMPANY, 1720—INVENTORY OF THE EFFECTS OF THE COLONY — ARTICLES OF AGREEMENT — INTRODUCTION OF COFFEE CULTIVATION—ORIGIN OF PAPER MONEY—THE COAST TRADE—MEMORIAL OF THE DIRECTORS OF BERBICE TO THE STATES OF HOLLAND, 1730—ORIGIN OF THE SYSTEM OF COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION, 1732—RAISING OF TAXES—APPOINTMENT OF GOVERNOR, PREDIKANT, AND OTHER OFFICERS—ORIGIN OF MILITIA FORCE—OF THE ORPHAN CHAMBER—PROGRESS OF THE PLANTATIONS.

THE undertakings of the Dutch, however distinguished by a spirit of enterprise, were chequered by misfortunes early in the eighteenth century.

About the year 1689, some ships (part of the squadron under Admiral de Casse, that had been unsuccessfully engaged in attacking Surinam) sailed up the river Berbice, landed some troops, and laid waste several plantations. The colonists were compelled to buy out their invaders, and finally got rid of them by a ransom of 20,000 guilders in the form of a bill of exchange drawn upon the proprietors of the estates in Vlissingen. A subsequent arrangement relieved them from the payment of this obligation. The governor of Surinam, Van

Schupenhingen, had taken some French prisoners during the late invasion, and it was agreed between the contracting parties that the bill of ransom should be cancelled, on condition that the prisoners were delivered up, together with a sum of about 5000 or 6000 guilders, and some sugar which was ready for shipping in the river Berbice.

It would appear from this latter circumstance, that although the value of the settlements on the Berbice was not very considerable, yet that the cultivation of sugar had already commenced and made some progress. It is in this district that we find the first allusion made to the manufacture of sugar. Undeterred by the late invasion, the indefatigable settlers increased the number of their plantations, and with renewed vigour applied themselves to the cultivation of the soil.

The settlements on the river Essequibo were also exposed to frequent assaults from piratical vessels. On the 10th December, 1707, Peter Van der Heyden Resen was appointed commander of this district, and under his administration considerable progress had been made by the indefatigable Dutch. In 1709 two French armed vessels sailed up the river, whose banks were still studded with Indian villages. Their object was plunder; but awed by the strength displayed in the fortified position of the Dutch colonists, and their evident determination to offer a stout resistance, the marauders contented themselves by attacking, burning, and plundering the villages of the Indians, who however retaliated, by decoying some of their enemies into the forests, where they took ample retribution for the wrongs that had been inflicted on them.

Foiled in their first attempts, the French prepared for a second invasion of the settlements on the river Berbice, organising upon this occasion a considerable and

effective force, under the command of Baron de Mouans. On the 8th November, 1712, the French commander arrived in the river Berbice with three ships and some sloops, three mortars, and about 600 troops. On the 9th they passed the guard-house at the entrance unmolested, owing to the want of hands on the part of the Dutch to occupy that post. On the 10th, having ascended fifty miles up the river, they landed some of the troops, and reconnoitred Fort Nassau. The next day a French officer proceeded to the fort, and demanded the surrender of the colony. This demand was indignantly refused, and the threat of bombardment which accompanied it was put into execution on the same evening by the French. The assault was heroically resisted; and it was not till after a fierce siege of four days, during which about 160 bombs were thrown into the defences, that the "chamade," or beating of drums on the part of the Dutch, signified to the French that the besieged were willing to capitulate. After some little difficulty a conference was held between the two commanders, and on the 16th November the captured colony was ransomed by the Dutch for the sum of 300,000 guilders, after the following manner :

	Guilders.
153 male negroes and 91 female, at 300 guilders each	73,200 0
15 young negroes (from 10 to 12 years old), 111 guilders each	1,665 0
	<hr/>
734 hogsheads and 1 tierce of sugar, valued at	74,865 0
Provisions and merchandise	22,040 0
Bill of Exchange	21,118 14
	<hr/>
	181,975 6
	<hr/>
	300,000 0

In addition to this large sum, a further payment of 10,000 guilders was exacted by the unscrupulous French to exempt the inhabitants from private spoliation and other insults :

	Guilders.
Gold and silver	5138
Other cash	956
Merchandise	2949
6 hogsheads sugar	180
A slave and child	400
Sundries	377
	10,000*

Moreover, the French commander insisted on having hostages delivered up to him to accompany him to Europe with the bill of exchange, till it reached maturity and was duly paid. Two gentlemen, the two junior members of the Court of Policy, Gerard de Veirman and Hendrich Van Doorn, accordingly, leaving their wives and families behind them, accompanied the bill, which was drawn at six months on Jan and Cornelius Van Peere, of Flushing. Unfortunately, both these gentlemen died, one on the passage, and the other shortly after his arrival in Europe, and the bill when presented was refused payment. Two protests were made against it, one on the 12th May, 1713, the other on the 17th November, 1713. During the time occupied in the discussion about this bill, the colony of Berbice was provisionally ceded to France on the 13th September, 1713; but at the Treaty of Utrecht in 1714 it was given up by the French Government, through Joseph Maillet, to some Dutch merchants, viz., Cornelius Van Peere, Van Hoorn (Nicholas and Hendrich), Arnold Dix, and Peter Schurman, all of Amsterdam,† who agreed to pay 108,000 florins on account of the protested bill, and who were thus to become the proprietors of the colony under the protection of the States or United Provinces. One quarter of the colony was, however, to be reserved to the original proprietor of the settlement, Van Peere.

* The terms of the capitulation and subsequent ransom were signed by Steven de Waterman, Laurens de Feer, M. Heyn, Claas Ral, and A. Tierens.

† See Acte Van Cessie en Transport der Colonie de Berbice, door Joseph Maillet, 99. Aan de Van Hoorns, 24th October, 1714. Hartstink, p. 305.

The necessity for obtaining hands to cultivate the estates induced this company of merchants, Messrs. Van Peere, Van Hoorn, Dix, and Schurman, to attempt to introduce labourers from the East (a curious foreshadowing of what was to occur in after years in the same colony); but their request was refused by the Government. In the same year, 1714, the "Staats-General" contracted* for African negroes, of whom one-third were to be females. These people were brought chiefly from the Angola or Ordra tribes on the coast of Guinea, in accordance with an agreement which, as an illustration of the manner in which these affairs were regulated, will be found inserted in the Appendix.

In 1719 Laurens de Heere was appointed commander of Essequibo. In the same year the West India Company of Berbice contracted with a Jew, named Simon Abrahams, to search for gold and silver, of which he was to have one-sixteenth share, but none was ever obtained. The ore discovered in 1721 resembled that of the western part of South America, but was of inferior value. The speculation proved unfortunate, and Abrahams returned to Holland in 1724.

The proprietors of Berbice, not having a capital equal to the cultivation of which the colony was capable, proposed, in 1720, to raise a fund of 3,200,000 florins, divided into 1600 shares of 2000 florins each, to be employed solely in cultivating sugar, cocoa, and indigo, of which 50 per cent. was to be repaid in eight instalments before April, 1724, and the remainder when required by the directors, who consisted of seven proprietors of 20,000 florins each, residing in Amsterdam. The actual proprietors were also to be paid, by way of indemnity, the sum of 800,000 florins, or to be allowed

* Hartink, p. 313.

to purchase 400 shares. This company, the directors of which were afterwards increased to nine in number, held all the lands or estates in common; the shipping, the warehouses, the revenues of the custom-house, and the produce, were likewise the property of the shareholders, and a yearly dividend of the profits was to be apportioned. Of the proposed capital, only 1,882,000 florins was raised and invested, and the yearly dividends never reached more than 3 or 4 per cent. The shares in consequence soon fell from 2000 to 200 florins per cent., and were chiefly bought up by the new settlers as a kind of title to their several properties. The colony under this company was managed by the directors in Holland, who received an annual salary of 200 florins each, submitting their accounts to an annual meeting of proprietors, and appointing auditors to inspect them. Their management was at once cheap and efficient, their whole staff consisting of one secretary and two book-keepers, under whose arrangements the colony made rapid progress; the cultivation of property was extended, an ample supply of labour was introduced, a substantial fort (St. Andrew) was built at the junction of the rivers Canje and Berbice, and the luxuriant soil was devoted to the raising of various kinds of produce.

In the year 1720 an inventory was made of the property in the colony of Berbice, which gave the following results:

Inventory of effects belonging to the colony of Berbice, 1720:

1. 895 negro slaves.
2. 6 large and complete sugar plantations, with all the necessary appurtenances, for the cultivation and manufacture of produce; 2 cocoa plantations, ditto, ditto.
3. 1 fortress, or guard-house; 1 large fort (Nassau); 1 redoubt (opposite this fort); 4 outposts, situated inland;

the whole of these defences were furnished with 60 pieces of cannon, besides smaller weapons, and the necessary ammunition.

4. 1 smithy, including some iron, coal, &c.; 1 cedar-built church.

5. 1 bark, besides other small vessels, such as yachts, canoes, punts, &c.

6. The goods belonging to the fort and outposts; the cash in the treasury, about 4 or 500 guilders in amount; the provisions, medicaments, and sundries.

7. 524 head of cattle, besides some sheep, pigs, &c.

8. 281 horses.

9. 1 trading vessel, lying at the wharf (Hegte Thiet).

10. 1 tout or decked vessel,* nearly new, and fitted up at an expense of about 35,000 guilders.

11. The cargo of this vessel, namely, 8 or 900 hogsheads of sugar, besides other goods.

12. The sugar and other produce found in the colony.

At the first meeting of the new company (4th October, 1720), it was agreed to reduce the payment to the former proprietors of the colony from 8 to 600,000 guilders.

Of the above-mentioned capital of 1600 shares, 941 were taken by strangers, and 659 by the colonists, and the following instalments were made at different times, viz. :

1st November, 1720	8 per cent.	} Besides a call of 8 per cent. in 1764, 1st August; owing to the loss occasioned by the insurrection.
1st April, 1721	8 "	
1st October,	10 "	
1st April, 1722	4 "	
1st May, 1724	4 "	
1st October,	4 "	
1st August, 1732	4 "	
		42 per cent.	

The following is a copy of the articles of agreement of a proposed company for the extension of cultivation in the colony of Berbice, in September, 1720 :

* A craft peculiar to the Dutch, and employed by them in trade.

1. The present proprietors are willing to give up all the plantations, with their appurtenances and other possessions in the said colony, for the sum of 800,000 guilders, as per inventory.

2. The proprietors to be exempt from all taxes, and payments of salaries to officials, sailors, and soldiers, &c., from the 18th March, 1721.

3. Any monies due to the said colony after such date to be received by the new company.

4. The present proprietors to hold by preference 400 shares in the new company, as well as any more shares as shall be allowed.

5. Of the proposed capital, viz., 3,200,000 guilders, 50 per cent. shall be paid, in 8 instalments, as follows :

					Guilders.
1720	1st November	8 per cent. on the whole 256,000
1721	1st April	8 " " 256,000
"	1st October	10 " " 320,000
1722	1st April	8 " " 256,000
"	1st October	4 " " 128,000
1723	1st April	4 " " 128,000
"	1st October	4 " " 128,000
1724	1st April	4 " " 128,000
					<hr/> 1,600,000

6. In the event of any instalment not being paid within one month after it becomes due by the shareholder, he shall forfeit his share or shares.

7. No further payment than the 50 per cent. shall be called for, except by the consent of a majority of the directors.

8. The administration of the affairs of the company to be conducted by seven directors, of whom Nicholas van Hoorn (or in his absence his brother Hendrich) and Peter Schurman should be two.

9. The other five directors shall be experienced merchants, elected by a majority of the other shareholders, and they shall be obliged to name an efficient substitute in case of their absence.

10. No person competent to be a director unless he holds at least ten shares in the company.

11. The directors appointed for life, but in case of non-qualification, or other cause, when absent from the assembly for a year and a day, another director shall be appointed.

12. The directors shall appoint the necessary servants of the company.

13. A full shareholder entitled to one vote to be possessed of ten shares at least.

14. The directors to receive no salary for the first four years, except a recognition of 200 guilders each per annum, but after a distribution of the funds they shall be paid at the rate of 5 per cent.

15. The directors shall expose the books of the company annually, and balance them, at the same time nominating two or three of the full shareholders to examine them and audit the accounts.

16. The capital of 3,200,000 guilders shall be increased or diminished only with the consent of a majority of the shareholders.

17. The directors shall distribute the funds at such times as shall seem best to them.

18. It is to be understood that none of the shareholders shall transact any business in connexion with the company, but it shall be competent for them to sell their shares on paying 2 guilders for the transfer.

19. The shareholders shall continue the contract entered into by the former proprietors with Simon Abrahams to explore for minerals, &c.

20. Any alteration or amendment of the present rules which may be found necessary, shall take place only by consent of a majority of the shareholders.

21. The payment of the 800,000 guilders to the former proprietors shall be made in eight instalments, as follows:

			Guilders.
1720	1st November	180,000
1721	1st April	120,000
"	1st October	120,000
1722	1st April	160,000
"	1st October	80,000
1723	1st April	64,000
"	1st October	40,000
1724	1st April	36,000
			800,000

22. No one shall be allowed to hold less than three shares, or more than ten.

It was also determined to erect ten new large sugar plantations, with 100 slaves on each. Eight of these were in cultivation in 1722—viz., the Johanna; 2. Corelia Jacoba; 3. Savonette; 4. Hardenbroch; 5. Dageraad; 6. Hogslande; 7. Elizabeth; 8. Debora. A brickery was also established, but done away with in 1731. The council of Berbice about this time was increased from six to nine persons.

In the year 1721 coffee was first cultivated in Berbice, from seed obtained through the governor of the neighbouring settlement of Surinam—M. Courtier—who liberally called the attention of the inhabitants to the cultivation of that useful article—a public benefit of which they marked their sense by presenting him with a saddle-horse. Many new estates soon began to be laid out in coffee, which was found to thrive and bear exceedingly well in the alluvial soil. The directors of the company in Holland had the appointment of all the civil servants of the colony, and paid them, as well as the troops, in bills drawn on themselves at six weeks' date, which bills were received in Berbice in payment of taxes, and passed current in the ordinary transactions of business. To these bills may be traced the origin of the paper currency of the colony.

The States-General, under whose sovereignty or protection the company had placed Berbice, agreed to erect

forts, and keep a certain number of troops in them, on condition that the inhabitants contributed annually the sum of 75,000 florins, the proprietors on their parts reserving all legislative and executive functions in their own hands. In the year 1723, the colonists of Berbice began to open a trade along the American coast, which was at first resisted by the Dutch West India Company as an interference with their charter, but ultimately agreed to. The cultivation of this trade was of great importance to the infant settlement, as it not only enabled the people to procure a supply of live stock and a variety of goods and commodities necessary for their support, but to establish markets for articles of their own production. They were unable, however, to avail themselves of the full advantages of these circumstances, being obliged to ship the principal exportable commodities—such as sugar, cocoa, and coffee, in vessels belonging to the States-General.

In the year 1730, the directors of the colony made a representation to their High Mightinesses of the States, to the effect that, in 1720, when the administration of Berbice was taken over by them, they found only six plantations in cultivation, but that since that time eight others had been laid out,* which they expected would realise considerable advantages to the parties concerned; in order, however, to advance fully the interests of the community, they prayed that this colony should be placed upon the same footing as that of Surinam, that it should be free of access to all inhabitants of the parent country, and that lands should be granted to all new-comers who should require them, upon certain conditions to be subsequently named. The immediate effect of this representation does not appear; but that it received ample consideration may be inferred from the fact that in the year

* In 1731 the value of the settlements in Berbice was estimated at only 750,160 guilders.

1732 an octroy,* dated the 6th December, made its appearance, containing the most important provisions for the future government of the colony that had yet been contemplated, and marking very distinctly the progress that had been made in wealth and stability.

In the first place, the octroy declared that it had become necessary to provide a "constitution for Berbice." The States-General enacted that the government was to be administered by a governor and council—the governor to be appointed by the directors of the association, under a commission from the States; and the council (also termed the Court of Policy) to consist of six persons, to be chosen by the governor, out of twelve nominated by the inhabitants,† the vacancies being filled up by the governor, who selected one out of two persons nominated by the remaining councillors. A Court of Criminal Justice was established, to consist of six or more members, to be appointed by the council or court of policy. A court of civil justice was instituted, to consist of the governor, as president, and six members selected by him out of twelve persons nominated—one-half by the Court of Policy, and one-half by the inhabitants, three members to retire every two years. The governor was allowed only one vote. The Court of Policy was to take precedence of the Court of Justice and the individual members, severally one of the other, from the date of their appointments.

At the same time, the octroy empowered the directors to grant lands upon such terms and conditions as should appear to them proper. Another article empowered them to enact a capitation-tax, a weigh-tax, and a tonnage-tax.

The lands were at first given gratis to the settlers; but as this system produced more claims than could be

* Project Reglement dienende tot het Verzogte Octrooi. Hartsink, p. 347.

† This arrangement was afterwards altered.

entertained, it was proposed that a charge of 10 florins per acre be made, and the money so raised was called "acre-money" (akker geld genaamd). This acre-money was to become payable in fifteen years at ten different instalments, with the exception of the lands upon the east and west sea-coast, which were considered of so much greater value than the rest, and had latterly began to attract so much notice, that the acre-money there was made payable within twelve months in two instalments. At a subsequent period, in April, 1774, a plantation-tax was raised of 125 florins per annum from each estate, amounting in a few years to a large sum—about 125,000 florins—which was again distributed to the several plantations according to the number of the slaves on each. As the object of this proceeding is not very obvious, I transcribe the sentence in Dutch which refers to it: "De jaarlyksche opbrengs daar van is heden ten dage (1805), een Somme van 125,000 florins, die over alle de Plantagien, naar maate van het getal der slaven, tot ieder dezelve behorende, *wordt omgeslagen.*"*

The capitation-tax (fifty pounds of sugar, or cash equivalent, 50 stivers) was exacted indiscriminately from the whole population, both white and black, children under ten years of age being charged only half that amount. The weighage-tax, or toll, consisted of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. commission on all imports and exports; and the tonnage-tax, or duty, was about 3 florins per "last" on the burden of ships; besides these, an excise duty was charged on every fifty pounds of sugar exported.

The directors were required to provide the colonists with a predikant, schoolmaster, and reader, but were only partially to contribute to their support; a free

* Verhaal van Berbice, p. 8.

table at the commandant's, besides a keg of brandy, and half a pipe of wine, were allowed to the predikant.

The colonists were enjoined to employ one white person for every fifteen slaves, and the transport of such white persons was limited to the sum of 30 guilders.

Again, all sugars and other produce shipped were required to be marked with the name of the estate which produced it, and directed to be sent to no other place than Holland.

From the consideration of these important measures in the history of the colony, it will be evident that society had now began to assume a more settled state. On the 22nd April, in the year 1733, Bernhard Waterham was installed as the first governor of Berbice, to carry out those new measures of government which were destined to influence the character not only of Berbice, but of its sister settlement, for many years to follow.

From the commencement of the directory in 1720, to the year 1732, when these changes were introduced, the settlement does not appear to have had a very full or regular tide of prosperity. It would seem that the sum of 54,235 guilders 10 stivers only had been shared by the proprietors, and that this had given rise to much dissatisfaction; and two years after the establishment of the constitution, it was found that the planters could not support the new rate of taxes, and consequently a temporary exemption from taxation was granted to them. In the same year, 1734, upon the representation of the sugar refiners of Holland, the refining of sugar was prohibited in the colony. Notwithstanding these circumstances, however, the influx of strangers under the new government produced so great a demand for land, that it was found necessary to adopt a stringent

regulation, by which all future purchasers were restricted to plantations not exceeding 2000 acres in extent.

The increased and increasing population led insensibly to many social changes. A number of new houses were erected near the fort, and it was proposed to fortify Crab Island, but this had been objected to by the former commander of the river, Mr. Tierens, and upon the recommendation of the engineer, Osterlein, the old fort situated there was reconstructed and put in better order.

In 1735 the first predikant, Jan Christian Frauendorf, arrived in the settlement of Berbice. It had been stipulated that he should be supported by a tax of 25 guilders from each plantation, which it was calculated would afford him a salary of about 800 guilders, besides his residence and free living at the governor's table, his annual keg of brandy, and his pipe of wine. This arrangement, however, was found to be practically inconvenient, and it underwent some modification. The salary of the predikant was fixed at a sum of 900 guilders yearly, which he received from the colony; a house was built for him to reside in near the fort; and, instead of boarding with the governor, he was allowed an additional sum of 300 guilders to keep his own table. In addition to this officer, a clerk and schoolmaster was also imported, and received a salary of 300 guilders per annum. At the same time, a church fund was instituted, and was supported by a grant from the general funds of the colony. Various other acts of importance were effected about this period in Berbice. For the further introduction of slaves, the want of whom was greatly felt, an arrangement was made with the West India Company whereby 500 slaves were to be brought from the coast of Guinea. The inhabitants, also, profiting by the example of Surinam, which at that time served as a sort of model colony, de-

terminated upon raising a militia force. Four companies of free persons were organised and trained in the use of arms; and as a further means of protecting the infant colony from assaults (internal as well as external), the troops of the garrison were augmented from 150 to 200 men. For the convenience of the inhabitants, a tavern or hotel was erected close to the fort, and the hotel-keeper was prohibited from receiving any produce in payment under a heavy penalty. The attempt to re-establish a brickery was also renewed, but, although partially successful, never prospered to the desired extent. For the better administration of the goods of deceased persons, and for the benefit of minors and orphans, an Orphan Chamber (*Weeskamer*) was instituted, and subsequently became a very important office in these colonies.

The appointment of director or superintendent of the plantations was an office which dated from about this period, but as the remuneration attending it was found inadequate, it was decreed that in future the person who filled it should have a seat in the Court of Policy.

Some difference having arisen between the directors of the colony and the members of the company in 1738, it was determined to raise the number of the former from seven to nine persons, which was accordingly done in the month of July of that year.

Following the example set them by the colonists in Surinam, the settlers in Berbice cultivated plantations of sugar, coffee, cocoa, and cotton along the river and the numerous branches or creeks. The cultivation of tobacco also was attended to, for on the 22nd of October, 1738, a duty of 2 penningen per lb. was levied upon its introduction in the states of Holland.

With a view to increase the facility of communication throughout the different plantations along these wild

districts, a pathway was formed between Fort Nassau and the river Canje. It was found impossible to construct roads along the banks of the river and between the plantations; hence the communication was kept up chiefly by water, while a few narrow and indistinct footpaths were tracked out between some of the most important posts and habitations.

CHAPTER VI.

INSURRECTION IN BERBICE—INSUBORDINATION OF TROOPS—PARTIAL INSTANCES OF REBELLION AMONG THE SLAVES—COMMENCEMENT OF THE INSURRECTION OF 1763—GOVERNOR VAN HOGENHEIM'S MEASURES TO SUPPRESS IT—FAILURE OF HIS PLANS—PROGRESS OF THE INSURRECTION—ABANDONMENT OF FORT NASSAU—RESISTANCE OF SETTLERS AGAINST THE NEGROES—ARRIVAL OF TROOPS FROM SURINAM—GOVERNOR'S PROCLAMATION—MILITARY AND NAVAL EXPEDITION PREPARED IN HOLLAND—INSTRUCTIONS GIVEN TO COLONEL DE SALVE—HIS ARRIVAL IN BERBICE—FORT NASSAU RE-OCCUPIED—REBELS ATTACKED, CAPTURED, TRIED, AND EXECUTED—TROOPS RETURN TO HOLLAND—GOVERNOR RESIGNS—CONDITION OF THE COLONY AFTER THE INSURRECTION.

EVER since the introduction of the slaves into the colony of Berbice, they had shown an indisposition to labour, which rendered coercive measures unavoidable; and the severity with which they were consequently treated led to several ineffectual attempts to escape their misery by absconding from the plantations, and, in some instances, to open revolt. In 1733 and 1734 partial rebellions broke out, but were easily suppressed by the energy and promptitude of Governor Waterham, who, up to the period of his death in 1749, appears to have preserved the colony in a state of comparative security. He was succeeded by John Andries Lossner on the 8th April, 1749, who was displaced in less than a month by the appointment of John Frederic Collier. These changes were not calculated to tranquillise the settlement, or to produce a feeling of confidence amongst the settlers; and accordingly we find, that during Collier's administration

the insubordination spread from the slaves to the Dutch soldiers, who now began to betray impatience of the rigorous discipline to which they were subjected in controlling the outbreaks of the negroes.

In 1751 some fifteen or sixteen soldiers tried to escape from the fort, but were captured, and cast into a loathsome prison overrun with snakes and rats. By the verdict of a court-martial the principal culprit was sentenced to be hanged; but that degrading death was spared him, and he was ordered to be shot. The ring-leaders were banished from the colony and sent to New England, and the rest subjected to other punishments.* In 1752 another revolt took place on plantation Switzerland, but it was speedily suppressed, and the leader of it drowned himself.

On the 5th December, 1755, a new governor, Hendrick Jan van Ryswick, was appointed. Fresh instances of violence continued to betray the unsettled condition of the military. Anthony Kragh, a soldier who had been implicated in the late attempt at escape, was found concerned, along with a Boor who had been expelled for bad conduct, in the murder of an old man, Peter de Raad. They were, however, discovered by the detection of some coin which was known to have belonged to the deceased, tried, put to torture, and, after confessing their guilt, the criminals were broken on the wheel. The Boor left behind him a wife and children, who were sent to New England, where the eldest daughter soon after contracted an advantageous marriage in New York.

In 1759 a fatal duel took place between two of the soldiers, who fought with bayonets. They were both foreigners—the one French, the other Italian. In the rencontre the latter was mortally wounded, and the survivor was brought to trial and executed—an example

* Hartsink.

of severity demanded by the disorderly state of the military. About this period, or a little earlier, a malignant fever broke out among the white inhabitants, and carried off great numbers. On this occasion the mortality among the troops was so extensive, that in 1762 the whole garrison amounted to scarcely twenty in number. These circumstances gave increased confidence to the mutinous slaves, and a body of them taking advantage of the absence of the proprietor of a plantation, they attacked the dwelling-house, ransacked and burnt it, and effected their escape up the river, bidding defiance to the resistance offered at the post and other places. The news having reached the fort, Lieutenant Thielen, a corporal, and twelve soldiers, assisted by some militia, proceeded in search of the rebels, and tracing them to the bush, attacked them twice, but were defeated, and obliged to retire with the loss of several killed and taken prisoners. A heavy retribution, however, awaited the insurgents. The soldiers retreated to an ambuscade, where they awaited the negroes, and in the conflict which ensued many slaves were killed, others dispersed, and a few of them were taken prisoners. There was no mercy for these unfortunate men. The general safety required extreme measures, and the prisoners were executed. But these severities were not successful in checking the disaffection. In the same year insurrectionary meetings were discovered on three plantations in Berbice, but fortunately in sufficient time to arrest the plans of the conspirators, whose designs were thus to all appearance annihilated. The cautious vigilance of the Dutch had extinguished the flame, but their tyranny had kept alive the embers, and in the following year, 1763, a terrible insurrection burst out, which convulsed the whole colony, and threatened its very existence.

The number of slaves at this time in Berbice was

about 3000, of the whites about 100.* The insurrection commenced upon plantation Magdalenenburg, on the river Canje, where some of the slaves, about seventy-three in number, appeared in open rebellion. They murdered the director or manager, André Fourie Niffens den Timmerman, and seizing upon all the arms they could find, proceeded to the next plantation, Providence. The director, however, having heard of their approach, escaped with two of his people to the plantation Petersburg. Disappointed of their victim, the rebels plundered the house, and being joined by other negroes, crossed the river Canje, with the intention of reaching Surinam. When the governor, Van Hogenheim (who had been appointed in 1760), was informed of the revolt, he despatched a body of sailors from some of the merchant ships, under command of a mate (having no soldiers he could employ on such a service), with strict orders to go overland to the river Canje and to post themselves securely on the line of attack. The expedition, however, was fruitless, for after remaining several days in the neighbourhood, the sailors discovered that the negroes had decamped. In the month of March several other plantations were attacked by the slaves, the houses fired, and some of the whites murdered. In consequence of these alarming circumstances, the governor ordered the slave-ship *Adriana Petronella*, Cock, master, with thirty strong and well-armed people, to sail up the river Berbice, for the purpose of succouring the whites, who with their families had fled, terror-stricken, from their lands. But, instead of proceeding at once to the rescue of the distressed fugitives, the master cast anchor shortly after he had left the fort on the pretence of taking charge of some moveable property belonging to the neighbouring estates. The inhabitants of the town of New Amster-

* Hartsink.

dam, hearing that the rebels were advancing to the fort, took advantage of the opportunity to convey goods on board of three of the vessels in the river, in which they also took refuge themselves. These ships had been moored off the fort by orders of the governor, to assist it in case of need. The fort itself was so badly garrisoned, that only eight soldiers and about ten citizens composed the force. In spite of the renewed orders of the governor, the master of the slave-ship remained in this state of inactivity, and application being made to the master of another vessel to undertake the attempt, he refused, on the ground that his pilot and some of his sailors were absent, and the others sick. Meanwhile, the unfortunate planters up the river had shut themselves up in a house, which they fortified as well as they could, where they defended themselves against several attacks from the negroes, who loudly proclaimed their determination to hunt every white man out of Berbice, and to take possession of their estates. Finding further resistance impossible, they capitulated with the slaves, and begged for permission to pass out to their boats so that they might embark in the ships. To this proposal the insurgents treacherously consented; but scarcely had the miserable planters and their families entered the boats, than the negroes fired on them, killing several, and wounding and making prisoners of others. A few alone escaped the carnage, and took to flight in despair. The wretched captives were brutally insulted, and many of them deliberately murdered; others committed suicide in anticipation of their fate. The news of this horrible catastrophe reached the fort through a mulatto, Jan Broer, and was shortly after confirmed by the Predikant Ramring, his wife, and sister, who, "as a man who spoke with God," had been spared by the rebels. They commissioned him, however, to acquaint the governor that

the cause of this revolt originated in the cruel and wicked conduct of some of the planters. Many other settlers from different parts of the colony came flying into the town, naked and destitute, to seek shelter in the fort, or on board of the ships.

The revolt had now become general. Under such disastrous circumstances the governor, Van Hogenheim, convened an extraordinary meeting of the principal inhabitants to consider the best means of acting under such difficulties, and also despatched a trusty messenger to the governor of Surinam, praying for succour and relief. Upon inspecting the fort and general means of defence, the former was found in such a deplorable condition as to preclude all hope of its being rendered effectually serviceable; and measures were taken, under a report from the principal military and militia officers, for the purpose of repairing and strengthening it. Another report contained a plan of general defence. They suggested that the inhabitants who had taken refuge on board the ships should be ordered to return into the fort, and not allowed to go out without express permission; and that the masters of the four principal ships should be directed to place themselves in such a manner as to give the best assistance to the fort. Two of the ship captains consented to this arrangement, a third pleaded sickness in excuse, and the fourth pleaded that his orders required him to leave the colony as soon as possible, to proceed either to St. Eustace or elsewhere. A letter was shortly afterwards forwarded to the governor from two of the ringleaders, Cuffy and Accara, warning him to depart at once with the white inhabitants and their ships, leaving the colony to the negroes, who had been driven to this measure by repeated cruelties and injustice, and who, if resistance was continued to be offered to them, would compel their masters to evacuate the territory. To this demand the

governor returned an answer, not with the intention of entering into correspondence with the rebels, but merely to gain time. By this time the negroes had organised themselves into a regular government, had established a complete system of military discipline, and had chosen Cuffy, a young slave of courage and judgment, as their governor. A rumour having prevailed that the rebels were advancing to the fort in great numbers, the Dutch inhabitants took alarm, and addressed a letter, dated the 7th March, to the governor, requesting leave to depart on board the ships, since the fort was incapable of affording them protection; stating further that the slaves were already in possession of the whole of the settlement up the river Berbice, and to the number of 600 were carrying fire and destruction along with them. This request was peremptorily refused by the governor and military officers, who advised that they should remain in the fort until assistance could be obtained; but the militia officers having sided with the colonists, and the question being asked of the military whether they alone felt themselves equal to the task of resisting the rebels, and being answered in the negative, it was at length finally determined on the 8th March that the fort should be abandoned and set on fire, whilst the unfortunate inhabitants retreated to their ships. These latter, with the colonists on board, having retired out of danger, a lieutenant, corporal, and two men were left to execute the blowing up of Fort Nassau, which being accomplished, they reached the ships in a boat left behind for that purpose. A negro, named Simon, was likewise despatched on horseback to the neighbouring settlements on the river Canje to acquaint the planters with the determination and conduct of the colonists in Berbice, but he found that they had all fled from their plantations and retired towards the sea-coast. The ships as they

passed found nearly the whole plantations along the river in possession of the rebels. Upon one only the slaves were still faithful, and on being asked to cooperate in the general defence, they came on board and joined the colonists. Several skirmishes took place between the ships and the insurgent negroes, who repeatedly fired on them. One or two white inhabitants were happily rescued as the ships proceeded down the river. A letter was soon after received by the governor from a burgher captain of Canje, stating that the inhabitants of that district had reached Fort Saint Andries on the coast, and praying for assistance and provisions that they might be enabled to hold out. The ships having arrived at plantation Dageraat, cast anchor, whilst the governor and many of the colonists went on shore, finding that the negroes on that estate were peaceably inclined, and attending to their work. It was furthermore determined, after mature consideration, to make a halt here, for the situation of the estate was most favourable to resist any attack on the part of the insurgents, being protected in front by the river and ships, and inland by a marshy and almost impassable waste.

One of the ships was ordered to the mouth of the river Canje, to prevent any sally on the part of the rebels, as well as to cover the entrance of the river Berbice. But the ship captains refused to accede to the propositions made to them, although the governor and council addressed them, and promised to hold them harmless of the consequences. In spite of all commands they persisted in sailing down the river, and the governor and colonists were obliged to join them, especially as some of the ships' companies had shown a disposition to be unruly.

On the next day, the 12th of March, the anchors were raised, and they journeyed onwards, learning soon after

that a revolt had taken place on plantation Dageraat, where the negroes had joined the insurgents.

On the 16th, the ships arrived at Fort St. Andries, and found the inmates entirely unprotected, and in a wretched state of destitution. The power of the governor to render any help under these deplorable circumstances was shattered by insubordination amongst his own people. All authority and discipline was at an end. Two of the ship captains actually made preparations to set sail, which they did shortly after, in spite of all remonstrances, taking with them all those who refused to subject themselves to the orders of the governor and council. They likewise carried away some of the private property of the afflicted planters, besides many of the papers and other public documents belonging to the civil officers and the establishments of the colony.

Thus deserted, the remaining military, militia, and citizens, formed themselves into a disciplined corps, and determined to fortify their position, and abide the result. They were joined by other refugees; and, on the 28th of March, the brigantine *Betsy* arrived at Fort St. Andries, from Surinam, with about 100 soldiers under Captains Ryssel and Texier. The governor immediately assembled the military and burgher soldiers, sending six of the latter and twenty-five of the former, under Lieutenant Knollard, to the Canje; while he directed a sergeant and twenty-five soldiers to garrison and protect the fort, and proceeded himself with the remainder to plantation Dageraat. One of the ships, under Captain Ramels, was placed at the mouth of the Canje; another, under Pynappel, was left to guard the fort; whilst the two others were ordered to accompany the expedition up the Berbice.

On the 31st of March the ships arrived at plantation Dageraat, the estates in their course having been occa-

sionally inspected and visited; while a few prisoners were taken, and several of the rebels wounded and shot. Having disposed of the troops and vessels in the most serviceable manner, they were now prepared for the attack, which they hourly apprehended, and which took place on the 2nd of April. The slaves mustered 600 strong. They were, however, repulsed, and many of them killed. The brigantine *Betsy* was shortly after ordered back to Surinam; and some of the other ships, with a few of the colonists, departed for Holland, conveying letters from the governor to their high mightinesses and to the directors. While these proceedings were going forward another communication was received from Cuffy, the leader or governor of the rebels, who requested a parley with the governor, declaring that the negroes would be satisfied with the half of Berbice, but that they never would consent to be slaves any longer. To this the governor made some indefinite reply; and in this manner several letters and messages were interchanged.

Information was received from the post at St. Andries that, on the 3rd of May, two well-armed barks had arrived from St. Eustace; one bringing eighty, and the other sixty-six people; and further, that another vessel was in sight.

Finding himself thus strengthened, the governor held a council of war, when it was resolved that the assistance of the native Indians (who had already shown a disposition to fight against the rebel negroes) should be sought for, as without them it would be impossible to prevent the negroes, when beaten, from escaping and taking refuge in the woods. Whereupon the governor wrote to the commandant of Essequebo, and to the postholder on the Corentyn, requesting their co-operation and assistance.

On the 7th of May the largest of the two barks, named

the *Seven Provinces*, dropped her anchor at plantation Dageraat. She was commanded by Captain Hendricks, and was armed with ten 4-pounders, and twelve arquebuses; having also about thirty men from the other bark (which was left at Fort St. Andries), and being well furnished with ammunition and provisions. In consequence of this timely assistance, a proclamation was issued, calling upon the loyal slaves to join the whites, and offering the following premiums:

For every living negro rebel, the sum of . . .	50 guilders.
For every right-hand of one slain	20 "
For every man and woman who acted faithfully	10 "
And the children of these, each	2 " and 10 stivers.

To those who should restore any stolen or other property—such as monies, jewels, clothes, &c.—to the proper officers, were to receive half the value of the several articles.

For the apprehension of the negro Cuffy, a reward of 500 guilders was offered; and for the negro Accara, who acted as captain, 400 guilders. This proclamation was dated, at the post at plantation Dageraat, 8th of May, 1763.

On the 13th of the same month, another singular proclamation was issued by way of encouragement to the troops of the expedition, in order to encourage their zeal. It set forth the following extraordinary list of pensions:

Pension for the loss of two eyes, the sum of 1500 guilders.			
"	"	one eye	" 350 "
"	"	both arms	" 1500 "
"	"	right arm	" 450 "
"	"	left arm	" 350 "
"	"	both hands	" 1200 "
"	"	right hand	" 350 "
"	"	left hand	" 300 "
"	"	both legs	" 700 "
"	"	one leg	" 350 "
"	"	both feet	" 450 "
"	"	one foot	" 200 "

* Hartsink.

Shortly after the arrival of the other bark from St. Eustace at Dageraat, on the 11th of May, a determined attack by the rebels, who now mustered about 2000 or 3000, was made on the post, but was bravely resisted by the Dutch, who killed a great many, and dispersed the rest. The heavy guns from the ships did terrible execution, whilst among the Dutch four or five only were killed, and a few others wounded. The governor himself had a narrow escape, a ball having perforated his coat; considerable damage, however, was done to the post, the negroes having destroyed part of it by fire at the first assault. Several parties were sent in search of the fugitive rebels, but soon returned with little success. The Indians, who had been everywhere treated very badly by the insurgents, gradually assembled, and took service under the Dutch, who set them to track the course and haunts of the insurgents. Several of the slaves at the post and neighbourhood of Dageraat, who were considered favourable to the whites, had absconded, or were made prisoners by the rebels, whose confidence, however, was beginning to be shaken by the want of provisions, and by dissensions amongst themselves. A new chief had been chosen to supersede Cuffy. His name was Atta; and this man gained over to his side nearly all the partisans of his rival, Cuffy, who, first hiding the powder which had been placed under his charge to prevent it from falling into the hands of his enemies, shot himself, and thus escaped the vengeance of those who sought to murder him.

On the 19th of June, the ship *Hendrick*, Captain Rolwagen, arrived at the mouth of the river Berbice; having on board the new fiscal and secretary, L. Fick; two surgeons, some soldiers, a smith, and five other persons; some of whom immediately proceeded up to Dageraat. On the 7th of July another ship, the *De-*

merara Welfare, Captain Salvolarie, a Greek, sent by the governor of St. Eustace, De Wind, arrived at Dageraat with about forty men, and some provisions; but, at the same time, the spirits of the colonists were depressed by the sickness and mortality which prevailed among the troops and sailors; and likewise by the intelligence that, in consequence of a quarrel over certain booty which had been obtained from the rebels, about seventy soldiers who had arrived from Surinam had deserted their posts, and joined the rebels in Canje, with the intention of proceeding to the Orinoco; but in this they were defeated; they quarrelled among themselves, and were obliged to give up their arms to the negroes, who suspected them, and shot several. The others they spared, in order to make them useful. Among the mutineers was a surgeon, who proved very serviceable to the rebels. Most of them were in the end recaptured by the soldiers, and endeavoured to pass themselves off as prisoners in the hands of the negroes, but were, however, tried and executed.

During this month (July) several skirmishes took place, but nothing of decisive importance transpired; information was received from Essequibo of the approach of some Indians, who had already attacked the rebels.

Unfortunately, the sickness among the Dutch prevailed so heavily up to the month of August, that it was determined to sail towards the sea-coast; one of the barks alone had lost forty-five people, and the governor and many officers were also ill.

The troops, for the most part composed of French runaways and people of indifferent character, could scarcely be said to be under the control of their officers, who were themselves as impatient as their soldiers to return to the sea-side, and to leave the post of Dageraat

to its fate. The greater part of the colonists joined in this view; but the governor, in spite of every obstacle, determined to keep his position with as many of the people as he could persuade to remain with him. The post was in a most defenceless state, and might now have been easily carried by an assault; but it appeared afterwards that the rebels were in a state of great confusion and want. The scarcity of provisions was alarming; they were reduced to eat horses and dogs, and many quarrels took place among them; nevertheless, a few occasional attempts were made in the neighbourhood to intimidate the whites. Sad accounts were shortly after received by the governor from Fort St. Andries; one of the captains placed there (Hattinga) having left his post, and disappeared with his company. He had been latterly very drunken, and great fears were entertained for his safety. Several soldiers had also quitted their posts and absconded; rewards were offered for their capture, which proved unavailing, although some trusty negroes and the faithful Indians pursued them with diligence.

In this state of alarm and uncertainty, the affairs of the settlements continued during the months of August and September.

On the 3rd of October a memorial was addressed to the governor from Major Ewyk and Captains Ryssel and Fexier, strongly urging the necessity of abandoning the position at Dageraat, and concentrating the forces on the river Canje; but the governor, Hogenheim, was resolute in maintaining his stand as long as he could, having provided for a retreat to St. Andries in case of necessity.

The intelligence of the revolt of the slaves in Berbice having eventually reached Holland, through Captain Spruyt from Surinam, and Richard Roberts from Esse-

quebo, the directors of this colony, as well as a number of other proprietors and persons interested in its welfare, addressed themselves, on June 8th, to the States-General, praying that his high mightiness would grant two frigates and a body of disciplined troops, in order that they might at once proceed to quell the insurrection. Application was made to the Admiralty College for any ships which might be at their disposal, and troops were sought for at the hands of the Duke of Brunswick. The latter raised two battalions of volunteers from the different regiments, besides engineers, artillerymen, and workmen; to whose equipment and transport the councillors of state granted a requisition of about 706,000 guilders. The officers were induced to join by a promise of promotion on their return.

The command of the expedition was given to Colonel de Salve, who had under him, as officers in the first battalion, Major de Brau, Captain Lutteke, Captain La Croix, Captain Blank, and Captain Lyburg; second battalion, Lieutenant-Colonel Douglas, Major Pusch, Captain Tourgund, Captain Mouchy, Captain Douglas, and Captain Tisbach; besides 72 under-officers, 468 privates, 12 drummers, and 40 artillerymen, in all.

The Admiralty also furnished the *Zephyr*, with 110 men, under Captain L. H. van Oyen; and the Admiralty of Amsterdam equipped the frigate *Dolphin*, with twenty-four guns, under Captain Evert Bisdom. There were besides six transports to convey the troops; viz., four ships of three masts, and two smaller vessels. The following instructions were then given to Colonel de Salve:

- 1st. Colonel de Salve to take command of the expedition lying in the Texel, and to proceed as soon as possible to Surinam and Berbice.

2nd. The ships to keep company as they best can; and in case of separation to have a place of rendezvous, with the necessary signals.

3rd. In case of separation, no time to be lost in seeking the other vessels; but, as many as can, to proceed on their course direct.

4th. The commander-in-chief to arrive first at the rendezvous of Surinam, if practicable.

5th. Upon his arrival at Surinam he must communicate with the governor and council as to the state of the colony of Berbice, and, after leaving directions for any absent vessel, shall proceed to act for the immediate relief of Berbice. After having remained eight days at Surinam, to await any dilatory ships, and to consult with the governor and council as to the best mode of offering assistance to those in need of it.

6th. Likewise, he shall communicate as soon as possible after his arrival at Surinam with the governor of Berbice and other officers, forwarding a copy of the resolutions of his high mightiness of the 5th of August.

7th. Upon his arrival at Berbice he shall consult with the commanding officer, and with the governor, as to the plan to be pursued in subduing the insurgent slaves.

8th. After such consultation he shall take the necessary steps to fortify and defend the several posts of the colony.

9th. In case of requiring the use of any colony boats or negroes, he shall agree to hire the same at stated rates from the hands of the governor and council.

10th. In case he should think it necessary to undertake operations against the rebels from the side of Surinam, Essequibo, or Demerara, he shall detach vessels and troops to these points.

11th. He shall on his arrival as soon as possible

debark the troops, and land and secure the ammunition, stores, and provisions.

12th. He shall appoint officers and under-officers as commissaries, to superintend and be accountable for such ammunition and stores.

13th. In payment of the necessary expenses, bills of exchange shall be drawn upon the solicitors Heeneman and De Vrieu, of Gravenhage, who will, upon receipt of such, transmit the necessary monies.

14th. In case the commanding officer shall require more troops, or other assistance, he shall forward an application to Holland for the same.

15th. He shall also report upon the condition and number of the forts necessary for the defence, as well external as internal of the colony.

16th. He shall with every suitable opportunity furnish a report of the affairs of the colony, and provide for the speedy reception of orders addressed to him by way of Surinam.

17th. He shall avoid, and cause to be avoided, all occasions of dispute between himself, his officers, and those of the local government, and shall execute all services required of him in friendly concert.

18th. All ceremonies between the military and naval officers to be so conducted as to avoid unpleasant consequences.

19th. He shall appoint to any vacant situations which may occur in the service, subject to our approval.

20th. He shall act faithfully for the peaceful interest of the colony, and shall remain there until further orders.

Dated Gravenhage, 1st of October, 1763. *

The squadron sailed on the 6th of November, 1763;

* Hartsink.

and arrived on the 19th of December at Surinam, with the exception of the ship *George Hendrick*, under Captain Visser, on board of which was Major Pusch, and three companies. On the 26th of December they again weighed anchor, and sailed for the Berbice.

Meanwhile the governor had received a letter, on the 28th of October, from Captain Haringman, of the ship *Martensdyk*, which had arrived at the mouth of the river Berbice from Holland, and waited the means and opportunity to sail up the river.

On the 3rd of November, Lieutenant Prys and forty men, besides a volunteer named Baron Kinkel, arrived at Dageraat, stating that the vessel under Captain Haringman was at anchor at Fort St. Andries; but that the commander, hearing of the sickness up the river, hesitated to sail up, and requested a conference with the Governor Hogenheim, who was invited on board. He, accordingly, proceeded to the ship at Fort St. Andries, leaving the post at Dageraat in charge of Lieutenant Smit. After some stay and conference with Captain Haringman, they returned to Dageraat together, and a council of war was held with the other officers as to the safest way to deliver the colony; at length it was decided that an attack should be commenced on the river Canje. Following up this plan, two schooners and a bark, well equipped and armed, were sent up the Canje. For this purpose the colony contributed three officers, five sergeants, two corporals, one surgeon, and seventy men; and the frigate *St. Martin*, with two officers, one sergeant, and ninety-three men. The post at Dageraat was guarded by a force of fifty men under Lieutenant Smit, and protected on the river side by the two barks from *St. Eustace*, ordered there. The governor himself, about the 8th of November, took charge of the expedition up the Canje. Having sailed up the river, and occasionally

chasing the negroes, they anchored, on the 13th of November, off plantation Don Carlos; and a detachment of 100 men, under Lieutenant Thielen and two other officers, had orders to scour the country in the direction of the lately abandoned Fort Nassau.

Proceeding next to Stevensburg plantation, they were rejoined by the detachment under Lieutenant Thielen, who had dispersed some rebels, but had made no prisoners. The post here was strengthened by a force of 106 men under Lieutenant Thielen; and the Governor Hogenheim and Captain Haringman shortly after returned to Fort St. Andries, and on the 19th of November reached Dageraat, where he found everything in confusion; several buildings in the neighbourhood burnt down, and the troops suffering from sickness. But gratifying intelligence soon compensated for his disappointment. Information was received from Governor Gravesande, of Essequibo, stating that two ships from Zealand had arrived with about seventy soldiers, whom he could readily spare for the protection of Berbice; moreover, that the Indians had gained some victories over the rebellious slaves; and shortly after, the additional good news was received of the arrival at Berbice of three company's ships, under Captains Dakam, Kraay, and Kamp, bringing ninety soldiers sent by the directors from Holland. Again, on the 3rd and 5th of December, arrived the frigate *Dolphine*, Captain Bisdom, with 150 men, and twenty-two guns; and the *Zephyr*, Captain Van Oyen, with 110 men, and twelve guns; bringing also the joyful intelligence that an additional force of 600 men were shortly to be expected, under Colonel de Salve, sent by his high mightiness for the relief of Berbice.

Before the arrival of this latter aid, it was determined to attempt a general attack upon the rebels; and the

ships, barks, and boats, were stationed in such situations as would prevent the negroes, when assailed by land, from escaping by water. The troops were also disposed of in companies to proceed up the rivers, and to land upon the most commodious estates. The whole force was ready on the 18th of December, and next day were ordered to commence operations.

On the 19th, information was received from 'St. Andries of the death of Captain Van Ryssel, and the arrival of a slave-ship with 300 negroes, under Captain Bruyn. The governor, notwithstanding, proceeded up the river Berbice with a large force of ships and troops, and found most of the plantations abandoned and burnt. On arriving at the old site of Fort Nassau and New Amsterdam, they found every house destroyed, except the Lutheran church and the house of the predikant; the rebels fearing to trouble these lest the Almighty should be angry. Having landed here some troops, under Lieutenant Smit, the governor and Captain Haringman proceeded up the river, and, reaching the creek Wironje, found the church and the house of the predikant at this post uninjured. As yet few of the rebels had been discovered, occasionally several of them voluntarily surrendered, or were taken prisoners; but the greater body of the insurgents retreated at the approach of the ships and troops; most of the plantations along their course were visited, but were found deserted, and the greater part of the buildings burned or destroyed. Upon reaching the creek Wikkie, the governor was led to suppose that a large force of the rebels had assembled at plantation Hardenbroch, a little way up that stream; and a strong detachment was ordered to proceed up the creek in boats, and attack the enemy. Lieutenant Smit and his party arrived first, but immediately on their approach were fired upon by the negroes, who had lain

in ambush; and that gallant officer, Lieutenant Thielen, and Ensign Rees, were all three killed, besides several others severely wounded. The troops, however, returned the fire, and succeeded in landing, driving the rebels before them, and taking possession of the post at plantation Hardenboch; here, after exploring the neighbourhood, and capturing a few slaves, a body of troops was left under Sergeant Hopvaal, and the governor and party proceeded up the river Berbice, as far as Lavorrette, where they landed on the 29th of December, and joined the troops already stationed there, who had in several excursions killed many of the rebels, and taken numerous prisoners, amongst others the runaway soldier Jean Renard.

The whole river, from its mouth to the plantation Lavorrette, about 100 miles, having now been searched, the several estates visited, and the insurgent slaves routed, the governor determined to retrace his steps. A detachment of about forty-five men, under command of Captain Slavorinus, was left at plantation Lavorrette, whilst the bark *Seven Provinces*, with thirty-two men, was ordered to remain in the river opposite that estate by way of protection, in case of necessity. Having made these arrangements, Hogenheim embarked on board of the *Hope*, and sailed down the river on the 31st of December.

Upon his route he received a letter from Colonel de Salve, announcing his arrival with six transports, and 600 men, in the river Berbice, and expressing his desire to hold a consultation as to the necessary measures of attack. The meeting for this purpose took place at a post where a church and some buildings yet remained. Having again reached the creek Wikkie, the governor communicated with the people at plantation Hardenbroch, and sent up a strong party, under Lieutenant

Crombie, to pursue and capture the rebels who had taken refuge higher up, which was affirmed by several slaves who surrendered themselves, and who appeared glad to place themselves once again under the protection of the Dutch. A young lady, who had fortunately made her escape from the rebels, also confirmed this statement. Leaving a sergeant and fourteen men at post Hardenbroch, the governor sailed down the river as far as the creek Wironje, where he found the officer in charge, and most of the soldiers, ill and unfit for duty. Information was soon after received that Colonel Salve, with his force, had entered the river, and that already two of the transports had reached the post at Dageraat, where he had met and consulted with Captain Haringman. The governor having now reached the site of Fort Nassau and New Amsterdam, met there the two Captains Bisdorn and Van Oyen, who proceeded with him at once to meet Colonel de Salve. It was determined at this meeting to occupy immediately the post in Canje; and for this purpose three companies under Major Pusch were despatched, and orders given to Lieutenant-Colonel Douglas to station himself at Fort St. Andries, and forward the necessary stores and troops to reinforce the colony troops already posted on the Canje. The governor, with his two captains and a Dutch engineer, De Vrye, returned to inspect the ruins of the late town and fort; and it was determined, as soon as possible, to reconstruct and fortify the same. Five companies, under Major de Brauw, were ordered up the river Berbice to relieve the colony troops at the creeks Wikkie and Wironje and plantation Lavorrette.

Thus four companies remained at head-quarters near the ruins of Fort Nassau, where only the church and predikant's house were found, and were converted into barracks; three companies were sent, as stated, to Canje;

one company occupied the church in the creek Wironje; three companies were posted at the creek Wikkie; and one company and a half occupied the distant settlement at Lavorrette. Open communication was kept up between these several stations, and artillery and surgeons, with the necessary stores, were divided among them. It was also determined that three of the ships of war should return to Holland, as the expense of keeping them was very great, and their services appeared now unnecessary. Colonel de Salve at first opposed this proposition, but eventually acceded to it. Governor Hogenheim having arrived at Dageraat on the 9th of January, 1764, found the troops posted there very sickly, and that many of them had died.

Whilst here, he received intelligence from the several posts, especially from that on the creek Wikkie, where much fighting had taken place between the troops and rebels; the latter being defeated, and many taken prisoners, with some loss on the part of the Dutch. On the 24th of January, Colonel de Salve took up his head-quarters at old Fort Nassau; the artillery and stores were landed, and preparations were made for rebuilding the town and fort. Information having been received that Atta and other ringleaders were in the neighbourhood of creek Wikkie, an expedition of about 160 men, under Captain Van Oyen, proceeded in search of them, but failed in the attempt. A number of penitent or trusty negroes were now employed to trace out the remaining rebels, and to assist in their capture; and for the next two months several expeditions were made against the insurgent slaves, wherever they could be met with in sufficient numbers. The Congo negroes, who, in several instances, had committed the horrible brutality of eating some of their victims, were more especially sought after.

On the 17th of March orders were issued by the commander-in-chief to recal some of the troops stationed on the river Canje, where very few of the rebels now lingered, and to station them on the Berbice, where every week many of the negroes were captured, or surrendered. A great many of the prisoners, after a formal trial by the governor and council, were condemned to death; some to be hanged, others to be burnt, and a few to be broken on the wheel. The rebel chief, Atta, was discovered and seized by some of the negroes who had joined the Dutch, and, along with several other ringleaders, was most cruelly tortured, and then tied to a stake and burnt, without one word of complaint. In fact, it was remarkable how callous and indifferent the rebels had become, not a sigh or groan escaping from them under the terrible vengeance of the victorious Dutch. 176

The exact number of those condemned to death and executed is not recorded. On the 16th of March twenty-three were sentenced to be hanged, sixteen to be broken on the wheel, and fifteen burnt; in all fifty-four.*

Many of the deserters from the Dutch service were also captured, and underwent various punishments after a kind of court-martial held in Paramaribo, on the 20th of July, 1764; the leaders of these mutineers were tortured, and afterwards executed.

Such was the close of this fearful drama, such the cruel retribution which the exasperated colonists wreaked on the principal instigators and abettors of this long and dreadful insurrection.

The insurgent slaves, long revelling in undisturbed possession of their spoils, were gradually dislodged from their strongholds, chased from creek to creek, from plantation to plantation, until hemmed in on all sides, shot down,

* Hartsink.

captured or dispersed, their noted chiefs betrayed and made prisoners, they gave up in despair the long-protracted contest with the white man, and once more submitted to the harness and drudgery of slavery. To many, indeed, it was a matter of satisfaction again to find themselves the well-provided dependents of the prudent planter, for the year of self-accomplished freedom had not passed without its trials, and anarchy, insecurity, famine, and exacted toil, had caused many openly to declare that they preferred the life of slavery under the white man, to the embittered liberty of their own creation.

Comparative order and security having followed the last act of the insurrection, Colonel de Salve wrote, on the 14th of August, to the governor and council, stating that he had received orders from the Duke of Brunswick to return immediately to Europe as soon as peace and tranquillity was restored to the colony of Berbice, the more especially as considerable sickness prevailed among the troops stationed in the different districts.

To this the governor and council replied, "That it was their belief that peace and tranquillity had been restored, and that the slaves in general had returned to the plantations, except a few secreted in the bush, who, however, would be soon captured; but that as to the suggestion of withdrawing the troops, they (the governor and council) feared that the military strength of the colony was too weak to prevent a recurrence of the late disasters, should the slaves be so inclined, when they saw the departure of the troops for Holland, and prayed that the colonel would leave a force of 100 effective men."

The following shows the amount of the population about this time :*

* Hartsink.

Whites (exclusive of the troops)	116
Male negroes	308
Female ditto	1317
Children	745
Total	2486

Colonel de Salve being desirous of making arrangements for his departure, found that the naval and military forces were in such a deplorable state from sickness, as to render it imperative on him to procure further assistance to work the ships. He accordingly wrote to the governor of St. Eustace, requesting him to forward a body of able seamen. The ship conveying these people was, however, wrecked among the islands, many of the sailors perished, and the remainder only reached Berbice on the 7th of November. Meanwhile, a ship, the *St. Martin*, sent from Holland with supplies for the troops, was lost off the mouth of the river Berbice, but her cargo fortunately was saved.

On the 16th of September another ship, the *Christina Maria*, arrived, and assisted in carrying back the troops. On the 2nd of October, 1764, four ships being in a condition to act as transports, the troops were embarked; but, owing to contrary winds and low tides, they did not get to sea until the 24th of November, with the detention, however, of one of the ships, the *Wakkerheid*, which parted her anchor and drove on a sand-bank. The intention of the commander was to have sailed to St. Eustace, but contrary winds compelled the transports to put into Curaçoa, where they arrived on the 4th of December; and the number of sick persons being very great, they were detained here until the 26th of January, 1765, when, being rejoined by the ship *Wakkerheid*, and the invalids having recovered on shore, they proceeded to Texel, where they arrived singly in

March, April, and May, and the troops forwarded to Bergen-op-Zoom, after their long and perilous campaign to the wild coast.

The troops which were left behind, at the request of the governor and council, consisted of one major, two captains, five under-officers, six sergeants, six corporals, two drummers, seventy privates, eight artillerymen, besides two surgeons; in all, 102.

Governor Hogenheim, who had removed the seat of government from Dageraat to New Amsterdam, on the 31st of October, 1764, issued a proclamation to the slaves, offering a free pardon to all those absent, and invited them to return to their duty as soon as possible, which induced many of them to deliver themselves up; a circumstance that afforded the most lively satisfaction.

The sickness among the troops having abated, many of the soldiers purchased their discharges, and accepted situations upon the different plantations, which began now to be renewed in cultivation.

In March, 1765, a vessel, the *Albertina Christina*, arrived in Berbice with a body of militia, hired by the directors of the colony to relieve the troops of the State which were left behind; but her condition was so bad that the major commanding the forces refused to go home in her, and sailed with his company in another ship, called the *States of Holland*, which left on the 29th of March, but, owing to contrary winds, did not reach St. Eustace until the 6th of May, whence it sailed on the 11th of June, and arrived in Texel on the 10th of August, the troops being forwarded to Bergen-op-Zoom.

Two penitent ringleaders of the revolt went to Holland with this expedition, and, receiving their pardon

at the hands of his high mightiness, were enrolled as soldiers under Colonel de Salve.

Governor Hogenheim having applied to the States-General to be relieved from the government of the colony, was promoted to the rank of major, and Heer Johannes Heyliger was appointed in his stead, and was succeeded, in April, 1768, by Stephen Hendrick de la Sabloniere.

Several plans for the protection and defence of the colony from within, as well as from without, were drawn by Major de Veye, and transmitted to his high mightiness, who submitted them to the directors of the colony; and about the year 1769 a stone fort was erected near the site of the former one, whilst wooden buildings of considerable strength and utility were constructed on the former site of New Amsterdam, which long served as head-quarters for the officers, officials, and troops.

The colony of Berbice was now managed by nine directors, chosen by the principal shareholders, besides a secretary and two book-keepers. The governor was elected by the directors of the colony, received a commission from his high mightiness, and governed the colony with the assistance of councils of policy, criminal and civil justice.

The principal officers of the colony were a fiscal and secretary; a college, composed of four officers, to administer to estates of orphans, besides marshals; a book-keeper and receiver-general of the colony plantations; a book-keeper for the soldiers' pay; a vendue master, and receiver of vendue money; an inspector of colony shops, and receiver of the commission money; a receiver of the capitation money and church contributions; a receiver of the weigh money; a receiver of the hospital tax; a receiver of the tonnage tax; a land-surveyor; a surgeon-major. The church council, or

vestry (kirken-raad), was composed of the predikant, three elders, and two deacons. The Lutheran church had one predikant, five elders, and one or two deacons.

The colonists were divided into four divisions (burghers), having each a captain, lieutenant, ensign, and sergeant.

A military company also occupied the several posts and strongholds of the colony, and was commanded by the governor, as colonel; a captain-commandant, two lieutenants, one ensign, seven sergeants; besides a surgeon-major, an artillery-master, and three constables.*

* Hartink.

CHAPTER VII.

SETTLEMENTS PROJECTED ON THE RIVER DEMERARA, 1739—SETTLEMENT OF THE ISLAND OF WAAKENAAM; OF THE EAST AND WEST COASTS OF DEMERARA; AND OF THE BANKS OF THE RIVER DEMERARA, 1745—GRANT OF LAND TO A. PIETERS—LAYING OUT OF PLANTATIONS—COMPLAINT OF THE SETTLERS, 1750—REGULATIONS ABOUT SELLING SLAVES, 1768—CANALS PROJECTED, AND THE BANKS LAID OUT IN ESTATES—COURTS OF POLICY AND JUSTICE, 1773—SEAT OF GOVERNMENT AT BORSELEN REMOVED TO STABROEK, 1774—ORIGIN OF STABROEK—PLAN OF THE TOWN—INTRODUCTION OF SLAVES, FROM 1745 TO 1786—COLONY TAKEN BY BRITISH, 1781—CAPTURED BY THE FRENCH IN 1782—RESTORED TO THE DUTCH AT THE PEACE OF PARIS, 1783—UNION OF THE COURTS OF DEMERARA AND ESSEQUEBO, 1784—MEMORIAL OF COLONISTS TO STATES-GENERAL—PROVISIONAL PLAN OF REDRESS, 1788—DEMERARA AND ESSEQUEBO UNITED—BRITISH EXPEDITION AGAINST THE COLONIES, 1796—TERMS OF SURRENDER—VALUE OF CONQUEST—PRICE OF LAND—SPANIARDS ATTACK OUTPOSTS, BUT ARE REFUSED, 1797—STATE OF THE COLONY WHEN TAKEN POSSESSION OF BY THE BRITISH.

HAVING in the previous chapters traced the progress of the Dutch on the Essequibo and the Berbice, we will now turn to the settlements on the Demerara. It would appear that this river had attracted less attention than either of the others, in consequence, probably, of its inferiority as a navigable stream. The settlers on the two other rivers had gradually extended plantations in the direction of Demerara, and begun to explore the intervening country. The tract of land (afterwards known as the east sea-coast of Demerara) extending to Berbice had been repeatedly visited, and several attempts were made to establish settlements upon it. Some pro-

gress must already have been made in its cultivation, for we learn that in the year 1739 an establishment of the Dutch Company of Berbice was in existence at Naby, in Mahaicony; and about that time a college of keizers, or burgher officers, was appointed for that district.*

The line of coast between Demerara and Essequibo (now called the west sea-coast) had likewise been reached and explored by the settlers on the latter river, who, in some instances, made imperfect attempts to bring it into cultivation. As a general rule, however, the coasts were avoided by the Dutch, who seemed to think that the banks of rivers and the more inland country were better adapted for their purposes; and it was not till about the year 1740, when they made the discovery that the low lands near the sea were more fertile than the heights and inland spots they first occupied, that they began slowly to remove towards the coast. Cotton, more especially, was found to thrive wonderfully well upon the soil in the neighbourhood of the sea, which, at that time, was considered too saline for the sugar-cane, the coffee-bush, and the plantain-tree—all yielding edible products.

About the same period, the island of Wacquename, or Waakenaam, also attracted observation from its fertility; and on the 4th of June, 1741, two gentlemen, Thomas Wilson and James Doing, bought a third part of the island, and established two large estates there. Their example was soon followed by others, who established themselves in the rest of the land.

Subsequently the lands between the Essequibo and Demerara, the present west coast of the county of Demerara, were laid out in sugar and cotton plantations, of which there were at first about fourteen in number cultivated.

* Local Guide, 1832.

The island of Leguan was also partly cleared of its luxuriant vegetation, and several fine estates were mapped out and brought into cultivation; nor were the other islands at the mouth of the Essequibo suffered to run to waste. The hardy Dutch, unmindful of the hardships of living in such secluded and uncivilised spots, boldly set to work to clear a pathway in the interminable bush, and to form plantations on the flat surface of a land exposed to the danger of inundations from the sea, and the enervating influence of the miasm exhaled from its swampy plains.

In the year 1745 the project was seriously entertained of cultivating the banks of the Demerara, and the directors of the Chamber of Zealand granted permission to Andrew Pieters to lay out plantations on the "uninhabited river Demerary" on the following conditions:

1st. The West India Company were not to erect forts or garrisons.

2nd. The inhabitants of Essequibo to be allowed, for ten years, to remove to Demerary, paying the capitation tax, and recognising the jurisdiction of the neighbouring settlement of Essequibo.

3rd. Sugar plantations were to consist of 2000 acres; 1200 roods or rods façade along the river; the remainder in depth, leaving a dam ten rods in breadth between each estate for a road to second depths. Smaller sugar estates were to be 1000 acres in extent; those for cocoa, coffee, or indigo, 500 acres, with façade and depths proportionate. Whilst on this subject, it becomes necessary to describe the old Dutch mode of planning out an estate or plantation.

"Plantations," says Bacon, "are amongst ancient, primitive, and heroical works; for I may justly account new plantations to be the children of former kingdoms." Again he says, and his words are almost prophetic:

“Planting of countries is like planting of woods; for you must make account to lose almost twenty years of profit, and expect your recompense in the end; for the principal thing that hath been the destruction of most plantations, hath been the hasty and base drawing of profit in the first years. It is true, speedy profit is not to be neglected, as far as it may stand with the good of the plantation, but no further.” And again, and here, too, his wisdom anticipated the slave trade: “It is a shameful and un-blessed thing to take the scum of people, and wicked, condemned men, to be the people with whom you plant; and not only so, but it spoileth the plantation, for they will ever live like rogues, and not fall to work; but be *lazy*, and do *mischief*, and spend victuals, and be quickly weary, and then certify over to their country to the discredit of the plantation.”

In these remarkable expressions we have mapped out, as it were, by prophesy the three principal events that mark the course of our history. 1st. The future importance of the colony from a mere assemblage of plantation; 2nd. The ruinous and pernicious system adopted by the successful planters leading to their own overthrow; and 3rd. The introduction of various classes of immigrant labourers, unfit in many essential respects for the work before them. All this will become apparent as we proceed.

After the land was cleared of trees, brushwood, and grass (no trifling labour), they were laid out by surveyors in parallelograms, or narrow rectangular strips, with a frontage or façade to the coast or river. The estate with a river frontage had the best drainage, because the land was generally higher; for it must be remembered that almost all the cultivated lands were below the level of high water at spring tides, except those far inland. On the estates planned out near the coast, the outfall so

necessary to good drainage was very bad, and occasionally rendered impracticable from deposits of mud or fine sand and shells. The size of the estates varied from 500 to 2000 acres, but generally they had a façade of 100 to 300 rods,* and a depth of 750, with the conditional grant of another similar portion if two-thirds of the first allotted land was in cultivation within a given time, and to the satisfaction of two neighbouring planters. In Berbice many of the grants were 18,000 feet wide and 12,000 deep. Each plantation was surrounded by four dams or embankments; two at the sides, extending from front to back; one in front, to exclude the water of the sea or river; and one behind, parallel to the first, to prevent the ingress of what was called "bush water;" that is the accumulated rain that had fallen in the forests and interior, which, having no means of escape, frequently inundated the surrounding country. These "sidelines," as they were afterwards called, were common to two contiguous estates. Between every second estate a broader dam or path was left, which was called the "company's path," a term retained to the present day.

The system of drainage established was the best that circumstances admitted of. Two long canals or trenches were dug of considerable depth, along and inside the "sideline" dams (to construct which the clay assisted materially when thus thrown out), and extended from the front to the back dam; these were termed the main drains, and communicated with smaller trenches or drains which were dug at distances of two to three rods apart, commencing within the portions of land in cultivation called beds, and meeting the side or main drains at right angles; the two side or main drains generally communicated in front by a canal or trench dug out behind the

* The Rhymland rod is equal to 12.32 feet.

front dam, and here one or more sluices or "kokers," as they are termed in Dutch, were placed, which at the ebb tide allowed the drained water to escape. These sluices or "kokers" were very ingeniously constructed. Two pillars of brick were generally sunk at the sides of the trench, and elevated above it in the form of an arch, at the top of which a large wooden wheel was made to revolve by means of spokes, and to draw up or let down by pullies or ropes a heavy wooden door which descended to the bottom of the trench, and excluded at high water the advancing tide, but was readily raised in its sliding at ebb tides to allow the waters to escape.

The plan adopted for bringing home the produce of the field to the buildings or sugar manufactory was equally simple. In the centre of the estate a raised dam, called the "middle walk," was made, along each side of which two deep canals, termed "navigation trenches," were dug. This middle walk and these trenches extended likewise from the front to the back dam, and formed a ready road to the plantation both by land and water. At regular distances the navigation trenches branched off at right angles into smaller canals, running towards the sideline or draining trenches, approached them within a rod or so, thus allowing the canes to be easily conveyed to the sugar works in wooden or iron punts. These navigation canals were chiefly supplied by the rain or fresh water, as it was injurious to the plantation to admit salt water, which, however, sometimes became necessary in seasons of drought. On smaller estates one navigation canal sufficed.

Whilst, therefore, the cultivation of the estates was conducted upon a very simple principle, the buildings erected for the purposes of manufacture were equally plain and primitive.

The sugar-cane, after being cut, was brought to the

manufactory by manual labour (but subsequently by machinery) to be crushed under heavy rollers, and the juice thus expressed was carried away in gutters to be boiled, care being taken first to neutralise its acidity by some alkali such as lime. After being sufficiently boiled and the scum removed, it was thrown into large wooden reservoirs, where it was allowed to cool and granulate into sugar. The principal motive power applied was the wind, hence every sugar estate had one or more windmills built, whose large sails caught the tropical breeze, and served the speculative adventures of the early planters.

It was, however, soon found, that in spite of the constancy of the usual sea breeze, it often happened that the working of the machinery was delayed by the want of sufficient wind to propel the large vanes of the windmill, especially during the wet seasons; hence, in after years, the invention of the steam-engine was hailed with the greatest enthusiasm by the sugar planters. Early in the nineteenth century, or from the year 1805, the introduction of this powerful agent rapidly superseded the more humble windmill. In some situations, where windmills were not admissible, mills were worked either by cattle or, in some suitable localities, by water; but these latter were rare, and the cattle mill was found very tiresome and expensive. The presence of these mills on the estates gave a lively appearance to the several properties, and their maintenance was comparatively inexpensive, advantages which do not belong to the commodious, but more costly steam-engine.

It may perhaps be asked, therefore, whether the total abandonment of these primitive mills has been judicious or profitable; once erected they gave little trouble, and to pull them down was only to discharge an old and

useful servant, because a younger and more active servitor had made his appearance.

Considerable improvement had manifested itself in the progress of civilisation among the new settlers on the river Demerara, and the amount of produce shipped led the inhabitants, both here and in Essequibo, to complain of the exclusive right of the Zealanders (the original settlers) to the navigation of the colonies. These complaints and disputes were carried on for about twenty years, when, as will be seen in its proper place, attention was at length paid to them.

At the earnest demand of the inhabitants, the directors of the Chamber of Zealand transmitted a communication to the Director-General of the two rivers and his council of government, acquainting them with the Chamber's intention to send out a "predikant" or clergyman to the settlers in the river Demerara. This communication was made in 1757, and was signed Thibault and Duvelaw.

Demerara, so long a dependency of Essequibo, was still so in 1751; and the first account I have met with of an independent commander was in 1765, when Jan Cornelis van der Heuvel was appointed by the Chamber of Zealand to act in that capacity; but in urgent cases, appeal was still made to the Director-General of the two rivers. This right of receiving appeals was illustrated in 1768 under the operation of an article of the "free navigation act," which provided that all slaves imported into Essequibo should be sold at public vendue to the highest bidder. An improper advantage, it appears, was taken of this regulation by the slave dealers, who, bidding up the slaves exposed for sale to an enormous price, rendered abortive every advantage of the act. A representation of this proceeding was made by the inha-

bitants to the Director-General Storm Van Gravesande in 1769, and some alterations were subsequently made in 1770, which did away with the unintentional offence committed by the Chamber of Zealand, as well as the dispute about the monopoly of the Zealanders already alluded to.

The right of navigation, hitherto enjoyed exclusively by the Zealanders, had long occasioned the most acrimonious dissensions, and was at last referred to the decision of his Serene Highness, who in 1770 decreed that the right of navigation belonged equally to all the provinces; but that the Zealanders, from length of possession, were entitled to have a preference given to their Society of Directors of "Middleburg;" and the States General, in 1772, promulgated a decree regulating any further differences which might occur. The neighbourhood of two such large rivers as the Essequibo and the Demerara, and the common interests of the settlers rendered it desirable that a channel of intercommunication should be established which would not only open up a more ready intercourse than was afforded by navigating along the coast, which was tiresome, and not a little dangerous from its shoals and sandbanks,* but enable the settlers to put into cultivation a wider extent of inland districts. In the year 1773 a formal plan to that effect was submitted to the West India Company by the Director-General. Whether or not that it was from any such suggestion is difficult to determine, but it is certain that about this period a large canal was commenced to be excavated about six miles from the mouth of the river Demerara, and running from east to west towards the Essequibo, distant at this spot about ten miles. It is

* In the year 1769 there existed about 130 sugar and coffee estates along the river Demerary and its creeks.

more than probable that the commencement of this canal, which received the singular name of No. 1, was commenced at the public expense, but afterwards carried on by new settlers or proprietors, who purchased the new grants of land. The arrangement was as follows :—The course and size of the canal having been carefully estimated, the adjacent land was laid out in allotments of about 100 rods façade, and 500 rods deep, on each side of the proposed canal. It was further agreed to, that all holders of such lots or plantations* were, in the first instance, to dig out half of the canal on their own side, and in front of them along their whole façade, thus dividing the labour of cutting the canal equally between all parties who should settle here. The width of the canal at its junction with the river Demerara was about sixty feet, and its depth about ten, but by degrees it was gradually narrowed, and at the extreme length to which it was ultimately extended, about six miles, it was scarcely half the width of the outlet. This is easily accounted for. When this gigantic undertaking was projected there was a great demand for land, and the capital and labour thus embarked in it enabled the work to be prosecuted with spirit. But by degrees the zeal of the proprietors abated ; some evaded their engagements, and others took up land only upon the north side of the canal, confining their operations to their own half, so that the channel fell away to a moiety of its original breadth. It is hardly possible to over-estimate the toil and outlay incurred in cutting through such a length of dense bush and gorgeous foliage, where in every foot of soil was buried the vegetation of ages. But the indomitable energy of the settlers and their slaves vanquished all obstacles, and

* From the names given to the estates along this canal, and also others in the neighbourhood, I am inclined to the belief that the first settlers here were French.

in a comparatively short space of time converted this uncultured waste, this wilderness of unparalleled fertility, into profitable plantations of coffee and plantains. Nor did they rest here. Having secured the useful, they next turned their attention to the embellishments of civilised life. Beautiful gardens were laid out round the gaily painted houses, the rarest flowers were brought from foreign countries, and transplanted into this fertile region, where they flourished in perfection; immense rows of indigenous and other tropical fruit-trees were planted; groves of orange and lime-trees perfumed the air with their fragrance, while dazzling flowers and glossy leaves added their delicate graces to the beauty of a scene which was justly regarded as the loveliest in the whole colony.

A glance at this picturesque spot would have fascinated an artist, who would have discovered ample incidents in it to supply a charming picture—the Hollander gliding along the placid waters of the canal in his comfortable barge, surrounded on each side by the gay dwellings and flowering gardens, the estate in rich cultivation lying beyond, and in the distance the dark outline of sombre forests guarding, as it were, the limits of the enchanted enclosure.

The history of these canals (for others were completed) forms the only trace of romance in the matter-of-fact career of the enterprising Hollander. The construction of these water-tracks (the suggestion of which was, no doubt, derived from his native marshes) showed that he was not insensible to the picturesque capabilities of this wild country, and that he had a genius equal to the task of reducing them to harmonious forms. How bitter would have been his disappointment, how intolerable his grief, could he have foreseen that these monuments of his

industry and skill should have been neglected by a future race and a foreign people.

Since the halcyon days when these works were accomplished the canals have witnessed sad changes and disasters. The estates have been abandoned, the waters are nearly choked up with mud, the accumulation of years; the fruit-trees and the flowers have disappeared; grass and rank verdure have resumed their pristine luxuriance, or are only destroyed by the occurrence of immense fires in the dry seasons, whose devouring flames sweep away all things for miles and miles in their devastating progress. A few impoverished proprietors and a host of squatters alone occupy this region now.

A canal called No. 2 was subsequently dug out, about a thousand rods higher up the river, and the same arrangement obtained in its construction as in the preceding one, so that the rows of plantations, as far as they extended, abutted one on the other at their back dams. Another canal, No. 3, was likewise made on the opposite, or east bank of the river, but did not extend so far inland, or become so important as the rest.

In this manner did the energy and spirit displayed in Demerara contribute to its success, and in a short time (1773) it became necessary to have separate courts of policy and of criminal and civil justice for its distinct administration. These courts consisted of the commandeur of Demerara, or head civil officer; 2nd. The commandant; 3rd. The fiscal; 4th. The vendue master; and four inhabitants of the district, selected from a return of twice that number made by the College of Burgher officers previously alluded to, and who exercised functions similar to the keizers of Essequibo and Berbice. The seat of government was first held at the island "Borselen," about twenty miles up the river, but as the colony

advanced, the inconvenience of such a site was greatly felt in many ways; and in the year 1774 it was removed to the extremity of the eastern bank of the river, where it joined at an angle the east sea coast. A few buildings, chiefly of wood, were erected, and became the embryo of a future city. 175

The first assemblage of houses received the name of "Stabroek," and consisted of two rows of isolated buildings, wide apart, with a grass-plot between them for a road; they were placed at irregular intervals, and the road or street, about a mile long, run in an easterly direction towards the bush. By degrees, another collection of houses were erected at the extreme angle of the river and coast, and was intended chiefly for the accommodation of military officers, who found it convenient to reside in the neighbourhood of a fort which became erected here, and received the name of "Fort Frederick." The district itself was termed Eveleary* by the Dutch, and Kingstown by the English; which latter name it retains at the present day. Other clusters of houses sprang up as the colony improved, each isolated, in squares or districts, one from the other, and receiving different names, many of which are still retained. The principal of these were named "Cumingsburg," "Bridgetown," "Werken-Rust" (where also a burial-ground was subsequently planned out of about ten acres, and has lasted the inhabitants until within the last few years†), New Town, and Labourgade, the site of the hospital in the time of the Dutch, &c. The same principle was carried out in the construction of all these different dis-

* The name of a former plantation situated here.

† The burial-ground of Werken-Rust, 42 roods front, 60 roods deep, and about 8½ acres, was purchased for the sum of 10,000 guilders in 1797, by the colony. Double that amount had been asked by the owner of the land, but was refused by the Court of Policy.

tricts; that is, rows of houses built on square lots of land, with wide intervening streets and trenches, and ample room allowed for garden or yards to each house, so that when in after years these separate districts had spread, and reached one to the other, they became amalgamated into as well laid out a town as could have been desired had the whole been planned at one time.

Three principal streets extended from north to south; one close along the river, hence termed Water-street; two others more inland, but parallel to it; and between these, other streets branched off at right angles throughout the town, thus dividing the whole into a number of squares, with part of a street at each side. Formerly it was as easy, if not easier, to traverse the town by water as by the roads, which in the wet season were almost impassable, whilst the trenches were then in their prime. A number of public offices were also erected; one a house for the head civil officer, and others for the secretary to the colony, the receiver-general, the commissary, the exploiteur or marshal, &c., besides other necessary buildings, such as a gaol, custom-house, post-office, guard-house, fiscal's office, &c. The original size of the lots of land in town for building on was 100 feet by 200, but they became afterwards subdivided.

But notwithstanding all this progress, the development of the capabilities of the colony was retarded for want of slaves to carry on the rapidly-increasing cultivation. In 1774, the inhabitants of Demerara and Essequibo made formal complaints of the inability or disinclination of the "West India Company" to fulfil their engagements in Surinam and Berbice, where the chief vendues of slaves were held, and objected that during the last twenty years there had been at least thirteen during which no slaves had been sent to these colonies, as the following table shows:

Ships from Africa with cargoes of slaves to Demerara and Essequibo, from 1745 to 1786.

1745 to 1748	0
” 1749	1
1750 to 1761	0
” 1762	1
” 1763	1
” 1764	1
” 1765	0
” 1786	47

Grand total 51 in the 42 years.*

Each vessel averaged about 120 slaves, and it is very clear from the date of the complaint, that an impulse to the “slave trade” had been given by the remonstrances on the part of the colonists; who, however, in the same year, 1774, forwarded a letter of thanks to the States-General for having made a treaty with Spain to prevent the runaway negroes from being received in the Spanish settlements, and also for suppressing the contraband traffic between the rivers Waini and Orinoco.†

In the year 1776, it was proclaimed by an act of the Assembly of Ten, who still continued to represent the affairs of the colony of Demerara, “That the College of Kiezers is not considered a judicial body, but as electors of burgher representatives in council;” and at a subsequent period, viz., about 1778, it was declared, “That the kiezers, not being in the pay of the Company, are not required to watch the interests of the Company, but those of the colony only.” About this time also, these settlements, but that of Demerara more particularly, had received a considerable accession of strength by the arrival of a number of English speculators from the islands, who brought with them considerable capital, and introduced a more intelligent and better educated class of

* Bolingbroke.

† In 1775, the Spaniards erected a small fort on the right bank of the Uraricapara, a branch of the river Branco, or Barima. It was intended as a sort of proof of sovereignty over those regions, but was abandoned soon after.

tradesmen along with them. These new planters showed no inclination, as the Dutch had done, to settle far away from the coast, but remained in its neighbourhood; and it was chiefly owing to their exertions and industry that a large track of country was cleared, and the cultivation of cotton and sugar established.

But not only did English arrive, but people from all nations began to be attracted to this spot. Germans, Spaniards, French, Swedes, Danes, and others. The Dutch and British, however, were the most numerous, and the latter soon formed at least two-thirds of the white population, which in the town of Stabroek alone mustered at this period about 1000 inhabitants. Indeed, a great deal of the produce raised was carried away by a species of smuggling in British vessels; for although the Dutch were obliged to oppose the system as contrary to their laws, and had stationed vessels of war at the mouths of the rivers to prevent any such contraband proceedings, yet it was well known that their ardour and vigilance were accessible to bribery. Moreover, as the Dutch vessels were very irregular in carrying away the produce, the impropriety did not appear so great.

However, in the year 1781, the American war having induced Holland to join with France against the British, a large fleet under the famous Lord Rodney was sent to the West Indies, and after having made some seizures in the Caribbean Islands, a squadron was detached to take possession of the colonies of Essequibo and Demerara, which was accomplished without much difficulty. The director-general, or governor, at this time, Van Schuienburg, having assembled his council, and being aware of the want of Dutch protection, surrendered to the British, who, upon taking possession, found a rich booty; the quantity of produce which had accumulated from the want of shipping proving to be of great value.

The control of these two rivers having, for the first time, fallen into the hands of the British, an officer, Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Kingston, on October 17th, 1781, assumed the government of the colony, which had capitulated on the 3rd of March of the same year.

The sister settlement of Berbice likewise fell into the hands of the captors, who immediately began to grant lands to any adventurers who felt inclined to settle in the new countries. It was in the month of April, 1781, that Berbice capitulated, and it remained under the government of the same English officer as Essequibo and Demerara. ✓

But the duration of the British power, upon this occasion, was brief, and unproductive of any marked results. In the year 1782, a French force approached the shores, and Lieutenant-Colonel Kingston was obliged to capitulate in the month of February, 1782. The Count de Kersaint now became governor of the three rivers and their settlements and inhabitants. To make sure of their conquest, the French began to erect forts at the mouth of the Demerara, one on its eastern, the other on its western bank, and for that purpose compelled the planters to furnish negro labour; they likewise doubled the capitation-tax, all which innovation was severely felt by the colonists, who saw no end to their troubles. But at the peace of Paris, which occurred in 1783, these settlements were restored to the Dutch, who now meditated great changes. Two new governors were appointed to the colonies in 1784, *J. Bourda*, a member of the Court of Policy, was placed provisionally at the head of affairs for Essequibo and Demerara, and *Peter H. Koppiers* for that of Berbice. This latter officer reclaimed all grants which had been made by the English and French during the late wars, leaving such holders as had built upon, or cultivated their grants, to ✓

address themselves in the ordinary manner to the governor and council. About this period the new colony of Demerara had so far eclipsed the older one of Essequibo, that the two Courts of Policy were united into one, and by a resolution of the States-General in 1784, it was enacted that the Courts of Policy, thus incorporated into one, should in future hold their sessions in "Stabroek." As yet, however, Essequibo retained its own separate courts of justice, which were still held at Fort Island, the ancient capital of that colony.

In the same year, 1784, the West India Company published certain regulations against compelling slaves to work on Sundays, or punishing them with more than twenty-five lashes. But the enforcement of these humane rules was never fully carried out for many years. On the 6th October of the same year, it was enacted by the "Assembly of Ten" for Demerara and Essequibo, that certain Vendue Regulations should be published for future guidance, in which the mode and manner of conducting sales of slaves, cattle, and property, were fully declared in different articles. These regulations did not apply to the vendue-office in Berbice, which was conducted in a somewhat different manner, and so continued for many years after.

In Demerara and Essequibo, it was enacted : 1st. That settlers should give six weeks notice in regard to immovable property, and four weeks' notice in regard to movables, and that the vendue-master, after receiving a statement of the matter to be sold, should publicly advertise it, so that the time of sale might be known in both rivers.

2nd. Persons wishing to sell slaves, horses, other cattle and provisions, to give due notice to the public.

3rd. Two per cent. to be paid by the seller on the amount of all vendues to the vendue-master, and one-

and-a-half per cent. church and poor money, by the purchaser.

4th. Any article bought in, to be charged a quarter per cent. on the sum offered for it, and to be paid to the vendue-master.

5th. Time of sale to be fixed by the director-general and council in the one river, and the commander and council in the other.

6th. Payment of purchase-money, &c., to be made two weeks after the vendue, or within the time limited by the seller, and specified in the conditions of the sale. Payment to be made in specie, or in bills upon Holland, or Zealand, or elsewhere, according to stipulation.

7th. Purchasers to provide sufficient securities, two in number.

8th. The securities to be considered as principals, and to be bound for the whole amount of purchase.

9th. Immovable property to be immediately transported to purchaser on the payment of the amount, &c., &c.

10th. In the event of non-payment, or protest of any bills given, property to revert to seller, who may prosecute the buyer and his securities.

11th. Slaves, horses, and mules, may be removed immediately after the purchase, the two latter to be marked, and further provision taken to guarantee the seller from any loss.

Other rules followed relative to the passing of bills of exchange ; to the business and duties of the vendue-master ; and to some other minor matters.

These vendue-offices became subsequently of great importance in the two capitals of the district. Georgetown and New Amsterdam were of considerable value to the incumbents, who, appointed by letters patent, enjoyed a monopoly for many years, even after the emancipation. An orphan chamber (weeskamer) was

likewise established for the administration of the effects of persons dying intestate. This body was at first composed of a councillor of justice and certain burgher members, besides an executive officer or "Griffier." The commissaries, as the members of the orphan chamber were called, were changed every two years.

About the year 1785, the colonists of the three rivers, sensible of the imperfect system of taxation, of judicature, and of the public administration generally, endeavoured to procure some amendment in these respects. As early as 1780, the inhabitants of Berbice had complained of the arbitrary monopolies and unjust taxation, and a few years later, the various settlers on the Demerara, applied by petition to the director-general, complaining of an interference in their rights, or rather those of their burgher officers, to appoint the four colonial members of the Court of Policy; for it appeared that during the sway of the French, all the members of the then Courts of Policy and Justice were released from their service as servants of the Assembly of 'Ten. On the resumption of power, however, by the Dutch, the new Director-General Jan L'Espinasse, by virtue of his instructions from the Assembly of Ten, had appointed some of the colonial members, which act was considered by the inhabitants as contrary to their constitution. The petition of the colonists was referred by the director-general to the West India Company; but in 1785, the inhabitants of Essequibo having joined the others in this matter, a memorial drawn up by both was forwarded to the States-General, who finally confirmed the right of the burgher officers, or keizers, to elect the colonial members of the courts. The colonists of these two rivers also prayed for a reduction of the capitation-tax to two guilders and a half, and that all ex-officio proceedings for taxes might be suspended. These various petitions, with certain others,

had been considered by a committee of the States-General appointed for that purpose in 1788, who in the same year drew up a proposal for a Provisional Plan of Redress, which being approved of by the States-General, was accepted by them. In the following year, 1789, a committee sent out from Holland arrived in the colony of Demerara, dissolved the then existing governments of the two colonies, and established a new one. And it was also in this year that the two colonies became united into one, under the title of the united *colony of Demerara and Essequibo*. In this new constitution regulations for the fiscal or law-officer, the secretaries, the marshals, and other public officers were drawn up, and a new constitution for the several courts instituted, which, although the basis of the subsequent government, was frequently modified in after times.

But, notwithstanding the new regulations, the situation of the colonists of the united colony under the administration of several Dutch governors, viz., A. Backer, in 1789; Baron van Grovestein, in 1793; a Provisional Government in 1795; and, lastly, Anthony Beaujon in the same year, did not afford general satisfaction, and the opinions and sentiments of the British inhabitants had introduced a feeling in favour of the British government. In consequence of growing desire, it appears that, in the year 1796, overtures on the part of some of the inhabitants of the united colony were made to the British commanders in the West Indies; and it has been positively asserted* that a deputation from the colony actually proceeded to Barbadoes for the purpose of making proposals to induce a British expedition to be sent against it; whether this be true or not, it is very certain that on the 15th of April, 1796, war having

* Bolingbroke.

broken out between England and Holland, a secret expedition was sent from Barbadoes (then head-quarters) consisting of a squadron of ships, viz., the *Malabar*, *La Pique*, *Le Babet*, and *Undaunted*, frigates, the *Grenada*, a large transport, and five small schooners and sloops, under Commodore Parr, and a land force of about 1300 troops of the 39th, 93rd, and 99th Regiments, commanded by Lieutenant-Colonels Tilson, Hislop, and Gammell, with a detachment of artillery under Captain Bagot ; the whole force being under the command of Major-General Whyte, who accompanied the expedition. The destination of this large force was not known to the inferior officers ; but on the 20th of April they arrived upon the coast of Demerara. Orders were then issued for three days' provisions to be cooked, and for the troops to hold themselves in readiness for immediate debarkation, and they were forewarned in general orders that all irregular conduct towards the inhabitants, on landing, would subject them to certain disgrace and punishment ; while plunder was prohibited on pain of death. After being paraded upon deck, their arms and accoutrements cleaned and inspected, the field artillery, with carriages, sponges, ammunition, and all the necessary apparatus, were put into boats that evening, preparatory to being conveyed on shore with the troops in the morning. Orders were issued concerning the plan of attack by the troops, and the several stations to be taken by the different ships. All being in readiness for landing on the morning of the 21st of April, the troops were ordered to proceed on shore with the earliest tide, and the frigates, with the *Grenada* transport, were directed to take their station before the fort at the mouth of the river, so as to prevent the escape of any of the enemy's vessels. After a little delay, owing to an accident, which caused the drifting to sea of two boats containing the

necessary implements for working the guns, but which were recovered, the little fleet of sloops, schooners, and other small boats, adapted for the shallow water, got under weigh, and stood direct for the shore; but, unfortunately, they all got aground in the mud that same evening, where they had to wait for the tide, and where they might have been easily annihilated by the Dutch, had any wish for that purpose been entertained. However, the *Grenada* transport, and some of the other vessels, which could find a channel, came to protect them, and were in full view of a Dutch frigate and a quantity of shipping in the river.

On the morning of the 22nd a flag of truce, with a summons to surrender, was sent on shore, but returned about eight A.M. with a letter from Governor Beaujon, who stated that he could not give an official answer until he had first consulted with the Council or Court of Policy, which would meet at once. After that meeting, the following "answer to the summons" was forwarded by the governor and council to the British commanders:

"GENTLEMEN,—We, the governor, members of the council, and commanders of the naval forces of the colony, in council of war assembled, having attentively perused the summons dated yesterday, and addressed to us by your excellencies, demanding the surrender of the said colony to his Britannic Majesty's forces, also the terms thereunto annexed, have, after mature deliberation, resolved to accept said terms, and on them to surrender said colony and dependencies as demanded, whereof we hereby give you notice; also, that our colours will be struck on the landing of your forces. It will depend on the several officers and the troops to decide for them-

selves as to the offers made them, and we have the honour to subscribe ourselves,

“ A. BEAUJON, Governor.

“ I. VAN WELL, Major.

“ A FITZJCKER, Commander.

“ I. P. LUYHEN, } Members

“ THOMAS CUMINGS, } of

“ A. MEERTENS, } Council.

“ By order of council,

“ M. S. TINNE, Secretary *ad interim*.

“ Dated Fort William Frederic, Demerara, 22nd of April, 1796. Addressed to their Excellencies Major-General Whyte and Commander Parr, &c.”

The terms of surrender were: “ That the inhabitants were to have full security for their persons; free exercise in matters of religion; enjoyment of all private property (except any subjects of the French Republic); to enjoy, as long as the colony was held by the British, such commercial rights and privileges as other British subjects in the West India colonies; officers and soldiers in the Dutch service to be received into British pay, until restored to the stadtholder, and to serve the king faithfully during the war under oath of allegiance; the soldiers to receive 100 guilders, and the officers 200 days' bat, baggage, and forage money; officers and men of marine force not to be taken on such terms until the king's pleasure be known, but to receive pay according to their rank; the governor and civil officers to retain their several situations if acceptable (except such as are inclined to French interests), but the governor to resign the military command,” &c.

The British troops were immediately disembarked, and a portion of them took possession of the colony;

the Dutch garrison marched out of the fort at four P.M., and in the evening of this eventful day the British troops were fairly installed in Fort William Frederic, the strongest, and, indeed, the only defence of Demerara.

Immediately after taking possession of the united colony of Demerara and Essequibo, a division of the force, consisting of part of the 93rd Regiment, was despatched in small schooners and sloops to capture Berbice, distant about twenty leagues. This inconvenient mode of forwarding the troops was adopted in consequence of the impracticability of travelling by land between Demerara and Berbice; for although the coast between them was in part cultivated, yet no regular road had been established. Upon their arrival, the governor, Van Batenburg, and the inhabitants, aware of the fate of the other colonies, at once capitulated upon the same terms, and the former was left in charge of the administration of that colony, whilst Anthony Beaujon continued to hold office in Demerara and Essequibo. Lieutenant-Colonel Hislop, of the 93rd, was, however, left behind by the British forces, on their retirement, as commander-in-chief of the military in the three colonies. The calculated value of this conquest to the British was upwards of 200,000*l.*; about seventy ships were found loaded in the rivers. Considerable public property was sold, but no dividends given as prize-money. Its moral effect was still greater. A number of speculators from the islands had accompanied the expedition, and brought over merchandise and shipping, while others came possessed of capital to purchase property, and in a short time the value of land rose considerably. An acre fetched about 9*l.*, and gradually increased in the next few years to 12*l.*, just double its former value. The uncultivated land between Demerara and Berbice was bought up, and plantations laid out in cotton, as well as along the Mahaica and

Mahaicony creeks. Many of the Dutch proprietors sold their lands to the English, who soon gave a new impetus to industry, and introduced rapidly their manners, customs, and language.

A number of British vessels now resorted to these colonies, and at one time as many as 100 vessels were being loaded together with the produce of the colony. The British likewise voluntarily formed themselves into a "militia corps," and also raised a troop of cavalry. Aware of the importance of the settlement, they spared no pains to bring it to a successful issue. Lieutenant-Colonel Hislop added another regiment to the line, called the 11th West India Regiment, which was raised by a levy on the planters, who contributed a certain number of effective negroes for that purpose in the hope of being repaid by the Government. Their expectations, however, were disappointed; they lost their slaves without ever receiving any remuneration, and the regiment so raised was actually marched away from the colony to the chagrin and mortification of the planters.

It was fortunate for the British that they had adopted these precautionary measures of defence. The Spaniards and other nations still watched these shores jealously, and in 1797 a party of the former attacked the post on the Morocco creek, feeling their way at the extremities of the colony before they would venture to assault the more vital parts. They were, however, gallantly repulsed by Captain Rochelle* and a detachment of Dutch soldiers in the British service, for it appears that the Dutch troops had acceded to the offers of the capitulation, and had entered the service of his Britannic Ma-

* The spirited efforts of this officer were appreciated by the community; soon after this adventure he fell ill, and the colonists, aware of his straitened finances, held a public meeting on the subject, and addressed the Court of Policy, who granted him the sum of 1500 guilders (about 100*l.*), and a similar sum was likewise given to be divided among the officers and privates of the force under him.

jesty; numerous attempts were subsequently made by Spanish privateers to land upon different parts of the colony, especially the remote district of "Pomeroon," where several flourishing plantations formerly existed. To protect the inhabitants from such assaults, troops were stationed here, and "block-houses," as they were termed, were erected, in which the soldiers lodged as in a fort. The object of such piratical attacks was rather to plunder and carry away the slaves for sale than any definite design of conquest. To endeavour to put a stop to this, the inhabitants prayed the Court of Policy to provide armed boats and cannon to protect certain parts of the coast. According to the articles of capitulation in 1796, it was agreed that the Government of Demerara and Essequibo should continue as before under Governor Beaujon and the other members of the Courts of Policy and of Justice; and in Berbice under its respective governor and courts; but, at the same time, it was understood that in both these colonies the military command should devolve on the British officer highest in rank in the two places. Lieutenant-Colonel Hislop accordingly exercised that office in Stabroek, the capital of Demerara and Essequibo, whilst another British officer commanded in Berbice.

It was an old custom of the colony that the commanding officers of the troops should receive certain grants from the colony, known as table-money, flag-money, and prison-money. This latter perquisite arose from a charge made on the admission or discharge of persons out of confinement, one-half of which went to the fiscal, the other half to the military officer. The perquisite arising from the flag-money was discontinued during the administration of a late governor, W. A. Baron Van Grovestein, who appropriated that money, as well as that arising from the tonnage and export duty, to the

service of the colony. The table-money was, however, demanded by Colonel Hislop, and granted by the governor and Court of Policy. It amounted to 600 guilders per annum, or about 40*l.*; but in the following year, at a meeting of the Court of Policy, presided over by Governor Beaujon, it was raised to 8000 guilders per annum, payable quarterly. At a subsequent meeting, composed of four councillors and four representatives, during the premeditated absence of the governor, the sum of 12,000 guilders was awarded as table-money, to be divided between the governor and the military officer highest in command; whilst a smaller sum of 750 guilders was given to the commander of Essequibo.*

When the British took possession of the colony in 1796, they found a number of negroes in chains, who had been sentenced to work in gangs for various acts of ill-conduct. The new authorities ordered the fetters to be struck off, and many of these liberated negroes availed themselves of their liberty to run away from their owners. There used to be a fine of 1000 guilders on masters of vessels who carried away slaves, whether as sailors or otherwise. One-third of this fine went to the fiscaal, another third to the colony, and the remainder to the informer. A similar fine was imposed for leaving improper or useless individuals behind.

One of the first acts under the British rule of the governor and Court of Policy of Demerara and Essequibo was the institution of the College of Financial Representatives, in accordance with a project previously planned and devised.†

* See minutes of Court of Policy, 1798.

† See Appendix respecting the Institution of the Financial Representatives.

CHAPTER VIII.

OPENING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY—GENERAL STATE OF THE COLONY UNDER THE DUTCH, 1796—COLONIES CEDED TO THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC AT THE TREATY OF AMIENS, 1802—INJURIOUS CONSEQUENCES—IMPAIRED CONDITION OF THE COLONY UNDER THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC—MORTALITY OF TROOPS—MUTINY OF DITTO IN BERBICE—AMICABLE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE DUTCH AND THE INDIANS—RULES RESPECTING POSTHOLDERS—BRITISH FORCE IN THE WEST INDIES, 1803—SURRENDER OF DEMERARA AND ESSEQUEBO—CAPITULATION OF BERBICE—POLITICAL ANALYSIS—COURT OF POLICY—COLLEGE OF KEIZERS—FINANCIAL REPRESENTATIVES—COMBINED COURT—COURTS OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL JUSTICE—DUTCH CODE OF LAW—DUTIES OF FISCAAL—BURGHER DISTRICTS AND OFFICERS—STATE OF THE COLONY, 1805.

THE opening of the nineteenth century, marked at first by the scourge of war in Europe, resulted in the establishment and consolidation of a general peace. This colony participated in the advantages of restored security, infinitely more important to her than to the old communities, upon whose tranquillity her prosperity mainly depended. The great moral changes, which were finally destined to bring her industry to bear effectually upon her resources, were reserved for this period; and consequences more beneficial than any she had ever derived from the dominion of the sword ensued upon the long term of repose which now favoured her efforts.

Having followed her history for nearly three hundred

years, and traced step by step the varying influences for good and evil exercised over her development by the several races of inhabitants that sought her shores, from the buccaneering Spaniard, the piratical Portuguese, to the plodding Dutch settler and speculative English adventurer, we now come to that era in her social history when British authority ruled over the land; when the policy, wisdom, and philanthropy of England were to open a new field of exertion in this remote spot of her vast dominions; and English emigrants were to press forward from their frigid climate to seek their fortunes under a tropical sun.

*Omnibus hunc potius, communem animantibus orbem,
Communes et crede Deos; patriam inde Vocato.
Qua redit itque dies; nec nos diis nata malignis
Cluserit hoc crudo semper sub frigore messis;
Fas mihi non stabilia, fas et tibi linquere colchos.*

The success of the Hollander in his agricultural explorations of the land, and the sagacious but interested line of conduct he pursued towards the negro, have been already noticed. During the period of about two hundred years that the Dutch possessed this land, the march of improvement had indeed reached the soil, but brought no benefit to the slave who tilled it. The labourer had not risen above his original condition, save in a few instances. Physical circumstances had advanced, but mind had made no progress. The old customs, habits, and laws of the Dutch hung, like the miasm, undissipated over the vast shores of Guiana. The people had languished without a teacher; the soul had not been elevated to God; the promise of salvation had scarcely in one instance been offered to the dark child of Africa. While this glaring and lamentable neglect was painfully visible on the one hand, it was no less obvious on the other that the enterprising Hollander had bestowed anxious attention upon his own worldly interests. The

three largest rivers were studded with plantations, and the coasts were relieved of their former dreariness and useless verdure. The coffee, cotton, and sugar estates were in a high state of cultivation. The buildings and houses were in excellent repair, and crusted over with layers of gaudy paint; for with the thrifty Dutch it was a maxim that a house could not be too often painted both for economy and comfort, a prudential maxim of especial efficacy in a climate where wooden structures would speedily perish without such a protection. The elegance and luxuries of life abounded; plants of every variety and fruit-trees in great numbers, introduced from other countries, enlivened the somewhat monotonous scenery of the cultivated districts, besides contributing to the pleasures of the table. The inhabited parts of the colony resembled more a garden than a land explored by the European and peopled by the African. To the eye of a stranger there was little in the waving fields of canes, and their yellow stems and long green leaves, that indicated the wealth which the art of man had the power of extracting from them. There was little in the plain shrub and yellow flower of the cotton which could point out the important uses to which they were converted by mechanical appliances; and the prim and erect coffee bush might have been overlooked and classed as a mere wild growth of the forest, save for the regularity of its outline, and the exact arrangement of the trees.

The capital of the colony, called Stabroek, consisted of only two long rows of houses, stretching from the eastern bank of the river Demerara for about a mile toward the forest, or "Bush," and a few buildings erected at the mouth of the river, occupied by the military. The town, if such it might be called, was intersected by numerous canals, which were necessary for the drainage of the adjacent estates; and communication from one part to the

other was as easily effected by water as by land, especially in the wet seasons, for as yet few regular streets were to be met with. The number of estates at this time throughout the three provinces of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice was about 150, of which the greater part were planted with cotton, which promised to be the most lucrative branch of trade. Indeed, out of about 100 estates, situated principally on the east coast, or maritime portion of land, stretching between the rivers Demerara and Berbice, only one was planted with the sugar cane. The average produce of eighty good cotton estates was from 50,000 to 60,000 lb. each per annum; the average number of cotton bushes on each estate was about 600; each bush calculated to yield about 8 oz., or $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of cotton, which at that time was sold for about 15 stivers, or little more than a shilling. For the cultivation of such land one able negro was sufficient for two acres. Each acre laid out in coffee cultivation had about 450 trees, each tree yielding about $1\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of berry, realising from seven to eight stivers per pound; and for the working of such estates two able negroes were considered necessary for every three acres. An acre of sugar plantation yielded about 2000 lbs., at 4d. per lb., besides molasses and rum. To raise such a crop one negro was reckoned for every acre. The number of slaves employed through the colony were from 50,000 to 60,000. One proprietor alone had about 2000 under his charge. The price of a slave at this time was from 600 to 900 guilders, or 40*l.* to 60*l.*, and the profit obtained from his labour amounted to 20*l.* or 25*l.* per annum. The hire of a negro was from one to two guilders per day (two or three shillings); if for the year, 200 to 300 guilders, or about 20*l.* Provisions were sold at the following rates:— Bread, 1 bit, or 4d. per lb.; pork, $2\frac{1}{2}$ bits per lb.; beef and mutton, 3 to 4 bits; milk, 1 bit per pint; cheese,

4 bits per lb. ; salt butter, 4 bits per lb. ; turkeys, 4 to 6 dollars each ; ducks, 1 dollar ; a fowl, 1 dollar ; hams, 4 bits per lb. ; loaf sugar, 6 bits per lb. ; tea, $4\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per lb. ; apples, 4 bits per dozen ; onions, 1 bit per dozen ; Madeira wine, 1 dollar per bottle ; claret, 1 dollar per bottle ; porter and beer, each 6 bits per bottle ; plantains, 1 to 2 bits per bunch ; yams, 1 bit per gallon ; eddoes, 2 bits per gallon ; sweet potatoes, 1 bit per gallon ; oranges, 1 bit per dozen ; pines, 3 bits a dozen ; Indian corn, 3 to 4 bits per 100 ears ; grass, 1 bit per bundle, &c.*

Society at this period was resolvable into three great classes.

The whites, so designated *par excellence*, were composed of officials, professional men, military, merchants planters, and a few tradesmen.

Second, the freedman or liberated slave, and mechanics of various classes. The free coloured population, avowing a decided contempt for the slaves, were certainly not warranted in so doing by any marked superiority over them. They had, it is true, some smattering of education, but this in reality was of no use to them ; they copied too closely the habits indulged in by the whites, and, without their industry and perseverance, aimed at rivalling them in their fashions. Turning away from the advantages which might have resulted from a life of agricultural pursuits, and seeking rather the means of livelihood in the towns, they let several opportunities pass by of advancing as a class. In after times they, consequently, became much reduced in means and position, and eventually were the worst off in a community where, at one time, they held a middle rank. The free popula-

* It was formerly the practice of the Court of Policy to fix the price of food and other articles. See *Minutes*, 1797.

tion at this period (including the whites) amounted to about 8000 or 10,000.

Third, the field labourer or slave. The last continued to lead much the same kind of life as we have already described, making but little progress either in civilisation or education ; but yet watching closely the example set them by their masters, and insensibly acquiring some ideas of advancement. They were gradually stimulated by the same desires for pleasure, dress, and display which they had observed to influence the European. The notions then fostered were afterwards to be rapidly developed.

The white population, more particularly those holding the higher situations in life, revelled in ease, enjoyment, and sensual gratification. The virtues of hospitality and generosity were practised to a higher degree, perhaps, than in any other country. When a stranger presented himself the house of entertainment was immediately open to him. Every comfort and luxury that wealth could procure was lavished upon him ; his wishes were anticipated ; his desires excited but to be directly gratified, and the very passions of the guest were as much pandered to as his tastes or his feelings. Then came the round of busy professionals, jovial and roystering officers, seekers of pleasure and dissipation ; whilst the austere but watchful official looked on with a keen glance at the delinquencies and the advantages of a society so strangely constituted—so good (according to an ungracious proverb of the Italian), that it was good for nothing :

Tanto buon che val niente.

It cannot be a matter of much astonishment that the absence of refinement in the higher classes should, at last, begin to affect the mass of the population ; nor, when we consider the imitative power of man, always

eager to copy rather what is bad than what is good, can we cast much blame upon the slave for reflecting back an exaggerated image of the vices he daily observed in the conduct of his master ?

*Omni animi vitium tanto conspectius in se
Crimen habet, quanto major qui peccat habetur.*

*More public scandal vice attends,
As he is great and noble who offends.*

But whilst the energy and industry of the British was about to meet its merited reward, whilst the cultivation of the three colonies and the number of slaves had wonderfully increased, and every precaution had been taken to render the conquest permanent, an event occurred in Europe which frustrated all the good that had been effected by the colonists, and involved them for many years in confusion and misery.

In the year 1802, the peace of Amiens terminated, or rather suspended, the war between England and Holland, and it was stipulated in that agreement, that the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, should be ceded to the "Batavian Republic," as the Dutch provinces unadvisedly styled themselves, in order to please the revolutionary French, who "had regenerated them." Never was a more suicidal act committed by the British; never was a more wanton injury inflicted upon private and public interests. The British exercised at this period the greatest influence in these settlements, to which they had been invited by the inhabitants, and whither they had been conveyed by his Majesty's forces. By their numbers, their intelligence, and their wealth, they constituted the majority of the respectable inhabitants; and the Dutch, already conscious of their declining power, were willingly and gradually relinquishing their pretensions. So that in fact, while every local circumstance was tending to transform slowly these possessions into British

colonies, the Government, unaware of, or inattentive to their importance, took the very steps which were to prove most fatal to their overthrow.

Let us pause here, and examine into some of the consequences of this measure. The value of land, which had been slowly increasing, as before observed, now rapidly fell, and such was the consternation of the inhabitants, that according to an old historical authority, one estate actually sold for a negro; another, in jest or derision, for a "turkey,"* which, it is said, gave rise to its name in after times. The bills which had been drawn on British houses, came back protested to the amount of 625,000*l.*, including the 25 per cent. damages, which by a law of the colony was allowed on all returned bills of exchange. An arrangement was then made with some Dutch mercantile houses to take up these bills and others which were drawn; but the war with the Batavian Republic soon breaking out again, these bills also came back; which circumstances, together with the loss of produce, and ships captured by the enemy, want of supplies, &c., led to the greatest distress. The courts of justice were closed; business was suspended; cultivation was impeded, if not paralysed; and a panic, such as had never before been experienced, seized upon the whole country.

The total loss sustained by the colonists under the peace of Amiens was thus calculated by the inhabitants:

Damages on bills returned	£250,000
Expenses of law-suits, interests, postage, &c.	10,000
Captures of produce and ships	1,000,000
	<hr/>
	1,260,000
Less this sum recovered by order of King and Council	125,000
	<hr/>
	£1,135,000

* See Bolingbroke; the limited period allowed for the disposal of the properties of the settlers was the cause of these singular occurrences.

This trifling sum mentioned as recovered resulted from the remonstrance and application of the colonists to the British Government, setting forth the hardship of having British colonial merchandise and produce seized and sold, irrespective of all justice to the owners. Probably a larger sum might have been recovered, had not the uncertainty and heavy law expenses deterred many of the colonists from advancing their claims.

Under the "Batavian Republic," these colonies were the scene of civil and political confusion. The spirit of democracy which had broken out in the neighbouring colonies of Surinam and Cayenne, fostered by the vehement declamation of the French patriots, threatened also to convulse these shores; and hostile feelings arose between the monarchical British and the republican foreigners. The former were called tyrants, aristocrats, and other such names, by the "sans culotte" class, who were absurd enough to talk about liberty in a land of slaves, whose manacles were forged by themselves. The cap of Liberty and Equality appeared very charming on their own heads, but was never intended to fit the cranium of the astonished African, who looked on in silence and wonder at the vagaries of the "Buckras."

The Governor of Demerara and Essequibo at this time was Anthony Meertens, who had been appointed in 1802 by the Batavian Republic; and in Berbice the colony was ruled by a Provisional Government, composed of two members of the council, the former governor, Van Batenburg, having been recalled to give an account to the home government of the surrender of that colony to the British in 1796. Governor Meertens made himself extremely unpopular to the British party by his insulting and overbearing conduct towards them. His expressed wish was to drive away every Englishman from the

country, and he certainly would have succeeded in his object had time been allowed him.

It was intimated to the British that a certain period would be granted to them for arranging their affairs before they left the colony, to whose prosperity they had contributed so much; but the governor exercised his authority so rigorously in the interval, by hastening their departure, and loading them with threats, that many absolutely gave up their properties at a tremendous sacrifice. Nor was it by the English alone that his acts were felt to be arbitrary and unjust; some of his own countrymen also suffered from his severity. He compelled the burgher militia, or white inhabitants, to execute the military duty of the town, which was very irksome to persons unaccustomed to such a life; and, in the end, this enforced task proved fatal to many of the young men. Perhaps an irregular and dissipated mode of living may have helped towards this result; but it was very well known that a great number died at this particular time, in consequence of the hardships to which they were subjected. It is possible that the mortality among the soldiers of the "Batavian Republic" may have compelled the governor to adopt this step; a necessity, however, which does not excuse or account for the harshness he had previously shown to these very soldiers. A very fine body of troops from Holland had lately arrived in the colony, to the number of about 2000. No preparations had been made for their reception or accommodation; and exposed to the sun and rain, without wholesome or sufficient food, tempted with new rum, and huddled together in crowds, disease broke out among them, and a frightful mortality resulted. In vain did the commanding officers seek for assistance and money; in vain did the medical staff attempt to stay the danger—the greater part of the medical officers being

young and inexperienced men, who had gone through no regular course of study, and who had got admission into the army during the turbulence and confusion of war; in vain did the soldiers themselves clamour and remonstrate. They died in scores; their corpses could not be buried fast enough, and at last were taken out to sea in punts, and committed to the waves. The "noyades" of the dead, if not of the living, followed the republic even to these realms. Within three months, 500 of these fine troops lay buried in the mud flats, and the commanding officer, in despair, resigned, and disappeared.

The administration of the civil service was not more cheering. Partiality, bribery, and abuse had crept into the several offices. Many different situations were held by one individual, who was frequently an absentee. The following was an estimate of the salaries received, by fees, perquisites, and other means, by some of the principal officers of the colony about this period:—

The governor	£6,000 to £8,000
Receiver of colonial taxes	800 " 2,000
Government secretary	1,000 " 3,000
Receiver of king's dues	500 " 1,500
Vendue-master	1,000 " 3,000
Fiscal	3,000 " 4,000
Exploiteur or marshal	1,000 " 3,000
Post-master and naval officer	800 " 2,000
Harbour-master	500 " 1,000
Collector and comptroller	1,000 " 3,000

The variable amounts mentioned possibly arose from the uncertainty and irregularity attending the system of fees, &c.; for, although tariffs of these at different times had been instituted, they were rarely attended to.

The following anecdote, from a writer* who lived in this colony from 1795 to 1805, illustrates this circum-

* Bolingbroke.

stance, as well as the general depravity which must have pervaded society.

A gentleman from the islands, who was not upon very good terms with the *fiscal* of Demerara, Mynheer Van —, applied to him one day, when he happened to meet him on horseback, to know what sum would be required by that officer to absolve him from all consequences in his determination to chastise another, to whom he owed a grudge; the fiscal, after a moment's reflection, demanded 150 guilders, which were immediately paid to him by the gentleman, who collared the astonished Dutchman, dragged him from his horse, and severely horsewhipped him, telling him at the same time that *he* was the party to whom he owed the grudge, and wishing him good morning, as he now felt satisfied. The defeated Dutchman pocketed the money and the insult, leaving the affair to die of itself. But the joke was too good to be kept secret, and has been regularly chronicled.

It appeared that in the neighbouring colony of Berbice the troops had been equally badly treated, for early in 1803 a mutiny took place. The insurgents, to the number of some hundreds, were headed by several of the officers, a captain especially, and they compelled the commandant and his adherents to evacuate Fort St. Andrew, and take refuge in the Government-house. After a short time, they were obliged to abandon this temporary shelter, and to retreat upon "York Redoubt," a military post opposite the river. From this place they sent off for reinforcements; but, as we have seen, there was already great discontent existing in the troops in Demerara, and only 100 men could be depended on for such a service. The mutineers in Berbice offered the government of the colony to an English planter, who prudently declined it. At length some more troops arrived from Surinam, and an attack was planned by

Colonel Matthias and Major Van Hamer. They contrived to land above New Amsterdam, the capital of Berbice, and here they attacked the insurgents, who, driven from Government-house, fled across the river Canje, pursued by the troops, who met with some casualties. On the 9th of May, more troops arrived from Surinam, and proceeded to attack Fort St. Andrew, which was still occupied by some of the insurgents, assisted by the vessel of war, *Serpent*, and 40 canoes, with about 400 native Indians, who had volunteered to join them. They succeeded in compelling the soldiers to surrender on the 10th of May. About 200 men were taken prisoners, five of whom were shot. The officer who commanded them was sent to Holland, tried, and executed.

The Bucks, or native Indians, had more than once proved of great service to the Dutch inhabitants. They sided with them against the insurgent negroes, and now again assisted them against their own mutinous soldiers. These services sufficiently explain the friendly feelings displayed towards them by the Dutch, who passed several laws to protect and favour them.

It had long been a practice with the Dutch to place persons on the principal rivers in the colony to act as superintendents or magistrates in the neighbourhood. These persons were called "Post-holders," and, residing beyond the ordinary districts in cultivation, were brought into frequent communication with the native Indians, who soon formed an attachment to them. Instructions for the Post-holders, in accordance with the friendly sentiments of the Dutch towards the Indians in Demerara and Essequibo, were printed in 1803;* and, as might have been expected, created very jealous feelings

* See Appendix.

in the minds of the negroes, who, while the hand of amity and protection was extended to the Bucks, still continued to be treated in the old way.

By the former laws of the Dutch, persons were prohibited from purchasing or holding as slaves any of the Indian tribes, or even the offspring of Indian females; and in the event of any of the Indians having been bought as slaves, they were required to be given up at the secretary's office, and negro slaves were to be given instead, on the payment of five guilders to the governor. Laws were also made that in the event of the free Indians having slave Indians as wives, they should be compelled to support them, and to provide for their children, and planters and others were obliged to arrest such Indians if they attempted to desert their wives.

Other laws were likewise made to prevent the Indians being molested, either by word or deed, under a penalty of twenty-five guilders; many of these laws began to be enforced as early as the year 1736, and were afterwards renewed.

The administration of these colonies during the dominion of the Batavian Republic was not calculated to promote the interests of the colonists or the value of their possessions. It was unfortunately a period of excitement and agitation, and the anxieties and uncertainty incident on the prosecution of war between England and France naturally gave rise to hopes and fears on the part of those who were inclined to side with the one power or the other. Business was transacted, and the cultivation of property carried on apparently as usual, but they were impeded by circumstances at once inconvenient and disadvantageous, arising from the perpetual alarms produced in a colony by the fluctuating intelligence from Europe. The few British colonists who, under obloquy and ill-treatment, still remained to pro-

secrete their enterprising schemes with persevering energy, were not without hope that the supremacy would be gallantly maintained by England, the acknowledged mistress of the ocean, and as the sounds of war drew nearer to these shores their hopes, as well as those of the sensible Dutchmen, were roused to the highest pitch. It was well known that a powerful British armament was directing its course to the West Indies. A squadron under Commodore Hood, and a fine body of troops under General Grinfield, at length attacked the hostile possessions of the West Indies. On the 22nd June, St. Lucia was carried by storm; on the 30th Tobago was attacked and capitulated; while on the 19th September the colonies of Demerara and Essequibo were reduced by the same commanders. The settlement of Berbice capitulated on the 24th.

The following were the terms of the capitulation:

“ Proposed Articles of Capitulation, by which Demerara and Essequibo were to be surrendered to Great Britain, in 1803. ✓

“ Article 1st. The laws and usages of the colony shall remain in force and be respected; the modes of taxation now in use are to be adhered to, and the inhabitants shall enjoy the public exercise of their religion in the same manner as before the capitulation; no new establishments shall be introduced without the consent of the Court of Policy, or the Legislature of the Colony. The constituted authorities and public officers, whether in the civil, law, or Church establishments, as well as the members of the respective courts (except the Governor-General), shall be continued in their respective offices and situations until his Majesty's pleasure be known.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 2nd. The inhabitants, those at present in the co-

lony, as well as those who may be abroad, shall be protected in their persons, and have the free enjoyment of their properties, without being troubled or molested for any acts whatsoever, other than such as they might commit subsequent to the capitulation, and in violation of the oath of fidelity they shall be required to take.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 3rd. The inhabitants shall, on no account whatever, be obliged to take up arms against an external enemy; but their services shall only be required for quelling internal commotions or disturbance, according to the existing regulations of the burghers, and for maintaining the internal tranquillity of the colony, in conformity to what has always taken place to this day.

“ Answer.—Granted, until, at the conclusion of the war, it shall be determined to what Government these colonies shall be subjected

“ 4th. That debts contracted by the Government for the building of new barracks, the erection of batteries, the purchase of provisions for the garrison, the salaries of civil officers due, shall, on the first demand, be paid out of the Sovereign's or Government chest, as well as other demands that would have been paid or reimbursed by Government had the colony not been taken.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 5th. The sea and land forces of the Batavian Republic, stationed in the colony, shall be allowed to depart freely. They shall retain their arms, and the whole of their baggage, as well the officers, non-commissioned officers, as privates. They shall be supplied by the commandant of his Majesty's forces with proper vessels to convey them, with the utmost convenient speed, to one of the ports of the Batavian Republic, and during the passage thither they shall receive, on account of his Majesty, each according to his rank, the same rations,

both as to quality and quantity, as are usually allowed to British troops.

“ Answer.—Granted ; but the troops and seamen must be considered as prisoners of war, and not to bear arms against Great Britain or her allies until regularly exchanged or released, and the arms and accoutrements of the soldiers must be delivered up.

“ 6th. The corvette *Hippomenes* shall be given up unarmed, for transporting her officers and crew to one of the ports of the Batavian Republic. As many other troops of the Batavian garrison shall embark and take their passage in the said corvette as can be conveniently placed on board of her.

“ Answer.—Cannot be granted ; proper vessels will be furnished, at the expense of the British Government, to carry the troops and seamen to Europe.

“ 7th. The Governor-General, not having military rank, shall be at liberty to remain in the colony until he shall have collected the necessary documents or proofs towards enabling him to lay before his Sovereign an account of his administration ; after which every facility shall be afforded him to return to the Batavian Republic in a manner suitable to his rank. He shall be allowed to require such copies of papers from the Government and Colonial Secretary’s Office as he may deem necessary for the purpose above expressed.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 8th. From the day of the colony being taken possession of by the British forces the Batavian troops shall be supplied with their usual rations by the British commanders until the day of their embarkation, and from that moment the Batavian troops are to receive the same rations as are usually allowed to British troops when at sea, in the manner mentioned in the 5th Article.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 9th. The Batavian troops shall continue to all intents and purposes under the command of their own officers. Every respect and honour shall be mutually shown by the troops of both nations to one another, and care shall be taken on both sides to preserve peace and tranquillity until the departure of the Batavian troops.

“ Answer.—Proper quarters will be allowed for the Batavian troops, and to which they must confine themselves until their embarkation.

“ 10th. The Batavian garrison shall be allowed freely, and without any hindrance, to take along with it all accoutrements and arms belonging to it; also the effects of deceased officers, non-commissioned officers, and privates that may yet be unsold, whether the same be deposited in the public magazine or in any other place.

“ Answer.—That part of the article relating to the arms and accoutrements has been answered in Article 5; the remainder is granted.

“ 11th. The sick of the Batavian troops who may be left behind in the hospital shall be treated and taken care of in the same manner as the British soldiers; they shall be entitled to the same terms of the capitulation, and enjoy the same advantages, as are stipulated for the rest of the Batavian garrison; and, in like manner as the latter, they shall, after their complete recovery, be transported, with the most convenient speed, to one of the ports of the Batavian Republic.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 12th. The commander of his Majesty's forces shall immediately on the colony being taken possession of, furnish the Governor-General with a conveyance to transmit to the Batavian Government a copy of the capitulation, with a statement of the reasons which induced him, as well as the Council of Policy and the

commanding officers of the Batavian forces, to surrender the colony to his Britannic Majesty.

“ Answer.—Granted ; the vessel which takes our despatches to Europe will take those of the governor of the colonies.

“ 13th. No negroes shall be required from the planters for the purpose of forming or recruiting any black corps.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ 14th. Should any difficulties arise in consequence of any dubious expressions occurring in the present capitulation, the same shall be explained or construed in the sense most favourable to the colony or the Batavian garrison.

“ Answer.—Granted.

“ Government-house, September 18, 1803.

(Signed) “ A. MEERTENS, Governor-General of Essequibo and Demerara.

“ P. ROSMWINKEL, Major.

“ G. H. TROTZ, Commander of Essequibo.

“ D. J. C. LAMBERT, Captain of Artillery.

“ P. P. LEYHEN.

“ J. HOFFMAN, First Lieutenant.

“ CHRIS. D. MACK.

“ F. VAN DER VELDEN.

“ F. KNOLL.

“ By command of the Court of Policy,

“ P. F. TINNE, Secretary.

(Signed) “ WILLIAM GRINFIELD, Lieutenant-General.

“ SAMUEL HOOD, Commodore.

“ By order,

“ WILLIAM TATUM, Military Secretary.

“ H. TRACY, Naval Secretary.”

Additional Articles.

“ 1st. Possession of Fort William Frederic is to be

given to a detachment of British troops this evening, by 7 o'clock P.M. ; also the possession of the Batavian ship-of-war, the *Hippomenes*, to the British seamen ; and the *Hornet*, British sloop-of-war, and the schooner *Netley*, are to be allowed to pass into the harbour of Demerara.

“ Answer.—Acceded to.

“ 2nd. Possession of the colonies of Demerara and Essequibo are to be given to the British by 12 o'clock to-morrow, noon.

“ Answer.—Acceded to.

(Signed) “ WILLIAM GRINFIELD, Lieutenant-General.

“ SAMUEL HOOD, Commodore.

“ G. H. TROTZ.

“ F. KNOLL.

“ J. HOFFMAN.

“ A. PARRY HERKLOTS, Lieutenant, Navy.

“ Heureux, September 19, 1853.”

1853

The colony of British Guiana, at the time when it thus finally passed into the hands of the English, consisted of two separate Governments, Demerara and Essequibo being united, and ruled over by an officer appointed by the Batavian Republic, with the title of Governor, and the settlement of Berbice, which had likewise its own governor. These governors were perfectly independent of each other ; but the habits, laws, and pursuits of the three colonies were nearly, if not entirely, identical.

The form of government in Demerara and Essequibo in 1803 consisted of a Court of Policy, or Council of Policy, comprising eight members—four official, and four from amongst the inhabitants, two each from Essequibo and Demerara, elected by another body called the College of Keizers, a Dutch word, signifying electors or choosers. The Court of Policy was first composed of

the governor, the commandants of Demerara and Essequibo, and certain directors of the West Indian Company's plantation, besides a secretary. They met four times a year (the first Sunday in January, and so on for the other months) to consider the report of the company's proceedings and the granting of fresh lands. The four official members were the governor, the Commander of Essequibo, the Fiscal of Demerara, and the Fiscal of Essequibo. To be qualified for a member of council, it was necessary to be a freeholder, to be Protestant, to understand the Dutch language, and to have been three years in the colony. The non-officials were returned by the College of Keizers in each district, viz., two for each river.

The College of Keizers for each district was elected by the inhabitants, and the members, five first and afterwards seven in number, retained office for life, or during their residence in the colony. The qualification for office was the possession of 25 slaves, and a residence in the colony of three years; the qualification for votes was the possession of 25 slaves, but the right of voting was afterwards allowed to persons paying 70 guilders a year in taxes. The votes taken by ballot were sent into the Government secretary's office, deposited in a sealed box, and opened in the presence of the governor, and not less than two other members of the Court of Policy. The first assembly of electors was chosen by the counsellors of justice from among the burghers. The College of Keizers nominated two persons to fill vacancies in the Court of Policy. The governor and the court selected one from the nomination, and notified in an official paper, the *Gazette*, the person so selected. The senior member of the court went out after two years. An annual meeting was held with another body, and this assembly was called the Combined Court, which assembled every

year for the purpose of levying taxes, granting moneys, &c. In cases of vacancy in the other courts, the assembly of electors sent a double nomination to the Supreme Court of Justice who selected one.*

Financial Representatives.—The members constituting this college were six in number: three nominated by the inhabitants of Demerara, in the same manner and with the same qualification as the Keizers, and three by the inhabitants of Essequibo. Their term of service was limited to two years, and their duties, as we have seen, consisted of meeting the Court of Policy once in a year, at a session called the "Combined Court," for the purpose of levying taxes and regulating the expenditure. At this combined meeting, the Court of Policy submitted an estimate of the expenses of the year to come, which had previously been prepared and discussed in that court. In the Combined Court, every item of the estimate was discussed, and every member, whether of the Court of Policy or Financial Representative, had an equal vote. (But this was not the case in the original constitution of the colony. This court had no power to control the amount of colonial expenditure; its functions were confined to determine what taxes should be raised to meet the expenditure.) At this meeting the public accounts of the preceding year were examined and audited, which was the peculiar province of the Financial Representatives.

The Court of Policy passed all laws for the internal regulation of the colony. It required four members to constitute a court. No law was binding without the

* During the time of the Dutch, the powers entrusted to the colonists in their different institutions were very restricted, but were gradually enlarged, especially under a British flag. The Dutch Government was nearly absolute, and with good reasons, owing to a different state of society. Modification, however, gradually crept into the constitution of the colony, and often without a proper or legal sanction.

vote of one member of the non-official section of the court. The qualification for a member of the Court of Policy was the proprietorship of a plantation, and a residence of three years in the colony.

Judicial Department.—The districts of Demerara and Essequibo had each a Court of Civil and Criminal Justice, which consisted of six members and a president. The Courts of Criminal and Civil Justice were first composed of the governor, two commandants, and four inhabitants (two each for Demerara and Essequibo), besides a secretary. Their sitting began on the first Monday of January, and the other quarters, April, July, and October. A separate court of judicature existed in Demerara, and was composed of the commandant of that river and officers (burgher), who held a sitting one month before that of Essequibo and Demerara. Appeal was allowed to the latter, or Combined Court, when the value of the suit exceeded 150 dollars. The members were elected by the College of Keizers in each district, the two senior members retiring every year; the qualification of a member consisted in the possession of 25 slaves, and a residence of three years in the colony. The commander of Essequibo was president of the Court of Justice in that district, and the Governor of Demerara president of the other Court of Justice. The law of Demerara was the law of Holland, or Roman law. Each member of the court had an equal vote on both law and fact; and all cases were decided by a majority of votes.

The administration in the colony of Berbice was similarly conducted, and need not, therefore, be recapitulated.

Besides such official and colonial appointments, there were several others, such as fiscal, secretaries, heads of departments, marshals, &c.

The duties of the fiscal (or, rather, "fiscaal," a Dutch term for an officer in Holland, similar to that of Attorney-

General of England) were various and vexatious. He was the great law-officer of the crown; his power and privilege were considerable, and his influence extensive. He was the active officer of the Commissary Court, which was composed of two members from the Court of Justice, appointed in rotation and held in Stabroek for the adjustment of petty offences, and the decision of all questions of property under the value of 600 guilders. He imposed and pronounced the fines adjudged by the court; and if his notice was neglected or resisted, he served the parties with a citation.

The country at this time was divided into districts, with a burgher captain, or militia officer, over each, who carried into effect the public regulations. The owners or representatives of estates, as already remarked, were bound to keep in good repair the public roads which intersected their properties. It was the duty of the fiscal to visit such roads and bridges, &c., thereon, and where any neglect or default existed to impose certain fines. He was, in these visits, attended by the burgher officer of the district, and a clerk from the Government secretary's office; the former to approve, the latter to witness, such approval, and to note the fines imposed. This was, perhaps, necessary, as a portion of the fines levied became the perquisite of this law-officer. The planter, upon receiving notice of the fines imposed, had the privilege of resisting the payment of them, in which case the fiscal referred the question to the Commissary Court, and pleaded the cause himself as principal law-officer of the colony. But it frequently happened that, by offering one-third or one-half of the fine named, the affair was compromised, the fiscal silenced, his conscience and pocket satisfied, and all further appeal to a court of justice rendered unnecessary. This regulation was afterwards changed, an order from Government decreed that the

fiscal should have his specific pay, and the whole of the fines were appropriated to the "ways and means of the colony." But it is very questionable whether the colony in this instance benefited by the change, as under the old system the roads were tolerably sure of being kept in order.

Such is a sketch of the colony at the time that the British Government undertook its rule; such is an outline of the social, moral, and political condition of the settlements in Guiana ceded to Great Britain in Oct. 1803. A fresh impulse was given to society by the introduction of British energy and capital; a number of persons, young men more especially, at the close of the long wars, finding themselves without prospects at home, and eager to try their fortunes in the western world, hastened out, determined to climb the golden ladder which was to lead them to wealth. West India property had then become proverbially lucrative, and the expression, "rich as a West Indian," was on the lips of every one. The young and ardent, heedless of the rumoured unwholesomeness of the climate, sailed for its shores; and where industry, intelligence, and prudence were united in the same individual, most of them lived to become independent, if not opulent. Capitalists turned a willing ear to the seductions of slave cultivations, and money in abundance was poured into the lap of the country. The number of slaves was wonderfully augmented; so that before the year 1805, they amounted to 80,000 persons.

The English, by their arrival, infused into colonial society the same elements of character which marked them at home:

Cœlum non animum mutant qui trans mare current.

Distributed throughout the country, they imparted a vigour to the efforts of the colonists which had never

before been felt;* gaiety was mingled with scientific improvements in building and cultivation; amusements were blended with efforts at moral regeneration; important changes began to pass over the institutions of the Hollander, and were carried out in household matters, laws, agricultural and commercial undertakings. The severe, prudent, but selfish policy of the Dutch was displaced by the liberal influence of English industry, order, and energy; and it happened, singularly enough, that the monarchical system of the British isles, after having vanquished republican principles in Europe, crowned its triumphs by introducing the spirit of practical liberty among a people ruled over by the Batavian Republic. The haughty aristocrat of England was about to overthrow the republican colonist or leveller, as he termed himself, with his own weapons, and, at a personal sacrifice, to undertake a task from which the self-decreed "sans culotte" had always turned back appalled.

* The steam-engine was first introduced in 1805, to work sugar-mills on plantations Belle Vue and Hague. It gradually came into general use, and in a few years superseded the water and cattle-mills on the river estates, and the wind and water-mills on the coast.

CHAPTER IX.

GOVERNOR BEAUJON SUCCEEDS COLONEL NICHOLSON, 1804—RETURN OF SLAVES CALLED FOR—COLONIAL AGENTS APPOINTED IN ENGLAND—SOME ACCOUNT OF BERBICE—DIFFERENCES RESPECTING THE ACRE-MONEY, 1805—DEATH OF GOVERNOR BEAUJON—PUBLIC ACTS PASSED IN 1806—ARRIVAL OF GOVERNOR BENTINCK—SCARCITY OF SILVER COIN; ISSUE OF PAPER MONEY—GOVERNOR BENTINCK RETURNS TO ENGLAND—DEMERARA AND BERBICE EXCHANGE GOVERNORS—ABOLITION OF SLAVE TRADE, 1808—INTRODUCTION OF ENGLISH MISSIONARIES; THEIR INFLUENCE—LIEUTENANT-COLONEL ROSS, ACTING GOVERNOR—NEW SILVER COIN ISSUED, 1809—BERBICE PAPER MONEY—RETURN OF GOVERNOR BENTINCK—BUSH EXPEDITION—MEMORIAL OF THE FINANCIAL REPRESENTATIVES, 1810—DISPUTES BETWEEN GOVERNOR AND FISCAAL—GOVERNOR BENTINCK SUPERSEDED, 1812—MAJOR-GENERAL CARMICHAEL, ACTING GOVERNOR—DEMERARA AND ESSEQUEBO UNITED—DEATH OF ACTING GOVERNOR CARMICHAEL, 1813—BRIGADIER-GENERAL MURRAY, ACTING GOVERNOR—CHARACTER OF COLONIAL SCOTCH—INTRODUCTION OF EUROPEAN WOMEN—PREJUDICES OF CLASS AND COLOUR—CHARACTER OF CREOLES.

UPON taking possession of the united colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, it would appear that the Commander-in-Chief, General Grinfield, appointed Lieut.-Colonel Robert Nicholson as acting Governor over the surrendered colony; and this gentleman continued to hold that important office until the receipt of a despatch from Lord Hobart, dated 26th of January, 1804, announcing that he had directed Anthony Beaujon, Esq., who had held the office when the colony capitulated in 1796, to resume the civil administration of the colony. On the

13th of August, 1804, Governor Beaujon, who had received a most flattering letter from Lord Hobart, was sworn into his high office, and took the oath of allegiance to his Majesty George the Third.

At a meeting of the Court of Policy, held on the 24th of August, the large sum of 20,000 guilders per annum, besides an additional sum of 5000 guilders, as President of the Court of Justice, were voted to the new governor as table-money.

By a proclamation, which was published on the 24th of November, the destitute state of the public funds was made known, and the following capitation-tax was fixed upon, viz.:

	Guilders.
Working male and female slaves, each	3 10
Children from 3 to 12 years of age	1
House servant (slaves) if 3 years of age	6
Do. do. if 4 do.	10
Do. do. if 5 do.	15
Do. do. if 6 do.	20
Do. do. if 7 do.	25
Do. do. if 8 do.	30
Do. do. above 9 do.	40

Certain persons were to be exempted from the payment of these taxes, namely:—Planters resident on their estates; the governor, who was entitled to twenty servants; the members of the different courts; also the secretaries, the receivers of government and colonial chests, vendue-master, and certain other public officers, who were each limited to four servants. Tradespeople were required to pay for each slave employed at the rate of 7 guilders per head. The women of colour were to pay 10 guilders. A general return of all slaves was also called for to the 31st of December, 1804.

About this time a petition of the inhabitants to the Court of Policy stated, that they had supplied articles for the use of the Batavian Government at the instance of the late Governor Meertens, for which they had received

bills of exchange drawn by him and the Book-keeper General on the Batavian Council of the American Colonies; but on the colony reverting to the British, these bills were protested, under the provisions of the 4th Article of the capitulation, which guaranteed the payment of all debts contracted by the late Government.

Early the next year, a colonial agent (Mr. Adam Gordon) was appointed, at a salary of 500*l.* per annum, to superintend in England the affairs of Essequibo and Demerara; but he was superseded in 1806, and two other persons were appointed to act conjointly.

The sister colony of Berbice was in most respects similarly situated. Its laws, system of administration, mode of agriculture, and social condition, were almost identical. But there were certain peculiarities in the circumstances of Berbice which require special notice. At the time when it fell into the hands of the British, September, 1803, there was actually no governor, that officer, A. J. Imbyze Van Batenburg, having previously departed for Europe to give an account to the States-General of the surrender of the colony in 1796 to the English. In his absence the administration was carried on by a Provisional Government of two persons, together with the other members and officers of the Legislature. These functionaries ceded their power to Lieutenant-Colonel Robert Nicholson, who was appointed acting-governor by General Grinfield, and who filled this situation until June, 1804, when Governor Van Batenburg was restored to his post. It appears that this officer, whilst on his voyage to Holland, was taken prisoner, together with his whole family, by an English vessel cruising in the Channel, and carried to England. During his detention in that country he became aware of the capture of Berbice by the English; but fortune in this instance befriended him more than he expected.

On leaving the colony he had taken with him a complimentary address (Dank adres) presented to him by the inhabitants of Berbice along with a more substantial gift, viz., a silver table-service of the value of 8000 florins, or about 500*l*.

The address had been numerously signed by the principal inhabitants, who were in general satisfied with his administration. This flattering testimonial, together with his local knowledge and experience, made so favourable an impression upon the English Court that it was considered desirable to secure his future services, and he was accordingly re-appointed, and, returning to the colony on the 25th June, 1804, was reinstated as governor. But it would appear that his views and opinions during his absence had undergone a total revolution, for soon after his arrival he announced that, in accordance with his instructions, he would in future take over the administration of the *colonial* plantations (he no longer called them society plantations, as formerly) in the name of the King. At the sitting of the Court of Policy, held on the 2nd July following, he availed himself of the opportunity of declaring that some of the inhabitants of the colony were indebted in large sums to the Receiver-General, which they would be immediately called upon to pay, in order to meet the existing deficiency, observing at the same time that the acre-money (akkergeld) or tax on property, formed a large item in the amount. The members of the court, astonished at such a speech from the governor, replied that in conformity with the articles of capitulation of the 24th September, 1803, the acre-money, as well as the plantations themselves, and other properties of the society of Berbice, could not be considered in any other light than as private property, separate and special; and that it could not be otherwise regarded until proof to the contrary

was brought forward and established. The governor, however, maintained that the acre-money was included under the taxes (*Lasten*), income, and other moneys formerly paid to the Dutch or Batavian Government, and were now due to his Britannic Majesty. The court, notwithstanding, refused to take the "ipse dixit" of the governor on this subject. Orders were consequently issued by the governor to collect the acre-money; but, with a few exceptions, the inhabitants exhibited a determination to resist the payment, declaring that any such orders or publications emanating from the governor without the concurrence and sanction of the other members of the court were null and void—in fact, unconstitutional and illegal.

In the following year, 13th February, 1805, another publication was issued to the same effect, but without shaking the resolution of the inhabitants, who still maintained that the money was exclusively private property, and could not be interfered with. The popularity of the governor now began rapidly to decline, and open complaints broke out in all parts of the colony, which took a distinct and affirmative shape on the 12th April, when a large meeting of the people was held in New Amsterdam, for the purpose of considering the necessity of remonstrating against these arbitrary proceedings, and of submitting their case to the sovereign. A committee of twelve persons was formed to investigate and report upon the subject. On the 23rd April another meeting, still more numerous attended, was convened, when a declaration was drawn up, declaring that, as the colony was ruled not by a governor, but by a governor as president and a council, any order or publication issued by the governor alone was invalid and illegal.

Three persons were accordingly elected (G. Baillie, Edward Van Hartha, and Lambert Blair, the two first

resident in London, and the third then in the colony, but on the point of quitting it) as a committee to conduct their case, and another committee was appointed in Berbice to open a correspondence with them. Shortly after this arrangement Lambert Blair proceeded to Europe furnished with proofs and other evidence of the justice of the common cause.

The colonists subsequently wished to publish their declaration in the local gazette, but the governor cautioned the printer, Mr. Douglas, against its admission. The declaration was printed notwithstanding on a separate piece of paper, which gave equal offence to the governor, who applied to the fiscal or law-officer to prosecute the parties concerned. This officer, however, viewed the subject in a different light, and, refusing to obey the order of the governor, actually resigned his office. After considerable delay and difficulty a lawyer from Demerara was prevailed upon by the governor to take up the matter, and with his assistance and counsel steps were adopted for the recovery of the disputed acre-money. A commissioned officer (Humbert) was ordered to summons the inhabitants alleged to be indebted in this tax to pay up forthwith, under penalty of "parate executie."

Among the persons thus summoned was L. Blair for arrears of about 60,000 guilders, in reference to possessions held on the east sea-coast of Berbice, although it was known, *ex officio*, by the governor, that this gentleman had made previous arrangements with the Batavian Government exonerating him from such payment.

The commissioned officer or receiver, finding an inferior officer, bailiff, or *deurwaerder*, willing to enter upon the obnoxious duty, appointed him to act. The inhabitants, thus pressed, presented another remonstrance, and resisted by all the means in their power. The governor, however, was determined to proceed to extremi-

ties, and authorised the bailiff to call in military aid in case of further opposition. This threat had the desired effect; bills of exchange were offered under protest by the defaulters, drawn to order of the Right Honourable Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, and handed over by the bailiff to the receiver-general.

While these disturbing incidents were agitating the colony of Berbice, the settlements of Demerara and Essequibo were conducted in a satisfactory and peaceable manner by Governor Beaujon, who unfortunately, however, died in October. Upon his death, the officer highest in command was Brigadier-General James Montgomery, who assumed the government, *ad interim*, on the 19th of October, and having assembled the Court of Policy, in conformity with a document found on the late governor's decease, entitled "Sketch of Instructions for Demerara and Essequibo," he addressed the members of the Court, and, lamenting his deficiency and want of experience, earnestly sought their counsel and advice. The Court of Policy offered to defray the burial expenses of the late governor, but this mark of respect was courteously declined by the widow of the departed chief. In the next year, 1806, several measures of public interest were enacted. A premium of one hundred guilders was offered for the capture of each runaway slave; and the same sum for "bush negroes." The sum of fifty guilders was offered for each right hand of such slaves, if not taken alive. At a sitting of the Court of Policy, on the 29th of April, in consequence of a petition of the inhabitants, a duty of two guilders per gallon was charged on rum imported, except that for the use of the garrison. A prohibition was enacted to export any colonial wood, except firewood, under a duty of thirty stivers for every cubic foot. A schooner (the *Jack*) and a brig (the *Demerara*) were purchased by the colony to pro-

tect its rivers and coasts. These vessels, with fitting-out and repairs, cost upwards of eighty thousand guilders.

On the 8th of May, 1806, H. W. Bentinck, Esquire, arrived in an English frigate. He was received at the governor's stelling by the officers, under a salute of the guns of the fort, and duly escorted to the Court of Policy, where Brigadier Montgomery, the acting governor, had vainly endeavoured to assemble an extraordinary meeting of its members on the occasion. Only two gentlemen attended, the others being absent in the country. The acting governor having thanked this scanty gathering for their assistance and counsel, introduced the new lieutenant-governor, who was formally sworn into office, a formal proclamation announcing his installation to the inhabitants.

The usual table-money, twenty-five thousand guilders, was accorded in the following session (28th of July), when his excellency communicated to the members of the Court a despatch, dated 26th of March, 1806, from his Majesty's principal Secretary of State, requiring an additional premium to be paid on British North America salted fish, and prohibiting the importation of fish from the United States.

A proclamation also appeared to dress the militia in uniform (red), in accordance with the views entertained by the late acting governor. An order was also passed to build a beacon on the east sea-coast, the cost of which was not to exceed twenty thousand guilders; and a tax on shipping, of six or ten stivers per ton, was raised for its support; as also a stipulated weight of sand or gravel for the use of the colony (say five tons of gravel for every fifty tons of shipping), except from vessels under one hundred tons. In default of payment of this latter tax, the sum of five guilders was to be paid for every ton of ballast due.

The great scarcity of silver coin this year led to an issue of paper-money, in forms called "goods," to the amount of twenty-three thousand guilders, in the following proportion:

4000	of one	guilder each
3000	" two	"
2000	" three	"
2000	" four	"
500	" ten	"
500	" fifteen	"
500	" twenty	"
200	" thirty	"
200	" forty	"
100	" fifty	"
50	" sixty	"
30	" seventy	"
20	" eighty	"
20	" ninety	"
20	" one hundred	"

These "goods" were to be signed in the name of the court by two, three, or four members, and countersigned by the colonial receiver in the following manner:

No. (L. S.) Guilders	_____	Stabroek.
Goods by the Colony of Essequibo and Demerara,		
_____ Guilders.		
Issued this	_____	by authority of Lieut.-Governor,
by Receiver	_____	and Court of Policy.
Signed by	_____	Members.

A petition from the inhabitants in Essequibo prayed the lieutenant-governor and Court of Policy to remove the present capital of that district to a more convenient site, and also to place buoys on the banks; which requests were subsequently taken into consideration.

The following taxes were also imposed this year. For each male and female working slave, three guilders. A tax of two per cent. on the revenue of each individual.

The members of the courts of justice, finding heavy

demands upon their time, applied to the Combined Court for some remuneration; but this was refused. On the application, however, of the fiscal, an exemption from the payment of colonial duties was allowed for one year, but subsequently, in 1808, the members were paid at the rate of forty guilders per sitting-day.

In March, 1807, Governor Bentinck read a letter to the Court of Policy which had been received by his predecessor, Governor Beaujon, and which was dated 25th January, 1804, from Lord Hobart, to the effect that, in future, British subjects should by preference be appointed to any situations which might become vacant. He also deemed it advisable to cause a new election of persons to fill the present college of electors, in consequence of some irregularities which had taken place in Essequibo. In the following month, April 27th, his excellency announced his intention of proceeding to England in consequence of ill health; the administration of the affairs of the colony to devolve on Brigadier-General James Montgomery, and the president of the courts of justice, V. A. Heyliger. Previous to his retirement, the governor read a despatch received from Mr. Windham, dated Downing-street, 9th March, 1807, calling attention to a bill then passing through Parliament relative to the abolition of the slave trade. This announcement took the members of the court completely by surprise, and caused them to break up with marked consternation. Yet they ought not to have been wholly unprepared for such a contingency, as in the previous year his excellency had proclaimed to an extraordinary meeting of the court, that he had received orders from England requiring correct returns of slaves to be sent in by colonists, with a view to regulate a limited importation. In default of such returns, a penalty of 500 guilders was incurred, half of which was to be paid to the governor's chest, and the other half to the fiscal.

On the 2nd May, 1807, acting Governor Montgomery was for the second time sworn into office, but did not long retain it; for on September the 14th he announced his intention of resigning in favour of Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholson, who, since the retirement of Governor Van Batenburg from the administration of Berbice in 1806, had presided as acting governor. The two military officers, in point of fact, exchanged situations, and Brigadier-General Montgomery, to the regret of the inhabitants of Essequibo and Demerara, proceeded to Berbice, which situation, I believe, he hoped to keep, as hitherto no civil governor had come from home since Governor Van Batenburg's retirement. Lieutenant-Colonel Nicholson was installed September the 14th.

During this year considerable distress was felt throughout the West Indies. In these colonies the inhabitants still suffered from attacks of pirates, and were obliged to call in the aid of an armed schooner, *The Affiance*, from Barbadoes.

Early in the year, March the 24th, 1808, the African slave trade was abolished, but slaves continued under certain restrictions and regulations to be imported into the colony, in limited numbers, from other sources for many years afterwards, or until 1823. This was the first serious blow aimed at the principle of slavery, and it is gratifying to record it as having marked at so early a date the administration of the English.

The year 1808 was also memorable for the introduction of a new social element, which was ordained to play an important part in the future condition of the colony—namely, the arrival of some missionaries from the London Missionary Society.

It is not intended in this place to enter largely into the consideration of the effects produced by the introduction of the missionaries, as the history of their labours will be traced in another part of this work in connexion

wounds of the bondsman should grasp in friendship that of the oppressor; or that the missionary, mixing freely with the slave, and entering into his views, in order to gain him over to the grand scheme of salvation, should at the same time assimilate himself to the lives, habits, and opinions of the slave-owners. We shall here dismiss the subject for the present. We shall hereafter see how this contest of antagonistic views ultimately developed itself.

In April, 1808, it was resolved by the Court of Policy that no petitions written in Dutch should be received, unless accompanied by an English translation, and also that all petitions were to be sent in to the secretary at least eight days before the meeting of the court. Certain rules and regulations were also drawn up for a house of correction or workhouse, for the confinement of convicts who had been sentenced by either of the courts of justice. A threatened conspiracy to revolt was reported to be existing on plantation Lusignan, on the east sea-coast; but it led to no results, except an expedition of the troops in that neighbourhood.

On the 24th of June, Lieutenant-Colonel Andrew Ross, of the 70th Regiment, in obedience to the command of General Bowyer, took over the civil administration of Essequibo and Demerara, and Acting-Governor Nicholson retired. The new acting-governor proved himself an able and active officer; but, in consequence of bad health, was soon obliged to resign his post. During his incumbency, a petition was drawn up by the inhabitants, praying his Majesty to prepare a new silver coin for the use of this colony. The coin in circulation for many years past had been rather limited, and the Portuguese gold coin "Johannes," called by the colonists a Joe, and of the value of eight dollars at that time, which was in general use, had been so adulterated by plugging with

copper and brass, as to have lost considerably its intrinsic value. About 5000*l.* worth were withdrawn from general circulation, and paper "goods," proclaimed to be legal tender, were issued instead. Subsequently the "Joe notes" were substituted. This new paper-money was issued to the amount of 50,000 joes, equal to 1,100,000 guilders, or, at the rate of exchange then current (two and a half guilders to the dollar), 440,000 dollars. The loss sustained by the colony from the plugged joes was calculated to amount to 10,000*l.*; but when these joes were withdrawn from circulation, the inhabitants did not suffer by the depreciation in their value, the paper joe, of the value of twenty-two guilders, being substituted for the gold coin.

The following is an estimate of the proposed new silver coin, petitioned for by the inhabitants, payment for which was to be made by bills of exchange:

£4000	in pieces of 3 guilders,	to weigh	15 pennyweights,	equal to	3 <i>s.</i> 9 <i>d.</i>
2000	" 2	" 10	"	2 6	
2000	" 1	" 5	"	1 3	
2000	" ½	" 2½	"	0 7½	

The governor, in his despatch to Lord Castlereagh, represented the justice of the petition, and stated that the then lowest coin was the Danish bit, composed of silver and copper, and equal to five stivers or four pence. The plugged joes, about 28,000 in number, were sent to England, along with the governor's despatch, and Mr. Baillie was appointed agent to conduct the monetary arrangements.

This gentleman invested the money in the funds, and the investment, though not specially pledged for that purpose, was regarded as a security for the ultimate redemption of the paper issue.

In the year 1809 a letter was received in which the failure of Messrs. Campbell, Harper, and Baillie was

announced, as well as the fact that the money of the colony entrusted to their charge (11,263*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*) had been appropriated by that firm to its own use. The trustees of this money were Messrs. Campbell, Baillie, and King. The Court of Policy refused to become creditors to the bankrupt estates, and applied to the trustees for payment.*

An annual sum of 2000*l.*, raised by a tax, continued till the year 1822 to be remitted to London, and, together with the accruing interest of the previous instalments, to be placed in the funds for the benefit of the colony. By the year 1822 the stocks thus held amounted to upwards of 150,000*l.*, and the amount of paper money had, by additional issues in 1815 and 1816, been increased to 75,807 joes. The further history of this paper money we shall give under the years 1824, 1825, and 1839.†

The Berbice paper money was much more ancient, and stood upon quite a different footing. It consisted at first of bills of exchange on the proprietors of the colony in Holland, drawn for their salaries by the colonial officers, and certified by the colonial authorities to be good. These bills passed from hand to hand as a circulating medium. Additional paper money was afterwards issued to meet the public exigencies by the colonial authorities, but no fund was provided for its redemption, nor was any such provision secured when, upon the cession of Berbice to the British, certain estates and other property were made over to the late proprietors.

At a meeting of the Combined Court during this year, 1809, it was resolved to redeem the issued colonial goods by tenders for bills of exchange instead of specie. The

* In 1820 the colony assumed the debt towards Messrs. Campbell, Harper, and Baillie, absolved Messrs. James Baillie and King, and appointed Messrs. Higgins, King, and M'Larel the new trustees.

† Minutes of Court of Policy, 1819.

at Berbice, a third at Demerara, and a fourth at the Orinoco ; while four armed cruisers or schooners were ordered to ply between these vessels, thus keeping up a constant inter-communication.

It now became more than ever necessary to protect the sugar-laden ships on their passage to Europe, and convoys had long been employed for that purpose. The time and place of rendezvous was in general some windward island in the West Indies, and all vessels desirous of joining were required to be ready at the place and time appointed ; but the inconvenience to these colonies was especially great, and a separate convoy was asked for.

On the retirement of Governor Ross from ill-health the Court of Policy agreed to present him with a sword of the value of 100*l*. A handsome letter accompanied this testimonial, complimenting him upon his zeal, talents, and love of order. Major-General Samuel Dalrymple was sworn into office as his successor on the 8th April, 1809 ; but on the 19th May, following, an extraordinary meeting of the Court of Policy was assembled to receive their former governor, H. W. Bentinck, Esq., who exhibited to the court his commission from his Majesty George the Third, dated 30th January, 1809. A proclamation was issued on the 22nd June, announcing to the inhabitants the renewal of his administration.

In the year 1810 a successful expedition was conducted by Mr. Edmonstone and the Bucks against the Maroons or bush negroes. On the first arrival of the British, in 1796, several military excursions of Dutch troops and others had been attempted with a similar object, but had entirely failed ; and in the appointment of Lieutenant-Colonel Hislop a general amnesty was proclaimed for three months, copies of which were sent in a block-tin box to the Maroons, who, in 1795, had

thrown the colony into considerable peril. The expenses of the late bush expeditions were very heavy, and in October of this year a deputation proceeded to Berbice to arrange with the Court of Policy respecting the amount severally to be paid by each settlement, and the sum of 100,000 guilders was agreed upon, one-third of which was to be paid by Berbice, and the other two-thirds by Essequibo and Demerara.* This arrangement became subsequently the subject of serious disputes between Demerara and Berbice, the latter colony repudiating the demand made upon it.

About this period a conference was held between the governor and the Court of Policy and an Indian chief named Manariwau, who was reputed to possess considerable power and authority among the Caribs. The object of this conference was a request on the part of this chief, that the members of the court would purchase certain prisoners in his possession, as well as others which he might obtain. To this the court objected, but promised, that whenever such prisoners should be handed over to the colony, annual presents should be forwarded to himself and his tribe. These prisoners were for the most part runaway slaves and bush negroes. A treaty upon this basis was accordingly entered into between the whites and the King of the Caribs. A few years afterwards, however, when the Indians came to Governor Carmichael for their presents, they were refused on the ground that such presents could not be claimed as a right, but only as a gift, or boon. The cost of the presents (which may have been the reason for refusing them) is stated to have amounted to the sum of 2000*l.* per annum.

An important meeting of the Combined Court was held on the 4th of December, 1810, when a memorial or

* Minutes of Court of Policy, 1801.

address was read by the financial representatives, to the following effect:

They demanded to ascertain the exact nature and duties of the financial representatives, and stated that several such requests had formerly been made by them without receiving any satisfactory answer. Neither was the origin of this body known, although constituted within the memory of some of their members. They were told that they had been appointed by a resolution of the Court of Policy, subsequent to the capture of the colony in 1796; but from what they could learn, it would appear only that the court had sanctioned the election of six financial representatives instead of four keizers, who formerly, with the members or counsellors of the Court of Policy, constituted the Combined Court; but this only proves that the court had originated such a change; neither could they have legally changed the existing constitution without the sanction of a higher authority. But that some such sanction was given by the Government of Holland, is rendered probable from various communications contained in a memorial presented to General Whyte, on the surrender of the colony in 1796. By this memorial, which they concluded to be authentic, it appeared that the insufficient representation of the inhabitants of these colonies had been complained of at a very early period, and that representations to this effect had been made to the authorities previous to the appointment of Baron Van Grovenstein in 1793, and which representations were attended to; for, in the 19th and 39th articles of his instructions from the Colonial Board, allusions were found to this subject; so that having communicated the nature of these instructions to the members of the Court of Policy, it was agreed to summon the four keizers (two from Essequibo and two from Deme-

rara) who, with the Court of Policy, were to constitute a combined court, in order to deliberate on the best mode of *raising* the necessary taxes; but it appeared that, during Baron Grovenstein's administration, this contemplated arrangement was never effected; and that it was not until after his departure from the colony, and during the serious disturbances consequent thereon in 1795, the provisional acting governors (consisting of two members of the Court of Policy, in rotation, who acted jointly for eight days) summoned the four keizers to deliberate *not only on raising the taxes*, but actually, conjointly with the four counsellors of the Court of Policy, to deliberate and vote on the disbursements of the expenses; which act evidently accorded with the spirit of several other despatches received from Holland on this subject. But it appeared afterwards, that the keizers were deemed improper representatives for the purposes of taxation, &c., inasmuch as they held their seats for life; hence it was considered preferable to substitute other persons called financial representatives, who, elected by the keizers, were to continue in office for two years only. It was presumed, however, that on such appointments taking place, the same powers which had been conferred on the keizers would descend to the financial representatives; and that these latter were, therefore, not intended to deliberate only on the best mode of raising the taxes, but also to assist in the expenditure of the public money, and to be consulted in all cases involving the outlay of the colonial cash. The financial representatives therefore considered that, unless such were at present the powers invested in them, their sitting with the honourable court once a year for any other purpose could be of no possible use to their constituents. Strongly impressed with these sentiments, the financial representatives requested the Court of Policy to state what they considered to be their views on the duties and powers of the former, boldly de-

claring at the same time, that in the event of their not being admitted to the exercise of what they deemed their rights and privileges, they must decline (however reluctant they might feel to impede the public business of the colony) taking any part in the laying on of taxes, over the expenditure of which they had no control.

(Signed) JOHN JUSTUS DELGES,
JOHN WILSON,
RICHARD NUGENT,
THOMAS MEWBURN,
EDWARD BISHOP,
JAMES RUTHERFORD.

On the discussion arising out of this able document, the justice of the remarks was admitted, but it was deemed contrary to the then existing constitution to grant to the financial representatives the exercise of the powers claimed; they were requested, however, to draw up a memorial embodying such measures as they considered most advisable, which, after being submitted to the Court of Policy, would be forwarded to H.M. Government. Moreover, it was resolved that should any necessity arise in the mean time for incurring an extra expenditure, and should the subject permit of the necessary delay requisite to convene a combined court, the financial representatives were to be consulted on the expediency thereof.

The financial representatives lost no time in preparing their memorial, which was submitted to the Court of Policy two days after, viz., on the 6th December; but at a subsequent meeting in the following year, on inquiring into the fate of this document, they learnt, to their astonishment, that it had never been sent to England, a majority of the court not deeming it sufficiently supported by the public. The indignation of the financial representatives was excessive on being made aware of this circum-

stance. They declared that they would no longer act, and refused to vote the supplies, but Governor Bentinck was equally firm, and threatened, in case they persisted in their determination, to arrest the refractory members, and ship them to Europe in a gun-brig. This menace had the desired effect, and things went on again as usual.

The following taxes were for the present proposed :

Sugar (Dutch weight per 100 lbs.)	. . .	2 stivers.
Rum (for every 100 gallons.)	. . .	12 "
Coffee (for every 100 lbs.)	. . .	5 "
Cotton (for every 100 lbs.)	. . .	9 "

These taxes were estimated to yield the following amount :

		guilders.
18,000 hhds. sugar	21,600
8,000 puncheons rum	5,280
2,000 " molasses	1,000
12 million lbs. coffee	30,000
10 " " cotton	45,000
		<hr/>
		102,880

This produce tax was raised in order to cover the expenses of the late expedition against the bush negroes.

The other taxes on slaves, wines, incomes, hucksters, transient traders (raised from 2½ to 4 per cent.), on horses, carriages, &c., to continue as before.

The sum of 300 guineas was also appropriated for the purchase of plate to be presented to Mr. Baillie for his diligent services in the affairs of the colony.

The police regulations were altered and amended. An inspector-general, with a salary of four thousand guilders per annum, was appointed for the town, together with two assistants, subject, however, to two commissioners to be appointed by the court. Mr. Van der Welden held the first office. Subsequently, or in 1812, a Board of Police was appointed by the governor and the Court of Policy for the management of Georgetown.

In the early part of the year 1811 circulars were sent round to several of the British governors in the West

Indies, and, among others, to Governor Bentinck, requiring him to forward to England a report on the condition of the colony, on the number of slaves, and their location; on the number of clergy, including an account of the missionary and other preachers throughout the country; to send also returns of convictions and punishments awarded to the slaves, as well as a statement of such acts and laws as had been passed by the Court of Policy of late.

In consequence of the representations made to him, and perhaps for other reasons, Governor Bentinck issued a proclamation on the 25th May prohibiting the negroes from attending places of public divine worship in the unrestricted manner at that time in practice. This measure of course occasioned much dissatisfaction, and complaints having been forwarded to England, the governor was directed to recal the proclamation, and advised to have all chapels and places of divine worship forthwith registered.

About the same time, the governor and the fiscal, Van Berchel, had, unfortunately, some very unpleasant misunderstandings, and the former having suspended the fiscal for disrespectful language and dishonest practises, was directed by the Secretary of State, Lord Liverpool, to appoint a court of inquiry to investigate Mr. Van Berchel's conduct, and to report their decision to England. On the receipt of this despatch, the governor wished to nominate a court formed of members of the Court of Policy, but Mr. Van Berchel objected, on legal grounds, and maintained that a court competent to decide on such matters could only be composed of members selected from the Court of Justice.

At the commencement of the year 1812, Governor Bentinck having neglected to recal the proclamation of the 25th May last as directed, was superseded in the government of the colony, and by a despatch dated 25th

February, Major-General Carmichael was appointed to act as lieutenant-governor until his successor should arrive from England. At the same time, the ex-Governor Bentinck was ordered to return to England to give an account of his administration; but having, after consultation with the Court of Policy in the interim, written to the Secretary of State, assigning the reasons which induced him to delay or modify the withdrawal of the proclamation of the 25th May, the Home Government appear to have been so well satisfied with his explanation, that the recal of the proclamation was subsequently countermanded, if it had not already taken place, by a despatch to Governor Carmichael; and in about two years afterwards Mr. Bentinck was nominated governor of Berbice. On quitting Demerara, an address was presented to him by the inhabitants, but its publication was prohibited by Governor Carmichael, who considered its language offensive to the Home Government.

In the course of this year the Courts of Justice were remodelled after the following manner:

1st. The Courts of Justice of Demerara and Essequibo were united into one, to be held at the former place.

2nd. The office of president of the Court of Justice was made separate from that of the governor.

3rd. The English language was substituted for the Dutch in legal pleadings, &c.

The first president appointed was Thomas Franckland, Esq. His salary was fixed at 30,000 guilders, half to be paid from the Sovereign's chest, and the other half from the colonial chest.

In consequence of the abolition of so many offices, and the reduction of establishments in Essequibo, a saving was effected to the colony of 100,000 guilders annually in the way of salaries. There were about 18,000 slaves in Essequibo at this period.

The districts of Demerara and Essequibo were united on the 28th April of this year. Their formerly separate institutions were consolidated, and the name of the former capital of Demerara, Stabroek, was changed to Georgetown. But while the bonds of union between these two settlements were drawn closer, a serious quarrel existed with Berbice, the cause of which arose about the payment of the expenses incurred in the bush expedition of 1810, already alluded to. It appears that some of the inhabitants of Berbice refused their proportion of the money, which so exasperated the Demerarians, that a proclamation of one of the courts was issued, declaring that such Berbiceans should be exiled from Demerara. This order was, however, suspended by Governor Carmichael, who did everything in his power to reconcile the differences which unhappily existed. The matter was subsequently referred to the British Government, and the governor gave full explanations about it in his despatches to London.

The vessels of war formerly stationed off the rivers and coasts to protect these settlements having been withdrawn, the colonies of Demerara and Berbice were blockaded by American privateers, who captured several vessels laden with sugar. But they were finally attacked and chased away by colonial ships, voluntarily armed and equipped, a body of the militia having embarked as marines.

The sentence of the Court of Justice on Mr. Van Berchel was transmitted to the Secretary of State. He was honourably acquitted, and Mr. Paddevort, who had been appointed in his place by Governor Bentinck, was deprived of office. Under this new appointment the fiscal, instead of being paid by fees, &c., as formerly, was to receive an annual salary of 27,000 guilders. Mr. A. M. Meertens was also nominated first *exploiteur*, or mar-

shal. Governor Carmichael at the same time forwarded an application to England respecting the amount of salary he was to receive, and was informed that he was only entitled to 12,000 guilders, being half the amount respectively paid to the former governors, Beaujon and Bentinck.

The Imperial Government being at this period at war with the United States of America, it was decreed that any coin or bullion seized in American vessels should be delivered over to the senior officer of the commissariat department, who was empowered to draw or deposit bills on the Lords of the Treasury for the amount.

Governor Carmichael in the course of this year issued a proclamation on his own authority abolishing the existence of the College of Financial Representatives, and constituting the College of Keizers to act in that capacity. He also extended the right of suffrage to all persons paying an income-tax on 10,000 guilders, or who had twenty-five slaves in possession. The incorporation, however, of the two colleges, or the combination of their originally distinct functions into one, was not approved of in England; nevertheless, the governor received no order to repeal it, but in a despatch dated 25th November, 1812, he was censured for exercising such a stretch of authority, and was ordered not to attempt such innovations in future without the sanction and authority of the British Government. This censure was in some degree qualified by a complimentary recognition of the manner in which he had suppressed a feeling of insubordination which at the instigation of some white persons had lately displayed itself in the colony, and expressions of approbation were bestowed upon him for the system he had adopted for the protection of the colony against any attack on the part of the Americans.

In the same year that Governor Carmichael, having

other was
ground

constituted the College of Keizers the Financial Representatives of the colony, he granted permission to the Combined Court to vote on the items in the estimate. This was done without the sanction or even the knowledge of the Home Government, and was opposed to the previous law and practice (see ordinance constituting the Financial Representatives, passed by Antony Beaujon and Court of Policy, 1796).* In subsequent years this privilege became a subject of discord between the members of the Combined Court and the Crown; for upon the fact being communicated to the authorities in England, measures were taken by the Crown to restrict the Combined Court to its original and legitimate functions. As a matter of course this restriction was resisted by the elective members, who refused, rather than give up the point, to exercise any functions at all. After the separation of the College of Keizers from the Financial Representatives in 1831, the latter body was confined to its former duties as established by ordinance. This controversy was eventually the cause of an important change in the system of government, leading ultimately to the formation of the first civil list, established on the 1st January, 1836, to continue in force until the 31st December, 1840.

Major-General Carmichael having died of locked jaw (tetanus) on the 11th May, 1813, he was succeeded by Brigadier-General Murray, who arrived from Berbice on the 17th May, where he had lately officiated as acting lieutenant-governor in the absence of Robert Gordon, Esq.

He was received by Lieutenant-Colonel Edward Codd, who had acted as the officer administering the government from the 12th May to the 17th, when he handed

* Local Guide, page 10.

over his authority to his superior officer. Governor Murray had apparently given satisfaction during his administration of the government of Berbice, at least to the colonists, for on his retirement they presented him with a complimentary address and a handsome sword.

Immediately after his arrival at Demerara he addressed a letter, dated 24th May, 1813, to Earl Bathurst, in which he represented the colony as being in a very disturbed and agitated state, owing to the existence of several factions, which were at variance with each other; he further threw out insinuations against the conduct of the late governor, whom he represented as reserved and haughty in his manner towards his subordinate officers, not acquainting any one (not even his secretary) with the nature of the despatches received from or forwarded to England. This inculpatory despatch closed with an expression of regret that the slovenly and imperfect manner in which the official papers had been kept would prevent him from becoming acquainted at present with the views or orders of the Home Government.* In another despatch, dated the 22nd June, he alluded to the great resources of the colony, especially to the importance of its furniture woods and timber-trees, and promised to forward specimens to England as early as possible.

The salary of the previous governor had been 4000*l.* per annum, but in August, 1813, a despatch was received from Earl Bathurst, in which the salary of the governor of Demerara and Essequibo was fixed at 5000*l.* sterling, half to be paid out of the King's chest and the remainder from the colonial treasury. This sum was given in lieu of all fees and allowances, and it was expressly enjoined on the governor that he was not to accept any additional

* See Letter-book containing the governor's despatches.

grants or allowances which might be offered by the colony.

On the 24th August, Governor Murray announced to the Court of Policy that he had been appointed to Berbice, and having retired, Colonel Codd was sworn in as acting governor, and continued to administer the ordinary business of the colony until the 9th of December, when Brigadier-General Murray returned from Berbice, and exhibited to the Court of Policy his commission as Lieutenant-Governor of Demerara and Essequibo.

His efforts to obtain so rich an appointment in lieu of the comparatively insignificant one in point of pay of a brigadier-general were at length successful, and he was duly installed in his easy and lucrative office. His efforts to please were incessant, and he lost no opportunity of ingratiating himself in the good opinions both of the colonists and the Home Government. His administration continued without interruption until the 26th July, 1815, when, at an extraordinary meeting of the Court of Policy, the lieutenant-governor informed the members that, in consequence of orders received from England to proceed to another part of the West Indies on official business, he would be obliged to leave the colony for a short time, during which period the administration of the government would be confided to the senior military officer, Lieutenant-Colonel Codd, who was introduced to the court, and took the usual oath of office.

This gentleman continued his services as acting lieutenant-governor until the 3rd October, when Brigadier-General Murray returned and resumed his duties.

Among the numerous parties emigrating from Europe to this colony a large proportion was from Scotland, for the most part of humble extraction, uneducated, and glad to accept of any opening that presented itself; they exemplified the well-known caution and parsimony of their

face, and, from the humblest, gradually rose to fill some of the highest situations. Possessing in a marked manner the shrewdness and tact necessary to personal aggrandisement, they may, as a class, be considered to have been the most successful of all the settlers in the country; and it is only where by mixture and association that their character became somewhat modified or deteriorated, that they failed in any instance. Singularly enough, however, there is perhaps no class of European emigrants that has undergone such changes in their natural habits. The reserve, the temperance, the zeal for religion which characterised them in their own country, became gradually obliterated in their translation to this colony. They still associated together, and sustained each other in the true spirit of nationality, carrying this principle of cohesion indeed so far that the shrewd negroes applied the term of Scotchmen to the large shrimps which they were in the habit of hawking about for sale, because of the habits of these creatures in clinging one to the other. But, separated from the austere influence of domestic examples at home, and cast into a community very differently organised, they plunged as readily as others into the vortex of dissipation. In reference to a great many, it may be observed, that much of this change was owing to the fact of their being introduced on their arrival to a footing in society, and to a mode of living to which they had been previously strangers in "Auld Reekie." Mingling in more pretending and extravagant circles, and living in a style superior to that in which they had been brought up, they soon came to lose that simplicity and sobriety of character which, as a nation, they have so meritoriously maintained. They have been more successful in business notwithstanding than most of the other settlers from England or Ireland, but they have also encountered greater reverses, and, although forming a

majority of the white population, they have failed to impart their nationality to the colony.

In reference to the Scotch, it may not be out of place here to allude to an event which occurred about this period, and which at once illustrates the characteristic recklessness of the Gaelic race, and the abnormal condition of the society in which they now occupied so prominent a position.

When Herr Van Berchel was fiscaal of Demerara and Essequibo, he had occasion to prosecute some gentlemen from Berbice for illegal conduct; they failed to answer the summons for their appearance before the Court of Justice, and sentence of outlawry was pronounced against them. Determined to be revenged, several of these gentlemen (for such was their position in life) actually concocted a conspiracy to proceed to Georgetown and to cut off the ears and nose of the unfortunate fiscaal. The plan was deeply laid, and very nearly succeeded. The conspirators, chiefly from Berbice, arrived in the river at night, and when everything was quiet, proceeded to the residence of their victim, who, with his family and servants, were asleep. The noise they made on entering the house fortunately awoke the inmates. The fiscaal, apprised of his danger, got out of his chamber, and when the conspirators entered his bed-room, they encountered only his wife. The lady was an excellent linguist, and understanding the language they spoke, listened in terror and astonishment to their words, but still, by the force of her presence of mind, preserved an appearance of composure. It is asserted by some, that the lady being of rather a masculine appearance, was at first taken for her husband, and rather rudely handled. They soon discovered their mistake, however, and finding that their prey had escaped, they were about to search the house, where they would assuredly have found their victim, who had

merely crept out of sight into a lobby, when the sound of a gun was heard. Supposing it for the morning gun, while, in fact, it proved to be the signal of the arrival of the monthly sailing-packet, they were seized with consternation, and fled. An alarm was immediately given by the servants to the military guard, for there were no police at this period; but no attempt was made to arrest the flight of the delinquents, for, as it afterwards appeared, the officer in command was a Scotchman, and evidently aware of the plot. The conspirators were thus allowed to make good their retreat; and, although a reward of 500*l.* was offered for their discovery, and other efforts were made to trace them, they found means to evade the ends of justice. The incident made a great sensation at the time, and shows us clearly the lawless state of things that prevailed at that period.

Among other advantages which the advent of the British brought to the colony, must be particularly mentioned the introduction of an increased number of European women. The Dutch had to encounter too many difficulties and dangers on their first arrival, to think of holding out any inducement to the female members of their families to join them in their new abodes. The inevitable consequence was the formation of illicit connexions between the settlers and the native and slave women, which led to a most anomalous and depraved state of society, and which was destined to entail much subsequent discontent on the social community. If, as Lord Bacon has it in his profound essays, "wives are young men's mistresses, companions for middle age, and old men's nurses," it must be apparent, that to seek such ties among the rude natives, or the uncivilised African slaves, was only to involve the children of such unions in degradation and misery. The Dutch, probably, had heard of the saying of one of the ancients, who, when

asked at what time a man should marry, replied, "A young man not yet, an older man not at all;" but it was perhaps as much from necessity as choice that coloured and black women became the mistresses of most of the old colonists, and many curious anecdotes are related of the companionships thus formed between them.

The arrival of European females was calculated to produce a gradual revolution in the tastes and habits of the community. It could not, however, be expected that the individual bred up in the coarser idea of a planter's life, could all at once burst the fetters that had bound him in his "family ties," or hail with the most refined emotions the approach of female purity. In-veterate habit, too, was not without some influence, and many of the colonists had become so much accustomed to the coarseness with which they had allied themselves, as to have lost their zest for more refined associations. The change, therefore, although sure and decisive in the end, was slow and gradual in its progress. By degrees, the open exhibition of vice was abandoned; a certain sort of sense of shame set in; the practice of pampering the passions of visitors and guests, which had been esteemed as one of the obligations of hospitality, fell into disuse; while the younger branches of the community, having now an opportunity of mixing in a society where their ideas and tastes would be improved and elevated, exhibited a desire to cultivate a species of domestic happiness unknown to their predecessors. The ceremony and condition of marriage began to exercise a salutary influence even over the lower classes, who, with their usual tendency to imitate the example of their superiors, soon fell into the new modes of civilised life, although at first they neither appreciated nor understood them. But that which was in the beginning mere imitation settled down at last into custom.

The introduction of white women, however, was not unaccompanied by some drawbacks. Their moral influence was obvious and considerable; but it brought the usual accessories of high civilisation in its train—jealousy, envy, and class prejudices. So soon as a distinct circle of white acquaintances was complete, it became an object with many amongst the coloured population to associate themselves with it; but, alas! for the imperfection of poor human nature! such an intercourse was found to be impracticable. “Chaste women” (says Bacon) “are often proud and forward, as presuming upon the merits of their chastity;” and gentle and virtuous as was the European female, she was yet tinged with prudery or vanity too deep to allow of her mixing with a colour and a class to which she considered herself superior. It is difficult to analyse the feelings which prompted this exclusive conduct. A variety of circumstances tended to keep alive such sentiments. A virtuous woman was certainly not to be blamed for refusing to associate with the lost or degraded of her sex; who would censure her for endeavouring to avoid as much as possible such contamination? or for showing her repugnance to such intercourse if accident happened to throw it in her way? No doubt there was much pride, contempt, and rudeness exhibited in the bearing of the superior towards the inferior; but how otherwise, in such a state of society, was bold-faced assumption or impudent intrusion to be met, especially when it appeared, as it frequently did, that the two parties were nearly on an equality in wealth and station? On the one hand there was purity of conduct with offended vanity; superiority of education with narrowness of mind; refinement of manners with bigotry and prudery. On the other there was licentious conduct with exalted

connexion; deficient knowledge with acquired manners; coarseness of conduct with worldly ambition. At first these antagonist elements of society were not brought much in contact, and in after times many of the points of their relative position were changed; but the feelings of jealousy still rankled in the heart. Although an improved education and more refined manners insensibly elevated the younger coloured females, it did not entitle them to the position in society they coveted, and were so often unjustly denied. The same prejudice as to colour also influenced the men, but never to the same degree, and in later times more stirring occupations and the necessity for closer intimacy in business dissipated all feelings of distinction.

The question of colour has been too much mixed up with that of class. In the early social state men were necessarily divided, as they are now, by their avocations and pursuits. It is no matter of surprise that, at first, the higher classes should be startled to see some of the members from the lower order raised, either by connexion or wealth, to a level with themselves; and the earlier the period at which this elevation took place, the greater the surprise and the more bitter the resistance. At length, however, it became apparent that the circumstances of society were undergoing an organic alteration, that whilst one class was sinking the other was rising, and that the time would come when they must meet. If the junction was more rapid than had been expected, or the collision was too sudden, it certainly did not tend to cast them apart again, or to fling them back to their original position. The contact caused each at first to recoil, but moral laws and adventitious circumstances again brought them together. Whilst, therefore, it seems hard to taunt the whites with unnecessary prudery and

pride in their communion with those of another class, it is also wrong to ascribe to the coloured race an unfitness, either by nature or education, to rank with the white.

Longe mihi alia mens est.

The superiority in intelligence, morality, and social position long remained with the white, and the prejudice against colour was chiefly removed by their own exertions. Many young men and women of colour were sent to Europe, and brought back again with an excellent education and polished manners, in the hope of meeting the reception to which their respectability entitled them. Their expectations were frequently frustrated, and disappointment and mortification were the only results of the effort to improve their condition. They found to their dismay that, in spite of high connexions, and the refinements they had acquired, they were still excluded from what was considered the "first society," and thus doomed to solitary seclusion, or to descend to inferior intercourse; it is not to be marvelled at that they should lose all the advantages they had gained, and relapse into their former degradation. Surrounded by temptations of all kinds, exposed to profligacy and to dissipation, they fell from their high vantage ground into the lowest and most immoral habits. Nor was this all. The very persons who had driven them into this condition were amongst the very first to reproach them with its consequences. There was nothing left to the coloured race but to vindicate their natural claims by the maintenance of their own self-respect in the observance of irreproachable morality in their conduct. And it is greatly to their honour that they lived down the obloquy and contempt which, in this period of transition, was so unworthily heaped upon them. Many instances occurred in which persons of colour of both sexes, by the mere weight and

force of their exemplary lives, intermarried with some of the most respectable inhabitants of British Guiana. The question of colour was not always to operate as a social ban.

*Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tu candidus esses,
O, formosus puer! niniura ne crede colori;
Alba ligustra cadunt, Vaccinia nigra leguntur.*

A new element sprang out of these unions. The children, born of parents who were themselves born in the colony, received the name of "creoles," and the term is applied indiscriminately to all children, whether white, coloured, or black. Europeans are apt to attach the idea of some particular colour to the word "creole." This is a vulgar error. The word creole (Spanish, criollo) is derived from the verb "criar," which, both in Spanish and Portuguese, signifies to breed, to create, or to produce; and is applied to native Americans, or, indeed, West Indians descended from "Old World" parents. In Portuguese especially, a creole is understood to be "Pessoa nascida nas Indias occidentaes"—a person born in the Western Indias, although singularly enough the Portuguese word "criola," is often Englishified—a home-born slave.*

The creole of European extraction is a compound of the nation of his parents, modified greatly by the climate in which he is born, and the habits of life in which he is educated. The intelligence he derives from his parents is quickened by local circumstances, and brought to maturity at an earlier period of life than in other countries. From his childhood he is accustomed to see himself surrounded by dependents or flatterers, with few persons to restrict his inclinations or to correct his judgment. Left to himself, without much stimulus to exertion, he wastes

* The following remarks are intended chiefly to apply to the creoles in times of slavery. It is to be hoped that the creoles of the present day have more rational views.

his energy in frivolous pursuits or empty pleasures, often approaching to dissipation. Under the impression that he is exclusive lord of the soil to which he is born, he awaits the approach of fortune without making any efforts to seek it. If sent to Europe to study at an early age, he is often placed with those who have not the same means at command; and whilst the European child feels he has to work for the future, the creole fancies he has nothing to do but to enjoy the pleasures of the world. Bearing with him from his native country the listlessness, languor, and indolence of his temperament, he never rouses himself sufficiently to compete with more energetic dispositions; hence he is invariably outstripped in the race of life. Estranged from his parents' fostering care at an early age, he becomes forgetful or heedless of their love. The master of an ideal universe, he lives and dwells upon the fantastical creations of his brain rather than encounter the stern realities of existence. His heart is cold toward his kindred, for he has been long separated from them; his patriotism is languid, because his native land equals not in splendour and luxury the nations he has visited; generous to a fault, he is unjust to himself; eager in temperament, he is incapable of exertion; impetuous in his impulses, he is deficient in perseverance; quick of intelligence, he is slow in judgment and reasoning; not wanting physical capability, he is lazy in mental and bodily applications; humble in pretension, he is proud in spirit. "Every indolent nation (says the author of the 'Esprit des Lois') is haughty, for those who do not work themselves consider themselves as the sovereign of those who are laborious." This philippic was applied to the Spaniards, but is not inapplicable to the creoles; their abilities qualify them for distinction, but their indolence prevents them from obtaining it; and when called back to his own country,

after an experience of European life, he becomes indifferent, supercilious, and extravagant, and has neither the will nor the energy to avert present evil or to secure future good.

The creoles, as a class, have done little towards changing in any way the social or moral condition of the colony. It is a remarkable fact that all the revolutions in taste and habits, in the moral as well as the intellectual circle, have been introduced by strangers from other countries. So far the mixture of races has effected some good; prejudices have worn off by mutual contact, and corresponding benefits have flowed in upon all classes.

CHAPTER X.

"THE GOLDEN AGE" OF THE COLONY—PROSPERITY OF PLANTERS—CONSIDERATIONS ON NEGRO SLAVERY—MORAL WANTS—WORKING OF MISSIONARIES, AND THE EFFECT ON THE SLAVES—FINAL ABOLITION OF SLAVE TRADE, 1814—FORMAL CESSION OF THESE COLONIES TO GREAT BRITAIN, 1814—SLAVE REGISTRATION ACT, 1816—DECLINE OF COTTON ESTATES—LIFE OF AN OVERSEER—MILITIA FORCE—ARRIVAL OF PRESIDENT ROUGH—UNJUST MONOPOLY OF OFFICES—DISPUTES ABOUT THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE—SUSPENSION OF PRESIDENT ROUGH—ARRIVAL OF PRESIDENT WRAY, 1821—FEELINGS OF SLAVES ABOUT FREEDOM—MR. CANNING'S ACT, 1823; ITS EFFECT ON THE SLAVES—MISSIONARY SMITH—SECRET MEETINGS OF SLAVES—INSURRECTION, 1823—PLOT DISCLOSED—MEASURES TO SUPPRESS IT—PROCLAMATION OF MARTIAL LAW—ARMING OF THE SLAVES—ENCOUNTER WITH THE MILITARY—SUPPRESSION OF THE INSURRECTION—GENERAL COURT-MARTIAL; TRIAL, SENTENCE, AND EXECUTION OF THE PRISONERS—COURT-MARTIAL ON MISSIONARY SMITH; HIS CONDEMNATION AND DEATH—REFLECTIONS SUGGESTED BY THESE EVENTS.

THE influx of European settlers, and the occasional importation of African labourers, together with the introduction of British capital and improved machinery in the working of estates, soon led to great improvements. If we consider the wealth which could at this period be readily amassed (the amount of capital invested in the cultivation of cotton, coffee, and sugar, being commonly doubled in ten years, and often in five), the luxuries, and high style of living among the planters, the gaieties of the higher classes, and the contentment and general well-doing of the lower, this era may be regarded as the

commencement of the golden age of the colony, which, whilst it was to last for some years, eventually led to a great revolution in manners, sentiments, and position. But whilst the horn of plenty was full, whilst the heart was satisfied with its present gratification, those very steps were commenced which afterwards led to misfortune. The mind, slumbering in its dream of happiness, was not fortifying itself against those revolutions which time was sure to bring. The lull of security concealed a new and unexpected danger.

Tired, perhaps, of the monotony of acquiring wealth on such easy terms, the proprietors of estates now for the first time betrayed a desire to launch into a wider sphere; and, leaving their properties in the hands of agents, many of them retired from colonial life to live in European circles, and vie with the aristocracy of England. The agents or attorneys, also called Q. Q.'s, upon whom the management of their properties devolved, were allowed liberal salaries to superintend the working of the several plantations, and to forward the produce to their employers, or to the merchants in England. This was a proceeding fraught with indefinite evil. It was reasonable that large capitalists, mercantile houses, or companies, investing money in West India property, should have their agents on the spot to negotiate their business. It was also excusable that parties who had already acquired immense wealth, and who really were unable to spend their incomes in such a limited community, should return to their native shores; but the fascinating example was followed by numbers whose positions in life were not so independent, and who, by establishing a system of living far beyond what was warranted either by present prosperity or future prospects, soon laid the foundation of inevitable ruin to themselves and families. The principle of absenteeism, so injurious

to most countries, was practised on a small scale in the West, and involved the owners of property in all the horrors of debt, mortgages, law-suits, and poverty.

The colonist rejected the name of settler; he aspired to the title of proprietor; the profitable revenue of his estate was calculated by him to last for a life of luxury and splendour in Europe, and to be transmitted in perpetuity to his children unchanged and unimpaired. It is true that the remarkable changes of the future could not then have been predicted; but the discussion of questions of vital importance to the West Indies had already begun; and, although the change was far off, it might even then have been anticipated.

Moreover, the mind of the slave was undergoing gradual alteration; his condition, looked upon in a physical sense, was far from bad; nay, it was enviable compared with that of the peasant in many countries. In health he had food, raiment, protection from the weather, with days of relaxation and amusement. In illness he was tended with care and kindness. Old age was not dreaded, but awaited without anxiety; when unable any longer to work, he was humanely provided for, and he quitted his earthly career full of years, and without one care in his heart concerning those he left behind. The following is a testimonial in favour of their condition by a visitor to that country about this period:—"As we passed up the river (the Demerara), we landed at several of the small plantations, and purchased plantains. The people were cheerful and happy. In my opinion they had good cause; for they were, indeed, the children of ease and plenty."

Again, another writer of a later date, speaking of their general condition, stated:—"They have comfortable houses, raise as much feathered stock as they like, have their nets to catch fish, and as much ground as they choose to till; they have also often a day, or half a day,

given them to cultivate yams, cassava, arrowroot, &c., for their own use and disposal, besides their allowance of food weekly.

“The working people are not generally sent to work till half-past six in the morning, in which case they get their breakfast before they go, and come home at twelve. After remaining an hour and a half they go out again, and come home in the evening about six o'clock. Sometimes they go out earlier, and have more time in the middle of the day: in the time of crop the most able people are divided into spells to do the work about the buildings, in order that it may not come to their turns more than twice or thrice a week; nightwork is as much avoided as possible, and the women favoured in every way, particularly those with children. I have always thought, and still do think, that the negroes are far better off than our labouring class at home, as they are provided for in every way as long as they live; they are never prevented from going to see their friends from one estate to another on Sundays, or during the week after work is done. Every working negro receives 2 lbs. of good salt fish, the head persons 4 lbs., and the children 1 lb. a week; when this cannot be obtained, pork, beef, herrings, or other things in proportion. Upon those estates where there were plantains the proprietors have generally allowed them to use as many as they require, and where they would not grow in sufficient quantity, they have been purchased, as they prefer them to any other vegetable: the head people got two glasses of rum a day, and the rest of the gang generally one, and in bad weather, in crop time, sometimes two. Salt, pipes, tobacco occasionally, and extra allowances at the holidays, namely, at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. On these occasions they amuse themselves in any way they like without restraint. The working people get a complete suit of clothes annually, and double

allowance to the head men. Linen, checks, osnaburgs, salem pores, needles and thread to the whole, with a blanket to each every second year, and occasionally knives, razors, scissors, looking-glasses, iron pots and fish-hooks to the grown people.

“The quantity of labour required from one able man on a sugar estate is to hole or bank for canes across from forty to forty-five roods, to weed canes about one-sixth of an acre; in digging out drains in canes, coffee, and cotton about twenty-five roods, say two feet wide, and one shovel deep; new navigable or draining trenches a rood square of about two feet depth; in digging old ones it is regulated by the state they are in. Weeding coffee one-eighth of an acre, and cotton about the same. Weeding plantains one quarter of an acre, but it depends upon the heaviness of the grass; in fact, these things are regulated by a person’s judgment more than by any particular rule; at any rate, I am sure a labourer at home would do more than any two of them that I have ever seen. There is always a medical man employed to attend the sick on every estate, who resides as near the centre of his practice as he can, and visits the hospital every second day, or oftener if necessary; whatever he orders, either as medicine or nourishment, is given to the patients, such as wine, porter, beer, bread, flour, rice, sago, fowl, &c.

“They have a comfortable hospital, rooms divided with beds and bedding, and careful nurses to attend and take care of them. The head overseer goes with the doctor to the hospital to see his prescriptions attended to, and I have known, where cases required it, of another, and sometimes two, medical men being called in, besides the one practising for the estate.”

The moral condition of the slave was, however, but imperfectly watched over. The missionaries alone at-

tended to the religious wants of the negroes, although much opposed and objected to by the planters; indeed, an antipathy always existed between the latter and the former. A planter writing of the labours of this sect of Christians, observes, "Some attended the missionary chapels, which I never prevented, though I never had any good opinion as to their doctrine, but have observed that they did not teach them anything to their advantage, for they did not behave so well afterwards as they did before." It has been already shown that ever since the introduction of the London missionaries, in 1808, there had existed feelings of antagonism between them and the inhabitants in general. They were regarded, however unjustly, by the latter as spies upon their conduct, as the paid emissaries of a class in England opposed in principle to the system of forced labour in the West Indies. Their reception by the planter was cold and formal; their association with the negro was hailed by them with the most cordial and enthusiastic attachment. And no wonder, it was the first instance of the white man mixing on terms of equality and cordiality with the negro slave—the first example of the educated European holding out the hand of fellowship to the ignorant and uncivilised son of Africa.

The condition of the slave, however improved in physical and temporal advantages, was yet notoriously neglected in a moral and religious point of view. So thought the missionaries, and in accordance with such convictions they preached. The shout of liberty resounding from other and far-distant shores had reached their ears, and stimulated by its alluring voice, they took upon themselves to prepare the way for the contemplated changes in the negro race. Estimable as was their character, virtuous as were their intentions, it cannot be denied that their conduct was deficient in judgment and pru-

dence. Carried away by the enthusiasm and holiness of their cause, they grasped too suddenly at the prize, and without the patience or the perseverance to prepare the mind and heart of the slave for the boon of freedom, they offered it abruptly to the feelings and passions of uncivilised men. They awakened the slave to a sense of his degraded position in the scale of mankind. They inculcated doctrines of equality and liberty at variance with the laws in existence, and opposed to the spirit of authority then so predominant. They could not preach the doctrine of Christ crucified to men whose hearts were branded with the stamp of slavery without uttering anathemas against its injustice and inhumanity. They presented the fruit of the tree of knowledge of good and evil to ever curious man, and persuaded him to taste, eat, and live.

Not indeed suddenly, but by degrees, did the negro dare to entertain such flattering views of future happiness. Slavery began gradually to be felt as a wrong and an opprobrium, a yoke too hard to be borne patiently; but such ideas had not emanated wholly from the suffering—they had been suggested to and excited in him by a class superior to himself. The state of freedom, far from being properly understood and faithfully represented, was regarded wholly as a state of happiness. Habits of industry were not inculcated as necessary to its fulfilment. Its obligations, its duties, its intentions were overlooked. The transition was too startling; the object too brilliant to be patiently or gradually waited for. Hence arose in the minds of the slaves faint and imperfect notions of emancipation; crude and ill-digested notions of freedom. Like to a man who has been long following a humble pursuit, and who has suddenly presented to him an unexpected field of ambition, he soon loses all taste for his former homely avocations, and pur-

sues with eagerness and without discretion the new object so temptingly held out to him. His former toil is no longer supportable, his ideas are unsettled, his arm is ready to seize what his heart desires, and passive submission ceases to be possible. So felt the negro slave, and however unwarranted his bearing or opinions, however mistaken his object, we should make every allowance for the frailty of human nature and the working of human passions. The spark was kindled which was in a few years to break out into the flame of open rebellion, and however unwilling we may be to ascribe it to any one particular cause, there cannot now remain a doubt that the breath of European eloquence first fanned that spark into flame, and added fuel to its fury.

But how was the white man and the master employed at the time when this change was being wrought on his dependent? The British, in mixing freely with the older Dutch colonists, and entering into their views of cultivation, had also adopted many of their habits, hence the practice of the generality was guided by the example set them by others. Habits of early rising were acquired, and the freshness of the morning air, qualified by a dram either of gin or brandy, a system of luxurious and dissipated living was pursued, and a night of carousing often followed. The night of hospitality and conviviality continued, perhaps a little modified by the presence of European women. The haughty domineering manner exercised over their dependents of all classes by the Dutch was, if not fully adopted by the British, certainly not discountenanced by them! With the former, it had been always a rule as well as a practice never to allow of any familiarity between the white man and the negro. The probabilities of such an intercourse leading (according to the well-known proverb) to contempt was evidently uppermost in the mind of the master. A curious instance of this homely adage occurred once in a dispute

which took place between an imperious planter and a cannie Scotchman, his dependent. There had never existed any cordial feeling between the two parties, and upon the subject of their difference the planter, forgetting his dignity in his passion, made use of some very hard names, which the dependent patiently bore. At last some cutting invective roused the Scotchman, who, putting himself in an attitude of independence, and recalling to a confused memory the little learning of bygone years, exclaimed, by way of learned rebuke, "Tut, gude man! tut! ye dinna ken that too much familiarity breeds despise."

The prudent and methodical Dutchman, too proud to be familiar, and too serious to "make fun" with his slave, was surrounded by a halo of colonial etiquette that at once enhanced his own importance and subdued the spirit of others. The stiffness and inflexible gravity of his deportment have been chilling to the warm impulse of the African negro, and hence the most servile attention was proffered by the latter and accepted as a matter of course by the sedate Hollander. Such expressions as "Me kiss you bottom foot;" "Oh for a mighty massa no do so to a-wee," indicate the abject feelings impressed upon the slave in earlier times; but when the English came it was a matter of surprise, if not alarm, to the Dutchman to witness the condescension and often humorous confidence established between the owner and his slave, and the one, naturally inclined by his temperament to receive the advances of the servant, was checked by the example and, no doubt, political conduct of the other. The Dutch, however, no longer the only possessors of the soil, were gradually yielding to the force of circumstances, and the habits and situations of authority so long belonging to the privileged class, were likewise interfered with by the British Government.

An English lawyer, his Honour Jabez Henry, arrived

from England to fill the appointment of president of the courts of justice, and from this circumstance may be dated the first amalgamation of anything like the English laws upon the old Dutch or Roman code, which, however, long continued to be the prevailing legal authority in this colony. In May of the same year, also, was completed the final abolition of the slave trade, another circumstance fraught with the most important consequence to the community. The following year (1814), by an additional article to a convention between Great Britain and the Netherlands, signed at London on the 13th August, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice were ceded to Great Britain, but on condition that the Dutch proprietors should have liberty, under certain regulations, to trade with Holland. Thus gradually were being relinquished all pretension on the part of that nation any longer to the right and power to exercise a moral, political, or social influence over a land converted by them from a swampy marsh into a cultivated and rich district, and over a people transplanted by them from the land of Africa, to receive civilisation and liberty, if not for themselves, yet for their children. The industry of centuries on their part, the institution of years, the habits and manners so long stamped upon society by the enterprising Hollander, were to be given up for ever to the different policy of another country, foreign in temperament and in manners. A series of British governors had an important effect upon the various classes of society, and certainly greatly contributed to their advancement and progress. But however much the colony has risen in the scale of civilisation, it cannot be denied that, with the supremacy of Dutch power and authority, passed away many solid and substantial advantages. It is no idle compliment to the old Dutch colonists to remark, that much of the future prosperity of the colony arose from the foundations which they had laid with so much energy, perseverance, and skill.

To their untiring zeal and indomitable industry we owe the existence of the present plantations; and it is a question whether, since the arrival of the British, the colony generally has ever presented the same thriving and prosperous appearance that it did in the time of the calumniated Dutch.

The following table shows the fixed salaries for the service of the year 1815:

TABLE showing the Fixed Salaries for the Year 1815 paid by the Colony.

	Guilders.		Guilders.
Lieu.-gov. (part of his salary)	26,000	Brought forward . . .	188,478
His honour the president . . .	15,000	Assistant-salary to assistant-	
First fiscal	27,000	postholder	550
Second ditto	15,000	Pensions	12,300
The drossard	3,700		
The scout	3,000	TABLE-MONEY.	
The gaoler	2,000	Major-general	12,000
The seven dienaars, 1300 guilders each	9,100	Officers of 60th Regiment	14,000
The gaol surgeon	3,600	Engineer, ordinance, and artillery	3,000
Colonial sexton	2,500	Commissary ditto	600
Translator	2,200	Barrack-master	600
Keeper of archives of Essequebo	2,200	Hospital staff	1,200
Financial accountant	5,000	Brigade chaplain	600
Recorder orphan chamber	6,000	Clergymen	5,000
Clerk to ditto	3,000	Navy	3,000
Adjutant-general	8,000	Aide-de-camp	600
Two town overseers, 1500 guilders each	3,000	Extraordinary expenses	25,000
Bookbinder	2,200	Colony house expenses	20,000
Armourer	4,400	Expense of roads	11,000
Inspector-general	5,000	Expenses of justice	25,000
Colony house-keeper	3,300	Repairs of public buildings	12,000
Colony surgeon	3,000	Presents to Indians	25,000
Assistant ditto	600	Colony hospital	4,000
Three postholders, 2200 guilders each	6,600	Printing expenses	3,000
Two assistants	528	Beacon ditto	3,000
Postholder Morocco and assistant	3,200	Repairs, public bridges	3,000
Inspector of beacon	2,000	Militia expenses	2,500
Overseer	800	Poor chest	10,000
The missionary	2,200	Receivers' commission	25,000
Colony agents in London, 800l. Exchange, 12 guilders to the 1l. each	9,600	Sums remitted to trustees for investments in the funds	24,000
Master of mail-boat	4,000	Expenses of mail-boat	5,000
Manager of workhouse	2,000	Salaries to Dutch clergymen	3,800
The clock-maker	550		
Superintendent of pilots	2,200	Barrack at Capocy	443,228
		Annuity to Mrs. Robertson	29,000
Carried forward . . .	188,478	Loan to assist projected canal	3,000
		Extraordinary repairs, public buildings	11,000
		Costs of new despatch boat	8,000
			19,200
			513,428

In Berbice several officers and civilians successively filled the separate appointment of governors of that colony, a short notice of which occurs elsewhere. The influence exercised by such gentlemen was of an important nature : the tone of society was improved ; the formality and punctiliousness of former times was exchanged for the usefulness and practical exhibition of English authority, not enveloped in unmeaning *hauteur*, or obscured by official etiquette, but showing itself in practical measures and social advantages. Through them, also, the government ascertained accurately the state of the colony, its true position, its wants, as well as its capabilities; and through their instrumentality was brought about, gradually, such measures of policy as seemed necessary to the ultimate object in view with reference to the colonies. It is very true that, on the other hand, a one-sided view was also taken of the actual condition of the new settlement; it is very true that official pride and self-sufficiency may have often given a representation of things not very flattering to the inhabitants—possibly not even just—and that in the eagerness of command and desire of approval, the one class on whose side already, having the sympathy of the British nation, were drawn in vivid colours, whilst the other, opposed in England by the “*Vox Populi*,” if not the “*Vox Dei*,” was sketched out in gloomy and sombre outline.

One of the first steps taken by the governors was to inquire particularly into the numbers and condition of the slaves; an act for the registration of slaves was passed in 1816, and in the following year a return was made of the inhabitants generally* throughout these settlements.

* This act, on the recommendation of Earl Bathurst, was subsequently amended on the 19th of August, 1818, and the new act was published the fol-

In Demerara and Essequibo there were, at this time, 77,163 slaves; in Berbice 24,549; total 101,712. The free population amounted to about 8000 persons (including the whites); total 110,000. In the following year (1817) there was an appraisal and census taken of Georgetown, but from this period the number of slaves gradually decreased, notwithstanding considerable annual importations. The two colonies with such a labouring population were decidedly more flourishing than they have ever been since; for out of such a number of slaves much forced labour was extracted.

A change came over the agricultural prospects of the country about this period. It has been seen that a large majority of the estates were in cotton cultivation, which had long yielded a splendid profit. The author of the "History of the West Indies" makes out an annual profit of fourteen per cent.; but it was probably more than that. The great and increasing demand for such a useful article in Europe led others also to attempt its culture on a large scale. Among the most successful in this endeavour was the United States of America, who rapidly filled the markets, and greatly undersold the West Indians (the colonists in this colony included); a revolution in agricultural affairs was the consequence. Some of the cotton properties were converted into sugar estates; others were converted into cattle farms. British capitalists soon found a profitable investment of money in the manufacture of sugar, which was gradually to supersede the growth of the other. The gold then rapidly poured through this channel to the west soon repaid the activity and enterprise of speculators. Another sure road to fortune seemed to be discovered. The goddess of wealth still smiled upon the planter, increased commercial inter-

lowing October. In the year 1817 the salary of the registrar appointed by the governor was fixed by the Combined Court at 200*l.* per annum.

course ensued, and everything went gaily as a "marriage bell." The spirit of gain, urging on man to penetrate into these long desolate regions, was also unwittingly leading him to be the means of civilising a land of such promise and grandeur.

Whilst luxury and comfort, however, abounded among the owners or representatives of property, the young man who was yet on the first step of the ladder had a weary and troublesome ascent before him. Quitting a home of civilisation, perhaps of comfort, he commenced life in this country as an overseer; that is a kind of superintendent of the allotted work of the slaves. He arose at dawn of day, and followed his gang of labourers to their place of toil, far away in the back lands, on the verge of untrodden forests; exposed to the burning sun or tempestuous rain, he remained for hours in the open air, encouraging the active, stimulating the lazy, and subduing the refractory. His arm of power was the whip, either plied by himself or by a headman. The deep drain had to be dug, the luxuriant soil tilled, the rich cane planted, or cut down. Worn out with fatigue, he returned at a late hour to recruit exhausted nature, and throw himself into his hammock or cot. It is no wonder that the monotony of the day's occupation was too often varied by the excitement of a night's carousal, which, often renewed, laid the seeds of future disease, or hurried him to an untimely grave. The house of the manager was his only society, and here he was oftener treated as an outcast than as a friend or equal. His few friends were his brother overseers on the same or neighbouring plantations. Isolated from the means of improvement, and gradually becoming indifferent to its pleasures, he abandoned them for the grosser ones of sense. The Sundays often afforded no day of repose; he was expected to copy estates' books, or was otherwise em-

ployed in writing, and in inspecting, by way of amusement, the plantain walks or provision grounds; when, by degrees, however, a better class of persons arrived to fill such situations, considerable improvement was manifested. The habits acquired in such a school became permanent with many. Growing up to fill the rolls of managers, attorneys, and proprietors, they still carried the practice of dissipation along with them. Excessive drinking was not regarded as a vice or as prejudicial to health, but rather as a proof of thorough colonisation. It would have been considered the height of rudeness and indecorum to call upon a friend and not to join him in his brandy and water, or "sangaree." No matter what the hour, or what the number of visitors, every man's health was to be drank. It was, perhaps, owing to some such excitement that the habit of duelling became so prevalent at one epoch in this country; a look, a word, a laugh, often led to a bitter quarrel, which was only to be decided by the law of the pistol. Parties have been even known to "turn out," as it is termed, whilst in a state of intoxication, and only to awaken from their madness to find themselves hastening unto death. It is possible that something of a military spirit also led to this, for, humble and domestic as were the duties of a planter or a merchant, yet the fact of being incorporated as "militia" may have led men to assume some, at least, of the propensities of Mars and "horrida bella." It has been seen that from an early period the necessity of a militia force had been felt, besides the presence of a regular military corps, to oppose by their discipline any attempt at internal insubordination on the part of the slaves; and the same precautionary principle established by the Dutch was likewise enforced by the British as early as the year 1799,* when all free persons from the

* Formerly the colony was divided into burgher divisions, each having a

age of sixteen to fifty-five or sixty were liable to be enrolled in one or other corps of militia.

The militia force was instituted in consequence of some rumours about a threatened attack on the colony, and certain differences arose between members of the Court of Policy on this subject. Exceptions were made in favour of members of the Courts of Policy and Justice, fiscals, and other police officers, keizers, and financial representatives, colonial, government, and president's secretaries, the receiver of the king's and colonial taxes, book-keeper-general, the registrar of slaves, harbour-master, and naval officer, the officers of his Majesty's customs, persons in holy orders, practising physicians and surgeons, except as surgeons or assistant-surgeons to the militia, vendue-master and postmaster. Of the utility of such a body of regularly armed and disciplined men, there can be no question at the time, especially when they were raised and kept in something like military subordination; and a convincing proof of this will soon be brought forward. The number and composition of the militia force varied, of course, at different periods. It comprised generally a company of artillery, a troop or more of cavalry, a rifle corps, light infantry and several ordinary companies, each commanded by its proper officers, together with a commander-in-chief, aide-de-camps, adjutants; in fact, a regular staff. For the regulation and guidance of such a heterogeneous mass of planters, professionals, and tradesmen, a number of articles or rules were drawn up or enacted by the lieutenant-governor and council in each colony, subject, of course, to future amendments, or new clauses. By such militia regulations were established, among other things, the number of regiments and battalions, corps, &c., the

separate corps, with flags of a distinguishing colour, as red, blue, &c.; but in 1799 these were organised into a militia force under the British commander.

number of companies in each, and geographical division of the same; the right of the governor to appoint all officers, together with their rank and number; that every estate should furnish a proportion of men fit for militia duty; the formation of a medical board to examine persons claiming exemption. Persons otherwise exempted to make oath; the finding of arms and accoutrements; estates to find means of conveyance for their servants, and to be provided with arms, according to the number of whites, or free coloured persons thereon; the time for assembling; persons going to, or returning from militia service, not liable to arrests; nature of active service; mode of alarms, and how to be communicated; armed expedition forbidden, unless by permission of the governor; quarterly returns, how to be made; militia officers bound to assist the civil power; also to maintain the peace, and to take cognisance of any criminal act done within their division; punishment of sedition or disturbance, or misconduct; penalty of *sending challenges to fight duels*; punishment for non-attendance at parades; penalty for not obeying superior officers; or not appearing at parades properly armed, clothed, or accoutred; or for quitting parades without leave, &c.; regimental courts-martial; general courts-martial; oaths and other rules concerning these; collection and appropriation of fines; modes of appeal and redress; oaths of officers, &c. &c.

In connexion with the militia, fire companies were also formed, and the whole force in the neighbourhood was expected to appear on duty.

In Berbice similar regulations existed since 1817; all white and free coloured male inhabitants from the age of 16 to 60, residing in the colony and capable of bearing arms, were liable to serve in the militia, such exception being made as above-mentioned, &c.

The hardships of such a body were often severely felt by individuals; as, besides the expense of dress and loss of time, they were made frequently to endure severe exercise in the hot sun; and in some years had actually, in consequence of the scarcity or sickness of the troops, to perform the duty of guarding the town.

The "night duty" was especially irksome; and, in the year 1818, a petition of the inhabitants was sent to the authorities, praying to be relieved of such a baneful task.

The object, however, being for the general good, the establishment of such a force was long continued, and only done away with by proclamation on the 22nd of January, 1839, in obedience to an order from England, dated the 29th of November, 1838; and when the necessity for its continuance was, happily, no longer required.* During the period of its duration, the service of the militia was not often practically tested; but upon some occasions, and one more especially to which we are rapidly hastening, the exertions of such a body were of the most eminent service. As all classes of free persons were called upon to serve, it formed, as may be supposed, a rare assemblage of sizes, colours, ages, and figures; from the youthful clerk, decked out in gaudy uniform, to the more potent captain, privileged with the additional ardour of a horse; from the dark mulatto to the pale-faced aide-de-camp, prancing in spurs, and plumed cocked hat. It was an amusing sight to see them march.

* In the year 1817, the governor read a despatch received from Earl Bathurst urging the necessity of the colony maintaining its own troops, in consequence of embarrassments "at home." The motion to grant the necessary sum was negatived in the Court of Policy, but it was agreed that an allowance of money should be granted to maintain 200 white troops above the number usually allotted to the colony. At a meeting of the Combined Court, held on the 30th January, this motion was objected to by some of the financial representatives, but was carried, four of the members entering their protest. In the following year (1818), the Combined Court offered to maintain 800 regular soldiers, provided that 500 more were sent out and supported by the British Government, but in the following year (1819) they stipulated for 800 men instead of 500.

A profusion of perfume and perspiration filled the air; and undulating lines in height, and width, and depth, marked their serpentine courses. There was the burly *Falstaff*, and the meagre *Slender*—all Shakspeare's men, in fact, turned loose, or disguised in various uniforms. It was a pity our immortal bard never witnessed them; he would have written another volume of immortal plays. Another *Falstaff* would have exclaimed:—“If I be not ashamed of my soldiers, I am a soused garnet. I have misused the king's press d—bly. I pressed me none but such toasts and butter, with hearts in their bellies no bigger than pins' heads: and now my whole charge consists of ancients, corporals, lieutenants, gentlemen of companies, slaves (oh, no!) as ragged as Lazarus in the painted cloth, where the glutton's dogs licked his sores. No eye hath seen such scarecrows. I'll not march thro' Coventry with them, that's flat—and the villains march wide between the legs, as if they had gyves on. Tut, tut: good enough to toss; food for powder, food for powder; they'll fill a pit as well as better; tush, man; mortal man, mortal man.”

It has been asserted, that upon more than one occasion, many a grudge has been paid off by the instrumentality of the militia, and a merchant, armed with a “little brief authority,” has squared an account which in the counting-house was more difficult to settle. Private pique and private jealousy have been attributed to influence more than one subaltern of the motley army, and a commissioned officer, or one in a position to command, often exercised his tongue in the way of abuse to an inferior, which, out of the stern discipline of the force, would perhaps not have been attempted. If one had the leisure or inclination to dwell on the “campaign of the militia,” many an amusing and interesting tale would be divulged. It is really surprising that no wit from the

ranks ever fired a squib in commemoration of the "days when we went soldiering, a long time ago." It is not improbable, as before remarked, that it was in fact owing to the introduction of something like a military feeling among the inhabitants the habit of "duelling" came into vogue, although distinctly prohibited in the militia regulations. Whether it is by coincidence or accident, it is remarkable that since the abolishment of such a force there has been a gradual decline of hostile meetings, although the white population has kept increasing, and the causes of quarrel may be presumed to be as frequent now as in time gone by. Again, by analogy we are led to remark that in those countries where a national guard or "landwehr" exists, there is a greater disposition to the settling of disputes by duel, than in other countries, as in England, where no such military organisation obtains.

However, be it as it may, there are too many melancholy instances on record in this colony of the frequency and fatality of such meetings among the earlier inhabitants for the present race not to rejoice at the extinction of such rude justice, one of the relics of the dark or middle ages, when the dispensation of Providence was set aside, and men, not satisfied with human or divine justice, left to chance what could not be decided by reason. "Revenge," says Bacon, "is a kind of wild justice, which the more man's nature runs to, the more ought law to weed it out; for as for the first wrong, it doth but offend the law, but the revenge of that wrong putteth the law out of office," &c.

It is singular, however, with what callousness and what indifference the majority of the inhabitants witnessed the sudden termination of life under any circumstances. "Men have been said to fear death as children fear to go in the dark;" but possibly the fact of seeing

So many "thus venture in the dark" lessens gradually the dread of, or the impression made by, it. The suddenness of disease in the colony, the rapidity of its fatal course, the uncertainty of its attack or termination, seemed to render men accustomed to its severe empire and hardened to its inexorable laws. Among the few epidemics which swelled the harvest of the grave, the yellow fever was perhaps the most fatal. It is not intended in this place to enlarge upon this or any other disease peculiar to the colony; the subject is introduced here as indicative of the listlessness and apathetic feeling which pervaded society in matters of life and death, and to note that when a severe visitation of that dreadful plague of the west was experienced in the year 1819,* the circle of gaiety and dissipation, though frequently interrupted by the breaking off of one of its human links, was never broken. Death, whilst it lessened the chain of human friendships and narrowed the circle, failed to impress upon the minds of survivors the necessity for either precautionary measures or more prudent living. Whilst a few believed that temperance tended to diminish risk, there were others who insisted that a free course of living was the only chance of escape; and, judging by the results, it is still uncertain which side has the greatest claim to victory. Friends in the closest bonds were torn asunder, and implacable enemies were unexpectedly laid side by side in quiet rest. Robust health ended in a speedy death, and the lips which, at the commencement of a week, had ejaculated "poor fellow" to the memory of some parted comrade, were mute and motionless at its close. The Dutch had a habit of sending round funeral letters to the acquaintances of a deceased individual.

* The population of Georgetown, October, 1819, was 10,519, viz., whites, 1683; free coloured, 2756; slaves, 6080; exclusive of Lacy-town and other suburbs not incorporated.

These printed circulars, edged in black, and headed "Memento Mori," were called by them "Doed Briefen," and the custom obtains to this very time.

But the tide of human affairs swept on; fresh hopes and fresh desires chased from the mind of society the temporary gloom which such events could not but inspire, however transiently. The growing interest of the colony,* and its increasing importance, however furthered by British authority, were yet fettered by many objectionable observances. From the year 1818 to 1821 the administration of the laws and of justice were felt peculiarly oppressive. The arrival from England, in 1816, of a new president to the courts of justice did not improve matters. The name of the new incumbent was W. H. Rough, who soon embroiled himself in local troubles. Unpossessed of much learning or natural ability, he appears to have negligently or inefficiently discharged his duties. At first his quarrels with some of the inhabitants rendered him only obnoxious to individuals; but, by degrees, he was so violently assailed in the newspaper, and had so completely forfeited the countenance and good opinion of Governor Murray, that he considered himself bound to address a memorial or petition to the king's most excellent majesty against certain grievances at the hands of the "commonalty" of the Court of Policy, and of the governor himself, who, in fact, had suspended the president from his official duties, and which resulted in a temporary stoppage of criminal law proceedings. By a strange coincidence it appears that in Berbice, like-

* In the year 1818 a colonial agent, W. Holmes, Esq., with whom A. Gordon, Esq., was associated to act, was appointed to look after the interests of the colony in England. The Court of Policy recommended a salary of 400*l.* per annum; but at a meeting of the Combined Court, held on the 27th of January, 1819, the financial representatives objected both to the appointment, the grant of money, and to the system of purchasing influence for the colony. At the same meeting they also objected to the support of missionary preachers, but agreed to support a regular clergy. They were, however, outvoted on both points.

wise, the president of the same court had also been suspended by the then governor, and looking at many features of the political state of society, it is not to be wondered at that the public mind was greatly excited. The inhabitants justly complained of the unlawful extortion of official fees, of the monopoly of so many district situations in the hands of a few individuals. Thus the situations of receiver of colonial duties on wines and spirits, acting comptroller, acting deputy postmaster-general, waiter and searcher of customs, were combined in one individual, who subsequently had them all taken from him by the governor, and given to a near relative of that officer, and to one who already filled the important offices of government secretary and private secretary, making altogether about fifteen situations actually held by one individual.

Many of these situations, it must be remembered, were clearly incompatible the one with the other, yet were they officially held by one lucky man. Disputes and much angry feeling became common to society. The exactors of the disputed fees received every assistance from his honour, William Rough, the then head of the judiciary, and to appease matters it became necessary, on the part of the governor, to publish a tariff of judicial, secretarial, and marshal's fees; but the public, once roused, are not easily satisfied :

Salus populi suprema lex.

A public meeting of the inhabitants was held relative to judicial and other abuses, and a petition to the king was framed and forwarded in 1821, founded on the resolutions of the meeting, praying his majesty to take into consideration the deplorable state of the administration of justice, and to order an inquiry into all fees of offices connected with the administration of justice, and the

establishment of reasonable and moderate tariffs, &c. To illustrate the feelings and the state of society, it may, perhaps, be allowed to introduce a little personal history into our narrative, which is as amusing as it is characteristic of the period. A certain gentleman,* holding a number of appointments, was suspected, perhaps unjustly, of a defalcation in his accounts, and of general impropriety in the management of his official duties. Upon such a suspicion "a mandament de facto" was issued by the President Rough, and the marshal of the court, under that authority, aided by police officers, with a scout and six dienaars, or inferior officers of justice, all armed with cutlasses, and accompanied by a negro blacksmith bearing a sledge-hammer, proceeded to the house of the suspected officer, forced and broke it open, seized his person, and conveyed him to the colony gaol, where he was detained with felons and runaway slaves for about 130 days. At the same time all his papers, moneys, books, &c., were carried away and never returned.

The same gentleman, when afterwards liberated, underwent a very narrow escape of again being taken prisoner, and his account of it is too naïve to be suppressed: "It appears that the failure of this (a previous) stratagem to arrest Mr. Ross only made his opponents more determined to effect their purpose at all hazards, for, having three days afterwards discovered the house where Mr. Ross was engaged to dine, a marshal was provided, with an additional warrant in the name of the sovereign, authorising him to break open the doors if he should meet with any resistance or obstruction. A troop of dienaars, soldiers in disguise, and other attendants, about thirty in number, were put under his order, for the double purpose of seeing that *he did his duty with-*

* This gentleman, Mr. Ross, receiver of colonial wine and spirit duties, and transient traders' tax, was dismissed by the governor in October, 1819.

out bribery or corruption, and to assist him, if necessary, in the execution of it; and about nine o'clock at night the house in question was accordingly surrounded. Mr. Ross having by the moonlight observed their approach, and suspecting the cause, arose from the dining-table, and retired to an adjoining room, where he could hear whatever passed. The marshal speedily entered, and displayed his above-mentioned warrants, the one under the sign-manual of his Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor, 'in the king's name,' and the other under that of his Honour the President of the Court of Justice, to take the body of G. Ross, declaring at the same time that had he not found ready admittance he would have been *justified* in breaking open that or any other house where his prisoner was to be found, and to search them, if he chose, for that purpose. Mr. Ross, hearing all this from his place of retreat, within a few feet of the *enemy*, would willingly have sold his chance of liberty for the next twelve months at a very cheap rate indeed, but, *fortunately* for him, it so happened that his host had just before gone out to make a call in the neighbourhood, and had left a *friend* in his *chair* to do the *honours* of the house. This visitor, with great presence of mind, and with an emphasis that did due justice to the host, *rose* and *answered* the marshal upon his honour as a gentleman that Mr. Ross was *not in his house*, adding that he might search if he pleased, but hoped his honour would not be disputed. The marshal *candidly* informed the company that he was watched, and that he must *do his* duty, but at the same time, if the gentleman (at the head of the table) would pass his word of honour that Mr. Ross was not in *his* house, he could not of course doubt the honour of a man of his respectability, and would be satisfied without giving any further trouble. The assertion being most solemnly repeated with great feeling

(and also with great truth), the marshal, with a politeness and graciousness which would have done honour to his employer, declared himself satisfied that the defendant was not there, and, *taking a glass of wine* on the invitation of the supposed host, immediately withdrew with his numerous suite of assistants, to the no small entertainment of the company, and the great joy of Mr. Ross, who shortly afterwards came forth to exclaim:

“Celui qui rit le dernier a le meilleur du jeu.”

This ill-treated gentleman, after escaping to England, and preferring charges against Governor Murray and President Rough, was subsequently reinstated in one or more of his previous offices. The arbitrary proceeding and character of President Rough led to his suspension by the governor on the 1st of October, 1821, and the Honourable Van Ryk de Groot was appointed *ad interim*, until the arrival from England of his Honour Charles Wray, barrister-at-law, who arrived on the 27th of December of the same year, and took his seat as President of the Court of Criminal and Civil Justice, and sole judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty, &c.

Under a sound lawyer and amiable man the legal administration of the colony proceeded quietly.

But whilst such changes were agitating the upper classes of society, the work of the missionaries had proceeded. Their influence had accomplished a change in the conduct of the slaves; a gradual feeling of intelligence had been spread; a desire for knowledge began to abound. Schools for the slave children, although at first opposed by some of the planters, were established upon many of the larger estates. The class of blacks or coloured freed men rescued from the bonds of slavery, either by purchasing their own freedom or indebted for it to the liberality of their former owners, was becoming

larger. Marriages among the slaves were occasionally met with, and the few but increasing privileges granted to the negroes soon gave a spur to their desires, and lent a charm to their imaginations.

The desire for liberty, and the attempt to obtain it on former occasions, had been met with stern and obstinate resistance. The passions which then actuated the slave were those of revenge and hatred, excited probably by aggravated hardship or unfeeling cruelty. The work then was of their own contrivance and at their own instigation. A natural feeling of physical superiority had led to its adoption, but the want of moral or intellectual power had caused it to fail. They had rushed gladly and suddenly to revolt, but had retired punished and humiliated. The desire though repressed was never subdued. The fire though smouldering was not extinct. It waited for a fitting time and a convenient opportunity. The stillness of the storm was to precede its fury.

Ille Etiam cæcus instare tumultus.

The more the mind of the slave became expanded the more it appreciated its indignity. The more it was instructed and enlightened the more it revolted at the stigma of bondage. But the antagonism of intellectual influence continued to keep in check the rising energy of the slave; several instances of partial and individual revolt had frequently occurred, but the want of judgment and unanimity had rendered abortive such attempts, yet, as Bacon expresses himself, "for as it is true that every vapour or fume doth not turn into a storm, so it is, nevertheless, true that storms, though they blow over divers times, yet may fall at last, and, as the Spanish proverb noteth well, 'The cord breaketh at the last by the weakest pull.'"

The white man slumbered on the edge of a volcano

whose early rumblings and intestine commotion awoke him in time to save himself from the overwhelming lava of its eruption. Another crisis was approaching which was to let loose the true feelings of all, and to lay bare the social condition of all classes in their naked selfishness. The slave was still at his toil ; the freed man was still spurning the race from which he had so recently emerged, and yearning for the class above him ; the white man was still engaged in his profitable speculations. When far away from the scene that comprised these varied groups the voice of eloquence and the intellect of civilisation were employed in the consideration of the momentous subject of emancipation. Within the walls of the British Houses of Legislature many an eloquent harangue had been heard, many a noble aspiration breathed. The theorist and the philanthropist were carried away by the greatness of the theme, and were anxious to let loose a power, the nature and working of which they were unacquainted with. From the time that Thomas Clarkson, in 1787, had raised his voice in the House of Commons against the traffic in slaves, the subject was never lost sight of. In the declamations of Pitt, Fox, Buxton, Brougham, Wilberforce, and Canning we recognise the predominant and lofty sentiments which influenced these great men. It was not, however, until the subject of emancipation had been more than once discussed that, on the 15th March, 1823, Mr. Canning passed in the House of Commons his famous "*Resolution for ameliorating the condition of the slave population and preparing them for freedom.*" Intimation of these resolutions was forwarded to the governors of the colonies, and, amongst others, to Governor Murray, of British Guiana. There is no doubt that these "resolutions" were intended for general information, and more especially for communication to the slaves. These latter,

as already explained, dwelt on the subject of their freedom with delight; anything relative to it was received with unmitigated pleasure and satisfaction. The object of the missionaries had not been alone to instruct in the Gospel, and the effects of their intercourse with the people soon became more apparent. What must have been the feelings of the negro when first told that not only in his own bosom burned the love of liberty, but that in distant Europe the hearts of noble strangers beat in unision with his own. Such intelligence gave him more exalted notions of himself, but it also awakened feelings of bitter hatred against the unfortunate planter. Freely admitting the necessity for the abolition of slavery, and advocating its cause, we cannot forget that a large class of sufferers was to result from the change, and that the blow which was to shiver and break asunder the fetters of slavery, was also to convulse by its shock the length and breadth of the land. Vague and imperfect conceptions of the blessings of freedom were put forth. Rumours of speedy release were whispered about, and to the idle gossiping of a servant we owe the outbreak of a bloody insurrection. This time it was not alone the impulse to be free which urged on the slave, but the idea that he had the co-operation of a superior power to aid his own, and that in seizing the cutlass to strike for freedom he was only wresting justice from the tardy and illiberal hand which withheld it. Secret societies among the slaves were gradually formed, and there is no doubt that in this they were assisted by some of the missionaries, whether for good or evil it were hard to determine.

Foremost among this sect was *Missionary Smith*, who had established a chapel on the east coast, and who by his preaching and manner towards the negro in that district had acquired a wonderful popularity and in-

fluence. The presence, possibly the advice, of the white man at such meetings gave an ardour to their hopes and to their designs. Feelings of dissatisfaction were here openly expressed, loud causes of complaint brought forward, and expressions of hatred and revenge freely given vent to. Communication was established with the negroes on the neighbouring estates; and, indeed, with many others throughout the whole colony, and unanimity and prudence enjoined. The east coast was the focus of the revolt; and here were the seeds of a conspiracy sown which were soon to spring up. The whisper of rebellion was breathed around, but its echo reached not yet the ear of the planter. A report gained ground among the head men of several plantations on the coast, that in England some great change for their amelioration had taken place; that, in fact, "Freedom had come out," and that the news was withheld by the governor and their masters, who objected to it. This rumour is supposed to have occurred through a servant of the governor's, who, whilst waiting at his master's table, had heard mention made of the "Resolutions of Mr. Canning," and who had imbibed a mistaken notion of their purport, and had circulated the false rumour, which acquired strength as it proceeded.

*Fama, malum qua non aliud Velocius ullum:
Mobilitate viget, vires que acquirit Eundo, &c.*

This little grain of falsehood, borne on the wings of credulity, took deep root, and eventually brought forth mischief. The opinions of the slaves, swayed backwards and forwards by the violence of their passions, at length settled down into a determined plot. A plan was accordingly arranged on several estates on the east coast, following which, they agreed to arise suddenly, seize, bind, and put into the stocks all the white persons on

the estates, and then go to town in a body, and claim from the governor "the freedom which was supposed to have come out."* The plan of operation appears to have been matured on *Sunday*, the 17th of August, 1823, at the Missionary Chapel, on plantation Le Resouvenir, and was intended to be carried into effect the following day. The principal authors of the scheme were two young men; Paris, a boat-captain of plantation Good Hope, a negro of superior intelligence and great bodily strength; and Jack Gladstone, also a very intelligent man, a cooper by trade, on plantation Success. Almost all the slaves on the east coast were privy to the plot, so general were its ramifications. The train now was laid, and only awaited the application of the match to give it explosion, when, by a timely intimation on the part of one of the negroes cognisant of the scheme, but who had not joined in it, some of the intended consequences were averted, but, unfortunately, not in time to prevent the effusion of much blood.

Early on Monday morning, the 18th of August, a mulatto servant, Joseph, belonging to Mr. Simpson, of plantation Reduit (now plantation Ogle), about six miles from Georgetown, communicated to his master the startling intelligence, that all the coast negroes would rise that night. It appears this man was one of the very persons upon whose authority concerning the rumour of "Freedom having come out," the plot had been originally formed; he had observed signs of great dissatisfaction prevalent among the negroes, and had noticed the fact of frequent private meetings; his suspicions were in consequence awakened, and he determined to watch their proceedings.† Not being a confederate himself, he per-

* From all that I have been able to learn on this subject, I do not believe that the intentions of the slaves had any reference to the expulsion or murder of the white inhabitants.

† Bryant's account of the insurrection.

suaded a negro (Denderdaag), on the same estate, to act the part of a spy, by which means he ascertained positively the progress of events. Satisfied as to their truth, he acquainted his master with the fact; and this gentleman, duly appreciating the information, made no appearance of alarm, but instantly left his estate for the purpose of communicating to the governor the disclosure which had been made to him. On his way to Georgetown, he called at several plantations on the road, to caution the planters of the threatened danger. About ten o'clock, Captain Simpson (for he was a burgher officer, and commanded a troop of cavalry in Georgetown), had an interview with the governor, who at first ridiculed the idea of a revolt,* but who prudently directed that the cavalry should be assembled; and, after a consultation with the fiscal, despatched a portion of the troop under Captain Simpson to plantation Redit, and shortly after, followed himself, attended by the brigade-major of militia, an aide-de-camp, and the government secretary. On his arrival at the estate, orders were given for a sergeant and four troopers to proceed at once to a military post at Mahaica Creek, about fifteen miles higher up the coast, and directions given to leave word with the other burgher officers and planters on the road. The governor, having held an investigation on the spot, in which the negro Joseph was closely questioned, and the truth of his statement being evident, it was ascertained that a spirit of insubordination and rebellion was in active progress among the slave population; almost immediately after, a supposed ringleader, Mars, was taken up on suspicion, and the governor and escort proceeded up the coast to ascertain the extent and situation of the rebellion.

* As I have been assured by Abraham Garnett, Esq., at that time an opulent and influential planter, who accompanied him to town.

The party was met by a large body of armed negroes, who on seeing them shouted out "We have them, we have them." His excellency stopped and demanded what they wanted. They replied "our right." The governor, before entering upon any discussion, insisted upon their laying down their arms. At first they positively refused to do so, but by degrees some few set the example. His excellency then stated to them the nature of the instructions which he had received from the British Government, relative to a proposed amelioration in their condition, but warned them that any acts of insubordination committed by them would deprive them of the benefit intended. After further admonition and remonstrance, he called upon them to disperse, and stated, that if they had any cause of complaint, or required any further explanation respecting the communication which he had received from England, they should call on him the following morning. A few seemed inclined to listen to his suggestions, but others cried out "No, no," and a blowing of shells followed. Finding further expostulation useless, his excellency drove off. It cannot but be regretted that the explanation thus voluntarily offered by the governor had not previously been made. Unaccountable as was the cause of delay in announcing the intelligence received, it was now set about too late. The procrastination of an act of common justice was perhaps a proximate, if not an immediate, cause of the calamities which ensued.

The flame of revolt had burst forth, and was spreading, not to be extinguished till it had consumed many a valuable life. The insurrection had, in point of fact, commenced, a large fire on plantation La Bonne Intention was the signal for attack, and its fury was only equalled by the excited populace. Towards nightfall several white persons on some of the estates were taken

prisoners and put in the stocks. On some properties, where a defence had been made, fire-arms were had recourse to by the negroes, who killed and wounded several of the planters. Their plan of attack was to surround the dwelling-house, and either forcibly enter it or set fire to it. Their object was to capture the white inhabitants and to confine them. In most cases, however, they met with resistance, and hence arose violence and bloodshed. Upon one or two estates, however, the negroes refused to assist the insurgents in making prisoners of their masters, and offered a stern opposition to their intrusion. It could easily be seen that the spirit of unanimity was wanting, and that the present revolt was more an outbreak of excited popular feeling than a well concocted and determined attempt to overturn all rule and authority. The governor, after leaving the coast, returned to Georgetown late that evening, and seeing the necessity for more decisive measures, instantly ordered out a detachment of the 21st N. B. Fusiliers and the 1st West India Regiment, and marched them up the coast.

The bugle sounded to arms through the town, and the inhabitants serving in the militia obeyed the summons with the utmost alacrity. Soon learning the cause of their assembling, they arranged themselves under their respective commanders. A number of them were likewise marched up the coast, others patrolled the streets, and the remainder were under arms all night. The troops sent up the coast were reinforced, and met a body of insurgents, who were obstructing the passage to town of several officers of the country militia and other gentlemen. The negroes, more intent on watching the latter, and not expecting to encounter any regular troops, were astonished at the advance of the body of soldiers under Captain Stewart, and immediately on the discovery a

shot was fired at them by one of the slaves; this was instantly followed by a volley from the troops, which dispersed the slaves, and they effected a junction with the above-mentioned body of gentlemen, one of whom, it appears, was severely wounded by the discharge from the troops. The united forces then proceeded up the coast, and finding several parties of the insurgents, fired at and dispersed them with considerable loss of life to the negroes.

Early the next day, the 19th August, the drum in Georgetown beat to arms, and the inhabitants being assembled, were addressed by his excellency the governor, who proclaimed "martial law." The effect of this was immense. Business was put a stop to. The minds of all were excited, and, like a hive of bees which has been disturbed, the whole town was one scene of tumult and confusion. Many of the ladies were conveyed on board of vessels in the river, and every preparation was made for a sanguinary and protracted conflict. A battalion of militia was raised, amounting to about 600 persons, whilst a marine battalion was formed from the crews of ships in the river, and mustered about 400. Two pieces of artillery were placed so as to command the two principal entrances into town. Meanwhile, nearly all the gangs of negroes upon the estates on the coast had assembled in great numbers; they were armed with cutlasses, guns, and other weapons, and were headed by individuals who carried flags.

With much noise and bravado they paraded up and down the coast, but appeared to have no definite object in view beyond capturing the few white persons they might meet. Encountering, however, bodies of troops and militia, they were easily dispersed, yet collected again in greater numbers, irresolute in conduct, and uncertain as to their movements. One party made an in-

effectual attempt to seize the military post at Mahaica, but were gallantly repulsed by the few persons under the command of Lieutenant Brady. Fresh bodies of troops continued to arrive from town, and formed a tolerably large force under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Leahy, of the 21st, who scoured the country, taking numerous prisoners, and shooting a great many of the unfortunate negroes. Upon one occasion the troops encountered a band of about 2000 slaves, when Colonel Leahy advanced himself towards them, asking what they wanted, and endeavoured to persuade them to lay down their arms. They gave, in answer, that they wanted two days in the week for themselves, some said three days, others that they wanted freedom, and that the king had sent it out, adding that "they would be free." Finding no disposition on their part to disperse, Colonel Leahy read the proclamation of martial law by the governor, and gave a copy to one of the ringleaders. Threatening them with fire of the troops if they did not retire, he left them, accompanied by Captain Croal, who had followed him. After waiting for some time orders were given for the troops to advance, who, being defied by the negroes, fired at and dispersed them with great slaughter. A slight fire was returned on the side of the slaves, and kept up for a few minutes on both sides, but the latter soon retired to the cotton-fields. The soldiers then proceeded onwards, and occupied the neighbouring buildings. Most of the bridges forming the line of communication of the roads had been destroyed by the insurgents, who thought thus to prevent the junction of the whites. In the mean time, many of the prisoners taken were, after a short trial, summarily executed, as a warning to the others. A constant skirmishing was kept up along nearly the whole line of the coast, but in no one instance had the slaves any advantage. Greatly

superior in number they wanted organisation, and the lack of discipline and defined object rendered them helpless to the attack of the roused white inhabitants.

On the 20th of August, another proclamation was issued by the governor, holding out encouragement to those slaves not actually concerned in the insurrection, and threatening them if an opposite course were pursued; but of what avail to an illiterate mob could such a proclamation be? They had already dyed their hands in blood; and, half paralysed at their own exploits, stood awaiting with indifference the result. Those who were condemned to death, bore their fate with marked heroism and fortitude. They experienced no regret for their conduct, and deplored only the ill result of it. Others of the prisoners were sent under escort to town, to await a more formal trial. A great number of the fugitive slaves fled to the woods, and it was proposed to chase them out with the assistance of the native Indians, who upon this occasion came forward with alacrity to assist the white inhabitants. It only remained for the troops to collect as many of the ringleaders as possible, and to prevent any further outbreak by their presence and discipline. The masses of negroes began gradually to disperse; many who had taken refuge in the cotton-fields and woods, returned by degrees to their houses. Several gangs of negroes resumed their work as if nothing had happened, and the panic-struck inhabitants resumed their former occupations and tranquillity. On the 22nd, four days after the breaking out of the slaves, the governor issued a third proclamation of full and free pardon to all slaves (ringleaders excepted) who within forty-eight hours should deliver themselves up to his clemency; and all were enjoined to lay down their arms, and return to their duties.

In other parts of the colony there had been no ope

demonstration of revolt; but evidently the feelings of insubordination had also spread in all directions, and undoubtedly would have declared itself, had anything like success attended the revolt on the east coast. As it was, many of the ringleaders escaped and hid themselves in the various districts, causing great excitement wherever their presence was suspected. In a short time the greater part were taken prisoners and brought to Georgetown, where a formal trial was instituted. His excellency issued a warrant, in the name of his Majesty, for assembling and constituting a general court-martial, which was opened on the 25th of August, composed of several officers of the garrison and militia. After an investigation, which continued for many days, 45 insurgent negroes were found guilty, and sentenced to death; but out of this number, 18 were respited. Of the many who perished by the arms of the militia and soldiers, the exact number is not known, but it must have been considerable; whilst, on the other hand, it does not appear that more than a few white persons were killed, and several others wounded.

But the colonists, in thus speedily arresting the insurrection, had not forgotten the supposed instigators. It has been stated that to the effect of missionary influence much of the late evil had resulted. The missionary Smith, at whose chapel and in whose neighbourhood the plan of revolt had been supposed to have been matured, was arrested and put in prison. On the 13th of October a general court-martial, similarly constituted as the one for the trial of the negroes, was held in order to investigate the charges preferred against him, which accused him of engendering feelings of discontent and dissatisfaction among the negroes towards their lawful masters; of advising, counselling, and corresponding with certain ringleaders of the revolt, and of having withheld the

communication of his knowledge of the intended rebellion from the proper authorities. After a lengthened and important trial, which lasted upwards of a month, he was found guilty on some of the charges, and had the sentence of death passed on him on the 24th of November. Meanwhile he was remanded to prison, there to await the confirmation of the sentence from his Majesty George IV. He, however, became ill shortly after his imprisonment, and in spite of every care and medical attendance, died on the 6th of February of the year 1824. The sentence of death was reprieved by his Majesty, but the intelligence did not reach the colony until the 30th of March. Directions were, however, forwarded to have him dismissed from the colony of Demerary and Essequibo, and to prohibit him from residing in any of the settlements in the West Indies; but, as we have seen, a Superior Power had already translated him to another world, there to await the judgment of an all-seeing Providence, who alone knoweth the secrets of the heart.

However innocent may have been his intention, however charitably inclined his endeavours, it cannot be denied that he acted with great imprudence in encouraging rather than subduing the disaffection of the slaves towards their masters. It was not likely that his voice alone could instil into the hearts of his audience a sufficient knowledge of their position. It was unwise, nay dangerous, to let loose the reins of a power with whose working he was ignorant; and to listen with complacency to the schemes of a multitude which was about to perpetrate a deed of violence. It may be argued that no act of bloodshed was intended, that no individual life was threatened, and that he only listened with indiscretion to the proposition of the slave to claim from the governor that which was considered as a right. But

such a man could have been little versed in the knowledge of human nature to suppose for an instant that the planters would quietly stand by whilst they saw their bondsmen leave the field of toil and assemble in hundreds with arms in their hands, for the purpose of marching to town. He must have placed too much confidence in the virtue of human nature to suppose that the principle once allowed of voluntarily quitting the estates would have been followed by the quiet return of the people to their work. How could he have hoped that such a display of armed force would have been rewarded by the gift of unqualified freedom? Little could he have reflected upon the effects which in all probability would have resulted if in the first instance the revolt of the slaves had been attended with success. He could have watched the events of ages with but little sagacity if he knew not that a conspiracy, once attempted, with but the most moderate intention, runs on to violence and excess, and none could tell the fury of an unbridled and triumphant mob. The French Revolution commenced only with the unostentatious plea of redressing the wrongs of the lower classes. It ended, alas, in the horrors of a civil war unparalleled in atrocity, in the overthrow of the nobles, and in the murder of royalty.

However unwilling we are to participate in the bitter animosity which was displayed towards him and his brother missionaries by the colonists, and however little inclined to extenuate their fearful revenge on the mistaken slaves, we cannot shut our eyes to the fact that John Smith was cognisant of an intended movement on the part of the negroes to claim their freedom, and that he had it consequently in his power to have averted all those evils which his ill-timed silence entailed upon himself, upon his misguided people, and upon the colony at large. This one solemn startling fact is sufficient of

itself to cast a stain upon his character, however otherwise pure and amiable, and to check us in that deep sympathy which we would otherwise have felt for his imprisonment, obloquy, and death.*

Thus ended the insurrection of 1823, which, whether we consider the serious consequences which might have resulted had the slaves been victorious, or the indiscriminate slaughter of a small party of troops and militia against an undisciplined host, is an era in the history of British Guiana which cannot easily be forgotten. The crushed spirit and servile demeanour of the slave had been flung aside, and he had started up in an attitude of manly defiance and haughty daring, whilst the lordly and luxurious planter had felt appalled at the novel and frightful sight of his slave in arms. At the time of the occurrence the land in cultivation was held by about 200 proprietors, of whom only about 75 resided in the colony, showing the extent of "absenteeism," as already noticed. The cry of revolt had struck terror into the hearts of the owners of the rich soil, and confusion and dismay at first were spread abroad; but it was not long ere the clear intelligence of the Anglo-Caucasian race saw through the mist which at first obscured them, and the courage of high descent animated their bosoms; calmness succeeded to confusion; skill and bravery to alarm. Rapid and fearful as was the stroke aimed at them, it was parried with equal vigour; the weapon of aggression was soon wrenched from the threatening arm, and vengeance—tenfold vengeance, inflicted on the assailant. It is easy to say that the conquest was not difficult, and that the victory was obtained over feeble opponents. It is possible to conjecture that a bloody revolt was actually brought

* It is also positively asserted that Quanima, one of the leaders in the rebellion, was harboured by this unfortunate missionary after a reward had been publicly offered for his capture.

on, by a warlike defence, before even an actual assault had been made, and that the fears and fury of the excited colonists made the strife of battle, when only a simple war of words was intended. But it is much easier to ridicule the exploits of an armed and disciplined force over untutored savages, and to censure their cruelty, than to assert what would be one's own feelings during an occasion such as we have described. Had the revolt been general throughout the colony; had its organisation been laid secretly and developed skilfully; had the slave population risen suddenly and rapidly as one man, then would the generation of planters have, perhaps, been swept from the land of British Guiana, and the flag of self-accomplished freedom been unfurled, all stained with blood, to the Western Isles. The shout of the triumphant serf would have drowned the cries of his conquered master. But it was not so; the long possessed power of the white man had exercised its influence on his slave. The mind, which had bowed in bondage to the will of a superior, could not shake off its allegiance in an hour, although that hour was one of passion and madness. It had deceived itself. Excited by desire and persuasion, goaded on, perhaps, by insult and wrong, it thought its power strong enough to grapple with the fancied oppressor; its determination strong enough to resist the power of authority; the hour of trial came, and it was found wanting; the attempt had been made in earnest, but had failed. The defeated slave returned humbled and self-abased to resume his wonted task, and to serve in dogged sullenness and silence.

CHAPTER XI.

REJOICING AFTER THE INSURRECTION OF 1824—REWARDS TO THE OFFICERS—EXPENSES OF THE INSURRECTION—PUBLIC FEELING AGAINST THE MISSIONARIES—CHANGE OF GOVERNORS—RETIREMENT OF BRIGADIER-GENERAL MURRAY—REVIEW OF HIS CHARACTER—ARRIVAL OF SIR BENJAMIN D'URBAN AS LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR—COMMISSION OF INQUIRY INTO THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, 1825—PROTECTOR OF SLAVES APPOINTED—DEMERARA AND ESSEQUEBO DIVIDED INTO PARISHES—CHURCH AND POOR FUND—MONETARY CHANGES—KAGEE SPECULATIONS IN PROPERTY—ANTICIPATION OF EMANCIPATION—OPINIONS ON THE SUBJECT—THE THREE COLONIES UNITED UNDER ONE GOVERNMENT, 1831—REVIEW OF EVENTS IN BERBICE—ALTERATION OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL COURTS—SEPARATION OF FINANCIAL REPRESENTATIVES FROM COLLEGE OF KEIZERS—CONSOLIDATED SLAVE ORDINANCES, 1832—INFERIOR COURTS ESTABLISHED—GOVERNMENT OF SIR BENJAMIN D'URBAN—ABSTRACT OF RATIO OF MORTALITY AMONG SLAVES.

THE rejoicings that followed the suppression of the revolt marked a bright page in the dark annals of British Guiana. Martial law, after having been put into force for a period of five months, was discontinued on the 19th January, 1824; the terrible executions of the insurgents ceased, and the year opened with a public acknowledgment from the governor to the officers and soldiers, regulars and militia, of his excellency's high sense of their valuable services. Addresses and tributes followed from the Court of Policy and the inhabitants generally to the officers who had most distinguished themselves in these unhappy transactions. A costly sword was presented by the court to Lieutenant-Colonel Leahy, worth 200 guineas, and another, of the value of

fifty guineas, to Lieutenant Brady. To the officers of the 21st Regiment a sum of 500 guineas was presented for the purchase of plate for the use of their regimental mess, and another sum of 200 guineas to the officers of the West Indian Regiment for a similar object. A piece of plate of the value of 350 guineas was also given to Lieutenant-Colonel Leahy, of the 21st, by some of the inhabitants, and a cheque for 1000*l.* to Lieutenant Brady, by the colonists of the east coast and others. The able commandant of the Georgetown militia, Lieutenant-Colonel Goodman, received from the inhabitants a sum of 400*l.* to be laid out in plate, and 100*l.* for the purchase of a sword. The bonds of social harmony were drawn closer by the escape from the common dangers which had threatened the whole community, and the universal alarm and despondency was changed into an outburst of popular festivity.

The expense of the insurrection amounted to upwards of 200,000 dollars, which was principally met by a new issue of colonial paper money to the amount of 24,193 joes—raising the total amount issued to 100,000 joes.

Other important consequences followed in the wake of this painful drama. So excited and prejudiced were the feelings of the colonists against the class of missionaries, that at a public meeting, held in Georgetown on the 24th February, it was resolved, "That the Court of Policy be forthwith petitioned to expel all missionaries from the colony, and that a law be passed prohibiting the admission of any missionary preachers into this colony for the future." It seems hardly credible that the colonists could have so far forgotten themselves as to act in so vindictive a spirit, or that they should have been so weak as to suppose that, by excluding the missionaries, they could succeed in extinguishing the desire for knowledge and freedom amongst the negroes. That desire once awakened

is not to be repressed by penal enactments; and, nourished in the primeval solitudes of the forests, and upon the lonely coast whose waters washed the distant lands where men were free, the slave needed no teacher to make him aspire to the blessing of liberty.

Governor Murray, who had become the idol of the inhabitants by his late conduct, was not permitted to enjoy his triumph long. He was immediately afterwards recalled by an order from London; and on the 24th April, Major-General Sir Benjamin D'Urban arrived to assume the government. On the occasion of Governor Murray's retirement, he was presented by the colonists with a piece of plate of the value of 1200 guineas, "in memorial of the happy suppression of the late revolt." With this popular and able governor a great many of the traces of a slave country disappeared, never to return. That he was a popular governor, none, I believe, would deny; that he was likewise able and intelligent must be admitted, when we consider that he remained about eleven years at the head of the administration of a colony which was undergoing the most rapid social changes, and that during the term of his government many acts of vast public and private importance were introduced by his advice and influence. If, in the closing scene of his career as governor he displayed some want of judgment with reference to the approaching emancipation of the slave, the error was of the head, and not of the heart. A great step was taken from the period of the insurrection in the march of improvement. From the date of its fortunate suppression may be traced the dawning of a brighter day for the negroes, and a whispering of foreboding evil to the planter. A gap in the ordinary progress of events seemed suddenly filled up, and men acquired in a short time the experience of years. Emancipation was no longer looked upon as chimerical. The

habits of the white man had been too extensively adopted by the slave to be easily cast off; and the ideas of independence, which had taken deep root in his mind, had already begun to develop their power over his actions. In the late movement he had given a warning proof of the fortitude with which he could persevere in the pursuit of the object which ever engrossed his whole life. The condition of the negroes was altered. They were no longer insensate, stolid, and incapable of combination and unanimity; and, however crude and imperfect their first attempt at co-operation, it was evident that they had acquired a clear sense of the importance of union for the attainment of the end towards which they struggled. They were already rising in the social scale; some of them were promoted to situations of trust and confidence, and others had in their turn become masters, and actually owned slaves. In this character, however, they did not appear to advantage, and showed by their harshness and severity that as yet they little understood the "duties" of property, although they were nothing loth to assert its "rights."

The slave of the slave suggests a painful image of authority exercised, and toil exacted, by men over their equals in birth, education, and civilisation. The negro early displayed an anxiety to possess such an authority and power, and it will not be inapt to remark that the change in condition had also occasioned a change in sentiment, for the individual who in his day of slavery had cursed the hated name and scouted its attributes, became, when freed, as jealous of his new rights, and as tenacious of his privileges, as the European, whom the prospect of emancipation scared. Why, then, attribute to either race those vices which are inherent in the circumstances in which they are placed, rather than in their original natures? since it is evident that, had their positions

been reversed, the negro would have made as jealous a taskmaster as the white man, and the European as indignant and stubborn a slave as the black. The moral is obvious, and tells with equal effect on both sides.

It may be asked how the slave could obtain the means of purchasing his freedom; how the man who lived in bondage and toiled for the advantage of another, could have contrived to amass the funds necessary for his redemption from chains. But this can be easily explained. It had been long the custom to allow the negro certain privileges and hours of leisure, which he might employ in any way he chose. Many had naturally turned their attention towards supplying the wants which they found to exist among their superiors and their neighbours. The cultivation of their little patches of land, the raising of stock, the catching of fish, were some of the methods by which they acquired money. There were also certain extra tasks, for which they were sometimes well paid. In addition to these resources, the most promising of the slaves were taught various trades. Some were employed as coopers, carpenters, masons, boatmen, &c.; and it was not unusual for persons owning a few slaves to hire out their services for a given sum, beyond which anything that they made themselves was for their own use. Several came to be employed as vendors of different articles for household uses, &c., and receiving the name of "hucksters," traversed the country on the business of their employers. By such and similar means the negro occasionally managed to accomplish his liberation. An additional stimulus was now about to be given to the advancement of his order by the spirit of European liberty. Well would it have been for the negro, and the colony generally, had the coming boon been regulated by justice and wisdom, and the mind of the slave been prepared for his new duties by being duly impressed with

the paramount necessity of industry, morality, and self-regeneration.

The arrival of Sir Benjamin D'Urban from the island of Antigua, where he had resided some time, was the commencement of a new era. He found the colony still unsettled from the consequences of the late outbreak, and the planter and the negro both looking forward to the changes he had been empowered to introduce. By his Majesty's orders, commissioners of inquiry into the administration of justice arrived shortly after, for the purpose of remodelling those anomalies in the administration of the land, to which reference has already been made. In the following year, an ordinance, after some opposition, was passed by the governor and Court of Policy, entitled "An Ordinance for the Religious Instructions of Slaves, and for Meliorating their Condition." It was dated September 7th, published October 15th, and was to take effect on the 1st January, 1826. It provided for the appointment of a protector of slaves; secured the slaves an immunity from labour (except in certain specific cases) from sunset on Saturday to sunrise on Monday; limited field work from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M., with two hours' intermission; prohibited the whip from being carried into the field; abolished the whipping of women; limited punishment to 25 lashes; required a record of punishments to be kept; secured to the slaves the privileges of marriage, of acquiring and holding property, and of purchasing their freedom. An officer from England, Colonel A. W. Young, was appointed to the new office of "protector of slaves," a title conveying a satire upon the conduct of the community, and certainly not very complimentary to the governor himself. The duties required of this officer were vexatious and arduous. His position was likely to render him obnoxious to many of the colonists, while it required great prudence, judgment,

and firmness to enable him to deal with the frivolous complaints of slaves on the one side, and to soothe the offended dignity of employers and owners on the other. But such qualifications were eminently possessed by Colonel Young, and his whole bearing, career, and conduct were marked by impartiality, determination, and wisdom. The nature of his duties was fully developed in subsequent proclamations and other ordinances, and some of their principal features may be thus described :

Protectors, and assistant protectors, not to own or manage slaves; to be warranted in entering into negro houses on estates, &c.; privilege given to slaves to pass and repass to protector to make complaints, penalty in opposing protector's duties, power to summons witnesses, and to examine them; witnesses not attending may be committed to gaol; protector not to act as magistrate; protectors to act as coroners, and also appear in behalf of slaves prosecuted; to prohibit Sunday markets, Sunday labour, and Sunday traffic, under penalties; (with certain exceptions) to determine regulations about use of the whip; forfeiture of slaves in cases of cruelty and ill-treatment; slaves made competent to marry, and to apply for such license to protector; slaves not to be proprietors of boats, ammunition, &c.; slaves not to be proprietors of slaves; relationship of slaves to be attended to; fees of office and duties on manumissions abolished; slaves may effect the purchase of their freedom by a compulsory process; evidence of slaves to be admitted; concluding with rules and regulations respecting the food and maintenance of slaves; the duration of labour, clothing, medical attendance, religious worship, and other important subjects.

In the year 1825, the districts of Demerara and Essequibo were divided into parishes, ten in number, distinct and separate; a great improvement from the simple

division into plantations and burgher districts. As a natural sequence, churches began to be built, and duly qualified clergymen arrived to undertake the rather arduous duty of regenerating the morality of the colony. Among the other churches so established was one for Roman Catholics, the first stone of which was laid by the governor. This church was ultimately endowed by the colony. All the regular appurtenances of such establishments were soon after introduced by the improving efforts of civilisation; such as the formation of vestries, with "an act to regulate them;" also, at a later period, an act for "Regulating and preserving Registers of Baptism, Marriages, and Burials, in the united colony of Demerara and Essequibo." An establishment called "The Church and Poor's Fund" had been in existence since 1824, and different acts for its regulation and guidance continued to be enforced, till the whole system became completely altered. The origin of this fund took its rise with the Dutch, who, as we have seen, so early as the year 1792, had instituted a consistory of at least two deacons and two elders, to which consistory the control of Church and Poor moneys was to be entrusted, &c. A consistory thus composed existed on each of the inhabited rivers, viz.:—Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. Afterwards, or in 1793, it was decreed that all "imports leviable for funds of Church and Poor moneys should thenceforth be received by the respective receivers of the poor's chest, as members administering, and thereunto commissioned, out of the consistory." The system thus established obtained until 1816, when the "administration thereof was vested in the clergymen of the Established Church of England, in the minister of the Dutch Reformed Church, and in the minister of the Kirk of Scotland within the said united colonies." But as this

was never authorised or confirmed by his Majesty, an order in council in 1824 founded in the united colonies a body corporate, styled "The Board of Church and Poor's Fund," &c., consisting of a president and six members, viz.:—the senior clergyman of the Church of England, who acted as president; the Dutch minister, the Scotch minister, the first fiscal, and three other persons, to be named by the governor, none of whom were to receive any salary; a treasurer and secretary were appointed with a salary, as well as a clerk. Another later act in 1830, for "Regulating the claims of the Board of Church and Poor's Fund upon the property of persons receiving maintenances from the board," enacted several clauses relative to persons assigning over their property to such funds, &c. &c. A similar body corporate was also established at a subsequent period by Governor Smyth, for the district of Berbice.

An alteration in the monetary affairs of the colony also took place in 1825, when British coin was introduced, and an order in council declared "that a tender and payment of British silver money, to the amount of four shillings and fourpence, should be considered as equivalent to the tender or payment of one Spanish dollar, and so in proportion for any greater or less amount of debt," &c. Hence, British coin became a legal tender for the discharge of debts and other business. "And whereas the said British silver and copper money has been sent out to this united colony, consisting of

Silver.....	Half crowns, shillings, and sixpences,
Copper	Pence, half-pence, and farthings;

"It is hereby declared and ordered, that the said British silver and copper money shall, from and after the 24th day of September, 1825, be legal tender and payment, at the rate and value following:

British coin.	Guilders.	Stivers.	Pennings (col. money)
Half crowns.....	1	15	...
Shillings (or 12 pence).....	...	14	...
Sixpence.....	...	7	...
One penny.....	...	1	...
Halfpenny.....	10
Farthing.....	5

“And all persons are further informed that they may demand from the chief officer of the commissariat department in this colony bills upon the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty’s Treasury at thirty days’ sight, in exchange for any sums whatever tendered by them in British silver, not less in amount than 100*l.*, at the fixed rate of a bill, 100*l.* for every 103*l.* of British silver money so tendered.”

The legal par of exchange was raised from 12 to 14 guilders. During the suspension of specie payments by the Bank of England, and the consequent depreciation of the pound sterling, Spanish dollars had passed current in the colony at the rate of three guilders each. Upon the restoration of specie payments by the bank, the pound sterling recovered its original value; but the excessive issue of joe notes prevented a similar result in the colony. A Spanish dollar was still worth three guilders of the paper money, or of the debased silver of the colony; and it consequently became necessary to raise the legal par of exchange. Thus the joe of this colony, which was originally worth 8 dollars and 40 cents, in consequence of the excessive issue of paper, sunk to the value of 7 dollars 33½ cents. Such were some of the principal changes effected about this period.

The social condition of the inhabitants appeared to be but little influenced by these innovations, nor did property lose any of its value, either by the threatened calamity of the insurrection, or the contemplated measures for improving the state of the labouring classes. Speculations of all kinds were pursued with a determination

which ensured success. We have seen that the arrival of Europeans increased after the colonies had been taken possession of by the British, but more especially since 1815; and it had long been the custom for persons possessed of little capital to purchase estates upon credit, trusting to the large profits to be made by their cultivation for the means of paying off the debt by instalments. Instances had occurred in which persons without any capital at all had made purchases of property, and been enabled, in the course of a few years, to become the undoubted proprietors of such estates. The way by which these transactions were conducted was as follows:—A gentleman of good address and connexion would offer to take over an estate, giving bills of exchange on well-known firms in England or elsewhere; this arrangement being accepted, he proceeded home at once, before the bills could be presented, and explained his object and intentions to the firm with whom he might, or might not, have had previous dealings or acquaintance; the bills being accepted, the money was duly paid, the parties advancing the money receiving and selling the sugars or other produce, sending out supplies, and making themselves secure by holding one or more mortgages on the property, which, in the case of unsuccessful speculations of this kind, eventually fell into their hands. This system of advancing money upon property entailed much misery in the long run upon the planters, and although it was attended by extraordinary success at first, it led to the introduction of artificial principles, which reduced the value of property to a mere nominal amount, and finally engendered all sorts of abuses. It is now completely abandoned.

From this time forward the desire to become connected in some way or other with landed property may be described as a sort of mania. It is not diffi-

cult to trace the cause of this. In all countries there are certain pursuits which entitle those who follow them to an aristocratic position. In some, as in Russia, the military profession brings particular distinction ; in England, a seat in the Legislature ; and in Europe generally, stars, ribands, and titles. Comparing small things with great, the grand claim to distinction in British Guiana was, and still continues to be, the possession of landed property in the shape of an estate. Apart from higher walks of ambition, this local glory is regarded as the greatest honour. Of course it is not attended by equal advantage to all. At the commencement, the race was pretty equal, but the passion for estated properties induced so many persons to plunge into agricultural pursuits without the requisite experience, capital, or activity, that in the course of time success, instead of being the rule, became the exception. Nevertheless, as the possession of land was the only road to the attainment of the highest social rank, men who were earning a fair livelihood by their employments, professional or commercial, were still tempted to plunge into agricultural pursuits, undeterred by the examples of failures that were every day occurring around them. As the sole direction of local affairs, formerly but feebly counteracted by the few officials, thus became vested in the hands of the most wealthy among the planters, the exercise of authority inevitably took that shape and form most conducive to their special interests. Opposed to all kinds of innovations, the object of the planters was to provide and enact laws and regulations calculated for their own aggrandisement, or for that of their class. Hence it was not enough for a man to find himself gaining a reputation and fortune by other employments, so long as he felt himself dependent on the patronage or success of the planter. So that the merchant, the lawyer,

the doctor—nay, the tradesman, sought to increase his gains and advance his rank by the possession of some property. Very often, as might have been expected, such parties soon became mere nominal representatives of property. The shadow was theirs, but the substance went to another.

*Quod quis vocare possit dominium indefinitum,
Non formalitu, sed concessive; non acta, sed potentia.*

Advances of money had to be obtained to carry on hopeless agricultural speculations. Lavish expenditure or diminished means soon led the proprietors into difficulties; fresh sums were advanced, more mortgages entailed, until by degrees the whole management or disposal of such property passed out of the hands of the mistaken theorist, and beggary and ruin alone awaited him. The high-sounding title and imaginary wealth of the West Indian proprietor began to be questioned, and the sun of prosperity, through this and other causes, gradually waned.

The most prominent among these causes was the contemplated changes in the condition of the negro, and the steps already taken towards his future emancipation. It was looked upon as unjust to wrest from the planters the control of their purchased slaves, and to cast them unfettered upon society. The worst of evils was anticipated by measures which threatened to damage individual security, and blight the general condition of the colony. Stagnation of business, abandonment of properties, and the perpetration of all kinds of crime, were prophesied as inevitable. Anarchy and confusion were expected to be the result, and strenuous efforts were made by the inhabitants to oppose at its commencement anything like what they regarded as an innovation upon their rights. The open avowal of the contemplated emancipation of

the negro being supported on the one hand by the ministerial party, and by a powerful body, acting under the title of the "African Institution," was opposed by a smaller party with whom, as a matter of course, the colonists sided. The views of the former, or abolitionists, were regarded by the latter as "highly visionary;" it was asserted that the negroes would *retrograde* rather than *advance* in civilisation, and a powerful objection was started by a member of the legislative body, that the colonies would ultimately be lost to Great Britain. It was stated, that among the chief means of civilisation two were pre-eminent—industry and knowledge; but that the latter might be considered rather as an effect or consequence of the former: that as regards industry, "men will not work without compulsion; that compulsion is of two kinds, the coercion of a master and the dread of starvation, and that in a country where the abundance of food puts the latter stimulant out of the question, the ground, if cultivated at all, must be cultivated by the system of slavery." Again, it was asserted that "slavery was doomed to die of its own accord. In the progress of society imaginary wants are established; many articles of luxury, in clothing and lodging, are now required, and an additional expense is created in teaching the handicraft required to produce these articles. Population also is increased; the redundant supply of food, therefore, diminishes, and the cost of maintaining a slave becomes gradually greater and greater. In due time it (connected with other causes) becomes equal to the value of his labour; his master, then, finds no advantage in keeping him, and, consequently, employs free labourers." It was prognosticated that the negroes never would merge into a free working peasantry sufficient for the keeping up of cultivation in the West Indies, and that *labourers from other parts of the world would have to be brought*

to supply their place. Examples were adduced from modern and ancient history, nay, from the very Bible itself, to show that the principle of slavery had always been tolerated by the most civilised among nations, and that the present condition of the slave was far superior to what had been pursued either by the Egyptians, the Israelites, the Grecians, and the Romans. Every suggestion was offered to postpone or bring about gradually the liberation of the negro, until, in fact, their industry had been roused, and their knowledge rendered sufficient for the appreciation and the practice of the duties of a free and civilised people. How thoroughly and clearly, it must be admitted, did the colonists and their partisans, even at this period, anticipate many of the actual consequences of the emancipation ; but, at the same time, how blindly did they conceive that such interested arguments would weigh with a nation which had evidently made up its mind, at any risk, to blot out the opprobrious epithet of slave from its history, and to introduce those blessings of liberty which had done so much good to every part of the world subject to its sway. The hope that Great Britain would pause ere she acted so seriously against her interest, nor thus voluntarily resign, or render doubtful for the future, the benefits she had derived from her West India possessions, was great among the colonists. Was this the flattery of self-importance, or was it a distrust in the philanthropic greatness of the British people ? Possibly both ; but they greatly erred in such conclusions. The feeling of anti-slavery had become too general to allow of much calm reasoning upon the subject. A few burning phrases from glowing lips had excited the minds of thousands against the system of slavery and its supporters. The populace, but little acquainted with the reality, rent the air with their indignant protests. The true facts of the case were never

stated, the real condition of the two chief parties concerned was never appreciated by the mass who clamoured for it. Some well-known instances of undoubted cruelty were the hackneyed quotations of every discourse on the subject, and became the texts for innumerable anti-slavery sermons. "Am I not a Christian and a brother?" was the inscription over pictures representing the negroes in every attitude of degradation and suffering. The really just principle at stake was cloaked over with all manner of extraneous ornament, and opposition to its accomplishment was looked upon as bigoted and selfish. The battle hitherto had been fought at a distance, but by degrees scenes of contention arose in the colonies; a party from the mother country had already found their way here, and, setting a bold front to the inhabitants, openly avowed their doctrines. The insurrection of physical force having failed, a revolution of a moral nature was next to be brought about.

Feelings of alarm began, therefore, to spread among the colonists. The strides towards emancipation were becoming more rapid. Resistance had been found worse than useless, and gloom and dissatisfaction began visibly to be evinced; a diminution in the price of sugar about the years 1828 to 1832 added to the general panic, and throughout the whole of the West India possessions there was experienced the deepest despondency. The exultation on the part of the slave was now silent, but perhaps the more heartfelt. Persons of all professions openly avowed their belief in the speedy downfall of the colonies, yet still remained spell-bound to the spot. Few made any efforts to quit the land thus threatened with a moral earthquake; while the absent proprietors still continued to live in Europe, in a style of lavish expenditure. Urgent orders were sent out to strain every nerve towards making the most of the present state of things. On the

part of the planter nothing was left undone to raise the last hogshead of sugar. All sorts of plans and projects were discussed, with a view to diminish the necessity for manual labour, and to render planters independent of the slave; but none of them were put into practice. The provision-grounds and plantain-walks on estates were left unattended to, in order that all the strength of physical power should be concentrated in the manufacture of sugar and rum. It seemed as if the proprietors had determined that the powers of the slave should be taxed to the utmost extremity, and, like the flagging spirits of a jaded beast, roused to a last superhuman performance. Those whose properties were mortgaged looked on in sullen indifference, as if the final stroke of misfortune was about to descend on them, whilst in reality it turned out that this particular class was the very one which derived the largest benefits from the ensuing events. The smaller proprietors and the freed persons, who owned a small number of slaves, upon whose existence they mainly depended, were loud in their complaints, and yet they also enjoyed afterwards a compensating gift, which to the prudent would have enabled them to embark in some other speculation; but no, they were themselves about to be robbed of their "Aladdin's lamp," and nothing else would satisfy them. They had been accustomed to one mode of life, and they could not see why the officiousness of strangers should be allowed to interfere with it. The negroes were neither conciliated nor congratulated on their approaching liberty. The happiness about to be conferred on them was the signal of destruction to the master. Distrust and vexation pervaded all ranks of the community. Every one regarded his own case as being harder than that of his neighbour. One had lately made a purchase, why should he not be allowed to derive the expected advantages? Another was about to do so,

why was he not permitted to carry out his intention? Others had always lived under the old system, and thought the proposed changes especially calamitous to himself.

Nor were such expressions of complaint confined to private remonstrance. As usual, in all colonies where the liberty of the press has existed, the grievances of the inhabitants are pretty roundly asserted through the channel of a newspaper. At the period to which we are now alluding an angry warfare was carried on with the organs of the anti-slavery party, and, in consequence of the violent tone displayed by some portion of the press, on this and other subjects, the prerogative of Governor D'Urban was exercised in suppressing one paper called the *Colonist*, and in frequently suspending the publication of another, the *Chronicle*. But the voice of the colonists could not thus be stifled, and continued to declare itself in every possible way.

It has already been noticed that several orders in Council had appeared making every provision for the benefit of the slaves. In 1830, when the "Ordinance for the Religious Instruction of Slaves, &c.," was published in the colony, the members of the court attempted to prevent the operation of this order, on the ground that it was unconstitutional and a violation of the rights of the colonists as contained in the "Plan of Redress," and guaranteed by the articles of capitulation; but the then Colonial Secretary, Lord Goderich, refused to recognise these doctrines; and the next year, by another order in Council, the court itself was remodelled.*

In the year 1831, when William the Fourth ascended the throne, the settlements on the three rivers of the colony had made great progress, the industry of the

* Local Guide, p. xxi.

Dutch and British having triumphed over the many difficulties attending "the formation of a settlement in the Tropics." The last formed settlement had now become the largest and most influential, and Essequibo had already resigned the seat of government to the less romantic, but more commercial, Demerara; whilst Berbice, left to itself, pursued a similar, but separate colonial line of policy. Although, however, thus distinct, and at different periods as important, if not more so than either of the other two settlements, yet of late it had acted more the part of a handmaiden, or younger sister, to the others; and the fortunes of Demerara and Essequibo, whether for good or evil, affected also materially the fate of Berbice. We have, at different times, given an account of the more important circumstances in the history of the district, and it only now remains to add a few more particulars as to the time when the three colonies were united into one, and to be called British Guiana, under the government of his Excellency Major-General Sir Benjamin D'Urban, K.C.B., K.C.H., &c.

The colony of Berbice, on the retirement of Governor Van Batenburg in 1806, was administered by two military officers in succession, as already noticed, who conducted the affairs of the settlement in peace and tranquillity. There was little in the even and prosperous tenor of its way which required to be chronicled; and the few incidents connected with its history at this period have been entirely overlooked by contemporaries, nor am I able to contribute much to the scanty records of its career. Its form of laws, of government, its social condition and cultivation, corresponded nearly in every respect to the sister settlements on the Demerara and Essequibo. The spirit, energy, and enterprise of the Berbiceans were not surpassed by their brother colonists.

A reference to the tables of exports and imports, from 1806 to 1831, will show that the industry of its population contributed a fair proportion of colonial produce.

The cotton raised was considered the finest in the West Indies, and commanded the highest price.

The sugar and rum manufactured were equal to that of Demerara; and the article coffee was of the best colonial quality. Maintaining its own government, the revenue and expenditure were quite distinct from that of the united colonies of Demerara and Essequibo.

The soil, and its surprising capabilities, were not inferior to any in the world. Somewhat scattered, as the population undoubtedly was, and distant as were the estates one from the other, the utmost industry prevailed among its secluded members, who were composed, perhaps, of a larger proportion of foreigners than in the other two districts; but, nevertheless, the greatest cordiality and good-will were extended to the inhabitants of the sister settlements, in spite of the disagreement which at one time had unfortunately existed between them.

In the capital of the colony, New Amsterdam (which had begun to be built since 1796, and which supplanted a town of a similar name a little further up the river), the occasions of strife and discord were numerous and frequent between the inhabitants and the executive; indeed, from some cause or other, the affairs of Berbice were too often complicated with bickerings and animosity, and the dissensions between the officials and civilians have been repeated and violent.

About this period, the town had resumed an air of prosperity and rising importance; there were several fine buildings, the old court-house especially, which, together with the lively and clean private houses, prettily

surrounded by lovely tropical fruit-trees and shrubs, presented an aspect of striking beauty to the visitor.

After the retirement of General James Montgomery, William Woodley, Esq., arrived from England with his commission as lieutenant-governor, and was sworn into office in March, 1809; there was nothing of any public importance during his short administration. Quiet and unassuming, and a stranger to the habits and customs of the colony, he took no prominent part in interfering or altering the ordinary routine of business. About nine months after his arrival he was unfortunately attacked with a fever, of which he died in January, 1810.

He was succeeded in the government by the senior military officer, Major-General Dalrymple, who was sworn into office in the same month, and continued as acting-governor until December of the same year, when Robert Gordon, Esq., a resident planter of the colony, but who was in England at the time, received his commission as lieutenant-governor. This gentleman was well known in Berbice as a clever but eccentric character, and received the soubriquet of "Mad Gordon" from his fellow-colonists. He was of firm and decided character, acting with impartiality and fearlessness towards both friends and foes. Upon one occasion he suspended two of his most intimate friends, members of the Court of Policy, in consequence of some irregularity and subterfuge attempted to be practised on him in regard to their improper appropriation of some money entrusted to their care by a trust deed of a deceased party.

He quitted the colony for a short time in June, 1812, and during his absence the government was administered by Brigadier-General John Murray, who acquired for himself considerable popularity and reputation in the course of the discharge of his public duties.

On the return of Lieutenant-Governor Gordon in February, 1813, he resumed the administration, and Acting-Governor Murray was presented by the inhabitants with a complimentary address on his retirement.

It was during this year that an attempt was made by some irritated planters from Berbice to injure, if not assassinate, Mr. Van Berckel, of which an account has been already given. When information was received by the lieutenant-governor of this district of the disgraceful outrage, he took every feasible measure to discover the perpetrators of so unwarrantable a proceeding, and offered a large reward for their apprehension. It is said, that immediately after the occurrence a gentleman was actually at the dinner-table of the lieutenant-governor who, it was supposed, had been implicated in the assault, and who listened with some surprise, if not alarm, to the angry denunciations of Governor Gordon on the subject.

But the lieutenant-governor himself was not without his own annoyances in respect to his conduct, having strongly recommended a Mr. Frankland, of Berbice, to the office of President of the Courts of Justice in Demerara and Essequibo; this officer was nominated to the situation, but certain objections having been raised in respect to his character and qualification, the matter was referred to the British Government, who, in consequence, wrote a letter of reprimand to the lieutenant-governor of Berbice, which so incensed him that he forthwith resigned his office, and Major Grant was appointed as acting-governor of the colony in December, 1813. The humiliated and eccentric governor shortly after left the district, and died in one of the West India Islands.

In June, 1814, H. W. Bentinck, Esq., was nominated lieutenant-governor, and was sworn into office. It will be remembered that this officer had already administered the government of Demerara and Essequibo from

1806 to 1812, but that he had been superseded by an order from England, in consequence of his disobedience to the instructions received. On his return to Great Britain to give an account of his public conduct, he seems to have sufficiently extenuated himself, and to have obtained a return of Court favour, inasmuch as he received a new appointment nearly, if not quite, equal in rank and importance to the one of which he had been deprived. Generous, good-natured, and conciliatory, he was deficient in that sound judgment which is so requisite in the character of a colonial governor. A man of the world, and of considerable experience, he was not remarkable for intelligence or skill; actuated by the strong impulse of the moment, rather than guided by the dictates of calm deliberation, he frequently embroiled himself in disputes with the officers and subjects of his administration, and occasionally had to submit to the censure of the Government in England. Frank, familiar, and cordial in his manner, he was nevertheless rather a popular governor; and although advanced in life, and broken down in constitution, he continued for several years to conduct the affairs of Berbice with some success and satisfaction.

One of the principal evils he had, like most of the early governors, to encounter, were the irregularities and abuses practised in the judicial business of the colony. Extortion, exorbitant fees, subterfuge and deception, were prevalent among the courts which had to investigate and decide in the complicated monetary transactions arising from the frequent changes, failures, and deaths among the possessors of property. It was unfortunately too common a practice, both in Berbice and Demerara, for persons entrusted with the administration of the estates of deceased relatives or friends to enrich themselves at the expense of the widow and the

orphan, either appropriating the proceeds to their private use, or never rendering a satisfactory account of them; and it was not until the last shilling of profit had been extracted from the "Boedel," or estate, that the grasping executors or attorneys relinquished their hold of their profitable speculations. Often has a promising and solvent inheritance been handed down to the rightful possessor in an entirely unproductive condition, and involved in debt and litigation. No wonder that fortunes were often rapidly and strangely made—no wonder that colonial properties proved of little benefit to the successors of the thrifty and successful planter, and that mortgage and debt clung like millstones round the necks of the helpless female or the unprotected minor.

Dark and painful are the stories which yet circulate among the old inhabitants on this unpleasant subject. One short anecdote will suffice to point the moral of these miseries:—A gentleman, possessed of considerable property, was once imperatively called upon by the Court of Justice of Demerara to submit his accounts and vouchers of a certain lucrative "Boedel" entrusted to his care. After frequent evasive delays, he said that on such a day he would be ready to exhibit them, and with some parade and ostentation conveyed himself and his books on board his estates' schooner, to proceed to town. To the astonishment of the court he presented himself before the members without a single document, and affirmed on oath that, on coming to town, the schooner was unaccountably sunk, and that with some difficulty the crew and himself contrived to escape, but with the loss of all on board.

About the year 1819, Henry Beard, Esq., arrived from England, as President of the Court of Justice of Berbice. He endeavoured to improve the important department committed to his care, but in consequence of

some trifling disagreement with Lieutenant-Governor Bentinck, he was suspended by that officer. The matter was referred to the British Government, who thought proper to reinstate Mr. Beard, and to administer to the governor a reprimand for his unbecoming interference. In the course of the year 1820, Governor Bentinck died, to the regret of the colonists, who liked him in spite of his failings. His health had long been declining, so that the event of his decease was more or less anticipated. He was succeeded in November by Major Thistlewayte, the military officer highest in command here, and who had lately married one of the ladies of the colony. The career of the acting-governor was brief and melancholy. Not long married, and suddenly appointed in the prime of life to so lucrative a position, he was attacked with malignant fever about a month after his taking office, and died in January, 1821.

While on his death-bed he had to make arrangements for his successor; according to rule, the officer next in rank should succeed him, until the arrival of a lieutenant-governor, by appointment, from England. It so happened that at the time of his illness the officer in command was only a lieutenant, a young, wild, and inexperienced lad, evidently unfitted for such an office. The President of the Court of Justice, Mr. Beard, accordingly despatched his secretary, Mr. J. C. Campbell, to Governor Murray, of Demerara, requesting him to send a competent military officer to assume the government. Before this was completed, however, Colonel Sir John Cameron, having heard of Governor Bentinck's death in Barbadoes, proceeded quickly to Berbice to enjoy the privileges of acting-governor. On his arrival he found Major Thistlewayte dying, but without waiting for his death had the Court of Policy assembled, and was sworn into office forthwith. He did not, however, long enjoy the coveted



honours. It appears that on the death of Governor Bentinck, Mr. Beard had exerted his influence, and that of his friends at home, to procure the government for himself, and with success, for in March, 1821, he received his commission as lieutenant-governor of Berbice.

His administration was by no means popular. He had frequent disputes with his subordinates, and with the members of the Council of Policy, many of whom were also members of the Court of Justice. Upon one occasion he dissolved the former, and caused other members to be nominated in their place, which caused a great deal of excitement and indignation among a certain class of the community. The progress made in Berbice was not now equal to that of the united colonies of Demerara and Essequibo, and it was fast merging into a mere dependency of the latter. The same measures which had been adopted by the British Government, relative to the protection and amelioration of the condition of the slaves in the other colonies, were also extended to Berbice; and those steps commenced which were gradually to lead to their emancipation from bondage.

The shock occasioned by the insurrection of the slaves in Demerara in 1823, was communicated to Berbice, but no display of dissatisfaction was manifested by the negroes in the latter district, nor any attempt made by them to co-operate in the revolt. It had been too quickly suppressed to allow of the hope of success to enter into the bosoms of the others, and the result only acted as a warning to keep them in good behaviour.

On Lieutenant-Governor Beard's quitting the colony, on leave of absence, in March, 1825, it was no longer deemed necessary to appoint a separate acting-governor; the direction of its affairs was entrusted to Sir Benjamin D'Urban, at that time lieutenant-governor of Demerara and Essequibo, who continued to act until the return of

Mr. Beard, in July, 1826. The last years of this gentleman's administration were not more encouraging than the earlier period of his career. He pulled down the venerable court-house, so long the pride and ornament of New Amsterdam, to the great scandal and mortification of the inhabitants, and otherwise acted in a manner anything but satisfactory to the colonists. He continued, however, to hold his situation until 1831, when the union of the three colonies, and the appointment of one governor, rendered his services unnecessary. He soon afterwards quitted Berbice, and returned to England, at the close of an eventful and profitable career in the West Indies.

The union of the three colonies, now known as British Guiana, was followed by many important results. On the 21st of July, 1831, the governor exhibited to the Honourable the Court of Policy the commission granted to him by his Majesty as Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Colony of British Guiana, comprising the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and their dependencies; and on the 5th of August following, a similar commission was granted to him as Vice-Admiral of the same colony; which appointments were duly acknowledged and proclaimed. The Court of Policy of Georgetown now became the Court of Policy for the three districts, and its first ordinary session was held on the 25th day of July of the same year. In the same manner one College of Electors, or Keizers, and one College of Financial Representatives, existed for the whole colony, members from each district being of course qualified for election.* But the form of the courts of criminal and civil justice were completely altered by proclamation, and circuit courts established for British Guiana as well

* The College of Keizers and Financial Representatives were incorporated in one body in 1812, by Governor Carmichael, but by a proclamation of Sir B. D'Urban, dated 21st July, 1831, the two colleges were again made distinct.

as for the neighbouring colonies of Trinidad and St. Lucia, the civil courts to be held before a chief justice and two puisne judges. However, on November 22nd of the same year the circuit courts were abolished, and a chief justice and two puisne judges were appointed for British Guiana, before whom, also, all civil causes were to be heard. The criminal court was to be held by the same chief justice and puisne judges, but associated with three assessors. In criminal cases, a majority of the whole court was required to ensure conviction. The former president of the court, Mr. Wray, was appointed to the high office of chief justice. A "manner of proceeding" was accordingly published, to be observed in the supreme courts of civil justice in British Guiana, respecting the period and date of the sessions; the establishment of roll courts; the serving of citation; the renewal of sentences; the manner of proceeding concerning bills of exchange; the taxation of costs; summation and services; the sale of movable property; the levy upon and sale of immovable property; the appointment of sequestrators; the sale of plantations; the obligations of purchasers; and position of creditors and mortgagees. An ordinance, the same year, was also passed, providing for a sufficient number of assessors for the court of criminal justice.

It must be remembered that there was one supreme court of criminal justice of Demerara and Essequibo, and one for Berbice, and the same obtained in the civil courts. To the former, twelve assessors were appointed by this ordinance for each court of criminal justice in Demerara and Berbice. The right to elect them lay with the College of Keizers, and rules for their appearance and conduct were enacted. It is also to be remarked that the College of Keizers and of Financial Representatives, which, as before stated, had been strangely united by a previous governor (General Carmichael) in July of the year 1831 again separated by a p

of Governor D'Urban, who had received orders to that effect from Great Britain.

In the following year, 1832, other important orders and judicial enactments came into operation; as early as January the consolidated slave ordinance, already alluded to, was published. It provided, as we have seen, for the still greater amelioration in the condition of the slave, reducing the period of labour to nine hours; and for children under four years of age and pregnant women to six hours; it increased the allowances; and reduced the extent of punishment to fifteen lashes. As a matter of course the colonial members of the Court of Policy made strenuous exertions to prevent the enforcement of this ordinance. In a printed document on the subject, addressed to the governor, they say: "From the nature of this order in Council, we are impressed with a firm conviction that, if such a publication does take place, the utter ruin and desolation of this colony, already suffering under the severest calamities, will be consummated." Unable to prevent its operation, they were still more opposed to its publication, fearful of the injurious tendency it would have on their privileges, and of the insolence and exultation to which it would most likely give rise on the part of the slave. In February of this year, a curious proclamation made its appearance, abrogating the offence of "eating dirt;" a propensity and practice which the negro had acquired, and for which he was rendered liable to punishment. It being now perceived that such a habit was in itself a disease, the punishment died away with the cure of the malady. In March following appeared an ordinance "to define offences committed by slaves," and to establish a "summary jurisdiction for the punishment thereof;" which summary jurisdiction was entrusted to fiscals, deputy-fiscals, or civil magistrates.

In September of the same year (1832) an ordinance

was passed "to establish and constitute inferior courts of civil justice in British Guiana," and to make other provisions for the establishment of such inferior courts. This ordinance repealed a previous one of May the same year, and enacted one inferior court for the district of Demerara and Essequibo, and another for the district of Berbice, to be held by and before the chief justice, or one of the puisne judges, at appointed times; to have jurisdiction in cases of the amount or value of twenty pounds sterling (20*l.*) or 300 guilders currency, &c. An amended ordinance for the providing of assessors was also enacted in August of this year, in which two clauses were altered, requiring in future that assessors should be liable to serve for two years, and to be subject to fines in case of non-attendance; but these ordinances were again superseded by others. Again, "a capitation tax," similar to what was raised in Demerara and Essequibo, to aid the king's chest in providing for the salaries of the public functionaries of British Guiana, was also enforced, by ordinance of the governor and Court of Policy, to extend to the district of Berbice.

In addition to the foregoing ordinances of the year 1838, an enactment was passed by Sir Benjamin D'Urban and Court of Policy, on the 25th August, to establish boards of health in the districts of Demerara and Essequibo, and of Berbice, in the colony of British Guiana.

The following table shows the ratio of mortality among the negro slave population in these colonies:

COLONIES.	Period over which the Average has been taken.	Average Population.			Average Yearly Deaths.			Annual Deaths to 1000 living.			Annual Deaths to Total Population.
		M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Total.	M.	F.	Both Sexes.	
Demerara } and Es- sequibo }	1836 to 1838	37,940	33,475	70,424	1369	836	2205	34	25	30	1 in 33
Berbice	1819 to 1831	12,029	10,063	22,123	263	205	668	23	20	21	1 in 33

Such were some of the principal changes and occurrences which marked the government of Sir Benjamin D'Urban; and whether we consider the general utility of the measures enforced, or the skill with which they were directed, we cannot but admit that the conduct of the governor was both vigorous and effective.

Possessed of the most gentleman-like and affable demeanour, his excellency was characterised by high intelligence and soldier-like decision. To the agreeable and hospitable behaviour of himself and Lady D'Urban the society of the colony was largely indebted, and not a little improved. The governor had his favourites (how few have not?), but it was generally admitted that he acted towards all with becoming impartiality and strict justice. After about seven years of useful administration, during which he lost his eldest son (Captain D'Urban, who was unfortunately drowned whilst bathing up the Essequibo), he retired for ever from these shores, universally regretted, but only to receive subsequently from his sovereign a higher and more important command

CHAPTER XII.

ARRIVAL OF LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR SIR J. C. SMYTH, BART.—STATE OF COLONY—PROCEEDINGS OF THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT—ACT OF APPRENTICESHIP, OCT. 19, 1833—INFERIOR CRIMINAL COURTS ESTABLISHED—REMARKS ON THE POLICY OF GREAT BRITAIN—IMMEDIATE EFFECTS OF THE NEW ACT—MUTINOUS ASSEMBLAGE OF NEGROES—MEASURES OF THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR TO CHECK THE INSUBORDINATION—DISPERSION OF MOB—TRIAL AND EXECUTION OF THE RING-LEADER—ITS PRACTICAL RESULT—FEELING AGAINST THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR—NEWSPAPER ABUSE—DOMESTIC HABITS OF THE NEGRO—THE COMPENSATION MONEY—ITS DISTRIBUTION, APPROPRIATION, AND USE—REMARKS ON THE FREE-COLOURED PEOPLE—DECREASE OF POPULATION, AND ITS CAUSES—FORMATION OF THE CIVIL LIST—RETIREMENT OF CHIEF JUSTICE WRAY—HIS CHARACTER—ARRIVAL OF CHIEF JUSTICE BENT—PARTY SPIRIT—NEWSPAPER OUTRAGE ON THE LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR—HIS REMARKS ON THE SUBJECT—ESTABLISHMENT OF MAYOR AND TOWN COUNCIL, 1837—TITLE OF GOVERNOR BESTOWED ON SIR J. C. SMYTH—ELECTIVE FRANCHISE OF 1838—DEATH OF THE GOVERNOR—REMARKS ON HIS CHARACTER.

THE opening of 1833 was a crisis of extraordinary interest and peculiar difficulty in the history of the colony. The changes already effected in the condition of the slave and of society generally, and the still more important changes which were in contemplation, demanded the utmost firmness and discretion on the part of the Executive in dealing with the indignant remonstrances of the planters, and the excited anticipations of the slave. A rare combination of patience and resolution alone could have maintained the ascendancy of legitimate authority, and curbed the passions of the antagonistic classes at a

moment so fraught with danger to the community. Such qualities were fortunately united in the person of Sir James Carmichael Smyth, who in the year 1833 arrived in the colony, and assumed the government. The difficulties of his position were very great. The circumstances against which he had to contend were novel and alarming. He found a large body of slaves emerged from a state of barbarism and ignorance into the condition of vassals; exhibiting in their character and conduct a strange mixture of civilisation and ignorance; of imperfect morals and scanty notions of religion grafted on native superstition; of outward humility and obsequiousness masking secret feelings of fear and detestation. He found them occupied in toil, but enjoying all the physical comforts of an European peasantry; surrounded with the blessings of improved laws, and an abundance of the necessaries of life. But notwithstanding all these advantages, he discovered discontent and uneasiness beneath the surface, and a perpetual restlessness and feverish desire for a change, which seemed incompatible with their actual worldly prosperity. The cause was evident; the slave felt himself on the verge of emancipation, and was impatient to clear at a bound the chasm which separated him from liberty.

On the other hand, the new governor had to encounter a body of the colonists who were at variance with the Executive upon this subject. Naturally anxious, and desponding at the approaching changes, they were not likely to surrender without a struggle the privileges they had hitherto exercised with impunity. They were to see their means of acquiring wealth wrested from them in what appeared an unjust and arbitrary manner. They felt themselves about to be triumphed over by the very class that had before always trembled at their nod. They saw the country which had been raised by them, and by

their fathers, to its then state of prosperity,* about to be torn by intestine commotion and factious innovations. They felt, not altogether unreasonably, that a strict line of equality was now about to level the distinctions of society, and that, whilst in all probability they and their children would have to descend in position, the negro and his race would rise in the scale of power and social consideration. Nor were they to be comforted by British philanthropists who expatiated upon the justice and wisdom of the scheme, and who prophesied that it would tend rather to augment than to diminish the welfare and progress of the colony. There were not, indeed, wanting many of the colonists whose humanity induced them to approve in the abstract of the contemplated emancipation; but few or none pretended to deny that it involved great sacrifices, and that it threatened the existence and stability of the country.

The first act of Sir James C. Smyth was to issue a proclamation to the slaves respecting the measures in progress for their benefit. Nothing could have been more judicious or politic than this act. It at once satisfied curiosity and restrained impatience, while it afforded to the colonists and to the negroes a candid proof of the earnestness and zeal with which the governor was about to rule. The former adopted their old and generally successful custom of endeavouring to secure the favour of his Majesty's representative to their side. Unbounded offers of hospitality and support were tendered to him, but he received them coldly and with suspicion. Advice and complaint poured in upon him, and he was alternately menaced with opposition and unpopularity, and tempted by flattery, but to no purpose. Displaying an impartiality which rendered hopeless all attempts to intimidate or

* The estimated value of Demerara and Essequibo, just before the slave emancipation, was 18,410,480*l.*, while that of Berbice was 7,415,160*l.* Total value of British Guiana, 25,825,640*l.*—MONTGOMERY MARTIN.

entrap his judgment, and resolved to be guided by the interests and not by the passions of the conflicting classes, the colonists soon discovered the inutility of attempting to influence his course, and at last ceased to regard him in any other light than that of a severe, but strictly just administrator. While his manner to the planter and merchant was thus cold, studied, and polite, his demeanour to the negro was dignified, courteous, and considerate. Conscious of the difficulty of his position, he carefully avoided encouraging the approaches of either, formed few friendships, and dispensed justice equally to all. We shall soon see how such an act was met and regarded by the individuals of each party. On the 12th June, 1833, the following resolutions passed the House of Commons:— That “Immediate and effectual measures be taken for the entire abolition of slavery throughout the colonies, under such provisions for regulating the condition of the negroes as may combine their welfare with the interests of the proprietors.” Lord Wynford, in 1833, proposed a bill for the purpose of preventing the introduction of *any* produce from places where slavery prevailed, but it was never sanctioned.

On the 19th October, “the Act of Apprenticeship” passed by the British Parliament. A proclamation immediately announced this important measure to the colony. It was entitled, “An Act for the Abolition of Slavery throughout the British Colonies, for promoting the industry of the manumitted slaves, and for compensating the persons hitherto entitled to the services of such slaves.*

* As the provisions of this act bear immediately upon the text, an abstract of its clauses is given here rather than in the Appendix, for the convenience of reference.

ABSTRACT OF THE ACT OF APPRENTICESHIP.

1. All persons on the 1st August, 1834, being registered as slaves, six years old and upwards, shall become apprentice labourers.
2. All apprenticed labourers to continue to serve their former masters.

In January, 1834, an ordinance was passed to establish inferior criminal courts of justice. Among other pro-

3. All slaves free when brought to Great Britain.
4. Three classes of apprentices: namely, 1st, labourers, or prædial attached on owner's lands; 2nd, prædials unattached, or those not on owner's lands; and 3rd, non-prædial, such as tradesmen and other artisans.
5. Apprenticeship of prædial labourers to 1st August, 1840.
6. Apprenticeship of non-prædial labourers to 1st August, 1838.
7. Labourers voluntarily discharged after this act were required to be supported by their late employers, if aged or infirm.
8. Apprenticed labourers allowed to purchase their discharge.
9. Apprenticed labourers not removable from the colony; prædial labourers not removable from plantation, except with consent of two special justices.
10. Right to service of apprenticed labourer to be transported property.
11. Employer to supply labourer with food, &c.
12. Subject to the above obligation. Slavery was to be abolished in 1834.
13. Rules about indenturing children below six years in 1834, and those born after.
14. Justices of peace, by special commission, required to give effect to this act, &c.
15. Salaries granted to them by his Majesty.
16. Recital of regulation necessary for giving effect to this act, and the mode of treating and classing the labourers.
17. Whipping on the authority of the employer abolished.
18. Colonial acts not to interfere with appointment of special justice.
19. Special justices to exercise exclusive jurisdiction between employers and apprenticed labourers.
20. Apprenticed labourers not to be subjected to renewal of apprenticeship, nor to more than fifteen hours' extra labour in any week for employer's benefit.
21. Apprenticed labourers not to be made to work on Sundays, or prevented from attending religious worship.
22. Not to interfere with colonial laws relative to apprenticed labourers being exempted from, or disqualified for, certain militia or civil services and franchise.
23. Local acts amending this act to supersede it, if confirmed by his Majesty.
24. Treasury to raise loan, not to exceed twenty millions.
25. Treasury to give notice of their intention to raise the same, &c.
26. Annuities to be granted for such loans to be the same as some now existing.
27. Annuities created by this act subject to same rules as those now existing.
28. Commissioners for reduction of the National Debt may subscribe towards raising the twenty millions. Moneys raised to be paid to the bank.
29. West Indian compensation account.
30. Cashiers of bank to give receipts for subscription, &c.
31. Interest and charges of twenty millions to be charged upon Consolidated Fund.
32. Money for paying annuities to be issued by exchequer to cashier of the bank.
33. Commissioners to be appointed to distribute the compensation provided for by this act.
34. Oath of commissioners.
35. Meetings of commissioners. Appointment of inferior officers also to be sworn.
36. Any three commissioners to be a quorum.
37. Remuneration of some of the commissioners.
38. Colonial or auxiliary commissioners appointed.
39. Issue of money for payment of the expenses of the commission.
40. Commissioners may compel attendance and examination of witnesses.
41. Commissioners to take examinations on oath.

visions it abolished the use of the whip, which was now forbidden, except by sentence of a magistrate. Another ordinance was also passed for carrying the Act of Apprenticeship into effect; and on the 1st August, 1834, the sun rose in splendour, and cast its effulgence over a land inhabited alone by free men. The dark reign of Slavery had vanished with the passed night, never to return. Mountain and valley, ocean and river, the wildest waste and the most cultivated territory of the British West Indies no longer bore testimony to the ignominy of man's degradation, but offered their inexhaustible riches to the free arm which should be willing and industrious enough to seek them. Never had the recording pen of the historian a more grateful task to perform than to trace the era of this glorious victory over

42. Penalties for swearing falsely.
43. Exemption from postage of letters on commission business.
44. No compensation allowed to any colony, unless such colony fulfil nature of the act.
45. Compensation fund divided into nineteen shares for each of the colonies—Bermuda, Bahamas, Jamaica, Honduras, Virgin Isles, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Christopher, Dominica, Barbadoes, Grenada, St. Vincent, Tobago, St. Lucia, Trinidad, British Guiana, Good Hope, Mauritia.
46. No compensation allowed for persons illegally held as slaves.
47. Commissioners to institute inquiries, and to adopt rules assigning equal shares of the compensation fund.
48. Rules to be published in the *London Gazette*, and appeals against them allowed.
49. Such appeals to be considered by his Majesty.
50. In the absence of appeal, his Majesty and Council may amend such rules.
51. Rules, when confirmed, shall be enrolled in Chancery.
52. Such recorded rules may be amended.
53. Confirmed rules valid, as if enacted by Parliament.
54. Rules so enrolled to be observed by commissioners.
55. Interested persons to prefer claim before commissioners.
56. Commissioners to adjudicate claims; appeals allowed.
57. His Majesty in Council may consider such appeals.
58. Failing appeals, the award to be considered final.
59. Treasury may order payment of salaries.
60. Manner in which sums awarded by law to be paid.
61. Certain British statutes extended to colonies, and power of special justices defined.
62. His Majesty in Council may make laws for giving effect to this act in Honduras.
63. Word "governor" defined.
64. Act not to extend to East Indies.
65. When act to come into effect at Good Hope and Mauritia.
66. Island dependent upon colonies deemed part of such.

a vicious principle,—the confession to a world of a nation's sin,—a frank avowal of wrong and injustice on the part of a powerful empire to the poor and abject slave,—a voluntary act of self-sacrifice and contrition on the part of a haughty and lordly master to the servant who for years had obeyed him in awe and degradation.

The act on the part of England was an act of pure magnanimity—an example to a world of a great country's sense of wrong—an example to her own people of her sense of justice. The concession was voluntary; it was neither extorted by threats, nor founded upon sordid calculations of profit. The glory still remains to her of having made a sacrifice to principle, which France alone, of all the nations of Europe, has had the grace to imitate and adopt.

Let us now see what was the immediate effect of the "apprenticeship." The hour had long been watched for by the slaves; behold it now arrived! How did he acknowledge it? Universal rejoicing commemorated the day. The churches were opened, and hundreds flocked to its altars to offer up a prayer of thanksgiving and praise. The militia and troops formed a procession in the most public places, where a proclamation and address was read by his excellency, in presence of a multitude of persons, and surrounded by a brilliant staff of officers, both civil and military. The negroes, dressed out in their gayest apparel, paraded the streets and roads. Many strolled from house to house, listening to and bearing the glad tidings. In that one hour seemed buried all the sorrows and forgotten all the indignities of slavery. The general bearing of the inhabitants was on the whole creditable and moderate; no disposition of ill-will or revenge was exhibited. Many an imprudent speech was uttered indeed; many a witty joke cracked at the expense of "Massa Buckra;" what of that, it was a cheap

and innocent return for many an act of oppression and injustice. The characteristic good-humour of the negro triumphed over his resentments in the moment of new-born hilarious liberty; he forgot his enmity in his fun, and the smile and the laugh were rather to be detected in his dark features than any expression of malice or hatred. But many social habits were cast off. The ties of years were broken in that one day. Old servants and dependents abruptly left their masters. It was difficult to get work done. Carousings, revellings, and public balls got up among the negroes, marked their rejoicings. The town itself was like a hive swarming with inhabitants. From all parts of the country they flocked to the metropolis, and that movement so simple, so natural in itself, established a principle which was injurious to the more remote districts. No act of violence, however, accompanied the presence of the crowds in the town; no riotous scenes or dissolute behaviour followed. Even the discomfited planter could not but outwardly acquiesce in the joy around him; the cheerfulness of the scene was contagious, and he who dated from this hour loss of fortune and ascendancy could not help catching the infection. The slave of yesterday was revelling in the anticipation of a life of freedom. As yet it possessed all the charms of an ideal and untried existence. Like children who have a holiday granted to them, they looked forward with pleasure to the enjoyment of it, but had not yet decided in their minds how they should spend it. What a startling fact remained then to be told. What a recoil followed the announcement of the Act of Apprenticeship. Apprenticeship! Still servitude. They had yet to linger out a few years of articed toil ere they could become free agents; in fact, their own masters. The division into prædials and non-prædials was a hard lesson for them to learn.

The wisdom of such an arrangement was questionable. Its intention was undoubtedly good; it had for its object the gradual adjustment of the relations between master and servant in their new positions, but, strange to say, it pleased neither. The former, denuded of his authority, was at a loss how to treat his dependent, while the latter felt as if he had been in part cheated of the promised boon; hence arose frequent misunderstandings. It is difficult even now to say what would have been the most satisfactory and politic step in bringing about the emancipation for the benefit of all parties. It was then thought hazardous to convert in one day nearly a million of slaves into free subjects. By some it was considered unnecessary to enlighten or instruct them more fully in their required duties. Some proposed to establish a species of feoffage; the Crown to take formal possession of all the land, and to grant land under a tenure, exacting the performance of certain services to the sovereign. In lieu of service, the Crown was to exact annually the payment of a sum of money, regulated in amount in proportion to the disparity between the ordinary cost of a man's subsistence and the value of his labour. To correct thus the evils of habitual idleness of such as were desirous of obtaining liberty, until the time when artificial wants should be introduced, and sufficient inducement created to incite men to exertion. To appropriate such money in promoting the improvement and education of the rising generation. To establish a vagrant law, and to institute punishments for idleness and dereliction of prescribed duties. To form the mechanics and tradesmen into companies. To invite those already free to become freeholders of property, or to learn trades. Such measures having a general tendency to bring about a gradual liberty, to keep up the spirit of agriculture and commerce by industry and incentives to labour, and to

be well adapted to the wishes and prosperity of all, and to the maintenance of the success of the colonies in their integrity, &c. &c. Others, again, suggested an immediate and unrestricted abolition of slavery; and perhaps, after all, this, the boldest of the propositions, would have been the best.

The people of England, who in reality understood little of the actual condition and capacity of the slaves, but who clamoured for abolition, cared little how it was effected, so that it was actually accomplished. Exaggerated and often untrue stories had reached their ears, and they were intent on some alteration of the system. It would have been a matter of astonishment, perhaps of indifference to the majority, if the colonies were to be irrevocably ruined, or the planters annihilated; but to the Legislature of Great Britain it was a matter of deep concern how best to introduce the desired freedom. The Act of Apprenticeship was the result of this deliberation. To have been more politic and just it should not have alone provided indemnification for the actual deprivation of the services of the negroes, who had been collected at an enormous outlay, but it should also have contemplated the failure of manual labour likely to result, and provided measures to keep up a proper supply of labour adequate to the wants of the colonies. The planters were, it is true, to be compensated for the loss of their live stock in trade, but no attention was paid to the loss that would probably ensue to the capital invested in buildings, machinery, and other works, when the moving power was withdrawn, as it would be by the retirement of the labourers from such properties.

Had it not been that this colony was too closely connected with Europe in monetary transactions, and that large capitalists were concerned in its existence, there can be no doubt but that ere long it would have reverted.

to its former luxuriant but uncultivated waste, save, perhaps, the scanty culture necessary for the wants of a semi-barbarous state of society. The scheme, however, now offered, although with the best intentions, was found injudicious, unsatisfactory, and impracticable. The idea was too complicated for the mind of the negro. It deprived him, in his own eyes, of half his expected glory. It left him, as it found him, desponding and dissatisfied. It excited him for a moment, but to depress him afterwards. It shook off, it is true, the shackles of iron which had previously bound him, but it still fettered him with restrictions. The very distinction that was drawn between prædials and non-prædials was irksome to reflect upon. If (so argued the negro), as was stated, one human being was as good as another, and that all men were equal, and should be free, why begin again to form new distinctions? They had been told that they were worthy to rank with the noblest of God's creation. They had been made men, and why were they now to be treated as children? It cast suspicion upon the noble gift which had been presented to them. The tear of gratitude was checked as it was about to flow; the hand paralysed as it was about to be clasped in thankfulness. The intelligence of the negro could not as yet perceive that the mind had been emancipated, although the body had yet to toil. It could not yet appreciate the delicate sense of consideration shown to the injured planter, but it was quick enough to resent as an insult that which was considered as a reflection upon their capacity of freedom. They thought only of themselves as most men do when placed in similar critical situations. They felt that their triumph was incomplete when any consideration was shown for the upper classes, which had been so long opposed to them. But, as will be seen, the good effect intended for the planter proved abortive, and the whole

scheme failed in its object to satisfy, and in its desire to be just.

Scarcely had the last sounds of revelry and merriment ceased which marked the 1st of August, 1834, when an unwillingness to submit to the published Act of the Apprenticeship betrayed itself throughout the greater part of the colony, but more especially along the west coast of Essequibo, known as the Arabian coast, long deemed the garden of the country, from its opulence and beauty. It was here that proceeded the loudest complaints against the acts from England. A large number of labourers refused to work under the new regulations. In fact, "a strike" occurred, and the feelings which prompted to this were such as have just been described. Freedom was not considered freedom, if it imposed restrictions, obligations, duties. How untutored was still the negro mind! how unconscious of the powerful restraints which a civilised community impose upon its members of every class! How blind as yet not to perceive that the very fact which confers liberty upon each individual is the regulation of the conduct of all by certain general and well-understood laws!

Seven or eight hundred of the dissatisfied labourers collected in a churchyard in the parish of Trinity, where they hoisted a flag, insisted that the king had made them free, and, when ordered to disperse, refused. Several ringleaders, one more especially, directed the disorderly mass. But no violence was attempted; they were armed with arguments and words, perhaps a few bludgeons, but nothing more. Beyond hustling a man whom they mistook for a constable out of the churchyard, they hurt no one. The effect of such an example might have been, however, very serious. It naturally enough excited the greatest alarm throughout the colony. A repetition of the scenes of 1823 was anticipated. The planters and

their supporters pointed significantly to the occurrence as a confirmation of their prophecies. The opposite party were disturbed and irresolute. The former called loudly upon the governor to proclaim "martial law." The latter awaited his determination with anxiety. Sir James Smyth, unmoved by the suggestions of the colonists, sent down a detachment of soldiers to the disaffected coast, and proceeded thither himself, when he admonished the people, informed them of their error, and ordered them to disperse, which they accordingly did. The labourers truly considered him their friend, and found him so. The planters regarded him as a tyrant, but found safety under his administration. The promptness, moderation, and judgment exhibited by his excellency upon this occasion merit the highest praise. A similar line of conduct pursued consistently, might upon a previous occasion have modified, if not altogether prevented, the insurrection of 1823.

But the band of dissatisfied labourers were not dismissed quietly to their homes. Many of the most active in the "strike" were taken prisoners and sent to Georgetown, there to await a trial. After a lengthened and deliberate inquiry, during which the colony was in a state of fermentation, one of the prisoners, Damon, was sentenced to death by the court, four others to transportation, and thirty-one to imprisonment and whipping; a tolerably large proportion, considering the number implicated. One of the puisne judges, Mr. Willis, protested against these proceedings; but the chief justice, Mr. Wray, held that the hoisting of a flag, although by persons unarmed, constituted an act of rebellion, of which all were guilty, although by the Dutch law some might be punished more, and others less. This decision of the court appears, at the present time, somewhat arbitrary and severe; but taking into consideration the perilous

change which had just been effected, in fact scarcely effected, reflecting on the excited minds of the populace, and the consequences which in all probability would have resulted, had not an example been made at first of those venturing thus openly to resist the law, there can be no doubt that the stern justice of such a step was correct. It is always painful to listen to the condemnation to death. It is always fearful to witness its execution; but the remedy which acts most powerfully is often the best; the knife which cuts the deepest the most serviceable. Who could have witnessed the sad preparations made for the destruction of a misguided individual in open day—who could have dwelt upon his fate without pain? Who could have known the tumultuous state of feeling among all parties at this eventful epoch, the indignant sorrow of the negro, the commiserating sympathy of the upper classes, without being made to feel the greatness of the sacrifice? Who could have seen the crowded multitude which gathered at the foot of the scaffold, in front of the public buildings, the solemn procession, the array of officials and troops, and last, not least, the victim that was about to be offered up to the justice of an earthly court, only to be arraigned before a higher tribunal? Who could have seen all this, and the body, in a moment after, a lifeless corpse, and not have hoped—devoutly hoped—that the last crime of slavery had been perpetrated? It was so, in fact; the death of Damon was the last homicide committed in the British West Indies in defence of the system of slavery. Who can tell how many a life has been spared by that one expiation of guilt! Sad though it was, it tended to reassure the planter, to explain to the negro, more than a volume of ordinances could have done, the real nature of his position. Its efficacy has been tested by experience; its truth verified by the result. The same dis-

position which had demonstrated itself among the labourers on the Arabian coast, was also shown on most of the other estates of the colony (Berbice excepted); but beyond occasional cavillings and a temporary cessation of labour, nothing serious resulted. The recent strike among the labourers was not readily forgotten or forgiven by the planters; they complained of the leniency of the governor's conduct towards the rest of the prisoners. Of these, the four who were to be transported were, after a short confinement, set at liberty, and the remaining thirty-one pardoned at once by his excellency. This circumstance evinced a desire not to execute vengeance; but having made one terrible example of the consequences of insubordination, the others were restored to society, to carry back to their friends the tale of their escape, and the sad fate of their companion. They had been sufficiently taught what would be the result of future misconduct. But the majority of the colonists were far from being satisfied by these late proceedings. Led on by some of the leading men in the community who were opposed to the governor, and having their cause advocated in a powerfully-written but scurrilous newspaper, the *Guiana Chronicle*, fierce attacks were made against his excellency. Personal invectives and taunting reproaches filled the columns of the paper. He was accused of partiality, cowardice, treachery. The principal source of annoyance seemed to be the refusal of his excellency to proclaim martial law when the strike occurred. This was construed into a negligent affront and insult. Stimulated by the approbation of the majority of the colonists, intoxicated by popularity, and goaded by the cool indifference of the governor, this paper proceeded to such lengths, that ultimately a suit for libel was brought by him against the publication. This action, however, failed, chiefly in consequence of

the governor's own conduct relative to the "freedom of the press." It so happened that the year before, in a militia "general order," dated December 31, 1833, in reference to a sentence of a court-martial which had become the subject of newspaper discussion, Sir James Carmichael Smyth had observed :

"The commander-in-chief cannot conclude this order without remarking that, generally speaking, too much value appears to be attached by respectable individuals in this colony to what may be said for or against them in the newspapers. It is certainly pleasanter to be praised than abused; and, in a small community, it can hardly be expected that the same indifference on these subjects should exist as is to be met with in England. Public men cannot, however, expect that even the very wisest and ablest of their measures will meet with universal approbation. A free and public decision of all public measures is a great public good, and frequently does more to remove prejudices, to correct errors, and to point out the proper mode of proceeding, than any other invention of human wisdom. In the attainment of a great good, we must submit to a partial evil. Controversial writers too frequently confound a public man with the measures he advocates; and, in abusing the latter, the individual himself is occasionally a little bespattered. Public men must, however, expect these things; and they find their reward in the consciousness of having done their duty, in the respect and esteem of their friends; and, lastly, in the gratitude of the public themselves, who, although they may be misled for a time, yet rarely in the end fail to appreciate the merits of every man according to his real worth."

Such was the expressed opinion of the governor upon the subject of newspaper abuse the year before he himself instituted a suit against a scurrilous publication; but

there is a limit to forbearance. Great was the excitement of the popular mind; vigorous the efforts made to resist the "libel suit." It was looked upon as a national cause. The salvation of every one seemed to depend upon the issue; and when the action failed, as we have said, on the ground that the governor "had recognised the freedom of the press, and given encouragement to strictures on public affairs," the joy and triumph of the colonists was great. A victory had been acquired for them; henceforward they might abuse the Executive at their leisure and with impunity. The proprietors of the *Guiana Chronicle* received by subscription a present of 3000 dollars, about 600*l.*, and the able lawyer who defended the suit, a piece of plate of the value of 250 guineas.

But the triumph of the colonists was not yet complete; the exhibition of ill-will not yet expended. A petition was prepared and forwarded to the king, signed by almost the whole body of the colonists, praying for the removal of Sir James C. Smyth from the government of the colony. This document was published by the governor's orders, with a list of the names of the petitioners. The manner in which the signatures were procured was a proof at once of the inattention with which persons regarded such a deed, and of the zeal with which his opponents sought to overwhelm him. Papers were carried through the town and country to every individual who could write, to attach his signature. There were very few who signed that document but lived afterwards to be ashamed of it, and to regret it.*

* There is something singular in the change that future years effected. A monument, the work of Sir F. Chantrey, erected by the colonists, and dedicated to the memory of Sir J. C. Smyth, stands conspicuously in the cathedral of the city of Georgetown; whilst the proprietors of the paper, and the editor who wrote for it, have sunk in society, and made good the prophecy in Sir J. C. Smyth's militia order of 1833.

The conduct of the negroes after the late events was also a matter of anxiety to the governor. He had shown some confidence in them, and had hoped to see it productive of gratitude and respect. The labourers, compelled by the regulations to remain on the properties where they were originally attached, evinced the greatest desire in most instances to quit their employers, in the hope of meeting with others more agreeable or advantageous: the novelty of a change was the chief temptation. But the older negroes returned afterwards to their old haunts, unmindful of change or circumstance. A great many of the women, who before had been compelled to work, gave up by degrees the labour of the field, and occupied themselves more in the duties of their household. Let us see the nature of that household. The negro, with all his civilisation, had not advanced much in domestic improvement; they resembled in this respect the French more than any other nation; they spent their means on dress, or wasted it in trifles, but rarely thought of adding comfort to their homes, or expending it in the wants of the hearth. A wooden bench or two did the office of chairs. A common table was covered in most singular confusion with glasses, plates, cups, earthenware mugs, saucepans, and the universal "calabash" (a useful bowl, formed of a species of gourd, which grows commonly throughout the country); this latter is a most valuable appendage to the *ménage* of a negro. It serves him to wash in, to hold water, to contain food for himself, wife, or children, to drink out of, &c. On the floor, formed very often of the hardened earth, lay one or more wooden trays (another household god of the negro). The tray seemed nearly for as many purposes as the calabash. They carried vegetables for sale in it; they brought it home balanced on the head, filled with plantains or fish, and other food; when it got

home, it became a receptacle for dirty or clean clothes, or was converted into a cradle, which contained the infant of the establishment, of which there was sure to be one, if not more. The infant so placed on the floor was considered quite safe; it was true, that a stray goat or dog, or the neighbour's fowls, might constantly be treading on him; but that was nothing, considering he was so comfortably "cribbed, cabined, and confined." But the tray had other uses; in wet weather it served as an umbrella; in hot weather as a "parasol." The negro, with his calabash and tray, thought himself well off, and envied not "Diogenes his tub." Another article of domestic use was a large block of wood, scooped out at one end like a mortar, which in fact it was, the use to which it was applied being that of pounding of plantains into a pasty mass, which, under the euphonious name of "fou fou," was (and is still) regarded as the manna of the country. The wooden pestle used in the process is five or six feet long, and the whole preparation laborious and fatiguing; but nothing proves too troublesome so long as the "fou fou" is forthcoming, a large lump of which is allotted separately to father, mother, and children, till its proportions are visibly affected and their appetites appeased. By way of bed, a mattress of dried palm-leaves, a coarse flannel, or a grass hammock,* answered every purpose. Such was the household over which the lady of the family had to preside. It certainly did not require very great superintendence; but little as there was to do, it was seldom that anything like order or cleanliness was met with. This description, applying to those labourers living on estates, holds good to the present day; for although by degrees the love of more expensive and useful articles, such as bedsteads, chairs, &c., began to be

* B. Edwards, reasoning on the word hammock, thinks it derived from the Caribbean language. Bolingbroke from the Dutch "Hang-mat."

felt, it is remarkable to witness the want of order and taste which obtains in a labourer's cottage. There may be finery, there may be extravagance, but there is rarely anything like neatness or comfort.

Another important circumstance connected with the emancipation of the slaves is deserving of notice in this place. The British nation, in contemplating the loss which would result to the owners of slaves when deprived of their services by the gift of liberty, had provided the munificent sum of 20,000,000*l.*, to be awarded as "compensation money" throughout the West Indies. Twenty millions of pounds were to be divided among the numerous claimants who should put forward and substantiate their claims—a task of no little difficulty and labour. The number of slaves for whom compensation was claimed in British Guiana was 82,824, as follows:—Prædial attached, 57,807; prædial not attached, 5475; non-prædial, 6297; total for whom compensation was awarded, 69,759. Children under six years of age, 9893; aged, diseased, or non-effective, 3352; total, 82,824. The amount of compensation money received was 4,494,989*l.*; viz., for the labouring classes, 4,268,809*l.*, and for the children and aged persons, 226,180*l.* According to Montgomery Martin, the number of slaves registered in British Guiana just before the emancipation was 84,915; the average price of slaves from 1822 to 1830 was 114*l.* 11*s.* 5½*d.*; the rate of compensation granted per slave was 51*l.* 17*s.* 1½*d.*, and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* allotted to British Guiana was 4,297,117*l.* It thus appears that, according to the appraisalment which had previously been made of their value, in regard to sex, age, strength, health, capabilities, business or trade, &c., the aggregate value amounted to 9,489,559*l.*, thus giving the owners only an equivalent of 8*s.* in the pound by way of a dividend in the general

bankruptcy of the West Indies. About 3s. 8d. of the appraised sum was granted; their estimated value was taken from the average of the last ten years, calculated from the vendue-office. The use made of this money by the proprietor was to pay off old claims against himself, and to remove mortgage of his property, and in this manner it became of essential service to many an embarrassed planter; but there were, unfortunately, several who, even with this assistance, could not completely extricate themselves.

To the middle and free class of persons the compensation money proved rather a curse than a blessing. Formerly in the possession of a few slaves, they managed to live comfortably by hiring out their services; but deprived now of the labour of these people, and made dependent on their own, they soon got into difficulties, and hardships of all kinds eventually pressed upon them. Possessed (by the compensation money) of a larger sum than they had ever commanded, they either invested it in some lawyer's hands by way of trust, from whence, in many instances, it never returned, or was seldom fairly accounted for; or else squandered it in fugitive enjoyments, in support of a style of living far beyond their station. There was scarcely a house among the better class of coloured people but valuable articles of furniture, silver, and plate were found. A few, indeed, purchased or possessed houses themselves; but then, again, these were leasehold, and when the lease expired most of them had to give up their tenements for arrears in ground-rent, and other charges which had been allowed to accumulate. It is true that they had not at first the opportunity of investing in any banking establishments, for as yet there were none in the colony; but the money was rarely appropriated to any particular kind of business or traffic by which they might have hoped to earn a competency

for themselves and families. It was left for men of another nation, and of inferior education, to reap the golden harvests which a change in the social community offered to the speculative tradesman, for at the time we speak of there were few or no retail shops (except druggists' establishments). The merchant's store yet continued to supply almost every article required for household and other purposes at an exorbitant profit. The want of a small circulating coin compelled persons to purchase larger quantities of perishable articles than they absolutely required, and many goods were never sold except in bulk, at a necessary loss to the consumer. It will soon be seen how such a state of things was turned to the greatest personal advantage by an imported and new people. Hence the free coloured people, through these and other causes, began insensibly to lose from this period their middle "status" in society. They have, as a general rule, sunk into poverty and distress, whilst the negro began from this time to rise above them. But whilst they gradually lost all hope in the "race of life," or were compelled to struggle on in the most homely of occupations, yet there were (and still are) occasions when they displayed all their former pride of birth or connexion. The distinction that has been shown to their colour did not readily become obsolete. At a marriage party, where the bridegroom and bride were coloured, the families of the wedded pair assembled to commemorate it. On breakfast being announced, the company proceeded to the table, where the whole of the coloured members seated themselves, whilst the black quietly, and without any appearance of affront, diligently waited upon their fairer and younger descendants. Such was (if such is not now) the deference paid to colour; but this did not long continue to be the case.

Having thus gone over the employment of the several

racés, let us now briefly notice their number. The population of the slaves, we have recently seen, was 82,824, the number of free people at that time might have been about 11,000, giving an entire population for the whole colony of about 94,000 persons, being a decrease, as the reader will recollect, of about 17,000 since 1817. This decrease was chiefly, if not altogether, confined to the negro slaves, for the free populations at each of these periods mustered much about the same number—9000 or 10,000. The causes of such a strange diminution deserve notice, and may be traced to several sources. In the first place, the promiscuous intercourse common to the whole race of slaves had greatly tended to retard the natural increase of children. It was a rare thing to see a woman with a large family—the offspring of one man; this is an evil almost peculiar to uncivilised countries.* Again, the disproportion between the sexes had been formerly very marked, although carefully attended to by the most experienced among the planters, and of late more approaching to an equality in that respect. Again, the fact of the females having to work whilst in a state of pregnancy, no doubt led to many miscarriages, or tended to injure the child in some way; so that a large number of infants perished at their birth, or soon after. Again, the want of proper attendance at their confinements, and the pernicious habits of treating infants under the authority and the advice of the old “grannies,” caused many to succumb, although it should be observed that the planters, if only as a matter of profit, took every precaution to avert the loss of progeny in a slave. Again, it is to be remembered that in hot climates the number of children born is generally not so great as it is in proportion in more temperate climates.

* In Russia, according to Voltaire, among the Zoparavian Cossacks, the union of the sexes is indiscriminate, and irrespective of relationship or age, and the children are few and unknown to their parents.

Again, it is notorious that many of the slaves absconded and were never afterwards included in registrations, such as the Maroons, or bush negroes, formerly adverted to. Mal de pays, or home sickness, formerly caused many to pine to death; and also the compulsion to forced labour and continuous toil, together with the sameness of diet and general monotony of life, is asserted by some to have been productive of many suicides. Several other causes might be adduced, such as early marriages and consequent decrepitude, indifference towards offspring, &c. But the above named will comprise nearly, if not all, the true explanations of the melancholy fact. Some might be inclined to attribute it to unhealthiness of climate; but, as will be shown in its proper place, this opinion has been much exaggerated, and produced altogether false impressions on the mind of the public. During slavery, and still more after its cessation, it became of frequent occurrence that marriages were celebrated among the lower classes, but the object and intent were much misunderstood. It was considered decorous, nay, fashionable, for black persons to marry, solely because it was the custom of the whites. It was prompted by no love upon their part; it was not adopted from choice or necessity, interest or morality, but was simply an act of imitation. Most of the earlier marriages ultimately proved a mere mockery of that sacred state, and ended in unhappiness and discord. They either took place between parties who had previously been living together, or between individuals neither of whom could boast of much purity of conduct. It was rarely or never known (and the observation still obtains) that a young couple approached the altar, the woman conscious of purity on her part, or the man determined to obey the vows so solemnly entered into on that occasion. The greater number of the marriages took place among the old and dissipated.

Young men or women seldom presented themselves at the church for such a holy union. It required many years to make the subject properly understood, and much experience and observation to test its efficacy and advantage. By degrees, a better state of things was observable; but even at the present day it is little more than a profanation of the ceremony.

During this year, an ordinance was passed by the governor and the Court of Policy on the 25th of June, for changing the names or titles of the first fiscal, Crown advocate, second and third fiscals, and other officers in British Guiana. The first fiscal was to be in future designated and styled high sheriff of British Guiana; the second fiscal, sheriff of Essequibo; and the third fiscal, sheriff of Berbice; the Crown advocate, legal adviser, and public prosecutor, was to be styled his Majesty's attorney-general in and for the colony of British Guiana: the College of Keizers was in future to be named the College of Electors, and the members thereof electors; the griffier of the board of orphans and unadministered estates of Berbice, was to be called recorder of said board; the schout was to be styled first officer of police; and the dienaars and night-guards termed policemen; and the present cipier of Demerara and under-sheriff of Berbice were to be named keepers of the respective gaols; thus assimilating the titles and institutions in this colony to those of the mother country.

In the next year, November, 1835, a Petty Debt Court was established for the more speedy recovery of debts not exceeding in any case the amount of five pounds sterling, or seventy guilders. The jurisdiction of one justice of the peace to extend over cases not exceeding thirty shillings, or twenty-two guilders; and that of two justices to cases not exceeding five pounds, or seventy guilders.

In the year 1835 also, the Act of the Apprenticeship

having done away with the slave capitation tax, which was one of the chief sources of revenue to the king's chest, it became necessary to establish a civil list. As this subject involved serious discussions between the officials who were materially concerned in its completion and the colonial members of the Court of Policy, or rather Combined Court, no understanding or satisfactory arrangement could be concluded between the two parties; and it became absolutely necessary to call in the services of a mediator, or umpire. The officer selected for this delicate question was Sir Lionel Smith, governor of the Windward Islands, who arrived in May, 1835. He was received with every demonstration of loyalty and honour due to his rank and character, and he succeeded in negotiating a civil list, to continue until December 31st, 1840, as follows :

" To the Lieutenant-Governor	£3500
" Chief Justice	3000
" Puisne Judges	2500
" Secretary to Chief Justice	630
" High Sheriff	1250
" Clerk of ditto	300
" Sheriff of Berbice	800
" Sheriff of Essequibo	500
" Attorney-General	500
Ecclesiastical Salaries	850
To the Government Secretary	600
" Secretary of Court of Policy	500
" Assistant Government Secretary	500
To Clerks, stationary, and contingencies for the Secretary-office } and Court of Policy	450
To the grant to schools	150
" despatch boat	150
Contingencies	2400
Retiring allowances to the under-mentioned persons: Messrs. } J. Sullivan, W. D. Farr, Hallum, Collector James, and Col- } lector Nixon	2400

"To be apportioned among the said individuals in such manner as to his Majesty's Government shall seem just; provided always, that on the death of any of the said individuals, or the grant to any of them, by his Majesty, of any situation or place of emolument, the portion of such sum of

2400*l.* as shall have been appropriated by his Majesty's Government to such person, shall lapse, and the saving thereby accrued shall ensue to the benefit of the colony, in deduction of the aforesaid permanent civil list establishment of 20,980*l.*"*

"These retiring allowances originated thus:—Soon after the re-conquest of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, by the British, in 1803, the offices of colonial secretary and provost marshal, in the united colony of Demerara and Essequibo, and of colonial treasurer, colonial secretary, and vendue-master in Berbice, were granted by patent, according to the fashion of this time, to certain political favourites. These offices were paid by fees and commissions, and were very lucrative. The patentees, or some of them, *never visited* the colony, but performed the duties of their offices by deputy. About the year 1831, the home Government, in order to get rid of this abuse, induced the patentees to surrender their patents, on condition of receiving certain stipulated pensions shortly after. As a means of inducing a quiet submission to the changes introduced at that time by orders in Council, Parliament granted to this colony a sum of 32,000*l.*; but before this so-called relief grant was paid over, a dispute arose as to the extent of the powers of the Combined Court, and was followed by the civil list controversy, and a stoppage of the supplies. When the civil list of 1835 was settled, the Combined Court refused to make full provision for the pensions above mentioned, and for some other advances, in consequence of which, the relief fund has never been paid over, but has been appropriated by the home Government to make up these deficiencies; and in this way the greater part of it has been already spent. The only remaining patent office is that of vendue-master of Deme-

* Local Guide, p. xx.

rara and Essequebo, which, however, has since been vacated by the death of the incumbent."

In consideration of this civil list, the amount of which was 20,980*l.*, the Crown surrendered for that term the revenues theretofore remaining at its undisputed disposal under the name of the sovereign's chest, which, however, had been materially diminished by the loss of the capitation-tax on slaves, incident to the abolition of slavery in 1834. The Crown further expressly conceded to the Combined Court, for the term of the civil list, the power of controlling the general estimate which that court had for some years exercised without lawful authority.

In the course of the year 1836 a change took place in the judicial appointments of the colony. Chief Justice Wray returned to England after a residence here of about 15 years; a period fraught with many important changes, both as regards the social and political condition of the colony. His conduct during that time was marked by urbanity; and, as a lawyer, he was considered profound, and intimately acquainted with the complicated legal constitution of the country. His long experience rendered his opinion decisive and respected. If not very diligent, he was always persevering and patient. In his manners he was quiet, sociable, and cheerful. His house became a rendezvous for the best society.

He was succeeded in office by the Honourable J. H. Bent, who was removed from the chief justiceship of the island of St. Lucia to fill a similar situation in British Guiana, where he arrived in July, 1836. This gentleman brought a high character along with him—acquired as it was by a long career of distinguished legal services in New South Wales, Trinidad, Grenada, and St. Lucia. A better account of his fitness for the judicial chair could not be given than that furnished by a late pleasing writer on St. Lucia, and it gives me pleasure to transcribe it, and to

testify to its truth:—"Upright, impartial, and single-minded, in Mr. Bent were happily blended, in a high degree, the ability and tact of the sound constitutional lawyer, and that spirit of independence so eminently characteristic of the true English judge. Having spent many years in the exercise of various judicial functions in New South Wales, his experience in both hemispheres was only surpassed by his integrity, and that was as much above suspicion as it was beyond the reach of slander. Punctilious to the extent to which punctiliousness is a virtue in the judicial character, and yet active to a degree almost incompatible with his delicate state of health, he infused into the different offices connected with the courts a taste for order and regularity, which continues to be productive of the most beneficial results, even to this day."*

This flattering testimonial has been fully borne out by the able services rendered by the judge from the time of his arrival. Such a character was much wanted at the time when he accepted office, and such principles applied to law business in this colony have been, as we shall see, of essential benefit to the community.

Party spirit was still running high at the period of his arrival. The executive and many of the colonists were still warm in mutual animosity. The *Guiana Chronicle* still kept alive the popular feeling of antipathy to the governor, and went so far, in the publication of the 10th August, as to apply the epithet "villain" to his excellency. Notice of this outrage was submitted to the Court of Policy by the high sheriff, his Honour G. Bagot, which thereupon resolved:

"That the court unanimously coincides in feelings of disgust and abhorrence at the epithets applied in the leading article of the *Guiana Chronicle* of the 10th inst. to

* Breen's St. Lucia, p. 337.

his Majesty's representative the lieutenant-governor of this colony."

The opinion of the court was then asked by the lieutenant-governor as to the measures which ought to be adopted to put down a newspaper which kept up so dangerous an excitement in the court, when it was moved by an elective member of the court, and seconded by another: "That, under the circumstances, his excellency would be fully warranted in withdrawing his license from the printer and publisher of the *Guiana Chronicle*." This motion was carried; two of the elective members voting against it, on the ground that if the article in question were libellous, it might be prosecuted. A third colonial member thought that it would be inexpedient for the court to offer the governor any advice upon the occasion. His excellency then desired the following paper, which had been drawn up prior to the vote above mentioned, to be entered on the minutes of the court:

"The lieutenant-governor stated that newspapers were said to be the echo of the sentiments of the community. He trusted, as there was no rule without an exception, so, in the present case, the opinions and language of the *Guiana Chronicle* were not the opinions and the language of the inhabitants of British Guiana. Upon a former occasion he had caused the editor of the paper in question to be prosecuted; if any gentleman supposed that in giving such directions he was influenced by personal feelings, that gentleman was mistaken. His sole object was to compel the editor to be more cautious and circumspect in his conduct, and to abstain from influencing the passions and the feelings of this community, at a moment at which, of all others, the most perfect calmness and forbearance ought to have been inculcated; if he had been convicted, he would no further have been punished than to have had the sentence *kept suspended over him*

in terrorem, to have been enforced against him had he again laid himself open to prosecution. The result, however, of the prosecution is well known; the person in question was looked upon as a martyr for the liberty of the press. His acquittal was celebrated by the hoisting of flags and the firing of guns from the ships in the harbour; a piece of plate was subscribed for and presented to the advocate who defended him—the sale of the paper rapidly augmented, and the editor was encouraged in all the violence and impertinence with which he renewed his attack upon the lieutenant-governor and his measures. Under all the circumstances to which the lieutenant-governor has alluded, his excellency feels that it would be a harsh measure to prosecute an individual who has been encouraged by the patronage he has met with to persevere in a line of conduct which to him has been a source of emolument and celebrity. The good sense of this province is now disgusted with his paper; a reaction has taken place; and as the character, the conduct, and the measures of the lieutenant-governor are better known, and, as he hopes, are better appreciated, the extinction of the *Guiana Chronicle* is easily to be effected by the same means which were employed to promote its circulation. A paper cannot flourish without subscribers, nor can its slander be disseminated without readers; the same influence which raised the *Guiana Chronicle* can put it down; if gentlemen feel hurt that such a paper should be published in this colony, and be forwarded to Europe as a specimen of the advantages they enjoy in having a free press in Guiana, and of the candid, liberal, and gentlemanly manner in which public matters are discussed, they have only themselves to blame, and the remedy is in their own hands.”

This rather long statement on the part of the lieutenant-governor is inserted, as it gives a candid exposition of his

views and character, and of the fickle opinions of the colonists. We have seen more than one proof of their rancour; but time and patience had altered in a great measure the popular feelings; a "reaction," as the lieutenant-governor properly termed it, had in truth occurred. The inhabitants were becoming tired of the unprofitableness of newspaper abuse; they had begun to question its correctness, and to appreciate the line of conduct so steadily and sternly pursued by the lieutenant-governor.* It is said of Socrates, that when a low fellow had offered him an injury, he would not complain of it to the judge, but reckoned it (as he said) no more than if an ass had kicked him; and of Cato, that when upon one occasion he received a blow on the face, he was so far from resenting the affront, and from desiring satisfaction, that he would not venture so far as to forgive it, but denied that any such thing had been done, thinking it better not to acknowledge the fact than to prosecute it.

The conduct of his excellency towards his calumniators was not very unlike this, for he preferred to convince them of error rather by his judgment than by their mistakes. We have already seen some of the changes accomplished under his auspices. He found an excited and disorderly band of labourers,—he kept them quiet by his moderation and counsel; he found a dissatisfied and alarmed body of planters,—he kept them restrained by his calmness, and hopeful by his consistency; he found a class of officials somewhat remiss in their duties and lax in their conduct,—he soon set them an example of strict attention to business, and added some broad hints to delinquents; he found a number of institutions and laws unsuited to the changing features of the times, and soon

* Before his arrival, the usual office hours were little attended to by the incumbents, many of whom arrived at 12, and left at 2 P.M. This was soon rectified by a proclamation from the governor.

modified or altered them to a more practical purpose. Some of the principal of these have been already noticed; besides these, he introduced savings banks for the lower orders, and suggested the use of regular incorporated banking establishments, which led to the formation of two—the British Guiana Bank and a branch of the Colonial Bank, in 1837.

This year was also marked by the incorporation of Georgetown, which was placed under the government of a mayor and town council, who were constituted a mayor's court for the trial of petty offences.

An ordinance passed by the governor and Court of Policy on the 1st of March, 1837, provided in this manner for the superintendence of Georgetown, and repealed the former regulations which had been in force since 1812. The new board of superintendence consisted of eleven town councillors, corresponding to the eleven wards into which the town was now divided, viz., Kingston, North Cumingsburg west ward; North Cumingsburg east ward; South Cumingsburg west ward; South Cumingsburg east ward; Robbs Town east ward; Columbia and Lacy Town east ward; New Town east ward; Stabroek east ward; Werken Rust east ward; Charlestown east ward. Rules were made for the election of each councillor, who were to elect annually a president or mayor; a secretary and receiver of town taxes were appointed, with salaries, and the duties of such board, &c., defined.*

Again, another ordinance was passed on the 3rd of March to repeal an ordinance intituled "An ordinance to establish and constitute inferior courts of criminal justice in British Guiana, and to make regulations and provisions instead thereof," in consequence of the changes

* Local Guide, p. 259.

brought about by the abolition of slavery. Justices of the peace were continued, and their duties defined; the dates of the sittings of such courts were fixed upon; also extent of punishment and fine limited, and rules drawn up for the general guidance and working of such courts, &c.

Again, the old and obnoxious practice established by the Dutch of carrying on the business of the Court of Policy and Combined Court with closed doors was done away with on the 30th of March, and the sittings (except in particular cases) opened to the public. This secret mode of conducting important public business was perhaps justified and rendered necessary by the former state of society, but after the emancipation such a system would have appeared repugnant to the new ideas of liberty then infused into the general mind.

“ Nous avons changé tout cela ”

was to be the rallying cry of the new generation. An important change was also effected in the Court of Policy itself on the 27th of May. The Government secretary and the collector of customs were substituted as official members of the Court of Policy instead of the high sheriff and the sheriff of Essequibo, or former fiscals.

Such were some of the more important occurrences and changes in the government of Sir James Carmichael Smyth, who, in consideration of his valuable services, and as a mark of approval on the part of the King and British Government, had received in 1836 a commission as governor. Hitherto his title, as well as that of the previous rulers, had been only lieutenant-governor, indicating an inferiority and subjection to the governor-general of the West India Islands.

On the 2nd of December, 1838, an ordinance was

passed by the governor and Court of Policy for regulating the qualification for the exercise of the elective franchise in this colony, and which repealed the former one of the 2nd of May, 1835. The new qualification entitling to vote was the payment of taxes upon 2001 guilders, or in amount not less than 70 guilders; agents or attorneys for absentees were permitted to vote under certain conditions.

It was also during this year that, on the 27th of April, a series of rules and regulations for the Combined Court of British Guiana were framed and agreed to at their annual adjourned assembly; for further information concerning which the reader is referred to the Local Guide, page 24.

But while another laurel was being added to an already rich garland of military and civil honours—whilst the conduct of the governor was being satisfactorily appreciated both by the self-willed colonist and the emancipated negro, and his measures received with that praise to which they were so fully entitled, his useful career was suddenly terminated by an untimely death. On the 4th of March, 1838, this excellent governor died after an illness of a few days, occasioned by malignant fever.

His death was a severe blow both to the colonists and their dependents; the one mourned him as a chief worthy of their regard, the other as a friend and benefactor. The universal sorrow evinced for his sudden departure was an irrefragable proof of the sincerity of their feelings. All ranks assembled to pay the last sad homage to his worth; his funeral was one of unusual pomp and melancholy display.

The mortal remains of the departed chief was followed by an immense concourse of people to the grave; crowds of the inhabitants of all classes joined in the mournful

procession; and when the last trace of the solemnity passed away, each individual hastened to his home to ruminate on the fugitive exhibition of human greatness.

Thus ended the mortal career of Sir James Carmichael Smyth. Possessed of great abilities, he had also the firmness and decision of the soldier; impressed with the propriety and justice of his views, he did not seek success by conciliation, artifice, or persuasion; he at once declared his intention, and carried his point by perseverance and unflinching endurance. There was no subterfuge in his policy; his opinion was unmistakable; he did not seek to flatter others in order to gain his ends; neither did he encourage flattery towards himself. He was led by no will but his own. No plausibility of address or design could deceive him. He saw through motives at a glance, and opposed a stern resistance. Personal abuse and misinterpretation were always treated by him with indifference and contempt. He was, perhaps, too reserved in his explanations, too austere in his demeanour. He had not the art of softening the hard commandment, or of gilding the bitter pill. He might have gained more by yielding a little. He would have escaped much unnecessary obloquy by showing his philanthropy more, and his desire for the good of all; and would have ensured admiration and attachment where he always commanded respect. His temper was, perhaps, too warm to venture upon an argument when he felt convinced of its truth and utility; his energy too vehement to wait for the applause which would have followed a patient and repeated explanation. He thought, perhaps, to have forced forward the emancipation, when it would have been easier to lead it; that to have appeared wavering, would have been cowardice; or to have seemed conciliatory, would have been weak. But whatever opposition and insult his conduct excited, there

can be now no doubt of the wisdom of his views, and of his sincere desire for the true interest of the colony. His character claims this tribute to his memory, and his conduct this humble attempt to stamp with praise his useful career in the annals of a country in which he lived and died.

CHAPTER XIII.

ADMINISTRATION OF MAJOR ORANGE AND LIEUTENANT-COLONEL BUNBURY—APPOINTMENT AND JURISDICTION OF STIPENDIARY MAGISTRATES—ARRIVAL OF HENRY LIGHT, ESQ., AS GOVERNOR, JUNE, 1838—ABOLITION OF THE APPRENTICESHIP—DISALLOWANCE OF CERTAIN ORDINANCES—GOVERNOR MAKES A TOUR OF INSPECTION—CONDITION OF THE PLANTER—COMPETITION FOR LABOUR—CONDITION OF LABOURER—RATE OF WAGES—DIVISION OF BRITISH GUIANA INTO COUNTIES—GOVERNOR'S ADDRESS TO COMBINED COURT, 1839—PROPOSED IMMIGRATION LOAN OF FOUR HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS—SUBJECT OF IMMIGRATION—EARLY SCHEMES RESPECTING IT—REFLECTIONS ON THE SUBJECT—COLONIAL INDENTURE ACT, 1835-6—INTRODUCTION OF ISLAND NEGROES—THEIR CHARACTER—DISPUTES ABOUT IMMIGRATION ORDINANCES—STOPPAGE OF THE SUPPLIES, 1840—VOLUNTARY IMMIGRATION SOCIETY—NEW CIVIL LIST—IMMIGRATION ORDINANCES OF 1841—APPOINTMENT OF AGENTS—BOUNTIES—PORTUGUESE IMMIGRATION; ITS CHARACTER AND RESULTS—COOLIE IMMIGRATION; ITS CHARACTER AND RESULTS—GENERAL REFLECTION ON IMMIGRATION.

It was an old-established custom of the colony, for the purpose of averting the interruption of public business, that in the event of the death of the governor the oath of administration should be immediately taken by the commanding officer of the troops, who continued to act until a successor was appointed by the Government. Of course, the less such officers meddled with the laws and ordinances of the colony the better; for as their sway was but temporary, it scarcely allowed them time to become acquainted with the true condition of a province over which they had been thus accidentally called to preside. But, occasionally, some mischief was accomplished in the brief space of a few months; and probably such mischief

would have been more frequent, had not the authorities in England countermanded or put a check to any irregularities on their part.

It so happened that Major Orange, of the 67th Regiment, was in temporary command of the troops at the death of Sir James Carmichael Smyth, and on the 7th of March he was sworn in as acting-governor; but two days after he was superseded by a superior military officer, Colonel Bunbury, of the same regiment, who took the oath of administration on the 9th. The character of this gentleman was not adapted to the exigencies of the times; his views were mere reflections from the opinions of others; and it might have proved dangerous to have entrusted the government of such conflicting interests as those between a sinking planter and a rising peasant to hands which, though well intentioned, were too rough and hasty.

Instigated by the colonial party, he passed through the Court of Policy an ordinance enforcing a contract law, a vagrant law, with very severe clauses, giving great power to the local justices of the peace, and abolishing the stipendiary magistracy; and also two acts establishing a police force, and putting it at the control of the local justices to enforce their sentences. It should be remembered that, in accordance with a clause in the slavery abolition act, the Crown had appointed special justices of the peace with fixed salaries from Great Britain, to whom was entrusted the exclusive jurisdiction of all matters of dispute arising between masters and apprentices. The power of these justices was modified and extended by various acts of Parliament, orders in Council, and ordinances. After the termination of the apprenticeship, stipendiary magistrates, consisting generally of the same persons who had held the special commissions of the peace, were commissioned, to whom was specially en-

trusted the exclusive jurisdiction of all matters of controversy between masters and servants. The colony was divided into fourteen judicial districts, over each of which a stipendiary presided. Besides their commission as stipendiary magistrates, they also held the ordinary commission of the peace; by virtue of which commission they sat as members of the inferior criminal courts and the petty debt courts, and performed most of the ordinary judicial business of the colony.

The attempt to abolish such a necessary class of persons was ill-timed and injudicious. All these ordinances, together with a poor-law passed by the court shortly after the emancipation, by which relations in the first degree were obliged to support their impotent relatives; as well as a militia ordinance, disqualifying all who had been apprenticed labourers from serving in the militia; and an ordinance for a census and registry of the population, distinguishing those who had been apprenticed labourers, were subsequently disapproved of by the British Government, and consequently annulled. The subjects of contracts, combinations, vagrancy, and the jurisdiction of the stipendiary magistrates, were regulated by an order in Council issued for that purpose.

At a meeting, however, of the Court of Policy, held on the 20th of June, 1838, Dr. M'Turk, afterwards knighted for this and other services, one of the colonial members, and a gentleman of liberal and enlightened views, gave notice of motion to bring in a bill to abolish the system of apprenticeship. The effect of example, as already shown by the island of Antigua, where the apprentices had been liberated shortly after emancipation, and the imperfect working of the apprenticeship, no doubt gave rise to the proposition, and, as a matter of course, it became immediately a subject of severe discussion. At the suggestion of the chief justice, however, further argument on the subject was delayed until the bill was actually before the

court. Meantime, the opinion of the public became excited, and the contemplated measure was examined in all its phases. It was reserved, however, for another governor to execute so difficult a measure, although credit is certainly due to Colonel Bunbury for his willing assent to the proposition of Dr. M'Turk.

On the 28th of June, 1838, Henry Light, Esq., having arrived from England or Antigua, assumed the government, and was sworn into office. This gentleman, formerly in the army, and of considerable attainments, and lately governor of Dominica, undertook his difficult task at a time when a great crisis had approached.

In a despatch to Lord Glenelg, dated 9th July, 1838, the governor adverted to his arrival on the 26th, and to a proposed meeting of the Court of Policy on the 4th of July. His excellency alluded also to the conflicting feelings among proprietors on the subject, and mentioned the receipt of a petition presented to him by a deputation from a large body of proprietors of Berbice, deprecating the proposed measure. The adjourned meeting of the Court of Policy took place on the 4th of July, and after a short discussion with closed doors, they were opened to the public. Many petitions were read against the measure, none for it. The introduction of the bill was opposed by three of the colonial members, one of whom protested against the eligibility of the court to decide on a measure of such importance; but this was overruled. A first reading of the bill was allowed; it was seconded by Mr. Macrae, but was opposed by others. His excellency addressed the court strongly in favour of it, after excusing himself from taking a part in the discussion, in consequence of its important nature; the governor slightly reviewed the career of the African, and the late change in the relative character of planter and labourer. He augured also an increase in the value of property with the additional

industry of freemen, and that a more healthy state of prosperity would be the result, although very large fortunes might never again be made. His excellency also reverted to what he had witnessed in Antigua in 1836, where slavery had been abolished without the intermediate state of apprenticeship, and where the peasantry were orderly and industrious. In several also of the Leeward Islands he had witnessed a similar result, and stated that during his late administration of the island of Dominica for thirteen months, steps had already been taken for full emancipation. After such considerations, his excellency concluded that the proposed measures might be adopted in perfect safety in this important colony.

The second reading of the bill did not take place until the 10th of July (on the 9th of July his excellency wrote to Lord Glenelg on the progress of the bill), owing to the indisposition of the Honourable Mr. M'Turk, when it was warmly advocated by the attorney-general, who decided as to the eligibility of the measure. In the course of the debate it was attempted to throw the responsibility on the governor and official section, but ineffectually, and after much angry controversy the bill was sent into committee the next day, the usual standing orders being dispensed with, which usually required a delay of fourteen days. On the 12th of July the bill was carried, after the third reading, and his excellency had the happiness of signing the necessary ordinance. A royal salute was fired upon the occasion, and the purport of the bill proclaimed in three different parts of the town. Well might his excellency remark, in a despatch to Lord Glenelg of the same date, "I consider it fortunate for me that the first act of my public administration has been this measure of grace in favour of so large a number of my fellow-subjects."

However satisfactory to the executive, the planters naturally regarded it with distrust and uneasiness. They

urged that this colony was different from the islands, inasmuch as here all the crops are not taken off until the 1st of January, while in the islands they are terminated on the 1st of August, and that to deprive them of the services of their labourers at a most important season without compensation would be unjust. Supported, however, by a section of the colonial members, the bill passed, two colonial members voting against it, and one declining to vote.

The following is the ordinance enacted on that occasion, which was passed on the 12th, and published on the 16th:

“Whereas the non-prædial apprenticed labourers of this colony will be fully freed and discharged from their apprenticeship on the 1st day of August next;

“And whereas it has become necessary and expedient that the apprenticeship of the prædial labourers should also be terminated at the same time;

“Be it therefore enacted, that all and every the persons who, on the 1st day of August, 1838, shall be holden within British Guiana as prædial apprenticed labourers, shall, upon and from and after the said 1st day of August, 1838, become and be to all intents and purposes whatsoever absolutely freed and discharged of and from the then remaining term of their apprenticeship, created by the Act of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, intituled ‘An act for the abolition of slavery throughout the British colonies, for promoting the industry of the manumitted slaves, and for compensating the persons hitherto entitled to the services of such slaves,’ and of and from all and every the obligations imposed on them by the said act, and the several pains and penalties thereunder or thereby incurred.”

The social system being thus materially altered by the repeal of the act of apprenticeship, it became necessary to frame several new ordinances to meet the coming

changes. An ordinance was accordingly passed to make provision for the due maintenance and support of the aged and infirm prædial labourers to be discharged from apprenticeship on the 1st day of August next, as well as for other purposes. This ordinance was, however, disapproved of by the Home Government; and in a despatch received by Governor Light from Lord Glenelg, dated 15th of September, 1838, it was intimated that a royal order in Council would appear, providing for the maintenance of the poor in her Majesty's colonies; meanwhile, the ordinance was to continue in force. Another ordinance, for the further amendment of the acts and ordinances of the militia of British Guiana, prohibiting all who were apprenticed labourers on the 31st of July from serving in the militia, was altogether disallowed at home, on the ground of invidious distinctions "founded on the servile condition in which one class of society was formerly held." A similar fate also awaited an ordinance to ascertain the number of persons in British Guiana, and to establish registries of such persons in the different parishes thereof; for here again it was objected to by the Home Government that a serious inconvenience would result from perpetuating distinctions which were now formally abolished.

It must certainly be admitted that there was no want of energy on the part of the British Legislature to eradicate every vestige of slavery, and to do ample justice to a people so long considered as oppressed. Nor was the governor wanting in his endeavours to elevate and enlighten the labourers in their new duties. Proclamations were issued, inculcating habits of industry, sobriety, and morality; exhorting the good to persevere in their conduct; and threatening the bad with punishment.

On the 2nd of August his excellency set out on a tour of inspection through the colony. The labourers on the

estates were collected in suitable places, and were addressed by the governor, who dwelt on the relative condition of employer and employed, and advised them to prosecute their labour without interruption. In a despatch to Lord Glenelg, dated 13th of August, his excellency states: "The readiness with which I was understood surprised me, and the effect has been most satisfactory." After a fatiguing tour of nearly a month, his excellency returned to Georgetown on the 28th, and reported very favourably both of the labouring population and of the capabilities of the districts which he had visited.

The last link of slavery had been thus cast aside by a voluntary act on the part of the colonial legislature, and the social state of the colony was now to undergo, in a few years, changes more rapid and remarkable than could possibly have obtained under the old system. The planters, lulled into passive resignation by the temporary aid of the compensation money, could not, however, but feel that, in the deprivation of their slaves, an effect similar to the withdrawal of so much capital from their properties had been effected; and whilst many had to pay off pressing mortgages and previously-incurred debts, a great number, especially of the absentee proprietors, squandered away, or neglected to invest profitably, the sums thus received. Thus the compensation money, instead of being returned to, or spent on, the respective estates, was otherwise used; and when the time came for paying the labourers their regular wages, instead of supporting them as under the old system, monetary difficulties of all kinds presented themselves.

The planters, indeed, foresaw with despondency, that if they had to depend solely upon the irregular and uncertain labour of the emancipated people, these prospects would be materially affected; but they made no really useful endeavours as yet to check the advancing

evil which was to overwhelm them, but went on as usual, hoping, grumbling, and making sugar. The only efforts which were indeed made to ensure the necessary labour proved in the end the most injurious to themselves ;—a kind of rivalry was set up as to who would give the highest wages. The greatest bribes and inducements were held out to the negroes to settle on particular spots, thus encouraging that already too roving, restless disposition so destructive to the practical utility of the labourer. It rather served the interest of the negro than his master; it exaggerated his self-importance, which he was not long in perceiving; but, in the end, it effectually ruined many a planter, and encumbered all. It seemed certainly a natural step to take. The surest way to ensure labour was to pay high for it; the most certain method of making a man work who felt disinclined, was to reward him; but, at the moment, it was forgotten what would be the result of such a system. The price of produce was remunerating, even at such a means of raising it; but it remained for future years to expose the falsity of the system and its suicidal tendency. Planters knew too well the facilities this colony afforded for the encouragement of a race of squatters; they feared the too speedy withdrawal of labour, and its necessary sequence—the abandonment of property; and perhaps thought no remedy too dearly purchased which offered to save them. Some still clung with despairing confidence to the hope that the negro would be compelled to work; they made up their minds to be, in some degree, losers; but still fostered the idea that sugar-making was the only road to fortune-making. The colony was not regarded as a home, as an adopted country, a field sufficiently worthy of their occupancy, but rather as a purgatory, through which they must pass to obtain the elysium of their desires. Their exertions to gain wealth

and depart were incessant, their anxiety about their success intolerable; hence, few or no endeavours were made to sweeten the cares of life, or gladden with comfort the scenes of their industry. We have already seen that this was the error of the earlier English settlers, so different to the Dutch; and we now see the same error renewed and practised. So long as this continues to be the spirit and feeling of colonists, so long will their dreams be visionary and their hopes blighted; so long as such a principle is acted up to, so long will disappointment and unhappiness result. Exceptions may have occurred, and will occur again. Fortunes have been made here, and spent elsewhere; but this, as a general rule of practice, is unfitted for the genius of the nineteenth century. And yet, with all the disadvantages of such prospects before them, there were many speculations among the mercantile and agricultural classes in 1838. Several young men, without capital, and trusting to the old prestige of West India wealth, engaged in transactions far beyond their means; new mercantile establishments started up in Water-street, only to disappear as rapidly; plantations were bought which were never to be paid for; the system of long credit tended to encourage such proceedings; and it was not until a commercial revolution took place, that the pernicious habit was exploded, and only gradually renounced. A great show of affluence and of public and private amusement was kept up at this period; but it was artificial and of short duration. Balls and parties were as frequent, perhaps more so than ever; gay equipages abounded; races were numerous and fashionably attended; even the ladies, carried away by the ardour of the excitement, condescended to bet upon this or that horse; a pair of gloves, a bonnet, were often thus won, for gallantry forbid that the gentleman should triumph.

Such was the anomalous social state of the planters ; whilst, on the other hand, the labourer, now left to his own guidance and resources, naturally exhibited some confusion and irresolution in his habits. It was not long after its accomplishment that the negro began to feel the advantages of the emancipation. Although at first disappointed, and dissatisfied at the restrictions of an apprenticeship, he was soon made to perceive of how great value he was—how absolutely necessary the toil of his arm was for the very existence of the colony. A nomade sort of life seemed at first natural to him. He seemed anxious to test his liberty by wandering about in search of the new happiness reserved for him ; many of the labourers left the estates to which for years they had been accustomed, especially the young and middle-aged, for, as before remarked, the older among the people remained fixed to their accustomed localities, where the associations of earlier years were strongest—a fact much in favour of the toleration practised in the last days of slavery. Regular work was for a time abandoned, and a very marked falling off in the quantity of sugar produced was one of the earliest consequences of such changes ; the women generally abandoned the field, and the men were only kept to it by necessity. Domestic service invited many, and numbers flocked to town to such employment. A savage sort of life held out attractions to a certain proportion. They depended on the fish that the rivers or large trenches afforded, or on the few ground provisions they could raise, such as cassava, ochres, pigeon peas, yams, &c., together with a few fowls. Living far up the rivers, or on the back lands of estates, they erected scanty huts as a shelter from the sun of the dry season, and the torrents of the wet months. Apart from civilised scenes and the healthful industry of the plantations, they began from this time to relapse into old habits of apathy, indolence, and ignorance ; and, withdrawing from the use-

fulness of former scenes, lost the advantages which a system of freedom had destined for them. But to the industrious and the intelligent what a noble field presented itself. Work was abundant; their labour was sought for with a competition too keen among planters not to be detected by the most ignorant of the people. Who can blame the negro if he made the most of his peculiar position? who can complain if he valued the sweat of his brow at the highest possible rate? The planters in former times had made the most of the advantages which they then possessed; but the tables were now turned; the wheel of fortune had gone round; it had flung from on high the opulent planter into the slough of despond, and it had raised aloft the trampled serf, and left him rejoicing at the unexpected change. The labour of the negro began to be at a premium; nice cottages were built upon estates as an inducement for the people to settle there; medical attendance was provided for them as before, nay, even medicine; Sunday and other schools were established for their children, and such wages were allowed them as in no other country could be met with. The industrious man could earn half a dollar a day (2s. 1d.) for about six hours' labour; the remainder of the day was his own; he might either commence another task, or in some other way add to his gains by cultivating provisions or stock. If anything occurred to displease him, a change to the next estate offered similar, or probably higher, advantages.

But this anomalous position of the labourer was productive of much bickering at the outset; constant employment was found for the stipendiary magistrates to adjust differences and disputes. It was a new era in the social history of British Guiana to witness the late slave standing on an equality at the bar of justice with his former owner. It was one of the earliest privileges which fol-

lowed in the steps of freedom, and, perhaps, there has been no more favourite boon received by the negro than this; it was a distinction which they had scarcely anticipated, a right which did more to efface all recollections of former differences between man and man than any other circumstance. There is no doubt of the necessity of such tribunals; but, as might naturally have been expected, it has frequently since led to much abuse and inconvenience, and to this day proves a bitter sort of annoyance between the planter and his emancipated serf.

These were some of the principal features of the social community which marked the advent of the new governor, and it demanded on his part the utmost caution and vigilance not to interrupt the progress of the new system, and offend, by partial administration, either the sensitive opinions of the planter, or the rising ambition of the labourer. Already were the home philanthropists pointing with triumph at the novel spectacle of an emancipated race of ignorant people working in peaceful order and contentment; already were the proprietors of estates declaring that the evils of such a forced state of liberty had overtaken them, and that nothing short of strenuous exertions and concessions on their part could hold together the repellent elements of the social system.

Early in 1838, British Guiana was divided into three counties—Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, formerly called districts or colonies; and an alteration was also made in the number and division of parishes, viz., thirteen in Demerara and Essequibo, and six in Berbice. A few of these parishes (five) belonged to the Kirk of Scotland, and the remainder to the Church of England, to all of which clergymen and catechists or clerks were appointed; besides these, several chapels and churches were erected, and conducted by Independent and other preachers; these

were eagerly attended, and, in many instances, wholly supported by voluntary subscribers; schools, also, in connexion with these churches, were established.

In the course of this year the duties, jurisdiction, &c., of the stipendiary magistrates were defined by a proclamation issued on the 1st of November; and the services of these gentlemen were of the utmost importance in deciding the numerous and vexatious subjects of complaint which were submitted for investigation.

On the 8th of October his excellency the governor issued a proclamation addressed to the labourers, in which, in judicious and gentle language, he rebuked them for their irregularity at work, and for their general idleness and discontent; which, however, effected but little good.

In the course of an address to the Court of Policy on the 6th of November, his excellency reviewed some of the social changes, adverted to the number of new ordinances passed, and explained the nature of those which had been disallowed by the Home Government. He alluded also to the renewed commissions of the stipendiary magistrates, and to a petition from the inhabitants of the colony praying for an alteration in the mode of electing the colonial members of the Court of Policy, and their wish to abolish the College of Keizers. An ordinance was also passed by the governor and the Court of Policy to consolidate the marshals' offices of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and to make permanent provision for the same. By this new ordinance one provost marshal, seven ordinary marshals, and two copyists were appointed, and their several duties, fees, &c., defined. A *vagrant* act was also passed this year, specifying the nature and definition of a term so new to the labourer, and providing fines and punishments for offenders, who were to be tried before the stipendiary magistrates or justices of the peace. An alteration was likewise made in the elective franchise,

assimilating it more to the altered circumstances of the times. At the first meeting of the Court of Policy (17th of September) after the 1st of August, his excellency addressed the members on the state of the labouring population, and congratulated them on the peaceable and successful working of the act for the abolition of the apprenticeship, on the good feeling between employer and employed, on the slight falling off of labour and neglecting of estates, and to the few commitments for offences.

In the following year, on the 12th of January, 1839, an ordinance was passed repealing that of 1837, which had invested the mayor's court with judicial functions, and a Georgetown police-office was instituted for the better administration of justice. It provided for a police magistrate and clerk, and the powers and duties were duly defined and published. Another ordinance in the following June provided for an effective system of police within British Guiana. An inspector-general, Mr. Crichton, was appointed, with three inspectors, one for each county, together with a clerk and a proper "police force." Rules were drawn up for their guidance, and their powers and duties defined.

On the 19th July, 1839, his excellency addressed the members of the Combined Court, and among other things remarked: "I defy the most enthusiastic, false or true philanthropist, to say that a day's labour, which may be completed in five or six hours, or even in less time, is an oppressive demand on the labourer, paid as he is, and favoured as he is, almost universally with other privileges, which place him far above the condition of the labourer in Europe. The freedom which leads to the mere supply of the common calls of hunger, will never raise the descendant of Africa in the scale of human beings which the friends of freedom so much desire." The governor also stated, that in five years, from January, 1834, to December, 1838,

finances amounting to 612,000 guilders have been incurred by individuals in the militia, and that the amount saved by the reduction of the militia was 30,350 guilders. As regards the colony, "The importance of this province is fully known to her Majesty's Government. With improvements in machinery and drainage, the European may then share in the cultivation of the land; unwholesome swamps will disappear; thousands of acres will be reclaimed from their state of nature or abandonment; and where we now count our population by thousands, their hundredfold will lay the foundation of an empire with sources of wealth to the mother country inferior only to her India possessions in the East, with this advantage to the former, that the latter will always be of more tedious access."

In 1839, Messrs. Scoble, Ainslie, and Stuart, three influential members of the Anti-Slavery Society, arrived in Demerara professedly to inquire into the condition of the labouring population. The governor regretted their appearance at this particular juncture. Mr. Scoble left in June; but squabbles, incident on their proceedings, arose between them and the planters.

On the subject of immigration there occurred difficulties between the governor and many of the colonists; an immigration ordinance was passed by the Court of Policy, and it was proposed to borrow the sum of 400,000*l.* for the purposes of immigration; but his excellency took a different view of the question, and on the 26th June, 1839, wrote to the Marquis of Normanby opposing the proposed loan of 400,000*l.* for immigration purposes, on account of its burdening the colony for forty years. Governor Light thought that about 2000 labourers annually would be sufficient for the wants of the colony and its means of accommodation. A tax of two-and-a-quarter

per cent. on produce would raise about 400,000*l.*, and cover the expense.

Mr. Rose also argued against the proposed loan, and brought forward the following objections :

1st. That great mortality would ensue should immigration in large masses take place.

2nd. That it would burden the colony with a debt for forty years.

3rd. That the amount of the sum proposed to be raised is too large, and would not be required at once.

4th. No security could be placed on the Combined Court granting the funds necessary to provide for the interest and redemption of the capital.

5th. That there was no specific tax or fund out of which the money is to be provided. That there was no security against it being raised by unjust taxation; and that future Combined Courts might alter the proposed grant.

To which it was replied, that the question of mortality was distinct from that of the subject of immigration; that the sum might be less than 400,000*l.*, and provision made annually for its gradual extinction; and, that the want of faith in future Combined Courts was irrational and illiberal. Dr. M'Turk also opposed the proposed immigration law.

The ordinance appeared, however, but was disapproved of at home, and disallowed by the Marquis of Normanby, who objected to immigration from India, Africa,* and the Bahamas, as well as to the proposed plan for introducing immigrants here from the islands, as recommended by Governor Light.

In spite of this opposition, the subject was again taken up by the colonists, who held public meetings; and a

* See despatch dated 15th of August, 1839, and addressed to Governor Light.

petition, addressed to the Queen, was signed by 700 or 800 persons, and was forwarded by the governor to Lord John Russell, who then held the office of colonial secretary. Lord John Russell, in addressing Governor Light on this subject, although admitting the falling off in the amount of produce, yet sarcastically observed that the word "ruin" made use of by the colonists did not seem to apply to the poverty of the people, nor to the want of food or raiment, neither to the absence of riches or luxury, but simply to the decrease of sugar cultivation.

Immediately after the emancipation, the subject of immigration had occupied the attention of the colonists, who clearly saw, that without continuous labour, their capital and properties would be wasted. Several gentlemen, both in Demerara and Berbice, determined upon sending a vessel to the Bahamas, or Lower Islands, in order that persons unable in those islands to procure a livelihood should be invited here, where ample work and wages would be found for them. A letter declaratory of their object was forwarded by Governor Light to the governor of the Bahamas, stating the rate of wages here at about eight dollars per month, with house and garden-ground, medical attendance and medicine. Early in September, 1838, the subject was submitted to the consideration of Lord Glenelg by Governor Light, who forwarded the leading points of a communication received by him from the secretary of the British Guiana Bank advocating its necessity on financial grounds, and suggesting that extensive immigration ought not to be left to individuals. It was also proposed that colonial emigrant agents should be appointed, and certain premiums offered by the colony and proprietors on the importation of effective agricultural labourers. Very shortly after this, the subject was brought forward in the Court of

Policy on the 21st of September, and certain resolutions were adopted calculated to combine advantages both to the colony and to the emigrant. The assistant Government secretary, W. B. Wolseley, Esq., was appointed by his excellency agent for emigrants for this colony. These resolutions were not objected to by Lord Glenelg, who, however, pointed out some important modifications in the proposed scheme.

The project of immigration now thoroughly occupied public attention, and was doomed to exercise the greatest influence on the future condition of the colony. It has been the pabulum of all young and aspiring countries, has found an episode in nearly every history, and still continues to be the panacea for colonial evils. It had its origin in necessity; it flourished in proportion to the civilisation and extent of empires, and has been the theme of praise to the statesman, the political economist, and the patriot. It has been the desired object of the poor and unfortunate, the beacon to many a "land of promise," the tomb of many a hope. The young and ardent have passionately pursued this "ignis fatuus," the middle-aged and prudent have confided themselves to its enticing rewards, and the old and covetous have groped their way along with the rest, in the hope of amassing wealth or honour at the "last hour." Its votaries have all set out buoyed up with the gayest prospects, and embarked on the treacherous stream which was to lead them they knew not where. Its currents guided some to the east and some to the west; its attractions operated in all directions; but the rocks were not indicated, nor the shoals mapped out to the mariners of this unknown sea, ere they could reach the "gold-bound coast." From a hazardous speculation, it has become an established system; from relieving old, it has created new, countries; the transplanted twigs have grown into mighty trees, the plucked bud has been

engrafted on a foreign stem, and the fruit benefited by the change. Like the lopped members of the inferior animals, these members have assumed a vitality of their own; an inherent principle of life was flickering faintly in them, until accidental circumstances developed more innate strength; the vigour of self-support was infused into the system, and like the "newly born," it acquired a principle of life separate from the parent, but capable of like development and increase. Emigration from the "Old World" has acted like the withdrawal of the superfluous blood from a too robust constitution—it has relieved the plethora of the system. Immigration, on the contrary, has acted like the transfusion of the vital fluid into the veins of a weak and debilitated subject; it has aroused latent power, and infused by its stimulus an artificial but useful energy into a helpless and sinking economy; renewal of life has followed its application, and saving health resulted from its administration. But, like other human inventions, it has led to abuse, and deception and disappointment have retarded its practical advantages. The home deserted has never been replaced by another, and the land forsaken never again reached.

"Nihil est ab omni parte beatum."

The men who have relinquished their hearths in discontent have not always encountered better fortunes, and the mind dissatisfied with bare subsistence in its own clime has not always arrived at affluence elsewhere.

"Vivitur parvo bene, cui paternum
Splendet in mensa tenui Salinum,
Nec leves somnos timor aut cupidus
Sordidus aufert.
Quid brevi fortes jaculamur ævo
Multa? Quid terras alio calentes
Sole mutamus? Patriæ quis erul
Se quoque fugit?

Scandit seratas vitiosa naves
 Cura: nec turmas equitum relinquit,
 Ocior cervis, et agente nimbos
 Ocyor euro.
 Lætus in præsens animus, quod ultra est
 Oderit curare, et amare lento
 Temperet risu." *

It is scarcely necessary, after what has been narrated as to the falling off of regular labour since the emancipation, to point out the object of immigration to these shores. No act was ever better calculated to relieve the necessities under which the planters suffered, and to supply a sufficiency of labourers at rates which would enable the employers to raise and manufacture sugar at a profit. It also tended to increase the importance and civilisation of the colony. But to the creole labourer its intent was obvious; it pointed out to him clearly, that if he was unwilling to work an attempt would be made to procure others to do what he neglected; but it would be wrong to assert that it was an act of retaliation intended to injure the prospects of the negro. It was introduced to relieve a pressing want; a temporary remedy for a serious malady. The colony was threatened with a paralysis of its motive power; here was a remedy which was to infuse new life into the torpid system, a new agent to bear on the physical infirmity of the land. Justice must certainly be done by all parties to the creole labourer, in admitting that throughout this important era in a new social state he conducted himself with great moderation, liberality, and good humour. At first, he showed a great deal of indifference, if not apathy, to the contemplated scheme of introducing people from other lands to compete with him in the field; but his attention was soon attracted to the subject by the ever-watchful guardians of his class, "the Independent preachers," who, by whatever feelings ac-

* Horace, Lib. ii. Ode 16.

tuated, whether regard for the supposed interest of the negro, or prompted by the reference it bore to their own affairs (inasmuch as in general they depended upon the contributions of their congregations), soon produced a general movement on the subject.

The first efforts of immigration (and, indeed, many subsequent ones) were not calculated to alarm a sensible and observing people. Setting aside any intention of reviewing a few ill-judged attempts to introduce, at different periods of our history, a few Europeans into the colony for the purposes of trade and agriculture, such as English, Dutch, and German families, which all ended in disappointment, the majority of the settlers having died shortly after their arrival, and the remainder returning to their native land, we pass on to consider the efforts made in 1835 and 1836 to bring labourers to British Guiana; so early after the act of apprenticeship was the necessity for them evident. In this year a "Colonial Indenture Act" was passed, the object of which was to enable private individuals to procure labourers from the West India islands at their own expense, and bring them to this country under contract of servitude for so many years. Small vessels were chartered by some enterprising planters, and at a considerable outlay many islanders were added to the population of British Guiana. In the course of the years 1836, 1837, and 1838, about 5000 labourers were thus introduced by ordinances, which were, however, subject to many modifications by successive orders in Council of the original indenture act; but their utility was questionable, the demand upon their labour and their constitutions gave rise to disease and disappointment, the greater number quarrelled with their "contractors;" and when the ordinance to terminate the apprenticeship was enforced, they absolutely included themselves in its enact-

ments, and quietly broke off all engagements. These people were mostly from the islands of St. Christophers, Angola, Montserrat, and Nevis, and, contributing to the motley group met with in these regions, they deserve some notice. At first their number was too few to attract much notice, and their influence on the social state but trifling. Many were employed as domestic servants; the rest sent to the field. Of these the majority were of little consideration in their own country. Possessed of much of the physical character of the Guiana creole negro, they undoubtedly enjoyed more acute, varied, and expanded intelligence. They seemed to be further advanced in civilisation, but also to have imbibed its accompanying vices. A marked disposition to cunning, theft, and intrigue was manifested among them, and at the various criminal courts which were subsequently held it was notorious that a disproportionate number of them was generally included.* They had not led so simple a life as that of the native creole, had been brought into more direct contact with the inhabitants of other countries, and had congregated more in towns. They were indebted for their advancement, and perhaps their vices, to the example of their superiors from Europe. Their manners were more polite and studied than the lazy, unaffected deportment of the Guiana negro, towards whom they evinced a feeling of contempt. Apter in the acquisition of knowledge, and more plausible in behaviour, they lacked the honesty of purpose which generally marked the conduct of the others. Many of the better sort were enabled by their industry to return to their friends with ample evidence of their success. They affected, and still continue to affect, much contempt for the new country to which they were brought. With

* Of 109 convicts (at the close of 1845) who were lodged at the penal settlement, upwards of 50 were aliens, or foreign to British Guiana.

feelings of patriotism they gave the preference to their own lands, but could not deny that greater advantages were open to them here than "at home." The greater number of them have, in fact, remained here.

The imperfect result of the "colonial indenture scheme" being demonstrated, attention was directed to the formation of an "immigration loan," but to this scheme, as we have seen, the governor refused his consent. These circumstances, which, together with the failing prospects of the planters, and the diminution of the quantity of produce raised, produced feelings of discontent, both against the English Government, and the governor by whom it was represented in the colony.

On the 28th January, 1840, the governor, in addressing the legislature, adverted to the falling off in the amount of produce, and offered some explanation to account for it. He also alluded to the fact of high prices being still paid for estates, and mentioned that the receipts of import and other duties had exceeded the estimated sum. He congratulated them on the small amount of crime, but lamented the failure of laws to regulate wages, &c.

Disagreements, however, arose in the course of the session, and the supplies were stopped. Sir M. M'Turk addressed a letter on this occasion to the clergy and others, requesting their co-operation in preparing a petition to the Queen against this act of the Combined Court, but his proposal was not carried into effect. The governor wrote home on the subject, and such was the flourishing state of the finances, that the public service was sustained to the end of the year without taxation.

Finding that immigration could not be effected as a legislative measure, a very spirited attempt was made by the colonists to accomplish it themselves. Several private meetings were held in 1840, and at length a

“Voluntary Subscription Immigration Society” was formed, with the intent of introducing immigrants at the expense of the individual members. A large proportion of the planters and others interested composed the society. Fifteen directors were chosen,* and subscriptions were collected from them to defray the general expenses; a secretary was appointed, with a salary of 400*l.* per annum, and suitable premises near the water-side engaged for the reception of the immigrants, besides offices for the transaction of business.

In the beginning also of this year (21st January, 1840), two delegates (Messrs. Peck and Price) arrived from America, where an intelligent colonist (Mr. Carberry) had communicated with the Anti-Slavery Society of the United States and that of Liberia, and after travelling through the colony, they departed in March, and reported favourably on reaching Baltimore. They also visited Trinidad, but gave the preference to this colony.

In the following year (1841) a large steamer of 180 horse power, the *Venezuela*, was purchased for 47,000 dollars (about 10,000*l.*). This vessel was brought to Barbadoes by Messrs. Cavan and Co., but proved perfectly useless to the colony, and the whole of this expensive scheme ended in jealousies, bickerings, and disappointment.

The only result of this enterprising scheme was the introduction into the colony of about 3000 immigrants, who came chiefly from the island of Barbadoes,† and

* The planters were to pay two per cent. on amount of produce made, and other persons in proportion to their incomes. The total amount raised was 36,266*l.*

Demerara and Essequibo	£27,000
Berbice.....	9,266
	<hr/>
	£36,266

† The *Superior* arrived on the 24th of May, 1841, with 200 Africans. The governor proceeded on board, and advising with the immigration agent, located

were distributed in various parts of the colony as field labourers. A few among this number (about seventy) were from the United States, but the views of the colonists were not satisfied, and, as we have seen, a controversy broke out between the official and colonial members of the Court of Policy and Combined Court.

The term of the civil list arranged by Sir Lionel Smith in 1835 being about to expire, the elective section refused to grant a new civil list, unless the colony was guaranteed a free immigration from all parts of the world.

His excellency the governor remaining equally firm against this measure, the "stoppage of the annual supplies," as we have seen, resulted, and a recurrence of the scenes of 1835 threatened to take place. But in 1841 a mediator was appointed to arrange the existing differences, and Sir Henry Macleod, governor of the island of Trinidad, arrived for the purpose. After some difficulty he negotiated the "new civil list," which was to continue from the 1st January, 1841, for seven years. An ordinance to this effect was passed on the 6th day of January, 1841.* The annual sum thus voted was 39,572*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* sterling, equivalent to 187,549 dollars and 33 cents, which was distributed in the following proportion:

Civil List from 1841 to 31st of December, 1847.

The Governor (besides a residence)	£25,000	0	0	
Chief Justice	2,500	0	0	
Two Puisne Judges	3,000	0	0	
Secretary to Chief Justice	630	0	0	
Government Secretary	800	0	0	
Secretary to Court of Policy	}	Held by the same gentleman				700	0	0	
Assistant Government Secretary	1,100	0	0	
							£13,730	0	0

them on thirteen of the best estates on the east coast. The same vessel sailed on the 7th of June, and returned on the 22nd of October following with 225 Africans.

* Local Guide, p. 679.

Brought Forward			£13,730	0	0
Clerks' stationery for Government Secretary's office and Court of Policy, besides contingencies				450	0 0
Attorney-General				1,100	0 0
Solicitor-General				300	0 0
High Sheriff				1,250	0 0
Clerk to ditto				300	0 0
Sheriff of Berbice				900	0 0
Sheriff of Essequibo				700	0 0
Ten stipendiary magistrates, each 700 <i>l.</i>				7,000	0 0
Contingencies				2,400	0 0
				£28,130	0 0
Retiring pensions				2,012	18 0
Ecclesiastical archdeacon of British Guiana	£	500	0	0	
Stipends of ministers of 15 parishes		6,250	0	0	
" rector of St. George		569	4	10	
" minister of St. Andrew's		569	4	10	
" minister of Dutch Reformed Church.		569	4	10	
" rector, New Amsterdam		486	2	5	
" Scotch minister, New Amsterdam		486	2	5	
				9,429	19 4
Grand Total				£39,572	17 4

Such was the liberal provision made by the colony for the support of its principal officers and institutions. This civil list had a preferent claim upon colonial revenues, and was payable quarterly. The "king's chest" was abolished until the 31st of December, 1847, and the Queen's revenues made payable into the colony chest. The registrar's, marshal's, and sheriff's offices were subject to the regulation and control of the governor and Court of Policy, and all the fees and revenues (except salaries) were of course included under such control. The sum placed for contingencies was not to be appropriated to salaries, &c.

Ordinances were also passed "to levy a duty upon all imports into British Guiana," and for "authorising the appointment and regulating the duties of commissaries of taxation, in order to the better collection of the revenue." But as a kind of "set-off" against these ordinances, and the formation of so expensive a "civil list," the colonial party had accorded to them an "immigration

ordinance," which was first passed in January, 1841, and subsequently repealed in 1842, making way for another to "encourage immigration into British Guiana," &c. By this ordinance an annual sum was provided for the purpose by the colony; agents were to be appointed at several places* whence immigration might be expected, and salaries allowed them; an "agent general for immigration" was also appointed to reside in the colony, at a fixed salary. The duties of the several agents were also defined; certain bounties were allowed on all immigrants out of the public chest, and the rate of bounty fixed by proclamation. Thus by two proclamations, dated 5th of August and 10th of December, 1842, the following bounties on immigrants were payable under the above act, viz., from Sierra Leone, 35 dollars; St. Helena, 35 dollars; Rio Janeiro, 35 dollars; other parts of Brazil, 25 dollars; Spanish Main and Margarita, 20 dollars; United States of America, 30 dollars, &c. The labourers, on arrival, were to be provided with temporary support, and due preparations were made for them.

Having sketched the history of the immigration ordinance, we come now to consider its working, and the character and influence of the new labour-power introduced under its sanction. A formidable, though hitherto untried, competitor made his appearance to share the spoils of a country of such reputed wealth. The Portuguese labourer of the island of Madeira had, so early as the year 1835, attracted the attention of the planters, who about that period introduced the number of 429 into British Guiana. It was supposed, from their well-known industrious habits, and the fact of their being natives of a warm climate, that they would answer admirably for the cultivation of the estates. They were

* The agent at Sierra Leone was to receive 400*l.* per annum; the agent at Madeira 150*l.*

accordingly distributed in various parts of the colony, but the result of this, the first experiment, was unsatisfactory. A great many of them became attacked with fevers, ulcers, and other disorders, and a large proportion of them died. The survivors, however, amassed by degrees large sums of money, with which several returned to Madeira, to excite the wonder and cupidity of their countrymen, a circumstance which had a remarkable influence on the future prospects both of themselves and their compatriots.

The Portuguese have shown themselves for ages a restless and roving people; enterprising in spirit, and adventurous in their habits, we have already seen them, along with the Spaniards, exploring and visiting this country; behold them now again, but in a different capacity. Formerly they came to be masters; now they were satisfied to be servants and labourers. Formerly they came with the sword and the spear; now they were to wield the shovel and the cutlass. They have ever been willing to renounce their vine-clad homes for the perils of adventure and the prospects of gain. When, therefore, it became known to the simple inhabitants of Madeira that a rich tract of land on the not far-distant coast of South America was in want of labourers to cultivate its soil, and busy rumour had announced that wages were ten times higher in amount than in their own country, it is not to be wondered at that numbers of them, with their families, were found willing to embark for the "rich coast." It is not a little strange that this land, this same Guiana, so long spoken of for its riches by ancient writers and adventurous travellers (many, too, of their own nation), should again present itself, after an interval of about four centuries, as a second "El Dorado," and rise up suddenly as it were from the ocean to invite them to its shores. Forgotten in one

moment were their rocky mountains and luxuriant hills, festooned with the grape; without a sigh they bid adieu to the balmy atmosphere of the beautiful Madeira, and set sail with ardour for the mud-flats of the sugar country. The new comers were at first introduced at the expense of the colonists, until the immigration ordinances of 1841 and 1842 provided for their arrival, and gave a bounty of about 30 dollars, or 6*l.* per head, for each adult. Everything seemed in favour of the new immigrants. A vast field of labour was thrown open to them, a ready source of wealth to the industrious, and a climate in temperature and seasons not unlike their own. Possessed of the same character which elsewhere distinguishes their countrymen, both in person and habits, they exhibited to the negro a surpassing activity without much strength; light-hearted and merry in their dispositions, they were also intelligent, and remarkably keen as to their own interests; honourable and upright in their dealings, their manners towards their superiors were respectful and affectionate. Contented without luxuries, they cared little for personal appearance; the most simple food, the most humble dwelling, the most indifferent clothing seemed what they had been accustomed to; a want of cleanliness was unfortunately prevalent among them, and led in this climate to the most serious consequences. Superstitious and bigoted in matters of religion, they yet evinced an indifference towards its pursuit, and an ignorance of its duties which were surprising. Very few cared to attend the Roman Catholic church, but contented themselves with raising altars and burning candles before images and pictures of saints in their own dwellings. Naturally jealous and passionate, they were dangerous to quarrel with; more ready with the *knife* than with either argument or bodily force. Penurious in their habits, they hoarded up, or lent out on usury,

the money which they amassed by their industry and intelligence, or else invested it in profitable speculations, as we shall soon see. Fond of music, they enlivened their homes by the guitar, accompanied by the voice. A small kind of guitar, called by them "michette," is a very favourite instrument, with which, playing the most pleasing airs, they often perambulated the streets.

The earliest comers were for the most part from the very lowest classes of society in Madeira, and wanted polish in their manner; but they were all civil. In point of features there is a wonderful sameness in most of their countenances, the same dark black hair, aquiline nose, black eyes, and olive complexion, being common to them all. The men generally wore beards, which gave an antique cast to the countenance, and reminded one forcibly of the paintings of portraits in the sixteenth century. Their figures were robust, but not graceful or well-proportioned; many of the younger women were tolerably good-looking, but almost invariably spoilt by some unbecoming feature, or an indifferent figure, which they neglected surprisingly. The middle-aged and elderly females looked more like hags than mothers and wives. As a sameness of features obtained, so did the names by which they were known; scores of them had exactly the same Christian and surnames, which occasionally proved inconvenient in business and money matters; many of them, however, assumed fictitious names, and a habit prevailed among them of designating themselves by some familiar appellation or nickname, indicative of some supposed or apparent quality or habit. From the similarity in features, and from the prevalence of the same names, it seemed as if they were all descendants of a few original families, and to me it has often appeared as if they were of good descent, in consequence of the general cast of countenance being anything but "plebeian." So much

for the physical and moral attributes of the new immigrant; let us now consider his influence and career.

The Portuguese immigrants arrived in great numbers in the years 1840, 41, and 42.* In the former years about 4000 were introduced, in the latter about 400, and it must be allowed that they evinced the greatest willingness to labour, and considerable aptitude to learn. But the nature of the work was new to them, the implements unhandy, and the negroes did not let the occasion pass by without jeering them on their awkwardness. They forgot, in "cutting their jokes," the clumsiness of their African forefathers, and the fact that a willing hand is often worth more than a skilful one. The Madeirans had been able to earn in their own land about 4d. or 6d. per day, but in British Guiana they found they could earn as much as two to three guilders per day's work of six to eight hours (about three or four shillings). Their first impulse, therefore, was to tax their industry to the utmost. Unfortunately, the demand for their services was too urgent and general for much care to be bestowed upon the locality to which they were destined, and to the nature of the work to which they were called. Leaving a dry and mountainous country, the Portuguese immigrant encountered here a damp and marshy land; accustomed in his own island to the light work of the vineyard and the farm, he was required here to cultivate a stiff and clayey soil, with constant exposure to the sun or to the rain, and in the immediate vicinity of stagnant trenches. In his native country his diet, although humble, consisted chiefly of fresh vegetables and fresh fish, occasionally meat; his drink was water and the wine of the country; here his

* Owing, however, to the great mortality which occurred about this time, the governor and Court of Policy stopped for a time Portuguese immigration after March, 1842.

ordinary food was the farinaceous plantain and the dried salt-fish, and he was exposed to all the temptations of luscious but, for new comers, unwholesome fruit, which abound in tropical countries. In his retired cottage in Madeira, dirty and indifferent as it was, he saw little around him to excite his envy or cupidity; he moved among others whose lot of life was like his own, and to a certain extent he had felt contented; the ignorance of riches and the hopelessness of advancement had rendered him apathetic, if not satisfied. But in this new country, where it had been told to him that the streets were paved with gold and silver, he saw enough to stimulate his desires, and to urge him to contend for the possession of wealth. The curse of Mammon had seized upon his soul. Home, friends, country, were forgotten in the charm of adventurous enterprise, and thousands flocked hither only to meet a grave. Hurried away in gangs to the estates, no wise precautions were taken to ensure their usefulness. To be sure, experience had not yet proved the necessity for any such precautions. It was not long in arriving. "To the field—to the field," was the cry. To the field they went, in sanguine spirits and excited industry; they returned from it exhausted by the sun and fatiguing nature of the work. The miasm of an ill-drained land was immediately alert upon such unfavourable constitutions. Intermittent fever and ague broke out among them; the prickly heat (a species of lichen or skin disease peculiar to the tropics), and the small insects which abounded, attacked their feet and legs; inattention to such insidious and apparently insignificant assailants led them again to the field, but ulcers and disease were the consequence. The money which they received for their labour was not spent in good or sufficient food necessary to sustain them. They lived upon the cheapest plantains and the common salted fish;

but they paid dear for their economy. The money was hoarded until its value became incapable of saving them. They thought to have reached the mark, but the race was not yet over; they thought to have conquered, but the victory was not yet complete. The fever had become their daily companion; it wasted their energies and their bodies; it was followed by sallow complexions, congestion of internal and important organs, dropsy, emaciation, and death. The small scratch or ulcer, from irritation and neglect, spread into foul and sloughing sores, which involved in its ravages the tendons, the nerves, and the very bones, rendering amputation necessary. The unseen insect and the unconscious miasm had destroyed the ambitious and aspiring man. They looked to their employers for relief; sympathy was not wanting, and medical relief invoked, but where was found its benefit? an imperfect system of sanitary attendance rendered nugatory all their efforts. The dream had passed away. Startled into a fearful and stern reality, these victims of their own and others' imprudence hurried in numbers to the colonial hospital. The staff of that institution and the accommodation had to be increased to meet the augmenting claims. The patients crowded into its wards, they filled the apartments with their cries, they stretched themselves out upon their pallets, and in spite of the best medical skill and attention, they died unpossessed of that wealth for which they had sacrificed a life. Yet was the tale not altogether untrue which was told them; the picture had been correctly drawn, but somewhat too highly coloured. Some of the more careful earned money sufficient to enable them to return in a short time to their native land, to exhibit their wealth, and to stimulate others to encounter similar scenes such as I have attempted to describe. We shall shortly have to notice a similar

episode respecting coolie immigration in this history. The impression left on the public mind by the result of the Portuguese emigration was, that the inhabitants of Madeira was not adapted to this climate. But was the climate really to blame for all the evils consequent on the earlier emigration from Madeira? Was it, and is it really not adapted to the constitutions of European races? The answer to such an important question must be reserved for a separate consideration. Meanwhile, the importation of more Portuguese immigrants was stopped by orders from England, and the bounties discontinued in May, 1842, as likewise bounties on immigrants from the West India Islands in October of the same year; the cost of these immigrants, including the purchase-money and expenses of the steamer *Venezuela*, amounted to about 380,000 dollars.*

Immigration for the next year or two began to decline, in consequence of the recent disasters and experience, until attention was turned to Africa and the east for labourers suitable to the country, and about 500 in 1843 and in 1844 were introduced here, chiefly from Sierra Leone, the West India Islands, and a few from Madeira, who came at their own expense; but when in the following years the bounties were again renewed, in accordance with alterations and modifications in the several "immigration ordinances," crowds of immigrants flocked to these shores from Calcutta, Madras, Madeira, and elsewhere. It would be needless to enter upon another description of the Portuguese immigration; it would be a mere recapitulation of the first one; the origin, the progress, and the results were the same. The money acquired by some of the more fortunate Portuguese who had returned with it to Madeira, had again aroused the

* Local Guide, p. xxxv.

cupidity of the poor. They had seen paupers go away and return comparatively rich. The name of Guiana was recognised as a promise of wealth, and a field for industry and success. The cherished recollections of youth, the sad tales about the pestilential climate, the dissuasions practised by the authorities and clergy of the island, lost all efficacy when contrasted with the display of wealth so rapidly acquired by some of their countrymen in the "nuova terra;" numbers with their wives and families again flocked to British Guiana, in spite of obstacles of every kind. The authorities of the island of Madeira, when first made aware of the emigration of the people, did not interfere to prevent them. They very prudently consented to the departure of the refuse of the town of Funchal* and its neighbourhood, and connived at the removal of the lazy and penurious mendicants, the incarcerated thief and vagabond, and the half-starved artisan. For these, and such like, formed a large proportion of those who first arrived in this colony. When, however, it was found that agriculturists and people of all classes were deserting the island, an attempt was made to discountenance it. None were permitted to leave without a passport, the price of which was gradually raised, until a few or none could purchase one. Evasion, as a matter of course, followed, and the people contrived to get away without passports. More energetic measures became necessary. No vessels were allowed to leave the island until they had been inspected by officers appointed for that purpose. But this also failed; the immigrant vessels pretended to depart, but when nightfall came, tacked to another part of the island, where groups of Portuguese had been previously assembled by paid agents

* It is currently reported that the town of Funchal has thrice emptied her gaols to favour British Guiana with the occupants.

in the secret, who all eagerly but secretly rowed off to the ships, and were thus carried away to British Guiana. When this plan was discovered, an attempt was made to capture such immigrant ships, but they generally failed. The task was too arduous for the Portuguese navy, although instances are narrated where vessels have been retaken, and the immigrants brought back to Madeira when within a few days' sail of British Guiana.

It soon, however, became evident that agriculture was not the *forte* of the Portuguese ; they were not altogether suited for it either by physical constitution or mental inclination. The hope of gain had driven the emigrant to these shores ; necessity and the prospect of gain had kept him for the earlier periods of his sojourn here in the cane-field, but in time his continued industry and thrifty husbandry found him in the possession of a large sum of ready money. Those who had contrived to amass such money were not long in discovering the means of investing their gains to advantage. From the earliest period of the colony it had been the custom of the inhabitants to have their wants supplied by the merchants, who, besides being engaged in shipping and a general mercantile business, kept large stores (as they are here called), where almost every article for the household and table use could be procured. From a cargo of lumber to a paper of pins, almost every necessary article was to be sold at one or other of such stores. Some dealt chiefly in dry goods and hardware, others in provisions, wines, &c. But in after times medicines and groceries were disposed of in druggist establishments, called "doctors' shops," whose retail trade consisted chiefly in the vending of drugs, spices, paints, groceries, and other similar articles. In times of slavery it was found convenient to purchase wholesale or in large quantities the articles necessary for the estate and negroes. The few

private families who resided in town were also compelled to purchase goods at a high price, and in larger quantities than were often convenient. It is true that money was then plentiful, and this inconvenience but slightly felt. Since the emancipation, however, and the striking asunder of the great distinctions which formerly existed between the master and his dependents, a middle class was rapidly rising into notice. Money became less easily procured, and parties more careful and attentive to the manner of housekeeping. It was soon found that the old mode of purchasing articles was inconvenient and expensive. Those with small means and limited incomes felt it ruinous to buy goods at the larger stores, where scarcely anything could be procured for less than the silver coin, called here a bitt (value 4d.) The want of a smaller coin, copper or otherwise, added to the difficulty, and had no doubt contributed to the extravagance with which money was got rid of by the West Indian, both here and abroad, until the sad change in their prospect demanded a more careful economy. The want of small shops for retailing the necessaries of life, such as bread, butter, sugar, candles, soap, &c., was urgently felt, but yet it had never entered into the thoughts of the creoles to adopt such a desirable and useful retail business. The Portuguese, however, at a glance, saw how money was to be made by such apparently insignificant means, and accordingly opened a number of petty shops, where the smallest possible quantities of perishable articles of food, &c., could be procured by the town's people with but trifling inconvenience. Water-street was to be no longer the only refuge of distressed housekeepers and poor people. The most public places, the most crowded districts, the corners of streets were soon tenanted by the sharp-sighted and trafficking Portuguese, who, behind their small and dirty counters, began to amass large sums

of money by the sale, in small quantities, of salted provisions, rice, flour, potatoes, fish, beer; in fine, everything needed by the individual who "kept house." The want of a smaller coin prevented them from doing more than they did, but even as it was the poor could procure two or three different articles for a bitt, while those articles which before had been always sold in bulk, such as flour, beer, rice, &c., could now be procured in small quantities. This was but a prelude to the display of their commercial spirit and enterprise. The success attending their town speculations led them to adopt the same system in the country, where the poorer classes had experienced still greater difficulty than those in town of procuring the articles necessary to their comfort. Shops sprung up like magic in all parts of the country; the most distant estates, the most remote districts, were visited by the untiring Portuguese,* who set themselves down with as much confidence in their new pursuits as if they had been all their lives engaged in such a traffic. A few houses, a neighbouring estate, were inducements enough for the owner of a shop to settle and make sure of a remunerating profit. It is true that such profits were small, but as they sold their goods rapidly, and their expenditure was not great, they, most of them, contrived to realise large sums. The gross income of such shops was from 20*l.* to 30*l.* per week; of course in time the great competition among them diminished the success of such speculations, but to this day the system is pursued with untiring energy and tolerable remuneration. Not content with purchasing goods from the merchants' stores, and stocking such shops; liquor stores, &c., many afterwards imported goods on their own account, and rented houses in Water-

* A Portuguese has actually established a retail shop in a corial moored in the centre of the river Demerara, at the foot of the Great Fall, about 100 miles from Georgetown.

street, where they either retailed to their countrymen or competed with the British merchants. Again, many became hucksters, and carried on their shoulders the most marketable goods, such as linens, handkerchiefs, osnaburgs, shoes, &c., to the different estates and free villages which were now springing up throughout the colony. They did not wait for the negroes to come to them, but fairly went to the negroes, and with all the temptations of a huckster's pack, drew forth the silver accumulated in many a miserable-looking hut. The money thus acquired was not spent in idle finery or unprofitable dissipation, but enabled them either to extend their business or to return to Madeira. Many, by such and similar means, became affluent and independent in the course of a few years.

Such is a sketch of the origin, progress, and result of Portuguese immigration. With all its impediments and accidents it has proved of essential service to the colony; it has opened up new resources of enterprise and commercial advantage, it has introduced an active and industrious race, who will not readily yield up the hold they have already taken upon society, but who, if I am not mistaken, will exercise in future years an important influence in the land to which they have emigrated, and in which they have now become acclimatised and naturalised. Upon many estates in the colony gangs of Portuguese labourers are peacefully and industriously employed. The demand for them is evidently on the increase. Greater care and attention are bestowed on them by the proprietors, and to their presence and industry the successful working of many fine estates is greatly to be attributed.

Their example and conduct have not been unproductive of good to the creole negro, in whom have been excited feelings of emulation and rivalry. It was a new

thing for the newly emancipated slave to find placed on the same level with himself a stranger from an European and civilised country—to witness the white man competing with him in the labour of the cane-field, and to see him subject to the same necessity of manual labour and drudgery. It was a new era in his life to test his powers of intelligence and endurance with the European labourer; but still no marked feelings of distrust or jealousy were awakened in the good-natured bosom of the negro. He had marked the introduction of the stranger with an indifference bordering on apathy. His self-interest had not materially suffered by the competition; his position in society had not been injured by the contact. His own path to independence and comparative affluence was too clear to occasion him any fear. Naturally good-natured and sensible of justice, the creole negro seemed devoid of the lively, excitable temperament of the inhabitant of most warm climates, and, although violent when roused, was (and is) generally stoical and passive in his philosophy. He would laugh at his new rival, and was sometimes shamed by his superior activity and intelligence, but rarely opposed him with any serious intent to do him mischief. Secure in his own self-conceit, the negro affects to despise the mercenary and hard-working Portuguese; he taunts him with the appellation of “white nigger,” and pretends to be his superior in education and good breeding; indeed, it is not an uncommon thing to hear the Portuguese address the negroes as Sir, Maam, and the terms of black lady, black gentleman, are commonly made use of by them.

We come now to review shortly the history of coolie immigration. The efforts of the planter to procure labour were directed in this instance towards the east. It had been long known to many of them that there was a tract of country in India to the north-west of Calcutta,

between the 23rd and 25th deg. of north latitude, inhabited by a race of hardy agriculturists called "hill coolies," Dhangons or Boonahs. These "culi," as they are termed by Dr. Prichard, "are found in the hill countries of Guzerat," and, accustomed to agricultural pursuits, had not sufficient scope for their exertions, and it was supposed that they would willingly travel to the richer and more prosperous shores of Guiana. About the year 1838 the experiment had been made of importing a ship-load of them from Calcutta, who, to the number of about 400, soon found employment on the estate of a rich proprietor. They appeared to answer very well, and, in consequence of the success of the undertaking, it became a subject for future consideration how to introduce these people in greater numbers into the colony. When, therefore, the several "immigration ordinances" allowed of such an attempt as a public measure, agents were appointed in India to provide the necessary supply of coolies, and ships were engaged to bring them from the far-distant peninsula of India to the fertile lands of British Guiana. The bounty payable on each adult coolie was 60 dollars per head, or about 12*l.*, which, in the event of a vessel bringing 300 or 400 along with a cargo of rice and other East India products, made it a very profitable speculation for shipowners. But, unfortunately, the error was again committed of shipping an improper class of persons. The agents, glad to execute their business as summarily as possible, did not take the trouble of securing the services of really effective labourers, but, indifferent to the interests of all but themselves, collected the first people that presented themselves. Many were not "hill coolies" at all; men and women, the offscourings of the streets of Calcutta and Madras, the indigent, the idle—in fact, the very dregs of the community, were huddled together and forwarded to British Guiana as hardy labourers. Whole families

of paupers, sickly and emaciated, were glad enough to be carried out of India, with the prospect of being supported elsewhere. The old and helpless, infants and greybeards, were sent to till the soil of the rich country that could afford thus to squander away its money. A majority of them were never accustomed to field labour, but, hanging about the town, had eked out a miserable existence as grass-cutters, cattle-minders, grooms, smiths, pedlars, and petty artisans; many were hereditary beggars, and several ex-Sepoy: what could be expected from such an assortment of ill-chosen people? Of about 9000 or 10,000 who formerly arrived here, scarcely a tenth part was of the right class of persons. The better hands were from Calcutta, and between these and the people from Madras a kind of rivalry existed, the former looking down with contempt upon the others. The individuals thus added to the social family of British Guiana are a true type of the Malay race, one of the five principal divisions into which the human race has been classed by the scientific Blumenbach. Brown in colour, with regular features and long black hair, the coolie forms a remarkable contrast with the original inhabitants of these shores, although, as I have before remarked, many persons have traced a likeness between the "Buck" or South American Indian, and the natives of the east. The "coolie," for so we must still call him, is of a darker hue, taller, and more elegantly formed, with long and rather thin limbs, capable of much activity and grace, but not of strength. His hair is glossy and curling, not straight, as with the Bucks. In certain castes, the Mahomedan, it is shorn, with the exception of a long tuft at the crown, by which they hope to be pulled up into heaven at a future day. The head of the coolie is small and oval, not large and square, as that of the "Buck;" in the one it is well shaped, in the other clumsy. The coolies use a variety of languages; each tribe has its own

separate dialect, but they are all, I believe, reducible to one common root, the Hindostanee or Sanscrit. Their religion also varies; most of them are "Pagans," and at first were very superstitious in some of their rites, refusing to touch particular kinds of meat, and indeed meat at all, unless they had previously killed the animals themselves.

There is a great difference, however, between the coolies from Calcutta and Madras, which merits a passing notice. The Indian from the neighbourhood of Calcutta is in general of loftier stature, and of more elegant shape. The finely-shaped head, square shoulder, and beautifully-rounded limbs, especially of the women, are sometimes very striking. The features of many are singularly beautiful, and almost classical in outline. Some of the women are, indeed, strikingly pretty. Their clear brown complexions, bright eyes, long glossy black hair, and exquisitely-formed mouths, render them almost a study for an artist. Their figures are round, well formed, and graceful; and the picturesque costumes, both of the men and women, contrast very favourably with the untidiness of the negro, and the gaudy finery or dirty garment of the Portuguese. The men wear turbans of white cloth, or skull-caps of gaily-coloured materials, loose jackets, and flowing trousers of white or parti-coloured muslin or calico; at other times, long loose robes of white or striped raiment, which they have the art of disposing to the greatest advantage round their slender and elegant figures. Others are contented with folds of cloth girding the loins, displaying their well-proportioned limbs to great advantage; but when occupied in the labours of the field a very scanty wardrobe suffices. The women wear no head-dress; the dark glossy hair, well oiled and cleaned, is gathered in bands or folds around the head, but is never curled; it is retained by pins and fastenings of gold, silver, or other metal. The

ears and nose are perforated and loaded with rings of gold or silver, and armlets, bracelets, and rings on the fingers and toes are considered the height of fashion by the more favoured coolie belles. Many of the women and children have their earnings (dollars and other silver coins) melted and fabricated into huge bracelets, which in rows encircle their wrists and ankles, attesting their own or others' industry and love of finery. The bust and waist are fitted with tight vestments of muslin or other linen, while full and flowing petticoats of scarlet or other bright colour fall in graceful folds down to the ankles. Some prefer long scarfs, which are twisted gracefully around the bust and body, displaying more of the person than is considered becoming among more civilised nations. The more indigent, and the Madras females particularly, are satisfied with discoloured and dirty rags, which are somehow or other disposed mysteriously around their uncleanly persons, and barely preserve them from the charge of indecency. In their actions and conduct, the Calcutta coolies are more dignified and graceful, and appear to have mixed upon more independent terms with the rest of mankind than the more abject native of Madras.

In general, the coolies from Calcutta are preferred for field labourers, and on most estates where they have been located they have given satisfaction. Indeed, many planters speak very decidedly on this subject, and contend that there is the greatest difference between the two classes of people; and whilst they would hesitate in asking for, or receiving the services of, the Madras coolie, would most gladly avail themselves of every opportunity of forming their estates' gangs with the more willing and valuable labourers from Calcutta.

The following extract from a report of Sheriff Whinfield to Governor Light, written 29th of March, 1840, applies chiefly to the Madras coolie :

“I desire to avail myself of the present opportunity to set right the general misconceived opinion that these East India labourers are hill coolies. It is quite a mistake, for there is not a hill coolie in British Guiana; these people are chiefly from the following places:—Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Dacca, Delhi, Ingormauth, Lucknow, Naypoor, Patua. No person acquainted with their actual state in India could be otherwise than gratified to witness their altered and much ameliorated condition in this country.” He also considered them as the parias of several large towns; outcasts in relation to their native country, and as here in a state of comparative dignity.

Indolent, dirty, and vagrant in their habits, the Madras coolies were inapt at the work for which they were intended, irregular in their attendance, and migratory in their ways; numbers abandoned the estates to which they were appointed to crowd about the town begging, and filling the most menial situations for a bare pittance. In any other country than this they must have perished in hundreds; but in this fine land, where nature provides sustenance even for the most lazy, they managed to subsist in many a strange manner. Some of them, not very particular as to their food, began to rival animals in their habits, and became the scavengers of society. Clothed scantily in the filthiest rags, their bodies rendered often disgusting by diseases of the skin arising from want of cleanliness, they prowled about the streets and country, picking up for food the putrid bodies of dead animals, such as goats, pigs, fowls, &c., and gathering from the dirtiest trenches a meal of the dead fish which in the dry season are cast up on the surface of the half-dried puddles. Such offal as was cast away by others as unfit to eat was greedily picked up by them, and carried home in triumph. And where was their home? The dried leaves of the palm-trees formed their bed, their covering was the shade of

some old building or umbrageous tree; their kitchen was the ground, in which they scooped a hole and made a fire of dried sticks or turf; their furniture and sole property a few pots of brass, which served them alike for basin, cup, dish, plate, and pantry. They ate in common; a large mass of whatever their food consisted was worked up into a kind of pulpy mess, around which they sat, and each of the company in turn thrust in his fingers in the form of a cone, with which they seized a large lump and duly conveyed it to the mouth; they were fond of tobacco, and made an ingenious kind of wooden pipe, which could allow of the smoke passing through water if desired.

The coolies in general are gregarious in their habits; a number of them fed and lived together, the proportion of women being small. The females had rarely large families. They recognised as their leaders some few persons whom they called "sirdars," and the influence which these had over them was incredible. The sirdar chose their place of residence, and at his will removed them to another. He received the money they earned, and arranged the rate of wages, expenses, &c. He compelled them to obey him by hard words, and often by blows. In many instances they were sadly cheated and deceived by these "sirdars," who led them in droves like cattle over the country, and thus assisted, if it did not originate, their unsteadiness of work and conduct. Hence has arisen the dissatisfaction and disappointment sometimes expressed towards them as a class of immigrants, and although in many places they have worked well, and by their numbers have not failed to be of service, yet on the whole the scheme of coolie immigration cannot be considered to have succeeded so well as had been anticipated. A similar conclusion has obtained in other countries where they have been tried as labourers. In Jamaica, the local government has, I believe, discon-

tinued their introduction at public cost. In Trinidad the experiment has not succeeded, and serious contemplation is entertained of not giving it any further trial. During the years 1846 and 1847 as many as 7000 or 8000 have been introduced into this colony, and, apart from the expense, what has been the result? Owing to them and the Portuguese, pauperism has been introduced into a land where, before their arrival, it was unknown, establishing, moreover, a bad precedent for future races, and setting a miserable example to the lazy and worthless. As regarded the coolies, they have likewise suffered from disease, consequent on the change of the climate. Eruptive disorders of the skin, ophthalmia, and dreadful ulcers, have resulted from their want of cleanliness; they have become, along with the Portuguese, almost the only occupants of the public and private hospitals. But the more careful and intelligent among them have had every reason to be satisfied with the advantages of their new position. They were brought here at public expense, they had wages given to them for their work, which in few or no other country could have been obtained, and at the end of five years' residence here they had the promise guaranteed to them of being sent back to their own country *free of expense*. Many have already availed themselves of this promise; no doubt the remainder will if it be fulfilled. They have gone back to distant India with large sums of money, the earnings of a few years; they have traversed two oceans to find work, and have returned with the profits to astonish their countrymen with the almost incredible tale.

Several of the coolies who have retired from these shores carried away from 150 to 200 dollars each (30*l.* to 40*l.*)—a large sum, considering the short time they had been working in British Guiana.

In 1843, 169 coolies, exclusive of 10 women and 14

children, embarked in the *Louisa Baillie* for Calcutta, and entrusted their money, which amounted to 17,802 dollars, or about 3700*l.*, to Captain Rimington.

In the year 1838 about 400 coolies arrived from Calcutta; of these 236 returned to India in 1843, with about 50*l.* sterling each, about 7 absconded, about 98 died, and the remainder preferred to remain here.

Many have declared it to be their intention to return, bringing with them their families and friends; but it is very questionable whether the legislature of British Guiana can continue long to hold out such flattering terms as to bring a pauper from east to west, a distance of 8000 miles, and to offer him such work and wages as will enable him to return at the end of a few years in comparative affluence, and at the expense of the burdened colony.

Such have been some of the principal events in the history of immigration, and, reflecting upon the circumstance, we cannot but be struck with the energy and determination displayed by the planters to accomplish their purpose, and at the reckless and improvident manner in which it has occasionally been carried on. Never was a colony in greater danger than this for the first few years after the emancipation—never was a remedy more wisely conceived than that of immigration, to revive the drooping energies of the land. The planter may have been taunted by the lower classes that the system was established to support himself at their expense, and many have objected to the public money being appropriated to such a purpose; but it was wrong to infer that the planter alone was to benefit by immigration. The merchant, the professional man, the tradesman, aye even the labourer, would in the end derive advantage from an increase to the population. Let the cultivation of the estates once cease, and which among these classes would not have suffered by the occurrence? What other than

a vital necessity could have prompted to such expensive measures in regard to the introduction of immigrants? What other than impending destruction could have suggested what appeared so ready an escape? The creole labourer had been offered employment—he accepted it casually and upon his own terms, performing it irregularly; was it strange that the planter should anxiously turn elsewhere for labourers? None understood this better than the shrewd and intelligent negro. Of what use to him would have been his emancipation and civilisation if it consigned him to a nomade and vagrant life; if the channels of industry, commerce, and education thrown open to him were to be again unavoidably closed; if, with the withdrawal of capital, and the extinction of agricultural and commercial employment, the European race had been compelled to leave these shores, the genius of British enterprise retiring disheartened from an anticipated field of active employment? But immigration offered to fulfil every want; its promises were flattering, but its performances have been at times dubious. The majority of schemes of emigration have commenced in disappointment. Let those who doubt this turn to the early history of immigration in different parts of the world. The Canadas, New South Wales, Algiers, Western Africa, the Cape, &c. Certainly, Guiana has formed no exception to this rule; and why is this? Not because the principle of emigration is not sound and advantageous to all parties when properly conducted, but because exaggerated and often false descriptions on the one hand, and greedy cupidity and worthlessness of character on the other, have rendered abortive many a plausible system of emigration. In our own case, when the inhabitants of other countries had their attention directed to British Guiana as a promising land to emigrate to, whom principally did it interest? Certainly not those

who were well off in their own. The circulated descriptions of its wealth, its resources, and its advantages, were not altogether false, or grounded upon inaccurate data, but such reports dazzled chiefly the idle, the vagrant, the men of least character and usefulness in their own country. We have seen how such composed the mass of our imported labourers. No foresight in choosing them was adopted, no precautions taken in the proper use of them. Errors of all kinds crept into the system. The bounties offered gave rise to knavery and deceit; people actually in the colony have been again re-shipped, and the bounty twice received for the same individuals. Persons in business, and of respectable connexions, have arrived here and been paid for as immigrant labourers. Idiots and cripples have been included among those for whom bounties were payable, and dwarfs and deformed persons brought over on speculation to be exhibited. In one instance a miserable object, deformed with "rickets," was brought here in a basket three feet long and carried about as a sight, until the governor very wisely ordered her removal. The mortality among the Portuguese and coolies has excited the sympathy and sorrow of all classes, and the climate is charged with the whole and sole cause; but other and more important agents were accessories, which will be fully explained in the proper place. The immigration from Africa was, after all, the one most likely to prove of lasting service; but, to become so, it must be conducted in a very different manner to what it has hitherto been, or upon principles more sound and substantial than either that from India or Madeira. The majority of Africans who have arrived here have been emaciated and half-starved individuals, and more fit for the hospital than the field.

The current of immigration directed towards these shores has had obstacles and difficulties of all kinds to

contend against. It has been checked, subdued, and perverted; it has dribbled along at times, and at others been enlarged into a great stream. All young colonies require immigration; it is essential to their growth and to their strength. Let not the subject be abandoned because of its disasters; let not the system be abolished because of its abuses. It is calculated to be of paramount importance to a colony situated like this; it bears in it the germ of future greatness. Who can prognosticate the influx of such a tide? Its ebb and flow have already been marked with singular results. It has borne the name of Guiana to many and distant lands; it has excited interest and attention in many a humble and unknown hearth; it has instituted inquiry and knowledge. The idea has enlarged itself into a great principle, which has extended itself to many shores, and exercised its influence in many a heart. It has sustained, however imperfectly, the flagging energies of this declining country; it has maintained in its integrity the cultivation of estates; it has propped up a sinking planter, and supplied the vacant place of the retiring creole labourer. Without past immigration, imperfect as it was,* this colony could never have maintained its existence as a country capable of exporting sugar to a large extent; without future immigration there is little hope that it will ever become what it has been so often termed—a “magnificent province.”†

Since the foregoing was written, a number of Chinese labourers have been added to the motley group of people in the fields of British Guiana. Preparations had long been made for their reception; an active and intelligent

* “After all that has been said of the levity of human nature, a man is, of all sorts of luggage, the most difficult to be transported.”—*Adam Smith*.

† See Appendix for tables illustrative of immigration into British Guiana, from 1835 to 1852.

agent (Mr. White, formerly an opulent planter of this colony,) was appointed in India to superintend the transporting of these and other Indian immigrants.

From the 1st of January to the 30th of June, 1853, 647 Chinese men and boys, but no women, have arrived here, and have been located on several estates. It is as yet too early to speak of their value as agricultural labourers. They appear a sturdy, lively, merry-hearted race, but are low in the scale of moral advancement. They are an ignorant, degraded, and dirty people, but may improve under good example and tuition. Their characters are reported to be fierce, cowardly, and vindictive, by those who have brought them, but as yet they have manifested no symptoms of insolence or insubordination worth speaking of.

They suffered much from illness during the voyage, and the mortality has been great. Many since their arrival have likewise been attacked by eruptive disorders, sores, and fever. Their filthy habits and want of attention have contributed mainly towards this circumstance. It is to be hoped that the future importation of Celestials will comprise a better and more useful class of people than that already received.

The serious evil of stocking the country too rapidly with ignorant and degraded barbarians of all nations, may at some future day be developed to the misfortune of the colony.

CHAPTER XIV.

OBJECTS OF IMMIGRATION—ATTEMPT TO REDUCE WAGES—SUBJECT OF WAGES—NATURE OF FIELD WORK—METAYER, OR METAIRIE SYSTEM—ITS RESULTS—EVENTS OF 1843, 1844, 1845, AND 1846—EXPERIMENTS ON THOROUGH DRAINAGE—EVENTS OF 1847 AND 1848—DISPUTES BETWEEN THE GOVERNOR AND MEMBERS OF THE COMBINED COURT—RETIREMENT OF GOVERNOR LIGHT—WILLIAM WALKER, ESQ., ACTING AS LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR—STOPPAGE OF THE SUPPLIES—ARRIVAL OF GOVERNOR BARKLY—RELATION OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS OF HIS ADMINISTRATION—ITS RESULTS—RETIREMENT OF GOVERNOR BARKLY—ACCESSION TO OFFICE OF LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR WALKER.

THE main objects of the expensive and persevering course of immigration, to which attention has been drawn, were twofold: first, to supply the declining ranks of the working peasantry; and second, to lower gradually the rate of wages consistent with the altered circumstances of the times. Both of these intentions have been partially fulfilled; yet some evil is found mixed with the good; if immigration has not fully realised the results expected of it, there can be no doubt it has been productive of many advantages. The best way to estimate these advantages is to compare, not what immigration has accomplished with what it was expected to accomplish, but the state of the colony under its operation with what a colony would probably have been left to its own unassisted resources. Immigration may not have relieved or strengthened a colony to the extent

anticipated, and even now the prospect of complete success in the future may be considered problematical; but it has enabled the country to struggle through a season of hazard and calamity, it has confronted the most pressing symptoms of alarm, and averted the impending danger. It has perhaps only sustained the machine it was brought to propel, but without it the probability is that the machine would have become incapable of working. It may, indeed, only have allayed the malady it was intended to cure, but without its timely assistance that malady might have ended fatally. It has supported the sinking planter, and inflicted no injury on the industrious peasant. If it has introduced some objectionable elements into society, we should not forget that it has also preserved it from anarchy, perhaps from dissolution.

Anxious to test the supposed power of immigration, and fully alive to the necessity of greater economy in the management of estates, the planters in 1842 made an injudicious attempt to reduce the rate of wages; certain rules and regulations relative to the quality and quantity of work, the employment of time, and the remuneration deemed sufficient, were drawn up by some members of the "Proprietary Body," and the introduction of these rules was attempted to be enforced. The labourer, however, indignantly refused to submit to them, and a "strike" occurred in Demerara and Essequibo, which lasted about six weeks, and ended by the withdrawal of the obnoxious rules and regulations. In this, the first conflict on the subject of wages, the labourer proved victorious; the prestige of victory was long afterwards to remain with him, and the helpless condition of the planter was made known to the triumphant peasant. This single circumstance speaks volumes as to the altered position of the two parties. Eight years had scarcely elapsed since the emancipation, and already was the

labourer independent of his employer. Still more substantial proofs of this will soon be adduced. The complete helplessness of the planter was revealed by this "strike;" the work of the plantation was obliged to be continued, however ruinous in price, or else a sacrifice of property would have been the result—a sad alternative to the late opulent proprietor, but at the same time a salutary lesson, that compelled the introduction of economy and a more careful supervision in every department of the estate.

The subject of wages was one of the most intricate questions that arose out of the emancipation, and being a new element in our history, requires some further notice.

Since its general adoption after 1838, it had always been the ground of contention between employers and employed—the apple of discord thrown among the inhabitants of these colonies by the goddess "Freedom." It was the first real evil to the planters, the earliest appeal from his independence and long-established power. The subject has been argued keenly by the two great clients in this cause, master and servant. Each has advanced arguments satisfactory to himself, but of no efficacy in settling the point in dispute. The labourer is as jealous now of his strength, and as imperative to obtain the maximum remuneration for it, as he was at the commencement of the experiment; and the planter more than ever solicitous to reduce his pay-list. When the last trace of slavery had disappeared, and the labouring population and the proprietor of land were left wholly to themselves, their mutual dependence one on the other soon led them to enter into arrangements; but, as was very natural, the party whose interests were most at stake was the one who had to make the greatest concession; hence, to avoid the most serious consequences to

their property, labourers were employed upon estates at rates and upon a system which only the bygone profits of slave time could support. It seems anomalous to assert that the working classes were more independent of their employers than the latter of them; but the social features of this country differ so widely from those of other communities, that reasoning by analogy is not only useless, but delusive. Many of the negroes had become possessed of small lots of land; others had accumulated a little money; others found a ready livelihood in petty trading, fishing, and handicraft. The younger children and females had retired from the working of the field, so that of the 80,000 creole labourers existing at the time of the emancipation, perhaps not more than one-fourth cared to seek for employment in the field. These very persons, too, were without any imperative compulsion to labour; they had been allowed to occupy free of rent the houses formerly appropriated to them whilst slaves; they were at liberty to catch fish from the trenches; to shoot over the estate; and a day or two of occasional labour supplied them with the necessaries of life. The abrupt withdrawal of so much labour was the greatest shock that the welfare of the colony could have received, and it would require years to rally from its injurious effects.

In engaging the labourer in his new capacity of hired servant, the fault was committed of paying him, not as it is done in other countries, for a fair day's work, but by task-work, or jobbing; it may be argued that to have paid the negro for a day's work, leaving to his own industry and opinion the quantity he might think it necessary to do, would have been to encourage him in his indolent habits. I do not think so. The dilatory and idle could have been refused payment, and by the explanation and counsel of magisterial authority it would

most likely in the end have led to the best results. Instead of fixing a fair payment for a fair day's work all through the plantations, it became the custom, when a job was to be done, such as digging trenches, clearing and weeding fields, or cutting canes, to apply to a headman, who, having a gang at his command, contracted for the work, and, as a matter of course, made it as profitable as possible to the people and himself. These task gangs would wander about the country, and even when one job was commenced would leave it for another that held out more advantages. The bad habit of sauntering from place to place was confirmed; the labourers who composed these task gangs lived at a distance from their work; they dwelt in small villages, or on the outskirts of towns, and, when required by their headman, would assemble and travel to the scene of labour, where, after working for three or four days, they dispersed to their homes, to meet again the next week. A tariff or scale of work had been suggested by the late Sir James Smyth, and was executed by a committee of planters at the commencement of the apprenticeship; and, although not legally binding to either party, was recommended as an approximation for the guidance of the peasant and those appointed to decide in differences which might arise upon the subject. It subsequently became a kind of rude model for future agreements, with this exception, that the time devoted to labour rarely or ever approached, after the abolition of the apprenticeship, to that specified in this scale.*

Description of work.	To be performed in 9 hours.	Ditto in 7½ hours.
Digging canals 12 feet wide and 5 feet deep, and throwing the ground on both sides	... 600 cubic feet	... 500 cubic feet.
Throwing back a 6-foot parapet from the above, and levelling the ground	... 72 feet in length	... 60 feet in length.

* Local Guide.

Description of work.	To be performed in 9 hours. Ditto in 7½ hours.	
Digging new trenches as above, when the ground is all thrown on one side	... 480 cubic feet	... 400 cubic feet.
Throwing back 6-foot parapets from above	... 48 feet in length	... 40 feet in length.
Digging drains 2 × 2, land cleared	... 18 roods	... 15 roods.
Throwing out small drains shovel deep	... 50 "	... 42 "
Holing or banking land 2½ × 2½	... 36 "	... 30 "
Shovel ploughing new holed land one shovel deep, and rounding beds	... 72 "	... 60 "
Hoe ploughing, and planting one row of the above, with two rows of plants on parapets	... 60 "	... 50 "
Weeding, moulding, and supplying plant canes	... 90 "	... 75 "
Weeding and moulding plant, 2nd time.	... 100 "	... 86 "
Weeding and moulding ratoons.	... 120 "	... 100 "
Weeding and trashing canes	... 120 "	... 100 "
Cutting and carrying canes (18 roods)	{ 2 labourers to load a } punt 28 × 7½, and 3 ft. } { deep (600 cubic feet) } 500 cubic feet.	
Cutting and carrying canes for one hogshead of sugar per diem	... 11 labourers	... 13 labourers.
Relieving and trying trash (ratoons)	... 120 roods	... 100 roods.
Supplying only first time	... 120 "	... 100 "
Shovel ploughing cane rows two feet wide.	... 60 "	... 50 "
Drilling two feet wide, one shovel deep	... 36 "	... 30 "

PLANTAIN CULTIVATION.

Weeding and trimming walks	5 labourers to 1 acre	... 6 to 1 acre.
Digging plantain suckers	200 each labourer	... 160 each labourer.
Digging holes 15 inches square	120 "	... 100 "
Planting ditto	150 "	... 125 "
Cutting firewood and cording ditto (20 roods), 128 cubic feet, or 8 × 4; 107 cubic feet, or 8 × 4.		

N.B.—The rood mentioned in the foregoing is nearly equal to 12 feet 4 inches of corded wood.

The tariff for cotton and coffee cultivation is not noticed, because little or no labour was devoted to their production.

By following out steadily such an employment, a labourer could not only acquire means enough to support himself and family comfortably, but a surplus would remain to the prudent with which they might purchase houses, lands, boats, horses, or whatever they pleased, to minister to their comfort or enjoyment.

Let us see what those means were which were thus

acquired. For cutting a punt-load of canes he received a dollar (4s. 2d.); for clearing a field, which consisted in little more than scratching the surface of the soil with a hoe—a species of agriculture which would be laughed at in other countries—he received at the rate of two guilders per 100 roods. For supplying canes (90 or 100 roods) about two guilders.

When engaged about the buildings in the manufacture of sugar, the pay was from two to three guilders per day; so that the least he received for his day's labour was half a dollar. It should not be overlooked, that some of the work to be done was heavy, and that the rate of living in this country was unusually high; but, admitting these facts, let us see what a labourer could then do with his money.

House-rent at that time cost him nothing, fuel nothing, clothing very little, taxes nothing.*

But, independently of their wages, most of the labourers on the estates could add to their means by raising provisions, cutting grass, catching and selling fish.†

In consequence of the altered position of master and servant, a new principle in agriculture (at least to this country) was introduced, and one which, in all probability, will exercise a great influence in succeeding ages. This was the "Metayer" or "Metairie" system; under

* The following table will give a rough sketch of his living:—

Expenses per week.		Earnings per week, average.
Two bunches of plantains	2 guilders or 3s. 4d.	3 to 4 dollars,
Sugar, 2 lbs.	0½ " 0s. 8d.	say
Salt-fish, 2 lbs.	1 " 1s. 8d.	15s. 0d.
Bread	1 " 1s. 8d.	less expenses 9s. 8d.
Coffee or other drink	0½ " 0s. 8d.	
Tobacco and sundries	1 " 1s. 8d.	
	9s. 8d.	5s. 4d.

† Since the above was written, many changes have taken place; a labourer's earnings amounts in ordinary to about two dollars per week, and he has sometimes to pay for house-rent, but the price of plantains, salt-fish, &c., is considerably less than in the above estimate.

which the proprietor, finding it impossible or unprofitable to advance money in the shape of wages to carry on the cultivation, was satisfied with farming a portion, or the whole. The arrangement was generally as follows:—The proprietor divided his estate into lots or small farms, which were allotted to intelligent labourers, with the understanding that they were to keep in good cultivation the land thus taken over by them, and to receive half the value of the sugar or other produce raised. The farmers had under them, or aiding them as partners, a number of labourers who assisted in the work. The land was now to be kept in order for the interest of the labourer, and it was expected that they would in consequence attend to it whilst the proprietor undertook to keep the buildings and machinery in good repair. In the case of a sugar estate, the whole of the rum made was the perquisite of the proprietor, and in case of any difference on the subject of the cultivation, arbitrators were appointed, to whom the matter was referred. Such is a sketch of the *Metairie* system, the indication of a declining planter and a rising peasant, which has received the sanction and approval of the Secretary to the Colonies, and of which at first so much was expected; but after all it is nothing more than the old system of landlord and tenant. With steady, intelligent labourers, and in circumstances where the planter was compelled to seek such a resource, it has undoubtedly its advantages. A property would be thus sustained which might otherwise sink. An impoverished proprietor could thus retain his estate, which otherwise he might have to part with. As regards this colony, in several instances where it has been tried, the results have been pretty much the same. At first it promised well, and answered expectation; latterly many disadvantages have been found out, and, strange to say, the employment of the system seems rather

a "dernier ressort" to both planter and peasant than the adoption of a promising scheme. The reasons for this are various. The planter does not easily relinquish the idea of fortune-making so long associated with estates. He struggles on, and hopes to the last, under the old order of things, whilst circumstances have rapidly altered. Again, it is difficult to meet with labourers willing and speculative enough to enter upon any such agreement; they appear unwilling to believe the advantages which would accrue to themselves, and regard such proposals with distrust and suspicion. They prefer an independent, roving life, with four days' labour in the week, to the anxiety and uncertainty attaching to such novelties. The demand for labour and its remuneration being so great, they naturally preferred to work in task gangs or on choice estates, to being tied down to one particular spot; and it is very questionable whether, as a labourer, he could not and cannot gain more than as a farmer, and he therefore feels unwilling to subject himself to the vicissitudes which he has seen affect the landlord, such as bad seasons, short crops, low prices, &c. Again, the rapid introduction of immigrants has, more or less, interfered with such a scheme, for these latter held out the prospect of maintaining the cultivation under the old system, and, as a class, have evinced little disposition themselves to enter upon any such arrangement, although, in all probability, when the subject is better understood by them, they will gradually do so.

Even to the proprietor its success has been problematical. It is true his land was kept in cultivation, his account for wages removed, his anxieties perhaps lessened, but he still suffered from the experiment. His profits were necessarily small, the work not always done as he wished it; disputes arose about the time and mode of cultivation; there was the unpleasantness to have to

consult with ignorant and suspicious people; and, after a few imperfect and unsuccessful attempts, the Metairie system may be considered to have failed, and to be abandoned for the present.

Early in the year 1843, Lord Stanley wrote to Governor Light, acquainting his excellency that it was the intention of her Majesty's Government to take under their immediate superintendence and control all future emigration from the west coast of Africa to the West Indies. Vessels were soon chartered for this purpose to convey immigrants to Jamaica, Trinidad, and British Guiana, and the *Arabian*, of 391 tons, arrived here shortly after with Africans.

In the course of this year many useful regulations were introduced into the colony. A bill was passed for the registration of births and deaths, in which it was ordered that, if such registration was not performed within forty-eight hours, a penalty would be enforced from 25 to 100 dollars in amount. This bill, however, was not very likely to be strictly attended to, and became afterwards almost a dead letter.

A penal settlement was established up the river Essequibo, for the reception of the convicts within the colony; proposals were subsequently made to the Court of Policy that it should also be used for penal convicts from Jamaica and other places, but the requests, in accordance with the feelings of the public, were refused.

In the course of this year the power of reforming the courts of justice, the orphan chamber, and office of registrar, was granted to the Court of Policy. In an address to the court on the 28th of August, his excellency the governor stated, in reference to these changes, that unlimited authority was given by her Majesty's Order in Council of the 3rd of April, and by the Secretary of State's despatch of the 12th of April, to amend and

reform the present system of civil and criminal jurisprudence.

The orphan chamber was to be abolished, and a new office in its stead was to be instituted, both in Demerara and Berbice.

The registrar's office was to be remodelled; the judicial department was to be separated from that of the notarial and registrial. In reference to these changes, his excellency observed—"In the changes now proposed, we need not have the dread of disturbing a system transmitted from remote antiquity; we are about to deal with partial and temporary alterations, which were begun and carried out without being based upon principle, and were never framed to work harmoniously together, as parts of a connected whole. In altering the constitution of the criminal court, an alteration of the criminal laws would become necessary; and for any change, therefore, we must look to the jurisprudence of England, the result, as it is, of the combined intelligence of ages, and improved and tempered by the humane and enlightened spirit of modern times; I propose, then, to adopt the whole body of the criminal laws." In these proposed important alterations no mixture of Dutch and English criminal law was to be allowed.

In the changes of the civil courts, the objects proposed were curtailment of law expenses and delays, and security to the creditor; the strict and honest fulfilment of trusts was to be required, while protection was provided for the widow, orphans, and minors, as well as to the honest but unfortunate debtor.

The thanks of the court were offered to the governor for this address, and an earnest assurance of co-operation on the part of all the members promised.

The onerous nature of the duties imposed upon the members of the Court of Policy has never been explained,

and may be here usefully pointed out. The most eminent and practical planters and merchants are selected to fill the election seats. Frequently nominated without previous knowledge or consent, these gentlemen are compelled to sit, or suffer a heavy pecuniary penalty. The loss of time and the important functions assigned to them, are attended with great inconvenience to many, whose extensive private business is materially affected by their public duties. It must be admitted, that the zeal and public spirit displayed by such of our colonists has been deserving of much more favourable consideration than they have been in the habit of receiving. They are liable to out-of-door censure, and to frequent attacks in the local newspapers. Their motives are often misunderstood or perverted, and their public acts and remarks excite anger and enmity against them rather than commendation. No one, however, who has lived in the colony can be ignorant of the vast amount of public service gratuitously performed by such honoured characters as Messrs. Croal, P. Rose, James Stuart, T. Porter, A. D. Van der Gon Netscher, J. Jones, A. Macrae, J. Gordon, R. Haynes, and many others whose names stand conspicuously in the annals of British Guiana.

It would be perhaps offensive to these and other parties who have contributed their time and talents to the interest of the colony, to particularise their acts, but in spite of occasional errors their public career has been stamped with celebrity, and deserve a more fitting tribute than the scanty notice of a cursory historian.

The year 1844 was marked by many public acts and schemes of considerable importance, indicating that some progress was being made in the social improvement of the colony.

In the governor's address to the members of the

Combined Court, his excellency adverted to the inconvenience experienced by the fact of the sanction of the court as regards the outlay of the public money terminating with the close of the past year. He had no apprehension that the revenue which would continue to accrue to the public treasury until the 30th of June next, would not prove sufficient for the ordinary expenditure, but proclaimed that his reason for desiring an earlier attendance of the court was, that its members might exercise practical control over the annual expenses dating from the commencement rather than the middle of the year; and having submitted the estimate to the consideration of the court, he congratulated them on the present satisfactory state of the finances, and also on the prospects of a good crop for the current year, closing his speech with certain proposed measures for the advancement of the interests of the colony.

In the answer of the members of the Combined Court to the speech of his excellency, they agreed with him as to the propriety of the reasons urged on assembling the court earlier than usual, but submitted that as one of the seats of the colonial section of the Court of Policy was vacant, it would perhaps be better for the interests of the colony that they should defer discussing the estimate until such vacancy be filled up, and until they had examined the public accounts of the revenue and expenditure of the year ending on the 31st of December last.

Several old offices were also abolished—as, for instance, the vendue-office; and the system of selling by auction was thrown open to competition under certain regulations. This was in conformity with the wishes of the inhabitants, for early in the year a petition of merchants and others remonstrated against the continuance of the former monopoly, and an ordinance was published the

next year making provisions for the appointment of auctioneers. The boards of orphans and unadministered estates being also abolished, indemnification, in the shape of pensions, was granted to the recorders of such offices, and the new office of administrator-general was instituted.

But besides these and other important changes, several useful societies were instituted and organised during this year—namely, an Agricultural and Commercial Society in March; the Astronomical and Meteorological Society in May; and the Natural History Society of Demerara in July.

The proposal to establish a grammar school was approved of by the Home Government; and it was suggested that the unclaimed balance of the Slave Compensation Fund should be appropriated to that purpose. This useful establishment was subsequently instituted, and has proved of considerable advantage to the younger classes of this community, whose parents find it inconvenient or too expensive to send them to Europe.*

* Several ordinances of great public importance were published during this year 1844; and a glance at a few of them may be useful in this place.

One declaratory of the law of this country concerning bills of exchange and promissory notes payable in this colony. Up to the year 1837 the law of Holland practised here did not hold endorsers of such notes responsible for their payment, but by the new regulation the same practice was to be followed here as obtained in England, and in the next year an ordinance appeared to assimilate the practice here to that of England.

Another ordinance was passed to provide for the remuneration of witnesses for attendance on trials before the supreme criminal courts of British Guiana.

Another ordinance extended certain provisions of a former ordinance, intitled "An Ordinance to regulate and encourage Immigration to Emigrants from parts or places in Asia, and to repeal the 11th and 16th sections of said ordinances." The introduction of Chinese labourers was also provided for by an ordinance published early in this year, and also regulations prescribed for their contracts. The bounty was to be for every adult thus introduced 65 dollars, and for children under 14 years old 32 dollars 50 cents; but it was long ere Celestials condescended to visit our shores. A bill was also passed to raise half a million of money for the general encouragement of immigration.

Another ordinance was published to establish administrators-general in the colony of British Guiana, the object of which was to provide offices for the looking after the estates of insolvent persons, as well as of those who died intestate;

Early in the year 1845, the governor having fixed a meeting of the Combined Court for the 9th January, in his address to the members adverted to the fact that the ordinance passed by the court last year on the subject of the "Immigration Loan" would not receive the royal sanction unless modified, and proposed that its reconsideration should take place at a meeting "dedicated exclusively to that specific object." There had been no objection made to the principle of the loan of 500,000*l.*; but certain details, which had also been ably pointed out by the late acting attorney-general, Mr. Arrindell, had been objected to by the Secretary of State.

In the reply of the members of the Financial Representatives, on the 11th, they expressed their regret at the disallowal of the Loan ordinance, and assured his excellency that they would proceed in the discharge of their duties in this important matter with every disposition to meet the views of her Majesty's Government, consistent with the maintenance of their

thus conducting, in an improved manner, the functions of the old Orphan Chamber, which was now abolished.

An ordinance to abolish writs of "Cessio Bonorum," to declare who shall be considered insolvent debtors, to provide relief for the same, and to ensure an equal distribution of the estates of such insolvents.

Ordinance to regulate the offices of the colonial registrars of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and to make provision for registering or recording therein certain deeds, acts, and instruments.

Ordinance to consolidate the supreme courts of civil justice, and to provide a new manner of proceeding to be observed in the said courts.

Ordinance to introduce into the colony of British Guiana trial by jury in certain cases.

Ordinance to simplify proceedings in the arrest of debtors leaving the colony.

Ordinance to regulate and establish tariffs or tables of fees and other charges in, and connected with, the supreme courts of criminal and civil justice in British Guiana, and for the remuneration and travelling expenses of witnesses and jurors in civil cases.

Another ordinance for requiring annual returns to be made and sent in for purposes of colonial taxation was likewise enacted.

In closing the session of the court, his excellency adverted with satisfaction to the numerous important acts of legislation passed, and complimented the members, both official and elective, but especially the acting attorney-general, on their assiduity and successful working out the details of difficult legislation, and considered that the community owed to each and every one obligations of no ordinary kind.

constitutional rights, and the promotion of the prosperity of the colony.

Upon this very subject, however, began a quarrel respecting the power of the Combined Court, which ultimately ended in an open rupture.

Earl Grey, in a despatch to Governor Light, published on the 2nd January of this year, having defined the origin and purpose of the Combined Court, alluded to the result of gradual encroachments permitted by successive governors, and contended that, by the Order in Council of 3rd June, 1842, that during the continuance of the Civil List ordinance of 1841, and no longer, the Combined Court should "possess full power and authority to discuss in detail, freely and without reserve, the several items of the annual estimate of the colonial expenditure, subject always to the terms and conditions of the said Civil List ordinance." In the preamble, however, of the Loan ordinance, Earl Grey conceived that the Combined Court had defined and declared its own powers beyond the authority from which they were derived, and their actual provisional and permissive character. In reference to this despatch, a resolution was carried by the elective members of the Combined Court, "That this court so far acquiesces in the doctrine laid down by the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies, that its powers over a certain portion of the revenue now into the colony chest, but which formerly appertained to the sovereign for the public uses of the Colonial Government, are limited to the period embraced by the Civil List ordinance, and, therefore, an alteration in the structure of the Loan ordinance becomes necessary; but this Court maintains that to levy, fix, and appropriate the taxes levied in this colony, over and above the sources of revenue appertaining formerly to the sovereign's chest, and which may be revived at the

expiration of the Civil List ordinance, is the undoubted privilege of this court, and that in point of fact it has always been exercised by the passing, rejecting, or modifying, after full and free discussion, the respective items on the estimate, and the fixing and raising of the ways and means by an ordinance of this court."

The usual meeting of the Combined Court having been summoned for February 13th, his excellency, in his address to the members, congratulated them on propitious seasons, and their exemption from those evils which had visited their neighbours, for which a feeling of gratitude was due to the Almighty. He also alluded to the introduction of an agricultural chemist, and anticipated great advantage to planters through his advice, and the adoption of scientific agriculture. The finances of the colony were declared to be flourishing, and his excellency adverted with satisfaction to the royal assent having been given to the measures of law reform, and stated that on the 16th instant all the new ordinances on that subject would have the full force and effect of law. The governor then handed over the estimates to the members, who declined, however, to proceed to business until a vacancy occurring in the financial body had been filled up; which act having taken place, the usual reply was sent in to the address, in which the governor was thanked for his speech, and his views regarding the finances and agricultural condition agreed to, as well as the advantage likely to result from the law reforms so admirably enacted by the Court of Policy, with the able conduct of Mr. Arrindell especially. But, at the same time, the members contended that there was an unhealthy condition of the labour market, which could only be benefited by immigration; and trusted that such protective and liberal policy would be pursued towards them by the Imperial Parliament, as would enable them to

compete successfully with slave sugar-producing countries.

A prospectus was issued this year of a Demerara East Coast Railway, to run between Georgetown and Mahaica, a distance of about twenty miles. The capital proposed was 100,000*l.*, or 480,000 dollars, in 10,000 shares of 10*l.*, or 48 dollars each; further notice of which will be taken in the account of this useful undertaking.*

The year 1846, if in no other way remarkable in the history of the colony, was at least so from the alteration in the sugar duties, which the British Parliament, after the memorable discussions respecting free-trade, proposed to carry into effect. It would be out of place here to enter upon a formal notice of the wisdom or expedience involved in the great question of free-trade. That immense experiment of national policy which, in spite of all the dangers that threatened, and the dissatisfaction that would ensue, is likely to prove practically successful, or at least to remain until a better offers itself—the permanent policy of ministers—even of those who formerly assisted to prevent its realisation.

Among the numerous and valuable articles the importation of which was subjected to a considerable reduc-

* The following ordinances were published during the year 1845:

Ordinance to apply the surplus customs duties in aid of the general revenues of British Guiana during the existence of the present, or any future civil list.

Ordinance for establishing receptacles for lepers, and providing for their care, maintenance, and support.

Ordinance to admit the unsworn testimony in certain cases of Africans, coolies, and Chinese.

Ordinance to provide for the payment of the interest for the redemption of a loan of 500,000*l.*, to be raised for immigration purposes.

Ordinance for appraisement of houses and lots of land in the city of Georgetown. Ordinance to revive and continue for seven years, from and after 31st of December, 1847, on which day it will expire, an ordinance, entitled "An Ordinance for granting to her Majesty the Queen a fixed Revenue for the support of the Civil List Government of British Guiana for a period of seven years."

Ordinances to confer on certain justices of the peace in the rural districts of British Guiana the powers at present exercised by the police magistrate of Georgetown, under ordinance No. 2, 1839.

Ordinance for amending the law of evidence in civil cases in the colony of British Guiana.

tion in duty, that of sugar alone merits notice in this place. Up to the month of March, 1845, the duty upon colonial Muscovado sugar was 1*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.* per cwt., and of foreign free-grown sugar was 3*l.* 3*s.*; while sugar, the produce of slave countries, was altogether excluded. The sugar bill of 1845 reduced the duty upon colonial sugar to 14*s.* per cwt., and 24*s.* for foreign; but on the 20th of July, 1846, the following table of duties was proposed, and up to the present time has been acted up to:

Date.	Colonial Sugar.	Foreign Sugar.
1846 to 1847	14 <i>s.</i>	21 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
1847 to 1848	14 <i>s.</i>	20 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
1848 to 1849	13 <i>s.</i>	18 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
1849 to 1850	12 <i>s.</i>	17 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
1850 to 1851	11 <i>s.</i>	15 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>
1851 to 1852	10 <i>s.</i>	14 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
1852 to 1853	10 <i>s.</i>	13 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i>
1853 to 1854	10 <i>s.</i>	12 <i>s.</i> 0 <i>d.</i> *

At the usual meeting of the Combined Court, which took place this year on the 16th of March, the following remarks were made by his excellency in his address to the members of the court:—He adverted in the first place to a small increase in the sugar crop of this year compared with the last, and to the accession to the labouring population by the arrival of 3647 immigrants. That, nevertheless, there was a decrease in the number of arrests of 15 per cent. in comparison with the year 1844. The estimated population of the whole colony probably was about 120,000 persons. His excellency further stated, that the number of prisoners at the new penal settlement was 109 at the close of the last year; of this number 49 were convicted by the Superior Criminal Court; whilst 52 out of the whole number of prisoners were not natives of the colony. His excellency alluded to the approbation manifested by her Majesty's Government to the proposal to arm the police force with rifles,

* The present duties are—On colonial brown, 11*s.*; yellow, 12*s.*; equal to white clayed, 14*s.*; and equal to refined, 17*s.* 4*d.*; foreign brown, 11*s.*; yellow, 12*s.*; equal to white clayed, 14*s.*; and refined, 16*s.*

and also to establish throughout the colony a volunteer rifle corps. He also congratulated the colony on the arrival here of two scientific gentlemen, who proposed remaining in the colony some time. The one was an agricultural chemist, Dr. Shier, a gentleman of some considerable reputation in Great Britain. The other was an engineer, Mr. Catherwood, who had attained some eminence as a scientific traveller, and who came out to superintend the progress of the Demerara Railway Company. The balance in the chest to the 31st of December, 1845, was 262,025.95 dollars.

In answer to the speech of his excellency, the elective members of the Combined Court made the following remarks in an address dated 6th April:—That in their opinion there appeared to be a necessity for an increase and continuance of European troops, rather than for the re-establishment of a militia or volunteer force. They also differed from his excellency in making the balance in the public chest 2,521.45 dollars more than the sum stated.

There was nothing of importance which occurred during the early part of the year to merit any particular notice. The gloom occasioned in the colony by the introduction of the new sugar duties, and the fact of the sugar crops for the present year threatening to be deficient, owing to an unusual and protracted drought, induced serious considerations among the planters to strike a decisive blow at the present rate of wages, which they considered beyond their means to continue. Attempts were made to reduce them throughout the colony with more or less success; but in the island of Leguan there was a disposition shown by the peasantry on several estates to resist the imposition of the new rate. On the 17th September many of the labourers refused to work, and, collecting in noisy and angry groups, excited some suspicions as to their intentions.

The local magistrates, with several proprietors and managers, fearing a riot, applied to his excellency for assistance. A body of police and troops were immediately despatched to the disaffected spot, but had no occasion to proceed to active measures. A few of the ringleaders were placed in custody, and tried, but a lenient sentence was passed upon them. The active and intelligent Government secretary, Mr. Young, who had gone down to the island to inquire into the business, described it in a despatch, forwarded to the governor, as merely a brawl among civilians.

A little later in the year, Mr. Young retired from the colony, after a residence here of about ten years. This gentleman, whose father, Colonel Young, had been appointed protector of slaves in 1825, was possessed of considerable abilities, and by his knowledge of official business, and his conciliatory address, was of important service to the heads of the Government with whom he acted. Respected by the inhabitants as a man of sound sense and practical views, regretted by his colleagues as a skilful and experienced ally, and feared by his opponents as a profound and clever antagonist, Mr. Young left these shores with a high character for talent, address, and skill. On his arrival in England he was knighted for his services to her Majesty's Government, and appointed lieutenant-governor at the Cape of Good Hope; but has since been removed to a government in Australia.

During the course of this year the important experiment of thorough, or subsoil drainage, was tried by the agricultural chemist Dr. Shier, in order to test its applicability and efficacy in the cultivation of the sugar cane in this colony. Towards defraying the necessary expenses, the sum of two thousand dollars was granted by the Combined Court in 1845. A plot of ground on plantation La Penitence, the property of J. H. Albuoy,

Esq., was liberally granted by his representatives in this country to be the field of experiment. The land, about fifteen acres in extent, was accordingly cleared, drained, and cultivated under the immediate superintendence of Dr. Shier, and a committee of gentlemen appointed to watch and report on the result.

Subsoil tiles and a two-horse power steam-engine were imported from Europe, the latter to assist in the removal of the drainage water, in consequence of the want of a natural outfall. The use of the plough was put into requisition, and the canes planted. Nothing could have been more promising than the first results; the canes were large and healthy, and a larger return of sugar was obtained than from a tract of land of the same extent worked on the old or open drain system. But after the first crop, the experiment disappointed the supporters of the new system. The drainage proved inefficient, the tiles became choked up, the canes became weakly, yielded but little saccharine juice, and many of them rotted. After a cost of 5110 dollars, the experiment was considered to have failed, to the disappointment of its scientific superintendent, and the many gentlemen who were deeply interested in the great benefits it promised to the agricultural condition of British Guiana.*

* The following ordinances were published during the year 1846:

Ordinance to alter and amend the jurisdiction of the inferior criminal courts of British Guiana (February).

Ordinance to extend the jurisdiction of the inferior courts of civil justice of British Guiana (February).

Ordinance to repeal ordinance, No. 21, 1844, intituled "An Ordinance to consolidate the Supreme Courts of Civil Justice, &c., and to provide an amended manner of proceeding, &c." (April).

Ordinance to introduce into the colony of British Guiana the laws of England relative to larceny and other offences connected therewith (June).

Ordinance to abolish the office of vendue-master in the county of Berbice, and to extend the provisions of ordinance No. 9, of the year 1844, and of ordinance No. 4, of the year 1845, to the county of Berbice.

Ordinance to incorporate a company to be called the Demerara Railway Company, and to authorise the said company to make and maintain a railway in the

The beginning of the year 1847 was rendered memorable by the new criminal laws coming into operation. It was a novel and pleasing sight for Englishmen here to witness the introduction of trial by jury; the first case in which it was practised, and the excited and crowded appearance of the court of justice, will not readily be forgotten by those who witnessed it.

The seasons were good for the prospect of the sugar crop, but the feelings of the planters were gloomy and unsettled. Commercial embarrassments in England; a decline in the price of sugar; and the principles of free-trade and the sugar bill of 1846 becoming practically applied to the colonies, had the effect to depreciate the value of property generally throughout the colony; but in spite of all these forebodings the crop of this year proved the largest made since the emancipation. Desponding as the planters had become, they were not without energy—and thanks to their untiring efforts, and to the prompt aid supplied by immigration, this desirable result may be in a great measure contributed; they applied themselves with diligence to the economical cultivation of their estates, they sought earnestly for labour wherever it could be procured, and encouraged every attempt made to further immigration. Nor were their efforts confined to the attention of the plantations only. Disheartened at the threatened fatal consequences of the new sugar bill, they took measures to try if possible to avert the impending blow; by a thorough examination of the subject, and by a zealous co-operation on the part of the colonists, they endeavoured to obtain

colony of British Guiana, from the city of Georgetown, the capital of the said colony, to Mahaica, with extensions and branches, and for other purposes.

Ordinance to introduce into the colony of British Guiana trial by jury in criminal cases; amended in 1847.

Ordinance for regulating the rights, duties, and relations of employers and servants in the colony of British Guiana.

justice for themselves. An important meeting was held by the planters, merchants, and others on the 15th of October, at the rooms of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society in Georgetown, the Hon. Peter Rose in the chair, for the purpose of collecting signatures to a petition to the Imperial Parliament, prepared at a preliminary meeting held on the 24th ultimo.

In this petition the grievances under which the colonists laboured were respectfully but earnestly submitted; the serious consequences, if not threatened ruin to their prospects, by the sudden and unexpected change in the colonial policy, were feelingly set forth, and prayed that the following remedial measures should be conceded to them:

1st. A loan to be applied to the carrying out of African immigration, under such regulations for securing the fair and equitable administration of the same, as your Honourable House may deem proper.

2nd. A loan to be applied under proper regulations to the purpose of thorough drainage.

3rd. The admission into the United Kingdom of Muscovado sugar, as a raw material, duty free.

4th. The free admission of molasses into the breweries and distilleries of the United Kingdom.

5th. The equalisation of the duty on rum and British spirits.

6th. The admission of inspissated cane juice into the United Kingdom.

7th. The placing the refining of sugar in the colonies on the same footing as in the British refineries.

The meeting was numerous and respectably attended, and a great many signatures attached to the petition, which was immediately forwarded to the Imperial Parliament.

The fate of this petition was unfortunate; it neverthe-

less drew the attention of the British Government, and that of several influential members of the House of Commons, to the suffering interests of the West Indies.*

The year 1848, the last in which I shall endeavour to chronicle the most remarkable events, proved a stormy and important one in the annals of this country. At its commencement gloom and discontent sat on the faces of all, in its progress confusion and discord prevailed in the Legislative Chambers, and at its close his excellency had retired from the administration of the colony, unhappily, however, leaving the community more or less in a state of anarchy and perplexity.

In the Court of Policy, which had numerous sittings, the elective members declined preparing an estimate for the present year, on the grounds of the uncertain prospects of the colony: "Inasmuch as the state of the colony at present is such, that no estimate that would be passed could be taken as a guide for the expenditure of the country for the financial year 1848-9, and therefore it is expedient to postpone it until it be seen whether the circumstances of the colony become changed for the better before the 15th of May." A proposal was also made in the Court of Policy to reduce all the public

* The following ordinances were enacted in 1847:

Ordinance to provide medical attendance and medicines for immigrant labourers.

Ordinance to provide a new burial-ground for the city of Georgetown.

Ordinance to extend the provisions of ordinance No. 10, of the year 1845, entitled "An Ordinance to provide for the Payment of the Interest, and for the Redemption of a Loan of 500,000*l.*, to be raised for immigration purposes."

Ordinance to repeal the duties of customs imposed on articles imported into this colony, under the Act of Parliament 8 and 9 Vic. c. 93, intituled "An act to regulate the Trade of British possessions abroad."

Ordinance for the regulation of the ferry across the river Demerara, and the steam-boats thereof.

Ordinance to repeal all laws repugnant to, or at variance with, any of the provisions of ordinances Nos. 9, 10, 11, 12, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28, of the year 1846.

Ordinance to establish pounds throughout the colony of British Guiana, and to provide rules and regulations for superintending and keeping the same.

Ordinance to indemnify the governor and colonial receiver-general, and other public officers, for certain proceedings in regard to the depositing of public funds with, and receiving as cash, the notes of the two banks established in this colony.

salaries 25 per cent.—even those included in the civil list; but as this was objected to, on the part of the Government, as against the good faith of the colonists, it was urged by the elective members that the Civil List of 1841, to the 31st December, 1847, but renewed in 1844 for a further period of seven years, or to the end of the year 1854, was only granted under the impression, or rather conviction, that the exclusion of slave-labour sugar from the home markets were a fundamental principle of the policy of the mother country to which the faith of the nation had been irrevocably pledged, and that the civil list which at present exists would never have been granted if a departure from the Imperial commercial policy had been contemplated;

It was therefore resolved:—1st. That her Majesty's Government was therefore prayed that the salaries in the civil list should be reduced 25 per cent. 2nd. That rigid economy be practised in the public expenditure, all salaries above 700 dollars per annum being reduced 25 per cent.

These resolutions were seconded by a petition from merchants and others in favour of the views expressed; but, although forwarded to England, met with no favourable reception at the hands of the Secretary for the Colonies, who refused to entertain the prayer of the memorial; but before the result was known of an application which was made by the colonists to the British Parliament, his excellency had summoned the Combined Court for the 20th April, having previously, on the 10th, induced the court to pass an estimate, each item of which, however, was formally opposed by the elective members, who were anxious to hear the result of their application to the British Parliament respecting the civil list before proceeding with the business of the Combined Court. This step was taken on the part of his excellency in con-

sequence of certain resolutions which had been brought forward in the Court of Policy: viz., to decline framing an estimate and to vote the supplies, unless in accordance with the views of the elective members. At the meeting of the Combined Court, April 20th, the governor, in his address, regretted not being able to congratulate the members on the state of the colony, which, however, he did not attribute to the low price of sugar, but rather to the monetary failures among West India commercial houses. He adverted to the reduced price of work on the estates, and called upon members to fulfil their pledges in respect to the loans of money, and the support of engagements already entered into, closing his remarks with the statement that his further administration depended on the usual course being adopted.

An adjournment of the court to the 25th was asked for, to consider matters and furnish a reply; but members did not assemble again until the 26th April, when, in the reply to the address, the elective members expressed in very forcible and able language their dissent from the views of his excellency respecting a reduced rate of wages being generally in force, and dwelt on the depreciation of property and present prospect of ruin occasioned chiefly by the Sugar Duties Act of 1846. They further called his excellency's attention to the different aspect of the colony now to what it presented in 1838, when a tour of inspection had been made by his excellency on his arrival here. "In Leguan, in 1838, there were twenty-one estates in full cultivation, while at present ten are in a state of abandonment; one estate which at the former period sold for 32,000*l.*, has now altogether ceased to be cultivated." They complained of want of proper legislation in enforcing laws for the protection of property and the regulation of social order. They expressed their astonishment that his excellency

should have quoted the language of a free-trade minister, "That the people of England cannot afford to pay three millions sterling to keep up the wages of the labourers in the West Indies," and felt assured that they should be able to establish that Government, and not the colony, had violated the compact, and adverted to the following facts, viz., that on the 30th December, 1847, the sanction of the Secretary of State was asked to reduce the salaries on the civil list 25 per cent. That on the 29th February, of the present year, the framing of the estimate was postponed to 15th May, and the reasons of the elective members for so doing were placed upon the minutes of the court on the 1st March, at his excellency's request. That on the 21st March they received Earl Grey's refusal to accede to the proposed interference with the present civil list. That on the 10th April the tax ordinance was renewed, and members subsequently expressed their willingness to renew, for a limited time, the tax ordinance of 1847 (which would expire on the 30th June next); but declined to proceed with the estimate until the decision of Parliament upon their case be ascertained. Such were the views entertained by the elective members; and upon the termination of the reply, two resolutions were proposed:

1st. To defer the consideration of the estimate until 20th July.

2nd. To extend the present tax ordinance until 15th August.

The court was then adjourned by his excellency, who wished to consider this offer, until the next day.

On the meeting of the court, April 27th, the resolutions being allowed to be submitted, were carried; all the elective members of the Court of Policy and the financial representatives voting for them, and the official members, with the exception of his excellency, against

them. The governor then read a minute, declining to accede to the resolutions; but stated that he would accept a renewal of the tax ordinance for three months, from 1st July; but the elective members and financial representatives refused their assent, and placed their reasons for so doing on the minutes of the court; and after some discussion, the governor adjourned the court *sine die*.

As it was undoubtedly in the power of the Combined Court to reduce such salaries as were granted by them 25 per cent., the proposal to carry such reduction of salaries and wages was no longer confined to the Legislative Chambers, but operated to a certain extent throughout the whole of society. Wherever it was possible that such a reduction could be practised, it was put in force; and many individuals among officials, professional men, tradesmen, and others, were subjected to its operation; but when, in a like spirit of economy, the attempt was made on the part of the planters to reduce the wages paid to the labourers at a similar rate, the feeling of opposition and resistance was strong and violent. Several megass logies were burned throughout the colony, and whether owing to accident or design, the circumstance was so remarkable as to call forth a proclamation on the part of the governor; wherein, after an admonitory address to the labourers, he threatened them with the fatal consequences of such practices (if they indeed existed), and offered a reward of 2000 dollars to parties, not being principals, who would bring the offenders to justice.

His excellency the governor, finding it unlikely that he should be able to overcome the feelings of opposition existing in the elective members of the Court of Policy and financial representatives, relative to proceeding with the business of the session as usual, and having previously

made arrangements for his departure from the colony, took immediate steps for returning to England.

As soon as it became generally known that his excellency was actually about to retire from the administration, after the unusually long period of service of ten years, addresses on the occasion of his departure were diligently prepared and forwarded to him from various influential bodies in the community, viz.:—from the mayor and town council, from the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society, from the Astronomical and Meteorological Society, from the lord bishop and clergy of the diocese, and another from the Wesleyan ministers; to all of which his excellency returned his acknowledgments and thanks for the flattering terms in which they had addressed him.

After holding a parting levee, and receiving the farewell and good wishes of a large number of gentlemen of all shades of politics, his excellency, accompanied by Mrs. Light and Mr. and Mrs. Holmes (the elegant and accomplished Miss Light having lately been married to our popular townsman, Mr. Holmes), and escorted by a party of attached friends, proceeded on board the mail steamer *Eagle*, on the 19th of May, and amid the salutation of a large concourse of persons assembled to witness his departure, withdrew for ever from the shores of British Guiana.

Immediately on the departure of Governor Light, William Walker, Esq., the late Government secretary, was sworn in as lieutenant-governor.

Great as were the abilities, and extensive howsoever the experience of this gentleman, it must be admitted that the task which now devolved on him was onerous and difficult. It is not intended to follow up the subject of dispute between the executive and the elective mem-

bers of the Court of Policy and the Combined Court ; it is sufficient to state that various meetings and adjournments took place ; that the skill, talent, and perseverance of the one party was met by the ability, energy, and firmness of the other, but ended in no progress being made on either side ; that society was agitated by the conflicting interests, until at last, indifference took the place of anxiety in the minds of the colonists ; the fruitlessness of the opposition became more and more evident, but was maintained by the pertinacity of the colonial party, who still clung to the slender hope of being able to prevail against the wishes of the British Government ; the negative of the Secretary of State had been declared against their endeavour to alter the civil list, &c. ; the appeal of a large number of the colonists to the consideration of the British had ended in disappointment and mortification, yet still the refusal to grant the annual supplies was persisted in ; the scanty resources of the public chest were fast declining ; the tax ordinance was about to expire, and at length terminated on the 30th of September, 1848, on which day the stoppage of the supplies became positive and complete ; and the colony was left as a helpless wreck to sink or swim as it best could. A few duties, such as the rum duty, and those collected by the Crown, were still received ; but it required great prudence on the part of the executive to carry on the business of the public offices with a rapidly declining treasury, and no accession of revenue.

The truth of the report respecting the appointment of Henry Barkly, Esq., late M.P. for Leominster, and an influential West India proprietor, as the Governor of British Guiana, was confirmed by the arrival of his excellency on the 13th February, 1849, accompanied by Mrs. Barkly and family, as well as his private secretary, G. Dennis, Esq.

On his arrival, his excellency proceeded at once to the splendid residence of the late R. M. Jones, Esq., the hospitable proprietor of the fine plantation Rome and Houstoun, where he remained for some little time, until suitable accommodation could be made at Government House in Georgetown for the reception of his family. On the following day, Monday, the 14th of February, his excellency proceeded to town, and was sworn in with all the honours due on such occasions, and at once addressed the Court of Policy assembled to meet him.

It is unnecessary to attempt to give in this place a detailed account of the steps taken by his excellency to relieve the colony from the evils under which it laboured at the period of his advent. He found it, in spite of the assiduity and unwearied diligence of his predecessor, Lieutenant-Governor Walker, who had not had time to overcome the difficulties, in a state of gloomy discontent, if not of confusion. The prospects of the colony were dark and threatening, the feelings of the agriculturists and planters generally desponding and dissatisfied, the minds of all anxious and uncertain as to the future. The finances of the country were in a deplorable condition, the public credit was seriously shaken, the ruin of the colony, in fact, was in the perspective, and threatened soon to arrive. The governor was a planter himself—one who had suffered by the eventful changes since the emancipation of the slave in 1834, and who naturally sympathised with the feelings of the colonists. He had already visited the colony in 1846 to see his property in Berbice, and he was already acknowledged as a gentleman of ability, attainments, and experience. His career in the British Parliament had been marked by success; his character as a man of busi-

ness, of application and industry, of tact and talent, was admitted, and he was selected by Lord John Russell to undertake the administration of the Government of British Guiana, vacant by the retirement of Sir Henry Light.* The prestige of his name, his character, and his position, had preceded him to these shores.

The difficulties of his position were, however, formidable. He had to allay the storm of strife and contention which had been raging in the colony for so long a period; he had to restore the public credit, and refill the exhausted coffers of the public chest; to arouse the disheartened minds of the planters from the slough of despondency in which they were plunged, to energetic acts and vigorous efforts. He had, further, to reconcile them to a policy which was hateful to them, and which they, falsely perhaps, conceived to have been directed specially against their interests, whilst it, in fact, overlooked them to benefit millions.

He had to awaken their dormant energies, and to urge them to depend more on themselves and their own activity than on extraneous means of support; and, lastly, he had to attend to the general interests of all classes, to repress crime, encourage education and religion, and promote the general welfare of society. Such were some of the principal objects to be accomplished by his excellency, and it only remains briefly to state the results.

After multitudinous impediments and vexatious delays, the renewal of the supplies took place on the 8th August. The computed loss to the revenue from the commencement of this unhappy contest, in September, 1848, to the period of its cessation, was about 800,000 dollars; a

* Governor Light, on his return to England, was knighted by her Majesty for his services in this colony.

large sum to be lost within less than a year by so small a community.

From this period, without attempting to enter into any detail on the numerous wise and beneficial measures adopted by his excellency, the affairs of the colony assumed a more flourishing aspect. Immigration was renewed with eminent advantage to the planters, and to the labourers imported, who were judiciously located, and received all the care and attention that their situation required. The tendency to crime was repressed by the enactment and enforcement of such laws as seemed best calculated to intimidate lazy and hardened offenders. The dreaded punishments of the treadmill and of flogging were introduced, under certain restrictions, to check the increasing disposition to lawless and riotous behaviour; while a Trespass Bill, for which the colony is chiefly indebted to the Honourable A. D. Van der Gon Netscher, one of the most talented and energetic elective members of the Court of Policy, was framed, and has since been in useful and active operation, to the manifest advantage of landowners and others. A sum of money, 250,000*l.*, raised in England, and the payment of which was guaranteed by the British Government, was applied to the extension of the Demerara railway, and to the promotion of immigration, which latter project was regulated by sound and economical principles. The agitation raised by dissatisfied but patriotic reformers was soothed by the promise of an improvement in the political institutions of the colony, of which the new Franchise Bill was the precursor; while factious opposition was disarmed by the earnest but temperate conciliation of the executive. The objects of religion and charity were promoted by a liberal and catholic disposition to foster the several Christian institutions of the country. The numerous

villages and hamlets throughout the country receive the benefit of a wise administration. An ordinance was passed, which appointed commissioners, with a chairman, to divide and allot the plots of land hitherto occupied in common by the proprietors of the property. Rural constables were established throughout the country for the maintenance of peace and order.

In order to make himself thoroughly acquainted with the entire condition of the colony, his excellency did not hesitate to visit each remote district. Exposed to the climate, to privations and inconveniences of every kind, he journeyed over the deplorable roads of the inland districts, and traversed the dangerous rapids and currents of the numerous rivers, making himself at home in the squatter's settlements and in the primitive bush, where, with the feelings of a naturalist, he combined pleasure with business. The wants of the humblest individuals, and the condition of society, its necessities and its obligations, were by such means investigated personally without the hazard and doubt attaching to the statements of others.

The usual meeting of the Combined Court took place early in 1853, and was attended with results too remarkable to be overlooked.

Not satisfied with concluding the ordinary business of the court, in regulating the expenditure and providing the ways and means of the ensuing year, in a spirit of rare cordiality and unanimity, his excellency further was fortunate enough to obtain from the elective members the renewal of a new Civil List, on terms as honourable to himself as creditable to the liberal feelings of the members of the Combined Court.

The terms of the new Civil List were similar to the one about to terminate on the 31st December, 1854.

The amount of the latter, exclusive of expenses of the Ecclesiastical Establishment, was 24,341*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.* The amount of the new Civil List, which was to commence from the 1st of January, 1855, was 22,641*l.* 1*s.* 4*d.*, a deduction being made in the salaries of some of the highest officials, the governor included.*

An ordinance was also passed "to provide for the maintenance of Ministers of the Christian Religion in the colony of British Guiana." The amount allowed by the last Civil List for that purpose was 9,429*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*, or forty-five thousand, two hundred and sixty-three dollars and eighty-four cents: but an additional sum was annually granted by the Combined Court towards the support of other ministers of religion. The new ordinance provided the sum of seventy-eight thousand, nine hundred and eighty-six dollars and fifty-nine cents (78,986 dollars and 59 cents), for the support of the present Ecclesiastical Establishment of the colony (including the sum of 5000 dollars to be granted if applied for by other bodies of Christians).

In the execution of these important measures, his excellency was ably assisted by the Honourables J. Croal, A. D. Van der Gon Netscher, T. Porter, besides the official members and other gentlemen of the legislature.

The labours of his excellency were now, for the present, conducted to a more successful and triumphant close. He had disarmed opposition of its sting and danger; he had administered the affairs of the colony with a tact and skill, with a courtesy, and, at the same time, a firmness which have won for him the unre-

* Ordinance for granting to her Majesty the Queen, a fixed revenue for the support of the civil government of British Guiana, for a period of seven years, from the 1st of January, 1855. Demerara, 18th of April, 1855.

served admiration of all; he had, moreover, done all this without ostentation or display, and in a quiet, simple manner.

The prospects of the colony had improved during his government, the sugar crop had materially increased; the spirits of the planter were hopeful, if not sanguine; the general condition of the immigrants and creole peasantry good and promising; the best interests of society and the general welfare of all ameliorated. The system and practice of justice had been improved, the amount of crime materially lessened, the prospects of education and religion more cheering and promising, while public and private confidence seemed restored, and the good humour and satisfaction of all apparent in the handsome and cordial manner in which the inhabitants generally acknowledged the success of his excellency on his contemplated departure.

Separated from his family (for Mrs. Barkly and children had left the colony in April, 1852, for England), he determined to rejoin them now that the affairs of the colony had been so satisfactorily arranged and settled. A parting address to the Court of Policy, having plainly declared his intention of his temporary retirement from the colony on leave of absence, he was congratulated on the successful manner in which he had brought the public business to an issue, and received the good wishes of members on parting from them. On paying a farewell visit to Berbice, his excellency received a highly complimentary address, signed by about 300 of the most respectable inhabitants—a comparative large number considering the short stay made by the governor in that district of the country. Meanwhile, at a public meeting held in Georgetown, it was proposed to present his excellency, on his departure, with a piece of plate of the

value of 500 guineas, accompanied by an address, in consideration of "the services your excellency has already rendered this colony in extending and facilitating immigration, in improving the administration of justice, in upholding the public credit, in laying the foundation of measures calculated to impress on the minds of those who acquire property that they have duties to perform to society consequent on the possession thereof, and in supporting all institutions which have for their object to promote the welfare of this community, as well as for the courtesy and urbanity you have uniformly displayed in the discharge of your official duties, and for the promptness with which you have on all occasions forwarded the public business."

In a few days the sum of 500 guineas was raised, this handsome testimonial being subscribed to by about 280 of the most intelligent and respectable members of society, while the address rapidly received the signatures of about 600 persons from all classes of the community, and of the most varied political opinions.

The address and testimonial were presented to his excellency on the 9th of May by a deputation of influential gentlemen, when his excellency expressed his acknowledgments in an eloquent and suitable reply.

On the 11th of May his excellency, having previously held a farewell *levee*, which was numerous and respectably attended, proceeded on board the mail packet, *Eagle*, at half-past twelve, accompanied by a large party of friends, and escorted by a guard of honour from the garrison. The steamer left the river about half-past one P.M., under a salute from the fort, and having on board a large number of influential gentlemen about to leave the colony for a short time, among whom were his lordship the bishop, the Honourables John Croal and John

Daly. At one P.M. Lieut.-Governor Walker was sworn in with the usual honours, and addressed the Court of Policy, receiving at the same time the congratulation of his numerous friends and admirers.

END OF VOL. I.

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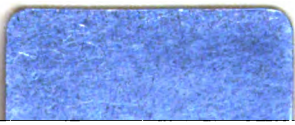
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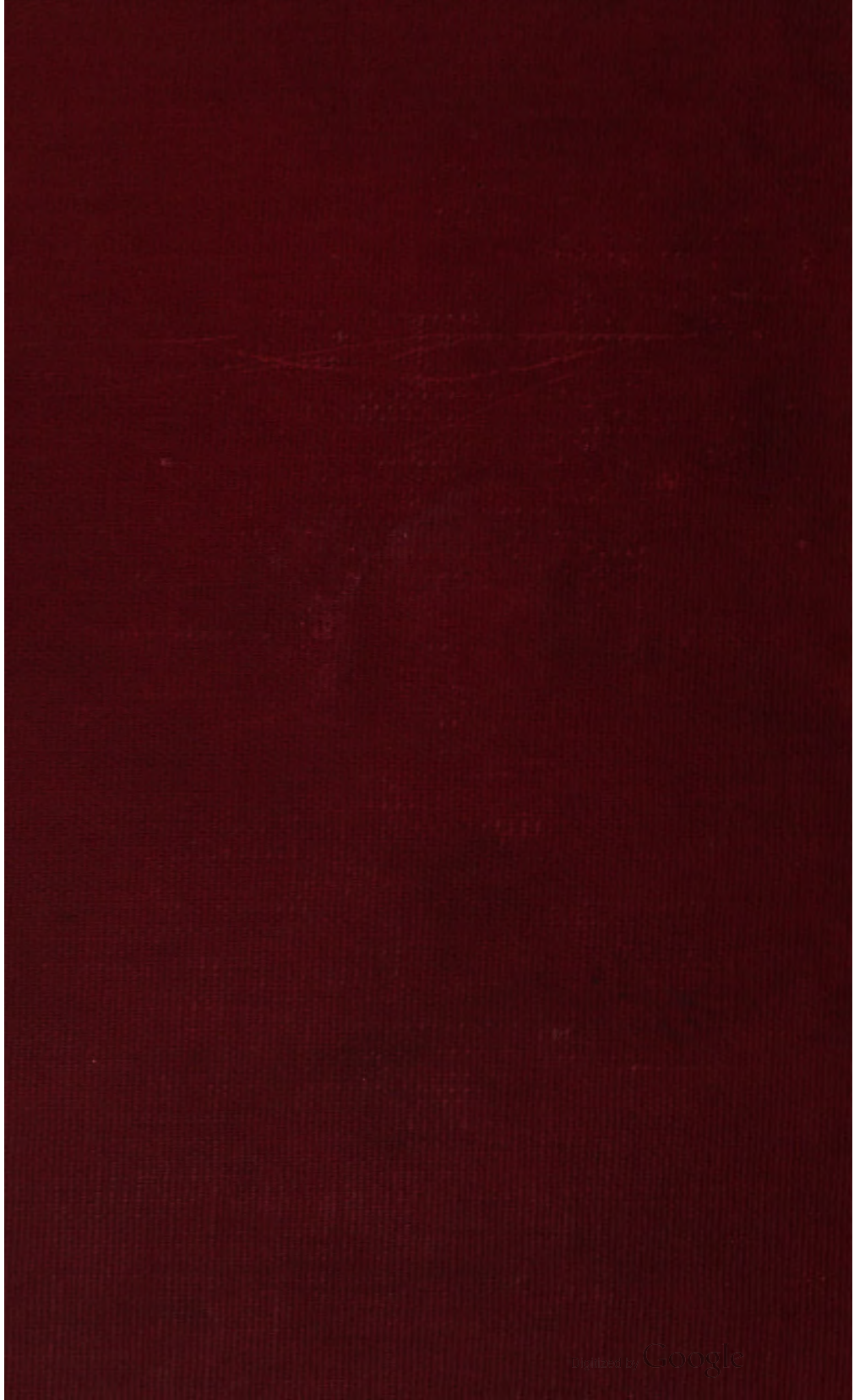
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THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GULANA.



W. Dance.

MISSION OF THE CHURCH.

F. P. Becker.

MISSIONARY SOCIETY AT BARTIKA GROVE ON THE ESSEQUIPO.

THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GUIANA.

COMPRISING

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF THE COLONY;

A NARRATIVE OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS FROM THE EARLIEST
PERIOD OF ITS DISCOVERY TO THE PRESENT TIME;

TOGETHER WITH

AN ACCOUNT OF ITS CLIMATE, GEOLOGY, STAPLE PRODUCTS,
AND NATURAL HISTORY.

BY

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OF THE ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY, LONDON; CORRESPONDING MEMBER OF THE
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YORK, ETC. ETC.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

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1855.



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THE
HISTORY OF BRITISH GUIANA.

CHAPTER I.

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I HAVE endeavoured in the preceding volume to give an account, however imperfect, of the origin and progress of the colony of British Guiana. The reader has beheld it in its original condition of primeval repose, with its rude and simple inhabitants; he has seen it next overrun by bold and daring adventurers, eager in their search for gold; he has witnessed that generation displaced by another, engaged in the more sober and practical pursuits of barter and agriculture, under whose industrious hands arose the factory and the fort, for asylum and protection; and he has marked society gradually widening its circle and extending its influence, until out of this chaos of confusion and uncertainty the outlines of a constitution

were sketched, to be filled in by the suggestions of experience, shaping it by degrees into its present form. Few colonies have experienced such hardships in their infancy, or struggled to maturity through such dangers and difficulties. Nation after nation visited the shores of British Guiana in succession, each leaving some traces of its distinctive character behind, to be ultimately harmonised or absorbed by the perseverance of Great Britain, whose more steadfast and enlightened policy is now being slowly developed over its surface. That the colonists, emerging from the vicissitudes of the past, and still suffering from the consequences of so many changes in the social and official system, should be to some extent distrustful of the present and doubtful of the future, is natural, and perhaps, inevitable; but the importance of union and exertion is every day becoming apparent, and to the energies of the people, directed to the maintenance of our institutions and the extension of our resources, we may finally look with confidence for the firm establishment of order and prosperity.

In estimating the results of the changes the colony has undergone, we shall have occasion to lament the existence of some temporary evils they have bequeathed to us; but we shall find them considerably outweighed by the amount of good we have permanently secured.

Amongst the alterations that have taken place in the social and political condition of the country, perhaps the most remarkable is that which has been effected in relations between the African slave and his creole descendant. Introduced into this colony about three centuries ago, the slave has passed from a state of oppressed ignorance to the position of a thriving and independent peasant. He has gone through bondage, toil, and degradation; he has been brought into contact with several civilised races; and his character and habits,

his physical as well as mental features, have been modified to a surprising extent. The creole nation (for so we may now term it) stands midway between its African progenitors and its European teachers. The individuals of that nation are placed in a country suitable to their health, their tastes, and their capabilities, and may fairly be adduced as an example of a happy peasantry; if the absence of want, and the means of enjoying remunerative employment may be admitted to constitute the happiness of that class. Inheriting the dark skin of his forefathers, the deep black colour formerly so common to the African has faded to a lighter shade. It is a subject of common remark, that few very black negroes are now to be met with. Formerly it was held, *ceteris paribus*, that the deeper the colour, the stronger was the constitution of the African; but it does not appear that the present creole race are more sickly or delicate than their progenitors. They may, generally, be considered healthy, strong, and active. Their features, too, have undergone a marked alteration, approaching in the present day much nearer to the European type; the nose is straighter and less flattened, the mouth smaller, the lips thinner, the hair less crisp and woolly. Many of these ethnological changes may be attributed to intermarriage with individuals remotely connected with Europeans; but even in those of pure black colour the same transition appears. I have repeatedly seen the most delicate and regular features in a person entirely black, and sometimes have noticed a Roman cast of countenance. The figures of the men and women are in general very good; they have finely-formed backs, shoulders, and arms. There is a tendency to the curved shin in the men; and in general, both in men and women, the legs and feet are defective.

The negro creoles have not the same steadfastness of

purpose or dogged resolution that were so prominent in the character of the African. Quicker in perception, and more apt in intelligence, they have not, perhaps, the same sincerity and frankness; a little better educated, and somewhat more civilised in manner and in mind, they are less devoted in their attachments and less faithful in their affections; yet, although more instructed in the ways of life, they are still far from being either discreet or prudent in their conduct. They are lively and confident, but capricious, and are fond of change; attracted by novelty and excitement, they are easily led away by trifles and amusements. Although vain to an incredible degree, they are deficient in pride; and habituated to devotional practices, and fond of church-going and religious meetings, they are, nevertheless, wanting in what constitutes the elements of true religious feeling; and, as yet, do not appear to have a proper sense of its highest social obligations. In many aspects, their character exhibits anomalies and perplexing contradictions. Passionately fond of music and dancing, in which they excel, and in which they possess an instinctive talent, they are by no means constitutionally a merry race. Undoubtedly good-natured and well-disposed, they are easily irritated, and are capable when provoked of being saucy, obstinate, and wilful. They are active, but not industrious; indeed, their indolence and apathy attract the notice of all observers; but for any particular object, they can be roused to considerable exertion. They may easily be led; cannot be driven; and are always more accessible to persuasion than to argument or violence.

The people of the country districts differ somewhat from those in the towns. The former are more simple in their habits and tastes, and show a disposition, especially in the remoter places, to revert to their original

state of indolent apathy if not to lawless barbarism, while those in the vicinity of the towns exhibit a ready inclination to adopt the customs and even the vices of civilisation. Generally speaking, they are temperate in their diet; but their morality is at a very low ebb.

Unlike the peasants of other countries, they have no national or peculiar costume. Every individual who makes any pretension to respectability, attempts to imitate the dress of the white or upper classes. Hence it strikes the stranger with surprise to see the men decked out on Sundays and holidays in cloth coats, French hats, strapped trousers, and glazed boots; whilst the women exhibit themselves in muslin dresses, bonnets of present and past fashions, parasols, gloves, &c.; but all this is good for trade, does no one any harm, and acts as an incentive to industry. This disposition for finery, however, is much less prevalent than it was immediately after the emancipation, and in most of the country districts, whether from indifference, economy, or poverty, too many of the people appear in society more slovenly and ill clad than becomes their character or circumstances. But it must be remembered, that however prosperous their condition was after the emancipation, circumstances have of late materially altered. They have to work hard for reduced wages; a labourer seldom now earns more than two dollars a week, and is unable to save much, if anything, out of his weekly wages. Naturally disinclined to labour, the remuneration offered is not sufficient to excite his cupidity or ambition; hence perhaps one cause of the falling off of creole labour.

One of the earliest objects of ambition displayed by the negro labourers after the emancipation, was the possession of freehold properties, where, undisturbed by the white man, they could reside under the shade of their own palm-trees. By a little forced industry they

knew they could readily earn the necessary means. Neither employment or wages were wanting to enable them to accomplish their desires. Small lots of land were eagerly sold to them by embarrassed proprietors of estates, and cottages were rapidly raised throughout the colony. In the county of Demerara, from 1834 to 1842, the number of freehold properties was 2943, containing 3017 families and 14,127 persons. In the county of Essequibo the number of cottages was 379, containing 338 families and 1779 persons. In the county of Berbice the number of houses was 1184, containing 1223 families and 4646 persons: making a grand total in the three counties of 3322 houses, 3355 families, and 15,906 persons. It would, I think, be difficult in any country to produce so unexampled an advance of independence and prosperity in so short a time, considering the class of persons by whom it was exhibited. Since 1842 the number of freehold properties in the villages and hamlets has continued to increase. According to the last census, there were in the county of Demerara 5672 houses possessed by the negroes; in the county of Essequibo 2254 houses; and in the county of Berbice 3226 houses; making an aggregate of 11,152, which have been estimated at the value of *nearly a million sterling!**

Besides this, numerous estates have been purchased by a joint-stock company of negro proprietors, who, after feeble and unsuccessful attempts at cultivation, have abandoned their plans, and the projects have ended in fruitless wrangling and envious discord. Many of the lands purchased have been converted into villages, and the high-sounding names of Victoria, Albert Town, Queen's Town, Buxton, Stanley Town, have been applied to them. No one who has ever visited these negro villages can fail to remark the disgraceful and slovenly

* Demerara after Fifteen Years of Freedom. By a Landowner.

appearance presented by the wretched assemblage of scattered and unseemly cottages. There is no uniformity of plan in their arrangement or construction; no decent road or comfortable pathway leads to any of them. It is a matter of surprise to know how the owners contrive to enter them. Placed at angles that would defy the mathematician to define, the half-built and irregular-sized wooden cottages present the same appearance of discord that is manifested by their owners. Slight wooden frames indicate the abortive intention of a house; others are boarded in and roofed, but the interior is a grand open space, or it may be that one small room is completed to contain the proprietor and his family with all their stock in trade; a few tubs outside, and perhaps a puncheon with a board or dried palm-leaf connected with the roof to collect the rain-water, and a few naked children in the trenches around, afford an indication that the freehold property is tenanted. In other instances, a frail hut has been partially constructed, but for the present abandoned by the owner, who leaves it to tumble down, or to be stolen piecemeal by his neighbours. Some few are mounted on brick pillars, and present an uncomfortable and insecure appearance—as if ashamed of their pretensions to superiority. It is rare to notice a good substantial house or clean establishment. The grog-shop is often the best that is to be met with. The Portuguese shops offer no exception to the others; they are as slovenly and dirty-looking as the cottages of the freeholders; a few pigs and poultry, with numbers of lean and yelping curs, prowl about with the children. There are no enclosures, no palings or hedges, and no gardens. A few plantain-trees, ochres, tannias, and other esculents grow wild about the muddy plots and grassy beds that surround the disorderly houses. There is no efficient drainage for the villages, nor any attempt made at sewerage. In rainy weather the water accumulates in

the trenches and about the houses in large pools, and not unfrequently the sea or river breaks in, and the whole village is submerged, the dreary houses with their improvident tenants studding the mass of muddy water in chaos-like confusion, giving one a general idea of a small town being washed away or travelling by water. It would be unfair, however, to omit to state that a spacious church is frequently to be found in these villages, and by its superior construction and more protected condition offers a pleasing contrast to the straggling buildings amongst which it is reared.

But this sketch of negro life would be imperfect without a glance at the proprietor and his family.

He either idly spends his time seated staring vacantly out of an aperture, or it may be a window of the house; or dressed up extravagantly, but not becomingly, strolls about with a few hungry dogs; if he can afford it he purchases a cheap horse, which "has to cut its own grass," and consequently soon becomes emaciated, on which he takes violent exercise along the roads; or perhaps he is rich enough to buy a worn-out gig, to which the horse is attached by complicated harness, and a drive is taken by himself and lady. If left at home, his wife, or *quasi* wife, quarrels with her neighbours, and scolds and severely beats the children; or, if in a quiet humour, will lay her head in a neighbour's or child's lap, and allow her hair to be disencumbered of a few of its tormenting inhabitants.

In regard to their habits, the creole negroes offer a singular study to the philosopher. They are really quite a paradox to political economists. Ignorant, uneducated, and at the bottom of society, they are yet great boasters, and full of self-conceit. Unable, as yet, to appreciate the advantages of liberty and industrial independence, they affect to illustrate their condition by their self-

pretensions to good breeding and gentility. A black woman, carrying starch or any other article about for sale, is hailed, when required, by such expressions as, "Ho, lady with the starch!" while an unpretending fisherman, vending crabs or other fish, is addressed, "Stop, gentleman with the crabs!" Servants in search of situations are introduced to your notice by a statement, that a gentleman or a lady down stairs has come to see if you require a butler or cook. When two persons in the position of servants or labourers meet one another, the first inquiry generally is, "How is your lady?" "How is de *fambly*?" The term wife is considered rather derogatory than otherwise; in fact, a married man will repudiate the vulgar appellation, and declare, "She no me wife, she is my lady."

In cases of christenings, marriages, and burials, it is not considered genteel in town to attend on foot, but as many as possible are crammed in hired carriages, where they sit as much at ease, and apparently as self-pleased, as it is possible to be. Printed cards of invitation, and embossed note-paper, are habitually sent round among servants and others for suppers, dances, and prayer-meetings. The latter ceremony is a favourite with many of the townspeople, who, dressed out in full costume, assemble to spend the night in monotonous and dreary "hymn singing." On Sundays, a great many of the old people spend positively nearly the whole day in the several churches. After the morning service is over, they continue inside the building, having a little quiet gossip until the next service occurs in the afternoon. On sacrament days it is a common practice for them always to attend, and invariably to take it on each sacrament day.

The more worldly-minded evince the same enthusiasm for "Joe and Johnny dances," and "practising nights," that the others display for the church. They

assemble about dusk, and continue their laborious exercises until past midnight, with a perseverance and industry seldom witnessed in the cane-fields.

Some of their other habits are curious enough. The women are notorious quarrellers and fighters. The disputants begin by the interchange of a few unpleasant remarks, generally of a personal nature; gestures of contempt and defiance follow; the voices are raised to a very high pitch; invectives, declamations, cutting expressions on the character and quality of their relatives following, and a system of admirable attitudenising and vehement acting follows, which beggars description. Unless separated by the crowd which instinctively gathers round them, they proceed from bad to worse, until the war is settled by force of arms. If separated, the excited disputants slowly retire, but keep up a volley of personal abuse for the length of a street, and when forced to go home, continue declaiming and posturing for a long time.

The habit of talking about the most private matters in the highest tone of voice in the streets is equally common: and lovers, friends, and relations think nothing of acquainting the whole street with their intentions and opinions, private and particular, often to the great scandal of ladies and others obliged to listen to the news.

The negro women have a peculiar gift in being able to carry the most fragile articles on their heads without danger; a tray of earthenware, glass, or cakes, nay, a single bottle, are borne by them without the support of hands in a manner that "Signor Blitz" might envy; and to drop a curtsey, or turn the head thus delicately loaded, is a "sleight of head" most commonly and safely practised.

I have already more than once made allusion to the general absence of morality prevalent among the native population; but the fact, although evident enough, has

not been insisted on for want of sufficient statistical information. The subject is an unpleasant one, but requires some notice in this place. A high degree of morality could hardly be expected from a people just emerging from ignorance and barbarism; but it is a subject of common remark, that the young of both sexes are, if anything, retrograding rather than improving in this respect. It is really dreadful to hear the impious and obscene language made use of by mere children as well as adults, both in town and country. The streets of Georgetown are pre-eminent for the display of such disgusting behaviour. It is rare to meet with a virtuous female after the age of fourteen among the lower classes. It is seldom that the mother of a family has all her children born in wedlock, or the offspring of one man.

The remarkably few marriages that occur in the country* are chiefly among persons advanced in life, or who have long been living together. There are in proportion more marriages in town, but the same remark applies to them as to the others. Chastity is not appreciated as a virtue by the lower orders of society. The practice of immorality, and the indulgence of crime, entail no social disadvantage, nor do they incur the displeasure or degradation of any class. The example of virtuous conduct is too rare, and unattended with too little encouragement, to act as an incentive for the rest to follow. There is no loss of position in society, or worldly disrespect, exhibited to those whose characters would, in more civilised communities, be branded by shame and scorn, either from the commission of crime or practice of immorality.

Clergymen may preach, and schoolmasters may instruct, but something more is required to check the

* In a large country parish, to my knowledge, there have been only two marriages among the negroes for the last six months.

growing evil. The example of the white population has, until lately, tended little to encourage reform. There is still much to be done by the more educated among the upper classes, in the way of example and conduct, before this social stain can be effaced from the ranks of society.

In England and Belgium every fifteenth child is illegitimate; in Sweden the fourteenth; in Prussia and France the thirteenth; in Austria the ninth; in Bavaria the fourth; while in Barbadoes the illegitimate children exceed those born in wedlock, and the same fact obtains in this country. I have no statistical data to offer in proof of this statement, but I shall readily be believed by those who live in or who have visited the colony. There is great difficulty in getting accurate information on this subject, as the office of Commissary of Population is abolished, and I have not been able to obtain access to any documents which furnish the necessary facts.

Through the kindness of the esteemed rector of St. Swithin's, the Rev. J. Alison, I have been favoured with the following table of baptisms:

Year.	Legitimate.	Illegitimate.
1842	47	44
1843	46	45
1844	58	51
1845	72	27
1846	54	46
1847	64	58
1848	38	49
1849	69	40
1850	22	29
1851	31	27
1852	30	25
	531	441

According to this table, the legitimate children exceed the illegitimate; but it is notorious that in the same parish a large number of illegitimate children have been baptised by a peripatetic preacher, who charges a dollar for the ceremony.

Let us now review the changes of the planter, such as we have sketched him in our pages.

He settled on this soil as an adventurer, he appreciated its resources, he drew hither the attention of capitalists, and devoted his time, his earnings, and his energy in cultivating the land of his adoption. He had many obstacles to contend against; he combated and surmounted them; he accumulated labour upon his task. From a wild and uncultivated waste he rendered it at one time tractable and beautiful as a garden. He revelled in his pride and in his wealth; but a moral darkness blackened this shining prospect. That darkness has been dispelled by the light of liberty. The slave was torn from his grasp; the strength of the planter was wrested from him, his ambition was blighted by the noble act, his prosperity threatened by the welfare of the labourer; free labour became inadequate to the wants of the estates, society was convulsed; forced and prolonged efforts were made to substitute foreign for native labour; the success has been but partial and problematical. Discontent, dependency, and dismay set in with all their dismal consequences. Rich plantations have reverted to their pristine wildness; miles of country, formerly cultivated with care, are now abandoned and desolate. The growth of indigo, tobacco, coffee, cotton, have been successively given up through ruinous competition with other nations; and lately the only staple, "sugar," was threatened with a similar calamity.

Well might the history of West India property be compared to a species of lottery, in which, while a few gained prizes, many drew blanks! The adventurer or capitalist, formerly a princely proprietor, has now become a struggling farmer. About ten years have elapsed since the complete abolition of slavery, and cause after cause have combined to destroy the planter. But his untiring

energy has redeemed him from many of his difficulties. Poverty, indeed, has visited the abode of many a proprietor, and the tale of former splendour and present woe has resounded from many a gloomy household. The causes are manifest. The value of estates formerly ranged from 100,000*l.* to 20,000*l.*, including the value of the slaves. It has been computed that the worth of the land, its buildings and machinery, about equalled that of the negroes. Hence, when the emancipation occurred, and the planters received an approximative return for the loss of their slaves through the compensation money, the value of an estate could only be considered for the land in cultivation and its fixtures, such as houses, buildings, crops, &c. In the first years after the emancipation, and so long as the system of apprenticeship was pursued, the value of plantations (allowing for the deduction in the withdrawal of slaves) maintained nearly, if not quite, their former prices; but, since the year 1840, it has been asserted that they have fallen in value to at least one-fifth.*

Having exhibited the different changes that have taken place in the life of the planter and of the peasant, it becomes necessary shortly to review the line of policy pursued by the British Government towards these colonies, and incidentally to include some remarks on other parts of the West Indies.

We have seen that after the capture of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, in 1796, a large share of booty (at the presumed instigation of the colonists, many of whom were British) fell to the English, and a promise of prize-money was held out to the troops employed. It would appear that such a distribution never was effected, and although the eyes of the nation must have been opened to the importance and

* See Appendix.

wealth of these rising settlements, the English quietly resigned these possessions into the hands of the Batavian Republic at the peace of Amiens, in 1802, to the great detriment and dismay of the greater number of their inhabitants. In the course of 1803, the chances of war again handed over the colony to the British, and many persons of influence and capital determined to pursue the line of agriculture adopted by the Dutch and older settler. At this period the slave trade, with all its horrors to the poor African, and its profitable returns to the planter, was in full vigour, and was sanctioned by the Government. A few years elapsed, and in 1807 the abolition of the trade was adopted by the British Government, and a terrible check was given by this blow to the prosperity of the planter, many of whom dated their overthrow from this period. For the next ten and twenty years the prosperity of the colony was checked by the abolition and other measures. Few additional slaves could be imported indirectly into British Guiana, whilst at the same time the United States and other slave-allowing nations gained an advantage by our loss. The duty on cotton operating unsuccessfully to the advantage of the West India power, speedy ruin resulted to the plantations thus engaged. From one end of the colony to the other, the estates in cotton were mortgaged to an amount far above their value, and were gradually abandoned; other capitalists subsequently appeared in the field, and cultivated the land in sugar and coffee; but the fate of the latter was similar to the trade in cotton. This useful berry, which may be grown equally well in the West Indies as in the East, was almost altogether excluded from the English market before 1783. The duties and excise on the importation and consumption of plantation coffee in Great Britain were no less than 480 per cent. on its then marketable value; but a reduced

duty, and other causes, gave a singular impulse to the culture of this useful shrub. The profit on coffee varied from 7 to 24 per cent. on the capital invested, and every prospect was held of its long continuance, but the want of slaves, the competition with other countries, the absence of preference given to the produce of the West Indies, gradually led to its decline, to make way for sugar, which, although requiring greater outlay, held out the prospect of handsome profit. And subsequently, by the reduced duty on foreign coffee in 1842, all thought of exporting it from the West Indies has been abandoned. But it is singular to observe that, at the very time when the cultivation of British plantations in the West Indies was thus energetically followed up by capitalists, so that when one article of produce declined in value another was substituted, an objection existed on the part of the British nation to the investment of capital in these countries rather than at home. Planters, even in earlier days, were regarded with an envious eye; and when any murmurs or complaints proceeded from them relative to new and irksome duties on the article of export, they were very generally regarded as the "fastidious peevishness of opulent folly and surfeited prosperity."

So early as the eighteenth century it was urged against the cultivation of sugar by the British settlement in the West Indies, that the several laws enacted by the Government on the sugar question had vested in the planters a complete monopoly of the British market, at the cost and to the manifest injury of the British consumer, who might otherwise purchase sugar, &c., from foreign islands, 20 or 30 per cent. cheaper than in those of Great Britain; and the general conclusion arrived at even then was, that, considering the expense of protecting them in war, the settlement of sugar plantations in the West Indies was improvident and unwise, and that their further extension and improvement would not promote

the general interests of the British empire. It was surely overlooked in such calculations, of what infinite advantage the colonies of Great Britain had proved to her; how important they were to the sustentation of her power, and the spread of her commerce; how materially they contributed to the augmentation of her merchant navy, and the extension of her language, her laws, and her genius to all parts of the world. The value of exports to the West Indies has ranged from two to five millions of pounds sterling, and of all the exports of England about 30 per cent. have been sent to the colonies.

Let us observe the influence of these injurious opinions on the production of sugar, the last remaining staple of any consequence left to the planter besides rum and molasses. The indignation excited in England against the system of slavery, and the generous attempt to ameliorate the condition of the negro, did not deter the planters from the cultivation of sugar. The outcry raised against them, the unpopularity of their pretensions, was very disheartening; but so long as capital continued to be invested, so long as prices proved remunerating, so long would the planter adhere to his speculation and venture in this lottery. He saw the abolition of the slave trade succeeded by numerous measures, all tending to the future abolition of slavery itself in the British possessions, but still trusted to the justice of the British nation for assistance and protection. We have already traced the various effects of the act of the apprenticeship, the granting of the compensation money, and the complete emancipation of the negro, and pointed out the gradual decline in the prosperity of capitalists and planters; whilst, on the contrary, we have exhibited some remarkable proofs of the rapid advance of the liberated labourer.

There wanted but one circumstance to complete the overthrow of the planter and those dependent on him; there wanted but one act to fill up the measure of his ruin, and it was not long in coming. In spite of all his previous disasters; of the chances of war; the insurrection and strike of the labouring classes; the failure of crops; the fluctuation in prices; the threatenings of austere philanthropists and economical legislators, the planter had one saving principle which supported him through all his eventful undertakings. That was the existence of a protecting differential duty which existed in his favour between the sugar admitted into Great Britain from her West India possessions, and that produced by slave labour in foreign countries. About the year 1800, the duty on raw or Muscovado British plantation sugar was 20s. the cwt., whilst that of foreign sugar was nearly double. No refined or loaf sugar was allowed to be imported under a duty of 4*l.* 18s. 8d. the cwt., which amounted to a prohibition, and operated with great disadvantage to the colonists in many ways. From the year 1800, the duty varied up to March, 1845, when it had risen as high as 1*l.* 5s. 2d. per cwt. on colonial Muscovado sugar, and 3*l.* 3s. on foreign sugar the produce of free labour. In the year 1845, a new sugar bill was introduced into Parliament, and the duty on colonial Muscovado was 14s. per cwt., and about 24s. per cwt. on foreign free sugar, with a contemplated loss to the revenue of about 1,300,000*l.* The duty on slave-grown sugar was also fixed at a high rate, and naturally, by such a purposely high imposition, excluded such sugar from introduction into Great Britain, which had waged so long and consistent a war against slavery and the slave trade, although it had actually operated against her own interests. Such a course was noble, generous, and patriotic; but in the year 1846 the shout of Free-

trade was raised, and, echoing along the length and breadth of England, aroused, by its reverberations, the remonstrance and complaints of suffering parties.

In the House of Commons, Lord John Russell (upon whom had devolved the task of carrying through the principles of free-trade consequent upon the retirement of Sir Robert Peel, its first champion) proposed the abolition of the then existing sugar duties, and after a short debate the following measure was adopted:—The duty on British plantation was to be 14s.; on foreign plantation 23s.; and a yearly deduction of 1s. 6d. was to be made in favour of slave-grown sugar, which, in 1851, or about seven years, would be placed upon the same duty as free-grown sugar.

Thus, after all the outcry raised against slavery and its supporters by the British people, the singular anomaly occurred of the very nation most zealous in its efforts to put down slavery, suddenly, by this line of policy, giving an indirect impetus to the abominable traffic it had so long condemned, and contributing to the prosperity of foreign slave-owners, after it had been at so much pains to deprive its own subjects of any participation in such profits. The long-existing and differential protective duty was to be gradually removed, and the powers of the free labourer in the West Indies to be tested with the extorted labour exacted from slaves in neighbouring colonies. How inadequate was to be the strife! how unjust the contention! how ruinous the consequences!

The object of the new duties was to introduce sugar into England in such quantities as would ensure a considerable fall in price, and, in accordance with the principle of free-trade, to place it within the reach of the very humblest classes of society; but at the very time when the measure was consummated, there were not wanting parties of foresight and intelligence to declare

its inconsistency, if not injustice, towards the emancipated negro, and to others of that nation still groaning under bondage, setting aside its ruinous tendency to the British sugar planters.

The author himself of Free-trade Reform has borne his testimony on this subject, for, in a speech made in the House of Commons in July, 1846, he said: "The question of the East Indies differs materially in respect to the supply of sugar from the West India colonies; but those with whom I acted agreed in the opinion which I myself entertained, that this country did stand in a very special and peculiar relation to our West India colonies. You had emancipated from slavery those on whose labour in former years you had mainly relied for the supply of this country with West India produce. You had given to the holders of slaves a liberal, and, estimating it as to pecuniary amount, apparently a munificent compensation for the sacrifice of their interests; but whether or no (however large the sum might be) it was an adequate compensation for the eventual loss sustained, is a question open to some degree of doubt."

Such was the opinion of Sir Robert Peel on the claim of the British West Indies to some more consideration than in the sugar duties of 1846 was contemplated, and no sooner did the welcome tidings reach the slave countries, than public enthusiasm exhibited to the British nation the thankfulness with which the news was received. The following extract is from an eye-witness, and deserves consideration here, although the notoriety already attracted by the writer's correspondence in the *Times* of October, 1847, may render it "stale, flat, and unprofitable" to some readers:

"With the foreign slave-driver, cheap sugar, means cheap slaves. I spent the year (1847) in Cuba, with a view of ascertaining the preparations which were being

made in that island to meet the opening of our markets. To an Englishman coming up from Grenada and Jamaica, the contrast between the paralysed and decayed aspect of the trade of those colonies and the spirit and activity which your measures (Lord J. Russell) had infused into that of Havannah, was most disheartening. The town was illuminated when I landed in consequence of the news of high prices from England. Three splendid trains of De Rosnes' machinery, costing 40,000 dollars each, had just arrived from France, and were in process of erection; steam engines and engineers were coming daily over from America; new estates were forming; coffee plantations were being broken up, and their feeble gangs of old people and children, who had hitherto been selected for that light work, were formed into task gangs, and hired out by the month to the 'new ingenios' then in full drive. It was crop time; the mills went round night and day. On every estate (I scarcely hope to be believed when I state the fact) every slave was worked under the whip 18 hours out of 24, and in the boiling-houses from 5 A.M. to 6 P.M., and from 11 A.M. to midnight the sound of the hellish lash was incessant; indeed, it was necessary to keep the overtaxed wretches awake. The six hours during which they rested were spent in a barracoon—a strong, foul, close sty, where they wallowed without distinction of age or sex. There was no marrying amongst the slaves on the plantations; breeding was discouraged; it was cheaper and less troublesome to buy than to breed. On many estates females were entirely excluded."

If such were some of the earliest consequences of the new sugar duties in slave countries, no less disheartening were its results on the slave-trade itself, and on the prosperity of the British West India possessions.

From 1816 to 1843 inclusive, the number of negroes landed in the islands and on the continent of America

was 865,000, from official reports, in spite of the vigilance of British cruisers, which, besides destroying the health and lives of the seamen engaged in the hated pursuit, has cost at the very least about 20 millions in the fruitless endeavour to suppress the slave-trade. It has been computed that from 80,000 to 100,000 slaves are annually imported into the Spanish and other slave colonies, and that about 15,000 are imported into Cuba alone, at an entrance fee of 17 dollars, 10 of which go to the governor, although the Spanish Government profess to discountenance the abominable traffic; rendering the treaties of 1816-17 and 20 null and void.

A very late report from the commissioners at Sierra Leone states, "We believe that the slave-trade is increasing, and that it is conducted perhaps more systematically than it ever has been hitherto." Again, "Experience has proved two things. 1st. That the losses of the slave traffickers are not very heavy, especially as, through their agents at Sierra Leone and elsewhere, they have the power of re-purchasing the detained vessels and their stores at extremely low rates, and of sending them forth again on their detestable voyages; 2nd. That this country is put to heavy charges in the shape of prize money on vessels which are frequently captured under circumstances which scarcely admit of doubt of their having been used as decoys!" The profits of the slave traffic must be immense when it is stated the capture of four vessels would not subject the owners to loss, provided the fifth was successful in landing her slaves in Brazil. One individual alone declared his profits to be several thousands of pounds per year.

If such were the profits and energy of the slave-trade up to the time of the sugar bill of 1846, how much greater would they not be likely to become under the encouragement and impetus given to such a traffic by

the admission of slave sugar into Great Britain at a reduced duty! What other than misfortune and defeat could attend the British planter in this new experiment, when it was known that the cost of production of slave sugar is about 13*l.* per ton, whilst that produced in British colonies demands at least an outlay of 25*l.* per ton, or double the amount of the other! The general exports of sugar from the British West Indies have been gradually diminishing since the emancipation to nearly one-half of the original amount, although less perhaps in British Guiana than elsewhere, whilst the slave countries have increased and are increasing in number, population, and importance.

As regards this country, the quantity of sugar produced in 1846 was about 21,000 hogsheads—a very small quantity, owing to a bad season from a long and protracted drought that year. The prices at this period in England were remunerating and comparatively high—about 20*l.* per hogshead. In 1847 considerable exertions were made to render the crop larger; a favourable season, and a high price of labour, gave a return of about 36,000 hogsheads, but it was the first year of free-trade, and the markets of Great Britain were gorged with the hitherto valuable produce of the colonies. In the first six months of 1846 no foreign slave-grown sugar had been received in England. For the same period in 1847, 497,915 cwts. were admitted, and prices were of course considerably affected by such competition. From 18*l.* they rapidly fell to less than 10*l.* per ton, and the beautiful crystal of the lovely Caribbean islands sank in value to the guano manure, which, imported from desolate and barren rocks, was strewed upon the cold soil of Great Britain, at an expense in many instances fully equal to 10*l.* per ton.

It was not strange then that the cry of ruin should be

heard solemnly echoing across the broad Atlantic until it reached the walls of the Imperial Parliament; it was not wonderful then that remonstrance and complaint should reverberate from isle to isle in the West Indies until they combined in one energetic appeal to the humanity and justice of the British nation. The sacrificed planters pointed with terrible earnestness to the fact of the value of sugar, their only staple of export, falling below the cost of production. The truth of their statement was borne out by the numerous failures in the East and West India houses connected with the sugar trade. In the Mauritius every mercantile establishment but one succumbed to the shock. In the East, a stop was put to the manufacture of sugar. In Great Britain, twelve large and long-established houses connected with the West Indies stopped payment, and involved in their fall the colonial planters, merchants, and others dependent on them. It is true that other causes may have contributed to their overthrow; it cannot be denied that other than West India houses tottered beneath the calamities social and political of the year 1847, but the fact obtains that, whilst the other firms are slowly recovering and emerging from their temporary difficulties, most of those engaged in the British West India sugar trade were paralysed by the blow they received.

The effect on this colony more particularly calls for our notice. The panic of 1847 will be long remembered and long felt. All parties were subjected to its operations, all interests to its blighting influence. It had long been a reproach charged against the West Indians, that they were indolent and apathetic in helping themselves. More than one member of the House of Commons has openly pronounced this taunt.

“Qui tacet, consentit,” is an old saying, and the silence and stillness of the planter was attributed to erroneous

motives. It would be out of place to enter upon the consideration of this subject at any length. It is quite sufficient to observe, that Great Britain has singularly attested the inefficacy of "colonial remonstrances in general," and that such an accusation to colonists comes very unbecomingly from a Parliament which, turning a deaf ear to the petitions of her principal colonial possessions, induced rebellion, disaffection, and distrust in America, the Canadas, New Zealand, and both the East and West Indies. It being clearly apparent to the inhabitants of this country that an alteration in the present system of working estates was to be effected, or else their abandonment would ensue, the most striking evil was first assailed, that of the high rate of wages. An English proprietor and a M.P. submitted, through the local newspapers, that as labour and salaries expended on an estate amounted to 9-12ths of the whole expenditure, there should be a reduction effected in this department of 25 per cent. The experiment was tried, and let us see how it has answered. The salaries of managers, overseers, medical men, and others, were reduced one-quarter of their previous amount, and in several instances even more. The necessity and the helplessness of their position induced these parties quietly to submit to the reduction, however disagreeable and injurious. But when it was proposed to the labourers, that in consequence of the altered circumstances of the colony a reduction of 25 per cent. was to be made in the wages to be paid them, they one and all refused to agree to it, in spite of the counsel and advice of magistrates, ministers, and others. From the month of December a strike commenced, and continued for several months. The opposition manifested by the creole labourers was communicated to the immigrants both Portuguese and coolies, and persuasion added to example kept them for

some time in idleness and discontent. But the same necessity which had compelled the white man to submit to these changes, forced also the Portuguese to continue his toil at any price sooner than subject himself to want and poverty. The immigrants in general returned to their work, but the independent creole, removed beyond want and necessity, could afford to stay at home with his hands crossed.

The want of labour became urgent, the immigrants were few and fickle, the creole irresolute and idle, the planter hesitating and anxious. Meanwhile, the canes were rotting, the grass growing, the land was hardening and choked with weeds, the steam-engines rusting, and the tall chimneys of the boiling-houses emitted no curling vapour indicative of life. The Christmas holidays and new year 1848 were ushered in with sinister misgivings. No public meetings were held to decide upon the necessary steps; no unanimous sentiment pervaded any class; no active principle awoke in the community, but rather a dogged and passive submission. Some of the planters proposed giving the old rate of wages; the labourer became excited, and appeared on the stage again; others offered the same wages, but demanded more work for the money and a few hours longer labour in the field; the labourer became impatient, and objected; others remained inactive, and waited to see what the rest would do; and the labourer laid himself down till they should decide. • One bold, united effort would have accomplished the object in view; one strong spirit have guided the rest; but the planters seemed suspicious of each other, and the labourers of them. An unexpected, although not unnatural circumstance, however, brought all parties to their senses. In consequence of the uncertainty of speculation in sugar, the two local banks refused

any longer to advance money on produce (which formerly enabled the majority of planters to carry on the cultivation of their properties) unless the bill of lading of such sugar was attached, hence depriving the planter of the privilege of sending his produce in a way best suited to his advantage. Again, the very minimum price was advanced for sugar even of the best quality, and the cautious policy of the banks interfered with the arrangements of the planters, and considerable confusion ensued. Suspicion fell upon the stability of the two banking establishments, especially after the stoppage of the West India Bank; a temporary run upon them followed, but was met with prudence and confidence. The little sugar manufactured was found insufficient at present prices to pay expenses. The wages of immigrants and the few creoles who had worked under the new system were in arrears, salaries of estates' officers remained unpaid, and the melancholy fact could no longer be doubted by the resisting creole that something serious must have occasioned the inexplicable conduct of the suffering planter. Many had at first supposed that it was merely an attempt to reduce wages for the greater profit of the planter; but they were soon undeceived, and their natural shrewdness soon taught them that one common misfortune had overtaken all. Whether by coincidence or accident, numerous fires occurred during the "strike," and were of so suspicious and dangerous a character as to induce his excellency the governor to issue a proclamation offering a reward for the discovery of the offenders, and giving an admirable admonition to the labouring classes as to their conduct during this crisis. These strange fires (which we could never bring ourselves to believe were acts of incendiarism) ceased as if by magic, the creole labourers slowly returned to their toil, each party

making the best bargain he could, but generally with a reduction in amount of wages, or an increase in the quantity of the work.

The immigrants were unceasing and earnest in their appeal for work. Economy to the greatest possible extent began to be practised in private circles, and the value of money was more than ever appreciated by the suffering colonists. The tale of the planter was the tale of all. The reaction had extended from them to every class. The shock, like that of the electric fluid, acting upon bodies of a similar nature, was communicated simultaneously through all ranks. The money of the planter, formerly plentiful, had passed from his hand into that of the labourer; was transferred by him to the merchant, tradesman, and storekeeper; was circulated by these among professionals and other classes, and from these it passed through all grades of society, until accumulating either as capital in England, or as deposits in banks, or as bullion in the colony chests—after having liberally supplied the officials and other public expenditure—it again began its busy round in the hand of the planter. But now the source whence it sprung was drying up; the fountain whence it flowed narrowed and spent; and the current of its course was likewise straitened and confined.

The labourers' gains fell off; the merchants' sales decreased; the earnings of the professionals were crippled; the wages of tradesmen, servants, and others were rendered uncertain and scanty. One class alone remained unscathed by the withering stroke—the officials. It could not be a matter of surprise, therefore, to any one, if an attempt was made by the colonial members of the Court of Policy to effect a reduction of 25 per cent. in the salaries of all officials whose income amounted to more than 150*l.*; but the proposal to that effect, submitted

through his excellency to the Secretary of the Colonies, Earl Grey, was met with the reply, "That his lordship could not give his sanction to any reduction of the civil list as proposed by the members of the Court of Policy, inasmuch as such payment was guaranteed by the colony up to the year 1852, upon the granting of the immigration loan, &c." This refusal on the part of the British Government was received with indignation by the colonial members of the court, who insisted, that as the Home Government had broken faith as regarded immigration, they could not be expected to fulfil their part of the agreement: and those events transpired which have been alluded to in another place. But in the mean time, the common distress of the whole colony had produced something like a desire on all sides to meet the present evils with submission; a concession of self-interest ensued. The labourers, both creole and foreign, sought employment even at the reduced rates; the tradesmen and petty salesmen resumed their avocations even with uncertain profits. The planter confined his operations to such work as was pressing and imperative, leaving the future to decide whether the cultivation or abandonment of his property should follow; the merchants, the professionals, and the officials, all steadily pursued their occupations, trusting that circumstances would operate in their favour, and avert that ruin which the crisis in the sugar market would entail upon themselves and families.

In 1849, several influential gentlemen were appointed by his Excellency Governor Barkly to form a commission to inquire into and report upon the condition and prospects of British Guiana. After considerable trouble in collecting the necessary information, they embodied it in a report, which, as it gives a full, lucid, and complete account of the agricultural condition of the colony at that period, I have, by permission, taken the liberty

to insert.* A reference to its important and valuable details will convince an impartial reader that there was much cause for alarm and anxiety on the part of the planters. If the view taken of the affairs of the colony was too gloomy, and the threatened anticipations too serious, it cannot be denied that the crisis through which the colony was passing was alarming and painful. If, fortunately, the condition of this colony has somewhat improved since the date of that report, and its prospects appear more cheering than those of Jamaica and other West India islands, it must be admitted that much of the success is to be attributed to the magnificence of these valuable possessions, and to the untiring energy and perseverance of its spirited colonists and their supporters.

But, in making this assertion, I may be permitted to remark, that it appears idle to trust to others for support, and to be buoyed up with the hope of future protection in the way of duties. However unjust appears the principle, that a nation which has spent millions in attempting to extirpate slavery, should be found willing to encourage it in another shape, it must be obvious that the assistance which the protective duties afforded was unstable and feeble, and unworthy of a people who wish to acquire permanent prosperity not dependent on the adventitious and precarious assistance of legislative enactments and fiscal regulations. In less than half a century has Great Britain destroyed the cultivation of indigo, cotton, coffee, in her most fruitful provinces, the West Indies, by the enactment of laws fatal to their existence; and ere that half century will have expired, threatens to render profitless the only remaining article of native produce exported, and upon the cultivation of which depends not only the welfare, but the very ex-

* See Appendix.

istence of 800,000 of her people. If sugar ceases to be the culture of the peculiarly rich soil of the West, what other exportable article of any value can supply its place? *

What powerful Providence will interfere to arrest the man of education and civilisation in his flight from the land of desolation? what merciful interposition prevent the half-civilised negro from relapsing into a state of degraded barbarism? It is not enough to rest contented with the present, when the future bears such a threatening aspect. As yet, this colony, in particular, has borne up bravely against the assault of adverse circumstances—as yet, the finances are good, the institutions of the land upheld, the cultivation of the soil continued, and the hearts of the colonists strong in their determination to surmount the difficulties which beset them; but none can foretel the result; the whole fabric of society, raised from such crude materials into something like a definite outline, is not yet filled in, and the slightest shock may crumble it to dust.

The prosperity of the country mainly depends upon the success of immigration. The ranks of the labourer are continually thinning, and require constant and unceasing supplying; more recruits must be procured, to organise anything like an efficient body of labourers. The efforts of the colonists to obtain an advantageous immigration ordinance have hitherto proved abortive. The wants of the community in this respect have not been understood or appreciated by the colonial ministers, who have repeatedly disallowed the ordinances prepared with much care and foresight by the local legislature; and unless some more practical and beneficial measures are adopted to encourage the introduction of immigrants to these

* Many other valuable articles of produce could be raised, but would hardly prove remunerative in the precarious condition of the labour market.

shores than those which have hitherto been in force, it is to be feared that the resources of the colony will be unavailing, and a dwindling commerce and declining agriculture again threaten the colony with destruction.

A few concluding remarks only remain to be added, and these questions naturally present themselves. What is to be the fate of this old and important settlement? Has slavery, then, triumphed over freedom? Has the ignominy of bondage and the extortion of the lash prevailed over liberty, and the energy and industry of freemen? Has the philanthropy of the British nation been suddenly chilled into selfishness, and the warm impulses of its generous feelings been frozen in their course? Can it be possible that the same hearts which before beat with indignation at the calamities of human suffering, now calculate calmly upon the advantages to them of the sufferings of others? Will the English people merge their sense of justice in a sudden appetite for cheap sugar? Shall the page of history have to record that the subjects on whom the great experiment of emancipation were tried also became its victims? and that the lands which were to have exhibited to the world a convincing proof of the wisdom, policy, and philanthropy of the "abolition of slavery," have reverted to their pristine state of uncultivated waste and unprofitable verdure? Who can contemplate the consequence to the inhabitants of such a territory without alarm and without anxiety? The majesty of civil and political law rendered obsolete for want of material whereon to exercise its influence; the edifices of public worship, and for the transaction of public business, untenanted, and falling to decay; the broad river deserted by its ships and sailors; the abandoned cane-piece and the crumbling manufactory become the abode of the wild beast and gloomy owl; the embryo freeman and industrious citizen de-



Margityan, or Cree Indian.

generating into the unprofitable squatter, whose highest aim appears to be to raise sufficient food for himself, whose chief recreation would consist in listless apathy and indolent rumination; his liberty become a byword among nations; his career a warning to other countries, as an example to be carefully avoided; the deep gloom of superstition substituted for the bright light of pure religion; the dark night of ignorance and error for the brilliant day of civilisation and knowledge. Idleness, the parent of so much evil, would rejoice in the working of her power, and hail an empire of degraded and unprofitable subjects. Like to the vampire of the land, she would gently flap her wings upon the drowsy and senseless body, whilst at the same time she cunningly deprived it of the vigour of its growth, the very life-blood of its existence. Surely it will require more than the sweetness of slave-grown sugars to render palatable such consideration; surely (as the Bishop of Oxford has remarked) the cup thus sweetened will be dashed from the lips at the contemplation of such misfortunes. For my own part, I cannot regard the picture I have drawn without an inward hope that it will never continue to be so presented to the world. A feeling of sanguine confidence leads me to hope that the full tide of civilisation which has long been flowing to our shores will not recede and ebb back to another quarter. I neither believe that the colony is ruined nor likely to be ruined; with the evidence of wealth and industry before me, I believe in its onward progress and prosperity, but at the same time do not anticipate that, as a general rule, such large fortunes will continue to be made as were formerly realised, but honestly think that capital invested here will give as good if not a better return than in most other parts of the world.

CHAPTER II.

STATISTICS OF BRITISH GUIANA—ITS DIVISIONS—FORM OF GOVERNMENT—JUDICIAL DEPARTMENTS—STIPENDIARY MAGISTRACY—PUBLIC OFFICES—POLICE ESTABLISHMENT—TOWN COUNCIL—MARKETS—COURTS—BOARD OF CHURCH AND POOR FUND—CUSTOM-HOUSE—PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS AND SOCIETIES—BANKS—PUBLIC BUILDINGS—LIGHTHOUSE—MILITARY BARRACKS—NEWSPAPERS—SCHOOLS—DEMERARA RAILWAY—BURIAL-GROUNDS—GAOLS—PENAL SETTLEMENTS—PUBLIC CONVEYANCES.

THE history of the colony of British Guiana has been sketched, however imperfectly, in the foregoing pages. It only now remains to give a short account of its present state and condition, its civil and political institutions, its social and charitable establishments, its revenue, trade, and population, together with a few remarks suggested by these topics.

British Guiana is divided into three counties, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, which, it will be remembered, were originally separate colonies.

The county of Demerara extends from the Abary Creek to Boerasire Creek, about 90 miles in extent along the sea-coast. The flat shores, covered with a dense bush of trees and shrubs, presenting the appearance of a gigantic hedge, are washed by the waters of the Atlantic. It has a population, exclusive of the city

of Georgetown, and not including the Bucks, or native Indians, soldiers or sailors, of about 75,767 persons, and contains 5672 houses. It has been laid out in 157 plantations, of which 64 are on the east coast, 64 on the east and west banks of the river, and 29 on the west coast. Of these plantations only half are in cultivation, the remainder being either abandoned or converted into cattle farms or villages. They all run parallel to each other, and extend, like immense slips of garden land, back to the uncleared and uncultivated forests.

Georgetown, the capital of the county (and of the colony), has a population of 25,508 persons, and, including the suburbs, contains about 4895 houses, of which 4065 are in the city alone. The total value of the house property, according to the last appraisalment, was 2,701,203 dollars.

The county of Essequibo extends from the Boerasire Creek to the extreme limits of the colony westward. It was formerly laid out in about 100 estates, of which 50 were situated on the Arabian coast, 22 on the island of Leguan, 20 on the island of Waakenaam, 4 on Hog Island, 3 on Tiger Island, and 1 on Troolie Island; while several plantations in the hands of the Dutch were cultivated along the banks of the river. Population, 34,925 persons, residing on the estates and in the scattered villages. Houses in the villages and hamlets, 2254. There is no large town in this county.

The shores of the Essequibo coast are flat and densely wooded, like those of Demerara; but fine sea-beaches, instead of mud-flats, extend seaward to the Atlantic Ocean.

The estimated value of Demerara and Essequibo before slave emancipation was 18,410,480*l*.

The county of Berbice occupies an extent of 60 miles, from the Abary Creek to the river Cormtyn. Its pre-

sent boundary was arranged as far back as 1673. There were formerly about 74 plantations on the coasts and round the mouth of the river, but at a still earlier period a great many valuable estates were in existence along the banks and creeks of the river Berbice. The estimated value of Berbice before the slave emancipation was 7,415,160*l*. The present population is 27,003 persons. Wooded mud-flats and plantations beyond stud the line of coast. New Amsterdam, the capital, founded in 1796, is planned and built much in the same manner as Georgetown. Its appearance, however, is more picturesque and imposing when approached from the sea, stretching as it does for about a mile and a half along the river, and intersected by several canals, which run parallel with the stream. The houses are not placed close together, but on separate allotments of a quarter of an acre of land, surrounded by open trenches, through which the town is drained, the water flowing into them at high tide, and at its reflux carrying away any impurities collected. Fruit-trees, palms, and flowering shrubs surround most of the better class of houses, and give them an appearance of indescribable beauty. The stores or mercantile houses front the river, and have commodious wharves and warehouses. The town was formerly protected by three strong batteries, placed at the entrance of the river, two on the east side, and the other, York Redoubt, on the west side, opposite Crab Island.

Fort St. Andrew's, nearly four miles from the mouth of the river, and two from New Amsterdam, consisted of a low fortification or sea battery, with four bastions, surrounded by a ditch or fosse, and mounted with eighteen 12-pounders. An extensive savannah or swamp extends in the rear of the fort, which is separated from New Amsterdam by the river Canje. The barracks for the military and quarters for the engineers and ordnance de-

partment are well situated, and are sufficiently protected.

There are several churches for the Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, and other congregations; in connexion with these are several useful schools. A "colony house" serves for the use of the few public officers located in the town. A ferry-boat plies between the town and the opposite bank of the river, but it has been lately proposed to establish steam communication.

The city of Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, is situated on the eastern or right bank of the river Demerara, in latitude 6 deg. 49 min. 20 sec. north, and longitude 58 deg. 11 min. 30 sec. west, about the centre of the sea façade of the colony, having the river Berbice, with its settlements, distant about 57 miles on the eastward or windward side, and the river Essequibo distant about 20 miles to the westward and leeward. The origin of this city, and its former name of Stabrock,* have already been alluded to, as well as the manner in which the streets were laid out. There has been no material change or alteration in the admirable plan on which the town was built, by the skill and perseverance of the Dutch, who in this respect, as well as in most others, have shown themselves to have been endowed with all the sagacity, wisdom, and industry so necessary in the establishment of colonies.

Occupying a flat surface on the brink or margin of the river, the town is not seen to advantage when approached by land or sea. Viewed from the river, or opposite bank, it presents a long range of wooden buildings of various size, chiefly the back stores and warehouses of

* Stabrock formerly consisted of a large street, with houses and lots on each side running from the river eastward to the bush; this street still exists, and is now known as the Brickdam.

the merchants, with projecting wharves or stellings along the line, where passengers and goods are landed, and entrance effected to the various parts of the city; scarcely raised above these plain-looking buildings, the dwelling-houses, stores, and other edifices are imperfectly seen, surrounded and interspersed by waving lofty, palm-trees, and the varied and luxuriant foliage of the tropics, while the public buildings, with their shining domes, the lighthouse, the cathedral towers, and the spires and steeples of numerous churches, white and glistening in the sunshine, are elevated considerably above the houses, piercing the summits of the trees with which the city is ornamented.

On entering the city by one of the public or private stellings, Water-street is first seen; it is built close and parallel to the river, and, although the most densely peopled, is the narrowest in the city. It extends from Fort William Frederick nearly to Plantation La Penitence, and is upwards of a mile in length, having in its greater part rows of wooden and brick houses on each side. This is the chief seat of business in Georgetown, and indeed in the whole colony. Six large sluices, discharging the drainage and sewerage of the city, cross Water-street in different places, and empty themselves at low water into the river, which at high tides rises above the town in many places, and its encroachment is alone prevented by embankments or dams. Two other principal streets, Main and Camp-street, run parallel to Water-street, numerous smaller streets intersect these at right angles, the city being laid out in rectangular squares, which are again subdivided into equal and regular lots, on which the houses are situated.

The dwelling-houses of the inhabitants are for the most part constructed of wood; they are in general only two stories high and are covered with slated or shingled

roofs, and raised some feet from the ground on brick pillars. Before them are galleries or piazzas, while the windows are shaded by Venetian blinds, or have green shutters placed outside; each house has separate out-buildings for servants, kitchens, stables, &c., and are in general surrounded with flowering trees and shrubs, besides having garden-grounds within the premises, which are enclosed by iron rails or wooden palings. The houses are generally painted white, which makes a cheerful and agreeable contrast to the green verandahs or blinds and the ever green foliage. Georgetown is divided into eleven wards (see p. 52). It contains altogether, including the suburbs, about 4895 houses; the appraised value of those in the city alone, in number about 4065, amounts to 2,701,203 dollars. The population of Georgetown, according to the census of the 31st of March, 1851, was about 25,508 persons, exclusive of soldiers and sailors; of this number about 3730 were white, and the remainder belonging to the mixed or black races.

The streets are constructed of comminuted granite stone, covered over with caddy or shelly sand; they are in general of great width, so that several carriages can drive abreast. On each side beds of grass, too frequently allowed to grow to an inconvenient height, slope towards the draining trenches, which are intended to convey into the main drains or principal sluices the sewerage of the town. Exclusive of the private drainage inside each whole or sub-divided lot, there are about 90 miles of open trenches and small drains, through which the filth and refuse of the city has to dribble before it can reach the river. This is sometimes effected so slowly, and the drains are so choked up with mud, offal, and rubbish, that the water occasionally stagnates, to the injury and annoyance of the inhabitants. The town is supplied

with rain-water collected from the roofs of the houses, and conveyed by gutters into zinc or iron cisterns or large wooden vats, where any impurity or adventitious substance falls to the bottom as a sediment. In the dry seasons there is often a scarcity of water-among the poor, who are obliged to collect it from the fresh water canals, prominent among which is the Lamaha Canal. This useful public work was proposed in 1826, and consisted in cutting a canal from the Lamaha Creek to Georgetown, a distance of several miles. This canal was intended to convey fresh water for the use and benefit of the inhabitants of the town, as well as for the several plantations along which it was conducted; namely, Haagsboch, Petershall, Vebserhoofd, Rome and Houston, Riumveldt, La Penitence, Le Repentir, Vlissingen, Thomas, Lilieldaal, Turkeyen, and Cuming's Lodge. A draft of rules and regulations, at the suggestion of the governor and Court of Policy, was drawn up for its management and superintendence, and subsequent ordinances on the same subject appeared in 1828, 1829, 1835, and later periods. This fresh water has been of considerable service, but so negligently protected against straying cattle, and people who, in violation of the law, resorted to it for the purposes of bathing, that other measures became necessary to procure a pure supply. Fresh springs were well known to exist in the interior, and abundance of good water in many creeks and lakes, but they were too remote for the great majority of the colonists to benefit by them. The want was not felt by the inhabitants only, but by all kinds of cattle in town and country. A gentleman on the east coast, who had several cattle farms under his management, lost about five hundred head of cattle in the year 1831, simply from the impossibility of obtaining water in a long dry season. To such an extent has the deficiency been ex-

perienced, that upon several occasions in the city it became a lucrative business for persons to procure water from the creeks, and retail it at enormous prices, ranging from half a dollar to a dollar per gallon, while ships returning to Europe were charged at similar rates, unless they could spare the labour to procure a supply for themselves. The local government fixed a water tariff, at the rate of three dollars per puncheon, the price paid by the commissariat officers for the quantity consumed by the troops.

The practicability of boring for water was frequently suggested; but, after numerous failures, the experiment began to be considered chimerical until the year 1830, when Major Staple sounded water at a depth of 140 feet. The first shaft was sunk in Cummingsburgh in the city. Thus, after indefatigable exertions, and in spite of a general incredulity as to his success, that gentleman succeeded, in September, 1831, in completing the first artesian well. The water thus procured proved of a ferruginous nature. It is tolerably clear on being first raised, and of good colour, with a brackish taste and faint odour. If allowed to stand for some time, the smell becomes offensive, the colour changes to a yellow brown, and a pellicle forms on the surface of the water, which, accumulating, becomes too heavy to be thus supported, and eventually falls as a sediment to the bottom. This is easily explained. The iron is held in solution by carbonic acid gas in the water as it is first raised, but, on exposure to the atmosphere, the gas escapes, and the liberated iron in a new form is deposited in strata on the surface of the liquid, until subsiding to the bottom by its own weight. If spring water is allowed in any quantity to stand, nearly the whole of the iron collects at the bottom, and the supernatant liquid remains clear, but is improved by filtering it. In this state it is palatable and

good. The water proves very acceptable to cattle, horses, and other animals, if drank as it issues from the springs. When freed of its iron, it is extensively used in washing and cooking, but is decidedly not suited for the more refined products of the kitchen. An analysis of the water has been made by several chemists. It is found to contain a large proportion of iron, suspended by carbonic acid gas, with a very minute quantity of magnesia, and a large proportion of salt. The temperature of the water as it issues from the spring is about 84 degrees of Fahrenheit, being five degrees higher than the temperature of common water at daybreak. The water rises eighteen inches higher at high water than at low; at spring tide there is a difference of two or three feet. The strata through which the spring is reached may be thus described:—"The different strata of earth which are passed through in arriving at the water vary in different parts of the colony. In general, a semi-fluid mixture of caddy and soft clay is found to the depth of about forty feet, and then a stratum of decayed wood or lignite, varying in depth from six to twelve feet. From thence, to 112 feet, stiff clay of different colours, and clay mixed with sand in various layers, and more or less coloured with iron, with pure pipeclay intermixed. Most commonly, before arriving at the water, there are several feet of decomposed granite, consisting of quartz, felspar, and mica in small grains, gradually increasing in size to the depth at which the water is found."*

The following table, furnished by a gentleman frequently engaged in boring artesian wells, gives a general idea of the different strata of earth met with:

* Local Guide.

RECORD OF THE STRATA OF EARTH MET WITH IN BORING AN ARTESIAN WELL ON PLANTATION BATAVIER, MAHAICA, EAST SEA-COAST OF DEMERARA.

12	12	feet surface soil.
1	13	Caddy and soft mud.
22	35	Decayed wood and caddy.
1	36	Lavender-coloured clay (stiff).
3	39	Blue and yellow clay.
6	45	Yellow clay.
1	46	Blue, yellow, and red stiff clay in streaks.
5	51	Blue and yellow, with stuff like ochre.
1½	52½	Blue clay, striped with a purple cast.
½	53	Stiff grey clay.
2	55	to 79, Grey and yellow, with sand.
251	80	Grey, with a little yellow ochre.
10	90	Yellow soft clay and sand.
2	92	Stiff bluish clay, some rotten wood and sand.
10	102	A little white sand and blue clay.
6	108	Light grey clay with sand.
5	113	Found a few pieces of hard substance like stone.
8	121	A large bed of white sand containing water.

Good roads extend from Georgetown along the east sea-coast towards Mahaica and Berbice, and for a considerable distance up the east bank of the river Demerara. These roads, as well as others throughout the colony, are superintended by county overseers, and are required to be kept up at the expense of the plantations through which they pass. There are, unfortunately, no public walks of any interest or beauty in the city. An esplanade fronting the ocean is open to the public at the fort, and a large open space in the heart of the city, known as the Parade-ground, with a few shrubs and grassy paths, are occasionally visited by the lovers of the promenade, who are principally attracted by the enlivening strains of the military band.

British Guiana is divided into five electoral divisions, viz. :—Demerara, city of Georgetown, Essequibo, Berbice, and New Amsterdam. These divisions return the seven members of the College of Electors, or “keizers,” as follows :—Two for Georgetown, one for Demerara, two for Essequibo, and two for Berbice. The financial re-

representatives, six in number, two for each county, are also returned by these divisions.

The qualifications of a member of the College of Electors, or a financial representative, are either the possession of 80 acres of land, 40 of which are in cultivation; or an annual salary of the value of 1440 dollars; or the possession of house and land of the annual value of 1200 dollars. The qualification of voters in the country consists of—

1. Possession of three acres of land; or,
2. House and land of the annual value of 96 dollars; or,
3. The tenancy of six acres of land; or,
4. The tenancy of house and land of the annual value of 192 dollars.

The qualification of voters in town consists of—

1. Possession of house of the value of 500 dollars; or,
2. Tenancy of house worth 120 dollars per annum.

The qualifications of voters either in town or country, are—

1. An annual income of 600 dollars or upwards.
2. Annual payment of taxes to the amount of 20 dollars.

The form of government remains the same as during the days of slavery, and consists of a Court of Policy, composed, as formerly, of ten members; five official and five elective. The official members are the governor, the chief justice, the attorney-general, the administrator-general, and the Government secretary. The elective members serve for three years, and go out by rotation, the senior member retiring first. They are elected in the following manner:—When a vacancy occurs, the College of Electors nominates two candidates, one of whom is selected by the governor and members of the Court of Policy, notification of which is given in the official *Gazette*. A member thus elected is required to

take the oath of allegiance, and a penalty of 1000 dollars attaches to a party declining to sit. Four members are necessary to constitute a court. The qualification for a member is the ownership of a plantation, and a residence of three years in the colony. Each member has a vote, but the governor has the casting voice; and besides this, has an absolute veto on all bills brought forward for discussion. Without his approval, no ordinance can have the effect of law; and if it obtains his assent, it is subjected for further examination and approval to the Queen in Council. Orders in Council are occasionally issued by the Sovereign, and constitute laws independent of the Court of Policy.

The term of service of the financial representatives is two years. They are assembled once a year by proclamation to meet the Court of Policy, forming what is called the "Combined Court," the duties of which are to consider the estimate of annual expenditure prepared previously by the Court of Policy; the several items having been discussed and passed, a committee is appointed to prepare the ways and means, or mode of taxation, which being submitted to and approved of by the Combined Court, the requisite ordinances are passed to render them law. The privileges and powers of the financial representatives, restricted and limited as they are, have been the subject of numerous controversies and difficulties, some account of which has been already given, and, as the arguments on both sides of the question are much the same at the present day as they were formerly, it would be useless to consider them here.

The College of Electors consists of seven members, who are elected by the inhabitants for life. They have no other function than to choose or nominate two properly qualified persons, whose names they submit to the Court of Policy in the manner already stated.

The present form of government has been considered by many of the colonists as unsuited to the altered circumstances of the colony. Frequent attempts have been made by a "reform party" to abolish the present system, and to introduce a House of Assembly and a Council, similar to those that exist in Jamaica, and some of the other islands of the West Indies. Hitherto such attempts have proved abortive, and have failed from want of energy and unanimity on the part of the reformers, and it is very questionable whether such a form of government would be better adapted to the requirements of the community than that which obtains at present. Certain alterations and modifications are perhaps desirable, and no doubt will be introduced in the proposed "new constitution" now under consideration.

Before the year 1812 there were separate courts of justice for each of the three colonies; but in that year the courts of Essequibo and Demerara were united by proclamation of Governor Carmichael, and consisted of eight colonial members, and a president appointed by the Crown. In the following year his Honour Judge Henry, the first English president, took his seat on the bench. He was succeeded, in 1816, by his Honour W. H. Rough, and the good effects of the two English professional judges soon became apparent in the mode of conducting legal proceedings, hitherto but imperfectly carried on in the colony; but there was much room for improvement. Disputes arose on the subject of official fees; and in 1821 a public meeting was held on the subject of abuses in the judicial department, and a petition, numerously signed by the inhabitants, was sent to the king, complaining of the deplorable system of the administration of justice, and praying for relief. In the course of the same year Judge Rough was suspended by the governor, and shortly afterwards his Honour Charles

Wray arrived, and under his able administration the system was ameliorated. In 1831 the ancient courts of justice were abolished, and a new court, composed of a chief justice and two puisne judges, appointed by Order in Council for British Guiana (the court of justice of Berbice being abolished) to try all civil cases; whilst a criminal court, consisting of the same judges, but assisted by three assessors chosen from persons of respectability, was appointed to hold criminal sessions once every quarter in Georgetown, and occasionally in Berbice. In 1831 President Wray became the first chief justice. He was succeeded, in 1836, by his Honour J. H. Bent, who, after earning a high and honourable character as a lawyer and a judge, closed a useful and venerable life in 1852, regretted and esteemed by all ranks. He was succeeded by the present chief justice, his Honour William Arrindell, who had latterly received the appointment of attorney-general. This gentleman, in the course of his career, has been engaged in the several legal improvements which have characterised the administration of the British governors from the year 1820, and has acquired for himself an honourable reputation as an indefatigable and able lawyer and legislator. Independently of his other claims to respect, he has acquired great honour by the zeal he has displayed in founding and promoting the "Orphan Asylum" of Georgetown, the nature and object of which are sufficiently expressed by its title, and the want of which was long and grievously felt by the poor and destitute children of all classes in the colony.

There are two assistant, or "puisne judges," who preside in rotation at the civil and criminal courts—his Honour R. C. Beete, and his Honour W. Alexander.

The other law-officers of the Crown are the attorney-

general, the Hon. R. R. Craig; the solicitor-general, J. L. Smith, Esq.; and the Crown solicitor, R. W. Imlach, Esq. The clerk of the supreme criminal court is W. H. Campbell, Esq., LL.D., who is likewise an attorney-at-law.

The Supreme Court of Civil Justice is held four times a year in Georgetown, and is conducted by the three judges, who sit together. It decides in all cases or lawsuits above the value of 50*l.* sterling. Appeal from the decision of this court is allowable in civil suits of the value of 500*l.* and upwards.

A Supreme Criminal Court is held in Georgetown once every three months for the county of Demerara, and a similar court is held quarterly in Essequibo and in New Amsterdam for the county of Berbice. One of the three judges always presides, but in cases of difficulty or importance the three judges sit together on the bench. The jurors are summoned in rotation throughout the colony, and a printed list of persons qualified to sit as jurymen for the several counties is published, at stated times, in the *Royal Gazette*. The system of trial by jury has hitherto been found to answer very well in the colony, and appears to give general satisfaction, except sometimes to the jurymen themselves, when required to be locked up for twenty-four hours and upwards without nourishment.

An inferior Court of Criminal Justice is held in each of the districts of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and consists of one of the puisne judges, president, and not less than three justices of the peace, one of whom is generally the stipendiary magistrate of the district.

The jurisdiction of this court is limited to a fine not exceeding 50*l.*; to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, for a term not exceeding twelve months; or whipping, not exceeding thirty-nine stripes, in the case of males

only. A session is held in Georgetown on the last Thursday in each month, while six sessions in each year are held at each of the police-stations at Capoey, Belfield, Hague, and Goed Fortuin, first circuit; and Mahaica, Fort Wellington, New Amsterdam, and Albion, for the second circuit.

The offices of the colonial receiver-general and of the financial accountant are likewise of great importance and responsibility. The head of the former department is G. G. Lowenfield, Esq., and of the latter J. C. Schade, Esq.

The Government secretary's office is conducted by the Hon. W. Walker, the present talented and popular acting lieutenant-governor, aided by an assistant Government secretary, the Hon. W. B. Wolsely. In New Amsterdam there is also an assistant-secretary, L. D. Nieuwerkerk, Esq.

The administrator-general's office has been already noticed. Originally known as the "week's-kamer," it was afterwards called the "orphan chamber," with officers called recorders, and others to conduct its duties. The orphan chamber was abolished in 1844, and the administrator-general's office was established by ordinance in 1844. The officer first appointed was John Kennedy, Esq., the present auditor-general, who, after a service distinguished by probity and talent, resigned in 1851. His successor is the Hon. John Daly.

The important offices of the registrars of Georgetown and New Amsterdam were remodelled during the administration of Governor Light in 1844. This department has been frequently the seat of serious irregularities, the duties of the several officers employed not having been sufficiently defined. The present useful organisation of the office was effected by an ordinance passed by the governor and Court of Policy on the 12th of October, 1844. By this ordinance, and subsequent

amended ones in 1845, 1846, and 1852, the offices of the registrars of the counties of Demerara and Essequibo, and of Berbice, were divided into two departments, the "judicial," and the "registrarial and notarial." The duties of the several officers were also distinctly stated and defined by the same ordinances, as well as the manner in which the fees received should be apportioned and divided.

The marshal's office of British Guiana is one of the most valuable establishments of the colony. Since its first organisation it has undergone various modifications in accordance with the changes of society; but, as at present constituted, it is most ably and satisfactorily conducted. In the year 1847 (November 1st), an ordinance was enacted by his Excellency Governor Light and the Court of Policy, regulating the duties of the office, repealing former ordinances, and placing the marshal's office under the sole control of the provost marshal, who was henceforth to receive all the fees and revenues of the office, and to provide for the due performance of its duties. He was required to give security to the amount of 4000*l.* sterling for the faithful performance of his duties, and to be responsible and liable for all losses, damages, costs, and expenses, suffered by any one through irregularity or neglect on the part of the office. The present establishment consists of the provost marshal, William H. Holmes, Esq., four ordinary marshals, an accountant, and recorder.

The stipendiary magistrates, as already noticed, were appointed after the termination of the apprenticeship, and their duties have been defined by the various ordinances passed since that period. There were at first fourteen judicial districts, each of which was presided over by one of these officers, whose salaries were paid partly by the British Government, and the remainder

from the colonial chest. These districts are now reduced to twelve in number, and are visited periodically by the circuit stipendiary magistrate.

The present efficient police establishment of British Guiana is a great improvement on the old system, when a few *dienaars* (servants), as they were then called, attempted, under the direction of the board of police in Georgetown and New Amsterdam, to attend to the many and unpleasant duties which were required of them. The necessity for some material alteration being manifest, an ordinance was passed by his Excellency Governor Light and the Court of Policy, on the 11th of June, 1839, for the establishment of an effective system of police. This ordinance has been subsequently slightly altered; but the provisions therein made for the organisation of this useful establishment were wise and practical. Under the able and judicious superintendence of the several inspectors it has attained considerable skill and usefulness; and, with the zeal and activity of the present efficient chief of the establishment, it promises to become one of the best disciplined and well-conducted corps of this description anywhere to be found; indeed, the activity, tact, and sagacity of this force has been already proved, and its existence has conferred a considerable boon on the members of the community. It consists at present of an inspector-general, R. G. Butts, Esq., and inspectors for the three counties; 2 sergeants-major, 25 sergeants, 14 corporals, 190 privates, 35 river policemen, 4 pioneers, 40 horses; besides medical officers, book-keeper, clerk. The total expenses of the police establishment for 1852 was about 100,000 dollars. A certain number are provided with rifles, and are taught the exercise and drill of soldiers. They are also employed to carry the letters of the "inter-colonial postage" from one part of the colony to the other.

From the year 1812, when the name of the capital of the colony was changed from Stabroek to Georgetown, to 1837, the management of the town was entrusted to the board of police, who were first appointed by the lieutenant-governor and Court of Policy in 1812. "Town regulations" and "consolidated acts," for the better regulation of Georgetown, were published at that and subsequent periods, viz., in 1812, 1827, and 1828. But on the 1st March, 1837, an ordinance was passed by the governor (Sir James Carmichael Smyth) and the Court of Policy, "To establish a mayor and town council for the superintendence of Georgetown." Georgetown was accordingly divided into eleven wards. One town councillor was returned by each ward. The qualification for town councillor was the ownership of a house of the value of 8000 guilders or upwards, within the city of Georgetown; and the qualification of voters was the possession of a house in Georgetown of the value of 3500 guilders.

The first election of town councillors took place on the 31st of March, 1837, and one out of the number was appointed to be the mayor. The mayor and town council were vested with the powers formerly exercised by the board of police; a secretary and receiver of town taxes were appointed, but the two offices have been since blended into one; meetings were appointed to be held at stated periods, and full minutes kept of all proceedings. The mayor and town council were required to report to the Court of Policy in each year, and power was given to them to levy and sue for taxes. The ordinance passed in March, 1837, was subsequently slightly altered, and amended at later periods, but the changes made have not been very important, and it still continues to be the authority by which the city of Georgetown is superintended.

It is the duty of the town council to keep the streets, bridges, canals, and trenches in order; to attend to the drainage and general sanitary condition of the city; to prevent the existence of nuisances (public or private), the straying of cattle, as well as to superintend the markets. For these and other purposes a town superintendent is employed, and, with the assistance of the convict gangs and hired labour, the necessary work is satisfactorily accomplished.

There are two markets in Georgetown, both of which are admirably constructed, with numerous stalls, offices, and enclosed with handsome iron railings. The water-side market was opened in 1844, and cost 56,934 dollars. The Main-street market was established in 1852, at an expense of 12,176 dollars. In March, 1842, the mayor and town council enacted a bye-law and regulations for the markets of Georgetown, which were up to that period conducted in a very irregular manner, and were held in unsubstantial and inconvenient buildings. In April of the same year an ordinance was passed, to empower the mayor and town council to raise the sum of fifty thousand dollars on redeemable bonds, in order to defray the expenses of establishing the water-side market; and at a later period, a similar plan was adopted for constructing the market in Main-street. The fees received for licenses and for the hire of the stalls belong to the town council, and have already enabled that body to redeem the bonds issued for the erection of the new or water-side market, while the one in Main-street is in process of liquidation.

The petty debt court was established in the year 1835. It is presided over by a justice of the peace, for examination of cases not exceeding 7 dollars 33 cents in value, and by two justices, for sums not exceeding 5*l.* or 24 dollars. Its sittings are held on Saturday in each week.

The police office of Georgetown was established in 1839. It is presided over by a magistrate, William M'Nulty, Esq., LL.D., who is also pro-sheriff of the county of Demerara. This office takes cognisance of cases similar to the police offices of England.

The vice-admiralty court is conducted on the same rules and practice as that of Great Britain. It is composed of a sole judge and commissary, his Honour William Arrindell; a Queen's advocate, the Hon. R. R. Craig; besides advocates, proctors, registrar, and marshal.

The office of high sheriff has lately been abolished, as well as the duties of the sheriffs of the other counties, which now devolve on the puisne judges. The former office had long been occupied by his Honour George Bagot, a gentleman whose long and meritorious public services have earned for him the honoured and merited title of the Patriarch of the Colony. In retiring from a prolonged and useful public life, he bears with him the respect and affection of the colonists, in whose cause he has long and faithfully laboured.

The necessity for the establishment of fire companies exists equally here as in other communities; in some respects, even more so, for almost all the houses and other buildings are constructed of wood, and the carelessness and even recklessness of the lower classes, in respect to the use of fire, is proverbial. Indeed, it is a matter of surprise, in consequence of the common negligence exhibited by servants and others, in kitchens and bedrooms, that fires are not more frequent. It is not an uncommon thing to notice negroes, coolies, and Portuguese cooking their food in iron pots on the floors of garrets and bedrooms in the upper stories of old houses, the wood of which is dry, and almost as combustible as tinder. These coal-pots, as they are called, are heated by wood, coal, or coke, resting on iron bars, which are themselves

supported by bricks on the floor. I have been surprised to notice that, when fires have occurred here, the combustion is languid and feeble to what it is in colder climates; indeed, from this circumstance, rather than owing to the efficient working of the fire company system, it appears to me that, in general, the evil consequences are not greater.

With the exception of the burning of Megass Logies, fires are neither common nor extensive in British Guiana. The only severe fire on record is one which occurred in Georgetown on the 29th of December, 1828, by which the whole of the houses in American-street, and many others in Water-street, were destroyed; the value in loss of property being several thousand dollars.

There are five public fire-engines, which are superintended by captains—respectable tradesmen appointed for that purpose—who look after the state and working condition of each engine, and have them exercised at stated periods; in the event of fire, they are empowered to engage twelve extra men for each engine, who are paid for their labour; but it is never from the want or volunteer or other labour that the engines, in cases of fire, do not prove so efficient as could be wished, but rather to the too frequent scarcity in the necessary supply of water.

In 1842, certain bye-laws and regulations for the establishment of a fire company in Georgetown were enacted by the mayor and town council. The duties of the superintendents, assistant-superintendents, and firemen were laid down, and the remuneration for their several services fixed.

Boards of health were first established in this colony by an ordinance passed by the governor (Sir Benjamin D'Urban) and the Court of Policy on the 25th of August, 1832. Central and local boards were established in

Georgetown and New Amsterdam, and in the several parishes throughout the districts of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. Since that period there have been occasional changes in the appointments and duties of such boards. In 1851, Dr. Gavin, one of the medical inspectors appointed by the British Government to report upon the sanitary condition of the West Indies, visited this colony, and drew up an elaborate health bill, which passed the Court of Policy in 1852, but has been a dead letter ever since. It was found too complicated and cumbersome to work satisfactorily in a country like this.

An ordinance passed in 1853, on the subject, appointed a local board of health for the parishes of St. George and St. Andrew, including the city of Georgetown; and for that purpose repealed so much of ordinance No. 5, of 1852, as constitutes the mayor and town council the local board of health. This local board consists of the members of the Court of Policy, the mayor, the presidents of the board of hospitals, and the board of church and poor funds; the surgeon-general, the gaol surgeon, the health officer, the inspector-general of police, and the financial representative for the city of Georgetown. This board has a paid medical officer, Dr. Johnstone, besides a secretary and other subordinate officers.

The board of health of New Amsterdam consists of the presidents of board of superintendence and board of poor funds, the financial representatives of the county, the hospital surgeon, the gaol surgeon, the health officer, and inspector of police. The country boards are composed of the vestrymen of the parish, along with the magistrate, clergyman, and doctor of the district.

Considering the limited population and finances of the colony, there are few places of the same extent which can surpass British Guiana in institutions of a charitable nature. Their number is certainly not great, but the

liberality extended towards them' has excited the admiration of strangers visiting these shores. In the times of slavery a surgeon-major was supported by the colony, whose duty it was to attend the sick Government negroes and prisoners. In 1797 his salary was raised from 750 guilders per annum to 850, or about 60*l.* a year. This officer was generally attached to the army or allowed civil practice. A medical officer was also appointed for each of the three rivers, to examine and report upon the corpses of persons found dead.

In 1806 a colonial and military surgeon was appointed, with a salary of 3000 guilders per annum, or about 200*l.* The nucleus of the present colonial hospital was also formed about this period. It was ordered that all colonial negroes were to be attended in the military hospital at the rate of ten stivers per day, and subsequently a separate hospital was prepared for their reception, the surgeon attached to which was paid a certain sum yearly, and was bound to provide everything requisite for their board and maintenance.

In 1838, during the administration of Sir H. Light, a seaman's hospital was erected, and maintained at the expense of the colony, a certain tax being levied on the shipping towards its support.

Shortly afterwards, at the instigation of the late Dr. Smith, the colonial hospital system was remodelled, a larger building was temporarily fitted up as a hospital, and the greatest care and attention bestowed on the patients, for whom a resident medical officer, with proper assistants, was provided.

In 1843 the sum of 205,000 guilders was granted by the Combined Court, for the purpose of erecting the present noble hospital, and in the following year it was opened for the reception of sick persons. A great deal more money has been spent upon it than the sum origi-

nally named, and, including the expenses of the seaman's hospital, and a small lunatic asylum in connexion with it, the annual expenses for the last six or seven years have been from 8000*l.* to 10,000*l.*

It is capable of containing about 300 patients, but as many as 400 have been, under urgent circumstances, accommodated and treated, whilst a larger number of out-patients daily receive advice and medicine. The principal inmates for many years past have been immigrants, especially Portuguese, and coolies. It is under the immediate control of the able surgeon-general, Dr. Blair, who visits it daily, and who is materially assisted in his arduous duties by one or more resident surgeons. There is a board of directors, two of whom are required to visit it at stated times; they meet occasionally to conduct the general management, and have a paid secretary, who keeps the accounts.

	Dol.	Cts.
The ordinary expenses of the Colonial Hospital in Georgetown, for 1852, was	43,272	61
Seaman's Hospital ditto, was	8,805	16
Salaries of "medical and other officers of the two hospitals	8,269	77
Total	60,347	54

The sick and poor in New Amsterdam are provided for by a Board of Church and Poor's Fund, consisting of a president and five members, besides a secretary, the duties of which are similar to those of the board in Georgetown. There is an excellent hospital in the town, the ordinary expenses of which, for 1852, amounted to the sum of 17,658 dols. 39 cents, including the expenditure of the asylum department. Besides this, the services of an able visiting physician (Dr. Hackett) are secured by a salary of 1680 dols. This excellent institution was established in 1837, and is managed by the president and members of the Board of Church and Poor's Fund of Berbice. It administers relief to all aged, infirm, or

sick persons, who are destitute, and to all seamen belonging to vessels trading to the port of New Amsterdam, Berbice, and to those employed in the light-ship or *pilot service*.

The Georgetown Orphan Asylum has lately been instituted, and promises to become one of the most creditable establishments of the colony. Its principal advocate and supporter has been the chief justice, Mr. Arrindell, who, with his excellent lady, are unremitting in their attention to the numerous inmates who have already crowded into its handsome and hospitable walls. It has hitherto received the cordial support of the charitable of nearly all the religious denominations of the community, and has likewise obtained a liberal grant from the local legislature.

By an order in Council of the 10th of March, 1824, "the Board of Church and Poor's Fund of the United Colony of Demerara and Essequibo" was established, to consist of a president and six members, viz., the senior ministers of the English, Scotch, and Dutch churches, and three other parties nominated by the governor. The duties of this board are "to receive, manage, administer, and superintend the application of the imposts leviable for the purposes of the institution," in the same manner as was done formerly by the consistory of the Reformed Church of Holland since 1792. In January, 1830, an act was passed by the lieutenant-governor and Court of Policy for regulating the claims of this board upon the property of persons receiving maintenance from it. This useful establishment relieves the wants of a large number of poor and indigent persons. It is partly supported by a 2 per cent. duty on all public sales, whether by the provost-marshal or by licensed auctioneers, and the balance of its expenses is paid out of the public treasury. The average number of the out-

door poor receiving weekly allowances is about 850. The almshouse contains about 150 inmates, who are chiefly infirm, blind, lame, old, and helpless people. They are provided with lodging, food, and raiment. In sickness these paupers, as well as the outdoor ones, are visited by a medical officer (the intelligent and humane Dr. Clifton) appointed for that purpose, who also supplies them with the necessary medicines. The total expenses of this useful establishment for 1852, including almshouse expenses and money paid to the poor, was 32,547 dols. 32 cents, besides the sum of 4079 dols. 73 cents, being the amount collected by the 2 per cent. duty on public sales.

The office of the custom-house has undergone numerous changes in these settlements since its first establishment. The present institution for the collection of the colonial import duties was established in 1849 (see ordinance No. 18). It consists of an inspector of colonial import duties, C. Bagot, Esq., who also holds the office of comptroller of her Majesty's customs and navigation laws; a clerk and warehouse-keeper, and other clerks and lockers, five in number, for Demerara and Essequibo; an outdoor supervisor of aid-waters, J. Taggart, Esq., and twelve assistant aid-waiters. The crown department for Demerara and Essequibo consists of the comptroller of customs and navigation laws, and a clerk and assistant. The custom-house of the county of Berbice is in New Amsterdam, and consists of a sub-inspector of colonial import duties, a clerk and warehouse-keeper, and two or three aid-waiters.

The post-office, situated in the Public Buildings, is conducted by the deputy postmaster-general, E. T. E. Dalton, Esq. Letters of the value in postage of 2000*l.* per annum are received from Europe. This officer also superintends the inter-colonial postage, which receives

the support of the local government, and enables persons to extend their correspondence in safety to the remote districts, the mail bags being placed under the charge of the policemen of the several stations. The post-office in New Amsterdam is under separate control.

Georgetown was constituted a free warehousing port, by an order in Council, on the 26th August, 1839, and New Amsterdam in 1840. Rules and regulations were early made for regulating the ports and harbours of Demerara and Berbice, which have been subsequently revised and altered. An ordinance to establish quarantine in the ports of British Guiana was passed in 1831, by Sir Benjamin D'Urban and the Court of Policy; and was further extended and amended by Sir James Carmichael Smyth and the Court of Policy in 1838. There is at present a harbour-master and superintendent of quarantine, H. C. Southey, Esq., a relative of the late Poet Laureat. The health-officer of the port, Dr. Johnstone, visits with the harbour-master the ships on their arrival. In New Amsterdam, Berbice, there are similar officers.

The Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana was instituted 18th March, 1844. This useful and well-conducted institution has the same objects, and is founded upon similar principles to those in Great Britain. It possesses a large meeting and reading room, a good library, and receives the most interesting magazines and newspapers from Europe and the United States. It has been lately proposed to establish a museum in connexion with this institution, and already materials and objects suitable for the purpose have been contributed.

The Astronomical and Meteorological Society of British Guiana was established in 1844. Although receiving an annual grant from the colony, it has not met with

that private support among the inhabitants to which the usefulness of the institution fairly entitles it. The observations made, and the tables prepared by the intelligent and scientific observer, Mr. Sandeman, have already proved of great use and interest to society.

There are two banks in Georgetown, with branch establishments in New Amsterdam. The British Guiana Bank was incorporated by an ordinance enacted by Sir James Carmichael Smyth and the Honorable Court of Policy, on the 11th November, 1836, in consequence of a petition presented to that body by the inhabitants, showing the necessity for such an establishment. It commenced business on the 15th May, 1837, and has a capital of 1,400,000 dollars. The Colonial Bank of London, incorporated by royal charter in 1836, with a capital of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, has an important branch establishment in Georgetown, which commenced business on the 15th May, 1837. There is a "Savings Bank" in Georgetown, which is, I believe, under the charge of the receiver-general.

Since the last notice of the monetary changes of the colony, in 1825, the coin chiefly in circulation for many years was the Mexican dollar, of the value of three guilders, or 4*s.* 4*d.* Since the establishment of the present useful banks, the notes issued by them are in general circulation, and constitute the only paper money in the colony.

In 1850 copper coin was introduced, and an ordinance* was passed, rendering it a legal tender within certain limitations, besides enacting other rules respecting its circulation; but after a feeble trial, it failed to come into general use, and is now scarcely or never seen even among the very poor.

The value of the Mexican dollar became reduced to

* This ordinance was subsequently disallowed by the Home Government.

4s. 2d, and for the last few years it has been gradually withdrawn from the colony in consequence of its depreciated value. To meet the necessary demand of silver, British coin has been largely introduced, and is now in general circulation. No gold coin is in use to any extent.

The largest edifice in the city of Georgetown is the "Public Buildings," the name given to a large building, which is divided into offices for the principal official establishments of the colony. It presents an imposing appearance in front; but its situation, though convenient, is not so picturesque as it might have been owing to the neighbourhood of several other structures, which cannot vie with it in beauty, and only serve to mar its effect. It comprises a central portico, with a cupola at its summit. The building is two stories high, and on either side of the portico a range of offices or apartments extend to the wings which project in front from each extremity. Its greatest length is from east to west, while the wings extend from north to south. In the upper floor of the left wing is situated the hall of the Court of Policy, with adjacent offices for the Government secretary, the assistant secretary, and clerks, together with an apartment or office of the attorney-general. In the lower portion of this wing is the office of the Custom House, pilot committee, and other functionaries. In the upper part of the opposite, or right wing, the hall of the Supreme Courts of Civil and Criminal Justice is situated, with the office of the chief justice. The central portion of the upper floor is divided into apartments for barristers, for the administrator-general, for the financial representatives, and for his excellency the governor. A massive gallery extends in front of the central portion of the building, both on the first and second floor. The lower part of the right wing is divided into offices for the registrar and his subordinates, while on the ground floor of the centre offices are provided for the administrator-

general, for the auditor-general, for the provost-marshal, the deputy postmaster-general, the financial-accountant, the receiver-general, and other functionaries. This fine building was commenced in 1829, and was completed and occupied in 1834. It has cost altogether about 60,000*l.* sterling. It is built of brick, with the exception of floors, roof, doors, and stairs, which are constructed of the valuable woods of the colony. The galleries are of iron; the roof is slated, and by means of large gutters the rain is conducted to two large cisterns, which are placed at the back of each wing.

In the year 1845 a prospectus was issued of a "Demerara and East Coast Railway," to run between the city of Georgetown and Mahaica village, a distance of about twenty miles. The capital proposed was 100,000*l.* or 480,000 dollars, in 10,000 shares of 10*l.* or 48 dollars each; but it has been necessary to borrow more money to carry on the work, as the difficulties and expenses have been greater than anticipated.

It was commenced, under the superintendence of Mr. Catherwood, in November, 1846, and after considerable difficulty in the way of labour, and the necessity of forming a substantial foundation for the line on such a swampy soil, it was opened for traffic on the 3rd November, 1848, as far as the village of Plaisance, about five miles from Georgetown, and extends at present as far as Victoria, a large village, about sixteen miles distant. The number of stations is six, viz., Georgetown; Plaisance village, 5 miles; Beter Verwagting, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Vigilance, 10 miles; Plantation Enmore, $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Victoria village.

It has been chiefly owing to the skill and industry of Mr. Manifold, the engineer who succeeded Mr. Catherwood, that the line has hitherto progressed so far. Since Mr. Manifold's retirement, in 1852, his place has been

ably supplied by the present general manager, Mr. Cameron. The cost of the undertaking to the 31st of December, 1852, was 230,000*l.* sterling. The amount received for traffic, passenger and freight, up to the 31st of December, 1852, was 12,000*l.*

The light-house is situated in Kingston district, Georgetown, at the angle of land formed by the east sea coast and mouth of the river Demerara. It is built of brick, and has an iron roof and gallery, from which latter a splendid view of the city may be had. The height of the building is about 100 feet. At night, a powerful fixed light is burned, which may be seen many miles off. The materials of the structure were imported from England, except the wood for the floors and inside stairs, which were the production of the colony. It cost about thirty thousand dollars, and was finished in 1830. It is under the management of the "Pilot Establishment," and has a competent staff to attend to the necessary duties.

From the period of its erection up to the year 1849, the approach of vessels was announced by signal flags placed on a staff at its summit, but since that period the telegraph of flags has been superseded by the "semaphore," which is found admirably adapted for that purpose. By this method, communication is established with the light-ship, or floating light, which was placed on the Demerara Bar in 1838, and from which vessels coming to Georgetown procure pilots.

At a former period of our history the troops were stationed in wooden buildings, arranged for that purpose in Strabroek. They were subsequently transferred to Kingstown (the present Kingston), where what is called Fort William Frederick was erected, together with other buildings for the sick, officers, &c. In the year 1799 (January 31st), at a meeting of the Court of Policy,

Mr. Van de Paadevort offered the land of plantation Eveleary, about fifty-five acres in extent, for the sum of thirty thousand guilders, but the Court refused it on those terms, and offered him the sum of sixteen thousand guilders. Subsequently, appraisers were appointed on each side, and the lands, with the buildings it contained, were purchased by the colony for the sum of forty-seven thousand three hundred and seventy-four guilders. Two large wooden buildings, situated at the commencement of the east sea coast, were converted into barracks, and were styled the York and Albany Barracks, but in the time of Sir Benjamin D'Urban, or about 1825, the present splendid barracks of Eveleary were built at the expense of the British Government. They contain apartments for about twenty officers, and separate buildings for about four hundred men, exclusive of the engineers and artillery, who occupy the buildings about the fort, which, after all, does not deserve the name, but is simply a sea battery, mounting eighteen guns, and but little calculated to resist the approach of an enemy's steamer. The number of guns could easily be increased, however, for there are many others which are not mounted, but which are lying about inside the fort. Another range of buildings, close to the Kingston Bridge, is in use by the military, and capable of holding about one hundred men.

From a very early period the necessity of a local newspaper was felt. It was required at first chiefly to announce notices and appointments of different kinds, public and private vendues or sales, and to publish the enactments or ordinances of the governors and Court of Policy, as well as regulations, despatches, orders in Council, &c., when received from Europe. By-and-by, a little opinion and occasional argument was hazarded about the affairs of the infant colonies, until by degrees

the sentiments of the colonists took a bolder tone, and the variety of interests consequent on the progress of society and the growth of the settlements led to the expression of the views of the several parties. The official paper was no longer found sufficient for the wants of the community, and a variety of publications have been issued in Demerara and Berbice, as contemporaries of the various *Gazettes*, but either directly hostile to the local Government and its supporters, or with such different views and principles as to lead to the conclusion that they were the organs of the several political parties into which society was divided. The career of many of these publications has been brief, and the fate of several of them unfortunate, although the talent with which, in general, they have been conducted, is creditable to the community. Unfortunately, the language of calumny and slander, of private pique and personality, has prevailed in particular instances to an unwarrantable extent, but, as a general rule, although at first supported by the vicious taste, to which it pandered, of a small section of the community, the good sense of the majority prevailed, and the papers either ceased to be published altogether, or met with but a very limited and unremunerating circulation and support.

At present there are two newspapers published in Georgetown, on alternate days, while a third, the official *Gazette*, is issued twice a week, and contains merely a list of official notices. Of the two newspapers, the *Royal Gazette*, issued on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, is the oldest in existence, having been in circulation since 1816. It is more or less an official organ, and the present editor possesses considerable experience and knowledge. This paper receives an annual grant, for the publication of general notices and official documents.

The other newspaper, the *Colonist*, appears on the

alternate days of the week, and is edited by a gentleman of classical attainments, and of literary ability. In New Amsterdam, Berbice, there is but one local paper, the *Berbice Gazette*, which is ably conducted. Besides treating of local matters, these newspapers convey to the reading public the most interesting extracts from the numerous British and foreign periodicals of the day.

Public and private establishments for the purposes of education are not wanting in number in British Guiana; but with some few exceptions, the system at present in force is very imperfect, especially in the country districts, where the attendance of scholars is limited and irregular, the qualifications and characters of the teachers generally inferior, and the remuneration and advantages offered too slight to command emulation or improvement.

The office of inspector of schools was established in 1850, and it has certainly been of advantage to the country; but the difficulties of the subject of education are as great here as elsewhere. The present inspector, G. Dennis, Esq., is already known to the public by his reputation as an author, and is eminently qualified by his abilities and literary attainments to give an impulse and success to the important department placed under his charge. His late report on the subject of education, and of the schools in this colony, is ably written, and gives a correct and lucid exposition of the present system of education, its necessities and requirements, and contains practical and judicious suggestions, together with valuable statistical details, in reference to the various schools. The sum expended in 1852 for the service of schools throughout the colony, for salaries, grants, repairs to buildings, &c., amounted to twenty-seven thousand two hundred and eighty dollars and eighty-nine cents.

The useful and well-conducted institution of Queen's

College was established in 1844, and has proved of eminent service to the community by affording its members an opportunity of sending their children to a college where they can receive an excellent education, in many respects not inferior to similar establishments in Europe and America. The present principal, the Rev. George Fox, is admirably qualified by his acquirements and character for the position which, in some measure at a sacrifice to himself, he so worthily occupies; and during his superintendence the prospects of the college have materially improved. The number of scholars at present amounts to sixty, a few of whom are children of poor persons, destitute of one or both parents, and are educated gratis. There are assistant masters, who give instruction in the usual branches of education, and who are deservedly esteemed for their competency and attainments. There are several private schools in Georgetown for children, conducted by ladies of respectability.*

There are at present four places of interment in Georgetown and its suburbs, viz., Werk en Rust, Bourda's Walk, the New or Le Repentir, and the military burial-ground. The oldest burial-ground is that of Werk en Rust, which, in consequence of being choked up with the dead, is now no longer used for that purpose.† In the year 1797, a part of plantation Werk en Rust was offered by the proprietors to the Court of Policy as a fitting spot for a public burial-ground. The space was 42 roods in length in front, and 60 roods deep, comprising altogether an area of about $8\frac{1}{2}$ acres. The price asked was 20,000 guilders, or about 6200 dollars; but eventually the proprietor accepted the offer of 10,000 guilders,

* See Appendix, for some tables which afford an insight into the nature of the colonial schools. These tables are taken from the Report of the Inspector of Schools "on the extent and condition of education in British Guiana."

† According to the ordinance of 1847, no persons are to be allowed to be buried there for twenty years or more.

which was made by the colony. Regulations were subsequently published relative to the interment of bodies, and a public grave-digger was appointed, with table of fees, &c., 5th of February, 1803. In the event of parties not complying with the regulations, a penalty of 500 guilders was inflicted. The nature of the instructions to the sexton of this colonial burial-ground required him to keep it effectually cleaned and drained, that the graves be dug 6 feet deep by 3 broad, that the graves be not scattered, but placed at intervals of $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet from each other, that the burial-ground be divided into four parts.

After the purchase of part of the lands of plantation Eveleary, as a site for military barracks, &c., it became a custom to inter officers and soldiers in parts of the land set aside for that purpose, and the practice obtains at the present day; any person holding military rank, or having served in a military capacity at any former period of his life, is entitled to be interred in the Eveleary burial-ground.

The third burial-ground, that of "Bourda's Walk," comprises a portion of land formerly part of Vlissengen, and belonging to a Dutch gentleman of the name of Bourda. It was formerly intended for a private cemetery, and was so used for many years; but finding it a suitable place of burial, many persons of property applied for permission to inter their relatives there, which, on the payment of an entrance fee, they were allowed to do. The same practice continues to the present day. The sum asked varying according to circumstances; and, as a speculation, it has been leased by several persons for a term of years.

The fourth, or New Burial-ground, was lately purchased by the colony, in the year 1849, for the sum of 8400 dollars. It comprises a tract of land of about 22

acres, part of the old plantation "Repentir." It is divided into separate portions for the interment of members of the various churches now in existence. Thus, one-fourth is allotted to the Church of England; one-eighth to the Roman Catholic Church; three-eighths to the general burial-ground; the remaining one-fourth being unappropriated at present.

There are five principal gaols in British Guiana, besides temporary lock-up stations, the total cost of which, for the service of the year 1852, was 24,844 dols. and 65 cents, less the sum of 431 dols. and 8 cents, received for dieting military prisoners. These gaols are situated in the city of Georgetown, the town of New Amsterdam, in Mahaica, in Waakenaam, and in Capoeiy districts.

The Georgetown gaol is the largest and most important. It was established many years ago, and, as at present conducted, reflects credit on the colony for the cleanliness, order, and discipline maintained by its officers. It consists of several detached and solid buildings, all of which are enclosed by a lofty wooden paling, which is extensively spiked and armed with a *chevaux de frise* of crossed iron spikes at the top. The building, for the reception of criminal offenders, consists of a substantial three-story edifice made of brick, and which contains about 80 cells, in each of which several prisoners may be confined if necessary. In this building the "treadmill" is placed, and there is space for in-door exercise. A kind of chapel is also fitted up, where divine service is performed every Sunday by the visiting chaplains.

A large wooden building adjoining is reserved for the use of debtors, separate apartments for female prisoners, as well as a fine infirmary or hospital, dwelling-house of the gaoler, kitchen, and other out-buildings, are all situated within the precincts of the gaol, which, for clean-

liness, ventilation, and order, is nowhere surpassed. It is capable of containing about 200 prisoners; the number at present confined is as follows:

91 male ; 14 female ; 13 in hospital—total, 118.*

In 1838 there was a proclamation by his Excellency Governor Light, of "an act for the better government of prisons in the West Indies," enacted by her Majesty the Queen in Council, which directed the appointment of inspectors of prisons, and established certain rules and regulations to be enforced. The present inspectors of prisons are the chief justice, the attorney-general, the Government secretary, the senior elective member of the Court of Policy, the stipendiary magistrates, the inspector-general, and the police magistrate.†

The penal settlement is situated on a rocky height on the banks of the river Mazaruni, close to its junction with the Essequibo, in 6 deg. 24 sec. N. lat., and 58 deg. 45 sec. W. lon., and presents an imposing appearance to the traveller who sails up that noble river. The eminence on which this convict establishment is placed commands a view of the river Essequibo, and two of its principal tributaries, the rivers Mazaruni and Cayuni. It is perfectly isolated from inland communication, vast and impenetrable woods surrounding it on all sides, except where the river washes the foot of the height, thus rendering it a suitable spot for the confinement of hardened criminals.

It was established in 1843 by Governor Light, who appointed a superintendent, a surgeon, and the necessary subordinates. The first superintendent, the late Mr. Horan, was very active in laying out the grounds and building suitable cells for the reception of the first gang

* August 3, 1853.

† See Appendix, for a tabular statement of the number of prisoners confined in the gaols.

of prisoners who were sent there. None but males are transported, and only those whose term of confinement is for a long period, or for life. The original buildings have been since superseded by recent structures, which consist of a spacious wooden house for the superintendent, of smaller houses for the other officers, and a range of cells or prison-rooms, formed of the granite stone which abounds in the neighbourhood, and which is worked by the prisoners. Large quarries have been excavated, and the fragments either broken up or sent in masses to Georgetown for building and road-making purposes. Each prisoner is confined in a separate cell at night, and during the day is kept at work, unless ill, when he is sent to the hospital.

The working convicts are mustered each morning and are distributed into gangs, each of which has one or more guards, who are armed with rifle and sword, if considered necessary by the superintendent. The gangs are employed in the stone quarries, in cutting, splitting, or sawing wood; in clearing land, in field or garden work, according to the views of their superiors.

At Mr. Horan's death, in 1845, he was succeeded by Mr. Crichton, who added considerably to the improvement and success of this useful institution. He laid out the grounds in a very ornamental manner, and planted them with bread fruit and other trees, vegetables, &c., besides building a great portion of the present structures, and otherwise opening up the capabilities of the place.

A commission of inquiry appointed by the acting Lieutenant-Governor, W. Walker, Esq., in 1848, having involved Mr. Crichton in certain strictures connected with the establishment, he was superseded by Lieutenant Bott of the Royal Navy, who, on the 8th September, 1849, was removed from Leguan, where he acted as a stipendiary magistrate, to the superintendence of the

penal settlement. This gentleman had considerable experience in the general management of prisons and convict establishments, and the settlement was undoubtedly benefited by many of his suggestions and arrangements. He was, however, removed from the situation in November, 1851, and his place temporarily filled up by the late Mr. Van Waterschoot, Inspector-General of Police, who continued to improve the condition of the settlement, and to give great satisfaction in its superintendence, until his death, which took place there in March, 1852, when the present active superintendent, Mr. Cartwright, was appointed by his Excellency Governor Barkly. This gentleman was one of the stipendiary magistrates of the colony, and since his appointment the affairs of the settlement have been quietly, usefully, and skilfully conducted.

The present staff consists of a superintendent or resident commissioner; assistant superintendent and storekeeper; superintendent in charge of detached labour and agriculture; a resident surgeon; a schoolmaster and catechist; a clerk and measurer; four overseers; four sub-overseers; twelve guards; one carpenter, and one blacksmith. Their united salaries amounted to 14,158 dollars for the year 1853. The total expenses for the service of the penal settlement in 1852 amounted to nearly 20,000 dollars. From this sum, however, must be deducted the value realised for the work performed during the same period. This amounted to 8017 dollars and 70 cents. The actual revenue from produce sold was 6162 dollars, but a considerable quantity of green-heart planking, broken stone, and shingles ready for delivery remained on hand. With the admirable discipline and habits of industry introduced and promoted by the present resident commissioner, this useful establishment promises to become in time almost self-sup-

porting. The religious and moral training of the convicts is, as far as possible, carefully attended to, and many of them have been taught to read and write.*

The rivers of this colony being large, and the difficulty of establishing bridges being difficult in consequence of the size and powerful currents of the larger streams, it was found necessary at a very early period to establish a ferry across the river Demerara, and another across the river Berbice. The boats employed on this service were formerly very bad. In 1797 the ferry across the Demerara was farmed for six years, and the Commander and Court of Policy offered the sum of ten thousand guilders to put it on a proper footing; the charges then established were six bits for a white person, and two for negroes; but Government negroes had a free passage over. Since this period the ferry has been periodically contracted for by different parties, and annual grants allowed to have it conducted in a proper manner in Demerara. From the year 1830 steamers have been engaged for the ferry of the river Demerara, and the last contract was entered into by Mr. George Booker, who unfortunately has not as yet been able to procure a steamer in England suited for the purpose, and according to the terms of the contract of 1852. The old steamer ately applied to that purpose is completely useless, in consequence of deficient machinery; so that persons at present are compelled to put up with the system of fer-

* The following table gives an account of the present inmates:

ANALYSIS OF CRIMES OF CONVICTS IN THE YEAR 1852.

Murder.	Rape.	Arson.	Homicide.	Burglary.	Assault.	Forgery.	Theft.	Fraud.	Broke out of gaol.	Rioting.	Wounding.	Desertion.	Bestiality.	Highway Robbery.	Killing animals.	Damaging machinery.	Total.
5	25	8	8	56	3	4	58	1	20	8	4	1	201

riage complained of in 1797. The new steamer is, however, shortly expected, and it is to be hoped will realise public expectation. An annual grant of 2333 dollars is allowed by the colony to the contractors. The ferry across the river Berbice has not as yet been supplied with a steamer, and large boats are used for the purposes of transit.

There are toll-bridges established at the small streams of Mahaica, Mahaicony, and Abary, in the county of Demerara, and one at the river Canje, in the county of Berbice. Steam communication is also established between the three counties of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. It was formerly the custom to travel from one river to the other by the colonial schooners, or estate droghers, employed in carrying the produce of the estates for shipment to Georgetown or elsewhere. Frequent attempts were subsequently made to procure one or more steamers to ply between these districts; but from one cause and another the attempts, although carried into execution, were never of long continuance, and were, in consequence, abandoned until lately. An admirable steamer, the *Tyne*, has, however, been imported by a spirited colonist, Mr. Bayles, and plies regularly to Essequibo and Berbice.

CHAPTER III.

THE CLIMATE AND MEDICAL HISTORY OF BRITISH GUIANA—TEMPERATURE—MONTHLY SKETCH OF WEATHER—PRESSURE OF ATMOSPHERE—WINDS—ELECTRICITY—EARTHQUAKES—DEW—HUMIDITY—RAIN—EFFECTS OF CLIMATE ON STRANGERS—GENERAL REMARKS—SHORT ACCOUNT OF SOME OF THE PRINCIPAL DISEASES OF THE COLONY—IMMUNITY FROM CERTAIN DISORDERS—EPIDEMICS—COMPARISON OF MORTALITY BETWEEN THIS AND OTHER COUNTRIES.

BRITISH GUIANA has acquired an unenviable notoriety both in Europe and the West Indies for the insalubrity in its climate, and for the mortality which has occurred among Europeans and others who have visited its malarious shores. An attempt to inquire into the medical history of the country has never to my knowledge been made, although several writers have at different times incidentally alluded to the subject; some, including Hartsinck, St. Clair, and Pinckard, regarding it as inimical to all constitutions except those of the aborigines; and others, among whom we may reckon M. Martin, Schomburgk, and Hancock, assert that the proportions of deaths is not greater here than in many countries of Europe. The reports of occasional travellers have tended to confirm the former belief, and at the present day the popular opinion as regards the healthful-

ness of this colony is decidedly unfavourable; nor can it be denied that it appears to be well founded, when in the scanty annals of the land we find so many evidences of protracted and fatal sickness among troops, immigrants, and others. Upon inquiring, however, into the circumstances, and other conditions connected with the introduction of masses of people into a new country, it will be found necessary to separate the simple effects of climate upon the constitutions of such persons from the many extraneous causes which contribute to produce symptoms and feelings unfavourable to health, and if it be found that causes over which the individual has control operate to the disadvantage of his sanitary condition, surely it becomes only a matter of justice to attribute to the climate only those effects that are exclusively consequent on its action, and to reject altogether those which are brought about only by the moral forces. It is of much importance that this should be distinctly understood, for the question of health is one of paramount interest to every individual, and many persons are induced to settle in various parts of the globe only in consequence of the general belief that such places are favourable to the enjoyment of health; whilst on the contrary, where it is a matter of choice, they studiously avoid countries stigmatised by the opprobrium of insalubrity.

But as there are undoubtedly some countries where epidemic diseases constantly obtain, as for instance, fevers of various kinds on the coasts and rivers of Africa, agues in some parts of Holland, the goitre in Switzerland, so there are others which, although visited by occasional severe and fatal epidemics, yet are not incompatible with the existence of life under many favourable circumstances. Again, it must be remembered that there

are certain temperaments which require particular localities to suit their condition, and it is a matter of everyday experience that some constitutions predisposed to certain diseases are more ready to contract such when exposed to changes of temperature favourable to their development than others whose diathesis is antagonistic to their influence; moreover, a district remarkably affected with the prevalence of any one particular disease is often also notorious for its immunity from many others, so that such districts, although baneful to some habits of body, are actually found to be most advantageous to others. Whilst, therefore, a country may be justly condemned for fevers, dysentery, or local disease, we should not, therefore, conclude that it is unfavourable to health in other respects; and the public, before they adopt the opinion of the decided unhealthfulness of a climate, should be first satisfied that its mortality is constant, universal, and beyond the ordinary average.

The consideration of climate is so intimately connected with the history of disease, that before I enter upon an inquiry into the latter, as connected with British Guiana, I consider it indispensably necessary, in the first instance, to collect as many facts connected with the temperature, humidity, density, and other conditions of the atmosphere as are within my observation and knowledge, and to submit all the meteorological information which has been advanced or collected by others.

The climate of British Guiana varies according to the different situations in which individuals may be placed. The most marked difference occurs in this respect between the alluvial maritime portion and the mountainous or inland regions; again, considerable diversity obtains in the alluvial districts between such portions of land as are fronting the sea, as the coast, and those in

the vicinity of the rivers or creeks. The difference in temperature between the maritime and inland regions is very great. The mean temperature for the year in the former is 80, the maximum 90, the minimum 70, a limited range of 20 degrees; whilst in the interior it has a varying range of 11 or 12 to 35 degrees in a few hours, the maximum temperature being about 95 in the shade, and the minimum about 60 Fahrenheit. But this low temperature is only prevalent in the high mountains, according to Sir R. Schomburgk. The mean of observations at 6 and 9 A.M., 12, 3, and 6 P.M., in 1838, during a stay of three months in Perara, situated in the middle of the savannahs on the banks of the lake Amucu, in lat. 3 deg. 39 min. N., long. 59 deg. 16 min. W., and 600 feet above the level of the sea, gave the following results:

MONTH.	BAROMETER. In English inches and decimals.				THERMOMETER. Fahrenheit's Scale.			
	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Greatest Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Greatest Range.
April . .	29.500	29.286	29.394	.214	93.5	73.	82.3	20.5
May . . .	29.500	29.292	29.460	.208	91.	73.5	81.	17.5
June . . .	29.496	29.429	29.429	.106	90.	73.5	81.07	16.5

These observations were continued during the months of July and August, at Fort Sao Joaquim de Rio Branco, in lat. 31 deg. 1 min. N., and long. 60 deg. 3 min. W., and gave the following results:

MONTH.	BAROMETER. In English inches and decimals.				THERMOMETER. Fahrenheit's Scale.			
	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Greatest Range.	Highest.	Lowest.	Mean.	Greatest Range.
July . . .	29.722	29.500	29.6211	.222	86.5	74.8	80.69	11.7
August .	29.730	29.500	29.6178	.230	88.	76.	82.16	12.

TABLE showing the monthly means of Temperature, from Observations in Georgetown, for five years.

MONTHS.	YEARS.						
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January . . .	79.2	77.8	77.7	78.4	77.4	78.2	78.7
February . . .	79.0	77.4	77.7	78.0	78.2	78.0	78.5
March	79.8	77.9	78.1	78.6	78.9	78.8	78.3
April	80.6	78.4	79.4	78.5	79.1	79.2	79.8
May	80.7	78.4	78.6	78.7	78.8	78.8	79.7
June	79.8	78.2	78.4	77.9	79.4	78.1	78.7
July	79.3	78.8	79.0	77.7	79.5	80.0	79.2
August	79.4	80.1	80.0	79.2	79.8	79.9	80.6
September . . .	81.5	80.6	80.3	80.7	82.1	80.9	81.7
October	80.0	80.5	81.4	80.9	82.3	81.0	82.0
November . . .	80.3	80.3	80.7	79.6	81.5	80.0	80.8
December . . .	79.0	78.9	78.4	78.5	79.9	79.4	78.2

The reader will at once perceive a difference in the range of temperature between the interior and the town, but if we exclude the more mountainous districts, it will be found that through all the country the temperature may be considered as singularly uniform, and quite compatible with health. The absolute temperature is, moreover, rendered less inconvenient by the prevalence of the sea breeze, which, coming from the east, gives a refreshing coolness to the atmosphere. It is more particularly when deprived of this agreeable visitor that the immense relief it affords to the system is experienced, for without it life would be a torment, and almost insupportable. This sea breeze commences from 8 to 10 A.M., and attaining its maximum about 2 P.M., dies away gradually about sun-set. Very often, indeed, it continues throughout the night; but according to theory, and frequently to practice, a breeze springs up from the land, and proceeds seaward. This night air, which, for the most part, consists in nothing more than a light zephyr, floating irregularly and idly over the land, is considered (and justly) to be unwholesome. No one who has had much

experience in having to go out during the night for most of the months of the year but has felt its damp, cold, sepulchral breath, often charged with the miasm of disease, and too often loaded with effluvia from decomposing animal and vegetable matter, which, in fact, constitute the chief, if not all, of the elements essential to the development of morbid matter in the system.

The following is a monthly sketch of the weather, as observed by myself, for several years:

January.—Uncertain, variable weather; mixture of rain and sunshine; temperature moderate, under 80; winds rather high, and northerly, rendering the air cool; mosquitoes rather numerous; cases of fever mild; generally but little sickness. Fruit in season: mangoes, soursop, oranges, shaddock, limes, and grenadillas. Fish: snook, queriman, mullets, shrimps.

February.—Variable weather, occasional showers; pleasant cool month; temperature under 80; winds strong; health of town moderate; mosquitoes not very troublesome. Fruit in season: mangoes (abundant), limes, oranges, sabbadillas, soursop, mispel.

March.—Boisterous weather, winds high, northerly; air cool, evening chilly and dry; temperature under 80; few mosquitoes, few showers, town healthy, coughs and colds often prevalent. Fruit in season: limes, oranges, pines, sabbadillas, guavas, simitous (commencing). Fish in season: snappers, flounders, snook, &c. Birds: wild ducks, pigeons, parrots.

April.—Quantity of rain increasing, occasional land breezes; temperature under 80; wind easterly, and not so high; more mosquitoes; sickness not very prevalent. Fruit in season: guavas, oranges, sabbadillas, pines.

May.—A gloomy, rainy month, close weather, land breezes, occasional thunder, the most disagreeable time

of the year. Temperature higher, but under 80; absence of usual sea-breeze. Wind southerly, mosquitoes abundant; sickness increasing, rheumatic affections, agues. Daylight till after 6 P.M. Fruit in season; guavas, cherries, oranges, grapes, pines, bell-apple. Fish in season: snappers, crabs, flounders, &c. Insects prevalent: hardbacks, winged ants, and moths. Birds: wild ducks.

June.—Decided rainy weather, estates often under water. Plantation walks injured, very little wind. Temperature higher, about 80; more sickness, inflammations prevalent, agues. Fruit in season: shaddocks, oranges, cherries, papaws, grenadillas. Insects prevalent: hardbacks, winged ants, and moths.

July.—Weather becoming dry, occasional land breezes, air sultry, temperature higher, (mean) under 80; winds easterly, but not high, mosquitoes numerous, thunder; sickness increasing, fevers (bilious and typhoid), coughs and colds, diarrhoeas. Fruit in season: shaddocks, oranges, limes, papaws.

August.—A disagreeable month, close mornings, dry, hot weather, temperature, (mean) about 80; frequent thunder, with occasional rain; wind often from south; some mosquitoes. Very sickly, eruptive fevers, sore-throats, rheumatism. Fruit in season: guavas, oranges, limes, figs, papaws, melons, sabbadillas, cherries.

September.—A fine month, strong invigorating sea-breezes, but also occasionally from the land or south. Temperature (mean) 80, or more; air dry, days not so long, nearly dark at 6 P.M. Sickness prevalent, fevers; few mosquitoes. Fruit in season: guavas, limes, oranges, papaws. Birds: plover, curlews, snipe, curri-curris.

October.—An agreeable month, dry, with occasional showers. Temperature (mean) 80, or more; wind high, often from the south; nearly dark at 6 P.M.; few mos-

quitoes, distant thunder and lightning. Fruit in season: guavas, oranges, limes, sabbadillas (ripening), mangoes (commencing).

November.—Weather becoming wet, variable southerly winds, light. Temperature (mean) 80; sickness abated; mosquitoes towards end of month; coughs and colds. Fruit in season: mangoes, oranges, soursop, papaws.

December.—Pleasant weather, air cool. Temperature (mean) under 80; wind easterly, showery; not many mosquitoes; sickness ordinary, affection of bowels, rheumatism, fevers. Fruit in season: mangoes, oranges, limes, sabbadillas, cherries, papaws.

TABLE showing monthly range of Temperature, Georgetown.

MONTHS.	YEARS.				
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.
January	9.2	8.4	8.5	9.3	
February	9.6	8.1	8.8	9.0	
March	9.8	7.3	8.3	8.7	
April	9.3	7.3	9.4	9.1	
May	9.5		9.1	9.6	
June	9.9		10.2	10.4	
July	11.5		11.3	10.8	
August	11.6		12.8		not recorded.
September	11.7		12.5		
October	12.7		12.3		
November	11.5		10.8		
December	9.5	9.4	10.3		

It will be seen by the examination of these tables how remarkably equal is the temperature, and how limited the daily range, rendering, perhaps, the climate of this country one of the most delightful in the tropics, nay, in the world. The absence of intolerable heats, and of very low temperature, enables the valetudinarian to prolong a delicate life; but whilst such advantages are

afforded to some, it must not be overlooked that there are evils attendant on this almost stagnant temperature. The majority of persons on arriving for the first time within the colony are agreeably surprised to find the heat so little oppressive, and the climate altogether so agreeable. They can scarcely believe themselves in the West Indies, or rather Southern America, and affirm that the heat here is nothing compared to what is felt in the "dog days" of Europe, and the occasional heats of summer; they are often surprised to see the thermometer at 85 degrees of Fahrenheit in the shade, without feeling inconvenience by this abundance of caloric. Advantage of this circumstance has been taken in the construction of the houses, which, with their numerous windows and wing-like verandahs, or galleries, enable the inhabitants to be protected from the sun and rain, whilst they at the same time may be said to live in the open air. According to Stedman, the length of days and nights never vary more in British Guiana than forty minutes. The pressure of the atmosphere has been but imperfectly investigated as yet. The sympiesometers and barometers used for such a purpose have not been sufficiently delicate to be much relied upon. No direct relation has been traced between the state of the weather and the indications of this latter instrument. Thus, on days when the fall of rain has been very great, the column of mercury in the barometer is found exactly the same as it has been in dry weather, or on days when no rain fell. Any change observable in this instrument occurs oftener after the phenomena have actually set in than before; so that as an indicator of approaching change, it may be regarded as almost valueless.

TABLE showing the monthly means of Atmospheric Pressure.

MONTHS.	YEARS.						
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January . . .	In. Dec. 29.971	In. Dec. 29.952	In. Dec. 29.910	In. Dec. 29.933	In. Dec. 29.932	In. Dec. 29.893	In. Dec. 29.964
February . . .	30.003	30.009	29.941	29.948	29.948	29.866	29.936
March	29.977	29.983	29.932	29.930	29.951	29.937	29.939
April	29.925	29.995	29.930	29.931	29.963	29.964	29.927
May	29.928	29.977	29.896	29.926	29.922	29.934	29.923
June	29.964	29.975	29.955	29.959	29.930	29.972	29.954
July	29.997	29.958	29.947	29.972	29.936	29.955	29.940
August	29.975	29.931	29.948	29.948	29.962	29.980	29.941
September . .	29.924	29.911	29.913	29.952	30.010	29.935	29.929
October	29.927	29.915	29.887	29.912	29.942	29.893	29.895
November . . .	29.902	29.893	29.887	29.875	29.899	29.866	29.876
December . . .	29.912	29.911	29.867	29.882	29.936	29.937	29.911

I have been informed by Mr. Sandeman, the intelligent observer of the Georgetown Astronomical and Meteorological Society, that he has been led to believe that the deflections of the magnetic needle indicate very correctly the approach of rain, the oscillations becoming more marked and irregular a little before the fall of rain. It will have been observed that the column of mercury in the barometer rarely reaches to 30 inches, and never descends below $29\frac{1}{2}$, and that its range is remarkably limited. Fortunately for this country we have never been visited by those violent hurricanes and earthquakes which devastate other lands, and which undoubtedly would produce striking changes even in the most unsusceptible instruments. As might, however, have been expected, the barometer has fallen on those occasions when anything like a smart shock of earthquake has happened, as in February, 1843; August, 1844; October, 1844; and September, 1846.

From the observations already made by the Georgetown Astronomical and Meteorological Society, no marked influence on the barometer has been noticed by the action of sun, or moon, or wind, which by some philo-

sophers have been supposed likely to affect the column of mercury. The approach of southerly wind is, however, generally followed by a fall of the barometer. The direction of the wind in British Guiana, owing, perhaps, to its situation in the tropics, is easterly throughout the greater part of the year. Its range is, comparatively speaking, very limited, veering between the points of the compass from E. by N. to E. by S., S.E. to N.E. For days, nay weeks, together, especially in the dry season, the sea-breeze coming from N.E. scarcely exceeds a range of two or three points, and its force is almost as constant for the whole of that period. It blows throughout the day and night for several months in the dry weather, and during this period the weather is generally the most agreeable; but as the sun travels northward the wind becomes lighter, or the sea-breeze is gradually exchanged for land-winds. It will generally be found (and a comparison with the tables deduced from the results of a Whewell's anemometer seem to confirm this) that the greatest velocity which the wind attains is when it has a north-easterly origin. Thus, in the month of March, when, as a general rule, the wind is highest, it will be seen that the direction was, in 1846, E. by N.; in 1847, E. by N.; in 1848, E.N.E.; whilst, on the contrary, when it proceeds from a southerly point, the velocity is at its minimum. The comparative force of the winds throughout the year is as the number 25 to 150 (Dr. Blair says, 34·65 to 313·59); but Mr. Sandeman observes that the land-wind has little or no power. So that the greatest force with which the wind is propelled is, on an average, more than six times as great as it is at other times.

This does not of course apply to squalls or gales, when, indeed, the indications by the anemometer are almost

beyond calculation for a short time; fortunately for the inhabitants of this country, it has never occurred within the memory of man that anything like a hurricane has been felt. This is somewhat remarkable, considering that for two centuries the colonists have lived upon the very confines of that ocean over which the devastating gale has sped with such fatal fury. No one expects a hurricane on a continent or large tract of land; but it is not a little singular that within a few miles so many hurricanes should have swept by, ravaging portions of isolated spots in the Caribbean Sea, and leaving unscathed, as it were by a miracle, the exposed frontiers of our land. Is it possible that the resistance offered by the northern and southern continent of America, with their mountain heights and wooded lands, which are favourable to the formation and existence of clouds, can explain this? whilst over the Caribbean Sea the wind is urged, as it were, into a vacuum, under the influence of some momentous change occurring in the aerial currents, beyond the narrow isthmus which separates it from another mighty ocean.

TABLE showing the direction of the Wind for five years.

MONTHS.	YEARS.				
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.
January	E by N	E by N	E by N	E N E	E by N
February	E N E	E N E	E $\frac{1}{2}$ N	N E by E	E N E
March	E by N	E by N	E by N	E N E	E by N
April	E by N	E	E by N	E by N	E
May	E	E	E by S	E	E by S
June	E by S	E	E by S	E	E S E
July	S E by E	E	E by S	E by S	E S E
August	E by S	E by S	E by S	E by S	E S E
September	E	E S E	E by S	E	E
October	E S E	E by S	E	E	E
November	E by S	E by S	E	E	E
December	E by S	E $\frac{1}{2}$ N	E $\frac{1}{2}$ N	E by N	E

The first six months of the year are the most windy, and the temperature bears some slight relation to the wind, those months being also the coolest, with a few exceptions. Sometimes, especially during the wet season, there is a complete absence of the usual sea-breeze; but, fortunately, never for a long duration. It is very often, however, delayed, and does not set in during very rainy weather until after November, when it generally drives away the rain. The air is still and heavy, the long branches of the palm-trees are scarcely moved, and hang as listless as the vane of the scientific anemometer.

It is not to be supposed, however, that because the average direction of the wind is easterly, it never proceeds from the opposite quarter. This circumstance obtains, on certain days, when what is called the land-wind sets in from the S. or S.W., as has already been noticed, a mass of dark black clouds solemnly accompany its unwelcome presence, and the constitutions of the inhabitants are sensibly affected by its unwholesome influence. It is charged with both negative and positive evils; negative, inasmuch as it comes only as a substitute to the usual easterly current; and positive, as it is charged with the exhalations from the inland districts. Out of 365 days in 1846, the wind appeared in 60; and in 1847, in 70.

The interesting question of the amount of electricity in the atmosphere has likewise been but imperfectly investigated. This is particularly to be regretted, since its relations to animal and vegetable life might be more fully understood. How far this subtle but powerful agent exercises an influence over the mental as well as physical organisation in this country remains undecided; likewise its influence over both the healthy and morbid condition of life. We are also at a loss whether to attribute partly to its agency the singular fecundity of the

vegetable world so remarkable in British Guiana. The reader will perhaps recollect that this age of science has both suggested and practised the possible beneficial results of an accumulation of the electric fluid towards the soil as a stimulus to the growth of plants, and with apparent success. The subject is involved in difficulties and doubts, and it perhaps may be owing rather to the want of instruments capable of appreciating its development, than to the zeal of the scientific, that more is not recorded on the subject of atmospheric electricity. It has been asserted that, during warm weather and in a clear sky, "the electricity of the air increases from sunrise to noon; it remains then stationary for an hour or two, and again diminishes with the declining day and the appearance of dew; it revives again about midnight, and reaches its minimum a little before sunrise."*

I have myself attentively watched the indications of a common gold-leaf electrometer, which was conveniently placed for the facility of observations (possibly the elevation to which the wire was carried, about 80 feet, was not sufficiently high), and noted the divergence of the thin films of gold-leaf on a hot, dry day, when scarcely a cloud could be seen to vary the blue tint of the sky, and invariably remarked that on such bright days the indications of the electrometer were more frequent, which, indeed, might have been expected. It sometimes happened that, upon running to see the effect produced on it by a smart thunder-storm, it was found that the gold-leaf was completely blown away or crumpled, and upon one occasion the glass envelope which isolated it was broken; but on other similar occasions no such consequences followed, so that observers were at a loss when to expect any decided indication of its presence.

* Schomburgk's History of Barbadoes, p. 16.

The lightning in this country during severe thunderstorms is very vivid, and is frequently visible at almost every part of the horizon. It is rarely forked, or known to do much injury. The flashes are sometimes seen to burst from S.E. and N.E., and light up for a moment the whole sky. The thunder is in proportion grand and terrible. It is here the common opinion that some of our palms, such as the cabbage-tree (*Areca oleracea*), which abound in town and country, are admirable conductors of electricity, and this possibly may account for the little injury inflicted on man or buildings by this terrible power.* It is of frequent recurrence, more especially in the dry weather, that towards sunset faint flashes of lightning are visible towards the S. and S.E. and W., but never to my knowledge towards the N. These coruscations, as they may be termed, are never followed by thunder audible to us. This playful lightning, as it is called, commences about 4 P.M., and is sometimes prolonged long after sunset. It is sometimes, however, very vivid. Who will explain this beautiful phenomenon? Are these flitting flames the reflected images of the flash of the thunder-cloud in the far and mountainous interior?

Luminous bodies, such as meteors, falling stars, &c., are of frequent occurrence; there is rarely a night but such inflammatory objects attract attention, now resembling a star hurled down to earth, now a train of fantastic lights wandering through the sky.

Thunder is rarely heard in Guiana during those months which constitute winter in Europe.

Earthquakes are more or less frequent in this country. In 1766 there occurred a very severe earthquake in British Guiana, which was felt more particularly in

* It has been remarked, that if an electric eel is stirred by a person holding a common piece of wood, no sensation is felt, but if the bark of the cabbage-tree is used a smart shock is experienced.

Essequibo. No injury has, however, ever resulted from a severe "Tremblement de Terre," as the French significantly express it; of late the shocks (slight ones) have become more common, and scarcely a year elapses without some slight motion being experienced. They are of very short duration, but produce the most awful sensations to those not accustomed to them. The one most severely felt was that which occurred on Friday the 30th of August, 1844. A terrible storm of thunder and lightning had commenced at 7 P.M. the night before, accompanied with torrents of rain, and the alarmed inhabitants of the city and neighbourhood had scarcely sank into repose when, at about half-past 3 A.M., a loud rumbling sound awoke in an instant every individual. The very animals were scared—their several noises, more particularly the howling of the dogs, added to the general terror. Scarcely had the unearthly rumbling sound described reached its height when a violent shaking of the earth took place for nearly a minute—the whole houses and buildings seemed rocked to and fro; an awful pause then succeeded, the rumbling sound was heard dying away, when a second shock more dreadful than the first occurred, lasting a little longer, and threatening all and everything with instant death. But there was a merciful Providence who, guiding the storm and ruling the earthquake, tempered mercy with majesty, and thanks to Him all were spared. There was not one life lost, but most of the inhabitants had rushed from their beds and houses, and were on the point of flying they knew not whither, when the shocks ceased. No tidings ever reached these shores of an injury inflicted on other lands. How very different to the earthquake which was felt so severely in this country—destroying the town of Point à Pitre, in Guadaloupe, and many of its wretched inhabitants—on the memorable morning of the 8th of February, 1843. It was noticed here about 11 A.M. of that day, and little

did the inhabitants of this colony deem that, at the very moment when they were attending to its ominous phenomena, that so many of their fellow-creatures were suffering from its violence. The climate of British Guiana is essentially humid. The ratio of humidity for the year is from 700 degs. to 800 degs., saturation being 1000 degs. As the night is generally from 8 degs. to 10 degs. cooler than the day, the moisture contained in the atmosphere, when the sky is clear and favourable to its development, is deposited in the form of dew, which is very abundant during the nights of the dry season, when the sky is usually free from clouds, which by radiation would keep up the temperature of the earth, so as to interfere with the deposition of dew so necessary to vegetation in the absence of rains. On looking out of a window, a little before sunrise, the stranger is often surprised to see the landscape covered with a kind of mist like to the hoar frost of winter in Europe. The reason of this is plain:—The greatest degree of cold obtains about 5 to 6 A.M., when nearly all the moisture of the atmosphere is deposited as dew; by degrees, as the temperature increases, this is again converted into vapour, and is gradually seen to rise at the approach of the sun, like a withdrawn curtain, or the dissolving views of art.

The amount of evaporation is considerably modified by this abundant moisture; were it not for this, the temperature would be much more variable, and the system subject to many diseases from which it is now exempt. The force of evaporation measured by a Mason's hygrometer between the dry and wet bulb varies as much as 10 degs. on some days. The quantity of vapour in the atmosphere is of course modified by the amount of temperature, the state of the wind, and other circumstances.

Evaporation goes on slowly in calm weather, becomes greater as the wind increases, and with a strong breeze

obtains its maximum. It has been calculated that the mean annual evaporation of the whole globe is about 34 inches, which would give the enormous amount of 91,751 cubic miles of water annually evaporated. This large proportion would be immediately indicated by the barometer, which would be raised nearly 3 inches, were it not that a large amount of this is precipitated as rain in various parts of the world.

In this country the annual evaporation amounts to about 20* inches; and if we include the dew, about 25 inches. The ratio of humidity corresponds with the amount of rain, being greatest in wet weather. On some days of heavy rain it has approached almost to saturation. The vapours, the result of evaporation, ascend upwards by their specific lightness, and, besides their utility, contribute to the beauty of nature, by forming strata of visible vapours, known as clouds, which, at varying heights above the earth, generally from one to three miles, become subject to other and new laws, whilst to the eye they appear to be floating idly over the earth. As is well known, the appearance of clouds is indicative of the weather, nay, of the climate, for, as a general rule, the warmer the air the less clouded and less charged with visible vapours is the atmosphere, although the capacity for humidity increases in arithmetical progression.

But after all, these vapours or clouds are nothing more than moisture dissolved, or held in solution by the air, and whatever tends to alter the condition of the atmosphere, such as its temperature, its density, its electrical state, &c., has also the effect of decomposing, as it were, the mixture, and liberating the particles of vapour so that they may unite, and causes them to be precipitated to the earth in the form of rain, hail, or snow, according to circumstances.

* Deduced from tables of evaporometer kept in 1843 and 1844.

TABLE showing monthly means of Elasticity of Vapour.

MONTHS.	YEARS.						
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January790	.800	.805	.795	.807	.790	.799
February743	.767	.777	.775	.806	.785	.790
March777	.796	.794	.815	.817	.793	.799
April829	.808	.808	.818	.848	.849	.825
May887	.832	.857	.847	.876	.875	.864
June889	.837	.845	.854	.874	.850	.868
July863	.831	.830	.836	.873	.854	.860
August863	.840	.831	.860	.874	.871	.873
September856	.826	.841	.844	.849	.861	.854
October863	.811	.844	.847	.863	.847	.847
November857	.832	.847	.861	.851	.861	.861
December854	.811	.842	.830	.839	.830	.852

The quantity of rain which falls during the year has been computed, on an average, to be greater in countries near to the equator and to decrease gradually towards the poles. But there are numerous exceptions. Thus in England, where the mean annual fall of rain has been estimated at 35 inches, we find that in the vicinity of Cumberland and Westmoreland the quantity of rain that falls annually is above 50 inches, whilst in London it averages little more than 20 inches. Again, in the great deserts of Africa, rain is hardly ever known to fall; but in these and other places similarly situated, the deposit of dew is greater, and sufficiently answers the purpose of nature.

It is generally considered, however, that the number of days on which rain falls is smallest at the equator and greatest in proportion to the distance from it.

In Barbadoes, out of 487 days (according to Sir R. Schomburgk) there were 235 days without rain, or nearly one-half. The quantity which fell during that period amounted to 84.65 inches. In British Guiana, out of 1063 days (according to meteorological tables)

there were 502 days without rain, little less than half, the total depth of rain being 252 inches. The annual fall in the cultivated districts of British Guiana may be estimated at from 80 to 90 inches—rarely falling below 80, but frequently rising above 90, as will be seen by a reference to the tables. The two wettest months of the year are May and June, during which period the fall of rain amounts to nearly 30 inches. The showers during these months are very heavy. I have known frequently as much as from 2 to 6 inches of rain fall within 24 hours, and as much as 5 inches during one shower, lasting several hours. From 20th to 24th March, 1850, as much as 10 inches fell in four days.

From a clever analysis of the Georgetown observatory rain tables, in relation to the changes of the moon, by George R. Bonyun, M.D., president of the Astronomical and Meteorological Society, read before the society on the 30th June, 1846, the following conclusions were drawn by that gentleman:

1st. There is more rain during decreasing moon than during increasing, the excess being 27·76 inches.

2nd. There is not more rain on any day of change than on any other intermediate days, nor is change of weather more frequent on those days.

3rd. The largest quantity of rain is on the day after full and the day before last quarter; the smallest on the day of second octant and the day of first quarter.

4th. The quantity of rain on the days of new moon, full, third octant, last quarter, and last octant, is nearly equal, and much greater than on the days of first octant, first quarter, and second octant, the two last giving a comparatively very small quantity of rain.

5th. The lunar months being divided into groups of about 88 hours, the largest quantity of rain is on full moon group, 44·39; third octant, 36·00; last quarter,

31.56 ; new moon, 31.22 ; and the least on first octant, 29.67 ; last octant, 27.17 ; first quarter, 26.70 ; and second octant, 25.61.

6th. The lunar month being divided into four periods of 176 hours each, the largest quantity of rain is during full moon period ; the new and last quarters are equal ; the first quarter is the least.

7th. The conclusions 4th, 5th, and 6th are only applicable to the whole period ; for this period being divided into eight groups, the results are found to apply only to four of them.

INCREASING MOON.						DECREASING MOON.							
No. of Days.	Heavy Rains.	Light Rains.	Total.	Depth of Heavy Rains.	Depth of Light Rains.	Total.	No. of Days.	Heavy Rains.	Light Rains.	Total.	Depth of Heavy Rains.	Depth of Light Rains.	Total.
535	44	240	284	65.04	48.16	113.20	528	68	209	277	100.14	38.98	139.12

The results of this analysis are, however, opposed to similar calculations made in other countries, where it has generally been found that there is more rain during the increasing than the decreasing moon ; which fact obtains also in Barbadoes, according to Sir R. Schomburgk.

The effect of the heavy rains on vegetation is surprising ; for, although the foliage of plants is evergreen throughout the year, and their growth constant, still there is a marked effect produced on them by the fall of showers. Their leaves assume a fresher look, the functions of respiration, digestion, and circulation are invigorated ; renewed strength seems added to their already prolific power. Each of the two wet seasons may be re-

garded as the springs of temperate climates, when the sap is aroused to a more vigorous flow. Nor is the season neglected by man; owing to the want of native springs near to the inhabited districts, it has ever been the custom from time immemorial in this country to collect the rain-water which is carried off the tops of the houses by spouts into large reservoirs of wood, or iron, where it is allowed to settle, and drawn off as occasion requires. This soft rain-water forms the most refreshing beverage, and in no country of the world that I have ever visited is the water superior to this.

The rainy season probably depends on the change in the sun's position as it approaches the tropics; for in one of the wettest months of the year the sun arrives within 10 or 12 degrees of the tropic of Cancer, and gradually retrogrades towards the equator until the commencement of August, when the rains cease; but again begin to fall about November, when the sun approaches the tropic of Capricorn. The second fall, or short wet season, never equals the first, probably because the situation of Guiana is more distant from the southern than the northern tropic.

With respect to the division of the year into seasons, it has been long observed that there are four, two wet and two dry; although all persons agree as to this fact, they are not equally unanimous in defining the exact periods for each, which makes it at once apparent that there is some uncertainty or irregularity in their setting in. Many of the old colonists assert that there was formerly much more regularity in this respect to what there is at present, but they can furnish no data in support of their belief.

Generally speaking, the short wet season commences about the latter end of November, and lasts about two months, or to some time in January. The long wet

season lasts from the latter end of April to the month of July or August, about four months—the dry weather occurring in the other months. So that the year is marked by two seasons of six months' duration each, these periods being again subdivided into two terms of two and four months. Providence, in infinite wisdom, allows the long dry season to be followed by about two months of rain, and a similar short period of dry weather to take place ere the prolific showers of the long wet season set in. Torrents of water are then poured out over the earth, and are greedily absorbed. The creeks, the rivulets, the rivers swell and overflow their banks, especially at spring tides, when miles of land become converted into temporary lakes, their bosoms bedecked with bouquets formed of the waving tops of trees, and shrubs with their lively flowers. With such abundant moisture the giant of vegetation seems refreshed, and performs wonders incredible, save to eye-witnesses. The miasm of disease and infection is also begotten, waiting but for the genial sun to call forth that unseen agent so inimical to health.

Now it is that the sea-breeze of the dry season is so often wanting; a land wind sets in from the west or south-west, stalking in gloomy majesty over the land. Previous to its approach there is an awful stillness of the air, a close suffocating condition of the atmosphere. The summits of the lofty trees are still, and seem hushed as if in expectation of some coming evil. Towards the west and south-west banks of dark and gloomy clouds lie piled up in oppressive solemnity, gradually rising higher and higher in the sky, until their dark and aspiring forms meet the sun and obscure his brightness, casting their frowning shadows over the earth; a warm, unearthly air begins to float slowly and dismally from this dark mass, trailing its pestilential length over man

and beast; often the low thunder and pale lightning betray the powerful agent by which such clouds are accompanied, and occasionally burst forth in all the grandeur and solemnity of a fierce thunderstorm.

For many days these portentous clouds arise much about the same hour from the low horizon, and increasing their ascent in the sky more and more for several successive days, are either driven backwards by a favourable sea-breeze, or, disseminating their obscurity, end in the thunder-clap or deluge of rain.

What a contrast to the bright sky, without even a white cloud to vary the blue, that marks the dry season. The air clear and lucid, so that objects far off seem near even to contact—beautiful and deceptive as the Italian twilight; the waters sparkling with the fanciful sunbeams, and the green livery of nature rendered more gay by the golden light. It is true that the earth gapes with the protracted heat; it is true that endemic fever is sometimes liberated from its dark bed, but neither vegetation nor man sink under the enervating temperature so long as ordinary precautions are adopted. The varied tribes of trees and shrubs change not their hues, the old leaf droops not until a younger and more vigorous one has supplied its place. The brilliancy of a tropical day is only rivalled by the loveliness of its moonlight night, when a chaste but strong light lights up the smallest objects to view. The stars shine out in all their brightness whenever the moon wanes.

Orion with his golden belt is distinctly traced. The twinkling Pleiades revolve in beautiful brightness; the southern cross is seen high in the air, luminous and grand, while the evening star sparkles like a gem in the diadem of heaven. In the interior of Guiana the purity of the air is such that in the dry season the stars appear

like brilliants in the deep azure sky at night; and we not unfrequently perceive planets in the daytime. "I have often," says Dr. Hancock, "observed the planets Jupiter and Venus where the sun was 20 or 30 degrees above the horizon; in which case Venus appears, through a telescope, precisely like the moon in her first quarter. At the same time, the splendour of the moon and the zodiacal light contribute to make the nights most pleasing, and to throw a charm on every object." Meteors like to falling stars shoot down towards earth and then suddenly expire, like runaways from heaven.

The silver tops of the palm-trees still rustle in the air, myriads of magic fireflies hold their joyous jubilee, dazzling the air with perplexing brightness. The unwelcome mosquito and sandfly are not less active, the former buzzing about until it procures a victim, the latter unseen till felt; but it is chiefly in the wet season, or in rainy weather, that both fireflies and mosquitoes abound.

Comets have occasionally been recorded as visible here, the most remarkable of which was witnessed not many years ago. It made its first appearance on the 26th of December, 1842, about 7 P.M., and was situated about 5 deg. above the south-west horizon. The bearings were estimated about 40 deg. south declination; it remained visible until about the 17th of January, 1843.

By the observations of Mr. Donald and other gentlemen its right ascension and declination were calculated as under:

		Right Ascension.		Declension South.	
		h. m.		° "	
January	8th	22. 10	44. 00
"	10th	22. 32	44. 05
"	12th	23. 05	44. 15
"	15th	23. 30	44. 30

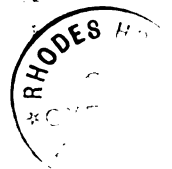


TABLE showing monthly fall of Rain during 7 years, commencing January, 1846.

MONTHS.	YEARS.						
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January . . .	2.069	9.289	6.652	5.601	15.165	3.900	6.075
February . . .	0.870	3.229	6.909	7.441	3.863	6.065	8.414
March	2.065	6.149	7.681	12.589	14.597	8.083	8.762
April	5.931	11.477	7.236	7.548	5.945	16.154	5.277
May	14.083	12.876	20.383	17.943	15.596	11.231	16.501
June	14.919	14.286	11.450	20.440	7.939	19.824	11.669
July	13.275	10.207	5.553	20.382	9.883	8.695	8.831
August	8.805	3.819	2.545	10.801	10.412	7.520	10.107
September . .	0.610	1.118	6.421	1.164	0.635	2.900	1.175
October . . .	5.884	3.290	0.603	3.550	1.865	2.710	0.520
November . .	5.574	7.299	3.488	10.359	5.153	12.070	5.025
December . .	11.226	10.291	18.819	14.401	6.311	3.656	12.185
	83.311	102.330	97.640	142.219	97.764	101.838	94.541

TABLE showing Ratio of Humidity.

MONTHS.	YEARS.						
	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
January . . .	727	778	787	757	812	737	747
February . . .	684	756	757	752	770	760	753
March	694	780	771	776	766	742	770
April	738	786	743	783	768	794	753
May	794	798	827	802	821	821	781
June	811	806	805	828	790	819	807
July	785	778	758	812	775	753	783
August	770	743	726	783	774	766	749
September . .	719	710	735	724	692	740	706
October . . .	755	702	716	725	699	733	698
November . .	759	738	746	786	724	766	751
December . .	814	772	811	790	756	747	812

Having thus gone over some of the principal features indicative of the climate of British Guiana, it remains shortly to consider the influence they have on the human body, and to notice some of the principal disorders to which they give rise. To the stranger arriving from a temperate climate the augmented temperature is sensibly felt, and a stimulus is temporarily given to the organs of circulation, and to the skin, which latter, as indicated by

the state of unusual activity of the capillary vessels, is thrown into a state of morbid activity, a corresponding stimulus is given to the exhalant vessels, and the sensible perspiration is materially increased in quantity, inducing considerable thirst. The function of the lungs, or inspiration, becomes exalted, and more respirations are taken during a minute than was usual before; but this state does not last. The nervous system soon becomes exhausted by the general tendency to increased activity throughout the whole body, and lassitude and fatigue are soon experienced. The appetite for food, although at first increased, is more or less impaired, and the digestion is not so perfect as before; thirst, and the inclination to drink, are early manifested, and a particular craving for sour or acidulated fruits or beverages is manifested. The skin, already in a state of activity, becomes irritated by the bites of mosquitoes and other insects, and whether from the quality of the blood, the active state of the absorbents, or other causes, in most constitutions a local inflammation follows, the part bitten becomes red, swollen, hot, and painful, and if further irritated by scratching or more bites, has a tendency to ulcerate; the feet and hands, indeed the whole body, assumes a temporary increase of bulk, which is singular, considering the augmented free perspiration; this does not continue very long, however, and most young persons become thinner after a short residence here.

From the increased temperature, it is no wonder that the individual tries to relieve himself by dressing as lightly as possible, by exposing himself to currents of cool air, and by drinking largely; often, indeed, making use of spirituous or vinous drinks to stimulate the flagging nervous energy. It would surely be needless to explain the imprudence of these proceedings. It may appear strange to say that a person can dress too lightly in a

climate where the natives, creoles and Africans, are accustomed to go about in a state almost of nudity without inconvenience, but it should be remembered that previous habits render the European obnoxious to any such marked change in his clothing, whilst custom as a second nature has innured the aboriginal to his scanty apparel. On the other hand, it is not intended to recommend the utility or prudence of wearing only woollen clothes or similar warm apparel; very often the vessels of the skin try to relieve themselves of their excited or congested state by developing eruptions, or, rather, the blood relieves itself in this way of any morbid element. Hence the stranger is sometimes annoyed at the appearance of boils, prickly heat, nettle-rash, or other cutaneous disorder. With caution and moderate living, frequent ablutions and cleanliness, and ordinary prudence, it is surprising how soon the system accommodates itself to the change during the process of acclimatisation. Very often in some individuals scarcely any of the above symptoms are experienced, and they settle down with as much comfort in this part of the new world as they enjoyed elsewhere. It is not a little remarkable that for the first few months, except during the presence of epidemics, it is rare for any individual to suffer from the effects of fever or ague, or, indeed, any other important disorder; whilst to most persons who practice cleanliness, temperance, and exercise, this country and climate may be considered as favourable as many others. It is not intended here to recommend a total abstinence from wine or malt. This, if not so erroneous as an improper abuse of stimulant, has also its evils. As the mind requires the stimulus of occupation, so does the body benefit by the moderate use of stimulants. A few glasses of wine, or one or two of malt, I can never believe to be injurious to health in this or any other climate. It renews to a

proper degree of activity the important function of circulation, digestion, and nutrition. Indeed, good living appears essential to good health, and there is an intolerance of unsubstantial articles of food, such as vegetables, starches, grain, &c. Whilst, however, the diminution of nervous energy alluded to has its inconveniences, it has also some advantages, one of the most marked of which is the general absence of severe constitutional symptoms attendant on some severe diseases, which elsewhere render the life of patients miserable. It would be going too far to say that there is a general absence of pain, but certainly it is remarkable that the most painful diseases to which human nature is subject are unknown here, or are greatly modified.

Neuralgic affections are rare, acute inflammatory diseases uncommon, and it will hardly be credited that persons are often met who have laboured for years under the most aggravated forms of cancer, diseases of the bones, deep and large ulcers, eruptions of the skin, without any of that marked suffering which in other countries characterises these distressing ailments. I have myself seen cases where extensive diseases of joints, of the eyes, of the mammæ, of the uterus, of bursæ, &c., have slowly progressed without the patient losing materially either their appetites, their flesh, or their natural rest.

Such absence of constitutional symptoms in similar diseases in Great Britain would be regarded as something approaching to the miraculous, whilst here it is the rule, and not the exception.

Again, parturition in the human female is unattended in this country with any of that severe suffering and delay which is so general in England and other countries. In ordinary cases, a few hours, generally from two to four, complete the delivery, with moderate pain.

Among the natives and lower orders, the exemption from suffering is still more remarkable. I have repeatedly seen cases where labour was safely accomplished in one hour, even in white females. Among the coloured and black population, I have known instances where the patient has bathed and walked about the day after confinement, without any evil consequences.

The foregoing remarks applying chiefly to new-comers; it may not be out of place to state here some of the peculiarities which attach to individuals long resident in this climate, or native to it. If we consider the skin, the stranger will be at once struck with the difference between its appearance here and in Europe. There is a general absence of florid complexion; the capillary vessels become languid from a diminution in the force of the circulation, the blood has a tendency to be determined from the surface to the internal parts, and hence a sallow look and internal congestion are apt to ensue; the value of exercise, therefore, in preserving health becomes evident, which, as is well known, disperses the blood through all parts of the body in a more equable manner. Where, however, persons are much exposed to the sun and weather, the complexion becomes tanned, bronzed, or freckled, according to circumstances, and something depends too on the habits of the individual. If very temperate, and a water drinker, the complexion keeps pale and the body thin; if inclined to wine and spirits, the face becomes reddish and mottled, and, in extreme cases, bloated, with a tendency to stoutness and large abdomen; if a lover of malt, a general increase of bulk is noticed, and the face is congested and often puffed.

In old residents there is a singular craving and partiality for salt provisions, and whatever food is taken

requires to be highly seasoned in order to suit their tastes.

Most Europeans, both male and female, become stout as age increases up to 55 or 60, when this tendency abates. It is seldom noticed that Europeans become very corpulent, and still more rare is it to see a corpulent black or creole man, although many of the women are of tolerable dimensions.

With a diminished circulation, the general power of life seems weakened, and the vigour of the intelligence and bodily energy diminished, unless kept active by mental and active employment. The disposition to exertion, both of body and mind, becomes less; languor of the brain, as of the heart, are followed by their definite results; hence, when not resisted and overcome, the system becomes relaxed, and the individual appears listless, indolent, and apathetic, of which the true type is the aboriginal native of the country, "The Buck."

In the European and Portuguese this is, perhaps, less observable than in those of other nations, as the African and the coolie; but possibly their previous habits and education may be considered the cause of this, rather than any physiological peculiarity. The habit of body once conformed to this condition, it becomes obnoxious to change; hence many old inhabitants, who retire to Europe, find that they have not such good health as in the tropics, and frequently return hither.

It cannot be denied that intermittent fever in some form or other prevails to a very great extent; but, as before noticed, new comers are not very subject to its attacks, except immigrants, and those who work in the field. It is only when the system has been long exposed to the contagion of miasm, or enervated by long residence, or otherwise debilitated and predisposed, that the

attack of this disorder is so distressing, and its sequelæ so injurious. It would be out of place to consider here its nature and treatment; but a few general remarks will, perhaps, be permitted.

Fever and ague are not dangerous; and if promptly and judiciously treated, rarely fatal. The blood becomes altered and impoverished during its progress, congestion of internal organs, especially the spleen and liver, are apt to take place; the surface becomes pale and sallow, the appetite fails, emaciation follows, and the whole constitution is affected. The body may be said to be poisoned, not by any deleterious agent introduced with the food, but by a noxious principle mixed up with the atmosphere inhaled. This circumstance renders it difficult of detection; but the elements being known that contribute to its formation, it often rests with men to be able to prevent its development by the well-known measures of good drainage, &c.

We cannot lessen the sun's heat; we cannot diminish the volume of moisture; but we can prevent the accumulation of the one to bear upon the superabundance of the other; indeed, it is a matter of notoriety, that within the memory of man, and in proportion to the land being drained, cultivated, and kept clean, so has the prevalence of this opprobrium of the colony been diminished. Again, it is more particularly in some parts of the country, as on the rivers, the creeks, and other very marshy spots, that the disease is so common. The coasts, the mouths of the rivers, the inland and high districts, are more or less free from this malady.

Under the head of remittent and bilious fevers may be classed the greater number of febrile diseases which are met with in this colony, whether endemic or epidemic. Leaving for the present out of consideration the yellow fever and eruptive fevers, I will take a slight notice of

the others. Most diseases of the colony are attended with more or less feverishness; hence, when the stomach or any other internal organ is out of order, some morbid heat of skin is often noticed. These remittent fevers, or febriculæ, constitute the mass of diseases in the cultivated districts, and are resolved by the most simple treatment; and so well known is this to the greater number of colonists, that they rarely call in the services of a medical practitioner, and are content to treat themselves, often with success; a person considers himself well, and actually feels so, who, perhaps, yesterday, was labouring under feverishness; and often, like in the days of immunity from paroxysms of fever and ague, the system seems in no way impaired by its occurrence. It is to this class of fevers that new comers are frequently liable; but they can scarcely be said to be peculiar to this country, or more difficult of treatment and cure than elsewhere. They are especially induced by injudicious or improper diet, or irregular living.

Continued fevers are rare in British Guiana, and are principally met with in children, when the disease is kept up by local irritation or obstruction of the bowels. They are not usually regarded as dangerous, but require more careful treatment and judicious management.

As might be supposed, this climate has proved singularly beneficial to persons labouring under, or predisposed to, pulmonary complaints in general. The bland, warm, and moist atmosphere is particularly adapted to cases of threatened or incipient phthisis (consumption), and even in the more advanced form of the disease it is remarkable how adapted this country is to sustain, if not to prolong, life, under circumstances which elsewhere would rapidly hurry to a fatal termination. Instances are numerous, to the experience of even non-professional persons, of parties who had been ordered away from

Great Britain in consequence of the dangerous symptom of chest disease, when a longer residence in that climate would have carried off the patient, and who, wisely directing their course to this land, have lived, and for years, in comfort and comparative security; proving, beyond doubt, the superior advantages to be derived by individuals affected with similar complaints coming here to reside. It is not intended by these remarks to assert that a cure to the complaint is effected by the change, nor to lead persons to believe that death does not take place from phthisis even in the natives of British Guiana; but merely to point out to the reader that a residence in this climate tends to dissipate the incipient symptom of consumption—that scourge of Europe, to arrest the progress of the malady in its middle or more advanced stage, and to retard that organic destruction which threatens to carry off the patient. Certainly many of these effects are due to climate alone; and we may safely venture to assert, that in no part of the world have instances of a wonderful prolongation of life of phthisical persons taken place than are within the experience of the colonists of British Guiana. It has been lately broached, as an opinion, that the prevalence of fever and ague is antagonistic to the development of phthisis; and certainly the testimony of the medical men of this country must strengthen such a belief. Whether this depends upon the positive advantages of a malarious atmosphere, or a negative superiority in the absence of certain elements favourable to the development of phthisis, remains to be proved. Phthisis is a disease which rarely originates in an individual born and reared in British Guiana. By a reference to the hospital reports, it will be found that the majority of persons admitted to that institution on account of this disease were born out of the colony; and

even of those born in the colony, many will be found to have contracted the disease in other climates.

It has been denied by Dr. Hancock that such a disease as tubercular phthisis was ever generated on the coasts of Guiana. "The climate (the doctor adds), I may say, is not only prophylactic, but curative of this disorder (pulmonary consumption), of which I have known various instances." Again he adds, "I have long been of opinion that the exemption from phthisis on the coast of Guiana is partly owing to the gaseous emanations from the soil; but I have reason to believe that the main cause is referable to the free perspiration experienced there, together with the almost total absence of those chilling blasts which are common in other tropical regions."*

As regards immunity from phthisis, there is therefore a prominent advantage possessed by the inhabitants of this country, especially when we reflect that in Great Britain about one-fifth of the whole annual mortality is ascribable to that fatal malady alone. It would, indeed, be strange if this country, deprived of so severe an affliction, had not other maladies of common occurrence, but which are not of a character sufficiently grave to stamp with marked insalubrity this valuable colonial possession. Whilst, however, there is a marked absence of fatal tubercular disease, it must be understood that some other pulmonary affections are commonly met with, such as pneumonia, pleurisy, bronchitis, and asthma; of the former, or inflammatory diseases, it is not difficult to account why they should be met with, as the exposure to the weather, and indifference to its changes among the lower orders, is perhaps greater here than in most other coun-

* Schomburgk, however, in his travels in the interior, occasionally met with fatal instances of this malady among the Bucks.

tries; but such inflammations are seldom of a very acute or sthenic form, and if early and promptly treated, are rarely fatal; but such is the insidious mildness with which many of these disorders run on, that the patient, too often slighting the symptoms, puts off any application to medical advice until the breathing is materially affected, or the danger urgent. Such inflammations, and, indeed, inflammations in this country in general, are quite different in character to those met with in more temperate regions. They have not the tendency to terminate in adhesion, but rather proceed to suppuration and effusion. This peculiarity may probably be accounted for by the absence in the blood of that fibrinous or plastic substance which marks the quality of the sanguineous fluid elsewhere. Among the well-clothed and upper classes these diseases are comparatively rare, and are seldom met with in children except as sequæ to other diseases. It must be here also remarked, that the creole labourers are, in general, not so liable to its attacks as the immigrants from other nations, as India, Africa, Madeira, Europe.

Slight coughs and colds are not uncommon, and are generally met with in the dry weather, owing, perhaps, to the greater degree of evaporation going on. Considering the free transpiration, the light clothing worn, the exposure to draught and changes of weather, and the liability to suppression of perspiration, it is wonderful that such affections are not more frequent. It is often remarked by persons, that going out into the sun causes them to sneeze, as if they were about to catch cold; this is, after all, nothing more than one of those reflex actions which are so beautifully illustrated by the doctrines of Dr. Marshall Hall. The sun's rays in this instance stimulate the nervous filaments of the exposed skin, and by their communication with the nervous centres cause a counter action of other nerves, which induce the act of



*Miaba, an Antigua woman.
The last of her tribe.*

London: Longman & Co.

the sudden or violent act of expiration called sneezing. It would be needless to enter more into the discussion of other affections of the lungs, which are, however, comparatively few in British Guiana. Enough, I hope, has been said to convince persons that, as regards chest diseases, a residence in this country is calculated to lessen rather than to originate or aggravate disorders of this nature.

Judging *à priori*, one would be inclined to suppose that few gouty or rheumatic affections would be met with here; but this is not so much the case as might have been expected. Acute rheumatism, or the worst forms of gout, are almost unknown; but flying pains in the joints, and rheumatic affections of the muscles, bones, and tendons are tolerably common. They are usually caused by suppressed perspiration, or exposure to damp or draughts of air. Difficult as these cases are of cure sometimes, it is not a little remarkable that persons who have arrived from Europe afflicted with this disease undergo a spontaneous recovery. From the first week of landing they experience relief to their aching pains, the effusion into joints becomes gradually absorbed, and the stiffness of limbs is by degrees overcome, enabling many persons who were before bedridden for months, nay years, to walk after the lapse of some time. Moreover, the injurious effects of rheumatism, which in Europe are known to affect the heart or its membranes, have seldom or never been remarked by practitioners in this country, as might, perhaps, have been supposed, from the majority of cases being instances of chronic rheumatism rather than acute. Some forms of rheumatism, tolerably common and not amenable to treatment, are, however, benefited by a short absence from the colony to places where sea-bathing, &c., are procurable.

Ulcers form one of the most numerous, interesting, and important subjects for a medical inquiry, but I must pass over any consideration of their varieties, and refer only to a general description of them. They seem endemic to the soil; they are and have been the bane of the dirty, the lazy, and the inattentive; for it is certain that cleanliness and common attention exempt individuals from their attacks. They are occasioned by the bites of insects, such as the mosquito, the sandfly, the chigo, the ant, &c. The skin is broken by the puncture made by any of these small creatures, local irritation and inflammation follow, the wound is enlarged by scratching, or allowed to fill with dirt, which increases the irritation; the part swells, congestion of the capillary follows, more blood is directed to the spot, but instead of repairing the evil which it was intended to do, increases it by stagnating and pressing on the nerves, giving rise to pain; purulent matter forms, and increases from the size of a pea upwards, till it reaches into the skin which it bursts, and gives rise to a larger sore, which goes through the ordinary ulcerative course, until, if not checked, it destroys the whole part affected, and often the life of the individual. Of course, such ulcers do not affect the better classes, or those who take care of themselves. The native Indians, although particularly exposed to their influence, are rarely known to suffer from sores. The cleanly creole labourers also are exempt, but the heedless and uncleanly immigrants of all nations have been the principal victims of this disease, and of their own imprudence.

With a knowledge of the climate and its effects in the constitution before us, it is not difficult to understand why there should be a tendency to dropsical effusions throughout the body. The free perspiration is likely to be checked by the cool currents of air into which persons

thrust themselves. The light porous clothing keeps up a rapid evaporation, the want of exercise, or free ablution, does not sufficiently relax the pores of the skin to give vent to the increase of fluids imbibed, the free use of stimulating drinks irritates and inflames such organs as the liver, kidneys, and heart, the functions of the circulation being impaired, or the quality of the blood altered, or both, cause the gradual deposition of watery fluid (serum) to form in those parts of the body adapted to receive it. It is either infiltrated underneath the skin to the more dependent parts of the body, as the feet, legs, &c., or accumulates in the chest or abdomen; its consequences are, unhappily, too well known in most countries to require further explanation.

Biliary disorders are in general associated with warm latitudes, and persons going to such places are usually warned to take care of their livers. In India there can be no doubt of the prevalence of the most serious diseases of that important organ; but it will not, I think, be denied that in British Guiana there is a remarkable exemption from such diseases, if we may take professional experience and the evidence of the published Hospital Tables for a number of years as a criterion. Slight derangements of function are, indeed, frequently noticed; an overflow or deficiency of bile occasionally complicates another disorder, or constitutes a separate disease; but, as a general rule, it will be found correct that comparatively few persons suffer from those formidable diseases which are incident to that organ elsewhere. It is only where hereditary disposition, dissipated habits, or irregular living obtain, that it is at all met with; and I am inclined to consider that this climate is opposed to the prevalence of severe and fatal disorders of the liver.

Spasmodic diseases are of frequent occurrence, and

may be classed as convulsion, hysteria, tetanus. Fits are very common among children of all classes, and may be generally traced to some irritation of the alimentary canal, caused by the presence of worms, indigestible food, teething, &c. The peculiar farinaceous food which most children are fed upon, may partly account for the numerous and varied symptoms of disease caused by the irritation of worms in the stomach or bowels. Convulsions of this nature, though so common, are not, perhaps, so fatal as they are in England, their origin being more simple. It is true that with some children the fevers by which they are liable to be attacked sometimes induce convulsions; but other causes, besides the mere heat of the body, contribute to such unpleasant complications. Singular cases of sudden and fatal fits occasionally occur in children; they rarely happen in the night.

Some of the most common forms of disease prevalent here undoubtedly arise from the presence of worms in the alimentary canal. In consequence of the food which is consumed by the lower classes and by children, it is more especially noticed that disorders arise in the system of these parties from the irritation occasioned by these parasitic animals. Such food consists usually of plantains, either boiled, roasted, or pounded, and made into *foofoo*, or *Conquin-Tay*. Children who are fed principally upon milk, sago, tapioca, and similar articles of food, are liable to be more infested with worms than those who are brought up in the use of meats, and other animal food. Persons who make use of a mixed diet, such as constitutes the ordinary food of adults in the better classes of society in this country, and who partake of malt, wines, or spirits, are very seldom troubled with worms.

They are seldom or never met with in infants under seven or eight months, or before teething, and in those who have been raised principally by the breast until

they are weaned. From this age, however, they occur in the latest periods of life, and I have repeatedly known persons from sixty to seventy years of age who have passed worms. They are more common in women than in men, and I have observed that they are more generally passed by female children than by children of the other sex.

It is astonishing the number of worms that are sometimes passed by children. I have known instances where upwards of 100 have been evacuated by a young child, and occasionally above 50 have been discharged at one evacuation.

There are three kinds of worms met with in ordinary practice:

1st. The most common is the long round worm (the *Ascaris lumbricoides*).

2nd. The second is about two inches long, broad at one end and pointed at the other, the *Tricocephalus*.

3rd. The third is known as the Thread, or Maw-worm, and is met with in hundreds generally at the lesser part of the intestinal canal; this is called the *Ascaris vermicularis*, or *Oxyuris*.

A fourth kind is met with occasionally, viz., the Tapeworm (*Tænia*).

I only remember one instance having occurred in my practice of the existence of this species of worm. The patient was a black man, and was in the habit of passing portions of this parasite several feet in length. Although annoyed by the complaint, and suffering occasionally from pain, or rather uneasiness in the bowels, he was not by any means in bad health.

Hysterical affections are not of a nature to call forth any particular remarks as peculiar to this country. As elsewhere, they chiefly affect females, whose sedentary habits and pensive minds predispose to the disease, and

are perhaps less ascribable to climate than to moral and physical causes, which operate with equal caprice and peculiarities in other lands.

It has long been remarked that locked-jaw is of more frequent occurrence in warm climates than in cold. Whether this is owing to mere temperature, which is unlikely, or to a depression of the nervous system, incapable of acting regularly under conditions of irritation, or other causes, remain unexplained. Many persons, after exposure to a current of cool air, or to checked transpiration, have become attacked with stiffness of the limbs and body, and occasional spasm, called idiopathic tetanus. For the most part these cases readily recover, and are very amenable to treatment. In tetanus, the result of injuries or wounds, the case is very different. The spasms are intolerable and frequent, the rigidity incredible, and in the majority of instances the patients die, but often from neglect. Horses and other animals are very liable to be attacked with this disease, and with them it is equally fatal as with man.

Delirium tremens is a disease, unfortunately, too common, but originates altogether in the habits of individuals suffering from it. The climate, if anything, is favourable to the modification of the disease, indeed, it is almost incredible the number of attacks to which some patients have been subjected without being carried off by the violence of any. The causes which lead to this unhappy malady are intemperance, irregularity, and excesses. The old custom of the colony rendered spirit drinking unfortunately too common; the thirst so constant in this country became an excuse for stimulating draughts. The habit rapidly acquired was not readily relinquished, and in the end the bottle became as necessary to the victim as any of his meals, which latter often were superseded altogether by incessant drinking.

No country, in proportion, could, I am persuaded, instance more numerous and melancholy cases of this baneful disease than this. In former times it was still more prevalent ; at present there are some hopes of its decline, but altogether dependent on moral causes. It is the usual death of the unfortunate and disappointed. In nine cases out of ten, persons who have been defeated in some speculation, ruined by some change in fortune, cheated by some false friend, or otherwise impoverished and lowered in society, have unfortunately sought to drown in intemperance the cares which afflicted them, but only to raise up evils far more tormenting than those they sought to shun. The young, the accomplished, the intelligent, the beloved, the middle-aged, the old, nay, the delicate female, have all afforded to the colonists the distressing sight of human nature humbled by this depravity. The most exalted characters, the most useful and sacred professions, have been debased by this insane propensity. The evil formerly spread through all classes and all ranks, originating with, and most conspicuous in, the European (to his disgrace recorded), it has contaminated the simple native, infected the bondsman African and his emancipated descendants, and spread through every other race which has visited this land. The bad example of superiors has been imitated by those dependent on them, and it will take years of an opposite line of conduct to overcome the impressions stamped upon the public character.

Diseases of the skin are rather common, but are seldom so inveterate and aggravated as in Europe. Prickly heat (*Lichen tropicus*) is frequent among children and new comers, but is generally considered to have a salutary tendency.

Boils and other phlegmonous inflammations are unfortunately too prevalent, indeed their appearance pre-

vails at times almost like epidemics. In children, in the strong and robust, as well as in the delicate and ill-fed, their development is remarkable, but they seldom entail the same amount of constitutional irritation observable in other countries.

Rose (ædemitis) is an inflammatory affection of the absorbents or lymphatic vessels, which frequently attacks the creoles and others of this colony. It occasions pain, redness, and swelling on the arms or legs, and occurs like erysipelas after wounds, bites, or other injuries. If neglected, it leads to the development of that formidable disorder of the tropics so well known as elephantiasis, or *Bucnemia tropica*, which entails such deformity and suffering to individuals subjected to its invasion. For further particulars I take the liberty of referring my readers to a short essay on the subject written by myself, and published in the *Lancet** of 1846.

Leprosy is another frightful cutaneous (constitutional) disease, unfortunately too common to the natives; it is rarely known to attack Europeans or the white inhabitants. The victims are mostly black or coloured persons (for whom an asylum is provided), and it is astonishing to remark the apathy and indifference (constitutional and mental) which they display under its terrible invasion.

Diseases of the bowels are not particularly frequent or severe, considering the carelessness and irregularity of living among the inhabitants. Diarrhœas occur from change of seasons, quality of food, or the impure water occasionally drunk by the lower orders; sometimes a change of diet, consequent on change from one part of the colony to the other, induces it; now and then, even

* October 24th and November 7th, 1846.

in the city, it manifests itself in the form of an epidemic of a few weeks' duration, but it is found very amenable to treatment and soon disappears.

Dysentery is generally considered as very constant and fatal in warm climates. In many such places perhaps this is the case, but in British Guiana it is not particularly common or severe. When met with it is generally in broken-down subjects, and among the old and ill-fed, or among unhealthy immigrants, who feed on garbage, or indulge too freely in the unripe acid fruits of the country.

Dry belly-ache, or painter's colic, was formerly a very prevalent and serious disorder, but has been justly traced to the then common practice of drinking large quantities of sour French wines. Since that habit has been discontinued there is less of this disease among the better classes, while its appearance, though occasional among the inhabitants generally, is readily combated by judicious treatment. I have heard it remarked that tobacco smokers are less prone to its attacks than those who do not smoke, and my own observations tend to confirm the truth of the remark.

There are many grave and important diseases from which the colonists of this country are altogether exempt, and numerous others from which they are more or less free. Thus, for instance, there are no instances in this country of contagious or infectious fevers (except the exanthemata, viz., small-pox, scarlatina, measles, &c.). The endemic and epidemic fevers which occur are not of a character to spread by contact or the communication of the affected person with others in ordinary health. Again, calculus, or stone in the bladder, has never been known to occur, although occasionally slight cases of gravel are met with ; neither are diseases of the bladder common, or so fatal as in Europe.

Affections of the kidneys are also rare ; "Morbus Brightii," that disease so well known to European practitioners, is by no means common, although albuminous urine occasionally occurs, but readily yields to treatment, and appears chiefly owing to some irregularity in the digestive organs. Diabetes mellitus, so frequent in England, has never been met with here to my knowledge, although noticed in the islands of the West Indies. Neither are other constitutional diseases, such as goitre, scrofula, syphilitic affections, or gout so serious or prevalent as in colder climates.

Hydrophobia is unknown, although one or two spurious cases have been rumoured abroad as such by a few persons. In spite of the heat of the climate, dogs are never known to become rabid, although subject to fits. Cases of aneurism, malignant tumours, diseases of bones, and the various complications of constitutional and hereditary diseases, are by no means so common as in Europe and the United States.

It is, after all, the epidemics to which a country is liable which most materially influence its sanitary condition. In the preceding pages an attempt has been made to give a slight sketch of the chief diseases which may be considered as purely local and peculiar to British Guiana, and of most frequent occurrence. Almost every country is, or has been, at some time or other, visited by some fatal sickness, which increases the ordinary mortality of the district, and it is a subject admitting of considerable doubt whether this land has been more marked by any such casualties than other portions of the globe; for my own part, I believe that it has not, but as it is difficult of proof or disproof, the inquiry cannot be here pursued.

The epidemics which visit these shores are remarkably few in number, and, with the exception of one, are not

particularly fatal. The most important of these is that species of fever commonly called yellow fever, which has appeared in this colony at different periods from its earliest colonisation, and led to the greatest share of its mortality.

As far as my researches go, it has prevailed in this colony in 1763-4, 1819-20, 1837-44, 1851-3.

It is essentially different in its character to the ordinary types of fever met with here, but as far as I have been able to learn, has never proved so fatal as similar epidemics in Cayenne, Surinam, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Jamaica, and other parts of the West Indies.

It would be out of place here to enlarge either upon its history or nature, the more especially as the subject has been treated lately by the Colonial Surgeon-General of this city, Dr. Blair, to whose excellent work I would refer such parties as may be desirous of further information. It is by no means an endemic disease of the country. It arrives and departs in a mysterious manner. It has never been regarded as contagious either by the medical practitioners or the inhabitants of this country. It is especially liable to attack Europeans, or others lately arrived from a cold climate. It rarely attacks creoles, or those long resident here; the black population are singularly exempt from its invasion. When present it is chiefly confined to the shipping, and to persons inhabiting the waterside districts of the town; but cases present themselves, although comparatively few in number, among persons predisposed to its invasion in the country districts. It seldom attacks the same individual twice. The success of the treatment depends chiefly on the promptitude in seeking competent medical advice in the early stage.

Those fatal epidemics which so often ravage other

countries are here unknown, such as Asiatic cholera, typhus fever, plague, ophthalmia, and their infinite varieties and complications.

There is one circumstance connected with the subject of epidemics which is both curious and deserving of notice, that is, the marked difference which characterises their effects on the several races. Thus, yellow fever attacks only Europeans and the white inhabitants recently arrived, whilst the coloured and black races are rarely or never affected. I have never heard of an instance of a black creole dying from this disease; and even among the white creoles its effects are not so violent.* Again, when small-pox has made its appearance, its effects were more severe in the black races than in the white. Measles, when prevalent as it was in 1847 and 1848, was chiefly, if not altogether, confined to the coloured and black races. Influenza, in like manner, is apt to attack the various races in different degrees, and the same may be said of scarlatina and hooping-cough. From which it would appear that while some epidemics exercise a marked preference for one race, the other does not suffer in the same proportion. It is rarely found that the same epidemic produces the same results in the several races. The symptoms of the disease will of necessity be alike, but they differ widely both in intensity and in degree. As all parties are exposed to the same source of infection, whatever that may be, this peculiarity in the epidemics of British Guiana can be accounted

* Since the above was written another fatal epidemic has unfortunately visited this colony. It commenced in December, 1851. During the prevalence of the present epidemic it has been noticed that several creoles and others long resident here have been attacked, but the cases were not numerous. Its ravages were chiefly exhibited among the new comers and sailors. A peculiar feature of the present visitation has been the tendency of some of the most serious symptoms becoming engrafted upon diseases of quite another nature during their last stages.

for in no other way than by the existence of some physiological difference in the system.

It may not be uninteresting, after having thus gone over some of the principal disorders to which the human frame is subject in this colony, to state the views entertained in Captain Tulloch's "Statistical Report on the Sickness, Mortality, and Invaliding among the Troops in the West Indies," and to see how the statements I have made are borne out by the tables he has published. The following table drawn up by him exhibits at a glance the admissions and deaths among a body of troops of about 164,000, for a period of 20 years, and gives an admirable view of the prevailing diseases to which they were subjected during that time:

	ADMISSIONS.		DEATHS.	
	Total among whole Force in 20 Years.	Annual Ratio per 1000 of mean strength.	Total among whole Force in 20 Years.	Annual Ratio per 1000 of mean strength.
Fevers.....	62,163	717	3195	36.9
Eruptive Fevers.....	13	$\frac{1}{10}$	1	
Diseases of Lungs....	9,975	115	906	10.4
" Liver.....	1,946	22	161	1.8
" Stomach				
and Bowels.....	36,474	421	1795	20.7
Diseases of Brain.....	2,447	28	312	3.7
Dropsies.....	659	$7\frac{1}{10}$	180	2.1
Rheumatic Affections	4,202	49	17	
Veneral.....	3,043	35	6	
Abscesses and Ulcers	17,708	204	18	
Wounds and Injuries	11,149	129	60	
Punished.....	4,327	50	2	2.9
Diseases of the Eyes.	7,686	89	4	
" Skin.	559	6	1	
All other Diseases	2,584	30	143	
Total.....	164,935	1903	6803	78.5

We cannot but notice the great preponderance of fevers, with a mortality between 3 and 4 per cent.

This class of disease (says Captain Tulloch) is the principle source of sickness and mortality in this command, as it comprises considerably more than a third of all the admissions, and about a half of all the deaths, compared with the same disease; among troops in the country the admissions are ten times, and the deaths twenty-five times as numerous. Above two-fifths of the above admissions were from intermittent fever, which, however, rarely proved fatal, and was chiefly met with in Demerara, Berbice, and Trinidad. The eruptive fevers are here seen to be very rare, one death alone took place in the twenty years.

The ratio of mortality from diseases of the lungs is about $10\frac{1}{2}$ per 1000, or little more than one per cent. of the whole force, whilst in Great Britain it is said to amount among the troops to $8\frac{1}{2}$ per 1000. Consumption was found to be very fatal among the troops, the attacks being 12 per 1000 annually, whilst in Great Britain it amounted to about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per 1000.* The islands in this respect are more unfavourable to persons predisposed to, or suffering from, this complaint, than British Guiana. It is remarked in this report that diseases of the liver are by no means so common in this command as in the tropical regions of the eastern hemisphere, although about thrice as prevalent as among troops in the United Kingdom, with a mortality about five times as high. It is found particularly prevalent and fatal in some places, as in Grenada.

Diseases of the stomach and bowels are a very fertile source of sickness and mortality among the troops, but this by no means applies to the other inhabitants of these

* Most of these cases of consumption did not certainly originate in the West Indies.

countries, especially of Guiana ; the mortality in this table is upwards of forty times as high as among troops at home.

Under diseases of the brain are included cases of delirium tremens, which constitutes a large proportion of the mortality, the proportion of deaths to admissions being about one in eight, and it is remarked that a high temperature has not been found to increase the prevalence or mortality of this class of diseases in any marked degree. The proportion of admissions and deaths from this disease is about eight times that met with in the troops at home ; most of the cases are, however, from fever in men with broken constitutions.

It is shown in a remarkable manner by this report that the prevalence and virulence of venereal diseases is singularly moderate, and can be attributed to no other cause than that the climate seems unfavourable to the existence and propagation of this disease. This statement perfectly agrees with the experience of the civil medical practitioner, and is corroborated by the oldest medical returns.

The prevalence and mortality of other diseases is so trifling as to offer nothing worthy of remark, so that even by these tables, gathered from experience among troops, a body of men particularly liable to disease, it is found after all that there is great immunity from a multitude of complaints which obtain in other climates.

Referring more particularly to British Guiana, it will be found that the mortality among the troops stationed throughout the country during the last twenty years was as follows :

WHITE TROOPS.				BLACK TROOPS.		
Years.	Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio of Deaths per 1000 of mean strength.	Strength.	Deaths.	Ratio of Deaths per 1000 of mean strength.
1817	852	55	64	415	12	29
1818	737	20	27	122	2	16
1819	876	64	73	129	6	47
1820	569	91	160	110	2	18
1821	542	118	217	131	4	31
1822	611	47	77	184	11	60
1823	576	35	60	175	9	51
1824	732	86	117	188	5	27
1825	1,158	109	94	75	7	93
1826	1,162	110	95	74	5	68
1827	946	137	144	132	5	38
1828	912	122	134	170	10	59
1829	796	47	59	216	6	28
1830	1,073	88	82	208	13	63
1831	968	107	110	210	6	29
1832	914	31	34	190	8	42
1833	998	55	55	180	8	44
1834	1,228	65	53	189	5	26
1835	1,028	62	60	156	5	32
1836	1,011	36	35	146	5	34
Total.	17,689	1485		3300	134	
Average.	884	74	84	165	6.7	40.6

It will be seen that the ratio of mortality among the white troops was about twice as high as that of the black; but, after all, the proportion of deaths is not very great, being for the white troops about 8 per cent., a ratio by no means large, if we consider the circumstances under which the troops have been generally placed in this country. Surely this fact alone should exonerate British Guiana from the stigma attempted to be cast on it of its being an unhealthy swamp; according to this report, moreover, it is expressly stated that the average of mortality per annum has been about the same as throughout the whole Windward and Leeward command.

In Trinidad, for the same period, the mortality of the white troops was about 10 per cent., the ratio of deaths

per 1000 of mean strength being on an average for the twenty years 106.3.

In St. Lucia about 12 per cent., or 122.8 deaths per 1000 of mean strength.

In Dominica about 13 per cent., or 137.4 deaths per 1000 of mean strength.

In Jamaica about 12 or 13 per cent., or 121.3 deaths per 1000 of mean strength.

The mortality among the black troops in British Guiana for the same period of twenty years was, as we have stated, about 4 per cent. of the admissions, or nearly 41 per 1000 of the mean strength; and is about the same as that throughout the islands—if anything, less.

The following table shows the principal fatal diseases of the troops in British Guiana:

	WHITE TROOPS.		BLACK TROOPS.	
	Total Deaths in 20 Years.	Ratio of Deaths annually per 1000 of mean strength.	Total Deaths in 20 Years.	Ratio of Deaths annually per 1000 of mean strength.
By Fevers.....	1047	59.2	28	8.5
Diseases of Lungs	112	6.4	59	17.9
" Liver.	19	1.	1	3
" Stomach and Bowels.....	157	8.9	19	5.8
Diseases of Brain.	77	4.4	11	3.3
Dropsies.....	22	1.2	8	2.4
All other diseases.	51	2.9	8	2.4
Total.....	1485	84.0	184	40.6

It will be at once perceived how numerous are the deaths from fever, and how small the proportion of mortality from diseases of the lungs and liver. Another curious fact is the trifling ratio of mortality among the black troops from fevers, and the large ratio of deaths

from diseases of the lungs compared with the results among the white troops when the converse obtains.

The principal cause of the mortality from fevers was the prevalence of yellow fever, which appeared at some places in the colony from the year 1819 to 1828. The mortality during this period was sometimes about 5 per cent. of the fever annually; at other times about 10 per cent. of the deaths from fevers; about a tenth part were caused by intermittent fever. The mortality classed under diseases of the brain was chiefly owing to "delirium tremens," the result of intemperate habits rather than the effects of climate; and to this may fairly be ascribed the mortality from other classes of disease, since it is well known that the use in large quantities of ardent spirits impairs the constitution, predisposes it to many ailments, and renders it less likely to resist the attacks of any grave malady. Unfortunately, the facilities afforded in this colony to soldiers of obtaining rum and other spirits were very great; and led away by the fact of such facilities, by the absence of moral restraint, and by the thirst peculiar to warm climates, many have undoubtedly succumbed from these causes, when, perhaps, under other circumstances, they might have escaped those serious disorders ascribed by many solely to the influence of climate. There were, undoubtedly (and still are), years and seasons when a greater degree of sickness prevailed; but it is owing rather to the presence occasionally of severe epidemics (although very few in number), than to any endemic diseases, that anything approaching to a high mortality among Europeans has been observed.

The only two endemic diseases of any importance in British Guiana are intermittent fevers and ulcers; neither of them dangerous, if early and properly treated.

It is the popular opinion, and has already been alluded to in the remarks on climate, that the sanitary conditions of the several months of the year are very different, but that a certain uniformity obtains for the several seasons, which has been gathered from experience, and has given rise to the following doggrel, but metrical adage:

In July you die,
In August you must,
September remember,
October all over.

These four months are proverbially the most unhealthy, the first three especially; and hence the commencement of the long dry season is always regarded with suspicion by the experienced. It is more particularly when the dry or wet seasons are merging one into the other, that a greater degree of sickness obtains. Thus, after the long wet season commencing in May and ending in July or August, when the hot sun and incipient dry weather begins, it is remarkable how aggravated the cases of fever become, and how much more numerous are other disorders. When the dry weather is fairly established, this gradually declines until the next rains, or short wet season, when the sickness revives again, but not to any great extent. In the prolonged and very wet weather, the amount of sickness is comparatively trifling, but increases again as the short dry season is ushered in, and so on for other years.

This opinion is borne out in a remarkable manner by the following table from Captain Tulloch's Report, showing the admissions and deaths among the troops in this colony during nineteen years, and clearly establishing the unhealthy character of the autumnal months:

	TOTAL ADMISSIONS.				TOTAL DEATHS.			
	By Acute diseases.	By Chronic diseases.	By Surgical diseases.	Total.	By Acute diseases.	By Chronic diseases.	By Surgical diseases.	Total.
January 19...	2,143	177	579	2,899	80	15	2	97
February 19 .	2,267	183	486	2,936	71	13	2	86
March 19.	2,090	151	502	2,743	62	15	4	81
April 19	1,902	135	564	2,601	48	25	...	73
May 19	1,981	137	640	2,758	44	14	1	59
June 19	2,417	167	590	3,174	85	16	2	103
July 19	3,636	132	480	4,248	167	13	...	180
August 19 ...	4,148	128	444	4,720	158	18	1	177
September 19	4,018	106	412	4,536	145	10	...	155
October 19 ...	3,461	145	400	4,006	98	13	2	113
November 19	2,828	121	438	3,387	51	22	3	76
December 19	2,476	120	490	3,086	49	15	3	67
Total.	33,367	1702	6025	41,094	1058	189	20	1267

A candid exposition of its sanitary condition having been given, it is hoped that if we cannot claim for British Guiana a high rank in the scale of salubrious regions, some good will be effected in removing from the popular mind of Europe that unfounded prejudice which has so long stigmatised it, and rendered the reputation of these shores so unfavourable in respect to climate. Preconceived opinions, like deep-rooted weeds, require patient and frequent extermination. "He whose assent goes beyond his evidence," writes Locke on the conduct of the understanding, "owes this excess of his adherence only to prejudice, and does, in effect, own it when he refuses to hear what is offered against it, declaring thereby that it is not evidence he seeks, but the quiet enjoyment of the opinion he is fond of, with a forward condemnation of all that may stand in opposition to it, unheard and unexamined, which, what is it but prejudice?"

In spite of the assertions made in many books giving

rise to the unfavourable impressions left on the public mind with respect to the insalubrity of these regions, and admitting the great prevalence of fevers, some of them of a dangerous nature, what is, after all, the actual mortality compared with other nations? The diseases to which Europeans and others are subject have been fairly stated, and a slight analysis made of the valuable statistical information contained in Captain Tulloch's Report, by which it would appear that the mortality among the troops for a period of twenty years was less than that in Trinidad, Tobago, St. Lucia, and Dominica; and was about equal to that of the average of the whole command. It is shown by the following table that if fever is excepted, the disposition to, or mortality from, all other diseases is less in British Guiana than in any of the other settlements for both the white and black troops.

Annual ratio of mortality per 1000 of white troops serving in Windward and Leeward command (deaths from fever excepted):

Mortality in British Guiana.	Average of whole command.
24.8	41.6
32.1	32.9
Ditto for Black Troops.	

Again, if we compare the ratio of mortality among the slave population of all ages in the West India colonies from the years 1816 to 1832, it will be found that the average annual deaths to 1000 living were in Demerara and Essequibo 30 per 1000, or 3 per cent., and in Berbice 31 per 1000, little more than 3 per cent., being exceeded by four of these colonies, viz., Tobago, Granada, St. Vincent's, and Dominica; equalled by three, viz., Montserrat, Trinidad, and St. Lucia; and inferior to five, viz., Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's, and Nevis.

The following table, exemplified from Captain Tulloch's Abstract of Statistical Tables, and published by Mr. Porter, under the authority of the Board of Trade, gives further information on this subject:

	Annual Average per centage of Mortality.
Trinidad	3 per cent.
Tobago	4.2 "
Demerara and Essequibo	3 "
Berbice	3.1 "
Jamaica	2.5 "
Granada	3.3 "
St. Vincent	3.1 "
Barbadoes	2.8 "
St. Lucia	3 "
Dominica	3.2 "
Antigua	2.7 "
St. Christopher	2.8 "
Montserrat	3 "
Nevis	2.5 "

But independently of the West Indies, if one compares the mortality of British Guiana with that of European countries, the advantage is on the side of this colony. "Demerara (writes Montgomery Martin) has been cited as one of the strongest instances of a deleterious atmosphere, particularly among our West India colonies, but when we come to examine facts, it turns out otherwise; the range of mortality even among the labouring slave population is about one in 37 to 40, but in London and France it is equal, as regards the whole population, rich and poor, and in other countries it is even more."

The following table is deduced from his remarks:

	Annual Average per centage of Mortality.
Paris	3.1 per cent.
Berlin	3 "
Madrid	3.4 "
Rome	4 "
Amsterdam	4.2 "
Vienna	4.75 "
Naples	3 "
Wirttemberg	3 "
Nice	3 "

But we have still further evidence to adduce on this

subject. From an appendix to the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Factory Bill it appears that in a number of 10,000 deaths in several places of England the duration of life was less than in the colony of Demerara, as shown by the following table:

TABLE SHOWING PROPORTIONATE AGES OF DEATH IN A GIVEN NUMBER OF CASES.

Locality.	Died under 20.	Under 40.	Lived to 40 and upwards.
London.....	4580	6111	3889
Rutland.....	3756	5031	4969
Preston.....	6083	7462	2538
Leeds.....	6213	7441	2559
Bolton.....	6113	7459	2541
Demerara.....	2749	4788	5212

Again, from the tables published by the late indefatigable Commissary of Population of British Guiana, Mr. Hadfield, in 1847, showing a statement of the mortality in the city of Georgetown during the nine years ending with 1846 (than which period none other has been more unhealthy), it would appear that the ratio of mortality was 3.54 per cent., or 354 in 10,000, which, considering the prevalence for some time of yellow fever and other epidemics, and the importation of a large number of unhealthy immigrants from India, Africa, and Madeira, many of whom died in the Georgetown Hospital, and swelled the list of mortality, does not contrast very unfavourably with many other countries and places (usually considered very healthy).

Centesimal Proportion of Deaths to the Population in

London	2.56
Birmingham	2.70
Sheffield	3.00
Bristol	3.12
Manchester	3.33
Liverpool	3.80
England	2.20
France	2.39
Prussia	2.66
Austria	2.99
Russia	3.59
Georgetown, Demerara	3.54

We have in this last table contrasted the mortality of the capital of British Guiana with both town and country of other nations, which is scarcely fair, for if we included the average mortality of the whole population of this land, it is probable that it would be under 3 per cent., and about equal that of the other parts of the world alluded to, from all which it would appear that before people of other countries condemn foreign possessions as unwholesome spots and charnel-houses, it would be better for them to examine more closely their own records, and ascertain whether the annals of Ireland, parts of Scotland, and many places in England, have not more terrible disclosures to make as regards mortality than the West Indies and this colony in particular.

CHAPTER IV.

OUTLINES OF RELIGIOUS HISTORY—THE MORAVIAN MISSIONS IN GUIANA FROM 1735 TO 1810—THE LONDON MISSIONARIES; THEIR RECEPTION BY THE NEGROES—THE MISSIONARIES TO THE INDIANS—THE ENGLISH CHURCH ESTABLISHMENTS; THEIR PROGRESS AND RESULTS—DIVISION OF THE COLONY INTO PARISHES—ESTABLISHMENT OF AN ARCHDEACONRY AND DIOCESE—EPISCOPALIAN CHURCH ESTABLISHMENTS—SCOTCH CHURCH—DUTCH CHURCH—ROMAN CATHOLIC ECCLESIASTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS—INDEPENDENT CONGREGATIONAL DISSENTERS—WESLEYANS; THEIR CHAPELS AND NUMBERS—LONDON MISSIONARIES.

In the course of the preceding pages occasional notice has been taken of the most important events connected with the labours of missionaries and the religious progress of the colony. Little, therefore, remains to be stated under this head. A glance at the history of missions,* the present condition of the religious denominations, and some account of the existing ecclesiastical establishments will comprise all the information necessary to be laid before the reader.

The missions to Dutch Guiana, comprising the colonies of Surinam, Berbice, Demerara, and Essequibo, were undertaken in 1735, after several consultations held by the

* The account given in this chapter of the Missions of the Moravian Society to Dutch Guiana is extracted from Historical Sketches of the Missions of the United Brethren for Propagating the Gospel, by John Holmes, compiled from Histories of Missions by Crantz, Joskiel, Latrobe, and Rister, and from the periodical Accounts of Missions, &c.

Directors of the Dutch Trading Company of Surinam, with the Bishop of Spangenberg, an intelligent, active, and influential member of the Society of United Brethren.

The first step was to send out three of the brethren to Surinam to inquire on the spot into the best mode of establishing missions. After their return to Europe, at the request of a gentleman of Amsterdam, a mission, consisting of two brethren, was sent to his estate in Rio Berbice, and arrived there in 1738. Circumstances soon induced them to remove to a distance of 100 miles up the river, to a place which they called Pilgerhut, from which spot they began to visit the Indians, and "soon gained the love and confidence of these good-natured savages."

In 1739 another brother and his wife joined them, and in ten years after they had a similar addition to their society. The Indians, at their first approach, would often fly with their wives and children. They were required to take the oath of allegiance to the local government, who, far from aiding them in their benevolent intentions, misunderstood their motives, and often misrepresented their designs. Many of the Indians were led to believe that the missionaries came to make them slaves. The Dutch planters circulated rumours to raise the jealousy of the natives, who were too credulous not to believe in them.

The Moravian missionaries were in no way assisted by the local legislature.

The Moravians, as well as the earliest Spanish padres, acted towards the Indians as teachers, magistrates, artisans, and doctors. In Berbice and Surinam they were well received by the natives, but were occasionally persecuted by the bush negroes, who destroyed several valuable lives.

In 1739 a mission was sent to Surinam, consisting of five persons, and increased the following year by two

more, who, after some time, established themselves in the Cottaka river, in the immediate neighbourhood of the Indians, but this settlement was abandoned in 1745, and two of the missionaries moved to Pilgerhut, while about the same time two brethren and their wives arrived there from Europe. They now made frequent visits among the Indians, travelling a circuit of 300 miles through a vast wilderness. These journeys were attended with the usual difficulties and dangers. About this time, assisted by a mulatto boy, who had been made a present to them by a planter in Berbice, and who understood the Arawak language, they composed a concise narrative of the life and sufferings of Christ in the Arawak language. This tract they took with them, reading it to the Indians, and exhorting upon it. In 1747, after a residence of nearly nine years, they had the satisfaction to perceive, "That the Divine Spirit was exciting a real hunger after the word of God among the Arawaks."

In 1748 the first Indian was admitted to baptism. After this scarcely a week passed in which the rite was not administered to one or more, and by the end of June the converts amounted to 39. Many of these now settled close to the missionaries, and by the end of this year 80 Indians, including children, lived in the settlement. About this time the directors of the missions in Europe had resolved to appoint a man of learning to superintend the establishment at Pilgerhut. They selected Theos Schuman, who arrived in 1748, and who, in one year, acquired such a proficiency in the language of the natives that he could converse with them, and translate the Scriptures in their dialect.

In the beginning of 1750, a deputation of eleven savages arrived at Pilgerhut from the Spanish possession on the Orinoco. These people had been visited by one of the Christian Indians, and his discourse had made such

an impression upon their minds, that they now came to hear the great word from the missionaries themselves. This embassy led to the result that in the sequel several pagans from that territory settled at Pilgerhut, and embraced the Gospel. A visit made by some of the converts to their relations on the Corentyn was followed by consequences equally pleasing, and before the end of the year several companies of fifteen or twenty persons came from those parts to settle at Pilgerhut, so that without reckoning those who occasionally visited them, there were then three hundred belonging to their congregation, of whom about two hundred lived in the settlement.

Great difficulties were now thrown in the way of the missionaries by the Colonial Government, and some missionaries who arrived in 1751 having scruples of conscience, declined taking the oath to the Government, and were obliged to return to Europe. Previously to this, the Government had been satisfied with the simple affirmation of the missionaries. For several years no further impediments were thrown in their way. "The visits from distant regions still continued, and through them the knowledge of the Gospel was widely diffused. Many more took up their residence at Pilgerhut, among whom were some of the rudest and most ferocious tribes, considered, even by the Arawaks, as the greatest barbarians; for they feasted upon the flesh of those whom they killed in war; but the word of God turned those tigers in human shape, and changed their ferocity into the meekness of the lamb."

Another circumstance which greatly promoted the prosperity of the mission was, that several of the converts were sufficiently advanced in knowledge to assist in the preaching of the Gospel; up to the close of the year 1756, they had baptised 367 persons, of whom 48 had died, and at this time there lived at Pilgerhut 233 persons,

besides children, and reckoning those who resided in the neighbourhood, the whole number amounted to upwards of 300.

In 1759, they were visited by an epidemic disease, which carried off forty of the Christian Indians, and had the unhappy effect of causing many of the others to leave the settlement, the opponents of the missionaries having represented such calamities as the punishment of an offended spirit. The same epidemic, however, unfortunately also carried off the governor of the colony, and nearly one-half of the Dutch colonists. These circumstances, together with a scarcity of provisions which simultaneously occurred, produced quite a panic throughout the whole community.

In 1760, Missionary Schuman returned from a visit to Europe, and died in less than six months after, and two active young brethren who had come out with him also died in a few weeks after. The epidemic and famine still raged with unmitigated violence, and in consequence of these calamities Pilgerhut was almost deserted, and at the end of 1762 the inhabitants were reduced to twenty-two in number. In 1763, in consequence of the fearful revolt of the negroes in Berbice, and hearing that the insurgents were within a few miles of the settlement, the missionaries resolved to proceed without loss of time to Demerara. They effected their escape in two companies, and proceeded thither; where they met with a kind and hospitable reception from the inhabitants. The Christian Indians who came with them likewise found here the needful means of support.

Thus terminated the once flourishing "Mission in the Rio Berbice," some of the missionaries returned to Europe, two, Cleman and Vester, who remained at Demerara, terminated here their earthly career shortly after. From the abandonment of the settlement on the river Cottaka

in 1745, no attempt was made to renew the missions in that colony until the year 1756, when two married brethren and five others, unmarried, were sent out to commence two settlements, one on the river Corentyn, and the other on the Saramaca. In the spring of 1757, they began to build and plant at a place called Sharon, on the Saramaca. Amongst the first Indians that joined them were some from Pilgerhut, and many of the Caribee tribe came to visit them, several of whom took up their abode at Sharon, or settled in its neighbourhood.

The jealousy of the bush negroes was excited by the settlement of the Indians here, and on the 25th of January, 1761, they made an attack on the mission, killed three Indians, and took eleven prisoners; they also wounded two of the missionaries and set fire to the premises. The missionaries with some difficulty escaped to Paramaribo. They afterwards returned to this station, but having lost four of their number within a very short time, and the fear of the bush negroes deterring the Indians from settling there, these and other circumstances led to the final relinquishment of this station in 1779. The settlement in Corentyn, which had also been commenced in 1757 by one individual, Mr. Dachne, made little progress for two years, when three other missionaries arrived. They built a church and dwelling-house, and laid out plantations, calling the place "Ephraim." It was whilst Mr. Dachne lived alone, exposed to attacks from bush negroes and wild Indians, who were unacquainted with his pious object, that the following singular circumstance occurred. After having suffered from the want of the common necessities of life, he was at length attacked with fever, and laid in his hut, without friend or assistant, surrounded with wild beasts and venomous reptiles. Being one evening attacked with a paroxysm of fever, he resolved to go into his hut and

lie down in his hammock. Just, however, as he entered the door he beheld a serpent descending from the roof upon him. In the scuffle which ensued the snake bit him in three different places; and, pursuing him closely, twined itself several times round his head and body. Expecting now to be bitten or strangled to death, and being afraid that his brethren should suspect the Indians had murdered him, he, with singular presence of mind, wrote with chalk on the table, "A serpent has killed me." Suddenly, however, the promise of the Saviour darted into his mind, "They shall take up serpents and shall not be hurt." Encouraged by this recollection, he seized the reptile with great resolution, tore it from his body, and flung it violently out of the hut.

The settlement at Ephraim was disturbed by the rebellion of the negroes in 1763, and retired to Paramaribo, but in 1764 they returned, and finding their dwelling nearly in ruins, and considering the situation unhealthy, they removed higher up the river, and called the new settlement "Hope."

The congregation at Hope continued for several years in a pleasing course, and at the close of 1783 the number of Christian Indians belonging to the settlement amounted to 167 persons. During subsequent years the prospect became discouraging, the missionaries complained of the roving disposition of the Indians being a great impediment to their improvement, and that many who had given promise of better fruits lost the little they had obtained; and, besides, the small-pox and other epidemic diseases committed great havoc, especially among the Arawaks. This was the state of things in 1789 at the Hope, when J. J. G. Fischer arrived there; he is described as peculiarly qualified for the mission, being endowed with a vigorous constitution and an active and enterprising mind, improved by study. In a few months

he acquired such a knowledge of the Arrawak language as to be able to preach in it. He commenced a school for the children, and in a few weeks had thirty scholars. This settlement again assumed a flourishing aspect, which continued up to the year 1796. During the years 1797 and 1798 the mission had to encounter various difficulties. A scarcity little short of famine prevailed, and an epidemic disease carried off great numbers of the Indians. In the latter year Mr. Fischer was ordered by the Surinam Government to leave the Hope, and this was considered a severe blow to the mission. The number of inhabitants continued, however, to increase considerably, and at the close of 1799 it amounted to nearly 300 ; but from this period it began to decrease, and in 1804 was reduced to 146. In August, 1806, Hope was visited by a dreadful calamity, all the buildings being burned down, and in two years after the brethren quitted the settlement. Very many of the Christian Indians had been carried off by another epidemic, the remainder were dispersed, and a spirit of resistance and enmity to the Gospel became predominant. In 1812 the mission on the Corentyn was revived by the arrival of two missionaries. By accounts dated April, 1817, it appears that the missionaries had left the Corentyn and removed to the river Nikery, "there to preach the Gospel to the negroes in the neighbouring plantations."

During the above period the brethren, at the request of the Surinam Government, had sent a mission in the year 1765 to the bush negroes, consisting at first of three persons, but afterwards several were added to their numbers. They described the difficulties and dangers they had to encounter among these people in very lively colours, and the loss of life among the missionaries was very great. Up to the year 1780 they had only converted seven men, one of them a chief, who by his kind-

ness protected them from danger, and facilitated their labours. From this time forwards their labours were attended with better success; and up to the end of the century, fifty-nine of the bush negroes had been baptised. In 1810, however, dark and heavy clouds arose in that quarter, and the missionaries remarked, "if ever the power of Satan was anywhere manifest, it is among the free, or bush negroes." Shortly after this the mission was abandoned, at least for a time.

The society had also established a mission in Paramaribo, and one on the Cornewyn river, which are described as being attended with considerable success among the slaves.

The history from which I have derived these details concludes with a summary of the number of missionaries employed, and of the heathen brethren converted by their means, from the beginning of the mission in this country to the commencement of the present century, comprising a term of sixty-five years. During this period, 159 brethren and sisters had served in the mission, seventy-five of whom had departed this life in the country, sixty-three had returned to Europe, and twenty-one were still actively engaged in the service of the Lord on the different stations in Guiana. During this period there had been baptised by them 855 Indians, fifty-nine free negroes, and 731 negro slaves and mulattoes, making a total of 1645 persons. Of this number, 658 died in the faith of the Gospel, 594 were still living and enjoying the instruction of the missionaries, and the remaining 393 had forsaken the fellowship of the believers.

Thus terminated the laudable efforts of the Moravian missionaries in British Guiana; it would appear from this statement that their labours were chiefly confined to Berbice and its neighbourhood, and that, excepting an

occasional visit to Demerara and Essequibo, no religious settlement had been effected in either of these districts; after all, the native Indian afforded but poor encouragement in the arduous task of Christianisation. The apathy of indolence, the prejudice of superstition, rendered him difficult to be convinced. It is very interesting to remark, therefore, the progress which the above review exhibits of the beneficial influence of the missionaries; and when we are told of the difficulties raised by the local government, of the danger incurred from the assaults of the bush negroes, and of the frequent epidemics and scarcity of food which so commonly occurred, we are the more surprised at their patience and perseverance. Their simple manners and unostentatious habits made a lasting impression on the Indian mind, and rendered future efforts to preach the Gospel more acceptable and appreciated. The misfortunes and mortality of the mission have signalised the members as martyrs, and the wonderful and almost incredible dangers through which many of the survivors passed has cast an air of melancholy romance over their short but eventful history. They were the first labourers in this field of Christian culture.

In 1808, as has been already stated, the London Missionary Society sent out some of its members to undertake the unpromising task of instructing the negro slaves in religion. Gladly were they received by the oppressed children of Africa, and eagerly were their doctrines listened to and sought after; but, as we have also seen, their conduct was viewed with suspicion by the colonists, and feelings of opposition and enmity engendered between them. The promptitude with which the untutored slaves placed themselves under the guidance and instruction of these missionaries is a remarkable incident in their history. It was the first time the white man had associated on terms of equality with them;

their "amour propre" was flattered by the unexpected distinction, and as they soon perceived symptoms of alienation between the planters and the missionaries, they naturally enough ranged themselves in the lists of the latter. A religious spirit was rapidly raised up among them; large congregations in every district attested to the industry and zeal of the preachers, and the peculiarly austere and formal creed of these apostles of the Saviour was stamped indelibly upon the negro mind, to continue unchanged for years. A solemn, demure, and punctilious demeanour characterised their conduct in the chapel, and they listened with unwearied assiduity to the language of a doctrine so new to them. They found a refuge from their miseries in accepting the glad offers of salvation which were freely held forth to them; they soon learnt how opposed to such a religion was the character and conduct of many of the planters, and endeavoured, by their expressions and profession, to show to their masters how willingly they received the grace which was rejected by the others.

There was much in the negro character which associated them with religion; a consciousness of weakness and helplessness led them to cling to the assistance afforded by Christianity; a devotional and affectionate disposition rendered them open to the conciliation and love of the Gospel; whilst at the same time, a thirst for knowledge and a desire for improvement stimulated them to persevere in the only path of instruction open to them; but as might have been expected, they were sadly deficient in the practical tendency of the religion which they professed. Belief, worship, and praise were readily conceded by them; but when the hour arrived to apply the principles of godliness to the circumstances of life, they either mistook or abused the occasion. They would walk for miles through all weathers to attend the chapel,

they would devote hours to listen to their preachers, or join in the monotonous psalm-singing; they would forfeit pleasures and pecuniary advantages to commune with their Creator in some form of prayer or hymn; but they carried no such fervent zeal into the habits of daily action; they appeared to think that faith alone was necessary, and that good works were superfluous. They saw the eye of the God in the Church and in the Bible; but they forgot that the glance of the Almighty continued to follow them everywhere, and marked each thought and wish. The cant of hypocritical language often cast suspicion upon their sincerity; the lazy, the dissolute, the disaffected, met every rebuke and remonstrance by some Scriptural phrase or religious expression, whose meaning could in any manner be conceived to exonerate them from helping themselves. That charity which covers a multitude of sins seemed long wanting in them. Puritans in profession, they were liberals in practice; and so long as holy words met their ear, cared not to investigate further the tenets and opinions of their teachers. But with all their errors, which were in some degree inseparable from their position, there was an admirable opportunity presented to the missionaries of instilling sound principles of the truth and duties of our revealed religion. Unfortunately, the temporal condition of the slave was too often mixed up with this spiritual state; and the animadversions and reflections upon slavery, perhaps just in themselves, were little calculated to sooth the bruised spirit, or heal the gaping wound. The ministers of such chapels neglected the laws of the community in which they lived, and considered that in the service of God they could treat the ordinances of man with contempt and scorn. They forgot their obedience to temporal rulers in their desire to point out their vices, their oppression, and their injustice. They

aroused the slave to a love for God, but a hatred to man; they opened his eyes to his degraded and forlorn bondage, and darkly hinted at the power which might be employed to rend it. They have the merit of first instructing the negro mind in the knowledge and doctrine of the Saviour, and of imposing on him the necessity, if not the wish, to take up their cross, and follow Him; but they have also the shame to have imprudently and dangerously worked upon the passions of their hearers, until such passions broke through all restraint, and urged them on to disobedience, rebellion, and bloodshed. Unfortunate and disheartening was the result of the Moravian mission to the Indian; unhappy and calamitous was the effect of the London mission to the African negro; but each produced some good fruit amid the bitter, some lasting advantage amid the temporary disaster; the religion thus offered to these people has never been taken from them—the fire thus feebly kindled has continued to burn under every change of circumstance and time, and we will continue to trace its progress.

Up to the year 1829 the Church Missionary Society continued to send out some of its members to instruct and to impart religion among the negroes. In that year, however, Mr. J. Armstrong, a catechist, received instructions to proceed up the river Essequibo, and to ascertain the capability and the disposition of the Indian to receive similar assistance. Having reported favourably of their condition, he was directed to commence a mission to the Indians, and fixed upon a place called "Bartica," or "Red Earth," which is situated at the confluence of the Mazaruni with the Essequibo, hoping that the Indians of both rivers would find it equally convenient to visit him. The then governor of Demerara, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, granted 300 square roods of land for the purpose, and the missionary began his labours. He

had soon the happiness of witnessing the progress of his work, and by degrees a regular system of education and religious instruction was pursued, and advanced to such a degree as to render further assistance necessary. In the year 1833 Mr. Youd, another catechist, was sent to assist Mr. Armstrong, and it was arranged that whilst one resided at the infant mission the other should occasionally travel in the neighbourhood, and carry the "glad tidings" to the natives themselves. The settlement increased in size and importance, more buildings were erected, and the land cleared for gardens and planting. About a mile from the beautiful strip of land called "Bartica Point" Mr. Youd established a residence called the Grove, but unhappily between the two missionaries there arose some misunderstanding, which led to the retirement of Mr. Armstrong; and shortly after, about 1836, an epidemic of measles dispersed many of the settlers, and Mr. Youd having gone to Barbadoes to obtain ordination and to contract a marriage, found upon his return that the affairs of the mission were in a very deplorable state; nevertheless he continued there.

In the year 1837 the Reverend J. H. Bernau, one of the Church Missionary Society, a gentleman of considerable ability and of the most lively piety, was requested to leave his employment of preaching to the negroes in the Corentyn coast in Berbice, where he had been engaged about two years, and to proceed to the mission on the Essequibo, when he joined Mr. Youd, whom he found in sorrow and dejection at the failure of his plans. For some time the united efforts of these two amiable gentlemen proved unavailing; the Indians, influenced by their pe-i-men, or conjurors, objected to their presence and preaching, and frightened by the events of the first assemblage long opposed them; they were eventually, however, won over by the kindness and perseverance of

the missionaries, who soon had the happiness to see the settlement again rising, and the Indians willing to receive baptism, matrimony, education for their children, and burial for their dead.

About the year 1838 Mr. Youd, who had ascertained from Mr. Armstrong the readiness of the Indians in the interior to receive instruction, determined to proceed to the famous "Pirara," the supposed situation of the "El Dorado" of the Spaniards. After a few weeks' travel he reached that interesting spot, situated on the river Rupununi, one of the tributaries of the Essequibo, and after many dangers and difficulties had the happiness to see collected around him many of the natives eager to listen to the word of God, for the object of his mission had long preceded him. They had already built a church, and a house for the "dominie," as they termed the preacher, whilst their own simple huts lay strewed around—a strange contrast to the supposed wealth and opulence of the "golden city." The affairs of this distant mission progressed very well for a time, but in about a year Mr. Youd having occasion to visit the Grove, found, on his return to Pirara in 1839, the aspect of affairs completely changed. According to the indefatigable Sir Robert Schomburgk, who had been engaged in exploring the interior of British Guiana, it appears that on his return from an exploring expedition to Pinara or Pirara, in May, 1839, he found it occupied by a detachment of Brazilian National Guards, under Senhor Pedro Ayres. The church, in which formerly hymns to the praise of the Lord had been sung, and where the first seeds of Christianity had been sown among the benighted Indians, was now converted into barracks, and was the theatre of obscene language and nightly revels.

It appears that a Roman Catholic padre had visited this spot from the neighbouring fort of St. Joaquim to

attend to the spiritual wants of the garrison. "This boundary fort, which is pleasantly situated in the midst of the Savannahs, is built on the eastern shore of the river Takutu, within a few hundred yards of its confluence with the Rio Branco, the Parima of the Macusi Indians, or Urariguira, of the Parasilhanas. A detachment of Spaniards from Nuvoa Guayana, on the Orinoco, arrived in 1775 by the Caroni and Uraricapari at the Rio Branco, and fortified themselves in the vicinity of the confluence of the river Yurumi. They were dispersed by the Portuguese, who, against the incursions of the Spaniards as well as against the Dutch, erected the boundary Fort St. Joaquim. It is constructed of red sandstone found in the vicinity, and has fourteen embrasures, mounted with eight nine-pounders, in tolerable condition. A commandant, who is an officer in the provincial militia, and ten privates garrisoned it when we were there, and a small chapel and five houses constituted the village. Every two or three years a priest visits the fortress to administer to the spiritual wants of its inhabitants."

The Catholic priest finding the village of Pirara and its inhabitants under the influence of the heretic, no doubt on his return to Fort Joaquim acquainted the commandant with the state of affairs, who thereupon sent the above detachment, which gave rise to the change in the prospects of the mission. Mr. Youd was unwillingly obliged to relinquish the work he had begun, and receiving orders from the officer in charge to leave the spot, commenced another settlement at the Urwa rapids, where he strenuously endeavoured to rally the Indians around him; after considerable difficulty the ground was cleared and planted, but the natives came in slowly, owing to the Brazilians threatening them if they removed from under their protection. The indefatigable missionary still persevered until the loss of his wife, and another command from the

“fort” to retire compelled him in sorrow to quit the scene of his arduous efforts. As the Pirara and its vicinity is situated on the limits of British and Brazilian Guiana, the exact boundary of each were not settled, and several disputes and warlike demonstrations have taken place between the two nations, and the circumstances being reported to the British Government, an expedition under Sir Robert Schomburgk was appointed to survey the boundaries of British Guiana, and set off in 1841.

Meanwhile, the Committee of the Church Missionary Society becoming acquainted with the facts of the case, ordered Mr. Youd to withdraw altogether from the disputed ground, and he accordingly proceeded down the river Essequibo as far as the “Waraputa” rapids, where he hoped to establish a mission, but disappointment again awaited him; scarcely had he settled himself, and collected around him about a hundred settlers, when a military expedition, on its way from Georgetown to Pirara, requested him to accompany the troops as interpreter and guide. Having yielded to the request, knowing it was with the sanction of Government, and believing it to be for the interests of the natives, he proceeded with the small detachment of soldiers, and many of his settlers followed him. The Brazilians at Pirara fled at their approach, and the British flag was shortly seen to wave in this remote part of the “wild country.” The chapel and the mission-house were again put to profitable use, numbers of Indians collected in the neighbourhood, but the immoral habits of the soldiers ruined the cause of religion, and the task of the poor missionary seemed hopeless. A rumour of the approach of an overpowering force of the Brazilians induced the soldiers to retire, the Indians disappeared, and the missionary having returned to Waraputa found everything forsaken and deserted. His health, long indifferent, now completely gave way; disheartened in

spirits, broken down in constitution from suffering and sickness, this unfortunate missionary lingered out for some time, and eventually died, not without suspicion that his death was caused by poison, administered to him by an Indian whom he had unwittingly offended.

Another missionary, the Rev. Mr. Pollitt, was directed to supply the vacancy occasioned by the death of Mr. Youd; he proceeded to Waraputa and diligently set about his object, but misfortune likewise awaited him—his life was nearly lost in traversing one of the rapids, and his health being seriously impaired he was obliged to return to England.

In spite of a few subsequent efforts to revive the mission at Waraputa, it has completely failed, a few partially civilised Indians, and half constructed buildings, alone mark the spot of so much toil and so much suffering. The amazed natives gaze at the ruins of Pirara, Urwa, and Waraputa, and reflect upon the temporary vision of a future state afforded them by the white men who had once preached amid its wilderness. His heart is warmed by the recollection of the friendly greetings and benevolent conduct of the humane strangers, and his eyes perhaps fill with tears at the remembrance of their sufferings and death; but his thoughts wander again to the great spirit of his own creed, and his feelings impel him to seek again his Indian conjurers and priests. Turning away from the traces of brighter days, he resumes in apathy and listlessness the “even tenor of his way,” and, unmindful of the important interests of religion, follows the avocations of his forefathers, and sinks, like them, into the forgetful grave. But a more fortunate result awaited the mission already established at “Bartica Point.” Under the judicious and pious superintendence of the Rev. J. H. Bernau, the settlement soon assumed the appearance of civilisation and cheerfulness; neat buildings were erected,

pleasant gardens and provision fields laid out, and a chapel was soon afterwards built, towards the construction of which the natives, besides their labour, contributed the sum of 150*l.* Another sum of 250*l.* was raised among friends by the missionary himself, and his Excellency Governor Light contributed as a present from the colony the handsome donation of 500*l.* Various kinds of employment were found for the Indians, who yearly increased in numbers round the settlement; the children were taught, and were well grounded in religion; after a certain age many were sent to Georgetown or elsewhere, and bound apprentices to various trades, and by their good conduct did credit to the labours of the missionary. A sincere feeling of religion sprung up among those resident at the settlement, and numerous converts were won over to the kingdom of Heaven. The inconsiderate mind of the Indian has been roused to a consciousness of its guilt, and many a heart, before hardened in sin, is now softened by repentance and contrition.

In the beginning of the year 1843, his Excellency Governor Light, the Lord Bishop of Guiana, the Venerable the Archdeacon, the Government Secretary, and other influential gentlemen visited the settlement of "Bartica," and expressed themselves favourably of the progress of the mission. The chapel was consecrated by the bishop, and a confirmation of many of the Indians took place. From that period up to the present time* the good work has steadily progressed under the same Christian Missionary, and strangers on visiting the colony are directed with pride to proceed to the Essequibo and mark the influence of Christian teaching upon the hearts and behaviour of the Indian. Not gifted with

* Since the above was written, the fate of this mission has been less promising—there are but few Indians found in the neighbourhood, and the Rev. J. H. Bernau has returned to Europe.

high intelligence, not endowed with lofty aspirations, the simple native of the country is possessed of warm and affectionate feelings when well treated, but is vindictive and dangerous when deceived or injured. Disinclined to toil, and inapt to trade, the Indian requires some stimulus to civilisation; surely no better or more certain method could have been adopted than to Christianise him! and the principles of true religion being instilled into his heart, cannot but be productive of good, both to himself, his family, and descendants. A firm hold seems now to have been taken of his sentiment, a sure footing established in his neighbourhood, and unless the neglect or apathy of Government, or the evil examples of the wicked frustrate the good work which has been begun, we may hope that at some future period Bartica will become the city of the regenerated Indian, and the symbol of the Cross conspicuous in the vicinity of the tall forest, the rocky mountain, and the flowing rivers. At the time when the colony of Dutch Guiana was surrendered to the British, the progress of religion had been trifling. A church for the use of the Dutch was indeed built on Fort Island, the ancient capital of Essequibo, and another place of worship according to the Lutheran creed was established in Berbice, but in Demerara, at the commencement of the nineteenth century, there was neither church nor chapel, and although it is possible for religion to be practised without the assembling together of individuals within sacred walls, yet it would have been difficult to have recognised the belief of the community in the Scriptures by judging of the general conduct and tone of morality. There were many good qualities exhibited in the lives of many of the colonists; there were many acts of kindness and generosity which marked their career, but unfortunately few possessed anything like a lively sense of the revealed word of God. The few attempts made, as above narrated, by the missionaries to improve the moral

condition of the slave had been met by coldness and opposition on the part of the planters, and had ended in little more than proclaiming to them that a God existed, of whom perhaps they were before ignorant, or in doubt. The harsh severity of human laws, although considerably modified of late years, still pressed with intolerable weight upon the unhappy negro, and, deprived of consolation, he lived without a hope beyond the grave, and looked forward with indifference to his fate in another world, when after years of toil he should be called away from this.

It is from no wish to claim for the British any particular merit or sanctity that I present the reverse of this picture in the success that attended subsequent efforts; but it is certain that soon after the English took possession of the colony, the progress made in morality and religion was rapid and striking.

We have seen how English missionaries eagerly undertook the task of instructing the negro, and have sufficiently dwelt upon the benefit, as well as the errors, of their system. From the time of their first landing they have never deserted these shores. Intimidated by threats, threatened with expulsion, unsupported by the Government, separated from society, a regular succession of them has continually endeavoured to uphold the supposed interests of the negro, temporal as well as spiritual, against the influence of authority. The English inhabitants up to the year 1810 appear to have had no regular place of worship, a service according to the Liturgy of the Established Church was read by the Colonial Chaplain at the Court House, and was scantily attended by a few white inhabitants; but the necessity for a Church being more and more experienced, endeavours were made to erect one, and in the year above named a neat wooden building, "St. George's," was opened for public worship in Stabroek, and was the first episcopal church established in the colony.

By degrees educated clergymen arrived from England, and several other churches were erected in various parts of the colony, both at public and private expense. Their congregations were composed of a few of the neighbouring white families and the labourers on the estates, but there was a marked contrast in the manner in which the negroes received their spiritual aid and advice to that of the missionaries. They attributed to the clergymen of the Church feelings of pride and superciliousness towards themselves, and regarded them as rather mixed up with the interests of their masters than with theirs. They could not approach them with the same feelings of friendliness and familiarity with which they greeted the missionary minister, and could scarcely regard them with any other feelings than those of jealousy and suspicion. They complained of the language of the pulpit in the former being too refined and difficult for their understandings. The precepts of religion advanced were rather general than special; they could find little in such doctrines to apply to their own particular state; and expecting to discover in the matter of discourse some reference to their temporal and servile condition, they went away disappointed from the church. It is true they were taught their duties to God, to their superiors, and their masters and neighbours; but there were no flattering expressions of equality, no leading principles of liberty submitted for their approval. Their hearts were endeavoured to be reached by the formal recital of God's goodness and grace; but they felt no enthusiasm in listening to the word of the Bible so long as it did not expatiate upon, or allude to, their unhappy state of bondage. They heard with surprise their more prominent sins and offences pointed out and condemned, but were rather offended than self-convicted and humiliated. No vehement declaration about injustice and oppression in-

flamed their minds or excited their thoughts. Their attention was not fixed, nor their imagination fired by the studied language of the episcopalian preacher, and they turned away discontented with the view of religion presented to them in such an uninviting garb. If allusion was, indeed, occasionally made to their temporal position, it was only to remind them of the obedience and submission which the Bible exacted to rulers and those in authority. Whilst encouragement was held out to them to seek rather "those things which are above," they still naturally enough clung to some bright hope in this, and expected to hear it announced or insisted on by their teachers. They saw the clergymen of the Established Church associating and mixing in the society of their masters and owners; and how could they look from such parties for the impartial and disinterested denunciations of the "living truth?" They could not cordially seek the acquaintanceship, much less friendship, of an individual whom they saw on familiar and friendly terms with those opposed to them in interest, character, and principle. It may be that the clergymen did not trouble themselves much to cultivate or seek their good-will; it may be that they considered it imprudent if not dangerous to treat of such subjects as were likely to excite the negro, and carefully avoided any occasion to question the right or justice of the system of slavery; but contenting themselves with the expounding of sin and its consequences, left the work of temporal regeneration to other and more appropriate hands. Most of the gentlemen who filled such situations were, however, well educated and pious (with the exceptions we have nothing to do); but as a general rule, it must be admitted that they failed (perhaps still fail) to attract the ready sympathy of the negro audience; and, however just their opinions and conduct, rarely met with that popular

applause which, in spite of its fickle hollowness, is still so flattering to the human mind.

The spread of religious instruction, and the gradual augmentation of the number of clergymen and churches, rendered it imperative that some division should be made of their labours and districts. In the year 1826 an act was passed by the Lieutenant-Governor and the Court of Policy "to divide the united colony of Demerara and Essequibo into ten separate and distinct parishes;" the names and extent of these were accordingly defined. Berbice was subsequently divided into parishes, and an episcopalian church was erected in New Amsterdam shortly after. In the next year, 1827, an amended act was passed by the same authority, "to establish and regulate vestries throughout the colonies of Demerara and Essequibo." The vestrymen were enjoined to associate with the ministers of the parishes in regulating the local matters of their district and church, and to communicate with the Court of Policy in cases of doubt and difficulty; a penalty was exacted in case individuals should refuse to act as vestrymen when nominated by the Governor and Court of Policy. A similar ordinance was subsequently passed by Lieutenant-Governor Smyth and the Court of Policy in December, 1836, in the district of Berbice.

In 1831 an ordinance was passed "for regulating and preserving registers of baptisms, marriages, and burials;" but in 1838 an Order in Council appeared, providing for the regulation and registry of marriages, adapted to the "altered state and condition of society in the colonies;" while in 1843 an ordinance was passed by Governor Light and the Court of Policy "to establish a registry of baptisms and burials in British Guiana."

Since the year 1826 the colonies of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, and their dependencies, were con-

sidered "to be respectively parts and parcels of the see of the Bishop of Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands;" and in the second year of her present Majesty's reign "one archdeaconry was constituted in and over the colony of British Guiana, subordinate and subject to the bishop's see of Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands." The Rev. P. Austin was appointed archdeacon, the Bishop of Barbadoes making an occasional visit to the several districts. In consequence, however, of the increased responsibility attaching to the jurisdiction of ecclesiastical affairs in the colonies generally, it appeared proper to the British Government to appoint several colonial bishops. On the 1st August, 1842, British Guiana was separated from the diocese of Barbadoes and erected into a distinct bishopric. By letters patent of the Queen, the Rev. Dr. Austin, archdeacon, was appointed the first bishop of the Episcopal Church in these realms, "subject and subordinate only to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury, and to the most reverend the archbishop of the same." Archdeacons were subsequently appointed to the several counties of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice. It is only just that praise should be accorded to the gentlemen nominated to such important offices. The bishop has had to contend with all the difficulties of a new office, and to inspire confidence and affection on the part of his brother clergymen, above whom he had been thus unexpectedly elevated. Junior to many of them, his bland and conciliatory manner, his earnestness and zeal in the cause of the Church and of religion have rendered him esteemed and respected by all classes.

The Venerable the Archdeacon Lugar,* of Demerara and Essequibo, likewise fully deserves all the friendship and respect entertained towards him, not only by his parishioners, but by all persons who have had the oppor-

* Since dead.

tunity of witnessing his industry and attention to his numerous and important duties. The same good-will and affection is also shown to the Archdeacon of Berbice, and to the clergy generally for their Christian deportment and piety. Besides the bishop and two archdeacons, there are three rural deans, one for each of the counties of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice.

The following is the present distribution of parishes in British Guiana :

EPISCOPALIAN CHURCH ESTABLISHMENTS.

St. George's parish embraces Georgetown and the estates along the Cummingsburg canal. It contains about twelve churches, chapels, and other places of divine worship.

St. Paul's parish extends from plantation Cumming's Lodge to plantation Nooten Zuil, and possesses one church and two chapels.

St. Matthew's parish is from Georgetown up the east bank of the river Demerara as far as the settlements extend. It contains but one church.

St. Swithin's parish reaches from plantation La Grange, on the west bank of the river Demerara, to plantation Jalousie on the west coast. It comprises one church and a chapel.

St. Peter's parish comprises the island of Leguan and Hog island, where there are churches and chapels.

St. John's parish is in Essequibo, and extends from Schoomhoven creek to Capouie creek, including the settlements on the intervening creeks and Tiger island.

Trinity parish, likewise in Essequibo, includes the districts between Capouie creek and Pomeroon river, and as far as the British settlements extend. It includes chapel-ries on Waakenaam island.

All Saints' parish is in Berbice, and comprises the town

of New Amsterdam, plantations Overwinning, Providence, and the settlements on the left bank of Canje creek.

St. Michael's parish, also in Berbice, extends from the Abary creek to plantation Balthyock.

St. Patrick's parish includes the settlements on the right bank of Canje creek and on both sides of the East Coast canal.

CHURCHES.—The present handsome cathedral of the city of Georgetown was commenced in 1839, and the site chosen was that occupied by the old church St. George, erected since 1810, which was pulled down, and altered and improved to form the present building. It was finished and opened for service in August, 1842. It cost about 12,000*l.*, towards which sum the colony granted about 7000*l.* At its eastern end it is ornamented with two large painted windows: one, the largest, was the gift of Governor Light; the other, circular in shape, was a present from the bishop. This church has a fine organ and an accomplished organist.

Christ church is another episcopal establishment. It was erected at private expense, in 1837, by a few gentlemen of the colony, and cost about 6000*l.* Its present minister, the Rev. W. Fox, has a large and respectable congregation, and is deservedly respected for his zeal and Christian deportment.

St. Philip's church, also a place of worship for the members of the Church of England, is made of iron, and was imported from England, chiefly at the expense of the present incumbent, the Rev. J. H. Webber, a gentleman of attainments and piety.

The number of persons belonging to the Church of England is, in Demerara, 19,353; in Essequibo, 13,154; in Berbice, 7280. Total, 39,787.

The Church of Scotland is one of the oldest in the country; it comprises nine parishes:—

St. Andrew's parish has the same boundaries as those of St. George; with a commodious church in Georgetown, and an excellent school. Its venerable minister, the Rev. J. Struther, D.D., is much esteemed by his large and respectable congregation.

St. Mary's parish extends from Abary creek to plantation Lowlands, including Mahaicony and Mahaica creeks with the settlements on their banks.

St. Mark's parish is from plantation Mindenburg and Canal No. 1, along the west bank of the river Demerara.

St. Luke's parish comprises the estates and villages from plantation Blankenburgh to the river Essequibo.

St. James's parish is in Essequibo, and embraces Waakenaam and Troolie islands.

The remaining parishes are situate in Berbice; St. Clement's parish includes all the settlements on the east bank of the river Berbice from plantation Everton to plantation Onderneeming, both inclusive.

St. Catherine's parish consists of the settlements on the west bank of Berbice river from plantation Zorg-en-hoop to plantation Herstelling.

St. Saviour's parish embraces all the settlements on the Corentyn coast and river.

All Saints' parish comprises the town of New Amsterdam and its suburbs.

All these parishes have good churches, schools, and respectable ministers. The members of the Scotch Church amount in Demerara to 5436; in Essequibo, 3287; in Berbice, 2941; total, 11,664.

The Dutch Reformed Church has at present but few members; from being the oldest and most important clerical establishment it is now reduced to a small section of the community, but, nevertheless, has an intelligent and well-educated minister, the Rev. G. Drost, who officiates

alternate Sundays in Georgetown at the Scotch church, and in Fort island at the church erected there.

Before the year 1770, divine service was performed in what was then termed the "Church Buildings," but on the 24th June of this year the last sermon was preached there by parson Lingins, who took for his text Isaiah, ii. chap., 3rd verse.

On the 1st of July following the newly-built church was solemnly consecrated, and the preacher chose for his text Ezra, vi. chap., 14 to 17 verses. Upon this occasion a great many persons belonging to the congregation assembled to witness the ceremony.*

From the year 1766 to 1793 parties about to contract marriage were always *undertrowed* (betrothed) by the clergy, except in cases of sickness; an announcement to that effect was made in the church for three successive Sundays, in conformity with the code of marriage regulations of 1656. From 1793 to 1796 there were no regular clergymen in the colony, and certain fees to the amount of two hundred guilders were exacted for the ceremony of undertrowing. When the clergy were again established, they petitioned in 1819 against this ceremony being transferred to the civil or lay power, and protested against the regulations then in force on this subject.

The Roman Catholic Ecclesiastical Establishment comprises a large church, with a dwelling-house attached for its priests, and a well-conducted convent, both in Georgetown, besides several chapels and missions throughout the colony, viz., on the east coast, Waakenaam, Arabian coast, west bank of Demerara river, Berbice, Morocco creek, and other places. The head of the Church here is the Right Reverend J. T. Hynes, D.D., bishop and vicar apostolic, who is assisted by the Reverend F. Hayden—all of whom are respected for their piety and

* Extract—Notulæ of the consistory of the Dutch Reformed Church.

zeal. The Ursuline convent in Georgetown is under the immediate superintendence of Mrs. O'Brien, superioress, and comprises a religious community of ten ladies, who have established a school for female children, which is much appreciated by the community. The number of Roman Catholics in the colony is about 10,000, and the continued influx of Portuguese immigrants is calculated greatly to augment it.

There are several Independent congregational Dissenters in the colony, who have commodious chapels, large congregations, and respectable schools and teachers. New Providence chapel is in Georgetown, under the charge of a pious and accomplished minister. The city Independent chapel has also a congregation, and a useful minister. Salem chapel is at the Lodge, one of the suburbs of the city, and has a good congregation, presided over by a clergyman of African descent, who is well educated, and much esteemed by the members of his church. The numbers belonging to this class of Christians are about 14,000.

The Wesleyans first established themselves in this colony about the year 1809, under the leadership of William Claxton, who came from one of the Leeward islands. They soon afterwards found it necessary to write to the committee of Wesleyan Missions for a minister, and the Rev. Mr. Talbot was in consequence sent out to this country, and arrived here on the 20th of February, 1814. They subsequently built a chapel in Georgetown, and have continued to increase their numbers, at all times meriting the esteem and good-will of the inhabitants. They possess now about twelve chapels, both in town and country, and reckon seven ministers of unimpeachable character and respectability. Their numbers throughout the whole colony may be estimated at about 9000 persons. It would appear that in 1794 the

Wesleyans of Europe wrote to the States-General requesting permission to send missionaries to Guiana; this request was referred to the Court of Policy, but was objected to and refused by that body.

The churches and chapels belonging to the London missionaries are numerous and respectable. In Georgetown, Smith chapel has been built by the efforts of the energetic minister, the Rev. E. A. Wallbridge, and his congregation, as well as a large school-house adjoining. The chapels in Berbice on the east and west coasts of Demerara, on Leguan, Canal No. 1, and other places, are equally well supported and attended as Smith's chapel, and the labours of the several excellent ministers duly appreciated by all ranks; to each of the chapels, schools and teachers are attached. The numbers attached to these churches are 15,600.

NATURAL HISTORY
OF
BRITISH GUIANA.

THE VEGETABLE KINGDOM.

PART I.—GENERAL REMARKS—PLANTS YIELDING EDIBLE PRODUCTS—THE SUGAR CANE—ITS VARIETIES AND PRODUCTS—RUM—THE PLANTAIN TREE—COTTON—COFFEE—MAIZE, OR INDIAN CORN—CASSAVA—RICE—SPICES—PEPPERS—COCOA—GUINEA CORN—TOBACCO—PLANTS YIELDING STARCH—PLANTS YIELDING DYES, OILS, GUMS, AND RESINS.

PART II.—ALPHABETICAL LIST OF SOME OF THE MOST COMMON TREES AND PLANTS OF BRITISH GUIANA.

PART III.—ALPHABETICAL LIST OF HARDWOOD AND OTHER USEFUL TIMBER TREES INDIGENOUS TO BRITISH GUIANA.

PART IV.—THE PLANTS OF BRITISH GUIANA, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO THE CLASSIFICATION OF PROFESSOR LINDLEY.

In entering upon the consideration of the vegetable kingdom, of the trees, plants, and shrubs of the colony, I feel almost at a loss how to convey anything like an adequate idea of the innumerable objects presented in this vast field of inquiry. The forests abound in valuable timber trees, whose woods are of the highest value in ship-building, cabinet and house work. I have made an alphabetical list of some of the principal timber trees, a reference to which will furnish the reader with the usefulness and value of the woods of the colony. Besides these, a large number of medicinal plants abound: the properties of some,

such as the sarsaparilla, copaiba, laurel oil, ipecacuanha, simaruba, quassia, are well known; but there are many others whose qualities are but imperfectly understood even to the native Indian, who has learned from experience that certain plants have been used by his forefathers for particular ailments, and who culls from the luxuriant forests, or the fertile banks of streams, the plant best suited for the disorder under which he may happen to be labouring. Nor is the knowledge of the medicinal herbs confined alone to the Indian: the negroes are commonly in the habit of using the leaves, bark, and roots of numerous common plants in the treatment of disease, or for the alleviation of some morbid symptom. According to their belief—and indeed my own accords with theirs—there is scarcely a plant found without possessing some remarkable quality, useful either as medicine or food, or capable of yielding some valuable product. Thus the angostura, mangrove, cashew, hog-plum, papaw, yaruri, quama, pacurie, waracourie, fitweed, mocco-mocco, eye-plant, mudar, cephalic vine, guaco, vervain, goat-leaf, duckweed, prickly pear, boeirari, physic nuts, lana, dali, and a host of other plants, are in common use among the natives of the country.

PLANTS YIELDING EDIBLE PRODUCTS.

It would be difficult to enumerate the numerous trees and plants which contribute to the necessaries or luxuries of the table in this country; a few, however, may be noticed.

The yams are sufficiently known without further description, and are of inestimable value, although not cultivated to the extent desired.

There are several varieties, such as the buck yam, the common yam, the Guinea yam, the Barbadoes

yam, and other species, which may almost be said to grow wild in the fertile soil.

The sweet potatoes (*Convolvulus batatas*) are of native growth, and the demand for them is much greater than the supply. The same may be said of the numerous species of eddoes (*Caladium*), and Indian kale, or spinaches, ground nuts (*Arachis hypogea*), and other similar vegetables.

The ochro (*Hibiscus esculentus*) is a favourite plant, commonly cultivated by the negroes and others for its useful properties. The young capsules make a delicious and nutritious soup; the leaves are found cleansing and detergent for the hair, and are believed to add to its growth and beauty.

The sorrel plant (*Hibiscus sabdariffa*) is a pretty and useful shrub, the capsules of which are used in making a favourite creole beverage called "sorrel drink," by fermenting a sweetened infusion.

Besides the above, the bread-fruit tree (*Artocarpus incisa*), the bread-nut tree (*Artocarpus nucifera*), Brazil nut tree (*Bertholletia excelsa*), the avocardo, or vegetable pear (*Persea gratissima*), and many others, deserve notice.

THE SUGAR CANE.—(*Saccharum Officinarum*.)

Sugar, the well-known product of the sugar cane (*Saccharum officinarum*), is the staple article of export of this colony, and has been so for many years. It is the oldest and the most enduring of those various valuable plants which have been introduced into British Guiana from other parts of the world. Since its first manufacture and exportation, it has never—like other valuable plants, such as cotton and coffee—ceased to be sedulously and diligently cultivated. It has given rise to the present importance of this "magnificent

province." It has realised large fortunes for clever speculators and capitalists, but it has also been the cause of ruin to hundreds who have unsuccessfully ventured in the lottery of the sugar market. The vicissitudes in the quality and quantity produced, in the prices realised, and in the difficulties attending its cultivation, and the duties levied by the British Government on its admission into Great Britain, are all intimately connected with the social and political history of the colony, and have been already alluded to. The cultivation of the sugar cane began in this colony about the year 1600, or shortly after the Spaniards took possession of the Americas. Its early history deserves, perhaps, a little notice in this place.

The synonyms of the word sugar in other languages are as follows :

English.	Latin.	Spanish.	Portuguese.	Arabic.
Sugar.	Saccharum.	Açucar.	Assucar.	Zucra. Soukar.

In the Old Testament the sweet cane is mentioned as an article of merchandise.*

The ancients were well acquainted with its uses, and being a native of the East, it was in all probability cultivated by many of the nations.

Sugar appears to have been known to the Chinese before the time of our Saviour.

There is a passage in Dioscorides which seems to imply that the art of granulating the juice by evaporation was practised in his time; for he describes sugar as having the appearance of salt, and of being brittle to the teeth :

" Salis modo coactum est; dentibus ut sal fragile."

Lucan also, enumerating the Eastern auxiliaries of Pompey, describes a people who used the cane juice as a common drink :

" Quique bibunt tenerâ dulces arundine succos."

* Isaiah xliii. 24. Jeremiah vi. 20.

From the countries of the East, the cultivation of the sugar cane spread towards the south of Europe, where its use became generally known about the time of the Crusades.* In the history of that period frequent mention is made both of sugar and the sugar cane.

A monkish writer† observed that the Christian soldiers in the Holy Land frequently derived refreshment and support under scarcity of provisions by sucking the sweet canes. The same author, in his account of the reign of Baldwin, relates that the Crusaders took eleven camels laden with sugar, so that it must have been made in considerable quantities.

It would be tedious to enter into the arguments as to whether the sugar cane was found by the Spaniards on their discovery of the New World, or whether it was carried thither along with a great variety of plants by Columbus or some of his followers.

From the fact of a species of sugar cane having been found in several islands of the Pacific Ocean by subsequent discoverers, who have especially alluded to this circumstance, it appears probable that one or more species of the sugar cane was found also in different parts of the western continent. Whether or no that the Spaniards did or did not introduce the cultivation of the sugar cane in the Western World, it is quite clear, however, that they first applied themselves in those countries to the manufacture of the sugar by means of "ingenios," or sugar mills, of which, according to Oviedo, there were no less than thirty in the island of Hispaniola in the year 1535.

The soil being found so favourable to its cultivation, and the earliest speculations so successful, the example thus early set by the Spaniards was speedily followed

* B. Edwards, vol. ii. p. 233.

† Albertus Aquensis.

by future adventurers who settled in the Antilles, until sugar became the chief staple commodity and article of export from nearly all the colonies in those latitudes.

There are at present three varieties of the sugar cane in general use in this colony.

The creole cane (*Saccharum commune*), the *cano creolia* of Cuba, was probably the earliest known here, and was derived by the Spaniards from the Canary Islands.

The Bourbon cane (*Saccharum Bourboni*) probably succeeded the other, and was brought from the island of that name, being introduced there from Java, where it appears to be indigenous.

The Otaheite cane (*Saccharum officinarum*) was discovered by Bougainville, Cook, Bligh, and other travellers, in the Society Islands, and was afterwards introduced into the West Indies. Bougainville first carried it to the Isle of France (Bourbon), where it passed to Cayenne and Martinique in 1792. The Otaheite cane was already cultivated in 1795 in Trinidad, and was sent from thence to the plantations on the main land.* This description of cane is most generally cultivated in this colony.

Other varieties of cane are also in cultivation in the West Indies: namely, the white cane; the violet, or purple cane; the black cane; the Brazil cane; the striped Bourbon; the Mont Blanc cane; the ribbon, or gingham cane, &c.†

The sugar obtained from the varieties of cane differs in quality, appearance, and value, according to the process used in its manufacture.

Sugar is manufactured in such different ways, and upon such different systems, on the various planta-

* Schomburgk's History of Barbadoes.

† Ibid.

tions, that it would be almost impossible to give a detailed account of them; nor is it necessary. The general principle upon which sugar is extracted from the plants yielding it is so commonly understood as to render a particular description undesirable in this place.

The system generally practised is simple enough: the juice, or liquor, of the cane is first pressed out by machinery, the fluid is conducted into cisterns, or boxes, where an alkali, such as lime, is added to neutralise acidity, and otherwise defecate it. In some instances it is further defecated, or clarified, by passing it through filters, or large iron vessels called clarifiers, where it is treated either by steam or the open fire before it is passed into successive cast-iron pans, called "coppers," where it is thoroughly boiled, skimmed, and evaporated to the consistence of a thick syrup, when it is transferred into the "coolers," large, shallow, wooden vessels like enormous trays, where it is allowed to crystallise.

Some practical knowledge is required throughout the whole of this process, especially at the stage known as the "striking point," when it is of importance to judge accurately of the fitness of the boiled syrup to crystallise. By this process the common well-known Muscovado sugar is prepared, but on many estates beautiful sugars are manufactured by the "vacuum pan," which for many years has been in partial use here.

There are various ways of preparing the syrup before it is transferred to the pans. Sometimes the syrup, having attained a density of 25 deg. of Beaume, is filtered through animal charcoal, and crystallised in the vacuum pan. Excellent sugar is also manufactured on some estates by "Hardman and Finzell's

patent centrifugal machine,"—a very simple and admirable process, by which thick syrup introduced into the revolving pans is rapidly evaporated to a dry, crystallised sugar of fine quality.

Good sugar is likewise made by the use of Gadsden and Evans's evaporating pan, the cone de Limbec, &c.

Frequent attempts have been made to improve the quality of the sugar by the use of the sugar of lead in defecating the liquor previous to boiling. There can be no doubt that this agent has the property of throwing down a larger quantity of impurities in the expressed juice than any other at present in use. The objection to its general adoption is the difficulty of separating it from the clarified liquor. This desideratum is stated to be fully accomplished by those who consider that they have discovered the necessary means to effect its thorough removal from the purified cane juice; while the opponents to its use are as positive in their belief that this deleterious agent is never completely removed by any known process, and affirm that traces of it may constantly be found in the sugar manufactured by such a process. However safe and practicable in a laboratory, under the hands of a skilful chemist, it is doubtful whether the administration of such a dangerous reagent could ever safely be entrusted to the management of ignorant negro sugar boilers.

The sugar cane contains in 100 parts :

Water, or juice	72 parts
Soluble matter	18 "
Woody fibre	10 "
				100

The amount of crystallisable sugar is 18 per cent., but the actual quantity obtained falls far short of this.

An acre of land has produced from 6000 to 8000 lbs. of sugar. The quantity of juice and soluble matter

extracted by the best machinery is from 50 to 60 per cent. The proportion of sugar contained in this juice varies according to the quality of the land, the season, the age, and general condition of the plants, and the process used in the manufacture. One ton of sugar is sometimes obtained from 1800 gallons of juice; the average quantity used may be estimated at 2400 gallons to yield the same quantity; while as much as 3600 gallons are sometimes required to give a similar amount. In the East Indies and Cuba 2800 lbs. of sugar is obtained on an average from as many gallons of liquor by Derosne's apparatus. This would give 1 lb. of sugar to the gallon of juice; in this colony the amount varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. to $1\frac{1}{4}$ lb. per gallon.

The cost of preparing a ton of ordinary Muscovado sugar may be estimated at from 10*l.* to 12*l.* Its value, after deducting duties, freight, &c., at 16*s.* per cwt., is about 16*l.*, leaving a net profit of 4*l.* or 6*l.*

This quantity and profit may be taken as a moderate average of one acre of land. The price of sugar has fluctuated so much, and the uncertainty and cost of labour has been so great, that no reliance can be placed in the profitable cultivation of a sugar estate for any length of time. A small estate in this colony, or one yielding a return of one or two hundred hogsheads of sugar, does not pay; but it is nevertheless certain that an unencumbered estate, capable of making five or six hundred tons of good sugar, is an excellent investment of capital. The finer qualities of sugar, or that produced by the vacuum pan, afford a better return than the common Muscovado.

The manufacture of rum, by distillation from the skimmings of the sugar and other sweets, is too well known to require description. The processes at present in use on estates vary according to the taste or judg-

ment of the planters. Formerly rum, the produce of this colony, was not considered equal in quality to that exported by some of the other colonies, but of late years there has been a marked improvement in the spirit distilled, and it frequently realises as high a price in the English market as any other received.

An English chemist, Dr. Wilton Turner, who has spent much time in British Guiana, and who has especially devoted his great scientific knowledge to the improvement of the quality of the rum, is, I believe, generally allowed to have been very successful in the mode of distillation he adopts, and for which he has obtained from the legislature an ordinance to protect his patent.

PLANTAIN TREE.—(*Musa Paradisiaca.*)

The Plantain tree is perhaps one of the most useful plants found here. Independent of the beauty of its foliage, the rich broad green leaf, like velvet to the touch, is efficaciously employed in the dressing of blistered and ulcerated surfaces; and when these leaves are dried they make an admirable thatch, or serve exceedingly well for litter for the stable or cattle farm.

The stem of the plantain furnishes a large quantity of serviceable fibre,* from which good paper has been manufactured, some of which can be used for writing, and other kinds for wrapping goods. Excellent cloth and paper have been made at Paris from the plantain fibre.

The fruit is invaluable in a country which, raising no wheat, has to depend upon importations from foreign markets of this staff of life; but the plantain is

* From 3000 lbs. to 6000 lbs. of plantain fibre could be obtained annually from an estate of 400 acres, the value of which would probably be from 40*l.* to 43*l.* per ton.

an admirable substitute; it may be considered the bread of the tropics, and is much esteemed by the negroes, and even immigrants of all classes, who readily adopt the use of it. It grows very readily here, and is cultivated to a considerable extent; in former years almost every estate had its "plantain walk," which generally yielded sufficient for the population it contained.

The trees yield abundantly. A single plant has been known to yield a bunch of plantains weighing upwards of 100 lbs., but the average weight may be estimated from 20 lbs. to 35 lbs. The annual yield per acre of a plantain walk of average quality is about 450 bunches, weighing from 12,000 lbs. to 15,000 lbs., but as much as 20,000 lbs. have been obtained from one acre of land. From this quantity about one ton of an excellent starch, or meal, may be procured, but a much larger quantity could be obtained from a new or well-cultivated plantation. The plantain meal is the powdered fruit, after it has been stripped of the husk, dried, pulverised, and sifted; it is called here "Conquino Tay," or "Congo Tay;" it has a fragrant odour, and is of a yellowish brown colour. It is much used as food for children and convalescents, who relish and speak highly of it. It has been sent to Europe, and also to the Industrial Exhibitions of London, Dublin, and New York. According to Dr. Shier,* the accomplished agricultural chemist of this colony, who has analysed it, it is proved to be very nutritious, and "deserves a preference over all the pure starches, on

	Nitrogen per cent.	Proteine Com- pounds per cent.
* Plantain meal88	5.45
Maize meal (unhuaked)	1.73	10.72
Cassava meal (juice expressed)36	2.23
Ditto ditto (the sliced and dried roots)78	4.83

account of the proteine compounds it contains. "Full-sized and well-filled bunches give 60 per cent. of core to 40 per cent. of husk and top stem; but in general it would be found that the core did not much exceed 50 per cent., and the fresh core will yield 40 per cent. of dry meal, so that from 20 to 25 per cent. of meal is obtained from the plantain, or 5 lbs. from an average bunch of 25 lbs."

The sale of this meal at the price of arrowroot, or even at half the price, would ensure a handsome return per acre. The plantain is here commonly eaten either boiled or roasted; when stripped of its skin, boiled, and beaten in a wooden mortar, it makes a dense, firm mass, of greater consistency and toughness than the potato. In this state it is called "Foo foo" by the creoles, who, adding condiments and fish, or meat, consider it a great luxury. A good vinegar is prepared from the fermented fruit.

The Banana (*Musa sapientum*) is allied to the plantain, but although the fruit is sweeter and more luscious, it is not so nutritious; a bunch of bananas often contains from 160 to 180 fruits, weighing collectively from 70 lbs. to 80 lbs. From thirty to forty plants will grow in a space of little more than 1000 square feet. The fruit may be collected about ten months after the sucker has been planted. The stem yields a large proportion of excellent fibre, suitable to many of the purposes to which flax and hemp are applied.

COTTON.

Cotton was for many years the principal staple product of this colony, some notice of which has been taken in different parts of this work, and the reasons for its abandonment assigned. The indigenous cottons

of this country are very numerous, and the native Indians, the Macusis especially, have long been in the habit of cultivating the various species; they manufacture different sizes of spun cotton, and make several useful articles, such as aprons and hammocks, which latter are very strong, light, and durable. Some of the wild cotton met with has been much admired by competent judges, for their fine long staple and silky appearance, and specimens of cotton obtained from self-sown seeds, the remains of a cotton plantation abandoned nearly thirty years ago, were sent to the Great Exhibition of London, 1851, and had prizes awarded to the exhibitors. The cultivation of cotton was carried on to a very great extent on the coast lands of Berbice, Demerara, and Essequibo, as it was considered that the best cotton could not be advantageously grown at a greater distance than twenty miles from the sea; but this opinion is controverted by those who have had opportunities of seeing the fine specimens of wild cotton met with in the interior.

Cotton began to be exported from this colony in the year 1740. That cultivated in Berbice was the finest, and obtained the highest price in the English market. In the latter end of the year 1780 the prices of the cotton grown in the West Indies were as follows :

	s.	d.	
Berbice	2	1	per lb.
Demerara	1	11	"
Surinam	2	0	"
Cayenne	2	0	"
St. Domingo	1	10	"
Tobago	1	9	"
Jamaica	1	7	"

COFFEE.

Coffee was cultivated in this colony as far back as the year 1721, when, its value and importance being recognised, as well as the suitableness of the soil for its growth, a great many plantations were laid out, and it was for a very long time almost the only staple of

Berbice and Demerara. The coffee trees were found to grow very well on the lands of the coast and rivers, but the indefatigable Dutch had the sagacity to find out that it grew equally well, if not better, in the hilly regions of the interior, and the traces of coffee plantations have been found by travellers about 40 leagues inland. Dr. Hancock* stated, that at a place called Oropocary, about 120 miles up the river Essequibo, a coffee field, planted many years by the Dutch, and long since abandoned, was found to continue bearing in abundance, "nature alone, on this fertile soil, keeping up a reproduction of the trees."

There are at present a few plantations on which coffee bushes are still standing, and from which the berries are gathered when ripe by a few old and invalid people; the cost of good labour is too great to expend on the unremunerating berry, but nevertheless some care and attention is bestowed by a few proprietors of such estates as furnish the trees.

MAIZE, OR INDIAN CORN.—(*Zea Mays*.)

Indian Corn, or Maize (*Zea mays*), grows very readily in this colony, and might be cultivated to a very great extent, but this is not the case, and the colonists are under the necessity of importing an expensive and often inferior article; the cause of this is the universal evil of this country, namely, the want of labour. It is occasionally grown on estates, and may be raised along with the young sugar cane, as it does not appear to injure the latter; as it grows much faster, the crop of corn could be taken off before the canes had attained to any size. In separate fields, two, and often three crops of corn may be raised in one year.

The Indians carry on the cultivation of this useful

* Observations on the Climate, Soil, and Productions of British Guiana.

plant, but in a very imperfect manner, and barely sufficient for their own moderate wants. It is grown by them on the high lands of the river Pomeroon, 110 miles distant from the sea, and in many other places perhaps much further inland. As many as twelve barrels of shelled corn may be easily obtained from an acre of land, with scarcely any culture, the labour of planting, occasional weeding, and gathering the corn alone being required, and demanding very little labour. The maize grown here commands a higher price in the colonial market than that imported from the United States of America. The maize raised by the Indians in the interior is considered superior in general to that grown on the coast lands. It appears to be indigenous in many parts of the colony, and no soil is better suited for its cultivation than that met with here.

CASSAVA.

The Cassava, or Cassada, of this country are of two kinds, and appears to be indigenous. The sweet cassava (*Janipha loeflingii*) is a common plant found in gardens, about plantations and villages, and on nearly every Indian settlement, where it is cultivated as a valued edible product. It is eaten roasted, or mixed with other food, and is called by the natives "Bussuli."

The Bitter Cassava (*Janipha manihot*) is likewise commonly found throughout the colony, and although a poisonous plant, is converted by simple means into a pleasant and nutritious article of food. The roots are cleansed, scraped, and grated upon a board studded with small sharp fragments of stone, somewhat like coarse sand, and fastened to it by a resinous substance. This simple kind of grater is called by the Indians "Simary." The grated pulp is next put into a long tube,

made of some kind of reed, generally the "Itirriti," and through this cassava squeezer, or "Matapi" as it is termed, the juice is pressed out by forcibly drawing or lengthening the tube, the sides of which contracting, presses powerfully upon the cassava pulp, and effectually squeezes out the bitter and poisonous juice. The meal, or cassava flour, is then dried in the sun, or over the fire, sifted through the "Warrambi" sifter, made of the ita palm, and is subsequently made into large, flat, circular cakes, which are baked on iron plates, or by other means.

Good starch might be obtained from both the bitter and sweet cassava, although not so nutritious as the plantain and Indian corn meal; it would probably find a ready sale if carefully prepared and exported to Europe. It might be used alone, or mixed with wheat or barley flour. It has been estimated by Dr. Shier that about 10 tons of fresh roots could be obtained from one acre of properly cultivated land; this quantity would yield about $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons of meal, 539 lbs. of "cassareep," and 2 cwt. of starch.

At a moderate calculation, the prices likely to be obtained—namely, the meal at 1d. per lb., the cassareep at 1s. 5d. per lb., and the starch at 40s. per cwt.—would give 78l. 13s. 4d. as the gross amount derived per acre.

Cassareep,* called by the Indians "Cassaripo," is the inspissated juice of the bitter cassava root. It is the principal ingredient in the well-known West Indian dish "Pepper Pot," which, made of this useful sauce as the basis, and containing fish, flesh, and fowl, may, by moderate additions of cassareep, be kept good and wholesome for months, if not years. It is of a

* It is a powerful antiseptic, and is extensively used in making sauces, flavouring food, and preserving meat.

black colour, sweet taste, and of the consistence of syrup. It is prepared by boiling and evaporating the juice of the bitter cassava to a proper consistence. It is put into bottles by the Indians, who bring it to town, where it finds a ready sale at 2s. or more per bottle.

RICE.—(*Oryza Sativa*.)

The cultivation of Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is carried on to a very limited extent in this colony—indeed, it is only now and then that such a thing is heard of—and yet, without encroaching on the land at present laid out in sugar cultivation, there is abundance of territory admirably adapted to produce it. The specimens of rice grown in Berbice, Leguan, the rivers and creeks of the Essequibo and Pomeroun, have been remarkable for their size and beauty.

It is notorious that three crops can be obtained annually from one sowing, the new crop ratooning, or springing up from the old roots after each reaping. Indeed, it is related that an old colonist, Mr. Bielstein, who formerly cultivated this article on a small scale on the banks of the Lower Essequibo, raised repeatedly three crops in a year. The rice grown in the colony which I have seen was of admirable quality, and now that there is a large coolie population, who prefer rice to any other kind of food, it probably will be raised to greater extent than heretofore; indeed, the coolies have already commenced to raise it in small quantities in various parts of the colony, and as its cultivation could cover thousands of acres which are at present neglected, it is not improbable that if this class of labourers, as well as of the Chinese, continue to arrive in sufficient numbers, there will be more care and attention bestowed on its culture.

The quantity imported and consumed in the colony is already very large, but many cargoes brought here from the "East Indies" are forwarded or re-shipped to England, and prove remunerative.

A variety of spice and aromatic trees and plants are commonly found in this country, some of which might be turned to a better account than at present is the case. The Cinnamon tree (*Laurus cinnamomum*) was introduced here in 1772, and several of them are to be found on plantations and in gardens, where they grow luxuriantly. The bark and leaves afford a spicy flavour when bruised.

There are one or more species of wild cinnamon tree which are indigenous to this country, and which possess powerful aromatic properties, well known to, and appreciated by, the Indians and others.

The Nutmeg tree (*Myristica moschata*) has been found to grow very well in Trinidad, and would be sure to thrive in a soil and climate so suitable to its cultivation as that of Guiana. Indeed, some plants were lately introduced here, and, if I mistake not, are still flourishing in the grounds where they were placed. A species of wild nutmeg, accawai or waccakai nutmeg (*Acrodiclidium camara*), is indigenous to this colony; it is used by the natives as an efficacious remedy in disorders of the bowels.

Turmeric (*Curcuma longa*) grows commonly here, and is found to be superior in quality to the imported article.

The Ginger plant (*Zingiber officinale*) thrives exceedingly well in the colony; it is superior to that produced from the East, and both raw and preserved ginger are occasionally exported in small quantities.

The varieties of Capsicums, yielding the well-known Cayenne pepper, are astonishing; fine specimens, pre-

served in dilute acetic acid, have repeatedly been sent to Europe and America, and have been highly appreciated. They are met with in every garden, of various sizes, shapes, and colours, but are all pungent, and are much used and esteemed to flavour soups, meats, and other food.

Pickles, composed of capsicums, sliced papaw, mountain cabbage, shalots, French beans, are also prepared, and occasionally exported, or consumed in the colony.

The ordinary Pepper (*Piper longum*) is well suited to the soil of many parts of the country. It has already been cultivated in the neighbouring colony of Cayenne, whence it has been exported. The plant, a trailing vine, might be raised along with the nutmeg and spice trees, and yield as abundantly and profitably as in the Eastern Archipelago.

The Pimento, or Allspice (*Pimenta vulgaris*), is indigenous to South America, and, if necessary, might be successfully cultivated.

Cardamoms and other aromatic plants thrive exceedingly well.

COCOA.—(*Theobroma Cacao*.)

The Cocoa, or Cacao tree (*Theobroma cacao*), is found plentifully in this country, where it must have been imported many years ago. It yields numerous large nuts or pods, in which the seeds, from which cocoa is prepared, are found embedded in a kind of pulp. When separated from the husks the seeds are dried, and the creoles of this colony prepare an excellent chocolate by pounding them, and working them up, with a little spice and other substances, in long rolls, which are carried about the streets for sale. With a little care and attention this important article of commerce, which is in such demand in England, and is chiefly in-

troduced from foreign countries, might be exported from British Guiana in considerable quantity. It appears to be a hardy tree, and, once planted, large forests might be grown, requiring little trouble to watch and protect them.

According to Humboldt, cocoa plantations in Spanish America are chiefly occupied by persons in humble circumstances, who prepare for themselves and their children a slow but certain fortune; one single labourer is sufficient to aid them in their plantations, and thirty thousand trees once established, assure competence for a generation and a half.

Guinea Corn, or Indian Millet (*Sorghum vulgare*), might be cultivated to a much greater extent than at present is the case. Samples of it have been sent to the Industrial Exhibitions in England and America, and it has been suggested as a green forage crop for other countries. There are several varieties of it met with here, known as the two-coloured, the drooping, the paniced yellow-seeded. The weight per bushel of the common "paniced millet" is about 68 lbs.

There is a great variety of useful species of the Bean and Pea tribes; indeed, almost any known kind of these vegetables may be made to grow in this country. In many gardens the French bean, the fig bean, the red beans, and numerous others, are abundantly raised; while equally common are pigeon peas, increase peas, the green peas, &c. The dried leaf of the pigeon pea tree (*Cajanus indicus*) infused in hot water, and flavoured with sugar and milk, makes an excellent substitute for the Chinese teas.

Besides these vegetables, the cabbage, the carrot, the cucumber, the lettuce, the parsley, radish, and other European esculents succeed very well.

Of tropical fruits and condiments there is no limit.

The pine-apple, the shaddock, oranges, and limes; the guava, the bell apple, the mango, the sabbadilla, the melon, the soursop, the grenadilla, the grape, and a hundred other luscious fruits, grow to great perfection.

TOBACCO.—(*Nicotiana Tabacum.*)

The Tobacco plant (*Nicotiana tabacum*) is found growing wild in various parts of the colony, and appears to be indigenous to South America. It is commonly met with about the Indian villages in the interior, the plantations on the coast and rivers, and even about the roads and gardens of Georgetown. Samples procured from the natives have been found to equal in quality and flavour that exported from the Havannah. The leaves are large, and when simply dried in the air, can be manufactured into very good cigars. No attention, however, is paid to the cultivation of this important plant in this colony, although large quantities of leaf tobacco and cigars are annually imported for general consumption. The fresh leaves are occasionally employed by the creoles for medicinal purposes. If applied to the seat of pain, they often afford relief; but great caution is required in its use, for I have more than once known instances of poisoning to result from the indiscriminate and long-continued application of the leaves to inflamed and swollen legs. Tobacco was perhaps the first article of any importance cultivated by the early settlers in this colony. So early as the year 1600 mention is made of tobacco plants being found growing in abundance in the cleared lands, but its cultivation was not long persisted in, as it yielded to the production of more lucrative articles of commerce.

PLANTS YIELDING STARCH.

The Starch-producing plants are numerous and valuable, and are found abundantly. An admirable report of them has been given by Dr. Shier in a small pamphlet.* The arrowroot (*Maranta arundinacea*) is a common plant, and furnishes a starch equal to that from any other part of the world. Specimens, the produce of this colony, have been already sent to Europe, and excited considerable attention. The arrowroot of this colony has been found to yield about 20 per cent. of starch. The sweet and bitter cassava furnish a still larger proportion, the former about 26 per cent., the latter about 24 per cent.; the common yam yields about 24 per cent.; and the Barbadoes yam about 18 per cent.; while the tannias, the buck yams, the plantain, the sweet potato, and the tous-les-mois, furnish from 15 to 18 per cent. The size of the globules is largest in the tous-les-mois; in the varieties of yams it varies from $\frac{1}{800}$ to $\frac{1}{1200}$ of an inch; in the arrowroot it is about $\frac{1}{1400}$ of an inch, and in the cassavas and tannias about $\frac{1}{4000}$ of an inch, nearly double that of wheat, while in the maize it is about $\frac{1}{3000}$ of an inch.

PLANTS YIELDING DYES AND COLOURS.

The number of plants capable of affording valuable dyes and colours is extensive, and, although neglected, might become an important branch of commerce.

The Indigo plant (*Indigofera tinctoria*) was formerly cultivated in this colony, but I am not aware that this is the case at present. It thrives well in a moist climate like this, and would be admirably suited for

* Report of the Starch-producing Plants of British Guiana. By Dr. Shier.

cultivation in the interior and elsewhere. The indigo formerly exported from South America was considered superior in quality to that produced in the East, but, like many other articles of equal value, its culture has been neglected in these latitudes.

The Arnotto dye, or Rocou plant (*Bixa orellana*), appears to be indigenous, and is the principal dye with which the Indians paint themselves red on the forehead, cheeks, and head, either for ornament or in accordance with the prevailing fashion. For this purpose small cakes are prepared, like coloured chalks, from the seeds, which are enclosed in rough pods.

The Lana tree (*Genipa americana*), a stately and handsome tree, furnishes a powerful black dye; if the flesh is stained with this pigment, it takes days, if not weeks, to remove it; the dye is yielded by the leaves and branches.

The Logwood tree (*Hæmatoxylon campechianum*) also grows here, and yields the well-known and useful extract.

Numerous other plants yield useful and beautiful colours, such as the common plantain (which furnishes a rich crimson pigment), the wild plantain, the mahoe or maho, the chica, the wild gamboge, the turmeric, the alligator pear seed, &c.

OILS, GUMS, RESINS.

Numerous valuable oils, gums, and resinous substances are obtained from many trees and shrubs.

The Crab tree (*Carapa guianensis*), a lofty tree, furnishes a rich and excellent oil, extensively used for the hair, and other purposes.

The Laurel oil tree (*Laurus*) yields a valuable oil, much prized as a useful medicine agent.

The Cocoa-nut tree (*Cocos nucifera*), independent of the other serviceable products it yields, furnishes a fine oil, much in demand for burning.

The Castor oil plant (*Ricinus communis*) is a handsome tree, with large leaves, commonly found in town and country; the oil expressed from the seeds is the well-known drug of the shops.

There are several trees in this country which yield varieties of the balsam copaiba of a superior quality, specimens of which have been forwarded to Europe.

Other valuable oils are procured from the Monkey Pot tree (*Lecythis grandiflora*), the "Wangala" (*Sesamum orientale*), the "Saouari" (*Caryocar tomentosum*), which also yields the delicious and well-known Saouari nuts; the Sand Box tree (*Hura crepitans*), the Butter tree (*Caryocar butyrosomum*), the Tallow tree (*Myristica sebifera*), the Pitch tree (*Icica guianensis*), the Cocoa tree (*Theobroma cacao*), which furnishes the chocolate fat, or butter; the Tonkin bean (*Dipterix odorata*), the acuyuri Palm (*Astrocaryum aculeatum*), the cucurit Palm (*Maximiliana regia*).

Fine Gums are yielded from the Simiri, or Locust tree (*Hymenæa courbaril*), the Hyawa, or Incense tree (*Icica heptaphylla*), the Gum Elemi tree (*Icica carana*).

Resins are also procured from the Hya-Hya, or Milk tree (*Tabernæmontana utilis*), the Indian Rubber tree (*Ficus elastica*), the Acouchi (*Icica aracouchini*), *Lignum Vitæ* (*Guaiacum officinale*), and species of *Clusias*, *Amyris*, *Vismia*, *Humirium*, and other trees.

PART II.

ALPHABETICAL List of some of the most common Trees and Plants met with in British Guiana.

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Acacia (several varieties)	Acacia	Fabaceæ
Acajou	Anacardium occidentale	Anacardiaceæ
Adam's apple	Citrus nobilis	Aurantiaceæ
Adam's needle	Yucca draconis	Liliaceæ
Adenantha	Adenantha	Fabaceæ
Ægiphyla	Ægiphyla	Verbenaceæ
Æschynomene	Agati grandiflora	Fabaceæ
Agati	Agati grandiflora	Fabaceæ
Agave viviparous	Agave vivipara	Amaryllidaceæ
Agave Americana	Agave Americana	Amaryllidaceæ
Ageratum	Ageratum conyzoides	Asteraceæ
Akasee	Acacia tortuosa	Fabaceæ
Alligator pear	Persia gratissima	Lauraceæ
Alligator apple	Anona palustris	Anonaceæ
Alloplectus, crested	Alloplectus cristatus	Gesneraceæ
Almond tree (Indian ink)	Terminalia catappa	Combretaceæ
Aloes plant	Aloe vulgaris	Liliaceæ
Allspice tree	Pimenta vulgaris	Myrtaceæ
Alpinia	Alpinia nutans	Zingiberaceæ
American torch	Cereus monoclonos	Cactaceæ
Amaranth (several species)	Amaranthus	Amarantaceæ
Ammania	Ammania latifolia	Lythraceæ
American aloe	Agave Americana	Amaryllidaceæ
Angelonia violet	Angelonia salicariæifolia	Scrophulariaceæ
Anda acu	Anda gomesii	
Angosturo bark	Galipea cusparia	Rutaceæ
Arabian jasmine	Jasminum sambac	Jasminaceæ
Archangel (or Christmas bush)	Eupatorium odoratum	Asteraceæ
Aristolochia (several species)	Aristolochia	Aristolochiaceæ
Arnotto, or rocou	Bixa orellana	Flacourtiaceæ
Artichoke, Jerusalem	Helianthus tuberosus	Asteraceæ
Arrowroot (several species)	Maranta arundinaceæ	Marantaceæ
Aster, Chinese	Aster Chinensis	Asteraceæ
Aster pear		
Asparagus	Asparagus officinalis	Liliaceæ
Auricula	Primula auricula	Primulaceæ
Awara, or avoira		
Bachelor's button	Gomphrena globosa	Amarantaceæ
Bahama grass	Cynodon dactylon	Graminaceæ
Bahama red wood	Ceanothus colubrinus	Rhamnaceæ
Balsam, or sea-side sage	Croton balsamiferum	Euphorbiaceæ
Balsam tree	Clusia flava	Clusiaceæ
Balsam of aconchi		
Balsam of umiri		
Balsam	Impatiens balsamania	Balsaminaceæ
Balsam (garden)	Justicia pectoralis	Acanthaceæ
Bamboo cane	Bambusa arundinaceæ	Graminaceæ
Banana tree	Musa sapientum	Musaceæ
Banisteria plant	Banisteria fulgens	Malpighiaceæ
Banisteria Fireburn bush	Banisteria fulgens	Malpighiaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued*.

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Barbadoes bastard cedar	<i>Cedrela odorata</i>	Cedrelaceæ
Barbadoes cherry	<i>Malpighia punicifolia</i>	Malpighiaceæ
Barbadoes lilac	<i>Melia azedarach</i>	Meliaceæ
Barbadoes pride, or flower	<i>Poinciana pulcherrima</i>	Cæsalpinieæ
Barbadoes fence	<i>Poinciana pulcherrima</i>	Cæsalpinieæ
Barbadoes trumpet flower	<i>Bignonia unguis</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Basil (garden)	<i>Ocimum basilicum</i>	Lamiaceæ
Basket wyth	<i>Tournefortia bicolor</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Basket wyth, black	<i>Rivina octandra</i>	Phytolaccaceæ
Bastard ipecacuanha	<i>Asclepias curassavica</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
Bastard, or Santa Maria	<i>Calophyllum calaba</i>	Clusiaceæ
Bastard ockro	<i>Malachra capitata</i>	Malvaceæ
Batatas (several species)	<i>Batatas</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Bauhinia	<i>Bauhinia superba</i>	Fabaceæ
Bayberry tree	<i>Eugenia acris</i>	Myrtaceæ
Bay grape tree, or sea-side grape	<i>Coccoloba uvifera</i>	Polygonaceæ
Bay laurel, red	<i>Persea Carolinensis</i>	Lauraceæ
Bearded fig tree	<i>Ficus laurifolia</i>	Moraceæ
Beans (several species)	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	Fabaceæ
Bell pepper	<i>Capsicum annuum</i>	Solanaceæ
Bell apple, or simitou	<i>Passiflora laurifolia</i>	Passifloraceæ
Belly-ache, or wild cassava	<i>Adenoropium gossypifolium</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Bergamotte tree	<i>Citrus limetta</i>	Aurantiaceæ
Berrybush	<i>Solanum igneum</i>	Solanaceæ
Bermuda cedar	<i>Juniperus Bermudiana</i>	Pinaceæ
Bent grass	<i>Agrostis indica</i>	Graminaceæ
Birch, or turpentine tree	<i>Bursera gumnifera</i>	Amyridaceæ
Bird pepper	<i>Capsicum</i>	Solanaceæ
Bitter wood, or bitter ash	<i>Quassia amara</i>	Simarubaceæ
Bindweed	<i>Convolvulus maximus</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Bignonia (Chamberlayne's)	<i>Bignonia æquinoctialis</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Bignonia (trumpet flower)	<i>Bignonia leucoxylon</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Blackbead tree, or Bahama red wood	<i>Ceanothus colubrinus</i>	Rhamnaceæ
Black cherry	<i>Prunus occidentalis</i>	Drupaceæ
Black nicker (soap tree)	<i>Sapindus saponaria</i>	Sapindaceæ
Black sage bush	<i>Varronia curassavica</i>	Cordiaceæ
Black willow	<i>Capparis torulosa</i>	Capparidaceæ
Bloodworth	<i>Sisyrinchium latifolium</i>	Iridaceæ
Blue eddoes	<i>Caladium sagittæfolium</i>	Araceæ
Blue vine	<i>Clitoria ternatea</i>	Fabaceæ
Bonnet, or bonny pepper	<i>Capsicum tetragonum</i>	Solanaceæ
Bontia (wild olive)	<i>Bontia daphnoides</i>	Myoporaceæ
Bread-fruit tree	<i>Artocarpus incisa</i>	Artocarpaceæ
Bread-nut tree	<i>Artocarpus nucifera</i>	Artocarpaceæ
Bread and cheese	<i>Paullinea cururu</i>	Sapindaceæ
Brocoli	<i>Brassica botrytis</i>	Brassicaceæ
Broom weed	<i>Corchorus siliquosus</i>	Tiliaceæ
Brownea	<i>Brownea coccinea</i>	Fabaceæ
Bully tree	<i>Bumelia nigra</i>	Sapotaceæ
Burgass	<i>Cenchrus eschinatus</i>	Graminaceæ
Burbark	<i>Triumfelta semitriloba</i>	Tiliaceæ
Bush rope		
Butterfly plant	<i>Gongora maculata</i>	Orchidaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Button tree	<i>Conocarpus erectus</i>	Combretaceæ
Button sage	<i>Lantana involucrata</i>	Verbenaceæ
Butter tree		
Bulrush	<i>Typha tenuifolia</i>	Typhaceæ
Bitter blain		
Birambi		
Birch gum	<i>Bursera gummifera</i>	Amyridaceæ
Bidens, or Spanish needles	<i>Bidens pilosa</i>	Asteraceæ
Boxwood	<i>Phyllanthus nutans</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Bromelia	<i>Bromelia karatus</i>	Bromeliaceæ
Brazil nuts	<i>Bertholletia excelsa</i>	Lecythidaceæ
Bonny vis (several species)	<i>Lablab vulgaris</i>	Fabaceæ
Bastard supple jack	<i>Paullinia cururu</i>	Sapindaceæ
Cabbage tree (said to be introduced from Barbadoes)	<i>Areca vel oreodoxa oleracea</i>	Palmaceæ
Cabbage tree (bastard)		
Cabacalli		Palmaceæ
Calabash tree	<i>Crescentia cujete</i>	Crescentiaceæ
Caladium (several species)	<i>Caladium</i>	Araceæ
Calaloe	<i>Basella cordifolia</i>	Basellaceæ
Calavance, or red bean	<i>Dolichos sinensis</i>	Fabaceæ
Callamato tree, or smooth star-apple	<i>Chrysophyllum glabrum</i>	Sapotaceæ
Calliopsis	<i>Colliopsis bicolor</i>	Asteraceæ
Callisia	<i>Callisia repens</i>	Commelynaceæ
Candle wood	<i>Chiococca racemosa</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Calotropis	<i>Calotropis procera</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
Campeachy wood	<i>Hæmatoxylon campechianum</i>	Cæsalpiniceæ
Camara, or ackawari nutmeg	<i>Acrodictidium camara</i>	Lauraceæ
Candlenut tree	<i>Stillingia sebefera</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Candy tuft	<i>Iberis umbellata</i>	Brassicaceæ
Canna, or Indian shot	<i>Canna indica</i>	Marantaceæ
Canoe plant	<i>Calosanthes indica</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Canella, or winter's bark	<i>Canella alba</i>	Guttifereæ
Canuballi		
Capparis	<i>Capparis</i>	Capparidaceæ
Cape jasmine	<i>Gardenia fragans</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Cape jasmine	<i>Gardenia florida</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Capsicum pepper (several species)	<i>Capsicum</i>	Solanaceæ
Cacao	<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	Byttneriaceæ
Carrahurri		
Carana		
Carrot	<i>Daucus carota</i>	Apiaceæ
Carata	<i>Agave vivipara</i>	Amaryllidaceæ
Carnation	<i>Dianthus caryophyllus</i>	Caryophyllaceæ
Carolinea, digitated	<i>Carolinea princeps</i>	Sterculiaceæ
Cascarilla		
Cashew tree, or cachou	<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Cassava, or cassada bitter	<i>Janipha manihot</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
" " sweet	<i>Janipha loeflingii</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Cassia, fistula tree	<i>Cassia fistula</i>	Fabaceæ
Castor oil plant	<i>Ricinus communis</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Cat's blood	<i>Rivina humilis</i>	Phytolaccaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Cat's claws	<i>Dolichos filiformis</i>	Phytolaccaceæ
Cathartica (willow leaved)	<i>Allamanda cathartica</i>	Apocynaceæ
Cat mint	<i>Nepita cataria</i>	Lamiaceæ
Cauliflower	<i>Brassica botrytis</i>	Brassicacæ
Cedar wood	<i>Cedrela odorata</i>	Cedrelaceæ
Cedar (bastard)	<i>Cedrela odorata</i>	Cedrelaceæ
Celery	<i>Apium graveolens</i>	Apiaceæ
Cenchrus	<i>Cenchrus tribuloides</i>	Graminaceæ
Cephalic vine	<i>Convolvulus speciosus</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Cerbera, or French willow	<i>Cerbera thevetia</i>	Apocynaceæ
Cereus (night blooming)	<i>Cereus glandiflorus</i>	Cactaceæ
Cestrum (night smelling)	<i>Cestrum nocturnum</i>	Solanaceæ
„ (laurel leaved)	<i>Cestrum laurifolium</i>	Solanaceæ
Changeable rose	<i>Hibiscus mutabilis</i>	Malvaceæ
Chau stick	<i>Gouania domingensis</i>	Rhamnaceæ
Chereeze, or Barbadoes cherry (several species)	<i>Malpighia puniceifolia</i>	Malpighiaceæ
Cherry pepper	<i>Capsicum cerasiforme</i>	Solanaceæ
Chick stone tree	<i>Guilandina bandoe</i>	Fabaceæ
Chickweed	<i>Holosteum cordatum</i>	Caryophyllaceæ
Chigery grape tree	<i>Coccoloba nivea</i>	Polygonaceæ
Chigery bush	<i>Tournifortia volubilis</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Chinese rose hibiscus	<i>Hibiscus rosa sinensis</i>	Malvaceæ
Chives	<i>Allium schænoprasum</i>	Liliaceæ
Choco vine	<i>Sechium edule</i>	Circurbitraceæ
Chocolate nut tree	<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	Byttneriaceæ
Christmas bush	<i>Eupatorium odoratum</i>	Asteraceæ
Christophine	<i>Sechium edule</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Chrysanthemum	<i>Pyrethrum sinense</i>	Asteraceæ
Cinnamon tree	<i>Laurus cinnamomum</i>	Lauraceæ
Circassian bead tree	<i>Adenantha lavonina</i>	Mimosæ
Cissus, or poison wyth	<i>Cissus sicyoides</i>	Vitaceæ
Clary wild	<i>Heliotropium parviflorum</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Clerodendron	<i>Clerodendron siphonanthus</i>	Verbenaceæ
Clove pink	<i>Dianthus caryophyllus</i>	Caryophyllaceæ
Clove tree	<i>Caryophyllus aromaticus</i>	Myrtaceæ
Cocco plum	<i>Chrysobalanus icaco</i>	Chrysobalanaceæ
Cocoa nut tree	<i>Cocos nucifera</i>	Palmeæ
Cochineal tree	<i>Opuntia coccinellifera</i>	Cactaceæ
Cock's comb	<i>Celosia cristata</i>	Amarantaceæ
Coffee tree	<i>Coffea arabica</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Coffee wood	<i>Palicourea pavetta</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Commelina	<i>Commelina communis</i>	Commelynaceæ
Conch apple, or conch nut	<i>Passiflora maliformis</i>	Passifloraceæ
Convolvus (several species)	<i>Convolvulus bona nox</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Coot weed	<i>Crotalaria lotifolia</i>	Papilionaceæ
Coral tree (bean tree)	<i>Erythrina corallodendrom</i>	Fabaceæ
Cordia (several species)	<i>Cordia collococca</i>	Cordiaceæ
Cord leaf		
Coreopsis	<i>Coreopsis reptans</i>	Asteraceæ
Corn, Indian	<i>Zea mays</i>	Graminaceæ
Corn tree	<i>Adansonia digitata</i>	Sterculiaceæ
Cork wood		
Cosmos	<i>Cosmos bipinnatus</i>	Asteraceæ
Cotton (several species)	<i>Gossypium arboreum</i>	Malvaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Conbacalli		
Conrahana		
Courraballi		
Courcororuc		
Coulaballi		
Cowitch vine	<i>Mucuna pruriens</i>	Fabacæ
Cow pop	<i>Physalis angulata</i>	Solanacæ
Cow tree		
Cowhage cherry	<i>Malpighia urens</i>	Malpighiaceæ
Crab bush (sea-side)	<i>Heliotropium gnaphateides</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Crab bush (laurel)	<i>Carapa guianensis</i>	Lauracæ
Crab's-eye vine	<i>Abrus precatorius</i>	Fabacæ
Crab, or oil nut tree	<i>Carapa guianensis</i>	Lauracæ
Crinum	<i>Crinum Americanum</i>	Amaryllidacæ
Crocus	<i>Crocus vernus</i>	Iridacæ
Crossandra	<i>Crossandra</i>	Acanthacæ
Crotolaria (several species)	<i>Crotolaria</i>	Fabacæ
Croton	<i>Caperonia palustris</i>	Euphorbiacæ
Cuamar		
Cucullaaia		
Cuckoldr's increase	<i>Dolichus unguiculatus</i>	Fabacæ
Cucumber	<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	Cucurbitacæ
Cuphæa	<i>Cuphea melvilla</i>	Lythracæ
Curida tree	<i>Avicennia nitida</i>	Myoporacæ
Custard apple	<i>Anona reticulata</i>	Anonacæ
Cyclamen (common)	<i>Cyclamen Europæum</i>	Primulacæ
Cynanchum	<i>Cynanchum mucronatum</i>	Asclepiadacæ
Cyperus	<i>Cyperus compressus</i>	Cyperacæ
Dahlia (varieties)	<i>Dahlia variabilis</i>	Asteracæ
Damacen, or callimato smooth star-apple	<i>Chrysopyllum glabrum</i>	Sapotacæ
Damson tree, or star-plum	<i>Chrysopyllum monopyre- num</i>	Sapotacæ
Dart wood	<i>Ixora fasciculata</i>	Cinchonacæ
Date tree	<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i>	Palmacæ
David's rost	<i>Chiococcea racinosa</i>	Cinchonacæ
Desmodium (wood sorrel)	<i>Desmodium repens</i>	Papilionacæ
Devil's grass (bahama grass)	<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	Graminacæ
Dog's grass	<i>Poa ciliaris</i>	Graminacæ
Dog wood (prickly randia)	<i>Gardenia randia</i>	Cinchonacæ
Dove weed	<i>Euphorbia maculata</i>	Euphorbiacæ
Downy (mountain ebony)	<i>Bauhinia tormentosa</i>	Fabacæ
Dragon's blood	<i>Dracaena ferrea</i>	Liliacæ
Drooping leaved (Adam's needle)	<i>Yucca acuminata</i>	Liliacæ
Duck weed (large)	<i>Nymphæa blanda</i>	Nymphæacæ
Duck weed (broad)	<i>Nelumbium jamaicense</i>	Nelumbiacæ
Ducalibali		
Dumb cane	<i>Caladium sequinum</i>	Aracæ
Dutch grass	<i>Eleusina Indica</i>	Graminacæ
Dwarf hibiscus	<i>Hibiscus phæniceus</i>	Malvacæ
Ducalli		
Determa		
East India Mango tree	<i>Mangifera Indica</i>	Anacardiacæ
Echites	<i>Echites torosa</i>	Apocynacæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Eddoes nut	<i>Caladium sagittæfolium</i>	Araceæ
Eddoes wasting	<i>Macrorrhizum caladium</i>	Araceæ
Eddoes, or eddas (several species)	<i>Caladium esculentum</i>	Araceæ
Egg plant	<i>Solanum melongena</i>	Solanaceæ
Eta palm	<i>Mauritia flexuosa</i>	Palmaceæ
Eranthemum	<i>Eranthemum bicolor</i>	Acanthaceæ
Epidendrum (several sp.)	<i>Epidendrum</i>	Orchidaceæ
Elder tree	<i>Sambucus nigra</i>	Caprifoliaceæ
Elder bush	<i>Piper aduncum</i>	Piperaceæ
Evergreen tree	<i>Ficus nitida</i>	Moraceæ
Fan palm	<i>Thrinax parviflora</i>	Palmaceæ
Fennel	<i>Feniculum vulgare</i>	Apiaceæ
Fiddle wood tree	<i>Citharexylon cinereum</i>	Verbenaceæ
Fig	<i>Ficus carica</i>	Moraceæ
Fish poison		
Fit weed	<i>Eryngium fœtidum</i>	Apiaceæ
Flower fence	<i>Cæsalpinia pulcherrima</i> (<i>volkameria aculeata</i>)	Fabaceæ
Forbidden fruit tree	<i>Citrus buxifolia</i>	Aurantiacæ
Four o'clock	<i>Mirabilis dichotoma</i>	Nyctaginaceæ
Franchipan	<i>Plumieria rubra and alba</i>	Apocynaceæ
French guava	<i>Psidium pyreferum</i>	Myrtaceæ
French physic nut tree	<i>Jatropha multifidum</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
French willow	<i>Cerbera thevitia</i>	Apocynaceæ
French calalæ	<i>Caladium</i>	Araceæ
Fuchsia	<i>Fuchsia coccinea</i>	Onagraceæ
Fustic tree	<i>Maclura tinctoria</i>	Moraceæ
Galineta wood	<i>Bumelia salicifolia</i>	Sapotaceæ
Garden balsam	<i>Justicia pectoralis</i>	Acanthaceæ
Garlic	<i>Allium sativum</i>	Liliaceæ
Garlic pear tree	<i>Cratæva gynandra</i>	Capparidaceæ
Geranium (several species)	<i>Geranium sanguineum</i>	Geraniaceæ
Germinating leaf plant	<i>Bryophollum calycinum</i>	Crassulaceæ
Ginger	<i>Zingiber officinale</i>	Zingiberaceæ
Ginger grass	<i>Panicum latifolium</i>	Graminaceæ
Golden apple	<i>Spondias dulcis</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Gomarrow		
Gongora (several species)	<i>Gongora</i>	Orchidaceæ
Gooseberry shrub	<i>Pereskia aculeata</i>	Cactaceæ
Gourd vine	<i>Lagenaria vulgaris</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Granadilla vine	<i>Passiflora quadrangularis</i>	Passifloraceæ
Grape fruit tree	<i>Citrus hystrix</i>	Aurantiacæ
Grass silk	<i>Agave Americana</i>	Amaryllidaceæ
Great corn, or Indian maize	<i>Zea mays</i>	Graminaceæ
Great mackau tree	<i>Acrocomia sclewcarpa</i>	Palmaceæ
Grey nicker	<i>Guilandina bonvucella</i>	Fabaceæ
Ground nut	<i>Arachis hypogæa</i>	Fabaceæ
Greenheart (several species)	<i>Nectandria rodiaei</i>	Lauraceæ
Guaco (several species)	<i>Aristolochia</i>	Aristolochiaceæ
Guava tree	<i>Psidium pomiferum</i>	Myrtaceæ
Guinea grass	<i>Panicum jumentorum</i>	Graminaceæ
Guinea corn	<i>Sorghum vulgare</i>	Graminaceæ
Guinea pepper		
Gum tree	<i>Stillingia siberifera</i>	Euphorbiaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Gum elemi		
Gum anime tree, or locust tree	<i>Hymenaea courbaril</i>	Leguminosæ
Hackia		
Hairy cerasæe	<i>Momordica charantia</i>	Cucurbitacæe
Heliotrope (several species)	<i>Heliotropium</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Hercules wood		
Hevarree		
Hibiscus (several species)	<i>Hibiscus</i>	Malvacæe
Hiaballi		
Hog plum tree	<i>Spondias lutea</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Hog slip, or hog vine	<i>Convolvulus umbellatus</i>	Convolvulacæe
Hog weed	<i>Boerhavia diffusa</i>	Nyctaginacæe
Holy thorn, or royal cashiaw	<i>Parkinsonia aculeata</i>	Cæsalpinieæ
Holly hock		
Honey berry	<i>Althea rosa</i>	Malvacæe
Honey suckle	<i>Melicocca bijuga</i>	Sapindacæe
Hoobaballi	<i>Lonicera flava</i>	Caprifoliaceæ
Hop shrub		
Hop weed (wild)	<i>Dodonæa viscosa</i>	Sapindacæe
Hop weed (white)	<i>Malachra capitata</i>	Malvacæe
Horse eye bean	<i>Hyptis suaveolens</i>	Lamiaceæ
Horse nicker	<i>Mucuna urens</i>	Fabacæe
Horse radiah tree	<i>Guilandina bonduc</i>	Cæsalpinieæ
Huwassi	<i>Moringa pterygosperma</i>	Moringacæe
Hucouyæ, or iron wood		
Hya-hya, or milk tree		
Hy-jarri, or Hai-ari (fish poison)	<i>Tabernæmontana utilis</i>	Euphorbiaceæ ?
Hydrangæe (changeable)	<i>Hydrangea Hortensia</i>	Hydrangæacæe
Hyaau gum tree	<i>Icica heptaphylla</i>	Amyridacæe
Hyauballi		
Hymakusi		
Increase tree	<i>Dolichos unguiculatus</i>	Fabacæe
Indian creeper (Indian pink)	<i>Ipomea quamoclit</i>	Convolvulacæe
Indian kale	<i>Caladium nymphæfolium</i>	Aracæe
Indian rubber	<i>Ficus elastica</i>	Moracæe
Indian shot	<i>Canna Indica</i>	Marantacæe
Indigo plant	<i>Indigofera anil</i>	Fabacæe
Ink vine	<i>Passiflora suberosa</i>	Passifloracæe
Ipecacuanha (wild)	<i>Asclepias curassavica</i>	Asclepiadacæe
Ipomea (several species)	<i>Ipomea</i>	Convolvulacæe
Iron wood		
Itaka wood		
Itaballi		
Itikiribouraballa		
Iuriballi		
Ivy (Madeira)	<i>Ficus stipulata</i>	Moracæe
Ixora	<i>Ixora coccinea</i>	Cinchonacæe
Jaca tree	<i>Artocarpus integrifolia</i>	Artocarpacæe
Jack in a box	<i>Harmandia sonora</i>	Thymelacæe
Jamaica birch tree	<i>Bursera gummifera</i>	Amyridacæe
Jamaica plum (Spanish)	<i>Spondias lutea</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Jasmine	<i>Jasminum</i>	Jasminacæe

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNA CULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Jasmine tree	Plumieria rubra	Apocynaceæ
Jerusalem thorn	Parkinsonia aculeata	Cæsalpiniciæ
Job's tears	Coix lachryma	Graminaceæ
Justicia (scarlet flowered)	Justicia coccinea	Acanthaceæ
Justicia (blue flowered)	Eranthemum nervosum	Acanthaceæ
Kamakasa	Unknown	
Kamacusack	Unknown	
Kartaballi	Unknown	
Karman tree	Unknown	
Karman tree (Mami tree)	Unknown	
Kakaralli	Unknown	
Kerria	Unknown	
Keinarsanacasa	Unknown	
King of flowers	Lagerstromia Indica	Lythraceæ
Kretti	Unknown	
Koftsa	Unknown	
Kurara	Unknown	
Kuracurara	Unknown	
Kucahara	Unknown	
Kurahara	Unknown	
Lady of the night	Cestrum nocturnum	Solanaceæ
Lady's pepper	Capsicum	Solanaceæ
Lana tree	Bixa orellana	Flacourtiaceæ
Lance wood (Jarri jarri)		
Laurel oil	Laurus	Lauraceæ
Laurel (several species)	Laurus	Lauraceæ
Leadwort	Plumbago rosea	Plumbaginaceæ
Lime bergamotte	Citrus limetta	Aurantiacæ
Lime tree	Citrus lima	Aurantiacæ
Lupin (several species)	Lupinus	Fabaceæ
Leather coat tree	Coccoloba pubescens	Polygonaceæ
Lemon grass	Andropogan schænanthus	Graminaceæ
Lettuce	Lactuca sativa	Asteraceæ
Letter wood		
Leaf plant	Bryophyllum calycinum	Crassulaceæ
Lignum vitæ	Guaiacum officinale	Zygophyllaceæ
Lily, red	Amaryllis equestris	Amaryllidaceæ
Lily, white	Pancratium caribæum	Amaryllidaceæ
Lily, water		Amaryllidaceæ
Lily, tiger	Tigridia pavonia	Amaryllidaceæ
Lily, Surinam	Crinum Americanum	Amaryllidaceæ
Lima bean	Phaseolus perennis	
Limonia, or lime myrtle	Citrus lima	Aurantiacæ
Loblolly tree	Oreodaphne leucoxylo	Lauraceæ
Locust tree	Hymenæa courbaril	Fabaceæ
Logwood, or campeachi	Hæmatoxylo campechia- num	Fabaceæ
Long John	Triplaris Americana	Polygonaceæ
Love in a mist	Passiflora fœtida	Passifloraceæ
Macaw tree	Acrocomia sclerocarpa	Palmaceæ
Mahoe	Hibiscus elatus	Malvaceæ
Madeira ivy	Ficus stipulata	Moraceæ
Madagascar periwinkle	Vinca rosea	Apocynaceæ
Mahogany tree	Swietenia mahagoni	Cedrelaceæ
Maiden hair	Urtica microphylla	Urticaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Maize	<i>Zea mays</i>	Graminaceæ
Malabar nut	<i>Gendarussa adhatoda</i>	Acanthaceæ
Malacca shambu	<i>Myrtus?</i>	Myrtaceæ?
Mamsee apple, or sapote	<i>Lucuma mammosum</i>	Sapotaceæ
Mamsee tree, or wild apricot	<i>Mammea Americanum</i>	Clusiaceæ
Manchineel tree	<i>Hippomane mancinella</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Mangostan, or mangosteen	<i>Garcinia mangostana</i>	Clusiaceæ
Mango tree	<i>Mangifera indica</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Mangrove tree	<i>Rhizophora mangle</i>	Rhizophoraceæ
Mangrove, white	<i>Conocarpus acutifolius</i>	Combretaceæ
Maran, or Copaiba tree	<i>Copaifera officinalis</i>	Fabaceæ
Marica	<i>Marica</i>	Iridaceæ
Mastick tree	<i>Bumelia mastichodendrum</i>	Sapotaceæ
May pole	<i>Agave Americana</i>	Amarylhidaceæ
Melon	<i>Cucumis melo</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Menow weed	<i>Ruellia tuberosa</i>	Acanthaceæ
Mespe, or medlar	<i>Blakea triplinerva</i>	Melastomaceæ
Milk tree (sea-side)	<i>Euphorbia glabrata</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Mimosa	<i>Desmanthus virgatus</i>	Fabaceæ
Mint (several sp.)	<i>Mentha</i>	Labiatae
Moabite (four-leaved inga)	<i>Inga unguis cati</i>	Fabaceæ
Mocco-mocco	<i>Arum arboreescens</i>	Araceæ
Money bush	<i>Acacia</i>	Fabaceæ
Monkey apple tree	<i>Anona palustris</i>	Anonaceæ
Monkey's bread tree (or boabat)		
Monkey's hand	<i>Heckeria peltata</i>	Piperaceæ
Monkey's peas	<i>Dolichos luteus</i>	Fabaceæ
Monkey's pot	<i>Lecythis grandiflora</i>	
Montabba	<i>Solanum melongena</i>	Solanaceæ
Mora tree (the King of)	<i>Mora excelsa</i>	
Moraballi	Ditto ditto	
Mulberry	<i>Morus</i>	Moraceæ
Mudar plant	<i>Asclepias gigantea</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
Murivaana		
Musk bush, or wild ockro	<i>Hibiscus esculentus</i>	Malvaceæ
Musk melon	<i>Cucumis melo</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Mustard	<i>Sinapis niga</i>	Brassicaceæ
Myrtle (several sp.)	<i>Myrtus Belgica</i>	Myrtaceæ
Nem-nem (or toothache tree)	<i>Acacia horrida</i>	Papilionaceæ
Negro pepper .	<i>Capsicum conordeum</i>	Solanaceæ
Nettle	<i>Urtica</i>	Urticaceæ
Nickers (oval leaved)	<i>Guilandina bonduc</i>	Fabaceæ
Night-blooming cereus	<i>Cereus grandiflorus</i>	Cactaceæ
Night-blooming convolvulus	<i>Ipomea bona nox</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Night shade	<i>Datura stramonium</i>	Solanaceæ
Noyeau vine	<i>Ipomea sinuata</i>	Convolvulaceæ
Nutmeg tree	<i>Myristica moschata</i>	Myristicaceæ
Nutmeg	<i>Acroclidium camrara</i>	Lauraceæ
Nut eddoes tamers	<i>Caladium sagittæfolium</i>	Araceæ
Nut grass	<i>Cyperus esculentus</i>	Cyperaceæ
Ockra, or ockro	<i>Hibiscus esculentus</i>	Malvaceæ
Old man's beard		
Old maid, or Cayenne jas- mine	<i>Vinca rosea</i>	Apocynaceæ



ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNAOCULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Old woman's bitter	Citharexylon cinereum	Verbenaceæ
Oleander, common	Nerium oleander	Apocynaceæ
Oleander (or sweet-scented rose bag)	Nerium odorum	Apocynaceæ
Olive pepper	Capsicum cerasiforme	Solanaceæ
Onion, common	Allium cepa	Liliaceæ
Orange tree	Citrus Aurantium	Aurantiacæ
Orange, Seville or bitter	Citrus bigaradia	Aurantiacæ
Orchids (several sp.)		Orchidaceæ
Orinogue tree (coral or red bean tree)		Fabaceæ
Otaheite apple	Spondias Dulcis	Anacardiaceæ
Otaheite gooseberry	Cicca districha	Euphorbiaceæ
Oryzoary		
Ox-eye bean	Mucuna urens	Papilionaceæ
Pacuri		
Palm oil tree	Elais guineenses	Fabaceæ
Papaw ockro	Corchorus Austrians	Tiliaceæ
Papaw, or melon tree	Carica papaya	Papayaceæ
Paraley	Petroselinum sativum	Apiaceæ
Pea	Pisum sativum	Fabaceæ
Penguin	Bromelia karattas	Bromeliaceæ
Peppers	Capsicum annum	Solanaceæ
Petrea	Petrea volubilis	Verbenaceæ
Petunia (several sp.)	Petunia violacea	Solanaceæ
Peruvian cotton	Gossypium Peruvianum	Malvaceæ
Physic nut tree	Jatropha curcas	Euphorbiaceæ
Pigeon pea tree	Cajanus flavus	Fabaceæ
Pimento, Jamaica pepper	Eugenia pimenta	Myrtaceæ
" or allspice	Pimenta vulgaris	Myrtaceæ
Pimploes	Opuntia tuna	Cactaceæ
Piaba		
Pindals, or ground nuts	Arachis hypogæa	Papilionaceæ
Pine apple	Ananassa sativa	Bromeliaceæ
Pink	Dianthus Chinensis	Caryophyllaceæ
Pink potato (cassine drink)		
Potatoes, sweet	Convolvulus batatas	Convolvulaceæ
Pink roet	Spigelia anthelmintica	Loganiaceæ
Pitch tree	Amyris guianensis	Amyridaceæ
Plantains	Musa paradisiaca	Musaceæ
Plantain tree	Musa paradisiaca	Musaceæ
Plantain water, round leaved	Pontederia rotundifolia	Pontederaceæ
Plantain, great	Pontederia	Pontederaceæ
Plumieria (several species)	Plumieria rubra	Apocynaceæ
Plumbago	Plumbago rosea	Plumbaginaceæ
Poison tree	Sapium aucuparium	Euphorbiaceæ
Pomegranate	Punica granatum	Myrtaceæ
Pond grass, or canker weed	Commelyna communis	Commelynaceæ
Pond weed	Alisma cordifolium	Alismaceæ
Pontederia	Pontederia azurea	Pontederaceæ
Pope's head	Melocactus communis	Cactaceæ
Pop vine	Physalis barbadensis	Solanaceæ
Prickly pear	Opuntia tuna	Cactaceæ
Prickle yellow wood	Xanthoxylon clava	Xanthoxylaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNAOULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Prickly argemone, or poppy	<i>Argemone mexicana</i>	Papaveraceæ
Prickly pear vine	<i>Cereus trigonus</i>	Cactaceæ
Prickly yam vine	<i>Dioscorea aculeata</i>	Dioscoreaceæ
Pritti		
Pricardy		
Purple coco, or taniers	<i>Caladium Sagittifolium</i>	Araceæ
Purple inga, or soldier wood	<i>Inga purpurea</i>	Mimosææ
Pye crust	<i>Jacquinia armillaris</i>	Myrsinaceæ
Puralane	<i>Portulaca sativa</i>	Portulacææ
Purple heart	<i>Copaifera pubiflora</i>	Fabaceæ
Pumpkin	<i>Cucurbita pepo</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Queen of flowers	<i>Lagerströma reginae</i>	Lythraceæ
Quassia	<i>Quassia amara</i>	Simarubaceæ
Rabbit vine	<i>Teramnus uncinatus</i>	Papilionaceæ
Radiah	<i>Raphanus oblongus</i>	Brassicaceæ
Randia	<i>Randia mussenda</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Rata pepper, or rata ochro	<i>Corchorus hirtus</i>	Tiliaceæ
Rattle bush	<i>Crotalaria incana</i>	Papilionaceæ
Red cherry tree	<i>Malpighia glabra</i>	Malpighiaceæ
Red mangrove tree	<i>Rhizophora mangle</i>	Rhizophoraceæ
Red wood	<i>Coccoloba barbadensis</i>	Polygonaceæ
Red yam	<i>Dioscorea alata</i>	Dioscoreaceæ
Reed	<i>Panicum arundinaceum</i>	Graminaceæ
Red cedar		
Rhizophora	<i>Rhizophora</i>	Rhizophoraceæ
Rice	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Graminaceæ
Rice grass	<i>Panicum molle</i>	Graminaceæ
Ringworm bush	<i>Cassia alata</i>	Cesalpinieæ
Roasting cassava	<i>Manihot janipha</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Roasting eddoes	<i>Caladium macrorhizum</i>	Araceæ
Roses (several species)	<i>Rosa</i>	Rosaceæ
Rose of Sharon	<i>Hibiscus rosa sinensis</i>	Malvaceæ
Rose apple	<i>Eugenia jambosa</i>	Myrtaceæ
Rosemary	<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>	Lamiaceæ
Rosewood	<i>Amyris balsamifera</i>	Amyridaceæ
Roucou, or arnotto	<i>Bixa orellana</i>	Flacourtiaceæ
Russelia	<i>Russelia juncea</i>	Scrophulariaceæ
Rush	<i>Scirpus geniculatus</i>	Cyperaceæ
Sage	<i>Salvia officinalis</i>	Lamiaceæ
Sage black	<i>Varronia curassavica</i>	Cordiaceæ
Sage white	<i>Lantana involucrata</i>	Verbenaceæ
Sago	<i>Cycas</i>	Cycadeaceæ
Saka		
Sambo	<i>Cleome pentaphylla</i>	Capparidaceæ
Sandbox tree	<i>Hura crepitans</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Sand mora		
Santa Maria tree	<i>Calophyllum calaba</i>	Clusiaceæ
Santa Maria leaf	<i>Heckeria umbellata</i>	Piperaceæ
St. Domingo mignonette		
St. John's bush	<i>Psychotria nervosa</i>	Cinchonaceæ
St. John's wort	<i>Hypericum calycinum</i>	Hypericaceæ
Sapodilla tree	<i>Achras sapota</i>	Sapotaceæ
Sarcostemma	<i>Sarcostemma swartzianum</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
Sarsaparilla (several species)	<i>Smilax</i>	Smilacææ
Savannah grass	<i>Paspalum conjugatum</i>	Graminaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNA CULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Savine tree, or bastard iron wood	Xanthoxylon Pterota	Xanthoxyliaceæ
Scammony, wild	Ipomea maritima	Convolvulaceæ
Scoparia	Scoparia dulcis	Scrophulariaceæ
Screw pine	Pandanus odoratissimus	Pandanaceæ
Sea-side balsam	Croton balsamiferum	Euphorbiaceæ
Sea-side grape	Coccoloba uvifera	Polygonaceæ
Sea-side laurel	Xylophylla falcata	Euphorbiaceæ
Sea-side lavender	Heliotropium gnaphaloides	Ehretiaceæ
Sea-side samphire	Sesuvium portulacastrum	Tetragoniaceæ
Sea-side vine	Convolvulus Braziliensis	Convolvulaceæ
Securidaca, climbing	Securidaca volubilis	Polygalaceæ
Senna tree, or wild senna	Cassia emarginata	Fabaceæ
Sensitive plant	Desmanthus virgatus	Fabaceæ
Sesbania	Sesbania occidentalis	Fabaceæ
Sesuvium	Sesuvium portulacastrum	Tetragoniaceæ
Seville orange tree	Citrus bigaradia	Aurantiaceæ
Shaddock tree	Citrus pompelmos decumanus	Aurantiaceæ
Shaki-shaki (several sp.)	Crotolaria	Fabaceæ
Shallots, common	Allium vulgaris	Liliaceæ
Shell plant	Alpinia nutans	Zingiberaceæ
Sida (several sp.)	Sida	Malvaceæ
Silberdani		
Silk cotton tree	Bombax ceiba	Sterculiaceæ
Silk grass	Agave vivipara	Amaryllidaceæ
Silverwood tree	Unknown	
Siraballi	Unknown	
Siriba	Unknown	
Simaruba	Unknown	
Simatou	Passiflora serrata	Passifloraceæ
Sisyrinchium	Sisyrinchium latifolium	Iridaceæ
Slonea		
Snake gourd		
Snake nut tree	Ophiocaryon paradoxicum	Sapindaceæ
Snake wood trumpet tree	Cecropia peltata	Artocarpaceæ
Snap dragon	Ruellia tuberosa	Acanthaceæ
Soap tree, or Soap berry tree	Sapindus saponaria	Sapindaceæ
Solandra	Solandra grandiflora	Solanaceæ
Soldier bush	Tournefortia volubilis	Ehretiaceæ
Soldier wood	Inga purpurea	Fabaceæ
Sorghum (several sp.)	Sorghum	Graminaceæ
Sorrel (several sp.)	Hibiscus sabdariffa	Malvaceæ
Sour grass	Paspalum conjugatum	Graminaceæ
Sour orange tree	Citrus bigaradia	Aurantiaceæ
Sour sop tree	Anona muricata	Anonaceæ
Sour sop tree, sweet	Anona squamosa	Anonaceæ
South Sea rose	Nerium odorum	Apocynaceæ
Spanish ash	Lonchocarpus violacens	Fabaceæ
Sparrow grass	Asparagus officinalis	Liliaceæ
Spear mint	Mentha viridis	Lamiaceæ
Spermacoce	Spermacoce	Cinchonaceæ
Spider wort	Tradescantia	Commelynaceæ
Spikenard	Hyptis suaveolens	Lamiaceæ
Spinach (Virginian)	Phytolacea decandra	Phytolaccaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Spirit weed	Ruellia tuberosa	Acanthaceæ
Spurge	Pedilanthus tithymaloides	Euphorbiaceæ
Squashes	Cucurbita melopepo	Cucurbitaceæ
Stachys	Stachys circinata	Lamiaceæ
Star apple (several sp.)	Chrysophyllum	Sapotaceæ
Star plum	Chrysophyllum monopyrenum	Sapotaceæ
Stinking weed	Cassia occidentalis	Fabaceæ
Strawberry pear	Cereus trigonus	Cactaceæ
Sugar apple tree (several sp.)	Anona squamosa	Anonaceæ
Sugar bean	Phaseolus lunatus	Fabaceæ
Sugar cane	Saccharum officinale	Graminaceæ
Sugar cane (Bourbon)	Saccharum Bourboni	Graminaceæ
Sugar cane (Otaheite)	Saccharum Otaheite	Graminaceæ
Sugar cane (violet or purple)	Saccharum	Graminaceæ
Sugar cane (black)	Saccharum	Graminaceæ
Sun flower	Helianthus annuus	Asteraceæ
Supple Jack		
Suari, or Suwarro nut	Caryocar tomentosum	Rhizobolaceæ
Surodanni		
Surinam cherry		
Sweet basil	Ocimum basilicum	Lamiaceæ
Sweet briar	Acacia tortuosa	Fabaceæ
Sweet cassava	Janipha loeflingii	Euphorbiaceæ
Sweet heart	Desmodium supinum	Fabaceæ
Sweet lime	Citrus limetta	Aurantiaceæ
Sweet-scented birthwood		
Sweet William	Quamoclet vulgaris	Convolvulaceæ
Sweet wood tree	Faramea odoratissima	Cinchonaceæ
Tabernæmontana, rose bay-like	Tabernæmontana coronaria	Apocynaceæ
Tabernæmontana, laurel leaved	Tabernæmontana laurifolia	Apocynaceæ
Table tree	Terminalia catappa	Combretaceæ
Tabucushi		
Taccuba		
Tatabo		
Tallow tree	Myristica sebifera	Myristicaceæ
Tamarind tree	Tamarindus indica	Fabaceæ
Taniera, or nut eddoes	Caladium sagittæfolium	Araceæ
Teak wood	Tectonia grandis	Verbenaceæ
Terminalia, or Indian almond tree	Terminalia catappa	Combretaceæ
Thespesia	Thespesia populnea	Malvaceæ
Thistle, or rabbit weed	Sonchus ciliatus	Asteraceæ
Thorn apple, common	Datura stramonium	Solanaceæ
Thorn apple, blue	Datura tatula	Solanaceæ
Thorn apple, arborescent	Datura arborea	Solanaceæ
Thunbergia, twining	Thunbergia fragrans	Acanthaceæ
Thunbergia, yellow flowered	Thunbergia alata	Acanthaceæ
Thyme	Thymus vulgaris	Lamiaceæ
Tiger lily	Tigridia pavonia	Iridaceæ
Tobacco, Virginian	Nicotiana tabacum	Solanaceæ
Tobacco, wild	Baccharis odorata	Asteraceæ
Tonka bean	Dipteryx odorata	Fabaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNAICULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Tomatos (love apple)	<i>Lycopersicum esculentum</i>	Solanaceæ
Toothache tree	<i>Acacia horrida</i>	Fabaceæ
Torch tree	<i>Amyris</i>	Amyridaceæ
Tous-les-mois (several sp.)	<i>Canna achiras</i>	Marantaceæ
Tournefortia	<i>Tournefortia volubilis</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Tree, cotton	<i>Gossypium arboreum</i>	Malvaceæ
Tree of life	<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>	Pinaceæ
Triopteris	<i>Triopteris jamaicensis</i>	Malpighiaceæ
Trumpet flower	<i>Cordia sebestena</i>	Cordiaceæ
Trumpet flower, equinoctial	<i>Bignonia leucoxyton</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Trunk tree, or trumpet tree	<i>Cecropia peltata</i>	Artocarpaceæ
Trinidad butterfly plant	<i>Orchis</i>	Orchidaceæ
Tuberose	<i>Polianthes tuberosa</i>	Liliaceæ
Tulip (wild)	<i>Crinum zeylanicum</i>	Amaryllidaceæ
Turk's head	<i>Melocactus communis</i>	Cactaceæ
Turmeric	<i>Curcuma longa</i>	Zingiberaceæ
Turnip	<i>Brassica rapa</i>	Brassicaceæ
Turnsole, or wild clary	<i>Heliotropium parviflorum</i>	Ehretiaceæ
Turiballi		
Tysle bark tree		
Turkey berry tree		
Turpentine tree	<i>Bursera gummifera</i>	Amyridaceæ
Urari, or wourali poison		
Urari vine		
Vanglo, or sesame	<i>Sesamum orientale</i>	Pedaliaceæ
Vanilla	<i>Vanilla planifolia</i>	Orchidaceæ
Victoria lily	<i>Victoria regina</i>	Liliaceæ
Vine	<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	Vitaceæ
Vinca	<i>Vinca</i>	Apocynaceæ
Vervain (several species)	<i>Stachytarpheta</i>	Verbenaceæ
Wadaduri		
Wakenaam, lilac	<i>Jacaranda rhombifolia</i>	Bignoniaceæ
Wallaba tree	<i>Eperua falcata</i>	
Waremia		
Waracouri		
Wamara		
Waïke		
Wangala	<i>Sesamum orientale</i>	
Washeba (bow wood)		
Water lemon	<i>Passiflora laurifolia</i>	Passifloraceæ
Water vine, or water withy		
Water melon	<i>Cucumis citrullus</i>	Cucurbitaceæ
Water shields		
Wax plant	<i>Hoya carnea</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
West India tea (brown weed)	<i>Capraria biflora</i>	Schrophulariaceæ
White cedar tree		
White sage	<i>Lantana involucrata</i>	Verbenaceæ
White willow	<i>Capparis breynia</i>	Capparidaceæ
White celery	<i>Apium graveolens</i>	Apiaceæ
Wild ipecacuanha	<i>Asclepias curassavica</i>	Asclepiadaceæ
Wild calabash tree	<i>Cestrum laurifolium</i>	Solanaceæ
Wild cassava	<i>Adenoropium gossypifolium</i>	Euphorbiaceæ
Wild coffee	<i>Palicourea pavetta</i>	Cinchonaceæ
Wild clove, or bay myrtle	<i>Eugenia acris</i>	Myrtaceæ
Wild liquorice	<i>Abrus precatorius</i>	Fabaceæ

ALPHABETICAL List of Trees, &c.—*continued.*

VERNACULAR NAME.	BOTANICAL NAME.	CLASSIFICATION.
Wild orange		
Wild ochro		
Wild olive tree, or bastard cabbage bark	<i>Malachra capitata</i> <i>Andira inermis</i>	Malvaceæ Fabaceæ
Wild pine	<i>Yucca draconis</i>	Liliaceæ
Wild tamarind	<i>Cassia</i>	Fabaceæ
Wild tobacco	<i>Baccharis odorata</i>	Asteraceæ
Wild tulip	<i>Crinum zeylanicum</i>	Amaryllidaceæ
Wild water lemon		
Wild wormwood	<i>Parthenium hysterophorus</i>	Asteraceæ
Wild fig tree		
Wild plantain		
Worm seed weed	<i>Chenopodium anthelminticum</i>	Chenopodiaceæ
Wourali, or ourali	<i>Strychnos toxifera</i>	Loganiaceæ
Yams (several species)	<i>Dioscorea</i>	Dioscoreaceæ
Yam bush	<i>Dioscorea</i>	Dioscoreaceæ
Yam guinea	<i>Dioscorea</i>	Dioscoreaceæ
Yarri yarri		
Yaruri (paddle wood)	<i>Aspidospermum excelsum</i>	Apocynaceæ
Yarrunara		
Yellow Hercules	<i>Xanthoxylon ochroxylon</i>	Xanthoxylaceæ
Yellow plum	<i>Spondias lutea</i>	Anacardiaceæ
Yellow nicker	<i>Guilandina bonduc</i>	Fabaceæ
Yellow thistle	<i>Argemone mexicana</i>	Papaveraceæ
Yellow silbuballi	Unknown	
Youraballi	Unknown	

PART III.

ALPHABETICAL List of Hardwood and other useful Timber Trees indigenous to British Guiana.

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
1	Abuckka-danni...	Hardwood; useful for framing.
2	Acouri-broed, or sandhill green- heart	30 to 40	36 to 45	The wood is useful for frames, boards, and planks.
3	Acuyuri palm (<i>As- trocaryum acu- leatum</i>)... ..	20 to 30	20 to 30	The outside part of stem takes a fine polish, and is used for cabinet work and walking-sticks. The seed of the fruit yields a fine oil.
4	Acuyuri (<i>Icica al- tissima</i>)	50 to 60	80 to 120	The wood is used for canoes, book- cases, &c. See Red Cedar.

LIST of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth. in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
5	Akaraki	Hardwood.
6	Alsourou	A close and fine grained wood.
7	Amoorou.....	Strong and elastic wood, good for spars and beams.
8	Anapaima	A close grained wood, abounding in the rocky districts; the bark is aromatic, and is used by the Indians in fever and dysentery.
9	Annedein	A furniture wood.
10	Aradani	Hardwood.
11	Arawica	Furniture wood.
12	Aroumatta.....	30 to 40	24 to 27	The wood makes good planks.
13	Arnatto, or roucou (Bixa orellana).	Furnishes an excellent dye, used by the Indians and others.
14	Arrakadaca	Hardwood.
15	Assepoca.....	Hardwood.
16	Awasaculi	Hardwood.
17	Avocado pear (Persea grattissima)	A useful wood; the fruit is known as the alligator pear, and is much esteemed.
18	Bangeo, or ebony.	20 to 30	12 to 14	Is plentiful—squares from 8 to 10 inches. The tomahawk, or Indian war-club, is made of it. It is strong and durable.
19	Bannia, or ebony..	Useful as furniture wood.
20	Baramalli, or pump-wood.....	45 to 50	30 to 36	Good for staves of sugar casks.
21	Bartabally	30 to 50	30 to 40	Tough, strong, and much like ash; excellent for masts of sloops and schooners, yards and topmasts of ships, oars, handspikes, and cask staves.
22	Bastard bully tree, or tourneira	40 to 50	48 to 60	Useful for plank and framing timber; requires careful seasoning. Is plentiful throughout the colony.
23	Beridany.....	May be used instead of cedar.
24	Bisi	50 to 60	...	This tree grows to a great size; its wood is very durable, and is used by the Indians for canoes; it yields a resin of a greenish colour, which can be used as a varnish.
25	Bloodwood	30 to 40	20 to 30	Plentiful, and is useful for sugar cask staves.
26	Bully tree, bou- rawa, bullet, or burueli (Mimusops?).....	30 to 60	36 to 60	Excellent for house frames, plank, mill timber, shingles, gun-carriages, platforms, spokes, &c.; squares from 20 to 30 inches. Abundant in some places; found plentifully in Berbice and elsewhere.
27	Cabacalli, or ka- bacally	30 to 40	36 to 48	There are two kinds met with, the red and white—both plentiful; the red is good furniture wood, is useful for gun-carriages, resists the salt-water worm (owing to a bitter prin-

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
				ciple) for several years, and affords crooked timbers and planks for ship-building. The white kind is inferior, and is seldom used.
28	Cabbage tree (<i>Oreodoxa oleracea</i>)	60 to 70	20 to 40	The bark and branches useful for many purposes.
29	Calabash tree (<i>Crescentia cujete</i>).....	10 to 15	12 to 18	Can be used as furniture wood. The gourds are much used as drinking or eating vessels.
30	Camara, or tonka. See No. 48.	A very hard, tough, and durable wood; the tree yields the famous tonquin bean.
31	Cannella (<i>Canella alba</i>).....	Hardwood; the bark useful for medicinal purposes.
32	Canuballi, or canoumaballi.....	40 to 50	36 to 40	Useful for spars for colony craft; tall and straight like birch.
33	Carica.....	The wood contains a useful dye.
34	Carrahurri, or curahuri.....	Can be used as furniture wood.
35	Carra-seri, or black lancewood	A strong and elastic wood.
36	Cassia (<i>Cassia fistula</i>).....	40 to 50	36 to 54	The wood forms good boards; the pulp of the pods is eaten.
37	Cedar tree, or curana, two kinds, red and white (<i>Icica altissima</i>)	50 to 60	80 to 120	Plentiful in the interior; useful for boards and planks for every purpose; the white kind (<i>warracoura</i>) is used for oars and spars; the red for cabinets, book-shelves, &c.
38	Coolicishiri.....	Hardwood.
39	Coffee tree.....	Hardwood; yields the coffee berry.
40	Coorarunikira.....	Hardwood.
41	Corucororue.....	30 to 40	30 to 36	Is very plentiful, and might be extensively used for cask staves.
42	Courmaruballi.....	A tough wood of small size.
43	Couraharrah, or kurraharrah.....	30 to 40	36 to 40	Useful for frame boards and planks, housework, and small boats. Is rather scarce.
44	Couracooruli.....	Hardwood.
45	Couriaballi, or coriabally.....	40 to 50	36 to 40	Is more serviceable than American white pine for boards and planks.
46	Courida.....	60	...	Hardwood.
47	Coutaballi.....	30 to 40	...	Hard and durable, unless much exposed: makes good beams. It will square 12 inches.
48	Cuamara, or Tonkin bean, or gomorrow (<i>Dipteryx odorata</i>)...	50 to 60	72 to 90	The wood well adapted for shafts, mill-wheels, or cogs. Bean aromatic, and used for scenting snuffs.
49	Crab wood, or caraba (<i>Carapa guianensis</i>).....	30 to 40	30 to 60	Grows tall and straight; yields a valuable oil; useful for house frames, boarding, planks, spars, vats, &c. There are two kinds, red and white. It takes a high polish. It squares from 14 to 16 inches.

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
50	Cucadi	A tough and durable wood.
51	Curbacalli	Can be used as furniture wood.
52	Cucullaria.....	
53	Cururuburari.....	Hardwood.
54	Doori	Hardwood.
55	Ducalaballi.....	30 to 50	30 to 40	Tough, strong, and much like ash: useful for masts and spars, oars, handspikes, and staves.
56	Ducally	Grows tall and straight; makes good boards.
57	Determa	30 to 60	...	Excellent wood for ships' masts, spars, beams, planks, &c.
58	Etoure.....	Has similar properties to wallaba.
59	Eturewice	Hardwood.
60	Fucaddi	A soft but tough wood.
61	Gomarrow. <i>See</i> Cuamara.....	
62	Greenheart, or si- piri; three kinds, black, brown, yellow (<i>Nectan- dra rodiaei</i>)	40 to 80	36 to 70	The black greenheart is the best: the wood of all is excellent for mill timber, house frames, bridge or stelling piles, &c. A cubic foot weighs 75 lbs., Dutch weight. A very strong and durable wood, much in demand in Europe. It squares from 18 to 24 inches.
63	Guava (wild).....	The wood is used for gun-stocks, and has every appearance of being a good dye-wood.
64	Hactria	12 to 20	24 to 40	The wood resembles <i>lignum vitæ</i> in everything but smell, and can be applied to the same purposes.
65	Hercules wood	Hardwood.
66	Hiaballi	A light brown wood with black stripes; excellent for furniture.
67	Hicka	Hardwood.
68	Hoobaballi, or Hu- babally, or Suri- nam snakewood	20 to 40	36 to 70	A beautiful wood, of a light red colour, variegated with black and brown streaks. It is easily worked, takes a high polish, and is much used in the manufacture of furniture.
69	Hoobudie, or ubu- di, or wild ca- shew	Wood used for inside work.
70	Hooriwassa, or soap wood	30	...	Hardwood. Root and bark used as soap.
71	Hucoriya, or iron wood	40 to 50	...	A hard, tough wood, but not very durable if much exposed; it is therefore chiefly used for inside work. It is of a reddish colour, which deepens with age.
72	Huwarree, or hu- rawassa, or soap tree (<i>Sapindus saponaria</i>)	30 to 40	36 to 54	Makes good boards and heading for casks: the roots and bark are used by the Indians as soap.

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
73	Huwassi.....	
74	Hya-hya, or milk tree.....	Hardwood; the juice yields caout- chouc
75	Hyawaballi (Icica heptaphylla) ...	40 to 60	...	The hyawa, or incense tree; furnishes a valuable gum. The wood is sound and buoyant.
76	Hymakussi	Hardwood.
77	Hymoracushi.....	Hardwood.
78	Hyribaldi itaballi, or ita palm? (Mauritia flex- uosa)	30	...	Hardwood. The wood and leaves used for building and thatching.
79	Ititribouraballi, or tiger wood (Machærium schomburgkii)..	30 to 40	18 to 50	This wood is of a rich brown colour, spotted with black and brown streaks, like a tiger's skin. It squares from 12 to 16 inches; makes good boards for inside work.
80	Itikiboura	
81	Kakaralli, or cock- aralli	30 to 40	24 to 30	There are two varieties of this wood, the brown and the white. Much used for stellings and bridges. It possesses a bitter principle, which prevents barnacles from attaching themselves to it. It is also used for staves and planks.
82	Kamakasa	Hardwood.
83	Kamacusack	Hardwood.
84	Kartaballi	Hardwood.
85	Kerla	Hardwood.
86	Kewarloo-cusi	A hardwood of a bright yellow colour.
87	Kimaasamasa.....	Hardwood.
88	Kofassa	
89	Koqueretteballi ...	20 to 30	...	This wood forms excellent rafters and beams.
90	Kretti, or bastard silverbally	Useful for boards and planks.
91	Kucahara	
92	Kuracurara	
93	Kurahara	
94	Kurara, or courara	40 to 50	24 to 30	The wood furnishes crooked beams and planks for schooners.
95	Lana	40 to 50	36 to 40	Plentiful, and answers the same pur- pose as American white pine. The wood is close grained, and not liable to split. A valuable dye is pro- cured also from this tree.
96	Lance wood, or yarri yarri	20 to 25	6 to 12	This tree supplies good shafts and poles for carriages; also handspikes.
97	Lara-coo-sana, or bastard yaruri	Hardwood stem, with broad fluted projections.
98	Laurel tree (Laurus).....	Hardwood; there are several species, some of which furnish a valuable oil.
99	Letter wood, or bourra courra, or Brazil wood	30 to 40	36 to 40	The tree yielding this wood is of large size; but the greater part is un- serviceable. The centre part, or

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	REMARKS.
100	Locust tree, or simiri, two kinds, red and white Hymenæa (courbaril)	40 to 100	36 to 100	heart, yield the beautiful letter wood, which is so much admired for furniture and cabinet work. This magnificent tree furnishes a hard and compact wood, of a fine brown colour, streaked with veins, and well adapted for mill timbers, planks, and cabinet work. It is easily worked, and answers the purpose of American oak; a fine resin (gum anime) exudes from the roots, and resembles gum copal. The pod contains edible matter. The Indians make canoes of the bark.
101	Logwood (Hæmatoxylon campechianum)	20	...	Hardwood. This tree yields the well known dye.
102	Mammee tree (Mammea americana)	Furniture wood.
103	Mama tree	50 to 60	30 to 36	The wood of this tree has been found useful for staves and frames.
104	Manie, or manne.	Wood, hard, used for staves.
105	Mangrove	
106	Manniballi, or candle wood ...	30	...	Makes good framing wood, and yields a useful kind of wax.
107	Mansiballi, or accouribroed	30 to 40	...	This tree is plentiful, and is chiefly used for spars.
108	Masaranuni	
109	Mora (Mora excelsa)	50 to 120	20 to 90	This valuable timber tree resembles the English oak. It grows abundantly in sandy regions. It is tough, close grained, and durable. It is much used for ship and boat-building. There are several varieties, viz., the red, the white, and the brown. It squares from 18 to 20 inches. Found plentifully about the river Barima.
110	Morabally	40 to 50	30 to 40	The wood of this tree is found useful for framing.
111	Morabuci	Hardwood.
112	Murwaana	A furniture wood.
113	Myrtus	Hardwood.
114	Orange (Citrus aurantium).....	Furniture wood.
115	Ourysoury	20 to 30	18 to 24	Rather a scarce tree. Bears a nut like an oyster, the expressed juice of which is useful in medicine.
116	Pacuri.....	50 to 60	45 to 70	A sound and durable wood; useful for flooring and planks.
117	Pricady	40 to 60	30 to 40	An excellent wood for house frames, boards, and planks.
118	Pritti	Hardwood.

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
119	Purple heart, or courabarilla, or mariwayana (Copaifera pubiflora, or bracteata)	30 to 70	36 to 60	This term has been applied to several varieties of trees, but the wood of all is much alike. It possesses great strength and elasticity, and is much used for house frames, mills, and wharves. It is from the tree, called by the Indians Mariwayana, that the light canoe, so well known here as a woodskin, is prepared by stripping off the entire bark. Useful for mortar beds, on account of its admirable resistance to the shock of artillery discharges.
120	Putty	30 to 40	12 to 20	A straight and handsome tree, which furnishes good boards, staves.
121	Rosewood	Furniture wood.
122	Saka, or bastard purple heart	The wood is used by cabinet-makers for furniture.
123	Sallebarroo.....	A curious flat bush rope.
124	Saouwarri, saouari, or sewarri nut (Caryocar tomentosum) ...	30 to 50	48 to 72	This tree yields the delicious saouari nut. The timber is valuable for boats, bridges-planking, mills. It squares from 16 to 20 inches.
125	Silbadani'	20 to 30	24 to 42	This tree furnishes a beautiful wood, prettily variegated with black, brown, purple, and yellow. It is found useful for flooring, partitions.
126	Silverballi, sirubally, or siruballi (Nectandra).....	30 to 70	20 to 60	This name is given to four varieties of trees, known as the black, brown, yellow, and white. The two first are the longest trees. The wood of the black kind is similar in properties to ebony. The brown kind is used for boards and planks. The yellow kind resembles letter wood, and contains a bitter principle. The white is good for inside work. The wood generally is light, and floats readily. It is much sought after by boat-builders. Squares from 10 to 14 inches.
127	Sirebadany.....	10 to 20	30 to 40	There are two varieties of this wood: the red and the white, or pale. Both kinds are highly valued as furniture wood.
128	Simarupa, or simaruba (Simaruba officinalis)	40 to 60	36 to 60	The timber of this tree is serviceable for frames, boards, and planks.
129	Siridani	Used as furniture wood.
130	Siruba	A large tree, which furnishes good ship timber.
131	Slonea	Hardwood.
132	Sunwood.....	The tree which produces this useful furniture wood is rather scarce.

LIST of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
133	Suradanni, or dalina	30 to 40	36 to 82	Much used for ship timbers, rails, naves, and wheels. Made also into canoes by the Indians. There are two kinds, the red and the pale.
134	Taccuba	This tree is found in the high lands and among the falls. It is strong, hard, and durable. It resembles the washiba or bow wood, but is not so elastic.
135	Tataba, or detaba	40 to 60	36 to 100	There are two kinds, the brown and the yellow. The timber resembles the teak, and is useful for mill shafts, rollers, and wheels.
136	Tabiecushi	Can be used as furniture wood.
137	Tamarind	Furniture wood.
138	Torch tree	25 to 30	18 to 24	As implied by the name, the wood of this tree is used by the Indian for torches in hunting and fishing.
139	Tooroo palm	50 to 60	...	Its woody outside is used by the cabinet-makers for inlaid work, walking-sticks, and billiard cues.
140	Turanira, touranero, or bastard bully tree	See No. 22.
141	Turiballi, uriballi, or eurebally, or Guiana mahogany	Furniture wood. A large tree, which yields a wood excellent for wardrobes and other things, as insects will not attack it.
142	Wadaduri, or Wadadura, or monkey-pot tree (Lecythis grandiflora	This wood is plentiful, and is used for furniture staves. Hardwood.
143	Waike.....	Furniture wood.
144	Wallaba (eperna falcata)	40 to 50	42 to 82	A hard, durable wood of a red colour, which splits freely, and contains an oily resin; it is found excellent for shingles and staves.
145	Wamara, brown ebony, or club-wood	50 to 60	...	This wood is hard and cross-grained; the Indians make their war-clubs of it.
146	Waracouri	Hardwood.
147	Waranara	Hardwood.
148	Waremia.....	20 to 40	...	A soft wood, which grows to a large size.
149	Washeba, bow-wood, or wasceba.....	50 to 66	36 to 90	A hard and durable wood, useful for mill timber; it is used by the Indians for their war and hunting bows.
150	Wiaballi.....	Hardwood.
151	Wild olive	Furniture wood.
152	Wild onion, or coopa	A large parasitic plant, whose seeds have a strong flavour of garlic.

List of Hardwood and Timber Trees, &c.—*continued.*

No.	N A M E.	Height in Feet.	Girth in Inches.	R E M A R K S.
153	Wild orange, or waranana	30 to 40	...	Furniture wood. Easily worked ; makes good beams and spars.
154	Wild nutmeg	Hardwood.
155	Wild spice	Hardwood.
156	Wooraliballi	A hard and cross grained red wood, which is very scarce.
157	Yarri-yarri, or lancewood Duguetia quit- rensis).....	15 to 20	...	A small and slender tree, the wood of which possesses much toughness and elasticity, and is used for gig shafts. The Indians make their arrow points of it.
158	Yaruri, yarooroo, or paddle-wood (Aspidosperma excelsa)	50 to 60	36 to 48	There are two kinds, the yellow and white; the former resembles beech, and is useful for planes and tool- handles; the white was found ser- viceable for cotton-gin rollers. The Indians make their paddles of the fluted projections of the trunk.
159	Youraballi	A small but strong tree, used for the pin by which timber is hauled out of the bush.

N.B. Besides the foregoing, there are numerous other valuable timber trees which are in common use among the wood-cutters, but their names and qualities are unknown to me.

PART IV.

PLANTS OF BRITISH GUIANA.

*Arranged according to the classification of PROFESSOR LINDLEY.**

THE CRYPTOGAMOUS, OR FLOWERLESS PLANTS.

Class I.—*Thallogens.*

IN the classification of plants according to the "Natural System" of Botany, the lowest forms of vegetable organisation have been grouped into a class called "Thallogens;" that is, flowerless plants, whose

* In the classification the species have not been grouped in genera, neither as a general rule have the synonyms been given.

stems and leaves are undistinguishable. Great confusion and difficulty have existed among botanists in describing the specimens belonging to it, in consequence of the minute and obscure structure of most of them; the extremes of animal and vegetable life approach so closely, that it is not always easy to define the exact limits which separate them, and it has happened that what were formerly considered plants, have now been ascertained to be in reality animals, low in the scale of nature, while occasionally the converse has obtained, so that revision and alterations are constantly being made in the arrangement of these humble species.

Thallogens comprise the following alliances :

1st. Algales, or Seaweeds.

2nd. Fungales, or Mushrooms.

3rd. Lichenales, or Lichens.

Numerous species belonging to the several alliances of this class are to be met within British Guiana.*

The Algales, or Seaweeds, are sufficiently known, and are to be found in seas, rivers, and other waters. They may be seen floating about, or resting like scum in pools of stagnant water, and their organisation ascends from the simplest to the most complex state.

The Fungales, or Mushrooms, are also pretty well known, and flourish from the parasitical fungi (mouldiness) observable upon bread and other substances, to the more perfect structure of the esteemed truffle and champignon.

The Lichenales, or Lichens, are commonly seen on the surface of rocks, trees, as well as on the earth, and occur in irregular patches of various colours and size.

* Reisen in British Guiana.

ALGALES.

Odontidium hyemale v. fragilaria hyc-
male
Cymbosira agardhii
Odontella polymorpha
Nostoc litorale
Lyngbya putealis
Schizodictyon purpurascens
Conferva fluviatilis
Ectocarpus spinulosus
Ulva intestinalis
Batracho-spermum monillifonne
Polysiphonia subtilissima
Lomentaria impudica
Delesseria lepriurii

LICHENALES—LICHENS.

Usnea strigosa
" australis
Ramalina linearis
" rigida
Sticta quercizans
" exampliata
" dissecta
Parmelia sinuosa
" perlata
" obsessa
" applanata
" peltita
" pannosa
" pallescens
" gyrosa
Collema agureum
" schomburgkianum
" linkii
Cladonia ecmozyma
" carneo—badia
" cocomia
" macilenta
" ceratophylla
" coccinea
" pityrea
" carnea
Biatoria vernalis
" vestita
" russula
" tuberculosa
Lecidea alborens
" imbricata
" corticola
" brebssonii
Ustalia gracilis
" anguina
" flammula
Lecanactis serograpti
" lobata
Opegrapha prosodea
" ovata
" acharii
" rimulosa

Opegrapha myrico-carpa
" scripta
" angustata
" lepriurii
Fissurina nivea
" radiata
" insculpta
" graminis
Graphis virginea
" pavoniana
" afzelii
" illinata
Medusala tricola
" olivacea
" fulva
Glyphis labyrinthica
" favulosa
Sagedia compuncta
Pertusaria verrucosa
" leucostricta
Thelotrema platystomum
" atratum
" olivaceum
Pyrenastrum americanum
" macrospermum
" album
" eustomum
Verrucaria tropica
" prostrans
" cinchona
" thelena
" catervaria
" planorbis
" melanophalma
" analepta
" nitens
" myriocarpa
" marginata
" aspistea
Verrucaria micramma
" variolosa
" ochroleuca
" cinnamonea
" chionea
" porinoides
" nitida
" complanata
" leucostoma
" heterochroa
Astrothelium sepultum
" concinnum
Trypethelium sprengelii
" sphaerioides
" cruentum
" platistomum
" annulare
" lepriurii
" porosum
" pyrenuloides
" megaspermum
" madreporiforme

FUNGALIA—MUSHROOMS.	
Agaricus tenellus	Polyporus vaporarius
" musse	" surinamensis
" striatus	" nitidus
" cancrinus	Trametes hydroides
" campestris	" fibrosa
" reniformis	Dædalea splendens
Coprinus aster	" rhabarbarina
" extincorius	Favolus braziliensis
" molybdites	Thelephora speciosa
" fimetarius	" liliputiana
Lentinus fumigatus	Stereum elegans
" nigripes	" surinamensis
" villosus	" reniforme
" sajor caju	" chartaceum
" pilosus	Clavaria fastigiata
" crinitus	" tubulosa
" ochraceo-fuscus	" fistulosa
" schomburgkii	" delicata
" velutinus	Exidia auricula
" strigosus	Peziza tricholoma
Meruleus castaneus	" heteromera
" miquelii	Hysterium rufulum
" cuneiformis	Stictis psycotriæ
Schizophyllum commune	Sphæria kegeliana
" exiguum	" multifida
Lenzites interrupta	" pileiformis
" repanda	" melanopsis
Polyporus agaricus	" heterostoma
" rhizomorpha	" microsticha
" xanthophus	" conostoma
" guianensis	" quisquiliarum
" heteromorphus	" calyculus
" longipes	" pseudo-bombarda
" leprieurii	" megalaspora
" sanguineus	" raphidosperma
" auriscalpium	" oedema
" spathulatus	" trachodes
Polyporus aculeatus	" sanguinea
" lignoides	" episphaeria
" iodinus	" mammaeformis
" villosus	Dothidea ropalina
" fomentarius	" euglypta
" verucculosus	Meliola musae
" australis	" furcata
" fimbriatus	" cymbisperma
" striatus	Asteroma labecula
" feei	Acospora phymatoides
	Phoma mauritiæ
	Antennaria tropica

Class II.—*Acrogens*.

From the rudimentary organisation which characterised the plants of the former class, we pass on to consider those whose structure is more complicated.

The term *Acrogens* has been applied to flowerless

plants, but whose stems and leaves are distinguishable. This class includes three alliances :

1st. Muscales, or Mosses.

2nd. Lycopodales, or Clubmosses and Pepperworts.

3rd. Filicales, or Ferns.

The species belonging to the several alliances of this class vary much in size and general appearance, but they may generally be known by their possessing stomates, or breathing pores, and by their reproductive organs, called spores, which are small bodies like ordinary seeds, which are placed on the organs representing the leaves. Acrogens are in general small plants, but in ferns they attain a large size, the larger kinds of which are almost like trees.

The Muscales, or Mosses, are small species occurring in various situations, and of singular beauty ; they are to be met with on the ground, on stones, on the barks of trees.

The Lycopodales, or Clubmosses, are few in number, and have small imbricated leaves, and a coniferous fructification.

The Filicales, or Ferns, are an interesting and singular tribe of plants, which are largely represented here, and may readily be known by the spores, which in fantastic forms stud the long and beautiful leaves ; they are common along the banks of the rivers and creeks, and are also found in the forests, varying in size and form.

- MUSCALS—MOSSES.**
Plagiochila stricta
 " *patula*
 " *montagnei*
 " *martiana*
 " *rutilans*
 " *adiantoides*
 " *disticha*
 " *asplenioides*
 " *biserialis*
 " *subplana*

- Jungermannia albicans*
Mastigobryum serpentinum
Micropterygium vulgare
Radula pallens
 " *recubans*
Phragmicoma torulosa
 " *corticalis*
Lejeunia lepieurii
 " *lunulata*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *crucianella*

Lejeunia cordifissa
 " *chitonia*
 " *weigeltii*
 " *inflexa*
 " *oxyphylla*
 " *amœna*
 " *elegans*
 " *duriuscula*
 " *myriantha*
 " *adnata*
 " *rigidula*
 " *flexuosa*
 " *pellucida*
 " *cuneata*
 " *splitgerberiana*
 " *involvens*
 " *radicosa*
 " *fortifolia*
 " *repens*
 " *adglutinata*
Frullania gibbosa
 " *arietina*
 " *squarrosa*
 " *ericoides*
 " *taylori*
 " *subtilissima*
 " *obcordata*
 " *leprieurii*
 " *montagnei*
 " *exilis*
Aeura pinnatifida
Metzgeria furcata
Sphagnum palustre
Octoblepharum cylindricum
 " *albidum*
Cryptandum schomburgkii
Hydropogon fontinaloides
Hookeria depressa
 " *scabriseta*
Macromitrium leprieurii
 " *mucronifolium*
 " *cirrhosum*
 " *apiculatum*
Schlotheimia squarrosa
 " *rugifolia*
 " *viticulosa*
Dicranum albicans
 " *tenuirostre*
 " *glaucum*
 " *megalophyllum*
Bryum coronatum
Leucobryum martianum
Bartramia uncinata
Polytrichum bipinnatum
 " *polytrichoides*
 " *commune*
Calymperes palisoti
 " *afzelii*
 " *androgynum*
 " *lonchophyllum*
 " *berterii*

Pterygynandrum intricatum
 " *pulchellum*
Neckera flicina
 " *imbricata*
 " *polytrichoides*
 " *vulpina*
 " *undulata*
 " *scabriseta*
Leskia microcarpa
 " *cœspitosa*
 " *pungens*
Hypnum subsimplex
 " *richardii*
 " *elegantatum*
 " *cirrhiferum*
 " *gratum*
 " *ehamissonis*
 " *patulum*
 " *leptochæton*
Drepanophyllum fulvum
Phyllogonium fulgens
Fissidens prionodes
 " *hornschucii*
 " *radicans*
 " *leptophyllum*
 " *guianensis*
 " *kegelianus*
 " *intermedius*
 " *pellucidus*

LYCOPODALES.

Lycopodium reflexum
 " *cernum*
 " *carolinianum*
 " *aristatum*
 " *linifolium*
 " *dichotomum*
 " *dendroideum*
 " *robustum*
 " *intermedium*
 " *subulatum*
 " *lussieni*
Selaginella breynii
 " *pedata*
 " *puberula*
 " *radiata*
 " *concinna*
 " *convoluta*
 " *guianensis*
 " *fiabellata*
 " *pœppiginea*
 " *rupestris*

FILICALES—FERNS.

Hymenostachys elegans
 " *diversifrons*
Tichomanes heterophyllum
 " *pellucens*
 " *plumula*
 " *pilosum*
 " *ankerii*

Tichomanes membranaceum	Hemitelia hostmannii
" brachypus	" parkerii
" pricurii	Dicksonia adiantoides
" kaulfussii	Davallia Imrayana
" laxum	Lindsea dubia
" cellulosum	" schomburgkii
" bancroftii	" falcata
" coriaceum	" stricta
" tenerum	" crenata
" anceps	" trapeziformis
" rigidum	" divaricata
Neurophyllum pinnatum	" moritziana
" hostmannianum	" pendula
" vittaria	" gracilis
" floribundum	" raddiana
Didymoglossum reptans	" pumila
" krausii	" rigescens
Hymenophyllum poepigianum	" pallida
" polyanthos	" tenuis
" asplenioides	" filiformis
" clavatum	" susilla
Sphaeroclonium crispum	" saliciformis
Danae simplicifolia	" macrophylla
" trifoliata	" rufescens
" lepreurii	" quadrangularis
Ophioglossum macrorrhizum	" guianensis
" reticulatum	Adiantum serrato-dentatum
" nudicaule	" triangulatum
Schizaea trilateralis	" tomentosum
" elegans	" obliquum
" fiabellum	" fernatum
" dichotoma	" rigidum
" incurvata	" glaucescens
Actinostachys pennula	" cajennense
Aneimia humilis	" hirtum
" ferruginea	" radiatum
" cheilanthoides	Blechnum serrulatum
" villosa	" ceteracinnum
" schomburgkiana	" unilateralis
Lygodium volubile	" asplenioides
" polymorphum	" gracile
" venustum	" polypodioides
" hirtum	" unilaterale
" hastatum	Hypolepis guianensis
Mertensia longipennis	Pteris deflexa
" pubescens	" litobrochioides
" pectinata	" pungens
" rufinervis	" biformis
" pedalis	" arachnoidea
" immersa	" denticulata
Cyathea hirtula	" elegans
" aspera	Doryopteris palmata
Alsophila ferox	" euchlora
" multiflora	" lomariacea
" pungens	Lomaria plumierii
" oblonga	" schomburgkii
" subaculeata	Salpiglena volubilis
" armata	Asplenium schomburgkianum
" villosa	" harpeodes
" marginalis	" serra
Hemitelia guianensis	" salicifolium

Asplenium formosum
 " *auritum*
 " *allosepteron*
 " *ingerrimum*
 " *cuneatum*
Nephrolepis ensifolia
 " *sesquipedalis*
 " *exaltata*
Aspidium macrophyllum
 " *guianense*
 " *denticulatum*
 " *coriaceum*
 " *mexicanum*
 " *pendulum*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *cicutarium*
 " *fraxinifolium*
 " *hookerii*
 " *nodosum*
 " *gongyloides*
Polypodium blechnoides
 " *confusum*
 " *phlegmaria*
 " *abbreviatum*
 " *taxifolium*
 " *hygrometricum*
 " *cultratum*
 " *nervosum*
 " *apiculatum*
 " *firmum*
 " *trifurcatum*
 " *trichomanoides*
 " *pendulum*
 " *pilosissimum*
 " *paradiseal*
 " *discolor*
 " *paronianum*
 " *ciliatum*
 " *lepidopteris*
 " *incanum*
 " *subalatum*
 " *richardii*
 " *attenuatum*
 " *hostmanni*
 " *distans*
 " *crassifolium*
 " *fasciale*
 " *phyllitidis*
 " *leucortizon*
 " *costatum*
 " *areolatum*

Polypodium decumanum
 " *aureum*
 " *lycopodioides*
 " *percussam*
 " *lepidotum*
Mecosorus nudus
 " *marginellus*
 " *pericariæfolius*
 " *schomburgkii*
Gymnogramma pumila
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *calomelanos*
 " *guianensis*
Meniscium serratum
 " *macrophyllum*
Antrophyum cajennense
 " *subsessile*
Hemionitis palmata
Acrostichum decoratum
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *alatum*
 " *flaccidum*
 " *simplex*
 " *herminieri*
 " *glabellum*
 " *plumosum*
 " *brevipes*
 " *aureum*
 " *prieurianum*
 " *erythroides*
 " *calophyllum*
 " *spodum*
 " *cuspidatum*
 " *jamesonii*
 " *piloelloides*
 " *luridum*
 " *sepidotum*
 " *sommarioides*
 " *citrifolium*
 " *peltatum*
 " *cajennense*
 " *aureum*
 " *hirsutum*
 " *semipinnatifida*
 " *dentata*
Polybotria caudata
Tonitis furcata
 " *angustifolia*
 " *desvauxii*
Vittaria graminifolia
Xiphopteris serrulata

SEXUAL, OR FLOWERING PLANTS.

Class III.—*Rhizogens*.

Ascending the scale of vegetable life, we next find plants possessed of flowers, with a distinct sexual apparatus, the fructification springing from a thallus.

According to Professor Lindley,* “*Rhizogens* are parasitical plants destitute of true leaves, in room of which they have cellular scales. Their stem is either an amorphous fungous mass, or a ramified mycelium, sometimes, perhaps always, appearing to be lost in the tissue of the plants on which it grows; and is very imperfectly supplied with spiral vessels, which in some instances seem to be wholly deficient. No instance of green colour is known among them; but they are brown, yellow, or purple. They are furnished with true flowers, having genuine stamens and carpels, and surrounded by a trimerous or pentamerous calyx, or absolutely naked. Their forms are exceedingly diversified. *Rhizogens* all agree in being of a fungus-like consistence, and in their habits of living parasitically on the roots of other plants.”

I am not aware that there are any plants belonging to this class in this country.

Class IV.—*Endogens*.

In the next class of plants, termed *Endogens*, or *Monocotyledons*, we find a multitude of species with distinct stems, leaves, and flowers. They derive the

* Vegetable Kingdom.

name of Endogens from the fact of the new woody matter being constantly developed in the first instance towards the interior of the trunk, only curving outwards in its course downwards; as exemplified in the palm trees, and others. The following are the characteristic features of this class:

- 1st. The wood is endogenous.
- 2nd. The leaves are straight-veined.
- 3rd. The organs of fructification are ternary.
- 4th. The embryo is monocotyledonous.
- 5th. The germination is endorhizal.

The class is divided into several alliances, and include the palms, arals, grasses, bulrushes, the lilyworts and orchids, besides others.

ALLIANCE VII. GLUMALES.—ORDER		Echinolaena scabra
29. GRASSES.		" hirta
Saccharum officinarum — sugar cane	(Bourbon)	Dactyloctenium acgyptiacum—cruciated grass
" commune—creole cane		Leptochloa domingensis
" otaheitense—Otaheite cane		" digitaria
" caudatum		" virgata
" contractum		" dubia
" spicatum		" gracilis
Andropogon schœnanthus—lemon grass		Spartina fasciculata
" angustifolius—sour grass		Orthoclada laxa
" bicornis — deer or foxtail grass		Ischaemum guianensis
" fascicularis		" latifolium
" brevifolius		Anstida capillacea
" avenaceus		Sporobolus acneus
Luziola peruviana—grave grass		Panicum leucophæum
Pharus scaber		" laxum
Sorghum vulgare—guinea corn		" sulcatum
" bicolor	"	" sanguinale
" cernuum	"	" clandestinum
" saccharatum	"	" fasciculatum
Olyra longifolia		" tenuiculum
" paniculata		" avenaceum
" ornata		" granuliferum
" glauca		" maculatum
Eriochloa kunthii		" zizanioides
" punctata		" divaricatum
Isachne dubia—reed grass		" adacendens
Oplismenus crus galli		" fluitans
" velutinus		" granuliferum
" hirtellus—Scotch grass		" trichoides
" colonus		" jumentorum—guinea grass
Setaria caudata		" paspaloides—long grass
" macrostachya		" latifolium—May grass
" glaucum		" fimbriatum

Panicum colonum—purple panic grass,
 or vine grass
 " **horizontale**
 " **lineare**—devil's grass
 " **martensii**
 " **pilosum**—Scotch grass
 " **arundinazum**
 " **molle**—rice grass
 " **pilisparsum**
 " **elatus**
 " **stoloniferum**
 " **pallens**
 " **glutinosum**
 " **cayennense**
 " **isocalycinum**
 " **commelinafolium**
 " **myurus**
 " **spectabile**
 " **distachyum**
Paspalum distichum—savannah grass
 " **repens**
 " **conjugatum**—sour grass
 " **virgatum**—lamaha grass
 " **mealonospermum** — lamaha
 grass
 " **paniculatum**
 " **gracile**
 " **platicaula**
 " **pusillum**
 " **vaginatum**—crab grass
 " **scoparium**
 " **leptostachyum**
Cenchrus giganteus—a sweet grass
 " **echinatus**—bur grass
 " **tribuloides**—bur grass
 " **pungens**
Zea mays—Indian corn
Coix lachryma—Job's tears
Pennisetum richardii
Agrostis minima
 " **indica**
 " **virginicus**—crab grass
 " **truncatellus**
Poa ciliaris—dog's grass
 " **dactyloides**
Eleusina indica—Dutch grass, or man
 grass
Cynodon dactylon—Bahamas grass, or
 devil's grass
Arundinaria schomburgkii — (Woorali
 poison)
Arundo donax
Bambusa arundinacea—bamboo
 " **latifolia**
Pariaria campestris
Chloris elegans
 " **polydactyla**
Oryza sativa—rice
 " **latifolia**
Leersia oryzoides
Gynerium paniflorum—the arrow plant

Gynerium saccharoides
Guadua latifolia
Zeugites americana

ORDER 30. CYPERACEÆ—SEDGES.

Cyperus vegetas
 " **odoratus**
 " **hamiltonii**
 " **stellatus**
 " **ferox**—razor grass
 " **hydra**—nut grass
 " **luzulae**
 " **jubaeflorus**
 " **surinamensis**
 " **ligularis**—bulrush
 " **nemorosus**
 " **rotundus**
 " **callophorus**
 " **amentaceus**
 " **compresons**
 " **densiflorus**
 " **elegans**
 " **giganteus**
 " **fascicularis**
 " **strigosus**
 " **schomburgkianus**
 " **infucatus**
 " **simplex**
 " **glomeratus**
 " **cuspidatus**
 " **brizæus**
 " **insignis**
 " **tenuicornus**
Fimbristylis laxa
 " **ferruginea**
 " **spadicea**
 " **vahlilii**
 " **limosa**
 " **dichotoma**
 " **tenuis**
 " **brizoides**
Dichromena ciliata
 " **junciformis**
 " **leucocephala**
 " **hispidula**
 " **globosa**
 " **puberosa**
Kyllingia pungens
 " **triceps**
 " **obtusata**
 " **odorata**
 " **cruciformis**
Mariscus elatus
 " **littoralis**
 " **coriaceus**
Trichostylis longirostris
 " **stricta**
Hemicarpha subquarrosa
Abildgaardia monostachya
Hypolytrum pungens
 " **sylvaticum**

Hypolytrum longifolium
Diplasia karatæfolia
Dichromena elatior
 " *pubera*
 " *ciliata*
 " *junciformis*
 " *leucocephala*
 " *hispidula*
 " *globosa*
 " *micrantha*
 " *setacea*
Ptilocarya rufa
 " *candida*
Rhynchospora barbata
 " *polycephala*
 " *evaltata*
 " *cephalotes*
 " *globosa*
 " *amazonica*
 " *glauca*
 " *sybratica*
Acrocarpus stellatus
Lagenocarpus guianensis
 " *tremulus*
Hymenolytrum sylvestre
Becquerelia merkeliana
Calyptrocarya fragifera
 " *angustifolia*
 " *brevicaulis*
 " *longifolia*
Eleocharis mutata
 " *capitata*
 " *septata*
 " *submersa*
 " *maculosa*
 " *obtusa*
Scleria flagellum
 " *interrupta*
 " *capitata*
 " *microcarpa*
 " *mitis*
 " *bracteata*
 " *tenella*
 " *verrucosa*
 " *kunthii*
 " *nutans*
 " *cyperina*
 " *melaleuca*
 " *stipularis*
 " *grandiflora*
Eriophorum angustifolium
Isolepis capillaris
 " *micrantha*
 " *conifera*
 " *junciformis*
 " *vestita*
 " *albescens*
Schœnus globosus
 " *fragiferus*
 " *floridus*
Makania sylvatica

Remirea maritima
Fuirema umbellata
 " *guianensis*
Schirpus geniculatus
 " *cubensis*

ORDER 33. ERIOCAULACEÆ.

Tonina fluviatilis
Pæpalanthus capillaceus
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *dichotomus*
 " *guianensis*
 " *grioccephala*
 " *umbellatus*
 " *lamarckii*
 " *ottonis*
 " *procerus*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *caulescens*
 " *hispidus*
 " *subulatus*
 " *humboldtii*
 " *fasciculatus*
Eriocaulon brevifolium
 " *tenuifolium*
 " *humboldtii*

ORDER 34. PISTIACEÆ—DUCKWEEDS.

Pistia stratioides
 " *linguiformis*
 " *commutata*
 " *horkeliana*

ALLIANCE VIII.—ORDER 36. ARACEÆ
—ARUMS.

Arum maculatum
 " *braziliensis*
 " *arborescens*—*mocco-mocco*
 " *dracontium*
 " *maciorhizum*
 " *aculeatum*
 " *hediraceum*
 " *lingulatum*
Philodendron crassinervium
 " *cannæfolium*
Monstera adansonii
 " *cannæfolia*
Caladium esculentum—*eddoes* or *tannias*
 " *arborescens*
 " *sagittæfolium*—*nut eddoes*
 " *grandifolium*
 " *nymphaeifolium*—*wild eddoes*
 " *bicolor*
 " *fragrantissimum*
Xanthosoma edule
Colocasia mucronata
Acontias heleborifolius
Arisæma braziliense

ORDER 37. PANDANACEÆ.

Carludovica plumerii
 " subacaulis
 Cyclanthus bipartitus

ALLIANCE IX.—ORDER 38. PALMACEÆ
 —PALMS.

Cocos nucifera—cocoa-nut tree
 Astrocaryum aculeatum—star-nut palm
 " gynacanthum "
 " acaule "
 " munbaca "
 " vulgare "
 " campestre "
 " muru muru "
 " jauari "
 Sagus—sago tree?
 Oreodoxa vel areca oleracea—cabbage-tree
 Phytelephas macrocarpa
 Borassus
 Acrocomia sclerocarpa—grougrou palm
 Mauritia aculeata
 " flexuosa—ita palm
 " armata
 Palma parviflora
 " dactylifera
 " maripa
 " humilis
 Bactris—sarbacan, or blow-pipe
 Maximiliana regia—cucurbit
 Thrimax parviflora—fan palm
 Elais guianensis—palm-oil tree
 " melanococca
 Scaforthia, or euterpe—manicole palm
 Guilielma speciosa—paripa, or pirijas palm
 Attalea funifera
 " speciosa
 " excelsa
 Iriarte exorrhiza
 " ventricosa
 Ænocarpus bataua—tum palm
 " minor
 " bacaba
 " regius
 Euterpe oleracea
 " edulis
 Raphis flabelliformis—dwarf palm
 Chamædorea pauciflora
 " gracilis
 Hyospathe elegans
 Leopoldinia pulchra
 " insignis
 Lepidocaryum gracile
 " tenue
 Geonoma maxima
 " acutiflora
 " laxiflora
 " diversa

Geonoma sprixiana
 " stricta
 " arundinacia
 " acaulis
 " macrostachys
 " poiteanana
 " baculifera
 " elegans
 Mancaria saccifera—troolie palm
 Des oncus macracanthos
 " polycanthos
 " mitis
 " setosus
 Bactris maraja—cane palms
 " aristata
 " concinna
 " mitis
 " longifrons
 " major
 " simplicifrons
 " acanthocarpa
 " macracantha
 " pectinata
 Martinezia caryotæfolia

ORDER 39. HYDROCHARIDÆ.

Udora guianensis
 " surinamensis
 Simnobium spongia

ALLIANCE XI. NARCISSALES.—

ORDER 42. BROMELIACEÆ.

Ananassa sativa—pine-apple
 Bromelia mertensii
 " ananas
 " pinguin—wild pine
 " discolor
 " karatas—caraguata pine
 " longifolia
 " lingulata
 " lutea
 " nudicaulis
 Tillandsia anceps
 " bromelifolia
 " usneidoes—old man's beard
 " pulchra
 " floribunda
 " flexuosa
 " setacea
 " conspersa
 " vestita
 " ramealis
 " aloefolia
 " recurvata
 Pitcairnia bromelifolia—scarlet pit-cain
 Bilbergia clavatas
 " odorata
 " lutea
 " nudicaulis
 " mertensii

Puya guianensis
 " *macrostachya*
Encholirium angustae

ORDER 44. HEMODORACEÆ—BLOOD-ROOTS.

Xiphidium cœruleum—vel floribundum
 " *fockeannum*
Troschelia orinocensis
Nietneria corymbosa
Barbaceniæ alexandrinæ

ORDER 45. HYPOXIDACEÆ.

Hypoxidea breviscarpa
 " *scerzoneraefolia*

ORDER 46. AMARYLLIDACEÆ—AMARYLLIS.

Amaryllis equestris—red lily
 " *zeylanica*—wild tulip
 " *formosa*—Brazil lily
 " *belladonna*—belladonna lily
Pancreatium guianense—white lily
 " *littorale*
 " *fragrans*
 " *caribæum*
 " *amœnum*
 " *tubiflorum*

Crinum americanum—asphodil

" *guianense*
 " *viridifolium*
 " *corentynum*
 " *lancei*
 " *erubescens*

Agave americana—silk grass, or aloe

" *vivipara*
 " *gigantea*—carata, or silk grass

Hippeastrum barbatum
 " *occidentale*
 " *equestre*
 " *solandrofolium*

Hymenocallis guianensis

" *tubiflora*
 " *amœna*
 " *fragrans*
 " *sloanei*
 " *caribæa*
 " *dyandri*

Bomarea fuscata

" *edulis*

ORDER 47. IRIDACEÆ—IRIDS.

Tigrinia pavonia—tiger lily

Marica paludosa

" *tenuifolia*

" *martinensis*

Sisyrinchium latifolium—bloodworth

" *iridifolium*
 " *alatum*

Iris xyphium

Libertia grandiflora

Cipura paludosa

ALLIANCE XII. AMOMALES.—ORDER 48. MUSACEÆ.

Musa paradisiaca—plantain tree

" *sapientum*—banana tree

" *chinensis*—dwarf plantain

" *rosacea*—rose banana

Urania

Ravenala guianensis

Helicoma behai

" *acuminata*

" *psittacorum*

" *richardiana*

" *braziliensis*

" *schomburgkiana*

" *pulverulenta*

" *ballia*

" *flexuosa*

ORDER 49. ZINGIBERACEÆ—GINGER PLANTS.

Allucia cernua

Zingiber officinale—ginger

Amomum meleguita—Guinea pepper

Grana vel paradisiaca—

Curcuma longa—turmeric

Costus spicatus

" *spiralis*

" *comosus*

" *niveus*

" *cylindricus*

" *villosissimus*

Alpinia nutans—shell plant

" *tubulata*—Demerara

" *exaltata*—Surinam

Renealmia aromatica

" *racemosa*

ORDER 50. MARANTACEÆ—ARROW-ROOT PLANTS.

Canna indica—Indian shot

" *surinamensis*

" *lutea*—yellow shot

" *coccinea*—red shot

" *achiras*—tous-les-mois

" *glauca*

" *discolor*

" *lambertii*

Maranta arundinacea—arrowroot

" *allouya*

" *obligua*

" *petiolata*

" *protracta*

" *gracilis*

" *humilis*

" *tonchat*

" *lutea*

" *pubescens*

Thalia verrucosa

" *altissima*

Phrynium casupa

" *pumilum*

Phrynium guianense
Calathea macrostachya
 " *composita*
 " *latifolia*
Thaliantus macropus
Myrosma cannaefolia
 " *comosa*

ALLIANCE XIII. ORCHIDALES.—ORDER
 51. BURMANNIACEÆ.

Burmannia bicolor
 " *quadriflora*
 " *capitata*
 " *brachystachya*
Dictyostega schomburgkiana

ORDER 52. ORCHIDACEÆ.—ORCHIDS.

Pleurothallis ciliata—fl. brown
 " *grobeyi*—purp. yellow
 " *lanciana*—orange
 " *picta*—yel. striped
 " *ruscifolia*
 " *pruinosa*
 " *sicaria*
 " *discoidea*
 " *aristata*
 " *multicaulis*
 " *succosa*

Specklinia orbicularis
Physosiphon emarginata
Octomeria tridentata
Stelis argentata

" *ophioglossoides*
Bolbophyllum setigerum
 " *bracteolatum*

Liparis

Epidendrum chloranthum—fl. green
 " *chloroleucum*—gr. white
 " *dichotomum*—green
 " *inosum*—yel. green
 " *longicolle*—yellow
 " *ciliare*
 " *sascatum*
 " *viviparum*—white
 " *pachyanthum*
 " *pictum*—yel. crimson
 " *schomburgkii*—scar pink
 " *coriaceum*—green purple
 " *smaragdinum*—green
 " *scutella*—gr. yellow
 " *sessili florum*—br. white
 " *stenopetalum*
 " *tridens*
 " *elongatum*—red
 " *fragrans*
 " *nocturnum*
 " *ellipticum*
 " *dicusatum*—pink
 " *durum*—yellow
 " *flexuosum*—wh. green

Epidendrum graniticum—gr. white
 " *imatophyllum*—rose
 " *lentiginosum*—yel. green
 " *longibulbum*
 " *microphyllum*—purple
 " *monophyllum*—white
 " *musciferum*
 " *pumilum*
 " *saxatile*—red purple
 " *papilionaceum*
 " *secundum*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *patens*
 " *umbelliferum*
 " *tetrapetalum*
 " *maculatum*
 " *skinneri*
 " *regidum*
 " *bicornutum*
 " *clavatum*

Diothonea imbricata

Isochilus fusiforme

Physinga prostrata

Brassavola angustata—yellow green

" *cucullata*

" *nodosa*

" *barkleya*

" *martiana*—white

Cattleya superba

" *odoratissima*

" *mossiae*

" *pumila*

Schomburgkia marginata

" *crispa*

Aspasia variegata

Ornithidium coccineum

" *album*

Trizeuxis falcata

Ornithocephalus gladius

" *ciliatus*

" *trichorizus*

Trigonidium obtusum

" *acuminatum*

" *tonne*

" *egertonianum*

Aganisia pulchella

Maxillaria acutifolia—fl. brown

" *chlorantha*—yel. green

" *glauca*—yellow

" *foveata*—straw

" *gracilis*—red

" *graminea*—yel. red

" *pallens*—pale

" *parkeri*—white

" *pamila*—purple

" *sinuosa*

" *steelii*—yel. spotted

" *uncata*

" *cristata*

" *batemanni*

" *henchemanni*

<i>Maxillaria guianensis</i> .	<i>Peristeria cerina</i>
" <i>porrecta</i>	<i>Cymbidium trinerve</i>
" <i>densa</i>	" <i>guttatum</i>
<i>Trichocentrum iridifolium</i>	" <i>hirsutum</i>
" <i>recurvum</i>	<i>Galeandra baueri</i>
<i>Bifrenaria aurantica</i>	" <i>devoniana</i>
" <i>longicornis</i> .	" <i>juncea</i>
<i>Batemannia colleyi</i>	<i>Xylopetalum rostratum</i>
<i>Scaphyglottis pallidiflora</i>	" <i>cochleare</i>
" <i>violacea</i>	" <i>mackail</i>
" <i>reflexa</i>	<i>Cyrtopodium andersonii</i>
" <i>stellata</i>	" <i>parviflorum</i>
<i>Dicrypta bicolor</i>	" <i>cristatum</i>
" <i>iridifolia</i>	" <i>punctatum</i>
<i>Cychnoches chlorochilon</i>	<i>Notylia micrantha</i>
" <i>loddigesii</i>	<i>Ionopsis teres</i>
" <i>purpureus</i>	<i>Rodriguesia secunda</i>
<i>Myanthus barbatus</i>	" <i>rosea</i>
" <i>deltoidens</i>	<i>Burlingtonia candida</i>
<i>Catasetum trifidum</i>	" <i>venusta</i>
" <i>tridentatum</i>	<i>Macradenia triandra</i>
" <i>longifolium</i>	<i>Notylia tenuis</i>
" <i>saccatum</i>	" <i>parkeri</i>
" <i>poriferum</i>	" <i>incurva</i>
" <i>barbatum</i>	<i>Masdevallia guianensis</i>
" <i>cornutum</i>	<i>Oncidium lunatum</i> —fl. orange
" <i>deltoidesum</i>	" <i>papilio</i> —yel. purple
" <i>bushmanni</i>	" <i>lanceanum</i> —gr. purple
" <i>viridiflorum</i>	" <i>altissimum</i> —yellow
" <i>atropurpureum</i>	" <i>bicornutum</i>
" <i>aureum</i>	" <i>carthaginense</i>
" <i>luridum</i>	" <i>guttatum</i>
<i>Monocanthus discolor</i>	" <i>pulchellum</i>
" <i>viridis</i>	" <i>baueri</i>
<i>Stanhopea grandiflora</i>	" <i>luridum</i>
" <i>insignis</i>	" <i>iridifolium</i>
" <i>eburnea</i>	" <i>emarginatum</i>
" <i>oculata</i>	" <i>nanum</i>
<i>Houlletia vittata</i>	" <i>sanguineum</i>
<i>Gongora atropurpurea</i>	" <i>variegatum</i>
" <i>fulva</i>	" <i>pirarense</i>
" <i>maculata</i>	<i>Fernandesia elegans</i>
" <i>variegata</i>	" <i>acuta</i>
" <i>nigrita</i>	<i>Dichæa graminoides</i>
" <i>histrio</i>	" <i>echinocarpa</i>
" <i>punctata</i>	<i>Odontoglossum epidendroides</i> — gr.
" <i>major</i>	" <i>brown</i>
" <i>alba</i>	<i>Brassia macrostachya</i> —yel. spotted
" <i>aurantia</i>	" <i>lanceana</i>
" <i>citrina</i>	" <i>punctata</i>
" <i>fulgens</i>	" <i>laurenciana</i>
" <i>fusca</i>	" <i>cochleata</i>
" <i>gracilis</i>	" <i>viridiflora</i>
" <i>grisea</i>	" <i>caudata</i>
" <i>lutea</i>	" <i>odontoglossoides</i>
" <i>squalus</i>	" <i>verrucosa</i>
" <i>sanguinea</i>	<i>Angraecum fasciola</i>
<i>Coryanthes macrantha</i>	<i>Bonatea pauciflora</i>
" <i>maculata</i>	" <i>macilenta</i>
" <i>speciosa</i>	<i>Cleistes rosea</i>
<i>Peristeria pendula</i>	" <i>lutea</i>

Cleistes parviflora
Habenaria demerarensis
 " *longicauda*
 " *seticauda*
 " *heptadactyls*
 " *schomburgkii*
Sobralia sessilis
 " *Elisabethæ vel liliæstrum*
Epistephium parviflorum
Vanilla planifolia
 " *bicolor*
 " *palmarum*
Neottia lanceolata
Spiranthes bicolor
 " *tenuis*
 " *picta*
 " *elata*
Stemerynchus orchiioides
Goodyera guianensis
Cypripedium palmifolium
 " *lindleyanum*
 " *klotzschianum*
Huntleya violacea
 " *sessiliflora*
 ALLIANCE XIV. XYRIDALES.—
 ORDER 55. XYRIDACEÆ.
Xyris guianensis
 " *eriphora*
 " *communis*
 " *involucrata*
 " *tenella*
 " *savennensis*
 " *eriphylla*
 " *macrocephala*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *caulescens*
 " *fontanesiana*
Rapatea paludosa
 " *sphærocephala*
 " *Fred. Augusti*
Spathanthus unilateralis
Abolboda aubletii
 " *pulchella*
 ORDER 56. COMMELYNACEÆ.
Commelyna cajenensis
 " *guianensis*
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *communis*—pond grass
 " *canonia*
 " *erecta*—upright comme-
 lyna
 " *glabra*
 " *platyphylla*
Tradescantia discolor—spiderwort
 " *elongata*
 " *geniculata*
 " *guianensis*
 " *floribunda*
Limnocharis humboldtii

Limnocharis plumierii
Campelia zanonla
Callisia repens
Dithyrocarpus schomburgkianus
Dichorysandra aubletiana
 " *schomburgkiana*
Aneilema schomburgkiana

ORDER 57. MAYACEÆ.

Mayaca aubletii

ALLIANCE XV. JUNCALES.—ORDER 59. ORONTIACEÆ.

Anthurium gracile
 " *trinerve*
 " *violaceum*
 " *scolopendrinum*
 " *lanceolatum*
 " *hookeri*
 " *cordifolium*
 " *macrophyllum*
 " *rubrinervium*
 " *pentaphyllum*
 " *aubletii*
 " *palmatum*
 " *crenatum*

Spathiphyllum sagittifolium

Dracontium dubium

" *polyphyllum*

Typha latifolia

Sparganium ramosum

ALLIANCE XVI. LILIALES.—ORDER 62. LILIACEÆ—LILIES.

Aloe vulgaris—aloes plant
Draconea ferrea—dragon's blood
Yucca acuminata—Adam's needles
 " *draconis*—Spanish needles
 " *gloriosa*—do.
Pollanthis gracilis
 " *tuberosa*—tuberose
Asparagus officinalis—asparagus
Allium sativum—garlick
 " *porrum*—leak
 " *cepa*—onion
 " *vulgare*—eschalots
Lilium lancifolium
Gloriosa superba

ORDER 63. PONTEDEACEÆ—PONTE-
 DERAS.

Pontedera eriantha
 " *azurea*
 " *limosa*
 " *rotundifolia*—water plantain
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *crassipes*
Erichomia speciosa
 " *azurea*

Heteranthera diversifolia	
" limosa	
" reniformis	
" grandiflora	
" formosa	
ORDER 64. BUTOMACEÆ.	

Hydrocleis humboldtii
" commersonii

ALLIANCE XVII. ALISMALES.—ORDER	
65. ALISMACEÆ.	
Sagittaria guianensis	
" subulata	
" sellowiana	
" lancifolia	
" angustifolia	
" acutifolia	
Alisma cordifolia—pond weed	
" acutifolia	
" lancifolia	
" angustifolia	

Class V.—*Dictyogens*.

The fifth class of plants are termed *Dictyogens*, whose foliage and habit of growth are peculiar. They appear like *Endogens*, but have a broad net-veined foliage, which usually disarticulates with the stem. There are very few genera and species included under this class, and botanists are still at variance as to the distinctive character which separate them from *Exogens* and *Endogens*, to both of which classes they bear some affinity.

The natural orders of *Dictyogens* comprise but few species, and can hardly be considered as established on recognised characters; nevertheless, the distinction they present have caused them to be retained under this class.

Dictyogens comprise the plants called Tailworts, the Yam tribes, the Sarsaparillas, and a few other orders. The two latter are sufficiently known to render description unnecessary, and the following species are found here :

ORDER 68. DIOSCOREACEÆ—YAMS.	
Dioscorea sativa—common yam	
" truncata	
" triphylla—buck yam	
" schomburgkiana	
" aculeata—guinea yam	
" megalobotrya	
" alata—red yam	
" riparia	
" bulbifera—Grenada yam	
" lutea	
" syringæfolia	
" braziliensis	
Rajana cordata	

ORDER 69. SMILACEÆ—SARSAPARILLAS.	
Smilax ovato—sarsaparilla	
" guianensis	
" longifolia	
" surinamensis	
" globifera	
" schomburgkiana	
" macrophylla	
" pirariensis	
" sarsaparilla	
" pseudochina	
" zeylanica	
" papyracea	

Class VI.—*Gymnogens.*

The sixth class of plants, called *Gymnogens*, have nearly an equal relation to flowering and flowerless plants. They are known from most other vasculares by the vessels of their wood having large apparent perforations or disks. There are but few plants belonging to this class in this country: the Conifers, Pine, and Fir trees inhabit chiefly colder climates, and are not to be expected in the latitude of the Palms and other tropical trees. The Cycads, or Sago Palms, however, occur, and are remarkable for the gyrate vernation of leaves like in the true Ferns, and for the peculiar formation of the trunks, whose growth terminates by a terminal bud, only similar to the class of *Acrogens*. The following are the orders and species met with here:

ORDER 73. CYCADEACEÆ—SAGO PALMS.

Cycas revoluta—Narrow-leaved sago
 „ *circinalis*—broad-leaved sago

ORDER 74. PINACEÆ—PINES.

Juniperus bermudiana—Bermuda cedar
 „ *barbadensis*—Barbadoes juniper

ORDER 76. GNETACEÆ.

Gnetum vel thoa urens

Class VII.—*Exogens.*

The seventh class of plants comprise those which have been termed “*Exogens*,” that is, outward growers, or such plants which, as they continue to grow, add the new wood to the outside of that formed in the previous year. All the trees of cold climates, and the principal part of those in other latitudes, are *Exogenous*.

Year after year, as *Exogens* grow, they form new wood zone upon zone, which is permanent; while fresh bark is formed zone *within* zone, perishable at the outside, but which is renewed inside as the stem increases in diameter.

But other characteristics mark the *Exogens* distinctly from the other classes:

The veins of the leaves are reticulated, or netted;
The fructification is formed upon a quinary or quaternary type;

The embryo is dicotyledonous;

The germination is exorhizal.

Exogens are divided into the following sub-classes:

1. Flowers absolutely unisexual, termed *Diclinous*
Flowers Hermaphrodite;

2. Stamens not adhering to Calyx or Corolla, Hypogynous;

3. Stamens adhering to Calyx or Corolla, Perigynous;

4. Stamens, Calyx, and Corolla all adhering to the ovary, or Epigynous.

These sub-classes are grouped in alliances, which are again subdivided into natural orders, according to the affinities which characterise them. The numerous species of Exogens which are found are referrible to these orders, alliances, and sub-classes, according to the structure and properties they display.

ALLIANCE XIX. URTICALES.—ORDER

84. URTICACEÆ.

Urtica microphylla—maiden hair

 " *latifolia*

 " *costuans*—Surinam nettles

 " *ciliaris*

 " *ciliata*

 " *grandiflora*—white nettles

 " *latifolia*

 " *divergens*

Brosimum?—cow tree

Cecropia peltata—trumpet tree

ORDER 85. CERATOPHYLLACEÆ.

Ceratophyllum demersum—small duck-weed

ORDER 87. MORACEÆ.

Morus niger—mulberry

Urostigma vel ficus carica—common fig

 " *trigonum*

 " *martinicensis*

 " *paraense*

 " *indica*

 " *leucostictum*

 " *americana*

Urostigma angustifolium

 " *elastica*

 " *laurifolium*

 " *scandens*—Madeira ivy

 " *pertusa*—Surinam

ORDER 88. ARTOCARPACEÆ.

Artocarpus incisa—bread fruit

 " *rucifera*—bread nut

 " *integrifolia*—taca tree

Olmedia maquira

Peribea guianensis

Bagassa guianensis

Piratinera guianensis—letter wood

Pourouma guianensis

Coussapoa angustifolia

 " *latifolia*

 " *fagifolia*

ALLIANCE XX. EUPHORBIALES.—

ORDER 90. EUPHORBIACEÆ.

Astræa lobata

Adelia bernardii

Croton palustre—marshy croton

 " *subluteum*

 " *sanguiflum*

Croton aromaticum
 " *tiglium*—crotom oil
 " *ricinocarpum*
 " *cuneatus*
 " *balsamiferum*—sea-side sage
 " *sericeum*
 " *suave*
 " *gossypifolium*
 " *essequiboensis*
 " *nervosus*
Euphorbia antiquorum—spreading
 " *spurge*
 " *disca*
 " *serifolia*
 " *cotiniifolia*
 " *hypericifolia*—milk weed
 " *pilulifera*—globular spurge
 " *maculata*—dove weed
 " *obliterata*—red milk weed
 " *atropurpurea*—bastard indian-rubber
 " *erythrocarpa*
 " *glabrata*—sea-side milk weed
 " *amena*
Brachystachys hirta
Podostachys guianensis
Podocalyx loranthoides
Schismatopora distichophylla
Hippomane mancinella—manchineel
Hura crepitans—sand-box tree
Sapium aucuparium—poison tree
Omphalea diandra
 " *triandra*
Plukenetia verrucosa
Tragia volubilis—vine nettle
Tragia grandifolia
Dalechampia guianensis
 " *hibiscoides*
 " *buttnerierdes*
 " *braziliensis*
 " *scandens*
 " *heterophylla*
Phyllanthus piscatorum
 " *guianensis*
 " *microphyllus*
 " *urinarea*
 " *conami*
 " *niruri*
 " *mutabilis*
 " *lathyroides*
 " *coriacum*
 " *obcordatus*
 " *essequibo*
Amanoa guianensis—hardwood
Cicca disticha—Otaheite gooseberry
Pachystachya carinatus
Jatropha gossypifolia—wild cassada
 " *manihot*—bitter cassada
 " *loeflingii vel janipha*—sweet cassada

Jatropha herbacea
 " *curcas*—physic nut
 " *elegans*
 " *multifida*—French physic nut
 " *peltata*
 " *urens*
Stillingia sebifera—tallow or gum tree
 " *aucuparum*
Xylophylla falcata
Peridium bicolor
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *ferrugineum*
Ricinus communis—castor oil
Maprounea guianensis
Conceveiba guianensis
Mabea pirini
 " *taquari*
 " *volubilis*
Siphonia elastica
 " *schomburgkii*
Bartramia grandulifera
Caperonia cubensis
 " *angustissima*
 " *palustris*
 " *linearifolia*
Disco-carpus Essequiboensis
Amanoa guianensis
Dactylostemon schomburgkii
 " *guianensis*
Gussonia cuneata
 " *grandifolia*
Adenogyne discolor
 " *guianensis*
Microstachys guianensis
Tragantus sidoides
Alchornea latifolia
 " *schomburgkii*
Asterocroton guianensis
Macrocroton surinamensis
Palamostigma crodonoides
 ALLIANCE XXIII. MENISPERMALES.—
 ORDER 101. MYRISTACEÆ—NUTMEGS.
Myristica sebifera—tallow or dali tree
 " *fatus*
 " *moschata*—nutmeg tree
 ORDER 104. MENISPERMACÆ—MOON SEEDS.
Cissampelos microcarpa
 " *capeba*
 " *pareira*—*pareira brava*
 " *root*
 " *glabra*
 " *crenata*
 " *fasciculata*
Menispermum amara
 " *abuta*
Abuta rufescens
Trichoa guianensis

ALLIANCE XXIV. CUCURBITALES.—
ORDER 105. CUCURBITACEÆ.

- Cucumis sativus*—common cucumber
 " melo—melon
 " *citrullus*—water melons
 " *anguria*—wild cucumber
Sicyos laciniatus
Cucurbita pepo—pumpkin
 " melopepo—squashes
 " *ovifera*—vegetable marrow
Anguria guianensis
 " *polyanthos*
 " *triphylla*
 " *multiflora*
Momordica charantia—hairy cerasee
 " *operculata*—rough fruited
 " *momordica*
Melothria pendula—small wild cucum-
 ber
Bryonia racemosa—hop bryony
Lagenaria vulgaris—gourd vine
Trichosanthis anguina—snake gourd
 " *amara*
Hypanthera guapeva
Secchium edule—choco vine, or veg.
 marrow
Fevillea trilobata
 " *hederacea*

ORDER 107. BEGONIACEÆ.

- Begonia sanguinea*
 " *scandens*

ALLIANCE XXV. PAPAYALES.—ORDER
108. PAPAYACEÆ—PAPAYAS.

- Carica papaya*—papaw tree
 " *pyriformis*
 " *spinosa*

ALLIANCE XXVI. VIOLALES.—

ORDER 110. FLACOURTIACEÆ—AR-
NOTTO PLANTS.

- Banara guianensis*
Bixa orellana—arnotto, or roucou
Carpotroche paludora
 " *odorata*
Flacourtia ramontchi

ORDER 111. LACISTEMACEÆ.

- Lacistema myricoides*
 " *macrophylla*
 " *floribunda*

ORDER 112. SAMYDACEÆ.

- Casearia celtidifolia*
 " *carpinifolia*
 " *macrophylla*
 " *subciliaris*
 " *ramiflora*
 " *squarrosa*

- Casearia parviflora*—wild honey tree
 " *benthamiana*
 " *celastroides*
 " *javitensis*
 " *densiflora*
 " *lancifolia*
 " *loevigata*
 " *spinosa*
 " *brevipes*
 " *avellana*
 " *stipularis*
 " *petrea*

ORDER 113. PASSIFLORACEÆ—PASSION
FLOWERS.

- Cieca hederacea*
 " *guianensis*
 " *discolor*
 " *appendiculata*
Passiflora glauca
 " *stipulata*
 " *foetida*—love in a mist
 " *emarginata*
 " *maliformis*—conch apple
 " *guianensis*
 " *suberosa*—ink vine
 " *palmata*
 " *coccinea*
 " *serratafolia*—simitou
 " *alata*
 " *quadrangularis*—granadilla
 " *laurifolia*—water lemon
 " *linifolia*
 " *glandulosa*
 " *murucuja*
Distephana glandulosa
 " *stoupyana*
 " *rohriana*
 " *citrifolia*
 " *fockiana*
Tæsonia spinescens
 " *sanguinea*
Patrisia tomentosa
 " *bicolor*
Decaloba rubra
 " *capsularis*
 " *truncata*
 " *vespertilio*
 " *rohrii*
 " *perfoliata*
 " *cyathophora*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *rotundifolia*
 " *hemicycla*
 " *cirrhiflora*

ORDER 115. MORINGACEÆ.

- Moringa pterygosperma*—horse-radish
tree

ORDER 116. VIOLACEÆ.

- Noisettia orchidiflora*

- Calyptrium aubletii
- Ionidium hybanthus
- " oppositifolium
- " viscidulum
- Corynostylis hybanthus
- " benthamii
- Alsodeia rinorea
- " racemosa
- " tuliflora
- " brevipes
- " saxiflora
- " castanæfolia
- " prunifolia
- " flavescens

ORDER 119. SAUVAGESIACEÆ.

- Sauvagesia erecta
- " elata
- " aduna
- " senella
- " sprengelii

ORDER 120. CRASSULACEÆ—HOUSE
LEEKS.

- Bryophyllum calycinum—germinating
leaf plant

ORDER 121. TURNERACEÆ.

- Turnera ulmifolia
- " aurantiaca
- " rupestris
- " guianensis.
- " cistoides
- " surinamensis
- " subylabra
- " opivera
- " corulea
- " benthamiana
- " parviflora
- " corchorifolia
- " corchoroides
- " chamædryis;
- " refracta
- " surinamensis
- Piriqueta villosa
- " lanceolata
- " stenophylla

ALLIANCE XXVII. CISTALES.—ORDER
123. BRASSICACEÆ.

Brassica oleracea—cabbage. Several species of cabbage are cultivated here, but they do not attain anything like the size of those in colder climates

- Brassica rapa—turnip
- Sinapis nigra—black mustard
- " alba—white ditto
- Raphanus sativus—radish. Several species of radish are cultivated; they

grow to a very large size, but are inferior in flavour to those in Europe

- Raphanus radicola
- " oblongus
- Sepidium virginicum—wild-pepper grass.
- Nasturtium officinale—water cress
- Cochlearia armoracia—horse radish
- Iberis umbellata—candy tuft

ORDER 124. RESEDACEÆ—MIGNONNETTES.

- Reseda odorata—mignonette

ORDER 125. CAPPARIDACEÆ—CAPER
PLANTS.

- Cleome serrata
- " latifolia
- " fruticens
- " pungens
- " pentaphylla—sambo
- " surinamensis
- " acubata; also C. stenophylla
- Cratæva gynandra—garlic pear tree
- " acuminata
- Capparis torulosa—black willow
- " brenyia—white willow
- " radiatiflora
- Gynandropsis palmipes
- Physostemon intermedium
- Singana guianensis

ALLIANCE XXVIII. MALVALES.—

ORDER 126. STERCULIACEÆ.

- Adansonia digitata—monkey bread tree
- Pentapetes phœnicea
- Waltheria americana—dialthæa
- " integrifolia
- Bombax ceiba—silk cotton tree
- " globosum
- " pentandrum
- Carolinea princeps—wild chocolate tree
- " minor
- Sterculia crinita
- " ivira
- Myrodia turbinata—five-sprig tree
- " macrophylla
- " longiflora
- " multiflora
- Ochroma lagopus—down tree
- Melochia tomentosa

ORDER 127. BYTTNERIACEÆ.

- Theobroma cacao—cocoa tree
- " bicolor
- " guazuma
- Guazuma ulmifolia—bastard cedar
- Pentaceros aculeatus
- Ayenia tomentosa

Waltheria americana—buff coat

- " *indica*
- " *viscosissima*
- " *paniculata*
- " *involutrata*
- " *caesia*

Buttneria scabra

- " *ramosissima*
- " *obliqua*
- " *divaricata*
- " *unigiandulosa*

Melochia tomentosa

- " *arenosa*
- " *lanceolata*
- " *fasciculata*
- " *graminifolia*
- " *oblonga*
- " *ulmifolia*
- " *vestita*
- " *apoda*
- " *gracilis*
- " *sparsiflora*

ORDER 129. TROPEOLACEÆ—LEMAN
CRESSERS.

Tropeolum majus

- " *missus*

ORDER 130. MALVACEÆ—MALLOWS.

Malvaviscus guianensis

Hibiscus elatus—tall hibiscus or mahoe

- " *verbasciformis*
- " *hispidus*
- " *bicornis*
- " *mutabilis*—changeable rose
- " *furcellatus*
- " *sabdariffa*—sorrel
- " *lambertianus*
- " *rosa sinensis*—Chinese hibiscus

" *trilobus*

" *cannabinus*—hemp-leaved hibiscus

" *ingratus*

" *esculentus*—ochro

" *tiliaceus*

" *abelmoschus*—wild ochro

" *phoeniceus*—dwarf hibiscus

" *vitifolius*—vine-leaved hibiscus

" *abutilloides*—rope mangrove

Paritium tiliaceum

Gaya subtriloba

Fugosia campestris

" *guianensis*

Althea rosea—hollyhock

Sida trinervia

- " *foliosa*
- " *sinifolia*
- " *glomerata*
- " *urens*—stinging sida

Sida multiflora

" *humilis*—broom weed

" *rhombofolia*

" *populifolia*

" *vellerea*

" *ritifera*

Malachra capitata—bastard ochro

" *radiata*

" *alcaefolia* and *squarrosa*

Gossypium peruvianum—Peruvian cotton

" *arboresum*—tree cotton

" *herbaceum*—common cotton

" *hirsutum*—hairy cotton

" *barbadense*—Barbadoes cotton

" *vitifolium*—small cotton tree

Thespesia populnea—mahoe dye, or poplar tree

Abutilon spicatum

" *lacianum*

" *lasiocarpum*

Urena americana

" *reticulata*

" *ribesia*

Pavonia typhaleoides

" *spinifex*

" *typhalea*

" *septicarpa*

" *surinamensis*

" *racemosa*

" *speciosa*

" *angerstifolia*

" *bracteosa*

" *viscida*

ORDER 131.—TYLACEÆ—LINDEN
BLOOMERS.

Dasynema laurifolium

" *obtusum*

Corchorus siliquosus—broom weed

" *acutangulus*

" *hirtus*—rata ochro

Albania guianensis

Triumfetta lappula

" *longipes*

" *hostmanniana*

" *eriocarpa*

" *althaeoides*

" *surinamensis*

Sloanea sinemarensis

" *dentata*

" *massoni*

" *nitida*

Apeiba hirsuta

" *echinata*

" *glabra*

" *aspera*

" *levis*

Apeiba tibourbou
 „ *petoumo*
Mollia guianensis
 „ *pubescens*
 „ *speciosa*
Vantanea guianensis
 „ *emarginata*

ALLIANCE XXIX. SAPINDALES.—
 ORDER 133. POLYGALACEÆ — MILK-
 WORTS.

Polygala timoutou
 „ *adenophora*
 „ *violacea*
 „ *cinerea*
 „ *modesta*
 „ *diversifolia*
 „ *hygrophila*
 „ *stellera*
 „ *longicaulis*
 „ *variabilis*
 „ *galioides*
 „ *paludosa*
 „ *melis*
 „ *angustifolia*
 „ *camporum*
Securidaca velabilis
 „ *marginata*
 „ *virgata*
 „ *incrassata*
 „ *latifolia*
 „ *sulcata*
 „ *erecta*
 „ *paniculata*
 „ *pubiflora*
Badiera diversifolia—bastard lignum
 vite
Bredemeyera lucida
 „ *bracteata*
 „ *capitata*
 „ *cuneata*
Krameria ixina
 „ *spartioides*
Trigonia macrocarpa
 „ *subcymosa*
 „ *hypoleuca*
 „ *macrostachya*
 „ *laevis*
 „ *villosa*

ORDER 134. VOCHYACEÆ.

Erisma violaceum
 „ *floribundum*
 „ *nitidum*
Vochysia guianensis—itaballi tree
 „ *tetraphylla*
 „ *lucida*
 „ *curvata*
 „ *glabrescens*
 „ *tomentosa*

Vochysia schomburgkiana
 „ *emarginata*
 „ *fontanesii*
Qualea rosea
 „ *cœrulea*
 „ *mulleriana*
Lightia guianensis

ORDER 136. SAPINDACEÆ—SOAP-
 WORTS.

Sapindus saponaria—soap berry tree
 „ *surinamensis*
 „ *arborescens*
 „ *frutescens*
Cupania reticulata
 „ *velutina*
 „ *schomburgkii*
 „ *quercifolia*
 „ *affinis*
 „ *retusa*
 „ *subsINUATA*
 „ *dentata*
Thouinia polygama
Cardiospermum carindum—black
 nicker
 „ *acuminatum*
 „ *halicacabum*—wild
 parsley
Serjania paucidentata
 „ *sinuata*
 „ *baramensis*
 „ *bignonioides*
 „ *micrantha*
Matayba guianensis
 „ *patrisiana*
 „ *rouarana*
Ophiocaryon paradoxium—snake nut
Paullinia cururu—bastard supple jack
 „ *diversiflora*
 „ *barbadensis*—Barbadoes sup-
 ple jack
 „ *protracta*
 „ *micropterygia*
 „ *bipinnata*
 „ *podocarpa*
Melicocœa bijuga—honey berry
Dodonœa viscosa—hop shrub
Talisia glabra
 „ *rosea*
 „ *urvillea pubescens*
 „ *schomburgkii*
Schmidelia guianensis
 „ *mollis*
 „ *conduplicata*
Lasianthemum unijugum
 „ *bijugum*
Lamprospermum schomburgkii
 „ *guianense*
Koernickea guianensis
Monopteris guianensis

ORDER 137. PETTIVERIACEÆ.

Pettiveria alliacea—guinea hen weed

ORDER 139. MALPIGHIACEÆ.

Heteropterys daphnoides

" lessertiana

" candolleana

" cristata

" biglandulosa

" eglandulosa

" macrostachya

" platyptera

Malpighia glabra—red cherry

" verbascifolia

" altissima—hardwood

" singularis

" puniceifolia—Barbadoes

" cherry

" tuberculata

" urens—stinging cherry

" coccifera

Blephandra cordata

Byrsonima altissima

" hostmanni

" crassifolia

" coranthera

" coccolobaefolia

" ferruginea

" pallida

" rugosa

" reticulata

" eripoda

" gymnocalycina

" propinqua

" spicata

" ceranthera

" cœlostachya

" staminea

" concinna

Banisteria fulgens—fireburn bush

" lobulata

" longifolia

" divaricata

" cristata

" corymbosa

" orbiculata

" martiniana

" calocarpa

Triopteris jamaicensis

" sericea

Hiroea reclinata

" gracilis

" anisopetala

" simsiana

" blanchetiana

" fagifolia

" riedleyana

" fulgens

Brachypteris borealis

Coleostachys vestita

Pterandra latifolia

Spachea elegans

Sophopterys splendens

Stigmaphyllon hypoleucum

" sinuatum

" convolvulifolium

" periplocaefolium

" puberum

" latifolium

" purpureum

" fulgens

" diversifolium

Tetrapterys inoqualis

" crispa

" ovalifolia

" discolor

" puberula

" acutifolia

" fimbripetala

" glaberrima

" leucanthele

" surinamensis

Camara affinis

Bunchosia mollis

ORDER 140. ERYTHROXYLACEÆ.

Erythroxylon coca

" campestre

" passerinum

" citrifolium

" lineolatum

" mucronatum

" rufum

" amplum

" orinocense

" squamatum

" squarrosum

" lignostrinum

" roraimæ

" ectinocalyx

" surinamense

ALLIANCE XXX. GUTTIFERALES.—

ORDER 142. TERNSTROMIACEÆ.

Catostemma fragrans

Ternstroemia dentata

" punctata

" rubicunda

" verticillata

" schomburgkiana

" crassifolia

" roraimæ

" longipes

" suborbicularis

" revoluta

Bonnetia cochlospermum

" sessilis

Lettsomia gulanensis

Laplacea premorsa

" semiserrata

Archytæa multiflora

Caraipa leirantha

- Caraipa longifolia*
 " *latifolia*
 " *laxiflora*
 " *angustifolia*
 " *richardiana*
 " *parvifolia*
Kielmeyera angustifolia
 " *guianensis*
Ochtocosmus roraima
Mahurea exstipulata
Cochlospermum orinocence
 " *serratifolium*
Godoya gemmiflora
- ORDER 143. RHIZOBOLACEÆ.
- Caryocar glabrum*
 " *villosum*
 " *nuciferum*
 " *tomentosum*
Pekoa butyrosa—butter tree
 " *tuberculosa*—saonari nut
 " *vel caryocar butyrosa*
Anthodiscus trifoliatus
- ORDER 144. CLUSIACEÆ.
- Renggeria guianensis*
 " *montana*
Clusia alba
 " *flava*
 " *rosea*
 " *insignis*
 " *venosa*
 " *macrocarpa*
 " *tetranda*
 " *nemorosa*
 " *fockeana*
 " *cuneata*
 " *quapoya*
Moronobea coccinea
 " *globuliflora*
Quapoya pana
 " *robusta*
 " *microphylla*
 " *ligulata*
 " *colorans*
 " *myriandra*
Mammea americana—mammee apple
Havetia florida
Garcinia mangostana—mangostur tree
 " *parviflora*
 " *macrophylla*
Calophyllum calaba—bastard mammee
 " *lucidum*
Singana guianensis—balsam tree
Marialia guianensis
Tavomitia hamelæifolia
 " *macrophylla*
 " *guianensis*
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *umbellata*

ORDER 145. MARCGRAVIACEÆ.

- Marcgravia umbellata*
 " *spiciflora*
 " *coriacea*
 " *acuminata*
Ruyshia clusiæifolia
 " *souroubea*
 " *lepidota*
Norantea guianensis

ORDER 146. HYPERICACEÆ.

- Hypericum bacciferum*
 " *sessilifolium*
 " *calycinum*
Vismia guianensis—yellow dye
 " *cayennensis*
 " *glabra*
 " *sessilifolia*
 " *acuminata*
 " *latifolia*
 " *angusta*
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *siberiana*

ALLIANCE XXXI. NYMPHÆLES—
 NYMPHÆLS.

ORDER 148. NYMPHÆACEÆ—WATER
 LILIES.

- Victoria regia*—Victoria lily
Nymphaea ampla—white lily
 " *blanda*—large duckweed
 " *micrantha*

ORDER 149. CABOMBACEÆ—WATER
 SHIELDS.

- Cabomba aquatica*

ORDER 150. NELUMBIACEÆ—WATER
 BEANS.

- Nelumbium jamaicense*—broad Dutch
 weed
Heliamphora nutans

ALLIANCE XXXII. RANALES.

ORDER 152. ANONACEÆ—CUSTARD
 APPLES.

- Anona xylopioides*
 " *squamosa*—sugar apple
 " *reticulata*—custard apple
 " *muricata*—sour sop
 " *palustris*—monkey apple
 " *ambota*
 " *cherimolia*
 " *longifolia*
 " *obtusifolia*
 " *punctata*
 " *hostmanni*
 " *chrysopetala*
Xylopia frutescens

Xylopia glabra
 " *muricata*
 " *salicifolia*
 " *sericea*
Guattiera aberemoa—hardwood
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *podocarpa*
 " *vestita*
 " *brevipes*
 " *foliosa*
 " *ouregon*
 " *elongata*
 " *mundata*
 " *heteropetala*
Duguetia quitarensis—yari-yari
 lancewood
Uvaria guatterioides
Rollinia exsiccata
 " *orthopetala*
 " *tinifolia*
 " *tenuifolia*
 " *multiflora*

ORDER 153. DILLENIACEÆ.

Dillenia larmentosa
Doliodarpus rolandri
 " *calinia*
 " *strictus*
Tetracera tigarea—liane rouge
 " *cuspidata*
 " *dentata*
 " *volubilis*
 " *rotundifolia*
 " *surinamensis*
Davilla rugosa—a vulnerary
 " *asperrima*
 " *elliptica*
 " *flexuosa*
Curatella americana
 " *alata*

ORDER 154. RANUNCULACEÆ.

Clematis dioica
Helleborus niger—Christmas rose
Delphinium consolida—larkspur
Aconitum napellus—wolfbane

ORDER 155. SARRACENICEÆ.

Heliophora nutans

ORDER 156. PAPAVERACEÆ.

Argemone mexicana—yellow thistle

ALLIANCE XXXIII. BERBERALES.—

ORDER 160. VITACEÆ—VINES.

Vites vinifera—common grape

Cissus sicyoides—poison wyth
 " *acida*
 " *puncticulosa*—cayenne
 " *trifoliata*
 " *ovata*
 " *lucida*
 " *erosa*
 " *quadrialata*
 " *hydrophora*

ORDER 162. OLACACEÆ.

Ximenia inermis
 " *americana*
Heisteria cauliflora
Pogopetalum orbiculatum
 " *acuminatum*
Olax schomburgkii

ALLIANCE XXXIV. ERICALES.—

ORDER 164. HUMIRIACEÆ.

Myrodendron amplexicaule—hardwood
Humirium floribundum—amiri balsam
 " *obovatum*
 " *guianense*
 " *densiflorum*
 " *balsamiferum*
 " *ellipticum*
 " *surinamense*
Vantanea guianensis
 " *emarginata*

ORDER 169. ERICACEÆ.

Clethra tinifolia—bastard locust tree
 " *guianensis*
Gaultheria cordifolia
Thibaudia nutans
 " *guianensis*
 " *formosa*
Vaccinium puberulum
 " *subcrenulatum*
Hughsia guianensis
Befaria schomburgkiana
 " *guianensis*
 " *grandiflora*
Beckerathia guianensis

ALLIANCE XXXV. RUTALES.—

ORDER 170. AURANTIACEÆ.

Citrus aurantium—orange tree
 " *limonum*—lemon tree
 " *limetta*—bergamotte tree
 " *lima*—lime tree
 " *medica*—citron tree
 " *vulgaris*—golden orange

- Citrus desumanus*—shaddock tree
 " *hystrix*—grape fruit tree
 " *buxifolia*—forbidden fruit tree
 " *bigaradia*—seville, or bitter orange
 " *spinossima*—cayenne orange
Triphasia limonia—myrtle lime
 " *trifoliata*—sweet lime

ORDER 171. AMYRIDACEÆ—BALM TREES.

- Amyris heterophylla* vel *icica*
 " *heptaphylla*—hyawa tree
 " *guianensis*
 " *decandra*
 " *ambrosiaca*
 " *altissima*—cedar wood
 " *toxifera*
 " *balsamifera*—gum elemi
 " *acuminata*
 " *schomburgkii*
Icica vel *amyris enneandra*
 " *tamacahaca*
Bursera gummifera—turpentine tree
Tratinnickia schomburgkii
 " *guianensis*
Picramnia macrostachya

ORDER 172. CEDRELACEÆ—BASTARD CEDARS.

- Swietenia mahogani*—mahogany tree
Cedrela odorata—bastard cedar

ORDER 173. MELLACEÆ—BREAD TREES.

- Melia azedarach*—Barbadoes lilac
 " *sempervivens*
Carapa guianensis—crab oil tree
Moschoxylum cuspidatum
 " *hostmanni*
Guarea trichilioides
 " *grandiflora*
 " *scabra*
 " *affinis*
 " *kunthiana*
 " *subleitia*
 " *guianensis*
 " *pubescens*
 " *costata*
 " *megantha*
Trichilia hirta
 " *geminata*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *brachystachya*

- Trichilia richardiana*
 " *guianensis*
 " *acuminata*

ORDER 174. ANACARDIACEÆ.

- Anacardium occidentale*—cashew tree
 " *rhinocarpus*
 " *giganteum*—ouboudi
 " *guianensis*—wild cashew
Mangifera indica—E. mango
Comocladia integrifolia—maiden plum
 " *dentata*
Spondias dulcis—golden apple
 " *lutea*—hog plum
 " *obovata*
 " *purpurea*—Spanish plum
 " *surinamensis*
 " *mangifera*—Chili plum
 " *longifolia*
 " *guianensis*
 " *macrophylla*
 " *leta*

ORDER 175. CONNARACEÆ.

- Connarus pubescens*
 " *schomburgkii*
Omphalobium opacum
 " *lucidum*
 " *perrotteti*
 " *patriisii*
 " *micranthum*
 " *lampertii*
 " *fasciculatum*
 " *thonningii*

ORDER 176. RUTACEÆ—RUE PLANTS.

- Ruta graveolens*—common rue
Galipea trifoliata
 " *aromatica*
Monnieria trifolia
Ticorea fedita
 " *pedicellata*
 " *longiflora*

ORDER 177. XANTHOXYLACEÆ.

- Xanthoxylon hermaphroditum*—hardwood
 " *guianense*
 " *clava*—prickly yellow wood
 " *perrottetii*
 " *pterota*—bastard iron wood
 " *tragodes*—fingrigo, or savine tree

ORDER 178. OCHNACEÆ.

- Gomphia guianensis*
 " *dura*
 " *arguta*
 " *jabortapita*
 " *rupununiensis*
 " *ovata*
 " *laurifolia*
Elvasia calophylla
Hostmannia elvasioides
Kunzmannia roraimæ
Scherosia apiculata
Gageria essequiboensis

ORDER 179. SIMARUBACEÆ.

- Simaruba versicolor*
 " *amara*
Quassia amara
 " *excelsa*
Simaba guianensis—*obovata*
 " *aruba*

ORDER 180. XYGOPHYLLACEÆ.

- Guaiacum officinale*—*lignum vitæ*
Tribulus cistoides
 " *maximus*

ORDER 182. PODOSTEMACEÆ.

- Mniopsis guianensis*
Mourera partita
 " *fluviatilis*
Lacis alata
Podostemon dichotomum
Ariadnea pectinata

ALLIANCE XXXVI. GERANIALES.—

ORDER 185. OXALIDACEÆ.

- Averrhoa bilimbi*—*bimbling*
Oxalis punctata
 " *corniculata*
 " *barbelieri*
 " *floribunda*
 " *hedysaroides*
 " *plumierii*

ORDER 186. BALSAMINACEÆ.

- Impatiens balsamina*—*garden balsam*

ORDER 187. GERANIACEÆ.

- Geranium sanguineum*
 " *maculatum*
 " *robertianum*
Pelargonium

ALLIANCE XXXVII. SILENALES.—

ORDER 188. CARYOPHYLLACEÆ.

- Dianthus caryophyllus*—*clove pink*

- Dianthus barbatus*—*sweet William*
 " *pink*
 " *virginicus*
 " *chinensis*—*Chinese pink*

ORDER 189. ILLECEBRACEÆ—KNOT WORTS.

- Illecebrum glomeratum*
 " *diffusum*
Drymaria cordata
 " *gracilis*

ORDER 190. PORTULACEÆ—PURSLANES.

- Portulaca oleracea*—*purslane*
 " *halimoides*
 " *parviflora*—*wild purslane*
 " *pilosus*—*ditto*
Talinum patens
 " *triangulare*
 " *reflexum*
 " *crassifolium*
Sesuvium acutifolium
Mollugo verticillata
 " *schrankii*

ORDER 191. POLYGONACEÆ.

- Coccoloba uvifera*—*sea-side grape*
 " *ovata*
 " *nivea*—*chigery grape*
 " *pubescens*—*leather coat tree*
 " *stricta*
 " *barbadensis*—*Barbadoes sea-side grape*
 " *excoriata*
 " *excelsa*
 " *marginata*
Rumex acetosa—*sorrel dock*
Triplaris schomburgkiana
 " *americana*—*long John*
 " *surinamensis*
Polygonum macrochaetum
 " *acuminatum*
Symmeria paniculata
Ruprechtia senuiflora
 " *brachystachya*

ALLIANCE XXXVIII. CHERNOPODALES.—ORDER 192. NYCTAGINACEÆ.

- Pisonia aculeata*
 " *obovata*
 " *nigricans*—*beet wood tree*
 " *ferruginosa*
 " *guianensis*
Bœrhavia diandra

- Berhavia surinamensis*
- " *diffusa*
- " *decumbens*
- Mirabilis jalapa*—four o'clock flower
- " *alba et flava*
- " *dichotoma*—marvel of Peru

ORDER 193. PHYTOLACCACEÆ.

- Phytolacca dioica*
- " *octandra*
- " *decandra*—Virginian spinach
- Rivina humilis*

ORDER 194. AMARANTACEÆ.

- Amaranthus tricolor*
 - " *bicolor*
 - " *polygonoides*—red caterpillar, or spotted leaves
 - " *viridis*—white caterpillar, or green amaranth
 - " *spinousus*—prickly caterpillar, or amaranth
 - " *sanguinens*—spreading amaranth
 - " *caracasanus*
 - " *hypocendriacus*
 - Buchholzia brevipes*
 - Gomphrena globosa*—bachelor's button
 - " *polygonoides*
 - " *brasiliensis*
 - Hebanthe guianensis*
 - Celosia cristata*
 - " *tomentosa*—cockscomb
 - " *lappacea*
 - " *coccinea*
 - Alternanthera ficoides*
 - Microtea debilis*
 - Sertunera guianensis*
 - " *schomburgkii*
 - Achyranthes aspera*
 - Pupalia densiflora*
 - Chamissoa macrocarpa*
- ALLIANCE XXXIX. PIPEALES.—
- ORDER 196. PIPERACEÆ.
- Acrocarpidium nummulariæfolium*
 - " *repens*

- Piperomia acuminata*
- " *pellucida*
- " *velloziana*
- " *melanostigma*
- " *macrostachya*
- " *trifolia*
- " *quadrifolia*
- " *angusata*
- " *myosuroides*
- " *distachya*
- " *obtusifolia*
- " *parkeriana*
- " *obliqua*—rock balsam
- " *polystachya*—ditto
- Heckeria peltata*—monkey's hand
- " *umbellata*—Santa Maria's leaf
- Nematanthera guianensis*
- Arthante caudata*
- " *catalpæfolia*
- " *insignis*
- " *augusta*
- " *lessertiana*
- " *asperifolia*
- " *olfersiana*
- " *adunca*
- " *meyerii*
- " *ulmifolia*
- " *coryeifolia*
- " *glabrescens*
- " *avellana*
- " *geniculata*
- " *nitida*
- " *tuberculata*
- " *xanthocarpa*
- " *berbicensis*
- " *demerarana*
- " *hostmanniana*
- " *anonæfolia*
- " *parkeriana*
- " *encolyptifolia*
- " *æqualis*
- " *warakabaccoura*
- " *adenophora*
- " *leprieurii*
- " *microstachya*
- " *angustifolia*
- " *guianensis*
- " *pedunculans*
- " *hymenophylla*
- " *salicifolia*
- " *flexicaulis*

Sub-class III.—*Perigynous Exogens.*

- ALLIANCE XL. FICOIDALES.—**
ORDER 199. BASELLACEÆ.
Basella cordifolia—calaloe
 " *tuberosa*
- ORDER 200. MESEMBRYACEÆ—ICE PLANTS.**
Mesembryanthemum crystallinum—ice plant
 " *crassifolium*
 " *helianthoides*
 " *guianense*
- ORDER 201. TETRAGONIACEÆ.**
Tetragonia expansa
Sesuvium portulacastrum
 " *longifolium*
- ALLIANCE XLI. DAPHNALES.—**
ORDER 203. THYMELACEÆ.
Hernandia guianensis
 " *sonora*—Jack in a box
Daphne mezereon
 " *lagetta*
- ORDER 204. PROTEACEÆ.**
Rhopala dentata
 " *media*
 " *sessilifolia*
 " *complicata*
 " *montana*
 " *nitida*
 " *obtusata*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *suaveolens*
- ORDER 205. LAURACEÆ.**
Carapa guianensis vel *xylocarpus*
carapa—crab oil
Nectandra nitidula
 " *salicifolia*
 " *pallida*
 " *leucantha*
 " *rodici*
 " *sanguinea*
Laurus rodici—beebeerini, or green-heart
 " *cinnamomum*
 " *bullata*—laural oil
Oreodaphne opifera
 " *parviflora*—sweet wood tree
- Oreodaphne glomerata*
 " *leucoxylon*—loblolly tree
 " *guianensis*
 " *costulata*
 " *caudata*
 " *fasciculata*
 " *schomburgkiana*
Persea gratissima—avocado pear
 " *leucantha*
 " *carolinensis*
 " *sanguinea*
 " *caryophyllata*
Acrodictidium camara—ackawai nut-meg
 " *aciphyllum*
 " *jamaicense*
Mespilodaphne pretiosa
Aydedron firmulum
 " *riparium*
 " *oppositifolium*
 " *hostmannianum*
Goeppertia reflectens
Lasiadenia rupestris
Goodallia guianensis
Cassyta americana
Andripetalum rubescens
- ALLIANCE XLII. ROSALES.—ORDER 208. CHRYSOBALANACEÆ.**
Chrysobalanus icaco—cœva plum
 " *guianensis*
 " *pellocarpus*
Parinarium brachystachyum
 " *campestre*
 " *coriaceum*
 " *montanum*
Conopia guianensis
Moquilea comosa
 " *guianensis*
 " *multiflora*
 " *parilla*
 " *bracteosa*
Petrocarya montana
 " *campestris*
Acioa dulcis
Hedyerea incana
Hirtella americana
 " *hexandra*
 " *bullata*
 " *paniculata*
 " *scabra*

- Hirtella rubra*
- " *roraimæ*
- " *eriandra*
- " *violacea*
- " *strigulosa*
- " *glaberrima*
- " *bracteosa*
- " *cognata*
- " *hostmanniana*
- " *hirsuta*
- " *glandulosa*

- Licania pendula*
- " *aperta*
- " *floribunda*
- " *pubiflora*
- " *leptostachya*
- " *coriacea*
- " *divaricata*
- " *heteromorpha*
- " *flavicans*
- " *odorata*
- " *guianensis*
- " *mollis*
- " *crassifolia*
- " *macrophylla*
- " *rufescens*
- " *schomburgkii*

ORDER 209. FABACEÆ—LEGUMINOUS PLANTS.—SUB-ORDER 1. PAPILIONACEÆ.

- Lupinus varius*
- " *lutæus*
- Crotalaria verrucosa* — blue shake
- " *shake*
- " *incanescens*—battle bush
- " *lotifolia*—coot weed
- " *retusa* — wedge-leaved lupin
- " *sagittalis*
- " *elentheria*
- " *glabea*
- " *paramariboensis*
- " *nitens*
- " *guianensis*
- " *anagyroides*
- " *genistella*
- " *stipularis*
- " *leptophylla*
- Indigofera tinctoria*—E. I. indigo
- " *anil*—wild indigo
- " *pascuorum*
- Sabinea florida*
- Sesbania occidentalis*
- Agati grandiflora*

- Agati coccinea*
- Pisum sativum*—English peas
- Lathyrus odoratus*—sweet pea
- Arachis hypogæa*—ground nut
- Phaseolus lathyroides*—kidney bean
- " *semi erectus*—ditto
- " *longipedunculatus*
- " *viscillatus*—kidney bean
- " *vulgaris*—French bean
- " *multiflorus*—scarlet
- " *perennis*—lima
- " *conspicuous*
- " *lunatus*—sagar bean
- " *stenophyllus*
- " *mungo*—woolly pyrol
- " *adenanthus*
- " *lasiocarpus*

- Vigna glabra*
- Collæa rosea*—rouncioal peas
- Dioclea guianensis*
- " *lasiocarpa*
- Dolichos luteus*—monkey's peas
- " *sinensis*—clay, or red peas
- " *barbadensis*
- " *ensifolmis*—horse bean
- " *filiformis*
- " *æsequipedalis*—Halifax peas
- " *spurius*
- " *unguiculatus*—cuckold's increase
- " *tribracteatius*
- Lablab vulgaris*—bonny vis. (buona vista)
- " *cultratus*—buona vista
- Alysicarpus miquelianus*
- Desmodium repens*—wood sorrel
- " *supinum*—iron vine
- " *canescens*
- " *spectabile*
- " *spirale*
- " *radicans*
- " *glaucescens*
- " *incanum*
- " *rubiginosum*
- " *cinereum*
- " *elatum*
- " *racemosum*
- " *cajanæfolium*
- " *guianense*
- " *ancistrocarpum*
- " *asperum*
- " *obovatum*
- " *triflorum*
- " *viscidulum*
- " *benthamianum*
- Lourea vespertilionis*

<i>Aeschynomene americana</i>	<i>Pterocarpus draco</i>
" <i>conferta</i>	<i>Pterodon macrophylla</i>
" <i>trisperma</i>	<i>Dipteryx odorata</i> —tonquin bean
" <i>ciliata</i>	" <i>oppositifolia</i>
" <i>sensitiva</i>	" <i>coreacea</i>
" <i>paniculata</i>	<i>Drepano-carpus lunatus</i>
" <i>sulcata</i>	" <i>inundatus</i>
" <i>hystrix</i>	" <i>falcatus</i>
" <i>paucijuga</i>	" <i>ferox</i>
<i>Hedyarum argenteum</i>	<i>Andira anbletii</i>
" <i>racemosum</i>	" <i>laurifolia</i>
" <i>incanum</i>	" <i>inermis</i>
<i>Zornia reticulata</i>	" <i>racemosa</i>
" <i>latifolia</i>	<i>Centrolobium robustum</i>
" <i>gracilis</i>	<i>Geoffroya spinosa</i>
" <i>surinamensis</i>	" <i>violacea</i>
<i>Clitoria virginiana</i> —wild pea	<i>Ormosia v. robinia coccinea</i>
" <i>arborescens</i>	" <i>tomentosa</i> —hard-
" <i>centrale</i>	" <i>wood</i>
" <i>ternatea</i> —blue vine	" <i>histophyllia</i>
" <i>braziliensis</i>	<i>Vataiera guianensis</i>
" <i>angustifolia</i>	<i>Triptolema riparia</i>
" <i>poitæi</i>	<i>Deguelia scanden</i>
" <i>volubilis</i>	<i>Tephrosia cinerea</i> —fish poisons
" <i>uncinatus</i>	" <i>toxicaria</i>
<i>Mucuna pruriens</i> —cow itch vine	" <i>gynothrix</i>
" <i>urens</i> —ox eye bean	" <i>brevipes</i>
" <i>comosa</i>	" <i>penicillata</i>
" <i>spuria</i>	" <i>schomburgkii</i>
<i>Erythrina corallodendron</i> —coral bean	<i>Medicago arborea</i>
" <i>tree</i>	<i>Stylosanthis angustiflora</i>
" <i>speciosa</i>	" <i>surinamensis</i>
" <i>glauca</i>	<i>Dalbergia monetaria</i> —money bush
" <i>peltata</i>	<i>Eperua v. dimorpha falcata</i> —wallaba
" <i>inermis</i>	" <i>wood</i>
<i>Cajanus indicus</i> —pigeon pea tree	" <i>grandiflora</i>
" <i>flavus</i> —ditto	<i>Elisabetha coccinea</i>
<i>Eriosema rufum</i>	<i>Galiga caubœa</i>
" <i>lanceolatum</i>	<i>Glycina subtinæna</i>
" <i>violacem</i>	<i>Machærium schomburgkii</i> —itaka
" <i>crinitum</i>	" <i>wood</i>
" <i>pulchellum</i>	" <i>affine</i>
<i>Rynchosia minerva</i> —wild pea vine	" <i>leiophyllum</i>
" <i>punctata</i>	" <i>nervosum</i>
<i>Abrus precatorius</i> —wild liquorice	<i>Diolicon divaricatum</i>
<i>Ecastophyllum bronncei</i>	<i>Mullera moniliformis</i>
" <i>monetaria</i>	<i>Amphymentium spicatum</i>
" <i>benthamianum</i>	" <i>laxum</i>
<i>Lonchocarpus violacens</i> —Spanish ash	" <i>cordatem, reticulatum, latifolium</i>
" <i>floribundus</i>	" <i>nitidum, tenuifolium</i>
" <i>nicou</i> —hy. yarri	<i>Nisolea ferruginea</i>
" <i>pterocarpus</i>	" <i>odorato</i>
" <i>latifolius</i>	<i>Nicolsonia cajannensis</i>
" <i>hedyosmus</i>	" <i>major</i>
<i>Pterocarpus lunatus</i> —corkwood	" <i>radicans</i>
" <i>rohrii</i>	

Nicolsonia barbata
Copaifera pubiflora—purple heart
 „ *guianensis*
 „ *officialis*
Piratinera vel brosimum aubletii—
 letter wood
Kennedyia vel centrosema
Neurocarpum guianense, longifolium,
cajennæfolium
 „ *flagellare, speciosum*
Centrosema brazilianum, plumierii
 „ *virginianum*—wild pea
 „ *verticillatum*
 „ *macrocarpum, perspi-*
cuum, sordidem, ves-
titum
Galactia mollis—silver vine
 „ *velutina*
Canavalia ensiformis—horse bean
Campsiandra comosa
Tachigalia puliflora
 „ *paniculata*
Outea multijuga
 „ *acaciæfolia*
Macrotrullion splendens
 „ *elegans*
Stipellaria mollis
Bollea guianensis

SUB-ORDER 2. CÆSALPINÆÆ.

Arachis hypogæa—ground nut
Bauhinia angulata
 „ *scandens*
 „ *guianensis*
 „ *tomentosa*—downy moun-
 tain ebony
 „ *cumanensis*
 „ *macrostachya*
 „ *outimenta*
Schnella rubiginosa
 „ *splendens*
 „ *brachystachya*
 „ *longipetola*
 „ *rosea*
Brownea ondecandria
 „ *coccinea*
 „ *racemosa*
Etaballia guianensis
Tamarindus indica—tamarind tree
Hymenea courbaril—locust tree—
 yields the resin anime
 „ *venosa*
Cassia apoucouita
 „ *richardiana*

Cassia viscosa
 „ *ramosa*
 „ *parkeriana*
 „ *uniflora*
 „ *polystachya*
 „ *ornata*
 „ *quinguangularis*
 „ *bacillani*
 „ *fookeana*
 „ *arborea*
 „ *crysotricha*
 „ *polyphylla*
 „ *venenifera*
 „ *califolia*
 „ *quinguangulata*
 „ *hirsuta*
 „ *hispidia*
 „ *disadena*
 „ *arosoanna*
 „ *undulata*
 „ *biflora*
 „ *annulata*
 „ *filipes*
 „ *obtusifolia*
 „ *lotoides*
 „ *brazilianæ*
 „ *pulchra*
 „ *diphylla*
 „ *cultrifolia*
 „ *glandulosa*
 „ *prostrata*
 „ *fistula*
 „ *pastellaria*
 „ *alata*
 „ *occidentalis*—stinking weed
 „ *chamæchrista*—wild tamarind
 „ *acuminata*
 „ *marginata*
 „ *multijuga*
 „ *moschata*
 „ *obtusifolia*—Italian senna
 „ *trinitatis*
 „ *venenifera*
 „ *calliantha*
 „ *absus*
Hæmatoxylon campechianum—log-
 wood
Penhinsonia aculeata—holy thorn
Guilandina bonduc—nicker tree
Leptolobium nitens
Cæsalpina vel poinciana pulcherrima
 —Barbadoes pride
 „ *coriaria*—divi-divi
Amorphocalyx roraimæ
Dimorphandra macrostachya, latifolia
Cynometra schomburgkii

Cynometra guianensis
 " *hostmanniana*
 " *parrifolia*
Crudya aromatica
 " *spicata*
 " *parivosa*
 " *falcata*
Amherstia nobilis ?

SUB-ORDER 3. MIMOSÆÆ.

Swartzia triphylla
 " *alata*
 " *grandifolia*
 " *primata*
 " *tomentosa*
 " *bifida*
 " *microstylis*
 " *latifolia*
 " *aptem*
Vouapa spherocarpon
 " *bifolia*
 " *simira*
 " *staminea*
 " *elegans*
Alexandra imperatricis
Mora excelsa
Prosopis algaroba—chica drink tree
Pentaclethra filamentosa
Endata polyphylla
 " *polystachya*
 " *myriadenia*
Piptadenia guianensis
 " *suaveolens*
 " *aspidioides*
 " *polystachya*
 " *peregrina*
Pithecolobum macrostachyum
 " *trapegifolium*
 " *benthamianum*
 " *lasiopus*
 " *cauliflorum*
 " *ferruginum*
 " *adanthifolium*
 " *multiflorum*
 " *corymbosum*
 " *pubescens*
 " *glomeratum*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *pedicellare*
Acacia odoratissima
 " *horrida*—nembem
 " *glauca*
 " *latisiliqua*
 " *tortuosa*—twisted acacia
 " *polyphylla*
 " *guianensis*

Acacia paniculiflora
 " *westiana*
Calliandra surinamensis
 " *stipulacea*
Schrankia brachycarpa
Mimosa pudica—sensitive plant
 " *litigosa*
 " *viva*
 " *paniculata*
 " *asperata*
 " *micracantha*
 " *polydactyla*
 " *microcephala*
 " *bournoni*
 " *acacioides*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *hostmanni*
Inga purpurea—purple inga
 " *vera*
 " *bourgoni*
 " *pubiramea*
 " *bractiosa*
 " *gladiata*
 " *unguis cati*—mangrove bead tree, or bread and cheese
 " *setifera*
 " *myriantha*
 " *laterifolia*
 " *sciddion*
 " *hymenoides*
 " *sertulifera*
 " *umbellifera*
 " *heterophylla*
 " *fœtida*
 " *gracilifoliola*
 " *coruscans*
 " *pezizifera*
 " *latifolia*
 " *marginata*
 " *sapida*
 " *allican*
 " *corymbifera*
Inga vel Parkia biglobosa
 " *linnifolia*
 " *acrocephala*
 " *disticha*
 " *ruliginous*
Desmanthus lacustris
 " *depressen*
 " *pilosus cula*
 " *virgatus*—large sensitive plant
 " *plenus*
Neptuna surinamensis
Adenantha pavonina—Circassian bead tree

Adenanthera falcata
 " vel *entacta scandens*
 " " *polyphylla*
 " " *myriadenia*

ORDER 210. DRUPACEÆ—ALMONDS.
Cerasus vel *prunus occidentalis* —
 black cherry tree

ORDER 211. POMACEÆ—APPLE-
 WORTS.
Malus—apple
Pyrus—pear

ORDER 213. ROSACEÆ.
Rosa—rose
 " *moschata*—musk rose
 " *indica*—common ever-bearing
 rose
 " *bracteata*—Austrian rose
 " *damascena*—damask rose
 " *centifolia*—dog rose
 " moss rose
Fragaria—strawberry

ALLIANCE XLIII.—SAXIFRAGALES.
 —ORDER 215. HYDRANGEACEÆ.

Hydrangea hortensis — changeable
hortensia

ORDER 218. LYTHRACEÆ.
Lawsonia alba alba—St. Domingo
mignonette
Cuphea melvilla
 " *balsamona*
 " *micrantha*, *antisiphylitica*,
rigidula, *parviflora*
Crenea maritima
 " *repens*
Lagerstroemia indica—king of flowers
 " *regina*—queen of flowers
Dodeca surinamensis
Ginoria americana
Maja hypericoides

ALLIANCE XLIV. RHAMNALES.—
 ORDER 221. ULMACEÆ.

Celtis micrantha
Sponia vel *celtis mollis*

ORDER 222. RHAMACEÆ.
Rhamnus surinamensis
Ceanothus colubrinus — Bahama red
 wood

Gonania domingensis—chaw-stick
 " *virgata*
Zizyphus jujuba—dunk, or mangus-
 tine

ORDER 223. CHALLETIACEÆ.
Japura guianensis

ORDER 224. HIPPOCRATEACEÆ.
Hippocratea obcordata
 " *discolor*
 " *lœvigata*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *ovata*
 " *emarginata*
 " *malpighiæfolia*
Tontelea polyantha
 " *scandens*
Salacia guianensis

ORDER 225. CELASTRACEÆ.
Goupia glabra
 " *tomentosum*
Maytenus guianensis
Stachyanthemum schomburgkii

ORDER 227. SAPOTACEÆ.
Achras sapota—sapidilla tree
 " *zapotilla*—sappadilla, or star
 apple
Sideroxylon acuminatum
 " *ellipticum*
 " *micranthum*
 " *cuspidatum*
 " *durum*
 " *guianense*
Lucuma mammosa—mammee
Mimusops sieberi
 " *balata*
Bumelia nigra—bulberry tree
 " *salicifolia*—white bully tree
 " *nervosa*—green star apple
 " *mastichodendrum*—mastick
 tree

Pouteria guianensis
Chrysophyllum cœruleum—blue star
 apple
 " *schomburgkianum*
 " *jamaicense* — green
 star apple
 " *macoucou*
 " *cainito*—star apple
 " *cuneifolium*
 " *angustifolium*
 " *glabrum* — *callimato*
 tree

Chrysophyllum splendens
 " *guianensis*
 " *sparsiflorum*

ORDER 228. STYRACÆÆ.

Symplocos cipunima
 " *schomburgkii*
Styrax guianense
 " *psilophyllum*
 " *subleprosum*

ALLIANCE XLV. GENTIALES.—

ORDER 229. EBENACEÆÆ.

Diospyros virginiana — date plum
 tree
 " *ebenus*
Paralea guianensis—hardwood
Labatia pedunculata

ORDER 230. AQUIFOLIACEÆÆ.

Ilex macoucoua
 " *thyrsiflora*
 " *celastroides*
 " *umbellata*
 " *vaccinifolia*
 " *laurina*
 " *retusa*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *martiniana*
 " *lanceolata*

ORDER 231. APOCYNACEÆÆ — DOG
CANES.

Cameraria punica
 " *latifolia*
 " *tamaquarima*
 " *angustifolia*
Couma guianensis
Antonia pilosa
Willughbeia vel pacouria acida
 " " " *scandens*
 " " " *guianensis*
Allamanda cathartica — wild gam-
 boge?
 " *setulosa*
Rauwolfia tomentosa
 " *micrantha*
 " *canescens*
 " *nitida*
Cerbera thevetii—French willow
 " ———
Vinca rosea—periwinkle, or old maid
Odontadenia speciosa

Odontadenia cordata
 " *angustifolia*
Peschiera surinamensis
Malouetia tamaquarina
 " *odorata*
 " *obtusifolia*
 " *gracilis*
 " *puberula*
 " *guianensis*
Thyrsanthus schomburgkii
 " *gracilis*
Aspidosperma excelsum
Hæmadictyon grandiflorum
 " *cayennense*
 " *annulare*
Forsteronia spicata
 " *corymbosa*
 " *floribunda*
 " *laurifolia*
 " *schomburgkii*
Prestonia latifolia
 " *ipomæfolia*
Echites biflora
 " *macrostoma*
 " *rugosa*
 " *symphitocarpa*
 " *hirsuta*
 " *brachystachya*
 " *nitida*
 " *macrophylla*
 " *syphilitica*
 " *rubricaulis*
 " *sucida*
 " *subcarnosa*
 " *benthami*
 " *tubulosa*
 " *guianensis*
 " *prieurii*
 " *coriacea*
 " *paludosa*
 " *subspicata*
 " *tomentosa*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *hostmanni*
 " *elegans*
 " *trifida*
 " *puncticulosa*
Tabernaemontana utilis—milk tree
 " *heterophylla*
 " *echinatus*
 " *longifolia*
 " *coronaria* — rose
 bay
 " *undulata*
 " *rupicola*
 " *alba*

- Tabernaemontana guianensis*
- " *sessilifolia*
- " *bicolor*
- " *grandiflora*
- Plumieria rubra*—red franchipan
- " *attenuata*
- " *alba*—white franchipan
- Nerium oleander*—oleander
- " *odorum*
- Aspidosperma excelsum*
- Bonyunia superba*
- Strychnos pseudoquina*
- " *erichsonii*
- " *toxifera*—ourari, or wourali
- " *cogens*
- " *schomburgkiana*
- " *rhecioides*
- " *mittcherlichii*
- Rouhamon guianense*
- " *pedunculatum*
- " *divaricatum*

ORDER 292. LOGANIACEÆ.

- Spigelia anthelmia*—worm grass
- " *marilandica*—pink root
- " *nervosa*
- " *polystachya*
- Pagamea guianensis*
- Potalia amara*
- " *resinifera*

ORDER 296. GENTIANACEÆ.

- Lisianthus grandiflorus*
- " *schomburgkii*
- " *cæruleus*
- " *purpureus*
- " *chelonoides*
- " *purpurascens*
- " *uliginosus*
- " *alatus*
- " *pendulus*
- Coutoubea racemosa*
- " *reflexa*
- " *spicata*
- " *densiflora*
- " *ramosa*
- Voyria rosea*
- " *acuminata*
- " *cærulea*
- " *clavata*
- " *corymbosa*
- " *aurantiaca*
- " *uniflora*
- " *nuda*
- Tachia guianensis*—ant's nest tree

- Tachia purpurascens*
- " *alatus*
- Exacum guianensis*
- Villarsia humboldtii*
- Schultesia aubletii* vel *sebæa* *guianensis*
- " *stenophylla*
- " *brachyptera*
- " *benthamiana*
- " *subscrenata*
- " *neuroptera*
- " *heterophylla*
- Schuebleria tenella*
- Limnanthemum humboldtianum*
- Leiothamnus Elisabethæ*
- Irlbachia cærulescens*

ALLIANCE XLVI. SOLANALES.—

ORDER 238. SOLANACEÆ.

- Solanum melongena*—egg plant
- " *nigrum*—branched culalue
- " *rodschiedii*
- " *mamosum*—nipple night-shade
- " *jacquini*—bachelor's pear
- " *igneum*
- " *fera*
- " *lingiflorum*
- " *cumifolium*
- " *rubiginosum*
- " *scandens*
- " *tegore*
- " *stramonifolium*
- " *erythrocarpum*
- " *scaforthianum*—St. Vincent lilac
- " *torvum*—small red trubba
- Capsicum annum*—bell pepper
- " *tetragonum*—bonnet pepper
- " *cerasiforme*—cherry pepper
- " *longum*—long pepper
- " *convideum*—negro pepper
- " *baccatum*—bird pepper
- " *frutescens*—spur pepper
- " *globiferum*
- Datura stramonium*—thorn apple
- " *arborea* " "
- Physalis barbadensis*—pop vine
- " *angulata*—pops
- Petunia violacea*—petunia
- " *phenicea* "
- " *tryctaginiflora* "
- Nicotiana tabacum*
- Cestrum nocturnum*—lady of the night

Cestrum laurifolium—wild calabash
Lycopersicon esculentum—tornatos

ORDER 239. ASCLEPIADACEÆ.

Asclepias curassavica—wild ipé-
 cacuanha
 " *angustissima*

Olymposia tomentosa
Calotropis gigantea—auricula tree
 " *procera*

Chrysothemis ovata
Sarcostemma swartzzeunum—down
 vine

" *clausum*
Telesilla cynanchioides
Cynanchum grandiflora

" *mucronatum*¹
Macroceps guianensis
Hoya carnosia—wax flower

Orthosia paniculata

Metastelma macrophyllum
 " *guianensis*
 " *campanulatum*
 " *stenolobum*
 " *parvifolium*
 " *stendelianum*

Gonolobus vindiflorus
 " *grandiflorus*
 " *glaber*

Tassadia guianensis
 " *leptobotrys*
 " *propinqua*

ORDER 240. CORDIACEÆ.

Cordia sebestena vel myxa—scarlet
 cordia

" *guianensis*—table tree

" *schomburgkii*

" *collococa*

" *melanoneura*

" *micrantha*

" *heterophylla*

" *nervosa*

" *aubletii*

" *nodosa*

" *rufa*

" *flaviscens*

" *umbraculifera*

" *scabrifolia*

" *bicolor*

Varronia curassavica—black sage

" *alba*—loblolly tree

" *martinicensis*

ORDER 241. CONVULVACEÆ.

Convolvulus glaber

Convolvulus dissectus—noyau vine

" *hederaceus*

" *umbellatus*—hog vine

" *braziliensis*—sea-side

ditto

" *speciosum*—cephalic

ditto

" *batatas*—sweet potatoes

" *guianensis*

" *ciliatus*

" *quamoclit*—Indian pink

Quamoclit vulgaris—Barbadoes pink

" *solanifolia*

" *coccinea*

Ipomea coccinea

" *setifera*

" *bona nox*—night-blooming

convolvulus

" *miqueliana*—sea-side vine

Maripa scandens

" *erecta*

" *cordifolia*

" *densiflora*

Lysiostyles scandens

Batata cissoides

" *acetosæfolia*

" *glabra*

" *paniculata*

Aniseia martinicensis

" *ensifolia*

Jacquemontia violacea

" *hirsuta*

Prevostea sericea

Cuscuta americana

" *leiolepis*

" *puberula*

Rivea exaltata

Mouroncoa violacea

Ipomea maritima

" *tuberosa*

" *purpurea*

" *demerariana*

" *sinuata*—noyau vine

" *umbellata*

" *tamifolia*

" *guianensis*

" *sturensis*

" *fastigiata*

" *surinamensis*

" *pandurata*

" *parkerii*

" *junela*

" *schomburgkii*

Evolvulus nummularius—wild penny

royal

" *latifolius*

- Evolvulus glomeratus*
- " *sericens*
- " *alsinoides*
- " *linifolius*
- " *guianensis*
- " *brevipedicellatus*

ALLIANCE XLVII. CORTUSALES.—
ORDER 245. PLUMBAGINACEÆ.

- Plumbago rosea*
- " *scandens*
- " *occidentales*

ORDER 246. PLANTAGINACEÆ.

- Plantago media*—English plantain
- " *bicarinata*

ORDER 247. PRIMULACEÆ.

- Schwenkia americana*
- Primula vulgaris*—primrose
- " *auricula*—auricula
- " *veris*—cowslip

ORDER 248. MYRSINACEÆ.

- Arrindellia punctata*
- Jacquirnia obovata*
- " *armillaris*
- Badula schomburgkiana*
- Weigeltia guianensis*
- Ardisia acuminata*
- " *coriacea*
- " *rufa*
- Myrsina salicifolia*
- " *rapanea*
- " *icacorea*
- " *roraimæ*
- Conomorpha guianensis*
- " *laxifolia*
- " *robusta*
- Grammadenia lineata*
- Cybianthus crotonoides*
- Clavija ornata*

ALLIANCE XLVIII. ECHIALES.—
ORDER 249. JASMINACEÆ.

- Jasminum officinale*
- " *samba*—Arabian jasmine
- " *fruticans*
- " *odoratissimum*

ORDER 251. EMBETIACEÆ.

- Heliotropium indicum*
- " *curassavicum*—wild lavender
- " *gnaphaloides*—sea-side laurel, or lavender

- Heliotropium humile*
- " *parviflorum*—wild clary
- " *peruvianum*
- " *latifolium*
- " *helophilum*
- Tournefortia volubilis*—soldier bush
- " *floribunda*
- " *bicolor*—basket wyth
- " *schomburgkii*
- " *obscura*
- " *surinamensis*
- " *levigata*
- " *meyeri*
- " *hostmanni*
- Heliophytum indicum*
- " *passerinoideis*

ORDER 255. LAMIACEÆ.

- Hyptis globifera vel brevipes*
- " *lantanaefolia*
- " *recurvata*
- " *atrorubens*
- " *capitata*—wild hops
- " *simplex*
- " *pectinata*—wild spikenard
- " *radiata*—white spikenard
- " *suaveolens*
- " *spicata*
- " *brevipes*
- " *membranacea*
- " *laciniata*
- " *paludosa*
- Ocimum basilicum*—garden basil
- " *americanum*—wild basil
- " *micranthum*
- Lavandula*—several species
- Mentha viridis*—spear mint
- " *piperita*—peppermint
- " *pulegium*—pennyroyal
- Salvia officinalis*—garden sage
- " *splendus*
- " *occidentalis*
- " *formosa*
- Rosmarinus officinalis*—rosemary
- Origanum majorana*—sweet marjoram
- Thymus vulgaris*—garden thyme
- Scutellaria purpurascens*
- Nepeta cataria*—cat mint
- Leonurus sibiricus*
- Stachys*
- Leonotis nepetæfolia*
- Leucas*
- Marsypianthes hyptoides*
- " *viscosa*
- " *squarrosa*

ORDER 256. VERBENACEÆ.

- Clerodendron fragrans*
 " *capitatum*
 " *siptranthus*
 " *longicolle*
 " *venucosum*
Duranta ellisia
 " *inermis*
 " *macrocarpa*
Lantana involucrata—white sage
 " *siliæfolia*
 " *aculeata*
 " *trifolia*
 " *purpurea*
 " *annua*
 " *flava*
 " *odorata*
 " *canescens*
 " *camara*—piaba, or rock sage
Vitex schomburgkiana
 " *umbrosa*
 " *triflora*
Tamonea curassavica
 " *mutica*
 " *verbenacæ*
 " *spicata*
Petrea volubilis
 " *erecta*
 " *macrostachya*
 " *schomburgkiana*
Stachytarpheta resitata
 " *elatior*
 " *mutabilis*
 " *jamaicensis*—vervain
 " *cayennensis*
Volkameria aculeata—privet bush
Piva lappulacea—bung vervain
Citharexylon odoratum—fidele, or
 fiddle wood tree
 " *quadrangulare*
 " *cenereum*
Lippia schomburgkiana
 " *geminata*
 " *stoechadifolia*
Verbena rosea
 " *lamberti*
 " *chamædrifolia*
Ogyphila arborescens
 " *levis*
 " *martinicensis*
 " *diffusa*
 " *cuspidata*
 " *salutaris*
 " *mollis*
Amasonia vel talygala panicea
 " *erecta*

ORDER 257. MYOPORACEÆ.

- Avicennia nitida*—courida tree
 " *tomentosa*—dwarf man-
 grove tree
Bontia daphnoides—wild olives

ALLIANCE XLIX. BIGNONIALES.—

ORDER 259. PEDALIACEÆ.

- Sesamum indicum*
 " *orientale*—oil plant
Martymia lutea
 " *proboscidæ*

ORDER 260. GESNERACEÆ.

- Columnnea scandens*
Gloxinia speciosa
 " *alba*
 " *maculata*
Tussacia villosa
 " *rupestris*
Besleria coccinea
 " *laxiflora*
 " *incarnata*
 " *lutea*
 " *violacea*
 " *cristata*
Episcia mimuloides
 " *pulchella*
Gesneria tribiflora
 " *tomentosa*
 " *acaulis*
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *elongata*
 " *guianensis*
 " *aggregata*

ORDER 261. CRESCENTIACEÆ.

- Crescentia cujete*—calabash tree
 " *cucurbitina*

ORDER 262. BIGNONIACEÆ.

- Bignonia alba*
 " *decomposita*
 " *æquinoctialis*
 " *alliaceæ*
 " *chondrogona*
 " *caudicans*
 " *stricta*
 " *chirere*
 " *paniculata*
 " *chrysanthia*
 " *crysophilla*
 " *echinata*
 " *fluviatilis*
 " *surinamensis*
 " *gracilis*

Bignonia tubulosa
 „ *incarnata*
 „ *latifolia*
 „ *elongata*
 „ *laurifolia*
 „ *triphylla*
 „ *leucoxyton*
 „ *mollis*
 „ *variabilis*
 „ *unguis*—Barbadoes trumpet
 flower
 „ *heterophylla*
 „ *copaia vel procura*
 „ *chica*—carivarem
 „ *myrocalyx*
 „ *hostmanni*
 „ *parkeri*
 „ *inequalis*
Jacaranda ovalifolia — waakenaam
 lilac
 „ *silicifolia*
 „ *braziliana*
 „ *obtusifolia*
Spathodea schomburgkii
Zeyheria surinamensis
Tecoma incisa
 „ *stans*
 „ *leucoxyton*
 „ *floccosa*
 „ *splendida*
 „ *salzmanni*—white cedar
Sesamum indicum—oil plant
 „ *grandidentatum*
 „ *sudentatum*
 „ *subdivisum*
 „ *occidentale*
Macfadyena uncinata
Tabebuia latifolia
 „ *rufinervis*
 „ *fluviatilis*
 „ *macrophylla*
 „ *ovata*
Arrabidaea schomburgkii
 „ *cordifolia*
 „ *pruinosa*

ORDER 263. ACANTHACEÆ.

Rhytiglossa cajennensis
Justicia picta
 „ *comata*
 „ *speciosa*
 „ *coccinea*
 „ *pectoralis*—garden balsam
 „ *polystachya*
 „ *variegata*
 „ *secunda*

Justicia pumila
 „ *nodosa*
 „ *nitida*
 „ *adhatoda*
 „ *gendarussa*
Leptostachya martiana
Diptera canthus microcalyx
Crossandra speciosa
 „ *infundibuliformis*
Mendoncia schomburgkiana
 „ *hoffmanseggiana*
 „ *puberula*
 „ *aspera*
Ruellia tuberosa
 „ *vindex*
 „ *violacea*
 „ *gigantea*
 „ *clandestina*—nenow weed, or
 spirit weed
 „ *alopeuroidea*
 „ *formosa*
 „ *strepens*
 „ *fulgida*
 „ *fetida*
Hygrophila guianensis
Cryphiacanthus barbadensis
Thunbergia fragrans
 „ *coccinea*
 „ *alata*
Anhostoxylum rubrum
Eranthemum bicolor
 „ *fæcundum*
 „ *nervosum*
 „ *spinosum*
Beloperone schomburgkiana
 „ *calycina*
Dicliptera resupinata
 „ *retusa*
 „ *ciliaris*
 „ *hexangularis*
Stemonacanthus humboldtianus
 „ *radicans*
Aphelandra pulcherrima
 „ *pectinata*
 „ *acutifolia*
Thyrsacanthus schomburgkianus

ORDER 264. SCHROPHULARIACEÆ.

Vandellia diffusa—bitter blain
 „ *haimaracla*
 „ *crustacea*
 „ *prostrata*
 „ *diffusa*
Conobea aquatica
Angelonia salicariaefolia
 „ *viola*

Beyrichia ocymoides
Capraria liflora
Buchneria palustris
 rosea
Scoparia dulcis
Torenia parviflora
Buddlea braziliensis
 " *heterophylla*
 " *globosa*
Alectra braziliensis
Micranthemum orbiculatum
Russelia junca—Madeira heath
Stemodia foliosa
Browallia elata
Herpestis chamaedrifolia
 " *gratioloides*
 " *amplexifolia*
 " *flexilis*
Brunfelsia americana
 " *guianensis*
 " *angustifolia*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *latifolia*
 " *montana*
Digomphia laurifolia
Matourea pratensis
Gratiola virginiana
Schwenkia grandiflora
 " *chenopodiacea*
 " *hirta*
 " *guianensis*
Gerardia hispidula
Bacopa aquatica

ORDER 265. LENTIBULARIACEÆ.

Utricularia longissima
 " *pusilla*
 " *puberula*
 " *guianensis*
 " *muscosa*
 " *angulosa*
 " *spatulata*
 " *obovata*
 " *subulata*
 " *humboldtii*
 " *purpurea*
 " *striata*
 " *myriocista*
 " *oligosperma*
 " *parkeriana*
 " *tenuifolia*
Genlisea
Polypompholyx schomburgkii
 " *bicolor*

ORDER 267. LOBELIACEÆ.

Centropogon surinamensis
Lobelia domingensis

ORDER 268. GOODENIACEÆ.

Isotoma vel lobelia longiflora—small lobelia

ALLIANCE L. CAMPANALES.—ORDER 273. ASTERACEÆ.

Baccharis septocephala
 " *roraima*
 " *guianensis*
 " *nitida*
Pterocaulon spicatum
 " *aloppecuroideum*
Riencourtia glomerata
Latreillea glabrata
 " *integrifolia*
Clibadium surinamense
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *asperum*
 " *erosum*
Unxia camphorata
 " *hirsuta*
Ambrosia artemisiifolia
Bidens pilosa
 " *leucantha*
 " *coreopsisid*
 " *bipinnata*
Porophyllum ellipticum
 " *latifolium*
Gnaphalium schomburgkii
 " *americanum*
 " *simplicicaule*
Sparganophorus vaillantii
Pacourina edulis
Vernonia opaca
 " *scorpioides*
 " *gracilis*
 " *remotiflora*
 " *tricholepis*
 " *dichocarpha*
 " *schomburgkiana*
 " *decantha*
Centratherum muticum
Conyga myosotifolia
Calea divaricata
Achyrocline vargasiana
 " *slaccida*
Dermatophyllum schomburgkii
Gongylolepis benthamiana
Leria nutans
Cacalia coccinea
Eupatorium odoratum — Christmas bush
 " *trifolium*
 " *molle*
 " *parviflorum*
 " *conyzoides*
Ageratum cæruleum

<i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> — hairy ageratum	<i>Lactuca lativa</i> —lettuce
„ <i>guianense</i>	<i>Sinchus ciliatus</i>
„ <i>superflora</i>	<i>Trinchinettia caleoides</i>
<i>Elephantopus scaber et mollis</i>	<i>Eclipta erecta</i>
<i>Calendula officinalis</i> —common marigold	„ <i>prostrata</i>
<i>Fagetus erecta</i>	„ <i>platyglossa</i>
„ <i>patula</i> —French marigold	„ <i>stenoglossa</i>
„ <i>tenuifolia</i> — Peruvian marigold	
<i>Cosmos hispinnatus</i>	ALLIANCE LI. MYRTALES.—ORDER
<i>Trixis aspera</i>	274. COMBRETACEÆ.
„ <i>auriculata</i>	<i>Terminalia catappa</i> —Indian almond tree
<i>Spilanthes poeppigii</i>	„ <i>pansa</i>
„ <i>exasperata</i>	„ <i>mauritiana</i>
<i>Verbesina pinnatifida et nodiflora et hileanthoides schomburgkii</i>	„ <i>latifolia</i>
<i>Siegsbeckia flosculosa</i>	„ <i>tanibouca</i>
<i>Xanthium</i>	<i>Bucida buceras</i> —French oak
<i>Coreopsis reptans</i>	„ <i>angustifolia</i>
<i>Artemisia abanthium</i> —worm wood	<i>Conocarpus racemosa</i> —mangrove?
<i>Ponthenium hysterophorus</i> — wild worm wood	„ <i>erectus</i> —Jamaica button tree
<i>Pectis elongata</i>	<i>Cacoucia vel schousbæa coccinea</i>
<i>Rolandra argentea</i>	<i>Combretum elegans</i>
<i>Mikania guaco</i> —Venezuela guaco	„ <i>laxum</i>
„ <i>hookeriana</i>	„ <i>aubletii</i>
„ <i>amara</i>	„ <i>obtusifolium</i>
„ <i>denticulatum</i>	„ <i>glabrum</i>
„ <i>hastata</i>	„ <i>puberum</i>
„ <i>convolvulacæ</i>	„ <i>aurantiacum</i>
„ <i>parkeriana</i>	„ <i>guianense</i>
„ <i>scandens</i>	„ <i>punctatum</i>
„ <i>genoclada</i>	„ <i>serminalisoides</i>
„ <i>racemulosa</i>	
„ <i>fockeana</i>	ORDER 278. ONAGRACEÆ.
„ <i>aspera</i>	<i>Fuschia coccinea</i>
„ <i>scabra</i>	<i>Jussiaea liniflora</i>
„ <i>atriplicifolia</i>	„ <i>affinis</i>
„ <i>argyrostigma</i>	„ <i>acuminata</i>
<i>Baillera aspera</i> —fish poison	„ <i>nervosa</i>
<i>Tussilago mitans</i>	„ <i>variabilis</i>
<i>Synedrella nodiflora</i>	„ <i>latifolia</i>
<i>Aster chinensis</i> —china aster	„ <i>repens</i>
<i>Lavenia decumbens</i>	„ <i>torulosa</i>
<i>Helianthus annuus</i> —sunflower	„ <i>octonervia</i>
„ <i>tuberosus</i> — Jerusalem artichoke	„ <i>erecta</i>
<i>Chrysanthemum siriense</i> — chrysanthemum	„ <i>octofila</i>
<i>Wedelia hispida</i>	„ <i>dodecandra</i>
„ <i>lanceolata</i>	„ <i>pilosa</i>
„ <i>scobinima</i>	„ <i>linifolia</i>
„ <i>discordia</i>	„ <i>palustris</i>
<i>Callistephus chinensis</i> —china aster	„ <i>hexamera</i>
	„ <i>sterophora</i>
	<i>Ænothera</i> ?
	ORDER 279. RHIZOPHORACEÆ.
	<i>Rhizophora mangle</i> —mangrove

Rhizophora gymnorhiza
 " racemosa
 Cassipourea serrata
 " guianensis

ORDER 281. MELASTOMACEÆ.

Melastoma rubra
 " pupurea
 " racemosa
 " grandiflora
 " succosum
 " agreste
 " rufescens
 " elegans
 " parviflora
 " phyllopus
 " tocoea
 " mayeta
 " alata
 " prasinum
 " spondylanthen
 Chætogastra hypericoides
 " aubletii
 " gracilis
 " glomerata
 " callichæta
 " villosum
 " divaricata
 " ladanoides
 " campestris
 " radulæfolia
 " maculata
 Clidemia spicata
 " pustulata
 " surinamensis
 " crenata
 " paucifoliola
 " bullosa
 " rubra
 " hirta
 " agrestis
 " umborrata
 " capitata
 " rariflora
 Loreya arborescens
 Blakea quinquinerva
 " trinerva
 " parasitica
 Chænoplema hypolenca
 Rhexia villosa vel aspera
 " tascifolia
 " recurva
 " bicolor
 Phynchantera adenophosa
 Tococa guianensis—ink tree
 " roraima

Tococa coronata
 " truncata
 " lanata
 " subnuda
 " aristata
 " planifolia
 Salpinga secunda
 " paniflora
 Miconia decussata
 " ciliata
 " obtusifolia
 " longifolia
 " tomentosa
 " schomburgkii
 " fallax
 " longifolia
 " heterochroa
 " pleropoda
 " lodophilia
 " macrophyllia
 " longistylia
 " nitens
 " alata
 " brevipes
 " purpurascens
 " myriantha
 " pterophora
 " hypargyrea
 Comolia microphylla
 " veronicæfolia
 Mouriria guianensis
 " myrtiloides
 Microlicia buifolia
 " bivalvis
 " heterophylla
 Cremanium tinctorium
 " quadrangulare
 " reclinatum
 Spennera dichotoma
 " tetraptera
 " grandifolia
 " anomala
 " circæoides
 " fragilis
 " latifolia
 " viscida
 " hydrophilia
 " indecora
 " disophyllia
 " aquatica
 Mussneria cordifolia
 " glabra
 Cambessedesia roraimæ
 Munteria lepidota
 Marairea multinerva
 " pachyphylla

- Marairea rigida*
- " *parviflora*
- " *thyrsiflora*
- Diplochita fothergilla*
- " *leucocephala*
- " *serrulata*
- " *parviflora*
- Maieta guianensis*
- " *dispar*
- Ossaca flavescens*
- Decarhapha fockeana*
- " *hostmanni*
- " *floribunda*

ORDER 282. MYRTACEÆ.

- Eugenia sinemariensis*
- " *subobliqua*
- " *malaccensis*—rose apple
- " *quitarensis*
- " *ligustrina*
- " *acris*—bay berry
- " *nitida*
- " *linifolia*
- " *xylopiifolia*
- " *nitida*
- " *pimenta*—allspice
- " *pyrifera*
- " *incanescens*
- " *schomburgkii*
- " *egensis*
- " *pomiferum*
- " *polystachya*
- " *latifolia*
- " *salmanni*
- " *subalterna*
- " *lephanta*
- " *paniculæflora*
- " *pyrifolia*
- " *inæquiloba*
- " *meni*
- " *michellii*
- " *undulata*
- " *parkeriana*
- " *fragrantissima*
- " *triflora*—black wood
- " *divaricata*
- " *vismæfolia*
- Jambosa vulgaris* — narrow - leaved
 rose apple
- Campomanesia glabia*
- Caryophyllus aromaticus*—clove tree
- Myrcia vel myrtus coriacea*
- " *hebepea*
- " *guianensis*
- " *comete*
- " *carnea*
- " *coumeta*

- Myrcia vel myrtus tomentosa*
- " *acris*—wild clove
- " *splendens*
- " *pimentoides*
- " *bracteata*
- " *montana*
- " *communis* — (va-
 rieties) myrtle
- " *multiflora*
- " *prunifolia*
- " *schomburgkii*
- " *fallax*
- " *sylvatica*

- Punica granatum*—pomegranate tree
- " *nana*—ditto

- Psidium pomiferum*—guava tree
- " *parviflorum*
- " *pyriflorum*—French guava
- " *grandiflorum*
- " *aromaticum*
- " *fluviale*
- " *fragrans*
- " *turbiniflorum*
- " *ciliatum*
- " *polycarpum*

- Catinga moschata*
- " *aromatica*
- Calyptranthes rigida*
- " *obtusa*

ORDER 283. LECYTHIDACEÆ.

- Lecythis ollaria vel sapricaya*
- " *grandiflora*
- " *parviflora*
- " *tabucayo*—monkey pot tree
- " *longipes*
- " *amara*
- " *idatimon*—zabucajo
- Grias cauliflora*—anchovi pear
- Couroupita guianensis*—cannon ball
 tree
- Couratari guianensis* — murri marri
 tree
- Bertholletia excelsa*—Brazil nut

ORDER 284. HOMALIACEÆ.

- Homalium racoubea*
- " *napimoga*
- " *puberulum*

ALLIANCE LII. CACTALES. — ORDER
286. CACTACEÆ.

- Cactus hexagonus*
- " *repandus*
- Opuntia coccinellifera* — cochineal
 shrub

- Opuntia curassiaica*—pin pillow
 " *americana*
 " *tuna*—pimploes
Melocactus communis—Pope's, or Turk's head
Phyllocactus phyllanthus
Cereus trigonus—prickly pear vine
 " *grandiflorus*—night-blooming cereus
 " *triangularis*—triangular cereus
 " *monoclonus*—American torch
 " *hexagonus*
 " *russellianus*
 " *coccineus*
 " *formosus*
 " *tenuis*
 " *speciosus*
 " *peruvianus*
 " *euphorbioides*
 " *regalis*
Rhipsalis cassytha
 " *parasitica*?
 " *pachyptera*
 " *fasciculata*
Pereskia aculeata—gooseberry bush
 ALLIANCE LIII. GROSSALES.—
 ORDER 290. BARRINGTONIACEÆ.
Gustavia augusta—the gustavia
 " *fastuosa*
 " *tetrapetala*
Catinga moschata
Coupoi aquatica
 ALLIANCE LIV. CINCHONALES.—
 ORDER 293. CINCHONACEÆ.
Coffea arabica—coffee tree
 " *guianensis*
 " *occidentalis*
 " *paniculata*
 " *laxiflora*
 " *crassiloba*
 " *verticillata*
 " *benthamiana*
 " *tenuiflora*
 " *calycine*
Palicourea tavitta—wild coffee
 " *riparia*
 " *coccinea*
 " *guianensis*
 " *crocea*
 " *punicea*
 " *phenostemon*
 " *umbellata*
Psychotria parasitica
 " *quadriradiata*
 " *nervosa*—St. John's bush
Psychotria parviflora
 " *cordifolia*
 " *fimbriata*
 " *asiatica*
Guetarda vel isertia coccinea
 " *mathiola*
 " *xylostecoides*?
 " *hypoleuca*
Coussarea violacea
Siderodendron triflorum—iron wood
 " *macrophyllum*
 " *laxiflorum*
Coccocypselum tontanea
Diodia articulata
 " *rudis*
 " *rigida*
 " *macrantha*
Courtarea vel portlandia speciosa
 " *grandiflora*
Uncaria guianensis
Genipa americana
 " *edulis*
 " *merianæ*
 " *caruto*
Rondeletia capitata
Hedyotis herbacea
Oldenlandia corymbosa
Manettia coccinea
 " *glomerulata*
Schradera capitata
Calycophyllum stomleyanum
Sipanea tricantha
Verecta pratensis
Perama humilis
 " *hirsuta*
 " *stricta*
Nonatelia vel psychotria lutea
 " *officinalis*
 " *racemosa*
 " *violacea*
Macrophylla officinalis
 " *racemosa*
 " *violacea*
Malanea angustifolia
 " *glabrescens*
 " *macrophylla*
Randia mussænda
 " *densifolia*
 " *armata*
 " *latifolia*—indigo berry
 " *ruiziana*
Gardenia randia—dog wood
 " *tomentosa*
 " *florida vel fragrans*—Cape jasmine

Gardenia fortunei
Bertiera guianensis
Ladenbergia roraimæ
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *tenuiflora*
 " *densiflora*
Cephalis tomentosa
 " *rosea*
 " *bracteocardia*
 " *violacea*
 " *crocea*
 " *alba*
 " *justiciæfolia*
 " *muscosa*
 " *dichotoma*
 " *evea*
 " *purpurea*
 " *rubra*
 " *glabra*
 " *hirta*
 " *subletii*
 " *axillaris*
Aspidanthera klotzschiana
 " *rudgeoides*
Ronabea latifolia
 " *erecta*
Faramea sessiliflora
 " *corymbosa*
 " *crassifolia*
 " *bartlingiana*
 " *odoratissima*
 " *erythropoda*
 " *amplexicaulis*
 " *montevicensis*
 " *urophylla*
Chomelia tenuiflora
 " *angustifolia*
 " *pubescens*
Commianthus schomburgkii
Cordia acuminata
 " *uniflora*
 " *latifolia*
Sabicea velutina
 " *glaberescens*
 " *aspera*
Poseoqueria longiflora
 " *latifolia*
 " *trinitatis*
 " *revoluta*
Tocoyena longiflora
Amaoua guianensis
 " *corymbosa*
 " *fagifolia*
Geophila uniformis
 " *violacea*
 " *cordata*

Ixora coccinea—scarlet ixora
 " *fasciculata*—dart wood
Chiococca racemosa—candle wood
 " *caracasana*
 " *anguifuga*
 " *nitida*
Retiniphyllum scabrum
Endolithodes racemosa
Psychotria mapouria
 " *horizontalis*
 " *chlorantha*
 " *corniger*
 " *crassa*
 " *remota*
 " *setifera*
 " *inundata*
 " *acuta*
 " *nervosa*
 " *lupulina*
 " *capitellata*
 " *polycephala*
 " *schomburgkii*
 " *mapouriioides*
 " *neriifolia*
 " *suffulta*
 " *hyptoides*
 " *bracteata*
 " *amplectens*
 " *spicata*
Spermacocca latifolia
 " *radicans*
 " *tenuior*
 " *verticillata*
 " *longifolia*
 " *divergens*
Borreria spinosa
 " *commutata*
 " *parviflora*
 " *verticillata*
 " *alata*
 " *suaveolens*
 " *perrottetii*
 " *tetraptera*
 " *elongata*
 " *gymnocephala*
 " *fockeana*
 " *kappleriana*

ORDER 294. CAPRIFOLIACEÆ.
Lonicera flava—honeysuckle
Sambucus nigra—the elder tree

ALLIANCE LV. UMBELLALES.—
 ORDER 296. APIACEÆ.
Apium graveolens—celery

Petroselinum sativum—parsley
 Fœniculum vulgare—fennel
 Anethum graveolens—dill
 Darius carota—carrot
 Eryngium fœtidum—fitweed

ORDER 297. ARALIACEÆ.

Panax undulata—ginseng
 " morotoni
 " attenuatum
 Hedera helix—ivy

ALLIANCE LVI. ASARALEÆ.—

ORDER 302. LORANTHACEÆ.

Viscum trinervium
 " verticillatum
 " saururoides
 " perottetii
 " opuntioides
 " obtusissimum
 " dimidiatum
 " glandulosum
 " fockeanum
 " guianensis
 Loranthus vel struthanthus patrisii
 " amplexicaulis
 " spicatus
 " affinis
 " marginatus
 " anceps
 " vestitus
 " surinamensis

Loranthus vel struthanthus syringæ-
folia

" cuspidatus
 " pyrifolius
 " perrottetii
 " aduncus
 " sessilis
 " stelis
 " pauciflorus
 " terniflorus
 " flexistylis
 " squamulosus
 " guianensis
 " terniflorus
 " triceps

Psittacanthus guianensis
 " smithi
 " cupulifer

ORDER 303. ARISTOLOCHIACEÆ.

Aristolochia angucida — guaco, or
 snake poison
 " odorata—sweet-scented
 birthwort
 " trilobata
 " grandiflora
 " ringens
 " surinamensis
 " galeata
 " rumicifolia
 " braziliensis
 " peltata

THIRD GREAT DIVISION OF THE ANIMAL KINGDOM.

(*Animalia Articulata.*)

THIRD FAMILY.—(*Insecta*)—INSECTS.

BEFORE entering upon the subject of insects, in connexion with the natural history of British Guiana, I may remark, that it is not my intention to give a mere formal catalogue of names, neither to attempt a minute description of them, but to endeavour to convey to the reader some notice of the principal objects of this branch of natural history which are found in the colony, and to give, in as interesting a manner as the nature of the subject will admit of, an account of them in the order of classification usually adopted in scientific works on the subject. Insects form the third class or division of articulated animals, and are inconceivably numerous in this country. They may be seen, both day and night, flying about the gardens, houses, and, indeed, all over the colony, whether in its cultivated districts, in its unfrequented solitudes, in the crowded forests, and in the wide savannahs; on mountains, in valleys, on land and water. Some are met

with of enormous size, and alarm by their armed and ferocious aspect, as the phaneus lancifer, the stag beetle, and the elephant, or actæon beetle.

Others, again, are minute, and almost unseen, yet attract attention by their painful irritation of the skin, as the bête rouge, the chigoe, and sandfly.

They appear to revel and sport in the balmy atmosphere of the tropics, and rival, in their numbers and splendour, the luxuriant vegetation of the woods and forests.

The class of insects has been divided into twelve orders:

First Order.—Myriapoda; wingless, many legged insects.*

Second Order.—Thysanoura; wingless insects, with six legs.

Third Order.—Parasita; small parasitic, wingless insects.

Fourth Order.—Suctoria; insects with a sucking apparatus.

Fifth Order.—Coleoptera; winged insects, with six legs, as beetles.

Sixth Order.—Orthoptera.

Seventh Order.—Hemiptera.

Eighth Order.—Neuroptera.

Ninth Order.—Hymenoptera; including wasps and bees.

Tenth Order.—Lepidoptera; the butterfly insects.

Eleventh Order.—Rhipiptera.

Twelfth Order.—Diptera; including flies.

In the first order, Myriapoda, the centipedes (*Scolopendra*) are found; they are very numerous in this country, and are too well known to require description; there is scarcely a house which cannot furnish one or

* Other and more modern systems of classification have been proposed, and in many cases adopted by writers on entomology.

more specimens; the largest kind are seldom met with in the city, but chiefly among decayed woods, or under stones up the rivers. I have had a specimen in my possession which measured ten inches in length, and three-quarters of an inch in breadth; the creoles call them "forty legs," but they have forty-two legs and eight eyes. They feed on decomposed animal and vegetable matter, and are fond of hiding amongst coats, gowns, linen, boots, and shoes, where it is very inconvenient sometimes to meet with them. They avoid the light, or, perhaps, the dangers which light exposes them to; they attack other insects, and prey on cockroaches, and are, in turn, greedily devoured by poultry; they lay their eggs in clusters, like little berries on the ground, and the female chooses an obscure place for this purpose, as under flower-pots, where she can remain until the eggs are hatched. They are very tenacious of life, and if cut across the severed portions will twist and writhe about for some time.

The other Myriapoda are *Polydesmus Drurii*, *Polydesmus Schomburgkii*, *Julius Maximus*.

Of the second order of insects, the Thysanoura, or apterous insects with six feet, there are none worth dwelling on. These insects undergo no metamorphosis, and comprise the *Lepisma* and *Podurus*.

Those insects which belong to the third order, Parasita, are pretty well represented here as elsewhere. They are the plagues of animals and of mankind. The hog has its *Pediculus*, man his, the dog its tick (*Ricinus*), whilst birds suffer extremely here from the parasites of the same family.

Of the fourth order, or Suctoria, apterous insects with a proboscis, or instrument adapted for suction, there is here, as in other places, the tormenting flea (*Pulex irritans*), which, like the mosquito, is well known to

feed on the blood of man and animals, creating ulcers in the uncleanly, and proving very destructive to poultry, pigeons, &c. But another species of the same family is equally annoying; this is, the little insect so well known as the "chigoe" (*Pulex penetrans**), called also jigger, chigre, nigua, pique, tungua. This little insect, so contemptible in its appearance but so formidable in its habits, penetrates the tender skin of the body, but chiefly of the toes, where the female, increasing to a considerable size, prepares to deposit her eggs, which are innumerable. A sensation of itching, at first pleasant, afterwards almost intolerable, directs the victim's attention to the progress of the intruder, who may generally be discovered by a black spot, or livid swelling, close to one of the toenails. This swelling is popularly considered as the "bag," or nidus, where the eggs are deposited, but in truth this is not the case. It is the female insect alone which burrows in the flesh; she enters head foremost, and her body gradually distending with the accumulation of eggs, presents that circular, nest-like form near to the surface of the skin so well known to the initiated. The male insect is very small, and never enters the flesh. It requires great care to extract the chigoe almost bursting with eggs, for if not extracted entire, some of the embryos remain in the wound and cause painful ulcers, which, if neglected, terminate in amputation or death. A Capuchin Friar, recorded by Walton in his history of St. Domingo, anxious to carry home some specimens of these insects to his friends, brought away with him from that island a complete colony of these creatures, which he foolishly permitted to inhabit one of his feet, but, unfortunately for himself and for science, the foot entrusted with the precious cargo mortified, was obliged to be

* It has been proposed that the chigoe should constitute a new genus, being peculiar in its structure and habits. (See Transactions of London Entomological Society.)

amputated, and, with all its inhabitants and his blighted hopes, committed to the waves.*

The chigoe delights in a warm, sandy soil, and exists in such places in vast numbers. I have seen them on the hands, body, face, and feet, and have known people unable to walk in consequence of the accumulation of them in the soles of the feet. It is not the ordinary habit of the female jigger always to wait for flesh to burrow in. A Dr. Rodschied, who, a long time ago, wrote a work upon the "Essequebo," stated that the jigger lays no eggs, but that the larvæ are developed in the abdomen of the mother, and are there even transformed to pupæ; but this has been contradicted by subsequent observations.†

FIFTH ORDER.—*Coleoptera*.

It would be impossible for me in this place to give anything like an accurate account of the numerous Coleopterous insects which are met with here. The subject is inexhaustible; and to inquire into their structure, their habits, and many striking peculiarities, would require more than a life of perpetual study and application. I have for many years past endeavoured to make a collection of them, and have at this moment in my cabinet upwards of 500 species, having also, occasionally, sent similar collections to England. The study of entomology, insignificant as it may appear, is singularly interesting but difficult; to advance in it, the student must have leisure, patience, and perseverance; but in a country like this, which abounds in novelties, there is a vast field open for future entomologists. My only pretension in this work is to give a general description of some of the

* Kirby and Spence. Introduction to Entomology, vol. i. p. 102.

† Transactions of London Entomological Society, vol. ii. p. 201.

most common insects, and to note down what little knowledge I have been able to acquire respecting them.

I have been sometimes disappointed at the want of variety among the specimens in British Guiana, but, perhaps, this is rather to be attributed to my very imperfect investigation than to the real absence of such variety. I have no doubt that in the far interior, whether in the wooded forests, the grassy savannahs, or rocky mountains, numberless unknown species exist; but in the neighbourhood of the cultivated districts we see but a repetition of the same individuals, in such numbers as of itself to create astonishment. This is essentially a land of unsurpassed vigour in the production of most of the classes of animated nature. The air, the ground, the waters, absolutely teem with life, and the coleopterous insects of this country will vie in size and beauty with those of any other. Early in the morning, both in town and country, the busy duties of the day commence with many; and scarcely does the sun decline, than thousands issue forth, and crowd into the very drawing-rooms of the dwelling-houses. In the daytime the various weevils, some of very large size, commence their work of devastation on grain, fruit, and wood; the sun beetles, or varieties of the buprestis, outspread their gorgeous elytra, which reflect a thousand hues; the noble stag beetle, or sawyer, sallies forth to climb the branches of some inviting tree, or hides himself in the recesses of the chimney, but for what purpose I know not; the parti-coloured harlequin beetle is searching about, perhaps for a columbine; whilst the various "scarabæi" carry on their inglorious trade among the manure of animals. The gaudy-coloured coccinellæ and cassidaræ, like the "ladybirds" of Europe, go about shopping from plant to plant; while butterflies, and the cerambycidæ, are to be seen flying in all directions, both

on land and water; at night the scene is changed, and new actors make their appearance; the noble "lantern-bearer" holds his court, the sparkling fireflies shine like glowworms in the dark, whilst the glittering and dancing lampyrides (or what the greater number of people consider the real firefly) sport in the air, and mock vision with their sprightly pastimes; the sombre-hued "hard-back," and other similar beetles, also occasionally assemble in thousands, and bid defiance to every kind of persecution to which annoyed human nature subjects them.

Of the coleopterous insects usually met with, I will briefly mention what little I know respecting some of them. An elaborate description of most of them will be found in scientific works on the subject; and my object is rather to avoid scientific details, and only to dwell on a few of their habits and peculiarities.

The "buprestides" are among the largest of our coleoptera, and the most common species is known here as the "sun mama" beetle, so called, I suppose, from its resplendent elytra, which are collected by the curious, and worked up as necklaces and other articles of dress. These insects are often seen basking in the sun on branches of trees, and if disturbed, draw in their feet and antennæ and drop to the ground. They lay their eggs, which are of oval form and whitish in colour, under the barks of trees or among wood, and the larvæ, or caterpillars, are destructive wood-borers. The adult insects feed chiefly on leaves and flowers. The following species include those belonging, or allied to this family:

<i>Buprestis gigantea</i>		<i>Colobogaster celsa</i>
" <i>collaris</i>		<i>Chrysobothris 6 punctata</i>
" <i>variolosa</i>		<i>Phænops subcuprea</i>
" <i>hirtomaculata</i>		<i>Stenogaster atomarius</i>
<i>Conognatha clara</i>		

The true fireflies, or elateridæ, are of several kinds,

of which I have seen only five or six specimens. From their peculiar construction they are excellent leapers, bending their bodies in half, and with a loud, clicking noise spring up to a considerable height. They are seen on rather dark nights lurking among grass or shrubs, and are remarkable for the bright luminous spots which shine forth like the glowworms' light, and of such intensity as to enable a person to read by it. They feed upon flowers and tender leaves, and the larvæ, or grubs (wire-worms), live upon wood and roots, proving occasionally very destructive to sugar-canes and other plants.

There is a great number of species found, among which are the following :

<i>Elater ligneus</i>	<i>Dicrepidius atricornis</i>
" <i>striatus</i>	<i>Cardiorhinus hypocrita</i>
<i>Pyrophorus pellucens</i>	" <i>troglodites</i>
<i>Monocrepidius lateralis</i>	<i>Artematopus tenuicornis</i>
" <i>prolitaricus</i>	<i>Scirtes pallens</i>
<i>Dicrepidius porosus</i>	" <i>adpersus</i>
" <i>chloropterus</i>	" <i>fasciatellus</i>

The lampyridæ, or small fireflies, are the most common, and at night are sometimes seen in thousands dancing in the air, presenting a most beautiful sight. The light seems emitted by small spots under the abdomen and wings, and, unless in motion, they rarely shine. These small fireflies are about half an inch in length, and are of a yellow colour, spotted with black. They feed upon caterpillars, snails, but not, I believe, upon plants. I have never seen them during the day. They are the glowworms of this country, and have been used by some creole nations to ornament the dark ringlets of the women, for which purpose they are enclosed in folds of gauze, which are worn on the head. The effect when moving in obscure chambers must be striking; but I question whether they would outvie, or even rival, the luminous splendour of the wax taper, or sperm oil.

There are several varieties of this tribe :

Lampyris phosphorea	Charactus tricolor
" ignita	Emplectus limbatus
Photuris rubicunda	" desmocerus
Charactus serratus	Chalcas turgidus

FAMILY 6.—*Lamellicornes*. TRIBE 1.—*Scarabæides*.

The insects of this class are the largest which we possess, of which the first in size is the actæon beetle (*Scarabæus actæon*), which is from three to four inches long, and nearly as broad, with huge armed legs in proportion. These beetles are generally seen early in the morning, upon the branches of trees, or resting on the ground immediately under them. They walk tolerably fast, and fly heavily. They retire during the day to holes in decayed trees, or saunter about the gloomy pathways of the forest. These insects, along with others of this class, are sometimes collected by hanging a piece of stale flesh close to the ground, which seems to attract them. The scarabæidæ feed on dung, flesh, leaves, and wood. They lay their eggs in balls of manure or dirt, which they wheel away to some place of security, and the nest in time serves for food for the larvæ. In flying and walking they make a creaking noise, owing to the friction of the elytra against the sides.

The species known are as follows:

Agaocephala bicuspis	Scarabæus didymus
Scarabæus actæon	Tomarus zoilus
" bilobus	Geotrupes didymus
" codrus	" valgus
" chorinæus	" depressus
" alocus	Phileurus pusio
" enema	

Second Section of Coleoptera ; Heteromera.

Some of the species of *Megasoma* are called by the negroes cockles. They make a buzzing noise during

flight, and are apt to strike violently against the faces of persons. They bore trees and other wood, and deposit their eggs in such places; they are handsome beetles, and may be known by their smooth brown wing cases.

The ordinary species met with are:

Melolontha geminata	Cyclocephala castanea
" uncinata	" stolata
" castanea	Cetonia elongata
Cyclocephala brevis	" trigona
" uncinata	

Allied to the above are the following:

Opatrinus geminatus	Nilio vel Coccinella villosa
Blapetinus ruficornis	Stenochia compta
Epitragus fuscus	Allelula fortipis
" roscidus	" spadicea
Tenebrio gigas	Lytta subvittata
" retusus	" anthracina
Helops morio	" flagellaria
	" glandulosa

Belonging to the same tribe of insects (the Lamellicornes) we have several species of *Macraspis* and *Rutela*. The common "hardback" (*Macraspis morio*) is so called from its incredible strength. It is not an inch in length, and yet if a heavy book, or tumbler, or plate, is placed on its back, it walks away with it with the most perfect ease and "nonchalance." Two or three of them disposed properly will move a very heavy weight, such as a vase or lamp. They are considered in this country as indicators of weather, generally making their appearance before or along with rain. Upon such occasions they sometimes arrive in such numbers as to defy computation; thus at a ball given in 1845 by the then governor (the present Sir Henry Light) they flew into the ball-room and fell down on the floor in such numbers that they had literally to be twice swept away before the dancers could resume their performances. They are rarely or never seen during the day, and are supposed to

burrow and breed in the ground, for they are often seen spotted with dirt or mire.

They have been noticed to issue at times from dense foliage, and occasionally rolled up in leaves. They simulate death when taken, and if thrown away remain motionless until the supposed danger is over. They are greedily devoured by fowls, cats, &c.

The varieties known are:

Macraspis morio " chrysis " prasina	Rutela lacta " lineola
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There is a common insect here which is frequently to be met with in hundreds among dried megass. It is called the great borer (*Passalus interruptus*), and makes a plaintive creaking noise when taken. The larvæ appear to feed upon roots, especially the sweet potato. They are met with occasionally in great numbers in megass logies.

There are several species:

Passalus interruptus " striolatus " punctiger " interstitialis	Passalus convexus " transversus " furcillabris " morio
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Allied to the above are the following insects:

Leucothyreus dispar " anachoreta " pallens Ancylonycha sericata " leporina Ateuchus triangularis Canthon subcyaneus	Phaneus lancifer " faunus " jasius " festivus Copris coenosa " agenor " quadrata
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Tetramera ; insects with tarsi quadriarticulated.

Of the weevil tribe (*Rhynchophora*) there are several interesting species, one or two of which only will be enumerated. The largest is a black beetle, about an

inch and a half long, which is chiefly found in the pith of the cabbage-trees which have been cut down. This insect (the *Calandra Palmarum*) feeds on plants and their juices; the larva is well known as the grougrou worm, which is used as an article of food by epicures and others. Many of our grain and fruit are subject to the depredations of varieties of the weevil tribe—for instance, the tamarind, rice, and corn.

Belonging to this family are the following insects:

Tylomus rubiginosus	Attelabris femoralis
Cholus annulatus	Brentus bifrons
Cratosomus hoplites	Brenthus anchorago
" cancellatus	" bidentatus
Rynchœnus stigma	Cyphus 16 punctatus
" coccus	" diadema
" abdominalis	Platyomus clarus
" sanctus	" chlorostrictus
Rhina barbirostris	" ochroleucus
Calandra hemiptera	Naupactis rubiginosus
Bruchus ramicornis	" roscidus
" bactris	" faustus
Spermophagus lupinus	" optatus
Attelabris columbinus	Ileomus roseus
" carniolus	

Of the tetramerous beetles with long antennæ (*Longicornes*), there are the stag-horn and harlequin beetles, both of which are common. The former (*Prionus cervicornis*) is armed with saw-like mandibles, with which it is known to be able to saw off branches of trees. Sometimes they are met with basking in the sun on trees, and I have myself found them in such situations; at other times they hide in dark holes, especially kitchen chimneys, where I have more than once met with them. The larvæ gnaw their way into wood (especially the gossampinus and silk-cotton trees), and are eaten as a relish by some of the native tribes. The adult insect feeds also on wood, and in sawing across branches of trees swings itself violently round, thus converting its serrated mandibles into a circular saw.

The harlequin beetle (*Acrocinus longimanus*) derives its name from its parti-coloured dress, which is red, black, and grey. It certainly does not deserve it for its agility, for it is a slow, heavy insect, which is to be seen lazily crawling upon the stems or branches of trees. The beautiful colours of the elytra fade after death, but are best retained by immersing the insect in spirits of wine. It makes a loud noise when disturbed or excited. It feeds upon wood, but I have never seen either its eggs or larvæ.

There are several species of *Cerambyx* and *Lamia* peculiar to British Guiana. I have seen them flying about at night, and also during the day, when I once encountered one flying across our broad river in the face of a strong wind; it seemed much distressed, and fell on a wharf, where I captured it. The *Cerambycidae* are a beautiful and useful tribe of insects. They excavate old wood, deposit their eggs inside decaying trees, which the larvæ assist in removing. The larvæ of several species are also eaten by some people, who esteem it a delicacy. The "Cossus" of the ancients is supposed to have been the larvæ of *Cerambyx heros*.

The species of this tribe are numerous:

Ergates corticarius	Eburia perspicillaris
Mallodon spinibarbis	Sphæricion melanurum
Prionus cinnamomeus	" procerum
" scutellaris	Achryson circumflexum
Megaderus stigma	Clytus cayennensis
Lissonotus equestris	Piozcera coriacea
Cerambyx succinctus	Acanthoderes monacha
" barbicornis	" funesta
" suturalis	Lamia scorio
" velutinus	" horrida
" hirtipes	" depressa
" ammiralis	" globifera
" festivus	Colobotha passerina
" ocellatus	Hebestola operaria
Criodion castanopterum	Hippopsis dasycera
Cosmisoma seneicollis	Saperda hirticollis
Eriptus collaris	

The tortoise beetles (*Cassidæ*) are pretty numerous

here. They live, feed, and breed on some of our aromatic shrubs and other plants. The larva, when about to become a chrysalis, attaches itself to the under part of a leaf, where in about three weeks it issues forth a perfect insect. They are in general small, and very prettily marked.

The species are:

<i>Cassida palliata</i>	<i>Cassida confluens</i>
" <i>variegata</i>	" <i>judæa</i>
" <i>brunnea</i>	" <i>zona</i>
" <i>gibba</i>	" <i>oculata</i>
" <i>cyanea</i>	" <i>immaculata</i>
" <i>inequalis</i>	<i>Doryphora pustulata</i>
" <i>discoidea</i>	" <i>punctatissima</i>
" <i>lateralis</i>	" <i>annulata</i>
" <i>marginata</i>	" <i>trifasciata</i>
" <i>alutacea</i>	" <i>sinuata</i>

The Chrysomelina, and Coccinella (ladybirds), also abound among the small flowering plants. Wherever aphides are found, you may be sure to see several of the coccinella. They destroy the plant lice very extensively, and lay a cluster of small eggs close to a colony of the aphides or plant lice; when metamorphosed into grubs the future ladybird attacks their natural enemies, and devours large numbers of them, continuing their depredations in the adult state. I have frequently noticed them on the fireburn-bush (*Bannisteria fulgens*), and other plants, where they prosecute their useful labours.

The species known are numerous, among which are the following:

<i>Colaspis occidentalis</i>	<i>Chlamys klugii</i>
" <i>flavipes</i>	" <i>calestina</i>
" <i>crenata</i>	" <i>lamprosomoides</i>
" <i>gentilis</i>	<i>Pachybrachis hyacinthus</i>
" <i>lenta</i>	" <i>argentatus</i>
" <i>virescens</i>	<i>Galeruca nigripennis</i>
" <i>glabrata</i>	" <i>obsoleta</i>
" <i>testacea</i>	" <i>lacta</i>
<i>Noda exilis</i>	" <i>albicollis</i>
" <i>humilis</i>	" <i>abbreviata</i>
<i>Eumolpus nitidulus</i>	<i>Corynomalus 4 maculata</i>

Stenotarsus brevicollis
Diabrotica angulicollis
 " *elata*
Homophocta clerica
Oxygona melanocera
Cacoscelis binotata
Erotylus olivierii
 " *incertus*
 " *pardalis*
 " *unifasciatus*

Erotylus 5 punctatus
 " *notatus*
 " *undatus*
Barytopus moniliferus
Brachysphenus regularis
 " *vetula*
Aegithus punctatissimus
 " *surinamensis*
Triplax gigantea
Coccinella 10 maculata

SIXTH ORDER.—*Orthoptera.*

The insects so well known here as cockroaches, grasshoppers, locusts, &c., comprise the next order, Orthoptera. They are all terrestrial, and are omnivorous; some feed on flesh, others on living plants, and some, like the "Mantis," on other insects; but the most part of them are neither useful nor ornamental.

To begin with the cockroach (*Blatta Americana*), of which there are several species here (brown and grey), it is unnecessary to describe them. They are the pest of the tropics, and devour linen, cloth, paper, books, boxes, &c., sometimes even nibbling the toes of children and other persons. I have known troublesome sores to arise from such cause. They have a peculiar and disagreeable odour, which increases the general aversion towards them. They lay their eggs in clusters, in old boxes, the larvæ afterwards is enveloped in a brown case, and the young cockroach soon becomes as mischievous as his parents. They are attracted by powerful odours, and may thus be entrapped. Very few things escape their notice; they are the most inquisitive of all insects, and find their way into beer, milk, or tea, and, indeed, food of all kinds. Some species make a drumming noise at night, if they cannot in any other way annoy you; but in this country to hear the "Drummer" is rare. Fortunately fowls and other animals prey upon them, or we should be overrun with them. Between the cockroach

and the spider there is continual warfare, and the spring of the latter is generally fatal to the cockroach, whose brown semi-membranous wing cases are often seen suspended from the spider's web.

The varieties met with are the *Blatta colosseæ*; *B. Australasiæ*; *B. Surinamensis*; *B. phalerata*; *Blabera postica*; *Peri planeta brunnea*; *Pygidicrana bivittata*.

Those singular looking insects which are so well known here as the "walking leaves," "praying mantis," "dried sticks," are belonging to the tribe *Mantidæ*, which, once seen, require no further description to recognise them.

The most common is, perhaps, the *Mantis religiosa*, or walking leaf, which is frequently to be seen on the branches of trees and plants, from whose leaves it is almost impossible at a distance to distinguish them. They are often seen resting immovable on some slender leaf-stalk, with their fore legs raised, as in the attitude of prayer. This is regarded by many as the act of supplication, but, in truth, it is the reverse. The cunning creature is on the watch for its prey, and observing a small insect to pass, cautiously stretches out its paw, and seizes the unsuspecting victim, who all the time considered its captor a mere leaf. The wings, when present (for some species are apterous) and extended, present a most beautiful sight, and the wonderful resemblance to a leaf is still more perceptible, so that some excuse must be made for the insects who suffer from "mistaken identity." These insects, indeed, instead of praying, are very fond of fighting, and often destroy each other in single combat. They enclose their eggs in small gummy-looking bags, which they attach to leaves or other substances where the young mantis is hatched.

The "dried-leaf" insect is brown in colour; it is called *Mantis siccifolia*, its habits are much the same as the

other. Those without wings (*Phasma*) attain sometimes a considerable size, and look exactly like dried stalks. I once saw one here which was nearly twelve inches long, it was brought from Berbice.

The varieties of this family known are the Mantis Lobipes; *M. precaria*; *M. rogatoria*; *M. Flavipennis*; *M. Sublobata*; *Thespis purpurascens*; *Phasma Necydaloides*; *P. Maculatum*.

The next family of Orthopterous insects comprise those which are considered essentially as the leapers (*Saltatoria*), such as the gryllus, locust, &c.

The crickets (*Gryllus campestris*) are common here, but do not infest the houses so frequently as the house-cricket of Europe (*Gryllus domesticus*). These insects chiefly appear at night, and burrow in the daytime in holes in the ground, where they sometimes may be seen watching for smaller insects, on which they prey. The female lays an immense number of eggs.

One species known here as the Arianke (*Gryllo talpa*), is a frequent visitor of dwelling-houses during rainy weather, especially at nights, when they add to the insect nuisances of the tropics. They are surprising jumpers, and alight on the head or hands, but without doing any harm beyond the fright they occasion to sensitive persons. You can see they have been spending the day in mud holes, for their fore feet are often soiled with clay. They are in general about one inch in length, but I have a monster in my collection which measures about two inches. They are very formidable looking creatures, and irritate the skin with their rough legs.

The grasshoppers are very numerous; in appearance and habits they resemble the European species.

The locusts of this country are pretty-looking insects, with parti-coloured elytra and wings. They are never

seen in such numbers as to occasion alarm, being preyed upon largely by birds and animals.

There are several species here, the largest (*Gryllus vel acrydium cristatus*) being beautifully annulated, black and red, with bluish green wings and brown elytra; others, equally large, are all green; others entirely brown; some are golden green, with reddish tints; in all, I have in my collection—nearly a dozen different specimens.

The varieties met with here, belonging to the locust and grasshopper family, are as follows:

Phylloptera citrifolia	Tropinotus obsoletus
" salicifolia	Acrydium cristatum
" laurifolia	" prætor
" myrtifolia	" miles
Conocephalus maxillosus	" flavofasciatum
" hebes	" flavolineatum
Acanthodis aquilina	" sanguinipes
" consanguinea	Ommatolampes perspicillata
Gryllotalpa oxydactyla	Oedipoda straminea
" hexadactyla	" caligata
Opsomala dorsalis	" longipennis
Tropinotus serratus	Termes decumanus
" discoideus	" morio

Hemiptera.

The seventh order of insects (*Hemiptera*) is extensively represented in British Guiana, and affords some of the most interesting specimens of the insect world. They are provided with semi-membranous wing cases; the mouth is prolonged into a long proboscis or beak, not unlike an aculeus or sting. This instrument acts as a sucking apparatus; it pierces the textures of animals and plants by the stylets of which it is composed, and the juices extracted are conveyed into the stomach by the contractions of the muscular part of this alimentary tube. They inflict a tolerably sharp wound, not unlike that of the mosquito; but although wounded by them, I have never known any unpleasant result to follow.

Belonging to the first section (*Heteroptera*) of this order we find the cimices, including the numerous kinds of insects known as bugs, which feed on the fluids of animals and plants. The common insect, the bed bug (*Cimex lectularius*), is as familiar, unhappily, to the inhabitants of the tropics as to others; a true cosmopolite, it makes itself at home everywhere, and comes in with the mosquito for its share of nightly repasts. It is remarkable that the insects which appear to feed on vegetable juices should all possess the unpleasant odour peculiar to this family. Some of these cimices are extremely pretty, but if handled emit their disagreeable perfume.

I have met with about a dozen species of these bugs. The simitou, or bell-apple vine, is a favourite place of resort to a beautiful species (*Diactor foliacea*), with golden-green elytra and thorax. Its hind legs are very long and flattened out like oars, and beautifully coloured red and yellow; it is thus enabled to float on water.

Other species, some of large size (one inch and upwards in length), resort to the various plants. Some are great leapers, and both day and night find their way into apartments. Upon the numerous labiate plants which abound here several pretty species of the cimices are met with, and arrange their tiny eggs on the leaves. The eggs of the "*Diactor foliacea*," already named, are of a triangular shape, lustrous yellow colour, and the granular-looking contents are enclosed in a waxy shell. If a cherry or soursop tree be examined, it is rare not to find some specimens of the next section of this order, such especially as belong to the families "*Cicadariæ*" and "*Aphides*." I have repeatedly seen thousands of insects belonging, or closely allied to the genus "*Ledra*." They are about one-third of an inch in length, of a light brown colour, and with a singularly-looking helmet-

shaped and triangular head. They feed apparently on vegetable juices. That singular insect the "*Membracis foliacea*," is also met with in the gardens. The foliaceous and elevated prothorax always reminds me of the nautilus with its sail expanded. The colours, however, and size are very different. This insect is about half an inch long, its colours black and white. Specimens of the insects "*Darmis*," "*Bocydium*," "*Centrotus*" also abound; but it is time that we should consider the most curious and interesting of this order, viz., the insects so well known here as the "*razor-grinders*" (*Fidicina vel cicada Mannifera**). The peculiar loud chirping noise, so well known to most persons in this country, is generally heard in the morning at sunrise, and in the evening about sunset, hence they have been called by some "*breakfast-bell*," and "*dinner-bell*." The noise they produce is exactly like the grinding of some instrument, such as a razor on a stone. It is produced by a drum-like apparatus, which is situated at each side of the abdomen.

This apparatus is composed of a pair of concave membranes (which are easily recognised on the dead insect) placed on each side of the first rings of the belly, and are set in motion by a set of powerful muscles, admirably contrived for that purpose. Even after death a faint sound may be produced by working these muscles, or the joints to which they are attached; a wag might call it a dead sound. In the city it is very rare to see this insect, but it is heard very frequently in dry weather. The unseen insect perches on a tree and chirps away merrily for about half a minute, then suddenly stops, but begins again in a different locality; it has changed its place, but not its tune, and gives everybody

* A larger species is sometimes seen up the Essequibo, and utters a sharp note. It has been termed "*Cicada tibicen*."

an opportunity of hearing it. Whilst on a trip up the river Essequebo, I frequently heard them during the day, producing the most discordant sounds imaginable, and was fortunate enough to see many of them thus employed. The vibration of the wings was rapid and intense, evidently working the muscles which act upon the resonant drum. After some trouble and caution, I succeeded in bagging a few specimens; the instant that they were seized the sound ceased. I have seen three or four species of this "Cicada;" one about half an inch in length, another one inch, and the third about an inch and a half long. The colours of all were more or less alike, being all brown and green.

The females lay their eggs in roots or branches of trees close to the ground, and for this purpose are provided with a scaly ovipositor, an apparatus usually composed of three dentated blades enclosed in a groove with two valves, with which they penetrate the wood, and slide the eggs along to their place of security and rest. This admirable instrument is, however, seen on a much larger scale on some of the orthopterous insects already noticed.

LIST OF HEMIPTERA FOUND IN BRITISH GUIANA.*

CLASS.—*Heteroptera*. FAMILY.—*Pentatomides*.

Augocoris gomesii	Edessa moschus
Coryssoraphis carneolus	" alces
Empicoris maculatus	" vacca
" cariosus	" polita
Cataulax marmoratus	" quadridens
" apicalis	" transversalis
Dryptocephala lurida	" corculum
Ochlerus cerdo	" cordigera
Pentatoma ypsilon	" cruenta
" pulchella	" discors
Taurocerus edessoides	" abdominalis
Edessa vitulus	" corallipes
" helix	" cribrum
" cervus	

* Prof. Dr. W. F. Erichson, "Reisen in British Guiana."

Family Coreides.

- Spartocera batatas
 " pustulata
 " pubera
 Metapodius compressipes
 " suratus
 Pachylis pharaonis
 " biclavata
 Meropachys virescens
 Nematopus gallus
 " dilatatus
 Paryphes letus
 Crinocerus sanctus
 " cruciger
 " spinosus
 Leptoscelis lunatus
 " hemorrhous
 Chariesteres fasciatus
 Copius histrio
 Alydus melanocephalus
 " tarsatus
 Hypselonotus striatulus

Family Lygæites.

- Lygæus pulcher
 " zonatus
 Pyrrhocoris ruficollis
 Largus vel cimex lineola

Family Reduviæ.

- Pirates morio
 " myrmecinus
 Spiniger albispinus
 Pothea frontalis
 Apiomerus hirtipes
 " lanipes
 " lunatus
 " vulneratus
 " crinipes
 " geniculatus
 Arilus elevatus
 " rhombus
 Notocyrtus gibbus
 Conorrhinus maculatus
 " intulentus
 Stenopoda cinerea

Family Ploteres.

- Hydrobates linearis

Family Nepidæ.

- Belostoma stollii

Class—Homoptera; Family—Fulgoroella.

- Pœocera porphyrea
 Pterodictya ephemera
 Labicerus elegans
 Ricania reticulata
 Psociloptera phalænoides

Family Membrucides.

- Darnis trifasciata
 Centrotus spinosus
 " vitulus
 Membracis foliato-fasciato
 " compressa
 " ensata
 " decorata
 Bocydium globulare

Family Cicadella.

- Cercopis rubra
 " tristis
 " lineola
 " pubescens
 Tettigonia phosphorea vel cicada
 phosphorea
 Tettigonia rutilans vel cicada ru-
 tilans
 Tettigonia obtusa vel cicada ob-
 tusa
 Tettigonia aurulenta vel cicada
 aurulenta
 Tettigonia bifasciata vel cicada
 bifasciata

Family Stridulantes.

- Cicada eximia
 " grossa
 " grisea
 " vel fidicina plebeia, vel man-
 nifera

Homoptera.

Many trees and plants in this country are infested with varieties of the family of "Aphides," so well known to agriculturists and others as plant lice. Any one who has a cherry-tree in the garden may be sure to find it largely inhabited by curious little creatures covered over with a white cotton-like substance; inside this web the insect

lives. They are astonishingly prolific, and no wonder, if the statement of Bonnet and others* be correct, that the influence of a first fecundation is extended to seven successive generations. These insects lay their eggs on branches and leaves, and live in large societies, sucking the juices with their trunk. I have frequently watched some of these insects establishing themselves inside certain leaves. The flattened animal dissects in the most scientific manner the epidermis of the leaf, and gradually insinuates itself between it and the parenchyma, where, at a first examination, you would scarcely notice anything unusual beyond a slight bulging in one part; by-and-by, however, the raised epidermis, cut off from its proper supply of nutrient vessels, perishes, and an altered colour betrays the habitat of the aphid.

It would be tedious to attempt to enumerate the numerous species which are found on the various trees and plants; some of the most common may be daily seen on the stems of the pink, the limonia, the plumbago, the rose and balsam plants, &c., and no one observing these plants but will remark the invariable presence of a small species of black ant, which in hundreds may be seen diligently attending the plant lice. Now, why is this the case? Everybody, perhaps, is not acquainted with the reason, and I will, therefore, give the necessary explanation. The ants and plant lice have a curious relationship; wherever aphides are found you may be sure to encounter ants, but they do not meet to quarrel or fight. The sagacious ants turn the aphides to an excellent account, and use them as we use milch cows! The ants, by means of their antennæ, collect from the plant lice the saccharine juice which these latter extract from the plants, and with which they are more or less saturated. Sometimes they are satisfied with merely licking

* Latreille and Cuvier.

off, as it were, the juices which lubricate these insects; in some instances they wait till the plant lice have accumulated a tolerable store, when they deliberately plunder them of it. The aphides do not appear to object; but, even if they did, the ants possess the art of forcing them to yield it at their pleasure, or, in other words, of milking them; nay, further, the ants make a sort of property of them, they watch over and guard a particular aphid, they settle on the same branches, and, if necessary, absolutely carry them off as captives, and enclose them in a sort of prison near to their nests, constructing this "lock-up" of earth and other suitable materials.* The loves of the ants and aphides are not, therefore, fabulous, and this singular "liaison" has been noticed from time immemorial.

Of the family (*Gallinsecta*) of the homoptera I shall say but little; the various species of "coccus" which infest numerous plants here are similar in their habits, and may daily be seen on some of the common shrubs, &c. They cover the tender bark with their oval or rounded bodies, in appearance like little scales or shields, and often enshroud themselves in the same cotton-like filament as the aphides. They deposit their eggs on leaves or stems, and encase them with the bodies of the females, which gradually desiccate, and form a kind of crust or shell over the ova, which are in time hatched by the warmth of the sun's rays. The gallinsecta injure trees and plants by the punctures they make, but some of them, as the cochineal, are useful on account of their "rich dyes."

I should have noticed before a remarkable genus of insects allied to the Cicadidæ, one species of which is the American Lantern-fly (*Fulgora lanternaria*), which

* Kirby and Spence.

is occasionally seen up the river Essequibo and other places, but of which I know very little, having never seen a live specimen. There is much uncertainty respecting the luminosity of this insect, Madame Merlian, in her account of the insects of Surinam, having positively affirmed the fact, which, however, has been denied by Dr. Hancock and other naturalists of this country. It is a strange looking insect, with a singular prolongation of the front,* where the luminous spots are reported to exist. Whilst on a visit at the "penal settlement" of this colony on the river Mazaruni, I heard of a very large species which had been seen a few nights previous to my arrival; it was distinctly stated, by some of the guards who saw it, to shine brightly at night. I sought for it in the locality where it had been seen, but it declined the honour of appearing in public, to my great disappointment, and although I requested that some pains would be taken to procure a specimen for me, I have never been able to obtain one alive.

EIGHTH ORDER.—*Neuroptera*.

Those common insects so well known as "pond-flies" here, and as dragon-flies elsewhere, belong to the "*Neuroptera*," or insects with finely reticulated wings, &c. They are numerous, flying about the country and hovering over the trenches and other marshy spots, where it is curious to watch them, perched on the tops of staves or branches, with their long narrow bodies sticking up in the air. They are of the most varied colours—red, green, black, and blue; others are almost colourless. It is a beautiful sight to witness the respirating motions of some of the larger species, which are of a rich scarlet colour. These insects are bred in the water; the female

* Cuvier.

sinks her eggs there, and if not appropriated by some fish or animal, these, in time, are converted into flattish larvæ, provided with feet, which they have occasion to use in searching for food. It takes a long time before they arrive at the stage of a perfect dragon-fly, at least two years, but their subsequent life is a short and apparently a happy one, save in the society of spiders, with whom they wage constant war. I have witnessed many combats between this insect and a large species of spider (*Mygale*), which generally terminated in the death of the ferocious-looking dragon-fly, who, with flashing eyes and formidable jaws, fiercely defended himself. It would be out of place here to enter upon a description of their magnificent compound eyes, which are made up of a multitude of lenses, and are truly beautiful objects for the microscope. They prey on small insects, and by some are considered to destroy mosquitoes, apparently chasing them over stagnant water.

I have numerous specimens of the dragon-fly in my collection, the largest from four to five inches in length, the smallest about half an inch long. The children here tie strings to their bodies and fly them like kites.

Besides the dragon-flies and other species of insects allied to them, there are varieties of small ephemeral creatures (*Ephemera*), whose existence and habits, beyond the fact of their being seen in countless millions about sunset along river banks and grassy swamps, are but little known.

The following varieties of the Neuroptera are found in British Guiana:

Libellula imbuta	Libellula discolor
” fastigiata	” erratica
” vesiculosa	” unimaculata
” attenuata	” fervida
” cardinalis	” famula
” umbrata	” guttata
” bicolor	Diastatops tincta

Diastatopis fuliginea	Agrion linearis
" dimidiata	" lucretia
" fasciata	" flavistigma
Ictinus latro	Ephemera albicans
Gynacantha ferox	Hemerobius validus
" nervosa	Corydalis nubila
" trifida	Bittacus geniculatus
Calopteryx caja	Macronema arcuata
Lestes tricolor	

Belonging to the order "Neuroptera," although differing so widely in appearance from many other insects of the same order, are those common insects so well known here as wood ants, woodlice, white ants (*Termes devastans*).

They have probably derived their name of ants from the societies and habitations in which they live, and are also divided into males, females, and neuters, or workers.

These destructive creatures infest houses and trees, and very often destroy the beams, rafters, and floorings of the former. There are generally several kinds of them, and in the nests some are very small, and white or grey, and the others as described below; they differ singularly in their general appearance at different times. Those which I have seen most frequently are about one-eighth of an inch in size, of a reddish yellow colour about the body and legs, but the head, which is large and pointed, is much darker, being brownish black. There are a series of transverse striæ in the abdomen. The antennæ are long and twelve-jointed.

Some build their nests in trees, and some on rafters and other portions of houses. They are constructed of thin dried earth and woody tissue, very light and friable. These nests are approached by long arched and narrow galleries or covered pathways, which are obviously intended to prevent the insects from being seen and destroyed by their natural enemies, such as birds, lizards, &c. They are surprisingly industrious and destructive; I have known them to construct in the course of one

night an arched highway, double in some places, along a brick pillar twelve feet high.

The guanos and other reptiles sometimes lay their eggs inside their nests; the negroes bring home the nests, and shake out the ants to feed poultry.

They sometimes swarm, and the winged males and females differing in appearance from those above described, literally cloud the air, and strew the ground with their bodies and readily detached wings; when such swarms arrive, it is generally considered by the inhabitants that heavy rains are approaching.

Some of the species of termites (*Termes cumulans*), which construct their habitations in the interior, make them of very large size; they often rise from eight to fifteen feet high from the ground in a spiral form, impenetrable to storm and rain.

NINTH ORDER.—*Hymenoptera*.

The insects which are included in the ninth order (Hymenoptera) have long been considered the most generally interesting to naturalists and others, owing to their wonderful skill, beauty, and usefulness. There is, perhaps, no country where so rich a collection could be found of the ants, bees, wasps, and their allies as this. They are met with in every garden, every house, nay, almost every room. Fine specimens of Bombi, Xylocopa, Euglossa, and others, pass buzzing from flower to flower; the smaller bees find out the sweets about the rooms, and hurry away laden to their hiding-places; thousands of maribuntas, wasps, and ants are for ever employed in the outbuildings and neighbouring bushes in providing for themselves and for their young, and the beautiful Fossores are incessantly occupied in constructing strange-looking habitations of mud for their future progeny.

I shall pass over in a very brief manner any account of the insects included in the first section of this large order, the "Terebrantia," or those insects characterised by the presence of an ovipositor in the females. I do this for the best reason in the world;—firstly, because I know little that is new respecting them; and secondly, because I have been unable hitherto to procure many specimens. The largest insects, and those most striking, are greedily collected by the persons who make a trade of this department of science; but the most common insects, and those of minute size, as is the case also with birds and fishes, are rarely sought for by collectors, so that unless a person has considerable leisure, and favourable opportunities, neither of which I possess, he has little chance of increasing his stock either of knowledge or specimens.

The Hymenopterous insects known as "Sawflies," on account of the saw-like motion of the ovipositor, are seen here making small holes in wood, where they deposit their eggs. As the young insect increases in size, there is a protuberance formed on the branch, like a nut-gall, and the insect, as a larva, escapes by biting its way out, and commences its depredations on plants. By-and-by, however, the larva spins a cocoon, and, after many months' obscurity, comes forth as a perfect sawfly. This can be noticed in the "Cimbices" and "Tenthredo" proper. The "Hylotoma lobata" also belongs to this family.

In the next family of this section (*Terebrantia pupivora*) we have several varieties, whose habits are much the same as those above described.

Thus that singular looking insect, a species of "Evania," belongs to this family. It has a small black body, with the abdomen attached to the posterior and upper

part of the body by a slender pedicle. The posterior legs and the antennæ are very long. It is occasionally seen flying about windows and other places.

Those curious carnivorous insects, Ichneumonidæ, are common, and of great variety. Known to many as the "Mouches vibrantes," on account of the rapid vibration of their antennæ, they are to be seen diligently in search of caterpillars and other insects, in whose living bodies the females unceremoniously deposit their eggs by means of the long ovipositors with which they are provided. Their instinct leads them frequently to find out the unseen objects of their search, which inside the holes of trees or wood consider themselves secure; but the formidable ichneumon fly, by inserting its long and slender tail, probes the suspected retreats of the caterpillars, and finding a suitable nest for its eggs, glides them rapidly along into the flesh of the insect which it is destined to destroy, for in a few days the eggs are hatched, and the young ichneumon begin leisurely to feed on the fluids of their victims, until they are transformed into the "chrysalis" state, where they remain until changed into the perfect insect, when they subsist on the juices of plants.

Several other species of this family might be enumerated, but I will content myself with an account only of some of the most striking.

The gallflies are those insects which, in appearance not unlike bees, puncture various plants, and deposit their eggs on leaves or stems, which, by the irritation they occasion, cause excrescences to rise, which, in the case of the common "gall nuts" of commerce, prove so useful in the manufacture of ink. Inside these nuts, which are found in many countries, the insect is hatched, and arrived at maturity, works its way out. One species may be met with on the wild fig-trees and others.

The following are the varieties of the Ichneumonides :

Polycyrtus lucidator; *Ophion sphacelatus*; *Bracon Inquisitor*; *B. Deflagrator*; *Rogas Melanopterus*.

Those pretty-looking insects so well known as "Golden Wasps" (*Chrysidæ*), belong to another tribe of this family. They may constantly be seen here, flying or walking about in sunny places, feeding on flowers. Their brilliant and beautiful colours defy description; one very common species, of a bluish-green, with metallic lustres, is a little larger than the common house-fly, and, like the latter, is seen about windows.

The females of this tribe deposit their eggs in the nests of other Hymenopterous insects, such as the mason-bee, &c., and their larvæ often devour the young of the others.

The second section of hymenopterous insects (the *Aculeata*) comprise those which have no ovipositor, but which are armed with retractile stings, except in the case of the ants, which are, however, furnished with an acid liquid, which answers much the same purpose. This section includes the four following interesting families:

1. The Heterogyna, or Ant family.
2. The Fossores, or Diggers' family.
3. The Diploptera, or Wasp family.
4. The Anthophila, or Bee family.

To begin with the "ants." There is scarcely a tree that is examined but some specimen of the ant may be found. They are the delight of naturalists, and the torment of housekeepers and labourers. It must be admitted that they interfere sadly with the pursuits of gardening, botany, and other agreeable occupations in the fields and forests; for it is barely possible to escape an assault from them when thus engaged. Thus, in traversing a wood, you may discover a beautiful orchideous plant, perched on some branch; but almost invariably alongside of it there is an ant's nest, which stands be-

tween you and your prize. I have never been able to ascertain the exact number of species met with in this colony; they are numerous, however, and I have already seen upwards of twenty different kinds, having about fifteen of the most interesting in my cabinet, but far greater variety obtains. One of the largest that I have seen is the cushi, or big-headed ant (*Formica vel atta Cephalotes*); it is nearly an inch in length, at least the winged insect is, and is of a reddish-brown colour. It is met with chiefly in the country, and resides habitually in the wooded interior, especially in sandy places; but now and then a species of emigration takes place, and thousands of them are to be seen marching in dense columns of extraordinary length. Save to an eye-witness, the discipline they maintain, and the destruction they occasion to their enemies whilst on their campaign, is almost incredible. The insects placed side by side—the numbers on one line varying according to circumstances—follow in long undulating files the path chosen by the commander-in-chief, some veteran and huge cushi, who is assisted, apparently, by aides-de-camp; for numerous ants, conspicuous from their size and bearing, are observed marching at the sides of the columns, apparently for the purpose of keeping the *corps d'armée* well together. Thus drilled and formed, they traverse miles of ground, turning neither to the right hand nor to the left, but wending their way towards the several objects of their pursuit. They enter houses, the inhabitants of which are glad enough to decamp, knowing, however, that the demonstrations of the cushi army are, on the whole, friendly, inasmuch as they clear the rooms of various household nuisances, such as cockroaches, beetles, spiders, &c. But it must be admitted that they also strip useful trees of leaves and buds—such as the vine, and occasion other spoliation in their remorseless march, so as often

to deprive the native settler or traveller of his stock of cassada, grain, or other edible products. In one instance to my knowledge, they appeared only at night, and ravaged a beautiful vine; in the morning the leaves were nearly all stripped off, but not a cushi ant was to be seen; the next night they again carried on the work of destruction, and so on for several nights, until the spoliation was complete. In like manner, they attack larger trees, and carry home to their dwelling-places the products of their plunder. These dwelling-places are conical hillocks constructed of earth, or woody tissue, and are commonly seen in the forests.

There is a species of hairy ant about three-quarters of an inch in length, of a black colour, with yellow stripes in the thorax and abdomen, which is solitary in its habits, and may often be seen in sandy places. This insect (*Mutilla diadema*) I have never seen with wings. They are very cautious and shy in their habits, and sting severely. They build in the ground, for when chased they disappear rapidly in subterranean passages, and I have never met with them in nests elevated above the soil. The male insects are said to alight on flowers, being winged; but they are not so commonly noticed as those without wings. Other species are known, viz.:—*Mutilla larvata*, *Mutilla perspicillaris*, *Mutilla parallela*.

I have in my cabinet two specimens of ants which are by far the largest of any others in this colony. They belong to very different tribes. The largest, including the wings, is upwards of an inch in length, its colour reddish-brown, and the wings yellowish and very powerful. The head is small in comparison, and of a triangular shape, the two upper mandibles crossing one another; the antennæ small and geniculate; the thorax and abdomen are very large, globular, and of equal size, the

latter connected to the first by a slender pedicle. It is called by the lower classes "cushi mamma ant," and is supposed to breed the real cushi. It is often seen with them, and may have some connexion with the others. The other specimen is about an inch long, and has an enormous oval-shaped head, placed vertically, the mandibles forming about one-third of the head, being serrated. The antennæ are very long and geniculate; the legs are also long, especially the hinder pair; the abdomen constricted in its middle, is connected by an irregular, or anvil-shaped, pedicle to the thorax, which is gibbous. I am, unfortunately, unacquainted with the habits of both of these insects, which appear to me not to be generally known.

The famous Monouri Ant, which is used by the Indians as one of the ingredients in preparing the deadly wourali poison, is about three-quarters of an inch long, and of an entire glossy black colour, with a triangular shaped head, arcuated and crossed mandibles, two-lobed thorax, and oblong, many-lobed abdomen. It is solitary in its habits, bites or stings so severely as often to occasion fever, and is used by the natives to test the hardihood and prowess of aspiring youths. It is met with on the ground in woods, and about the roots of trees and dry leaves. The following species of ant are also found here:—*Ponera clavata*; *P. crassinoda*; *P. apicalis*; *Formica atrata*.

Another species is closely allied to the monouri, but is not so much dreaded; indeed, the Indians have a habit of rousing their indolent children by subjecting them to the stings of these ants, which are called Youcou (*Myrmecoda*). It is about the same size and appearance as the monouri, very black and glossy, but the thorax is divided by sutures into three segments. The antennæ in both are large and geniculate, being also

curled at the tips. Their haunts and habits are much the same as the others which they so much resemble.

Another species of black ant (*Cryptocerus*), but which is very different in shape to the two others above-mentioned, is gregarious in its habits. The head is flattened, square, and emarginated; the antennæ small, and fitting into grooves at the side of the head, at the posterior angles of which are two spines; the thorax is very irregularly shaped, and spinous; the abdomen almost globular, and joined to the thorax by two knots. They are of very different sizes, being generally about half an inch long. They are armed with stings, but are generally harmless. I have observed a colony of these ants in the same place for the last six years. This chosen locality is a row of palings close to a house in the country, and although the staves have been painted, and latterly coated with tar, these insects have never abandoned the spot. In dry weather they are to be seen in great numbers running along the ledge which traverses the palings, and have apparently made an excavation or nest in one of the larger corner posts, where a wide orifice leads to their abode. I have repeatedly pushed in small pieces of wood to disturb them, but they very soon removed the offending intruder, and bit at it sharply with their mandibles. They climb the neighbouring trees, and perform expeditions on the ground, but in wet weather very few of them show themselves out of doors. Another allied species is *Cryptocerus pusillus*, whose habits and appearance are similar to the other.

There is a large species of ant called by the negroes "Yager, or hunter ants." I once stumbled upon a host of them, which had taken up their abode in an old box which had long been undisturbed. The commotion in consequence of the opening of the lid and moving of the box was indescribable. They swarmed in all directions,

and endeavoured to escape; most of them had large wings folded horizontally. Some of these ants were nearly an inch long, but in general they were only about half an inch.

The head is black, and of an irregular triangular shape, flat beneath and round above; antennæ long, geniculate, and tapering towards the tips; thorax black; abdomen oblong, and connected to the thorax by a short, irregular pedicle; under surface of body and legs brownish yellow.

There were a great number of young ones in the larva state, in different stages of growth, and wrapped up in mummy-like bags of a yellow colour and oval shape. It was singular to witness the laborious efforts made by the ants to effect the escape of these precious babies and their swaddling clothes. They seized the bags firmly with their mandibles, which are short but strong, and, scarcely able to totter with their load, yet persevered steadily in attempting to escape, and only parted with the unconscious objects of their care with their lives, for some fowls, equally interested in the discovery with myself, soon made their appearance and devoured a great number, irrespective of age and sex. These ants prey greedily on cockroaches, maribuntas, flies, &c.

I am acquainted with about four or five varieties of the red ants found here.

The smallest is the palest, and is very harmless, although very troublesome in attacking sugar and other sweets. It is difficult to keep them out of the cupboards and other places where such stores are preserved; a lump of white sugar will attract hundreds of them, and their tiny bodies are quickly supplied by very minute rations; but, nevertheless, their company is always gladly dispensed with.

The common red ant (*Formica caustica*) is common

about flowers and trees, and if handled its caustic acid sting is very painful, and often raises a blister, even when touched after death. It wages war with the small black ant, and I have often watched columns of the latter, loaded with spoil, retreating slowly and in good order before the advancing impetuosity of the assailing red ant. On one occasion the two armies defiled slowly across my study, and although the black ants were pursued and attacked, they presented such a bold rear-guard as to prevent any great numbers of the red ants from breaking through their lines, which were occupied in carrying away in their mouths some precious burden. In this manner they slowly retired behind a brick column, where I lost sight of the belligerents.

Another species of red ant is similar to the last in most respects, but differs in being of a darker colour and of smaller size in general. They build their nests in holes in the ground, which are easily detected by the peculiar pulverised appearance of the earth immediately around the entrance, which has a sort of slight embankment thrown round it. On examining one of these subterranean passages I was surprised to find several ants larger than the others, and with such huge heads and ferocious mandibles as at once to attract my attention. They were three or four times larger than the others, and if touched with a small stick seized it firmly with their jaws; but if not actually touched, turning about in all directions, with mandibles gaping, ready to seize upon anything. These larger insects are, I believe, generally regarded as neuters, or soldiers and nurses.

A larger species of red ant builds a habitation of finely pulverised earth, which is thrown up as a mound at the roots of trees, against their stems, or among low brushwood in the forests and uncultivated spots. A stick thrust in will cause hundreds to rush out, and their bite



or sting is so severe as often to occasion fever. These and similar species of ant are often made useful to the naturalist by the expedition and certainty with which they dissect dead bodies of animals and birds, leaving nothing in a few weeks, after the corpse has been thrown into their nest, but the bare and polished skeletons. Many of the ants, however, feed on fruit, insects, or their larvæ—in fact, very few things come amiss to them. The ants of this species are larger than the foregoing; the colour is red, but the abdomen is much darker. There are several sizes of them in the same nest, and I have observed the same kind of large-headed ants with powerful mandibles as in the former family.

Another species of red ant (*Formica rufa*) is common in many parts of the interior, building habitations of a conical shape, like hillocks; sometimes these hillocks are met with from 6 feet upwards in height, and more than twice that size at the base. Some travellers* have asserted having met with them 100 feet in circumference at their base, and others† have declared them to be of such enormous size, that they feared to approach them lest they should be devoured. These “ant-hills” are constructed of earth and woody tissue, and although rude and coarse externally, are arranged inside with much skill and foresight against both heat and rain. The apartments are numerous, and suitable for the reception of the several inmates—males, females, neuters, and young ones; the latter are particularly looked after by the neuters, who carry the necessary food for them in their mouths, transport them in fine weather to the sunny side of the hill, carefully protecting them in wet weather, and otherwise defending them against their enemies celestial, terrestrial, or aquatic. The eggs of the females pass

* Stedman's Surinam. Dariom.

† Malouet.

through the larva and pupa stages before they arrive at puberty or "anthood."

Another species of red ant (*Formica sanguinea*), blood-red about the head and thorax, but with a grey-black abdomen, is also met with in the woods, and is one of those species which have been termed "Amazons," or "Legionnaires," by M. Huber, and which, like the driver ants of Africa described by different writers, are in the habit of attacking a species of black ant (*Formica cunicularia*) and invading their premises, actually kidnapping the young ones, and carry them as slaves to their own habitations, where they compel them to work and assist in the rearing of their young. This novel system of the slave-trade is elaborately and elegantly described by various authors.*

There remains now but a few more species of ants which merit attention. The small common black ant (*Formica bispinosa*) is too well known to require any description of it. Their numbers are incredible, for there is scarcely a house, tree, or plant but contains its hundreds and thousands. These are the ants which so particularly attach themselves to the aphides or wood lice, and extract from them their saccharine nutriment. They are never known to sting, and are uniform in size. They live inside crevices of trees and other wood, where they appear to have excavated passages or apartments which they more or less cover over, or protect with a light powdery substance.

I have observed that this species of ant also builds a small nest of a membranous texture, which it suspends to the branches of trees. When first I saw these minute nests I took them for the habitations of some small species of maribunta. On examination, I found, to my

* See Transactions of Entomological Society, 1847.

surprise, that they were inhabited by small black ants. The size of the nest is about one inch square, and is shaped like a keg. On breaking into it I found it constructed of numerous tiers or layers flat in the centre, but divided at the sides into a number of narrow cells or divisions, separated one from the other by membranous bands; in some of which were found small white eggs and oblong larvæ enclosed in cases, and also numerous winged ants, similar in structure to the others, but many had white antennæ, and seemed very feeble, hiding themselves in the cells; I also noticed that some of the ants were much larger than the others. When disturbed, it was curious to observe the common ants seizing the larvæ and eggs, and hurrying away with them to place them in security in another tier, and returning for more eggs and larvæ. The next had a waxy feel and smell.

We now arrive at the consideration of the second family of the hymenopterous insects—the “fossores,” or solitary insects which build mud nests.

Some of these are magnificent in their appearance, and of habits singularly interesting to the naturalist. There are numerous species, about twenty of which I am more or less acquainted with. They are armed with stings, are furnished with wings, and live on the ground. One of the largest insects of this family which I have seen is that which is known here as the King of the Maribuntás. It is about an inch and a half long, the body and head greenish blue, and like, in appearance and lustre, to the polished blade of a steel sword; the wings are bronze colour and lustrous; the antennæ are reddish, except the first joint, which is black. These beautiful insects live chiefly on the ground, their long legs being well adapted for walking. They are fond of sandy and sunny spots, and often fly about flowers. They sting severely. The female lays her eggs in the ground.

These insects are often observed busily engaged in excavating holes in the ground, and are very active.

I have seen five or six different other species similar in colours and general appearance to the one above described, but smaller in size, some being only one inch in length, others only half an inch, and even less. They have all long legs and long antennæ, and are of the same brilliant steel blue colour. Their habits are also similar to the larger species (*Pepsis*), and I have often watched them walking rapidly along sandy spots, or among grass, their antennæ and wings busily at work and rapidly vibrating.

The following are the varieties known:—*Pepsis elevata*; *P. janthina vel ruficornis*; *P. strenua*; *P. equestris*; *P. Thalassina*; *P. Plutus*; *P. amethystina*; *P. vel ammophila abbreviata*.

Perhaps the largest insect of the family of "fossores" is a species of "scolia," which at the first glance looks like a large bee. One specimen in my possession is about two inches long, of a lustrous steel blue colour, with bronze wings; the legs, thorax, and abdomen are hairy. It is often seen flitting about flowers, and at other times basking in sunny, sandy spots, where it burrows in the ground.

There are two or more varieties here, namely: *Scolia variegata*; *S. hæmatogastra*. Another species of fossor looks like a large wasp. It is allied to the tribe "benbex," and is probably a "monedula." It is somewhat less than one inch long; the head, thorax, body, and legs being black with yellow stripes. These insects are seen in the vicinity of flowers, and burrow in sandy places, where the females deposit their eggs and capture small insects, such as flies, for the use of their young, which, with their prey, they leave in closed-up holes in the ground.

A pretty species of fossor is often seen on the ground

in pathways along the side dams of estates. It is either a planiceps or ammophilus. It is barely one inch long; the head is flat, and has a golden crown, in the centre of which are placed the antennæ (black, and curled). The thorax is black, with golden stripes; the abdomen, oval shaped, is connected to the thorax by a slender pedicle, and is partly brown and black; the legs are brownish; their habits are the same as the monedula. The following sphegides are found:—*Sphex latro*, *S. caliginosa*, *S. ichneumonea*, *Sp. fervens*, *Podium giganteum*. Several other species belonging to Latreille's family "Sphegides," are also met with, black about the head and body, but with reddish brown abdomen, but in appearance and habits they so much resemble the others as to render further description unnecessary.

Before leaving the Fossor family I have to notice a very interesting tribe of them, so well known as "Dirt Daubers," from the fact of their building their nests of mud inside houses. There are several species:—*Pelopæus lunatus*; *P. flavipes*; *P. histrio*; *P. vindex*, &c.

Everybody here must have noticed patches of mud, irregular in shape and size, stuck about the walls and ceilings; these are the habitations of the young "dirt daubers." The different species build different kinds of nests. Some are arranged in oblong cells, four or five in number, placed horizontally, and with openings at one end; inside these the female "dirt dauber" lays her eggs, and having placed there a sufficient supply of young spiders, caterpillars, and flies, closes up the orifice of each cell, and leaves the inmates to their fate.

The egg in time becomes hatched, and in the larva state the insect finds a supply of food for its sustenance placed there by the instinct of its parents. The spiders and caterpillars being devoured, and the larva being in time metamorphosed into a complete "dirt dauber,"

breaks down a portion of its muddy cell and goes forth to the world on its own account.

Some build thimble-shaped nests ; others long, narrow cells, striated on the outside; others attach a pedicle of mud to the ceiling, and suspend from it a number of cells enclosed in a homogeneous mass of earth. Those small globular mud-nests so often seen here stuck in rows like marbles on walls and posts, are, I believe, constructed by another species allied to this tribe, and require to be noticed. In colour and size they resemble the common maribunta, being of a yellowish brown, and about one inch long; the mandibles are prolonged and triangular in shape, and the pedicle, which connects the thorax to the abdomen, is very long and tapering. These insects are called "Masons" here, and when their marble-shaped nests are finished, deposit an egg inside along with young spiders or caterpillars, to serve for food for its young, which are gradually developed in the mud-nest.

The third family of the aculeated hymenopterous insects are those whose upper wings, with few exceptions, fold longitudinally, as is well exemplified in the different species of maribuntas which are here so common. They belong to the wasp tribe (*Vespariæ*), and from their habits and skill in architecture are very interesting to naturalists. They sting severely, and the wounded part inflames, and in delicate habits is apt to bring on fever. I have known more than one instance where partial blindness has resulted from the eye being stung.

The most common species (*Polistes*) is about one inch long, of a chestnut brown colour; but the wings and head are lighter coloured, being of a yellow brown. They diffuse an agreeable perfume, something like honey-water. They build about outhouses and other unfrequented buildings, and often in houses, especially the

galleries, where they construct a sort of pasteboard nest. They commence operations by preparing a glutinous mass in their mouths, and having stuck a lump of this on the ceiling or rafter, attach a slender but substantial pedicle, varying in length, but generally about half an inch long, and gradually weave from this a number of long hexagonal cells, which are allowed to remain open at the most depending part. It is curious to watch them preparing these cells; supporting themselves by their delicate legs, and with their bodies hanging downwards they spin out the viscous mass from their mouths, and work it from side to side, adding generally to the borders of the pasteboard membrane until the cell is completed. When first laid on, the material is of a dark grey colour, but as it dries it becomes lighter in colour; by this difference in colour the observer can distinguish the old from the recent work. Preserving their equilibrium by bringing the tail towards the head and forming a kind of semi-circle, they agitate the antennæ, and with these organs strike the mass as it is formed, apparently to test its strength, and possibly to give it the required shape. The work is carried on in a very rapid manner; in the course of a few minutes a cell is constructed, the insect sometimes flying away for a short time as if to procure fresh materials, and when one cell is ready the female (who in general is the architect) attaches a minute oblong egg of a glistening white colour by means of a slender pedicle to the upper part, generally towards the side, and goes on with another cell until the requisite number are completed. These cells remain open for some time, but by-and-by, when the larva is about to emerge from it, the parent supplies it with the necessary food, and closes up the open end by means of a cotton-looking tissue quite different from the rest of the cell. The head of the larva is always towards this end, and in time, when the meta-

morphosis is complete, it easily escapes by biting its way through the barriers of its prison.

Some other species of maribunta build very large nests on branches of trees, of different sizes and shapes; some are flat, others jug-shaped, some pear-shaped, and a few round; but in these instances the hexagonal cells are arranged in several tiers placed one over the other, but not touching, and are enclosed in a thick pasteboard-like envelope, beautifully smooth outside, and approached at one end by a circular orifice. The smallest nests which I have seen were little larger than a dollar, and the largest of this kind were of the size of a soup-plate, or shaped and sized like tea-urns. Some are almost globular, and rest on a flattened base not unlike to a cup and saucer. Some nests are so white and smooth as to receive pen or pencil marks, and present an appearance as if they had been frosted over. One of the largest nests which I ever met with is built by a large black maribunta (*Polistes morio*), whose sting is very painful. The shape of the nest is like a truncated cone; it often measures 18 inches in length, and generally rests against some branch. It is rough, convex, and striated externally, and inside there are numerous tiers of combs or cells. The only way to get these nests without being dangerously assailed by the inmates is to smoke them to death by means of a torch of pitch or turpentine; sometimes the negroes fire into the nests to get rid of these venomous insects. The adult insect is about one inch in length; the colour bluish black, with metallic lustre.

Another species of maribunta is very like the last in size and general appearance, but is of a lighter or steel blue colour, and brown wings; it is in the habit of running about on the ground as if in chase of insects, hence the negroes call them "Jagman" or hunters, and affirm that they build mud-nests in the ground, but I

have never seen such a nest, and should suspect, from the character of the insect, that its habits must approach that of the "*Polistes morio*" above described.

A very pretty urn-shaped nest is constructed by a species of maribunta about eight lines in length; the people here call it the "Frenchman," but why I do not know. The head, wings, and posterior rings of the abdomen are brownish black; the rest of the insect is of a yellow brown. It builds its nests on branches of trees, and the combs or cells often contain a sort of saccharine fluid like honey, which, indeed, is the case with many of the other species.

A small species of maribunta (*Polistes nidulans*), about a quarter of an inch long, and of a glossy black colour, with golden streaks on the thorax and abdomen, may be constantly observed flying about houses and gardens, and builds its beautiful pear-shaped nests on the branches of trees or shrubs; it is very harmless, and does not appear to sting.

A similar species to the *P. nidulans*, but larger, and of an entire black colour, builds long conical nests, which are suspended from branches, and are of a silvery white colour. The cells are likewise arranged in tiers, being concave above and convex below.

The following varieties of the wasp family are found:—*Odynerus nigricornis*, *Brachygastra aurulenta*, *Polistes cærulea*, *P. nigripennis*, *P. infundibuliformis*, *P. rejecta*, *P. pygmæa*, *P. rufina*, *P. Cayennensis*, *P. fasciata*, *P. labiata*, *P. infuscata*, *P. urceolata*, *P. versicolor*, *P. analis* vel *variegata*.

The bees and their allies constitute the fourth and last family of aculeated hymenopterous insects, and are easily recognised by the large size and hairy appearance of the posterior pair of legs, the first joint of the tarsi being remarkably large, dilated, compressed, and often hairy,

for the purpose of enabling the insect to procure and collect the sweet juices of flowers on the pollen of which they generally feed. I have in my collection upwards of twenty different species of this large family, but am aware that a larger number than this obtains in this country, which is a true Paradise for insects of this order. They vary in size from the common bee to others which are about an inch and a half in length.

One of the largest species met with is upwards of an inch long (*Xylocopa violacea*), of an entire glossy black colour, the eyes being yellow, and the wings bronze; the legs are large and hairy. The female is much larger than the male. They are very destructive to wood, the female boring large circular holes which penetrate to some depth, and are divided into several cells by partitions artificially constructed for that purpose of woody tissue and some viscous fluid. In each of these cells she deposits an egg, and leaves a kind of paste as food. They are called carpenter bees, and by the French *Abeilles percebois* and *Menusieres*. They are constantly seen flying about flowers of the fidèle wood,* locust, and other trees.

Several varieties are found here:—*Xylocopa cajennæ*, *X. fimbriata*, *X. æneipennis*, *X. barbata*; *Trachina vel centris denudans*, *Tr. longimana*, *Tr. lineolata*.

Another large species, somewhat similar in size and general appearance to the carpenter bee, but is of an entire yellow or yellow brown colour, and has the appendages of the mouth more prolonged, is allied to the "humble bees" (*Bombus*), and makes a nest in walls or about the roots of trees, where there is a society of them.

Another species of *Bombus*, about one inch long, is black, except the eyes and thorax, which are yellow; the legs and body are very hairy.

* The term fiddle-wood is a corruption of fidèle-wood tree.

A third species is the "Bombus Braziliensis," about three-quarters of an inch long and blackish in colour, with three patches of yellow, two on the thorax and one on the abdomen. *Stictia* vel *Bembex signata*, *B. maculata*, also belong to this family, as well as the following beautiful insects:—*Hemisia clitelligera*, *H. varia*; *Centris dimidiata*, *C. infernalis*, *C. cilipes*; *Epicharis dasypus*; *Exacreta lucida*, *E. aurata*; *Melipona compressipes*, *M. lateralis*, *M. pallens*, *M. pallida*; *Euglossa Surinamensis*, *E. cordata*.

A gentleman once sent me a singular-looking nest, or collection of cells cemented together, which he had found among his orchideous plants; on breaking open one of these cells, I found a large whitish larva inside, and determined to keep the others for future inspection. I put them by, and about three weeks afterwards I broke open another cell, when a full-formed species of black bee issued from its recess and began to buzz about, vibrating its wings in the most rapid manner as if in delight. This species was about an inch in length, of an entirely black colour, and appeared closely allied to the *Euglossa Surinamensis*. The nest consisted of twelve cells of a thimble shape and size placed most irregularly together, and composed apparently of some sort of earth in appearance like pasteboard. The colour of the cells was dark brown outside, but of a light yellowish brown inside, and quite smooth.

There are several species of honey bee which are met with in the woods, in gardens, on plantations, and also in the houses of the inhabitants.

The most common species is about a quarter of an inch long, and is black, with a russet hairy ring round the upper part of the thorax, and with yellow borders to the posterior rings of the abdomen; some are of larger size than the one described. They construct their nests in

hollow trees, and form an irregular homogeneous sort of habitation of thin and very light material, not regularly arranged in cells or combs, but with various sized holes, where they deposit the honey. I have seen them occupy the inside of a living cabbage-tree, which they entered by small circular orifices. They may be handled with impunity, having no sting, and if squeezed leave a pleasant honey-like smell on the fingers. They frequent the neighbourhood of flowers and the sugar-boiling houses, where they may be seen in thousands in sugar and molasses casks. These bees have no queen that I have been able to discover, but they occasionally swarm and emigrate. The inhabitants often place wooden boxes, perforated with small holes, outside their windows, or in the galleries, and the bees find these convenient places of resort, but in the end are robbed of their honey for their pains.

I am acquainted with three varieties of this kind of honey-bee, and these all build in the wild state the same kind of nests, which consists of two portions, one intended for the storing of the honey, made up, as above described, of thimble-like recesses, and the other composed of tiers of cells like the maribunta nests, where the bees lay their eggs and hatch their young. These bees are attacked by many other insects, but especially by a small species of *vespa*, which may be seen endeavouring to steal into the haunts of the industrious bees, but are gallantly repulsed.

TENTH ORDER.—*Lepidoptera*.

The tenth order of insects comprises the interesting family of butterflies (*Lepidoptera*), of which we have a considerable variety in this colony. Great numbers are collected annually, and are carried away by strangers and others quitting these shores; but until Professor Erich-

son's classification of them appeared,* I had never been fortunate enough to procure a list of the numerous species found here, and my own collection was too limited to enable me to do more than form a limited acquaintance with some of the most common. Butterflies are indigenous to all parts of the colony, and are met with all the year round. I have seen them crossing the Demerara river where it was fully a mile in width during a high wind, against which they flew. They are generally seen in greatest numbers in the dry months, but numerous species fly about in wet weather; they are seen in both town and country, but it is chiefly in wooded places that great numbers abound. I have repeatedly noticed butterflies flying about after dark, and some species frequently find their way into the sitting-rooms of the inhabitants where a bright light is burning; and as for moths, with whom this habit is natural, it is incredible, except to a resident, to believe in the numbers which infest the apartments after sunset. They flutter about the eyes and ears, rest on the head and dress, tumble into drinking-cups, and generally terminate a night's diversion by being scorched against the lamp, where a heap of slain is generally brushed away every morning.

It would be fruitless for me to attempt anything like a detailed notice of the numerous butterflies and moths met with in this colony; their habits, general appearance, and mode of life are sufficiently known.† With regard to their larva, or caterpillar state, I have only been able to notice a few facts, for it is not often, save with a few common species, that the opportunity is afforded of procuring specimens in a living state, or of discovering the caterpillars from which so many of these beautiful butter-

* *Reisen in British Guiana.*

† Madame Merlian has given an admirable account of the numerous Lepidoptera of a neighbouring colony.

flies originate. Most of the caterpillars feed on the leaves of plants; one splendid species, of a black colour with yellow rings, is often found on the Franchipan-tree (*Plumiera alba*), the leaves of which it rapidly destroys.

Another caterpillar, about three inches long and half an inch in diameter, of a pale green colour, with orange yellow and black bands on its body, is met with on the "Duranta ellisia" when the leaves are plentiful.

Some caterpillars form societies, and live under their neatly-constructed tents; several construct sheaths, either portable or fixed, in which they fix themselves; others take up their abode in the parenchyma of leaves, where they go through their metamorphosis; most of them spin cocoons, in which they enclose themselves on branches of trees, beams, corners of rooms, grass, and other things; some, at the moment of their change from the chrysalis to the pupa state, eject a reddish-looking fluid, or sort of meconium, which softens or breaks the extremity of the cocoon to facilitate their exit. Several caterpillars are very hairy, others are protected by such sharp spines or prickles as to render it painful to touch them, and occasionally those with spines sting very severely.

According to the account given of them by Professor Erichson, the following varieties of Lepidoptera occur here:

<i>Family Papilionides.</i>		
Papilio	<i>æneas</i> —common to the whole country	Papilio <i>philea</i> vel <i>callidryas</i> <i>philea</i> coasts
"	<i>ascanius</i> "	" <i>argante</i> vel <i>callidryas</i> "
"	<i>protesilans</i> "	" <i>Marcellina</i> vel <i>callidryas</i> "
"	<i>sinon</i> "	" <i>marcellina</i> Savannahs
"	<i>crostratus</i> "	" <i>elatheia</i> "
"	<i>zetes</i> "	" <i>albula</i> "
"	<i>sesostris</i> "	" <i>amphinome</i> vel <i>ageronia</i> "
"	<i>eurymedes</i> "	" <i>amphinome</i> "
"	<i>arbates</i> "	" <i>feronia</i> vel <i>ageronia</i> "
"	<i>ariarathus</i> —Savannah & woods	" <i>feronia</i> "
"	<i>polydamas</i> "	" <i>archippus</i> vel <i>danais</i> "
"	<i>phronima</i> "	" <i>archippus</i> "
"	<i>demophile</i> "	" <i>eresimus</i> vel <i>danais</i> "
"	<i>lycymnia</i> "	" <i>eresimus</i> "

Pieris evadne		Hetera dyndimene	woods
Heliconia erato		" astyoche	"
" cynisca		" lena	"
" sylvana		" nereis	"
" flora		" piera	"
" diaphana		Euptychia lysidice	Savannahs
" antiocha		" aranea	"
" sara		" herse	"
" clytia		" ocyrrhoe	"
" metharme		" libye	"
" astydamia		" hermes	"
" melpomene		" ocypete	"
" elimæa		" myncea	"
" eucoma		" penelope	"
Melinæa mopsa		Didonis thadana	
Mechanitis polymnia		Cystineura cana	
" ninonia		Nerias phlegia	
Ceratinia nise		" euterpe	
" melanida		" calliope	
Sais rosalia		Desmozona caricæ	
Thyridia psidii		" cachrys	
Hymenitis flora		Nymula emilius	
Acræa thalia		Caria trochilus	
Semelia libya		Nymphidion anius	
Agraulis dido		" nilus	
" phærusa		Emesis epaphus	
" julia		" monostigma	
" vanillæ		Diopthalma eumene	
Argynnis claudia		" thymetus	
Melitæa liriopæ		Erycina melibœus	
Vanessa genoveva		" lysippus	
Anartia amalthæa		Helicopsis cupido	
" iatrophæ		" guidus	
Marius vel marpesia thetis		Eurybia nicæus	
Timetes chiron		" halimede	
" orsilochus		Thecla marsyas	
Gynœcia dirce		" lineus	
Myscelia medea		" acmon	
Cybdelis mygdonia		" beon	
" maria		Eudamus simplicius—Savannahs	
" liria		" catillus	"
Epicallia ancæa		" proteus	"
Catagramma condomanus		" cœlus	"
" pyramus		Tamyris zeuleucus	"
" clymena		" acastus	"
Heterochroa cythera		" mænus	"
Aganisthros orion		" amiatus	"
Megistanis cadmus		" aulestes	"
Helicodes hippona		" apastus	"
Morpho menelaus	river banks	" exadeus	"
" helenor	woods	" criniscus	"
" achilles	"	" salius	"
Pavonia idomeneus	"	" virbius	"
" eurylochus	"	Hesperia clavus	
" ilioneus	"	Syrichthus arsalte	
" teucer	"	" orcus	
Brassolis sophoræ	coasts	" domicella	
Satyrus laches	woods	" leucodesma	
" rebecca	"	" festiva	
Antirrhæa philoctetes	"	Thanaos obscurus	

Eantis thraso
 Castnia licas
 " syphax

Family Sphingides.

Sphinx rustica woods and forests
 " carolina " "
 " ello " "
 Philampelos satellitia " "
 Metopsilus tersa
 Macroglossa titan

Family Zygnæides.

Glaucopsis vel sphinx melanthus—woods
 " vel " meones
 " vel " eone
 " vel " helymus
 " vel " maia
 " vel " caudata
 " vel " cepheus
 " vel " glauca
 " vel " sylvius
 " vel " archias
 " vel " mysis

Euprepia bella
 " flaveolata

Family Bombyces.

Liparis diaphana
 Gastropacha amilia
 Ceratocampa imperialis
 Aglia erythrinæ

Family Noctua.

Calpe vel phalena soror
 Erebus vel " strix
 " vel " zenobia
 " vel " odora
 " vel " occidua
 " vel " corisandra

Family Nyctalideæ.

Urania leibus

Family Pyralides.

Palpita persipalis

ELEVENTH ORDER.—*The Rhipiptera.*

In the eleventh order of insects, the Rhipiptera, which is a small one, there are so few species here as to render it unnecessary to devote any space to its consideration; this order was established by Mr. Kirby, under the name of "Strepsiptera" (twisted wings), and includes insects somewhat remarkable for their anomalous forms and irregular habits. Thus, in their larvæ state, many of them live between the abdominal scales of several species of wasps, such as the maribunta (*Polistes*). They are a sort of "Æstri" to other insects, and some species undergo the metamorphosis from caterpillars to a perfect insect in the abdomen of the "Bombi."

TWELFTH ORDER.—*Diptera.*

I have now only to consider the twelfth, or last order of insects, the Diptera, or those with only two wings, with "halteres," a sort of substitute for the second pair

of wings—absent in such insects as mosquitoes and flies which constitute this order.

The insects of this order are inconceivably tormenting to both “man and beast,” for, owing to the irritation occasioned by the flies, and the pain and inflammation excited by mosquito bites, “new comers,” or persons lately from a cold climate, and in the possession of rich blood, are severely annoyed, while animals of various kinds are equally tormented by their assaults. With regard to mosquitoes (*Culex vel sarcopsylla penetrans*), they unfortunately abound throughout the colony, but are less numerous and annoying in Georgetown than in the country districts, some parts of which, about Mahaica and Berbice especially, are notorious for the prevalence of these tropical plagues; indeed, so great is the annoyance from them that veils are often worn by travellers while riding or driving; they appear at times literally to cloud the air, and towards night countless numbers of them issue suddenly upon the unprotected parts of the body, and commence their unpleasant operations in the way of blood-letting. They swarm upon the head, face, hands, and legs, and may be crushed in hundreds by the slightest motion. They accompany their attack with a loud buzzing noise, and, when numerous, may be positively felt to strike against the person.

Fortunately for society, it is only in some places and at particular seasons that they prevail to the extent alluded to. Nor are they even so numerous here as they have been noticed by Humboldt,* who asserts that in some places a cubic foot of air, to the height of three or four toises, is often peopled by a million of winged insects.†

* Humboldt's Personal Narrative.

† A cubic foot contains 2,985,984 cubic lines, and the largest species of the culex tribe is 1.8 line long from the head to the extremity of the corselet, without reckoning the legs. The generality, however, are not half that size.

There are a great variety of mosquitoes met with in this colony; I have counted six or seven kinds, but I believe them to be far more numerous, and have heard it mentioned by good authority that there are at least sixteen different kinds.

The varieties I have seen were as follows :

1. The body and legs marked black and white alternately.

2. Marked like the first, but with feathery appendages on the head.

3. Grey brown in colour, with feathery tufts on the head.

4. Greyish brown, but without the feathery appendages.

5. Greyish brown, and with the feathery tufts curved.

6. A species of green mosquito, often seen in thousands after drought. They are of small size. Are these latter the young of other species ?

The largest species here is called the "Gallon Nipper" (*Culex pulicaris*). It is surprising with what greediness and severity it punctures the flesh.

After all, mosquitoes cannot be said to bite; the instrument of attack used is a sort of stylet, through which the blood is sucked up into the stomach. It is astonishing to what size the stomach distends after feeding; the red blood within can be distinctly seen through the transparent parietes of the body. If preserved and watched in that state the size gradually diminishes, and after about two days' abstinence the mosquito dies, apparently from starvation. When gorged with blood it is very lazy, and flies heavily if forced to move. The female mosquito deposits her eggs in water, where small strings of them may occasionally be noticed floating about; after a time these eggs are hatched, and the larva frisks and gambols about in the water. In this state it is an ugly looking thing; a slender taper body, with a large dragon-like head, which is gene-

rally held downwards. They swim with great velocity, and dive from time to time, but quickly return to the surface to breathe. In the stagnant water of trenches, ponds, and casks, they are to be seen in every stage of their metamorphosis. It is a subject of remark that mosquitoes injure more severely at certain times than at others, and that the males are not so injurious in their effects as the females. The minute wounds inflicted occasion great local inflammation in subjects predisposed to their attacks, and often induce troublesome ulcers, the scars of which remain for years, but it is equally remarkable that the old inhabitants and negroes rarely suffer from the punctures of these insects. The mosquito is analogous to the gnat (*Culex pipiens*) of Europe; on the Spanish Main the term mosquito (a little fly) is applied to the sand-flies, which belong to the genus "simulium;" while the insect called in the English colonies "mosquito," is there known as the zancudo, signifying "long-leg." The sand-fly (*Simulium pertinax*) is also a very troublesome insect, which is found on the coasts. It occasions severe pain, and much local irritation. It is so small as almost to defy detection, and there are several varieties, whose habits and general appearance are alike.

Diptera—Flies.

With regard to the other varieties of dipterous insects, such as the horse-fly, the common fly, and their allies, they are found in particular localities and seasons in great numbers. The larger species, such as the "tabani," prove extremely troublesome to horses, cows, and indeed to all cattle; they pierce the skins of these animals to gorge themselves with their blood, and some varieties, as the "æstri," deposit their eggs by means of a squamous ovipositor, composed of small tubes fitted one within the other, in the mucous and cutaneous surfaces, where the

larvæ are developed, and often occasion tumours or troublesome ulcers. Other varieties, belonging to the family "muscariaë," infest the sores of animals, as well as of human beings; they attack meat and food of all kinds, and very often lay their eggs there, much to the disgust and annoyance of housekeepers; they are often noticed buzzing about the dying and others but feebly alive, and seem to possess an instinctive knowledge of approaching dissolution. They swarm in thousands on the bodies of the dead, and in neglected graveyards consume rapidly the putrefying and mouldering corpses exposed to their terrible, but perhaps useful, assaults. Some species frequent the "boiling-houses" of estates, and crowd the sugar and molasses casks; whilst others confine themselves to the houses and storerooms of the inhabitants.

The following varieties are met with:

Tabanus mexicanus
 " *occidentalis*
 " *tibialis*
Diabasis scutellata
Lepiselaga lepidota
Chrysops tristis
 " *immaculata*

Family Asilici.

Laphryia fascipennis
 " *clavipes*
Asilus barbatus
 " *nigritarsis*
 " *striola*

Family Bombylii.

Anthrax erythrocephala
 " *hela*

Family Stratiomydæ.

Hermetia illucens
Cyphomia cyanea

Family Syrphicæ.

Volucella obesa
Eristalis vinetorum
 " *fasciatus*

Family Muscariaë.

Tachina analis
Dexia melaleuca
Sarcophaga chrysostoma
Lucilia macellaria
 " *putrida*
Ochromyia bicolor
Herinea violacea
Calobota erythrocephala
 " *insignis*
 " *annulata.*

Infusoria.

The wonderful minute animals constituting the Infusoria present a very interesting subject of research to those who are fond of using the microscope. These

singular creatures, which have only lately been brought within the observing powers of man, are abundantly found both in the fossil and living state in the waters and soils of this colony. I commenced an investigation of this subject in 1850 and 1851, and was not then aware that the learned Professor Ehrenberg had minutely examined different specimens of earth procured from the colony, and had found a variety of infusoria, a table of which is published in R. Schomburgk's "Reisen in British Guiana," and from which I have compiled the list submitted. The soil which I examined was principally from Georgetown and the neighbouring estates, viz., Haagsbosche, Petershall, Rome and Houstoun, Kitty, Enmore, and occasionally from some places in Essequibo and the interior, and from the borings of artesian wells. The species which I found most common were the "Navicula," "Closterium," and "Lithostylidium," in the fossil state in fine soil; whilst in the fresh waters the "Epiphyxis," the "Navicula," the "Closterium," the "Ophrydium," the "Vorticella," the "Colacium," the "Doxococcus," and many others, were met with. They are only, I believe, to be found in the alluvial lands, and in the waters of the colony. They give rise to one kind of phosphorescence of the sea, though in themselves invisible. They form indestructible earths, stone, and rocky masses by the accumulation of their siliceous shells or coverings. The invisible infusoria are sometimes hurtful by deteriorating water, and may occasion unpleasant odours. Can it be possible that they vitiate the atmosphere and contribute to the development of malaria and other tropical maladies?

Specimens of Infusoria met with in British Guiana, arranged by Professor Ehrenberg, and published in R. Schomburgk's "Reisen in British Guiana:"

POLYGASTRICA.	WHERE FOUND.
<i>Achnanthes brevipea</i>	Demerara
<i>Actinocyclus biseprenarius</i>	Haiama
<i>Actinoptychus biternarius</i>	"
" <i>senarius</i>	"
<i>Arcella ecornis</i>	Pirara
" <i>areolata</i>	"
<i>Bacillaria vulgaris</i>	Savannah mould
<i>Biddulphia pulchella</i>	"
<i>Coscinodiscus eccentricus</i>	Demerara islands
" <i>disciger</i>	Haiama
" <i>radiatus</i>	Arabian coast
" <i>subtilis</i>	Haiama
<i>Cocconeis scutellum</i>	"
<i>Dictyocha epiodon</i>	Arabian coast
<i>Dictyopyxis cruciata</i>	Haiama
<i>Diffugia areolata</i>	Pirara
<i>Desmogonium guianense</i>	Woodrift Demerara
<i>Diploneis didyma</i>	Demerara
<i>Discoplea</i>	Pirara
<i>Eunotia amphioxys</i>	Arabian coast
" <i>biceps</i>	Tapacuma
" <i>formica</i>	"
" <i>crocodilus</i>	Tapacuma and Pirara
" <i>monodon</i>	"
" <i>pileus</i>	"
" <i>tridentula</i>	Tapacuma
<i>Fragillaria glabra</i>	Pirara and Arabian coast
" <i>rhabdosoma</i>	"
<i>Gallionella crenulata</i>	Demerara and Essequibo
" <i>granulata</i>	Pirara
" <i>distans</i>	"
" <i>sulcata</i>	Haiama
<i>Gloeonema sigmoides</i>	"
<i>Glomphonema margaritaceum</i> ...	Pirara
<i>Himantidium arcus</i>	Pirara and Tapacuma
" <i>papilio</i>	Demerara
" <i>parallelum</i>	Pirara
" <i>zygodon</i>	"
<i>Navicula affinis</i>	Pirara and Sandhills
" <i>amphioxys</i>	Essequibo
" <i>amphisphenia</i>	Pirara
" <i>diaphana</i>	"
" <i>dilatata</i>	"
" <i>fulva</i>	"
" <i>gibba</i>	"
" <i>lineolata</i>	"
" <i>demerara</i>	Tapacuma
" <i>rostrata</i>	"
" <i>schomburgkorum</i>	Pirara
" <i>sigma</i>	"
<i>Pinnularia dicephala</i>	Pirara and Sandhills
" <i>inequalis</i>	Pirara
" <i>macilenta</i>	"
" <i>borealis</i>	Savannah mould
" <i>nobilis</i>	Essequibo
" <i>schomburgkii</i>	Haiama
" <i>striatula</i>	"
" <i>viridis</i>	Pirara

POLYGASTRICA.	WHERE FOUND.
Stauroptera cardinalis	Essequibo
Surirella craticula	"
" bifrons	Pirara
" constricta.....	"
Synedra ulna	Essequibo
Trachelomonas volvocina	Pirara
CLASS—PHYTOLITHARIA.	
Amphidiscus obtusus.....	Demerara
" rotella	Bartica grove
Lithasteriscus radiatus	Haiama
" tuberculatus	Pirara, &c.
Lithosphaera osculata	Demerara and Essequibo
Lithodontium bursa	Pirara
" furcatum.....	"
" nasutum	"
" platydon	Savannah mould
" rostratum	Pirara
Lithostylidium amphiodon	Arabian coast; A. Regina
" angulosum	"
" articulatum	Pirara
" clepsammidium... ..	Pirara and Arabian coast
" clavatum	"
" crenulatum	Essequibo and Cumaha
" curvatum	"
" obliquum	"
" pes	"
" polyedrum	Pirara
" proboscis	"
" quadratum.....	Pirara and Barina
" rude	"
" sceptrum	"
" semicircularis.....	Cumaha
" serra	Pirara
" spiriferum	"
" trabecula	Essequibo coast
Spongolithis acicularis	Demerara and Essequibo
" amphicephala	Pirara
" aspera	Demerara and Essequibo
" caput serpentis.....	"
" cenocephala	" Pirara
" clavus	Essequibo coast
" fistulosa.....	Demerara and Essequibo
" foraminosa	Haiama
" fustis	"
" inflexa	"
" obtusa	" Essequibo

SECOND GREAT DIVISION OF THE ANIMAL KINGDOM.

Animalia mollusca—Mollusks.

AFTER having described the animals belonging to the first division of the animal kingdom, or those with vertebræ, I have now to consider those which have neither an articulated skeleton nor a vertebral canal. These animals, which are known as mollusks (*mollusca*), include the varieties of shells and their inhabitants so largely represented in the West Indian islands and many other parts of the world, but which are unaccountably scarce in this colony. Their structure, general appearance, and habits are too well known to require description; they have been divided into six classes:

1. Cephalopoda.
2. Pteropoda.
3. Gasteropoda.
4. Acephala.
5. Brachiopoda.
6. Cirrhopoda.

Of the first class, Cephalopoda, the singular animal, so well known as the Portuguese man-of-war, called by the ancients *Nautilus* and *Pompilus*, and by the moderns *Argonauta argo*, is almost the only representative. It is frequently seen with its gaudy crimson sail floating on the tranquil waters of the river Demerara, but is seldom

troubled, owing to the unpleasant sensation it occasions when seized by its long tendril-like limbs. These substitutes for feet enable it, however, to cling to objects for protection and repose.

Of the second class, or Pteropoda, or mollusks, which swim in the ocean, but have no feet with which to attach themselves to any object, there are not, I believe, any species known here.

Of the third class, or Gasteropoda, there are a few varieties which require notice. The common slug is a good instance of this class, but it is scarcely or ever seen in Guiana. In the woods, mountains, and plains of the interior, specimens of Gasteropoda are frequently found, but in general the shell only is obtained; in the trenches and fields of plantations they are not uncommonly met with alive. The following are the species found and described:

CLASS III.—*Gasteropoda*. ORDER—*Pulmonata*.
FAMILY—*Helicææ*.

Only five species of this family have been found, viz.:

<i>Bulimus hæmastomus</i> —Takutu woods		<i>Bulimus galtina sultana</i> — woods, on leaves
„ <i>cinnamoneo lineatus</i> —woods and river banks		<i>undatus</i> —woods, on leaves
„ <i>lita</i> —woods, on leaves		

ORDER—*Pectinibranchiata*.

Of the family *Ampullariaceæ*, the most common are the following; many of them when picked up have a very disagreeable and fœtid odour:

<i>Ampullaria urceus</i> —Barima waters		<i>Ampullaria guianensis</i> — Savannah swamps
„ <i>zonata</i> —Savannah swamps		„ <i>orinoccensis</i> —Pomeroon waters
„ <i>papyracea</i> —Savannah do.		
„ <i>sinamarina</i> —(rare)—river Corentyne		

Belonging to the family *Melania* are the following species :

Melania atra—rocks in flowing waters, as rivers Essequibo and Mazaruni
 " *brevior* " " "
 " *chloris* " " "

FAMILY—*Buccinoida*. GENUS—*Marginella*.

<i>Marginella cœrulescens</i> — woods and streams	<i>Fusus morio</i>
<i>Buccinum</i> —woods and streams	<i>Pyrula melongena</i>
<i>Purpura cataracta</i>	<i>Nucula rostrata</i>
<i>Murex</i>	<i>Solen caribbæus</i>
	<i>Turbinella?</i>

The next species belongs to the family of *Neritina* ; it is a pretty-looking little shell, and is rather common :

Neritina zebra—sand-banks, rivers Demerara and Essequibo

CLASS IV.—*Acephala*.

As implied by the name, the Mollusks under this class have no apparent head ; there are but a few varieties here, and those but rarely seen :

Unio hylca—in waters about Takutu
Monocondylea parchappii—in waters about Takutu
Hyria syrmatophora—in the neighbourhood of Awaricuru
 " *corrugata* " "
 " *humilis* " "
Castalia ambigua—Takutu waters
Anodonta ensiformis " "
Teredo navalis—found on submerged piles and ships' bottoms, to which it is very destructive

CLASS V.—*Branchiopoda*.

All the Branchiopoda are invested with bivalve shells, which are fixed and immovable ; the species are rare in this colony :

Terebratula

CLASS VI.—*Cirrhopoda*.

The animals included under this class are small, and are found fixed to rocks, piles of wood, ships' bottoms, to which some species, as the barnacles (*Lepas anatifera*), prove very destructive. Barnacles are very common here about the submerged timbers of stellings, bridges, and boats; it is astonishing sometimes to observe their numbers, and the havoc which they occasion to piles and rafters :

Lepas anatifera—submerged timbers, rocks, and other substances.

THIRD GREAT DIVISION OF THE ANIMAL KINGDOM.

Animalia articulata—Four classes.

1. Class Annelides—Worms.
2. Class Crustacea—Crabs.
3. Class Arachnides—Spiders.
4. Class Insecta—Insects.

The classes comprising this division of the animal kingdom are sufficiently known to render any description of their structure and functions necessary. I shall, therefore, at once proceed to consider the species of each class met with in this colony.

CLASS I.—*Annelides*—Worms.

The class of worms has been divided into three orders, without including those found inside the bodies of man and animals, which are termed entozoa. There is no necessity to enter upon any lengthened notice of this class or its minor orders. The common earthworm (*Lumbricus terrestris*) is common enough in soils, especially in wet weather, when they approach the surface, and are greedily sought after by pigs and other animals who prey upon them, and root up the ground destructively for that purpose. The leech belongs to this class, but except a large common kind, not the medicinal leech (*Hirudo medicinalis*), none are found.

CLASS II.—*Crustacea.*

The animals belonging to the second class, Crustacea, are frequent in numbers but not in variety in Guiana. The mud flats on the coasts and on the banks of the rivers abound with innumerable crabs, which at low water may be seen in thousands issuing from, or retreating to their holes. By boring cavities on the embankments of estates they frequently occasion much mischief by undermining the earth, and allowing the water to ooze through. Some species inhabit the fresh waters; and both crabs and prawns are constantly to be found in the canals and trenches of many estates. It is curious to observe their habits in the numerous mud flats throughout the colony.

The largest species of crab is the Bonoori, which is found along the coasts and rivers. It is a species of *Gecarcinus*. It is of a bluish colour above and brown underneath, and is much esteemed for the table.

But the crab which is most commonly caught and sold for eating is the *Cancer uca una*, which is found in mud flats all over the colony. It is of a reddish colour, and the legs are hairy; at certain seasons of the year they are not considered good to eat.

A very common kind of crab is to be found in thousands along the mud flats about Georgetown. They are named the calling crabs (*Cancer vel gelasinus vocans*), from the peculiar habit they have of waving the large claw, as if making an appellative gesture; they vary much in size, and the older ones are remarkable for having one of the claws much larger than the other; sometimes it is the right, at other times the left claw which outgrows the other in size, and which is used for excavating holes in which to burrow. At low water these crabs may be seen in great numbers on the mud flats of the river, with their large claws erect, or slowly waved, like the human hand;

at times they make a loud, clacking noise with these claws; these crabs are not eaten except by the coolies and are called by the creoles Madeira crabs.

A species of crab allied to the above is the boatman crab (*Gelasinus marionis*). In this crab one claw is generally much larger than the other; the legs are of a reddish colour, and the body of a rhomboid form, and dark in hue. It is found in mud flats, and if brayed in a mortar and stewed, is good to eat.

The smallest kind of crab here is the Pinnoteres, which in thousands may be seen crawling along mud flats, about bridges and stellings, and in graveyards and swampy places. They vary in size from one half to one inch in length.

A remarkable species of crab is called here Jumbi, or Soldier Crab (*Grapsus cruentatus*). It is met with about the stellings and bridges, and also in trenches. It is of yellow colour underneath; but the back and legs are of a bright red colour, mottled black, yellow, and green; its legs are hairy. These crabs are very shy, and conceal themselves under stones and other substances, and always walk sideways. They have been known to climb trees, and are very active: they are not eaten—indeed, the flesh is considered poisonous, hence the name jumbi crab.

Other varieties of land crab are known, but I have never been able to see specimens of them, nor are they described in books. The natives call one species the buck crab. It is very like the bonoori, and is perhaps a species of *gecarcinus*. It has a bluish back, and the legs are of a whitish hue, tinged with violet.

Another kind is named the swamp crab; it is of an orange colour, with reddish legs, and is found in swamps about the Essequebo. Of the water crabs, or those which swim well, and have flat fins to their legs, the most in-

teresting is that called here the sherigo crab (*Portunus vel Thelpusia*). It is caught in the trenches and canals, and pinches severely with its claws ; it is a great scavenger, and feeds on almost everything. The colour varies ; I have seen them yellow, reddish, and of a greenish hue, sometimes almost white. The back is glabrous, and curiously marked with deeply impressed lines, which have a singular resemblance to the bust and body of a female, so much so that native artists, by the addition of a head and feet, touched up with a little paint, complete in a few moments a capital female figure on the top of the shell.

The prawn and shrimp are both found here in the rivers as far as the salt water extends.

The prawn (*Palæmon serratus*) attains to the size of four or five inches, and is of a pale steel blue colour, with greenish-coloured tail and legs. The shrimp (*Crangon vulgaris*) and another species of prawn are likewise found, and are much esteemed for the table.

CLASS III.—*Arachnides*—Spiders.

The spiders (*Arachnides*) belong to the third class of articulata, and are too well known to require any description of their appearance. They abound in this country, and may be found in every house, almost on every tree, and present a never-failing field of observation for the naturalist. Some are very small and look like minute crabs, and are found on plants and leaves ; others are very large, and hide themselves among linen, books, and unfrequented buildings ; the largest or crab spiders are very fierce, and will attack small vertebrated animals, such as humming-birds, pigeons, and chickens. The eyes of spiders are very curious organs ; independent of their number and the singular manner in which they are arranged on the

head in the different varieties, they offer an interesting subject of research. The females lay a great number of eggs, which are hatched in a round kind of nest of a white cotton-like appearance, which they carry about with them, and only give up in the moment of extreme danger. I have opened many of these nests, and have counted several hundreds of tiny spiders packed closely together, yet nimble and lively when liberated from this receptacle. Spiders are great enemies to cockroaches, dragon flies, and insects. The bird spider (*Mygale avicularia*) is about an inch and a half long, extremely hairy, and of a blackish colour; the tips of the feet and palpi, and the inferior pili of the mouth being of a reddish hue; the bite is severe. Another large species is called the brown tarantula (*Mygale fasciata*). The black tarantula (*Cteniza nidulans*) is also of large size, and is found in woods and on the ground, the bites of these tarantulas or "Araignéés-crabes," as they are called by the French colonists, is reputed to be dangerous, and frequently occasion much irritation and fever. The large spotted spider (*Epura clavipes*) has two eyes approximated in pairs on each side; while the remaining four are arranged in a quadrilateral form in the middle.

Another species of crab spider is the *Acrosoma spinosa* vel *gastracantha aculeata*. It is found on branches of trees in woods; as is likewise a species of *Nephila* and *Argyopes argentata*. These are all insects which spin webs to entrap their prey.

There are several others whose habits are very curious to observe. One species suspends itself by a long thread from ceilings of rooms and galleries, and is thus swayed backwards and forwards by the breeze until it seizes its victim, some unsuspecting fly or other small insect; if alarmed or approached, it climbs nimbly up its rocking ladder, and rolls up the thread as it ascends. Others are

known as hunting-spiders; they are in general small, and do not appear to spin. They frequent windows, tables, and plants, in search of their prey, which when seen is sprung upon in an instant, just as the jaguar pounces upon a deer. This must be a species of the Salticus.

A sedentary spider, and one that is very commonly seen to spin its web in the corners of dark rooms, is allied to *Clubiona punctata*; it is of a yellowish brown colour, spotted black on the legs; the eyes are eight in number, arranged in two equal rows of four each. Allied to this species is another kind of small spider, *Thomisus*, called by many crab spider. Other small species appear to belong to *Lycosa*, *Theridion*, *Dolomedes*; but this is merely conjecture on my part, for I have never seen them described.

The long-legged spider occasionally seen flitting about windows is probably an Opilid. It is a kind of daddy long-legs, and thinks nothing of the loss of one or more of its spindle shanks, but escapes without difficulty. There are also the vagabond spiders, the water spiders, and others met with on plants, on the ground, and in streams, but beyond watching their movements I have not been able to become acquainted with them.

The scorpion spider (*Phrynus reniformis*) is a singular-looking animal; the two anterior tarsi are very long and slender, and resemble setaceous antennæ.

Of the true scorpions there are several varieties here, some of which are reputed to inflict dangerous, if not fatal, stings. I heard of an instance lately where a black child about ten years old was wounded by the Bush scorpion as it is called (*Scorpio*), while removing some clothes from the ground in Essequibo; the arm swelled rapidly, and although the girl was previously healthy, she died within twenty-four hours of the accident. The species known are *Tityus*, *Thelyphonus*, *Scorpio* (several species).

Of the pseudo scorpions there are a few specimens here, which are found among books and papers, on rocks, trees, and even animals. Of the true scorpions there are likewise other species, which are frequently termed Tarantulas; indeed, this expression is commonly applied to any large hairy kind of spider, and has given rise to much confusion.

The *Chelifer americanus* or *cancroides* is frequently seen in collections of old books and manuscripts which have been long neglected; they prey on the small insects which destroy the paper, although thought by many to be the cause of the mischief themselves.

The other species are *Amblyomma ovale* and *Amblyomma myrmecophaga*; the latter so called from being found on the large ant-eater.

FISHES.

CLASS IV.—*Pisces*.

1ST DIVISION: 1ST ORDER. ACANTHOPTERYGIANS.—1ST FAMILY. SNOOK, JEW FISH, SNAPPERS—2ND FAMILY. GROOPERS—3RD FAMILY. BASHAWS; OTHER SPECIES—5TH FAMILY. MENOID FISH, SHAD, SWORD FISH, PILOT FISH—11TH FAMILY. MULLETS—12TH FAMILY. GOBOID FISH—13TH FAMILY. PACOOMA—14TH FAMILY. LABROID FISH (VARIETIES OF)—2ND ORDER. ABDOMINAL MALACOPTERYGIANS—2ND FAMILY. CARP FAMILY, SALMON CARP (VARIETIES OF), FOUR EYES, GAR FISH—3RD FAMILY. SILURIDÆ (VARIETIES OF), HASSAR, DORAS, ARIUS, PIMELODUS, PLATYSTOMA, CAT FISH, LORICARIÆ, DAWALLA, LAU LAU, GILBAGRE—4TH FAMILY. SALMON FISH, PACUS, CARTABAC, DOG FISH, CHALCEUS, PIRAIS, &c. &c.—5TH FAMILY. HERRING FAMILY—3RD ORDER. SUBBRACHIAN MALACOPTERYGIANS, FLOUNDERS—4TH ORDER. APODAL MALACOPTERYGIANS—EELS, ELECTRIC EEL—5TH ORDER. SOPHOBRANCHI—6TH ORDER. PLECTOGNATHI. 2ND DIVISION: CARTILAGINOUS FISHES—SHARK (VARIETIES OF), SAW FISH, RAYS.

Pisces—Fishes.

THE fishes constitute the fourth class of vertebrated animals, and are so distinct from the others as to require little notice. Their peculiar structure, their mode of respiration, their habits and economy, are sufficiently known to most persons to render a special introduction necessary, and I will at once proceed to give some account of those which are found within the boundaries of this colony. The subject has been already most ably treated by several writers, but especially by Sir Robert Schomburgk, whose interesting description of the fresh-water fishes of British Guiana form two of the volumes of the Naturalist's

Library, and to which I would especially refer those who desire to become better acquainted with the several members of the finny tribe there portrayed. The variety of fishes is very great, the neighbouring seas and the numerous rivers and creeks, nay, the very trenches, abound with them; and yet fresh fish of good quality is both rare and expensive. The high price of labour is the cause of this; but latterly, the great demand for fish has brought a larger quantity into the market. Another reason of its being dear is the impossibility to keep it fresh for more than a few hours in such a warm climate.

The number of fishes abounding in the waters of the coasts and the rivers and canals is truly astonishing. The negroes and coolies evince an unmistakable partiality for the "gentle art." It is a lazy and a cheap mode of living; at early dawn, canoes or corials are manned by able-bodied fishermen, who paddle away for miles off the coast to the various fishing grounds, where they quietly take up their station for the forenoon, unmindful of the burning sun or drenching rain which is directed on their naked and unprotected bodies. The lines and nets are thrown out, and in a few hours the boats are sufficiently loaded with jew fish, gilbagre, flounders, cuirass, and other odd fish, to justify a return home. With reeking bodies and boisterous shouts the fishermen may be heard paddling with activity, and often racing to get first to the market, where the produce of their industry is soon disposed of. Nor are the money-making Portuguese heedless of the fascinating sport; they are often to be noticed in their boats moored in the centre of the river, waiting patiently till their hooks and lines have captured the requisite number of fish. Their little skiffs are seen dancing on the waters at all hours of

the tide, but they seldom venture like the others out to sea to catch fish. Numbers of men and boys occupy the numerous wharves or stellings to join in the trade, or spend a listless hour in hooking up quantities of small and undisposible fish, which, however, they appropriate to their own use; while others, fishing-rod in hand, saunter along the canals and trenches to fill their baskets with hassar, cuffum, cat-fish, and whatever else may turn up. In large trenches and fresh-water ponds the valuable queriman is eagerly sought after by others, who find a ready sale for it. This is, *par excellence*, a country for fishermen. Old invalids and sore-footed lads are constantly casting their nets in the troubled waters, and bagging basketfuls of tiny, delicate fish. At low water the negroes ramble along the mud flats, thrusting their hands into the deep holes where the pacooma are known to lurk, and, heedless of the bite, drag them grunting and grumbling out of their banqueting rooms. Others are splashing through the mud, often knee-deep, in chase of the astonished crabs, who are edging off as quickly as possible, till they are seized, and thrust as prisoners into the formidable "quaik" (an Indian basket made of thick reeds), where, with broken claws and crushed heads, they are packed as closely as Africans in a Brazilian slaver. Men and boys are equally diligent in dredging for prawns and shrimps, which in great numbers are captured, and contribute to the dainties of the table.

The following is an attempt to give an account of the principal fishes met with, arranged with some slight pretensions to order:

Order 1.—Acanthopterygians, or such as are distinguished by having spines forming part of their fins, and by other anatomical differences, comprise a

large number of what are termed true, or ordinary fishes—in contradistinction to another division known as cartilaginous fishes—such as the shark, &c. This order is divided into numerous sub-orders or families; of the perch family or tribe (*Percoïdes*), the snook (*Centropomus undecimalis*) is the worthiest representative. It is the pike of the hot parts of America, and is very much in demand for the table. It varies very much in size, the largest occasionally weighing from 20 to 30 lbs. It is of a silver colour tinged with green, and is found along the coasts and up the rivers, being caught both in salt and fresh water. It has a projecting and flattened muzzle like the pike, but its teeth are small and crowded together.

A sea fish, *Serranus galeus*, allied to this, is found on the coast, but it is not so large, being scarcely a foot in length. Its flesh is eaten, but it is not so delicate in flavour as the snook.

The jew fish (*Plectropoma chlorurum*) is a large golden-coloured fish, which is found in great plenty along the coasts. Its brilliant colour renders it a pretty-looking fish; but its flesh is coarse, and it is only eaten by the poor. This fish is called a grooper in the islands, and at certain seasons it is not eaten on account of its supposed poisonous properties. It is very plentiful off the coast.

The snapper fishes abound in the waters of the West Indian islands, but are not the same species as are here known as snappers. The fishes so called by fishermen here are of two kinds, the red and the white; the former are caught about three or four feet in length, and fetch the price of six guilders. The white species are smaller, and I have eaten them and found them good. These fish are only caught at particular seasons. In the mouth of the river Essequibo a small fish

allied to the snappers is found; it is known as the *Pomotis catesbei*, but is seldom seen in town.

Of the second family, or mailed cheeks, there is a small fish here allied to the flying gurnards, but having no supernumerary fins or wings; it is the *Cephalarantes vel gasterosteus spinarella* of Cuvier.

There is a species of grouper (*Scorpaena*) found here; it is a scaly fish with prickly protuberances, and attains the length of three to five feet; its flesh is coarse, but is eaten, and has never to my knowledge proved poisonous, which is occasionally the case with the groupers of the islands.

The third family of fishes of this order is the *Scienuides*, and include the bashaws. These fish are called grunts in the islands, and are of several kinds, found both in the salt and fresh water. The salt-water species are two in number, gold colour and white, and vary in size from one to two feet. The fresh-water species is of a silvery white, with a greenish tinge on the back.

The other species of fish in this family are as follows:

Otolithus toe roe	Ancylodon jaculidens	Micropogon triflis
„ leiarchus	Micropogon lineatus	Polycentrus (2 species)

There are but few species of fish belonging to the menoid family (*Menides*, Cuvier), and they are only found at the mouths of the rivers, or in salt water.

The following are the varieties met with—*Gerres*, *Rhombeus*, about a foot in length. It is much esteemed for the table.

The shad (*Gerres zebra*) is occasionally caught by fishermen at the mouth of the river, and is considered excellent eating. It is sometimes termed *Mocharra*. In Barbadoes this fish is occasionally found in fresh-water ponds, where they improve in flavour. *Acharnes speciosus* also belongs to this family; it is a small fish, from six to eight inches in length.

Seventh family, Scomberoides (mackerel tribe).

The sword fish (*Xiphias gladius*) requires no description. This curious fish is only known to us by the injury which it occasionally inflicts on the bottom of ships trading here. Upon more than one occasion the trenchant snout of this formidable fish has been found embedded in the planks of a vessel which had been thus curiously assailed, bringing away, however, in triumph, the dangerous weapon of its wounded opponent. This savage sabreur attacks indiscriminately boats, bathers, and marine animals; nay, the very rocks themselves are subjected to assault and battery.*

The pilot fish (*Naucrates vel scombei ductor*) is frequently seen by those approaching these shores, but is seldom caught or noticed in our immediate neighbourhood, although its allies, the sharks, abound in great numbers. It is the Pompilus of the ancients, and rarely exceeds a foot in length. It is frequently seen in the wake of ships, and appears a social little fish, fond of good company, and the advantages to be derived from travelling.

The mullets (*Mugiloides*) constitute the eleventh family of the Acanthopterygians; they are found both in salt and fresh water. A small species (*Mugil albula*) is found in canals and trenches, and is much esteemed on account of its flavour. The quality of the mugil varies with its habitat; in the open sea it is a poor fish, but in running streams it enjoys a higher character at table.

The following other varieties are found here :

Mugil liza—about 1½ to 2 feet in length. | Mugil curema—about 1½ feet long.

Of the family Gobioides there are a few species, which

* The pugnacity of this fish has been alluded to by the ancients in the line:

“ Et durus xiphias ictu non mitior enai.”

are recognised by their dorsal spines being thin and flexible; the species in Barbadoes are known as the Rock Fish.

The following are the species met with here :

Gobius bacalaus, or Goby fish, allied to the blennies, is commonly found in the salt waters of the coast, and considered good food by the inhabitants.

Some fish of this family are almost the only ones known which construct nests of sea-weed for their young. The male patiently waits till the lady gobies arrive to deposit their eggs, which he fecundates, and afterwards defends the young ones.

Eleotris guavina vel dormitatrix, or the sleeper, is found at the mouths of the rivers, and attaining a length of from eight to ten inches; it has a depressed head, inflated cheeks, and fins spotted with black, and is frequently caught in mud flats and marshy spots.

Of the pediculated Pectorales there is the *Batrachus surinamensis*. It is usually known as the Pacama by the colonists, who consider it excellent food for the table. The Pacama or Pacooma is an ugly-looking fish, from one to two feet in length, found in holes on the mud flats, where the fishermen hook them out at low water. The head is large and flat, frog shaped; they bite severely; they make a kind of grunting noise when captured. This fish is very plentiful at times.

Of the Labroides, or fourteenth family of fishes, there are several species met with; the body is generally oblong and scaly; the single dorsal fin is supported in front by spines often furnished with membranous appendages.

Of this family the following varieties are found :

<i>Acara margarita</i>		<i>Chætobranchus heckel</i>
" <i>nassa</i>		<i>Geophagus jurupari</i>
" <i>letramerus</i>		" <i>surinamensis</i>
" <i>heckelii</i>		" <i>leucostictus</i>

Geophagus pappaterra	Cychna rutilans
" ocellalis—sun fish	" flavo-maculata
or lugunani	" nigro-maculata
Crenicichla saxatilis	" argus
" vitatta	" trifasciata
" lugubris	" ocellaris
Cychna labrina	" monoculus
" fasciata	Centrarchus (several species)

The Carp family (*Cyprinidæ*), order second of abdominal malacopterygians, comprises some interesting species. Several small headed, large eyed fishes of the carp tribe are found in the rivers of the colony. They frequent fresh and quiet streams, and feed on herbs, grain, and mud, of which latter article of food they never lack a supply in this alluvial region.

The Yacuta (*Prochilodus rubro-tæniatus*) is a fresh-water fish found in several of the rivers, where they are captured by nets, or shot by arrows. Their general size is about eighteen inches in length. They appear to feed on the mud or slime which attaches to rocks or stones, swerving from side to side, apparently sucking. They ascend the rivers about April to spawn. The colour is silvery white, with a greenish back, with patches of lake on the fins and tail.

Two other species of salmon carp are also met with (*Prochilodus binotatus* and *insignis*), whose habits and appearance are much the same as the first one; none of these fish take bait; they live only a few minutes after they have been taken from the water. The yacuta is chiefly found in the Essequibo and its tributaries; but neither of the two others have been caught either in the Essequibo or Demerara rivers. The carp family are notorious for their long lives, but whether or no the species met with here are as venerable as their European allies, I am not able to decide, inasmuch as their abodes are remote from the civilised districts, and are seldom visited by the inhabitants.

Of the carp family (*Cyprinidæ*) there is found a curious little fish known here as the Four-eyes (*Anableps tetrophthalmus vel cobilis anableps*), which may constantly be seen in shallow water near mud flats, where they swim and plunge about in shoals. If pursued or frightened, they leap above the water and dart at a rapid pace in jerks or springs along mud banks. They derive their name of four-eyes from the singular fact of the cornea and pupil of each eye being divided into two parts by transverse bands, so that they appear to have two pupils and a double sight, which is not the case, as each eye has but one crystalline lens, &c. The eyes, besides this singular character, are very prominent, and give them a peculiar appearance when feeding on the mud. The female is viviparous. Another species is also found, *A. microlepis vel coarctatus*. It is found in mud flats like the other, and is occasionally eaten, but neither varieties of this fish are esteemed. At low water thousands of four-eyes may be seen revelling in the slimy mud, along which they glide rapidly to gain the water if disturbed in their sports. A small fish, *Pœcilia vivipara*, found in the trenches, is also allied to the above. It is about two inches long. It flows in and out with the tide, unconscious of the danger it incurs in thus swimming through a city.

Of the Pike family (*Esoces*) of the same order, the Gar fish (*Belone vulgaris vel caribbæa*) is a representative. This snake-like fish attains here the size of two feet or more, and is of a light greenish brown colour above, and silver white below; it is eaten by the inhabitants. Its bite is very painful, its long and narrow snout being armed with numerous sharp and strong though slender teeth. The vertebræ of the spine and some of the other bones have a peculiar greenish tinge,

which has frightened some people, who were under the impression that it was of a poisonous character. I have noticed this appearance of the bones both before and after cooking. It is evidently unconnected with any abnormal quality of the fish.

The third family of this order is the Siluridæ, comprising such fishes as are distinguished by the absence of true scales, of which we have a very great variety in this colony. The greater part of these are beautifully represented in the "Fishes of Guiana," by Sir R. Schomburgk, in the Naturalist's Library, and a condensed account of them from that interesting work will be here given.

Porcupine acanthicus (*Acanthicus histrix*) belongs to the sub-family Loricarinæ, or mailed cat-fish: it is a powerful fish found in the river Branco, and is remarkable for a row of spines near the gills; it is of a yellowish brown colour, and is considered good eating.

Several varieties of the Hypostomas are found in the same river. The spotted Hypostoma (*H. pecostomus*) is of a beautiful greenish colour with black spots; its length eight inches or more. The shark tailed Hypostoma (*H. squalinum*) is of a greenish brown, spotted black; about one foot in length, and found in several of the rivers, living under roots of trees and rocks during the day, and feeding chiefly at night.

The dotted Hypostoma (*H. punctatum*); the bearded Hypostoma (*H. barbatus*) and other species are found in these waters, but are by no means familiar even to naturalists.

Other species have been lately described by Richard Schomburgk.

H. commersonii
 „ *itacua*

H. temminckii
 „ *nudiceps*

These fishes swim with great rapidity and often with

the back undermost;* they are chiefly found where the current is most rapid, and conceal or fasten themselves by rock and stone.

Varieties of the *Callicthys* have been found here, and several species have not been fully described.

The common Hassar, or hardback (*C. pictus*), belongs to this tribe. It is of a dark colour, and covered with a sort of armour, and is found in trenches, muddy walls, and even on land, for these fishes, like many others of this family, are capable of living a long time out of water, and are known to travel overland by means of their spines and fins. They are from six to eight inches in length, and are eaten readily by the natives. They are easily caught, and the creole boys are often seen returning with numbers of them strung through a thick blade of grass, and carrying them home in triumph for supper. The following species are also known:—*C. cœlatus*, *C. exaratus*, whose habits are allied to the Hassar. One of these species is called by the negroes Banja Man,† from the noise it makes when taken out of the water.

The Doras are an interesting tribe of fishes, and are found in several of the rivers. They are small in size, and are found under roots and banks. The mailed Doras (*Doras costatus*); the parti-coloured Doras (*D. castaneo*); the striped Doras (*D. brunnescens*); the black Doras (*D. niger*); and the Doras hancockii have been described by authors. Several other species exist, but they are difficult to be procured. These fish are hard to kill; they vary in size from five to ten inches, and, like the Hassars, travel by land as well as water. One species, the Doras maculatus, is described by

* Valenciennes.

† The Banja is the name given to a kind of rude drum used by the negroes in their dances.

Richard Schomburgk as attaining to the length of two feet.

A large fish (the *Phractocephalus hemiopterus*) is common to several of the rivers. It is from three to four feet long, is very voracious, and makes a grunting noise when caught; they bite best by night, and are excellent eating.

Two or more species of *Arius* are found; the marbled *Arius* (*A. oncina*) and the *Arius obesus*. The former, about ten inches long, is distinguished by rings of a blackish colour on the body; it is taken with the hook, and is finely flavoured. It is, I believe, called by the natives *Hymiri*, and is found in the creeks. The *Arius obesus* is about nine inches in length, and about seven inches in girth at the thickest parts; found under trees in river Branco.

There are several kinds of *Pimelodus* found in most of the rivers. The *P. maculatus* is about twelve inches long, has no scales, and is of a bluish green colour; one species, brown, spotted with black, is called Tiger Fish (*P. arekaima*), is about two feet long, and of excellent flavour. Another species, the *Pimelodus insignis*, is of a greenish colour, with black spots, and is about eighteen inches in length; it lives some time after being caught, and is taken with the hook.

The stripe-tailed *Pimelodus* (*P. notatus*) is larger, being about three feet long, of a grey colour, with black spots, the tail being striped black.

Other species of this tribe are found, but need not be enumerated in this place beyond their specific names:

<i>P. sebac</i>		<i>P. foia</i>		<i>P. stilegichii</i>
„ <i>raninus</i>		„ <i>eques</i>		„ <i>macropterus</i>
„ <i>cristatus</i>				

The striped *Platystoma* (*P. tigrinum*) is a handsome

fish, of a bluish colour striped black and white. It is of large size, and of fine flavour. Other varieties of this fish occur, but are too imperfectly known to attempt to describe. Another species has been mentioned by Richard Schomburgk, it is the *P. platyrhynchus*, and a third species was found by his brother in the river Branco, which has been termed *Platystoma planiceps*.

There are several other species of the *Siluridæ* which require notice; they resemble the others in general appearance and habits, and may be known by the numerous cirri or whiskers about the face. Many of them are termed cat-fish from the latter circumstance, and most of them are good eating. A fish called here the Bum-bum belongs to this tribe.

The following species of *Bagrus* are already known :

<i>Bagrus mesops</i>		<i>Bagrus clarias vel pimelodus vel arius</i>
„ <i>proops</i>		„ <i>coelestinus</i>
„ <i>passany</i>		„ <i>emphysetus</i>

They are regular scavengers, and feed on the most incongruous things. Belonging to the same family is another species, the *Galeichthys gronovii*, which is about one foot and a half in length.

Allied to the above are the next following species of fish :

<i>Auchenipterus maculosus</i> (6 inches)		<i>Auchenipterus punctatus</i>
„ <i>furcatus</i>		

The species called *Aspredo* are remarkable for their flat heads, broad shoulders, and numerous cirri. Their names are :

<i>Aspredo lævis</i>		<i>Aspredo tibicen</i>
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The *Loricaria* are so called on account of the mailed appearance of the head and body, and by the mouth opening under the snout they are distinguished from

other mailed Siluridæ. The species known are as follows :

Loricaria cataphracta | Loricaria acuta | Loricaria platyura

The Dawalla (*Hypothalmus dawalla*) is found in several of the rivers, and is considered a choice fish. It is about two feet long, destitute of scales, and beautifully coloured green and carmine. It is hard to catch, biting only at live bait near to populated districts; but far up the river Essequibo they are readily taken by the hook.

The Lau Lau (*Silurus*) is one of the largest fresh-water fish met with in the rivers of this country. It is often found from ten to twelve feet in length, and weighing 200 lbs. It is of a greenish black colour above, and whitish below, and is esteemed a great delicacy. When left to nature the eggs are hatched in the abdomen, and when the young are extruded they swim in large shoals over the head of the mother. In case of danger, the mother opens her mouth, and the fry find a safe retreat in the thorax; this is the case also with other species of this family. These fish feed on fruit, vegetables, and smaller fish; they swim with rapidity, and possess considerable strength.

The Gilbagre, or Gillbacker (*Silurus parkerii*), is a large salt-water fish, found plentifully in the estuaries of the rivers of the colony. It is caught from two to five feet in length, and is of a beautiful golden colour. It is purchased very readily by the inhabitants, and when stewed is excellent eating, and has the appearance and taste of veal. A valuable kind of glue, like isinglass, is obtained from the dried natatory bladder, and is much used in the colony. It is also in considerable demand for exportation. It is a voracious fish; one

that was caught and opened had the arm of a child in its stomach.

Of the fourth family (*Salmonides*) of the abdominal Malacopterygians there are several interesting species.

The Pacus (*Myletes pacu*) are well known to travellers in this country, for they afford infinite sport to the tourist, and furnish a fine repast for his table. These fish vary in size from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 feet in length, and sometimes weigh upwards of 8 lbs. The colour is a brownish red, with black spots. They are sometimes shot with arrows in great numbers, the natives contriving to enclose a number of the fish in a particular part of the stream, when a regular battue commences, which often ends in the death and capture of hundreds of the Pacus, many of which are salted and sent to town for sale. Besides the common Pacu the following varieties occur.

<i>M. rubripennis</i>		<i>M. asterias</i>		<i>M. schomburgkii</i>
„ <i>hypsauchen</i>		„ <i>setiger</i>		„ <i>latus</i>

The Cartabac (*Tetragonopterus latus*) is a broad, clumsy-looking fish, with a small head. It is about eighteen inches long, very voracious, and is found in several of the rivers. It has a fine flavour, and is captured with the hook or arrow. A species allied to this has been named after Schomburgk (*Tetragonopterus schomburgkii*), and is found in the tributaries of the Essequebo. It is of an oval shape, and of a greyish blue above and pale green below, with spots of black.

The following species allied to the Cartabac are likewise found :

<i>T. argenteus</i> , 6 inches in length		<i>T. melanurus</i> , 6 inches in length
<i>T. maculatus</i> , 4 „	„	<i>T. tæniatus</i> , 2 „

The ocellated Xiphostoma (*Xiphostoma ocellatum*) is a long narrow fish, about two feet long, of a neutral

tint colour, fins and tails variegated red ; a round spot, black and yellow, is seen on the latter. Its flesh is yellow, but good ; it is found in the Essequibo and other rivers. It is called Pirapoco by the coloured people, and Pirapu by the Arrawaks.

The small scaled Hydrocyon (*Hydrocyon microlepis*) and another species (*Hydrocyon armatus*) are found in these rivers. The colour of both is bluish green and white, with tints of lake about the tail and fins. They have both a formidable array of teeth. They are voracious, and are captured either with the hook or arrow, being considered good eating. Two other species have been described by travellers, viz. : *H. scomberoides*, two to three feet long, and found in most rivers. The banded Schizodon (*Schizodon fasciatus*) has been also described, and is found in the river Branco. It is of a greyish colour, with black bands, and attains the length of 1½ feet. It is much prized for the table of the traveller.

There are several species of fish comprised in the genus Chalceus, namely: the *C. rotundatus*, *C. angulatus*, *C. tæniatus*, *C. labrosus*, *C. nigro tæniatus*, *C. latus*, *C. fasciatus*, which approach to herrings in character. They are small in size, but vary in colour, but are in general prettily marked, and are much esteemed for their flavour. Somewhat similar to these are the following fishes :

- Brycon falcatus, 6 to 8 inches long, found in most streams
- „ pesu, 6 inches long, common to the Essequibo
- „ schomburgkii, 6 inches in length, common to the Essequibo

There are some very interesting species of the genus *Serra salmo* met with in these rivers, among which is the famous Pirai or Huma (*Serra salmo niger*), called also the black saw-bellied salmon. It is about sixteen inches long, but has very strong and peculiar teeth, which are powerful enough to bite off a toe or finger

of persons bathing, as has, unfortunately, more than once happened. These fish are extremely voracious, and attack all who invade the waters where they prevail. They destroy other fish much larger than themselves; and to effect this, commence operations by biting off their tails; it is, therefore, equally dreaded and shunned by men and fish. The pirai is of a dark colour, inclining to blue. It is caught with the hook, and is eaten by the Indians. It utters a grunting noise when captured, and lives for several hours out of the water. These fish are not found near the coasts or embouchures of the rivers, but prefer the upper parts of the streams, where they congregate about rocks and trees.

Other species of the salmon tribe have been described by authors: *S. punctatus*, *S. stagnatilis*, *S. piranha*, *S. emarginatus*, *S. undulatus*, *S. unimaculatus*, *S. argentinus*, all of which are more or less small in size, and are eaten by the natives.

The following varieties are allied to these, and have been commonly met with by travellers :

<i>Anodus cyprinoides</i> ,	7 to 8 inches long,	Demerara and Essequibo
„	<i>alburnus</i> ,	10 inches long
„	<i>ciliatus</i> ,	6 to 8 inches long
<i>Serrasalmo</i> vel <i>pygocentrus</i>	<i>piraya</i> ,	10 to 12 inches in length
„	vel „	<i>nigricans</i> , 12 inches in length
„	vel <i>pygopristis</i>	<i>denticulatus</i> , 4 to 6 inches in length
„	vel „	<i>fumarius</i> , 4 to 6 inches in length
„		<i>rhombus</i> , 12 to 14 inches in length
„		<i>aureus</i> , 6 to 8 inches in length
„	vel <i>catopriom mento</i> ,	3 to 4 inches in length

These small fish are all more or less eaten by the natives, and are found in plenty in the rivers, creeks, and marshy lands of the interior.

Allied to the above are the following species :

<i>Chilodus punctatus</i> ,	4 inches long,	found in Savannah waters
<i>Leporinus fasciatus</i> ,	10 inches long,	found at Pirara
„	<i>nigrotentatus</i> ,	6 inches long, found at Pomerroom
„	<i>frederici</i> ,	12 inches long, called Daro by the natives

These fish are all considered good eating.

The herring family (*Clupeæ*) is the fifth of the abdominal Malacopterygians, and include several specimens, which have, however, been considered by ichthyologists to belong to another family.

The largest fresh-water fish met with in the rivers of this country is the *Sudis gigas*, which is found in the tributaries of the Essequibo, where it is captured with harpoons, or a strong hook and line. They measure from eight to fourteen feet in length, and weigh from 200 to 300 lbs., and are excellent food. The colour of the head and dorsal part is rich brown, whilst the lower part of the fish, with the tail and fins, are lake-coloured. It is called *Arapaima* and *Pirarucu* by the Indians, and is hunted by them in the shallow "krahags," or inlets of the rivers, where the capture affords excellent sport to the traveller.

The *Arowana* (*Osteoglossum arowana*) is a beautiful fish about two feet in length, which belongs to another genus of the same family, and is found in the *Rupununi*, and sometimes in the *Essequibo*. It is of a light green colour, and the scales are edged with red, blue, and purple. This fish is chiefly found in muddy water, and is captured by the Indians with bow and arrow. It is a common article of food with the natives. It is said to spring out of the water after bats and other prey. Allied to the above fishes are the following species :

Megalops atlanticus, called here *Cuffum*, and caught in trenches—a sea fish about two feet long; *Elops saurus*, found on the coasts, one foot in length; *Engraulis thrissoides*, six inches in length, found in the *Cuyuni*; the *Krumi* is probably another species, it is from ten to twelve inches long, and of a bluish-green

colour. It rises to catch flies, or seeds falling from trees.

The Haimura (*Erythrinus macrodon*) is a voracious, ugly-looking fish, found near the falls or rapids of several of our rivers, and attains the size of three or four feet. It is easily taken with the hook, but is often captured by a species of trap made of the branches of trees, and is so plentiful as to afford a constant supply of food for the Indians, who consider it excellent eating. The mouth is armed with strong teeth, which have been known to inflict severe wounds.

The other species of *Erythrinus* found here are as follows :

- E. unitenatus, 10 inches long, called huri by the Arrawaks
- „ salous, 10 to 14 inches in length, found in stagnant waters
- „ brasiliensis, 12 to 14 inches long ; good to eat

Belonging to the family of Clupeæ is another tribe of fishes, found in the lakes and streams of the colony ; one species, the *Lepisosteus*, attains a moderate size, and is considered good to eat.

A small fish, *Odontognathus*, of this family, is found in Cayenne, and in this neighbourhood. It is called by the French *Odontognathe aiguilloné*, and is somewhat like a sardine (*Clupeæ sardina*) in form and appearance, but is more compressed.

There are not many varieties met with of fishes belonging to the third order, Subbrachian malacopterygians. There are none belonging to the cod or ling tribe ; but the flat fishes, which constitute another family, are represented here by a few varieties.

The flounders (*Pleuronectes*) do not attain a large size here ; I have generally seen them from six to twelve inches in length. They are caught in the shallow muddy waters off the coast, and are much esteemed for their flavour, but unless large are trou-

blesome to eat, in consequence of their numerous small bones. They keep alive for a long time after being caught, and are commonly brought to the door for sale by the fisherwomen. The turbot and sole are unknown to this country.

Of the eel tribe, fourth order Apoda malacopterygians, there are several varieties found, but they are rarely or never eaten by the better classes. The fishermen here class them into two kinds, the salt-water and the fresh-water species. The former are frequently caught by the fishermen off the coasts and rivers, but are never brought to the shore, not being considered worth eating; they are of a light colour, and from two to three feet in length.

The fresh-water eels are of various kinds; some of the largest range from three to four feet in length, and are found in canals, trenches, and stagnant waters about plantations. This species is termed *Gymnothorax ocellatus*: A still larger species is met with about the river Demerara and its creeks, where it is often found among the roots of the *caladium arborescens*. It attains a length of four or five feet, and is occasionally eaten by the negroes. It is known as the *Gymnonotus vel ramphichthys vel carapus rostratus*. Another species, *Sternarchus oxyrhyrachus*, is about eighteen inches long, and is found in the river Essequebo, where it is eaten by the coloured people. Another species, *Synbranchus marmoratus*, about two feet long, is found about plantations. Two other species are found; one, the *Sternopygus vel sternarchus virescens*, is met with about the lake Amucu; it is from eighteen to twenty inches in length; the other species is the *Sternopygus vel sternarchus lineatus*, which is from eight to ten inches in length, and is found in similar places to the last.

The electric eel (*Gymnotus electricus*), or bareback, is found in fresh-water streams, especially the Essequebo, where it is frequently caught and brought to town. It is of a brownish black colour, and is generally seen about three or four feet long, but is occasionally met with much larger. The shock given is sometimes very powerful, but at other times it may be touched without communicating its singular properties. It is eaten by the natives with impunity, but by the better classes is considered too "shocking" a repast for the table. The organ or seat of the electrical property of this eel is, apparently, the under side of the tail, which is divided into compartments, just like the arrangement seen in a galvanic battery. The cells or divisions are filled with a gelatinous mass, which is, apparently, well supplied with nerves. The electrical power is evidently dependent on the will of the animal, which at times is exercised so powerfully as to destroy fishes and small animals; but it is dissipated by frequent use, and to be able to renew it the gymnotus requires rest and nourishment. It has been found difficult to transport these eels to Europe, as the discomforts of a sea voyage prove frequently fatal, and to secure their existence great care is required to prevent them from receiving blows and other injuries consequent on the motion of the vessel in rough weather.

Of the fifth order of fishes, Lophobranchi, there are but few species here. A kind of salt-water eel, *Syngnanthus pelagicus*, about ten inches long, is occasionally found off the waters of the coast.

Of the sixth order of fishes, Plectognathi, there are a few varieties found. One species, the *Tetrodon vel chelichthys punctatus*, is about a foot in length, and is met with on sand banks and mud flats off the coast, and about the rivers Waini and Barima. Another

species, the *Tetrodon vel chelichthys psittacus*, about six inches long, is also found in similar situations. A smaller variety, *Chelichthys asellus*, about four inches long, is found in the fresh streams of the Barima. A small fish, about two or three inches long, is occasionally seen about the stellings; it is called here swell belly, *Tetrodon phizsa*. It is of a yellow colour, with black bars across the body; it is capable of distending its abdomen to an enormous size, which if struck explodes with a loud noise.

The cartilaginous fishes (*Chondropterygians*) constitute the second series of Cuvier's division, and comprise many interesting but dangerous fish, such as the shark, sting ray, &c.

There are two or three varieties of shark found here; a very large species, *Squalus vel carcharias prionodon*, is common to the waters of the coasts and the mouths of the larger rivers. Numbers of them may be seen daily swimming about the slaughter-house which is built close to the river, and as animals are killed, the offal is cast into the muddy waters, where it is greedily seized upon by the sharks. I have repeatedly seen the dead carcasses of animals floating along the river and surrounded by sharks, who in the rapacity with which they attacked them, frequently drew them beneath the water. It is feared that they often help to destroy sailors and others who accidentally happen to fall into the river. These sharks are frequently captured by the negroes, who destroy them for the sake of the skin and spinal column, as well as the jawbone, which are purchased by strangers. Their size varies from six to ten feet in length, but they are of enormous bulk. The colour is of dull brownish black on the back and sides, gradually approaching to a dirty white on the belly.

Another species, the *Carcharias vel squalus henlei*, about four feet to six feet long, is also commonly met with in the river Demerara, about the slaughter-house and stellings.

A species of hammer-headed shark is occasionally found, *Zygæna malleus vel vulgaris*. One dried specimen which I met with was only about three feet in length, but I have seen others caught which measured more.

The fishermen of the colony call the varieties found here the shovel-nose shark, the ground shark, and the queriman shark.

The saw-fish (*Pristis*) are found here; they have been captured near the mud flats, where they apparently delight in groping about for food. The only species which I have seen is the common one, *Pristis antiquorum vel squalus pristis*; but I have heard of several varieties as to size. The largest one taken was about twenty-six feet in length, including its projecting and serrated snout. This formidable bony process or saw, as it is called, presents a most singular appearance. It often measures from six to ten feet in length; it is broadest at the base, gradually tapering towards a truncated extremity. Its broadest part is about the width of a man's hand, and from each side strong bony and pointed spines branch off at right angles at a distance from each other of a few inches; very often one or more of these spinous processes is found broken off, indicative of the rough work to which this fish-saw is evidently applied.

There are several varieties of the ray fishes found here; one species of sting ray, *Trygon garapa*, has a spine about ten inches in length, and is found in the rivers Takutu and Branco; it occasionally inflicts severe wounds on the Indians.

Another smaller species, *Trygon stroglyopterus*, is found in similar places to the other, and is about eight inches long.

A third species, *Tæniura motoro*, is about six inches in length.

A fourth species, *Trygon histrix*, is called by the Warraus, Siparri, and is found in the Rupununi and other streams. It is frequently described by authors as the *Raja jamaicensis*, or sting ray. A large species of the ray kind was caught by some men who were fishing for gilbagre in Berbice in 1850. It measured nine feet two inches in breadth, four feet four inches in length, and two feet three inches at the air valves; the body was twelve inches deep. It probably was the *Cephaloptera manatiæ* of Cuvier.

REPTILES.

IN the third class of the first great division of the animal kingdom reptiles are found; and of these four orders are usually described:

1. Chelonia, or the Tortoise family.
2. Sauria, or the Crocodile and Lizard tribe.
3. Ophidia, or Snakes.
4. Batrachia, or Frogs.

The first order of reptiles which requires notice here is that of the Chelonia, or tortoise tribe. Tortoises and turtles are commonly met with, but are chiefly to be seen in the wooded heights, banks of streams, and sandy districts. They vary exceedingly in size. The larger kind of turtle weigh occasionally from 50 to 100 lbs.; while some of another species are so small as to be made pets of, and are kept in small basins in the drawing-rooms.

The large green turtle, *Chelonia midas*, are not unfrequently caught by fishermen on the sand banks about the coast, both in Demerara and Essequibo; in the latter district an allied species is frequently found. The females seek the land to deposit their eggs in the sand; they excavate large holes, and lay a certain number in one place at a time, and return again next day to repeat the operation. In this way, several hundred eggs are deposited in sand nests close

to the water, in fact, just beyond the influence of the tide. When hatched, the careful mother, who has visited them, leads the young turtles down to the water, where they soon make acquaintance with their future element. The eggs have a soft shell, are round, and are very good to eat.

Not long ago, two of these turtles were seen promenading on the sandy beach close to the fort; the smaller and most active one escaped, but "fatty" was taken prisoner, and soon expiated his or her rashness in the cook's hands.

There are two kinds of land turtle known to the colonist :

1. The *Testudo depressa*, so named, I presume, from the carapace, or upper buckler, being somewhat flatter than is usual to the land tortoise. Their usual size is about one foot in length; they are easily tamed, and can remain a long time without eating. I had one which fed on bread, plantains, worms, and other food, but for a long time it refused food of any kind.

2. A second species is the *Testudo tabulata*, which frequents woods and heights, and the flesh of which is eaten by the natives.

Another kind of land tortoise has been mentioned by some as measuring three feet in length, but I have never seen a specimen: it is evidently allied to the *Testudo indica*, but has never, I believe, been described by any author. It is found up the rivers in sandy and other dry places, but is by no means common.

Of the fresh-water tortoises there are several species known to travellers. They frequent the marshy grounds, the streamlets, and the rivers of the country.

The following species are met with :

1. The *Emys tricarinata* — called by the natives Cassepan.

2. *Emys* — ? called by the natives Tarakayba.
3. *Emys punctularia*—found on the plantations of the coasts, and the flesh of which is not eaten.
4. *Emys tracaya*—found in the rivers Essequibo and Rupununi.
5. *Emys concinna vel geometrica*—a small tortoise with yellow streaks.
6. *Podocnemis expansa*—a large species found in the river Branco.
7. *Podocnemis unifilis*—about one foot in length; it is found in the rivers Rupununi and Takutu.

Some of the turtle ordinarily found in fresh-water streams have occasionally been caught several miles to seaward; but why they got there was probably as great a wonder to themselves as to their captors.

The sea-turtle are so rarely seen that it is hardly necessary to speak of them as belonging to the *Chelonia* of this country. As before observed, a stranger will occasionally show himself in our muddy waters, but the inhabitants are chiefly indebted to importation for the luxury of green turtle so much prized by the *bon vivant*.

Of the large-mouthed tortoises, or *Chelys*, there is one species met with in the Essequibo and Takutu rivers. It is an ugly-looking creature, and is recognised by its prolonged proboscis or snout. It grows from one to two feet in length, and its carapace is studded with pyramidal elevations, while the body is edged all round with a membranous fringe of a pinkish colour. It is known to naturalists as the *Testudo fimbria*, and has been noticed by others under the name of *La Matamata*. I once saw a young one about five inches in length, exclusive of the neck and head. It was of a red colour, and was very active.

Of the soft-shelled tortoises the most peculiar is the

Trionyx vel testudo ferox, found up the rivers. It lurks under the various water plants, and preys on small birds, reptiles, &c., but is eaten by some of the larger species, such as the alligators. Its flesh is considered good food. These tortoises have no scales, the shell and sternum being simply enveloped by a soft skin. They live in fresh water, and swim very well.

Other species of fresh-water tortoises have been described by travellers, namely :

Platemys planiceps, in the neighbourhood of Roraima ;
Platemys hilarii, found in similar places to the other.

The second order of reptiles comprises the Saurians, which are largely represented in British Guiana, if not in variety, at least in point of numbers. The alligators are the largest kind found among them, and are frequently seen in the rivers and trenches, proving very formidable to ducks and poultry. In dry places, on the contrary, the nimble lizards may be seen darting about in all directions, their glittering colours reflected in the magnificent sunlight of the tropics. They are a harmless, sportive tribe, and prey on insects among the dried leaves and boughs of the hedges and woods ; they are often seen carrying their eggs in their mouths. A larger kind, the *Salempenta*, or *El Mateo*, about three feet in length, is also frequently seen in the grass and among the decayed brushwood. It is very destructive to the young of the poultry-yard, feeding on eggs and chickens when obtainable. Like the lizards, they are singularly agile, and run along the ground incredibly fast, or plunge into the water, if alarmed. They lay their eggs in dry, warm places where the sun has access ; the females keep careful watch over them, and protect their young for some months. The tongue of the lizard tribe is very peculiar, being thin and extensible, and terminating in two threads, something like that of the viper. It is not uncommon to

see lizards running along cropped of their tails; perhaps this is the result of accident, as they are attacked by dogs, cats, and other animals.

In the first family in the order of the Saurians the crocodiles are the representatives, but in this colony we have no true crocodiles. This reptile's place is supplied here by the alligator, or Cayman: the former name is a corruption of the Portuguese word *lagarto*, signifying lizard, which itself is derived from the Latin word *lacerta*. The term *Caïman*, or Cayman, is that given to this reptile by the Africans of Guinea. It has also been named the spectacle alligator (*Crocodylus sclerops*), from the fact of a transverse bony ridge which unites in front the salient borders of its orbits. This reptile varies exceedingly in size, and ranges from four to twenty feet in length. The upper part of the tail and body are serrated, like the teeth of a saw, with bony processes. Its colour is brownish on the dorsal surface, with tints of green; its belly is of a dirty white. The size of its head is proportionally large, but its brain is singularly small, being scarcely an inch in length, even in large species. Alligators abound in all parts of the colony, and are even to be seen in the canals and trenches about Georgetown. They are difficult to kill, owing to the hardness of their bony plates, off which shot or bullet will glance without penetration. The small size of their cerebral organ, also, explains why even bullets striking the head do not prove fatal. Marksmen generally aim at the eye when they wish to destroy a caïman. These reptiles have a peculiar musk-like smell, by which their presence in the neighbourhood is often suspected, although the caïman itself is unseen.

The female lays her eggs in dry places, covering them lightly with straw or leaves, where they are hatched by the sun's heat. They prey on small reptiles, fish, birds,

and snakes, and with large species of the latter they have the most deadly fights.

There are several varieties of the alligator tribe met with in Guiana, which differ materially in size, shape, and colour.

The largest species is the Essequebo caïman, or alligator (*Champsia nigra*), which is found in that river. It attains from fourteen to twenty feet in length, and is a very formidable antagonist either for man, fish, or snake. It is of a black colour. It is caught by the natives by means of traps, but is seldom directly attacked by them. There are, I presume, but few naturalists who have not been entertained, if not instructed, by the account given by Mr. Waterton of his encounter with one of this species. This alligator is never seen in the neighbourhood of plantations.

A second species is the *Crocodylus vel champsia sclerops*, or spectacle caïman, which attains the length of eight feet. It is met with in all parts of the colony, but especially in unfrequented stagnant waters.

A third species is the *Crocodylus vel champsia punctulata*, which is commonly found about plantations and marshes, and grows from three to four feet in length. It is frequently shot or captured by the negroes.

A fourth species is the *Crocodylus vel champsia vallisfrons*, which is met in most of the rivers, and is about the size of the last, which it much resembles in general appearance and in its habits.

A fifth species has been described as the *Champsia palpebrosa*; it is common to most streams, and about three feet long.

The third family of the Saurians comprise the Iguanas, or Guanans, so well known to travellers. The habits and general appearance of most of these are similar. They are found in woods, in grass, on trees, among old build-

ings, and even on the muddy beaches, where the common or edible guana is supposed to fish. They lay their eggs in dry sunny places, where they may be exposed to the action of the sun's rays; they are very shy, and have all the active habits and propensities of the lizards.

The most important, and at the same time the most common, is the *Iguana tuberculata*, or common guana. It is of a greenish colour, is about three or four feet long, but sometimes larger, and has a very slender whip-like tail. It is found on trees, in woods and hedges, and also on cultivated lands. It is occasionally met with preying on fish, and can swim tolerably well. In spite of its appearance, which to the uninitiated is revolting, it is a very harmless animal, and is sought for by collectors for the purposes of the table, its flesh being considered a great delicacy, and having the flavour of chicken. It feeds on fruit, grain, and leaves, also fish. Its eggs are about the size of those of a pigeon, agreeable to the taste, and almost without white. It has a sort of membranous pouch or dewlap under its throat.

Another species is the *Ophryessa superciliosa*, so called from a kind of membranous and raised eyebrow. Its size is from six to eight inches long; it is found on the banks of rivers, and on branches of trees overhanging water.

A third species, the *Lacerta basiliscus*, is of a bluish colour, with two white bands stretching towards the shoulder, and with a hood-like appendage on its head. It is from two to three feet long, and feeds on grain and leaves.

A fourth species is a kind of marbled lizard, found in the Savannahs, and on rocks and trees, about eight inches in length. It is known as the *Ecphimotus torquatus* vel *agama tuberculata*.

The second family of reptiles comprises the lizards,

which are more or less familiar to all persons. There are great varieties of them in Guiana, and merit notice in this place. They vary in size from half a foot to six feet in length, but few except the smaller species are ever seen by colonists. The largest kind is met with about the coasts, where it feeds on insects, reptiles, and eggs. It lays its eggs on the sandy banks, where it excavates holes for that purpose. The flesh and eggs are edible. It is about six feet in length, and is of a yellowish and black colour. It is known as the Great Safeguard of America (*Lacerta vel salvator teguisin*).

A second species is the *Salvator nigropunctatus*, which grows from one to one and a half foot long, and is found in various parts of the colony.

A third species is the *Ameiva vulgaris*, about fourteen inches long, which is frequently seen about plantations, gardens, and other sunny places.

Two other smaller species are also seen :

1st. The *Centropyx calcaratus*, about six to eight inches in length.

2nd. The *Centropyx striatus*, from four to six inches long. Both these lizards are chiefly found in Savannas, where they may be seen darting about the long grass.

Another species, the *Crocodylurus lacertinus*, has been described. It attains the length of eight to ten inches, but is not common to the cultivated districts.

Among the marbled lizards there is one species, the *Polychrus marmoratus*, which changes colour like a chameleon. Its size is from six to eight inches long. It is found on trees. It is of a reddish grey colour, marbled with brownish red bands. It is frequently seen about the guava bushes, and from its changing colour is termed chameleon by the colonists.

There are two or more species of *Anolis* found here: the *Anolis gracilis* and the *Anolis planiceps*. They are

found on trees, and are from six to eight inches in length. They also have dewlaps, which they inflate when angry, and the colour of which changes; they are recognised by a kind of oval membrane spread on some part of the toes, which enables them to cling to various surfaces. They are found in various parts of the colony, and feed on seeds, fruit, and berries.

Of the fourth family of Saurians, or the Geckos, there are only two species found here: the *Platydactylus rapicauda*, four to six inches long; and the *Hemidactylus mabouia*, two to three inches long. They are nocturnal in their habits, and are found on rocks, and occasionally in old houses.

Some of the species in the French islands are called *Mabouia*; the term "Gecko" has been applied to them from their peculiar cry.

There are no true chameleons in this country that I am aware of.

Two other species of Saurians have been occasionally described: *Eumeces spixii*, six to eight inches long, found in woods and other places; and *Amphisbæna fuliginosa*, which is about ten or twelve inches long, and looks more like a snake. The latter is found all over the country, and is oviparous. It feeds on insects, especially ants.

The third order of reptiles comprise the large and interesting family of snakes (*Ophidia*), of which there are not wanting specimens in this colony. Before the march of civilisation the whole country must have swarmed with them; but since cultivation has progressed, the dangerous denizens of the country have been compelled to withdraw into the interior, or hide themselves in the recesses of the forests, or in the deep waters, where they are little likely to encounter their deadly enemy, man. Even now, in the country districts,

and occasionally in the towns, some varieties of the snake tribe are met with; but, as a general rule, the more deadly species are to be found at the greatest distance from the inhabited districts. Now and then individuals exposed by travelling are bitten by them, but I hardly can call to remembrance an instance of any fatal result from the bite of snake since I have been to this colony.

An immense number of these snakes have been sent to England and elsewhere by collectors, but I am not aware that as yet any correct account has been given either as to their numbers or generic characters. Some change their skins so often, and present at different times such varied appearances, that separate names have actually been applied to the same individuals.

Many instances have occurred of wilful deception practised on the credulous or unscientific snake amateurs; as, for instance, attaching a portion of a cock's-comb to the neck or tail of a stuffed snake, and forwarding the specimen as an anomalous curiosity to the curious in these matters in Europe.

There are at least fifty or sixty different species of snakes to be met with in British Guiana.

Some only of the more remarkable require notice, although, as far as possible, I shall enumerate all the species hitherto met with by various travellers.

The snakes of this country are true serpents, and may be classed under two great divisions.

1st. The non-venomous.

2nd. The venomous.

The non-venomous serpents are the most numerous, and are exceedingly formidable in their size and appearance. They include the large family of boas and colubers.

There are several varieties of the boa here.

The largest is the boa constrictor, which is sometimes met with from twenty to thirty feet in length. It is chiefly found in woods and forests, where it is known as the bushmaster. It would be useless to attempt any description of a reptile which is so notorious; as is well known, it first crushes its prey and then devours it. It feeds here on monkeys, wild deer, and other animals met with in the woods. Its bite, though severe, is not fatal, but entails a long confinement and much suffering. It is occasionally found coiled up among the branches of large forest trees.

Another species of boa met with is the boa scytale. It is of a brown colour, with dark spots along the back, and ocellated patches on the flanks. It is amphibious, and is commonly called here the Camoudi; but this name is so indiscriminately applied by the inhabitants to large snakes, that it is difficult to know what particular snake is meant by this term; thus it is a very common opinion of this country's naturalists that there are two kinds of Camoudi, the water and the land Camoudi. The latter is the shorter and thicker of the two; its head is small.

I have known an instance of the land Camoudi having become more or less tamed. It was received by a gentleman when very young, and about nine inches in length, and has continued with him about six or seven years. Its present length is seven feet, and it is kept in a box in the bedroom. Sometimes it is allowed to crawl about the room for days, although several young children are moving in and out. It has usually a disposition, like all snakes, to hide itself, and with this object gets under the bedding, pillows, &c. It is fed very irregularly, generally about once a month, and is supplied with a variety of food, such as rats, fowls, and other small animals. It increases perceptibly in size after

feeding, but when long unfed it appears to shrivel, and becomes much smaller. After full meals it discharges a kind of solid excrement, enveloped in the skin or covering of the animals eaten. At other times small stony-looking substances alone are evacuated. The large and old snakes of this species are very difficult to keep alive. The natives have an idea that, except captured at a particular stage of the moon, they will not live; and my informant assured me that he had at one time a large and old Camoudi, which he kept by him for the space of ten months, during the whole of which time the obstinate reptile refused to eat anything, although repeatedly tempted by dainty food, such as a live rat, acouri, &c. At the end of that time it died, apparently of sheer starvation.

The tail of the land Camoudi is slender, tapering, and prettily marked purple, brown, and white. The colour of the body is reddish-brown, with large oval patches of a dirty-white colour on its sides, with irregular streaks of the same colour in various directions. It has just the appearance of an oil-cloth elaborately ornamented; such, at least, was the appearance of a boa which I examined lately. The larger kind is generally of a darker colour. Both species are capable of biting, and that severely; but it is by encircling their victims in their deadly folds and crushing them to death that the greatest danger lies. One was seen a short time since, by a gentleman living on the west coast, in a terrible conflict with a large alligator. The snake had encircled the angry reptile in spite of its armour, and the fight was long and doubtful. He at length terminated it by shooting both the snake and alligator—a proceeding not very satisfactory to either the one or the other. The snake was about fifteen feet long, and measured twenty-three inches in its greatest circumference. These snakes change their skin

about every two months, or after they have become gorged of a full meal. They feed on small animals and other reptiles. They are very prolific; sometimes nearly a hundred young ones are produced by the female.*

A third species is the *Boa vel epicrates cenchris*, of a fawn colour, with brown rings along the back, and similarly coloured spots on the flanks. It is of similar size and habits to the others, but in what particular respects it differs I cannot positively state.

A smaller species is the *Xiphosoma hortulanum*, from four to six feet long.

One of the snakes most dreaded here is the brown viper, or *Labarri Bothrops atrox*, from four to six feet in length, and the bite of which proves rapidly fatal. It is of a light brown colour, variegated with chesnut-coloured streaks on the back and sides. The mouth is large, and armed with two sharp fangs in the upper jaw. It is met with in all parts of the country, and is much dreaded even by the native Indians, whose sharp eyes will often detect this serpent when unnoticed by others.

Another species of this viper has been described by some as formerly known as the yellow-tailed *Labarri*. It is smaller than the other, and used to be found in the cane pieces, but seldom seen at the present day. Dr. Bancroft, in his account of Guiana, mentions an instance where the bite proved fatal in five minutes.

Another dangerous kind of snake is the parrot-snake, *Bothrops bilineatus*. It is found among woods and grass, and its greenish colour renders it difficult of detection. They attain the size of two to three feet. I remember, upon one occasion, that a snake, perfectly green and several feet in length, was found in the boiling house of Plantation Versailles.

* Richard Schomburgk.

The Guana snake (*Scytale* —?) is another venomous species; it is so called from its having a pouch under the throat. It is of a yellow colour, with black lozenge-shaped spots on the body. I once saw one swimming in the wake of a schooner, near the island of Leguan; it was about six feet in length.

Of the family Cœciloidei, or naked serpents, only one species, *Cœcilia annulata*, is recorded. The eyes are so small as scarcely to be seen. It is found in marshes, but the natives assert that it is also found in ant-hills. It is by some naturalists classed with the Batrachian reptiles.

There are several species of venomous snakes found in Guiana.

The most important of these is, perhaps, the rattlesnake, *Crotalus durissimus vel horridus*. It is from five to seven feet in length, and is occasionally met with in the interior. Within the tail, as is generally known, are a varying number of thin hollow rings, sometimes as many as ten or eleven, which are enclosed in horny cases, and occasion the rattling noise giving rise to the name. The colour is yellowish brown, with lozenge-shaped spots edged with black about the back and neck; the belly is of a lighter colour. The bite of this snake has been found here to prove quickly fatal, but instances of its occurrence are fortunately rare.

Another very formidable species is the Kunukusi or Courracouchi of the Indians (*Crotalus mutus*), which is of a yellow colour, with black or brown spots on the back. It is from eight to twelve feet long, and is found in the forests, where it is termed bushmaster by the colonists. It is very much dreaded by travellers, and those who have to traverse woods, for it has no rattle by which to warn of its approach.

A third species of venomous snake is a kind of viper (*Elaps vel coluber lemniscatus*). It is small in size,

but very deadly. It is of a pale colour, with black rings.

A fourth species is the *Elaps surinamensis*, also a species of viper, of small size, but very deadly in its bite.

Belonging to the non-venomous snakes are those long, slender-bodied serpents, which are here known as whip snakes, their appearance being like the thong of a whip. They are arboreal in their habits, living among branches of trees, where they glide about rapidly and securely, occasionally lashing themselves out to secure their prey, insects chiefly. They range in length from three to four feet, and are harmless and timid.

The following varieties are known: *

<i>Dendrophis liocercus</i>		<i>Dipsas pavonina</i> , 2 to 3 feet long
<i>Dryophis catesbyi</i> , 3 to 4 feet long		" <i>leucocephala</i> , 3 to 4 do.
<i>Dipsas mikanii</i> "		" <i>punctatissima</i> , 2 to 3 do.
" <i>weigelii</i> "		

Among water-snakes and non-venomous are several harmless plain-coloured species, which frequently are found in the trenches and streams about the towns, but I am unacquainted with their names. I have more than once, however, seen some very long serpents, at least several feet in length, both plunge into and emerge from the deep canals bordering on plantain walks in retired places.

A species of water-snake (*Homalopsis angulata*—Richard Schomburgk) has been met with by that writer in Savannah streams. It had a length from three to four feet.

Of the other innocuous or non-venomous snakes the

* Richard Schomburgk.

following merit notice, and may be classed into terrestrial, arboreals, and water:

1st. The coral snakes are so called from their striped appearance, the colours being generally red, black, and white. They are met with in the neighbourhood of plantations and the towns, and vary in size as well as colour. Generally they are found from four to eight feet in length: they are pretty-looking reptiles, and are very abundant. The following species have been enumerated by authors:*

Coluber corais	Coluber plumbeus
" pantherinus	" pœcilotoma
" variabilis	" macrolepidotus

Allied with these in character and appearance, and even classified under the generic term of Colubers by Cuvier, are the following species:—

Herpetodryas carinatus | *Herpetodryas lineatus* | *Herpetodryas viridissimus*

The other terrestrial non-venomous snakes are:

Coronella merremii, 1 to 2 feet long	Heterodon guianensis, 2 to 3 feet long
" reginæ, 2 to 3 do.	Lycodon clelia, 3 to 4 do.
" cobella	Calamania melanocephala.
Xenodon severus "	

They are by no means common, and are chiefly found in the interior of the country, far away from the cultivated districts.

The fourth order of reptiles is composed of the frog tribes, Batrachia, and is largely represented here. They may both be seen and heard in large numbers all over the colony, where they are known to dwell in marshes, canals, fields, and trees; but it is chiefly in the wet season that the frog tribes are remarkable for their numbers and noise. The colonists have long regarded them as "rain indicators," and when of an evening the loud guttural

* Schomburgk.

sound of the frog is heard, the fall of rain in the night is almost certain. The different species have varieties of notes. Thus there are the croaking, the whistling, and the piping frogs.

The large number of frogs here is not without some use. They feed largely on insects and the young of small animals and reptiles, especially the rat tribes; so much so, indeed, that some species of frogs were actually carried from this country to Barbadoes, much to the annoyance of the islanders; but when the object of this novel species of immigration became known, and the truth of it proved—namely, the use they were in clearing the cane pieces of rats, they became general favourites, and their propagation encouraged. It is well known to planters that in fields where there are many frogs the number of rats is small, and *vice versa*.

The following varieties of frogs are to be met with:

The paradox frog (*Rana vel pseudis paradoxa*), called also Jakie, is one of the most remarkable, in consequence of the size to which it attains in the tadpole state; indeed, before its metamorphosis into the condition of an adult frog, it is actually larger in this state than in its maturer or more perfect form, which has given rise to the belief that the frog was changing into a fish or huge tadpole, whereas in reality the reverse was the case. This curious reptile is of a greenish colour, spotted with brown, with irregular lines of a similar colour on its thighs and legs. It is found in trenches, woods, and graveyards.

Another allied species is *Cystignathus Schomburgkii*, which is found in marshes and woods. It is of a dark brown colour above, but light brown below.

The tree frogs (*Hyla*) are numerous, and offer several varieties. They are in general of small size, and of

pretty colours. They are easily recognised by the sponge-like pellets on the extremities of the toes, by means of which they are enabled to adhere to walls, trees, and houses. It is a common thing to find them inside the water goglets, and when disturbed, they take prodigious leaps, and fasten themselves against the ceiling, panes of glass, and mirrors, where they will remain a long time puffing their throats. Most of them have a kind of pouch under the throat, which is capable of considerable dilatation, especially when crying. They feed on insects, and spawn in water. Some species are common to the coasts; others are found more inland, on leaves.

The following species are met with here :

Hyla bicolor
 " *palmata*
 " *leprieurii*

Hyla venulosa
 " *calcarata*

Of the larger kinds of frogs or toads, Bufones, there are also several varieties. The most common is a species of a yellowish-brown colour, *Bufo marina vel aqua*, which is always to be seen hopping about the streets and houses in wet weather. They take to the water in spawning time.

Two other allied species are mentioned by Richard Schomburgk, *Bufo leschenaultii*, found among leaves in humid places in the neighbourhood of the river Pomeroon; and *Bufo margaritifera*, also found in damp wooded places in the interior.

Also *Dendrobates tinctorius*, a species of frog found in the stony banks of streams about the Roraima mountains.

Of the family of *Pipa* there is a large kind common to the town and country, and often seen in dark damp places about the houses. It is the *Pipa americana*. It

is easily known by the tuberculated appearance of the skin of the back. These are, in fact, a description of cells, in which the eggs of the female are placed to be hatched.

Another description of frog is alluded to by Richard Schomburgk, but not named, who says that he met with it up the river Essequibo, where it lives on the trees on the banks of the river. It has large yellow legs, body brown, spotted with black. It makes a noise like the paddle of a canoe, and is hence termed by the natives the paddler.

SECOND CLASS OF THE FIRST GREAT
DIVISION OF THE ANIMAL KINGDOM.

BIRDS—(*Aves*)—*Oviparous Vertebrata*.

GENERAL REMARKS ; CLASSIFICATION OF BIRDS.

- ORDER I.—ACCIPITRES, OR BIRDS OF PREY, INCLUDING VULTURES : THEIR VARIETIES AND HABITS—THE OWLS, DO. DO.—THE HAWKS AND EAGLES, DO. DO.
- ORDER II.—THE PASSERINÆ, OR SPARROW TRIBE : THE SHRIKES, THEIR VARIETIES AND HABITS—THE CHATTERERS, DO. DO.—THE TANAGERS, DO. DO.—THE THRUSHES, DO. DO.—THE FLYCATCHERS, DO. DO.—THE MANAKINS, DO. DO.—THE SWALLOWS, DO. DO.—THE GOATSUCKERS, DO. DO.—THE CASSIQUES, DO. DO.—THE TROUPIALES, DO. DO.—THE HUMMING BIRDS, DO. DO.—THE KINGFISHERS, DO. DO.
- ORDER III.—SCANSORIE, OR CLIMBERS : THE JACAMARS, THEIR VARIETIES AND HABITS—THE WOODPECKERS, DO. DO.—THE CLIMBERS, DO. DO.—THE BARBOTS, DO. DO.—THE CUCKOOS, DO. DO.—THE PARROTS, DO. DO.—FARROKETS AND MACAWS, DO DO.
- ORDER IV.—THE GALLINACEÆ: BIRDS OF THE POULTRY KIND—TURKEYS, THEIR VARIETIES AND HABITS—THE MAAM, DO. DO.—THE PARTRIDGE AND QUAIL, DO DO.—THE PIGEONS AND DOVES, DO. DO.
- ORDER V.—THE GRALLATORÆ, OR WADERS: THE FLOWERS, THEIR VARIETIES AND HABITS—THE CRANES, DO. DO.—THE SPOONBILL, DO. DO.—THE HERONS, DO. DO.—THE GAULDINS, DO. DO.—THE STORKS, DO. DO.—THE SCARLET IRIS, DO. DO.—THE CURLEWS, DO. DO.—THE SNIPE, DO. DO.—THE SANDPIPERS, DO. DO.—THE RAILS, DO. DO.
- ORDER VI.—THE PALMIPEDÆ, OR WEBFOOTED BIRDS: THE GULLS—THE SEA SWALLOWS—THE FRIGATE BIRDS—THE FELICANS—THE CORMORANTS—THE DIVERS—THE DUCKS.

The subject of birds now claims attention; and whether we consider the variety and numbers found here, the richness and beauty of their plumage, the surprising and in many cases melodious tones of their voice, and the curious and singular habits of most of them, there is offered a large field of curious inquiry, and one which

presents something new and instructive for every observer.

Large collections of birds are made annually by naturalists, bird-stuffers, and travellers, and the specimens are distributed among museums in Europe and America, or are added to private collections; but, with the exception of a few of the most common species, the inhabitants here generally know very little of the numerous birds found in Guiana.

There are, at least, between four and five hundred specimens already known and named, and no doubt many more are still to be discovered.

It is not pretended in the following observations on the ornithology of this country to give to the reader such an account of the birds peculiar to British Guiana as might be expected from the advanced state of knowledge possessed by the scientific world on this interesting subject. The attempt would be beyond my capabilities. In offering the few remarks which are here to be met with, my object has been to endeavour to present to a general reader such a view of the subject as would prove interesting, and at the same time to accompany the description of the feathered tribe with some degree of method, such as is adopted in more elaborate works on ornithology.

According to the arrangement of Professor Cabanis, who has classified the birds collected by Richard Schomburgk,* the following numbers occur :

1. Raptatores, or birds of prey	43
2. Scansores, or climbers	77
3. Gyratores	6
4. Clamatores	93
5. Oscines	83
6. Strisores	36
7. Rasores	15
8. Grallatores, or waders	55
9. Natatores, or swimmers	16

But in the following account of the birds I have adhered to the system of Cuvier in arranging them, and the faults which undoubtedly abound must rest rather in my imperfect sketch than on the model from which it is taken.

That distinguished naturalist has divided the class of birds into the six following orders:

1. The accipitres, or birds of prey
2. The passerinæ, or sparrow tribe
3. The scansoriæ, or climbers
4. The gallinacæ, or birds known as poultry
5. The gallatores, or waders, long naked legs, and partially web-footed
6. The palmipedes, or birds with palmated or webbed feet

These divisions, as well as others adopted by other ornithologists, are formed on the natural structure and habits of birds, into the nature of which it is unnecessary here to enter. The task is sufficiently difficult to furnish anything like a clear description of the numerous classes of birds which abound in this country, and to point out such peculiarities about them as will render them familiar to others.

The labours of Schomburgk, Hancock, Waterton, and others, have already contributed to our amusement and instruction on the subject of ornithology; and possibly there are few persons who have not at times felt the wish to have their curiosity satisfied about some one bird or other, and also experienced the pleasure of admiring their brilliant plumage, or listening to their enchanting voices. From the earliest streak of day to the latest sunbeam, the various families of birds awaken to spend their happy hours, either soaring up to the bright blue sky, skimming over the glistening waters, or revelling in the leafy shade of the forests; and even when the shades of night rest on the earth, the downy goatsuckers and solemn owls dart silently about in pursuit of pleasure or business.

ORDER I.—Of the Birds of Prey—*Accipitres*.

This class of birds abounds in British Guiana, and the individuals may be easily recognised by their hooked bill, powerful talons, and daring habits. They are met with in all parts of the country; from the common vulture to the stately eagle, they all find victims for their rage and appetite.

The vultures are pretty generally known. These useful, but ugly birds, are called here "Carrion Crows." They are much larger, however, than the common crow of Europe. Their colour is of a dull black; they rove about in quest of putrid food, of which they never lack a supply. Some assert that they occasionally feed on live rats, lizards, &c., but I believe this to be an error. They prefer waiting until the aroma of putrefaction provokes their appetites.

This singular instinct is entrusted for a wise purpose to these humble-looking creatures. Their ravenous appetites have the effect of preventing to a great extent the effluvia of putrid animal matter from vitiating the atmosphere.

Wherever a putrefying carcase begins to offend the senses of most animals, there, with unerring instinct, is sure to be found a troop of vultures.

In warm countries the service they perform is incredible, and for this reason they are never molested by the inhabitants.

I only know of three species of vulture in this colony.

The common carrion crow (*Cathartes vel vultur Jota*) of this country is universally found both on the coasts and in the interior, either soaring on dry sunny days at an immense height in the air, or swooping down in wide gyrations towards the ground. In fine weather, when on the look-out for food, or taking a bird's-eye view of

the earth, it has a quiet, steady, graceful soar, the head of the bird, if examined with a glass, being seen turning from side to side. If its attention is attracted to any inviting object, through the senses of scent and sight (for in its singular instinct in discovering dead and putrid carcases of animals it is evidently assisted by both these senses), it speedily descends, not direct, like the hawk, but in extensive gyrations or circles, and commences its loathsome meal. This movement on its part is not unnoticed by the other carrion crows similarly employed to itself, for no sooner does the fortunate discoverer direct his course to the earth, than the others invite themselves to the repast, and rapidly arrive from all directions.

If the carcase be that of a horse or ox, they perch singly or in small numbers on the body, picking with impatience at the tough hide, if putrefaction has not commenced, or waiting greedily on the neighbouring trees to watch the desired change.

The bodies of the drowned or murdered are occasionally discovered by means of the carrion crows, who are quickly attracted to the spot. In the case of a body imperfectly interred, "this bird will, so soon as putrefaction has commenced, be seen in the neighbourhood perched upon a tree or tombstone, and apparently much puzzled to know where the piece of mortality can be concealed which involves the (to him) delicious fragrancy."

After rain these birds may often be seen perched on lofty trees, with their wings outspread, but drooping, as if they were drying them, which, indeed, appears to be the case.

The carrion crow is a black, square-tailed vulture, with a naked head and neck, and has been confounded with the turkey buzzard. Our bird, however, is gre-

gamous—it is the *Cathartes vel vultur Jota* of Cuvier. The female builds her nest on the ground, of coarse grass or twigs, and lays three or four eggs of a greenish hue, studded with brown spots.

A second species (*Vultur aura*), somewhat smaller in size than the *Vultur Jota*, is closely allied to it. It is readily distinguished by having a yellowish-white head and neck, and appears not to be gregarious. It is not so common as the black-headed carrion crow, and is chiefly found among the creeks of the east coast.

The third species has been named the “King of the Vultures” (*Vultur vel sarcorhampus papa*), from his superior size and splendour. It is called *Irubicha* by some, and *Carrion Crow Governor* by the negroes. It is really a splendid bird, about the size of a turkey; the head and neck destitute of feathers, but gaudy-coloured membranes supply their place. The crown is scarlet. The front and back of the neck are of a beautiful orange yellow, and the sides rich scarlet. There are patches of blue and white about the ears and eyes; an orange yellow caruncle rests on the forehead. The colour of the body is whitish, the tail and part of the wings black, the belly white; the bill is orange and black; the eyes red, with white pupils. This bird is ferocious in its habits. I remember an instance where a child of three years of age was knocked down by one of these birds, which was allowed to rove about the yard with a chain and weight attached to its leg. It jumped upon the prostrate body of the terrified child, and was deliberately pecking at the face whilst the little boy was struggling to get away.

Great deference is shown to this majestic bird by the common vultures. It is said, that on a general feast of some recently discovered carcase in a state of putrefaction, no sooner is his presence recognised by the others, who

are enjoying their meal, than they instinctively retire and make way for his majesty, who advances with solemn dignity to the outspread viands, and dips his royal beak into the savoury mess.* After sufficiently regaling himself, he has consideration enough to move away from the spot, and give place to the more vulgar appetites. The royal vultures are to be seen in flocks in the interior, and, when assembled to feed, present a beautiful appearance. I have heard it asserted by others that there is a species of white vulture which is occasionally to be seen. Its size, habits, and haunts are the same as the *Vultur Jota*, but is of an entire white colour, and seldom more than a single bird is seen; but having never met with it, I can neither vouch for its existence nor its character. I once saw a royal vulture when it was quite young; the plumage then was entirely black, as well as the membranes about the head and neck.

The Owls—*Strigideæ*.

There are about seven species of night owls, from the size of a fowl to that of a sparrow. Some are met with in the city; but up the rivers, in the forests, and in country places they abound to a great extent. They frequent the haunts of bats, and the society of young birds and small animals, on whom they prey. They associate frequently with the goatsuckers, and, at first glance, it is not always easy to distinguish between the one and the other in cases where they approach in size. The same long silky feathers, the same grey sombre livery, characterises the plumage of both birds. Their cry is, however, very dissimilar. No one who has ever heard

* This, perhaps, is generally the case in the wild state; but when one of the king of vultures is tamed, or made a prisoner, this mark of respect is not invariably shown to him by the carrion crows, who equally with himself share the repast, or even scare him away.

it in the silent watching of the night can mistake the screech of the owl. Some of the owls have a most peculiar cry, and persons familiar with them recognise the species by their voice. I once heard in the country, at midnight, the call of an owl called here the "Jumbi, or Ghost-bird," which greatly interested me. It gave a soft prolonged note, followed by a quick whistle or scream. There was dangerous illness in the house at that moment, and the ominous voice of this peculiar bird did not tend to reanimate the desponding spirits of those present. It proved, however, a false prophet, for the patient got well. The larger species of owls have tufts of feathers around their ears, which are very long. They are known as the horned or long-eared owls. The species here are:

<i>Strix cucularia</i>		<i>Strix perlata</i>
" <i>passerinoides</i>		" <i>choliba</i>
" <i>torquata</i>		" <i>asio</i>
" <i>lineata</i>		" <i>vel bubo virginianus</i>

About forty kinds of true hawks are known in British Guiana. They vary in size from the blackbird to the eagle. They prey on fish, snakes, birds, and the young of some animals, and abound throughout the country. Many species are very common, and are well known, such as the chicken-hawk, &c. The haunts and habits of most of the others are, however, but little known, except to the patient Indian who frequents their vicinity:

The kites first claim our notice. There are several kinds here.

One, the *Falco melanops vel asturina melanops vel milvus*, is about the size of a duck; the head, body, wings, and tail, are black; the belly whitish. The beak is short, curved, and yellow; the throat is red; it has also a red patch around the eyes, which are of a reddish hue. The legs are red, rough, and scaly. These birds

are called by the Indians Pullatoo. They live in flocks, and make a great noise if disturbed; their scream is very shrill. They prey on insects, eggs, and small birds, and are chiefly found in the Savannahs.

The second species is known here as the swallow-tailed kite, *Falco vel Nauclerus furcatus*, owing to the tail opening like the blades of scissors. The throat, head, neck, breast, and belly are white; the wings and tail of a bluish black; the tail is long; the beak short and curved; the legs short. These birds fly very swiftly, and are met with in pairs or in flocks about the sand-hills and open plains.

The kites differ from the other hawks here in living occasionally on insects, and in their swifter flight. The beak and feet are weaker than those of the hawks. Numerous other species are met with.

It would, perhaps, be tedious to enumerate each individual hawk met with. I will content myself with dwelling on some of them only. The large brown hawk measures about one foot ten inches from beak to end of tail, and three feet across the wings. The plumage of the back, belly, breast, tail, and wing coverts reddish-brown, with a black patch in the centre of the larger feathers. The tail and wings are black; the plumage of the head and neck yellowish-white, with black streaks in the centre of the feathers, and a patch of black feathers in front of the throat.

The Crab-hawk is so called from its propensity to feed on crabs, which it diligently seeks for in muddy places. It is readily known by almost invariably being found with its claws and legs encrusted with mud. The plumage of the head, back, rump, wing, and tail coverts blackish-brown, with a ferruginous tint on some of the larger feathers; wings reddish-brown, tipped black, and spotted. The tail is bluish, edged white; throat brown;

breast, belly, and lower wing coverts red-brown, with waving lines of black; beak red at base, tipped black; legs and claws strong, scaly, and of a yellow-green colour. It frequents the mud flats, where crabs are plentiful.

The Mottled hawk is almost one foot four inches long, and measures about two feet across the wings; its plumage is variegated brown, black, red, and white.

Another species of hawk, the Insect-eater, resembles the crab-hawk. Its plumage is ash-coloured, with brown and black feathers; it is only about one foot in length, and the claws are often encrusted with mud. It feeds almost exclusively on beetles and other insects.

The Bull-dog hawk (*Ibycter leucogaster vel aquilinus*), called by the Macusis Callau-callau, and by the Warraus Yacka-tata, from the noise it makes, is found in flocks of about a dozen, on the trees along the banks of the rivers. This bird is also known as one of the Carracarra, or laughing hawks.

A species of hawk about one foot three inches long, is very daring, and is often to be seen alighting on the backs of cattle which are suffering from sores, in order, apparently, to feast on the maggots which are present. Its plumage is yellow-brown, with tints of ferruginous brown and dirty-white. It feeds on snakes, and is sometimes called the long-legged Snake-eater.

The Baridi hawk is about nine inches long, with a short but deeply-notched beak. This bird flies chiefly towards night, and preys on mice, bats, &c. It is found chiefly up the rivers and creeks. The plumage of the head, back, wings, and tail is of a bluish-black colour; the throat and part of breast are of a yellowish-brown; the belly and under part of the wings are prettily marked black and white; the feathers of the vent and thighs are

reddish. This bird never strikes its prey, but confines itself to pillaging nests, and destroying young birds

There are several species of falcons, the habits and appearance of which are highly curious. Some are known as the Laughing falcons (*Falco cachinnans*), from their peculiar cry, and are about six in number. One of these, the white falcon, is met with in the neighbourhood of marshes in the interior, where it feeds on fish and reptiles.

There are also the brown and the spotted falcons, and the yellow and the red-headed Carracarra hawks.

The common Chicken-hawk, *Falco palumbarius*, and others, are called Goshawks, and are known by their short and scutellated tarsi; their wings are shorter than their tails.*

The black hawk of this country is a large and powerful bird, very fierce and destructive, but not very common. It is found about the coasts, and attacks hen-roosts, rats, and other small quadrupeds. A large bird, the Curry-curry (*Ibis rubra*), was once shot by a sportsman, but before the bird fell to the ground a large black hawk seized it, and bore it away.

Another species of black hawk found up the river Demerara is much more uncommon than the above; according to Mr. King, a very respectable bird-stuffer and observant naturalist, its habits are allied to the species found on the coasts.

The blue hawk of the cataracts is a large bird, rarely seen on the lower parts of the rivers, but frequenting the rapids and falls higher up. A fine specimen of this beautiful hawk was shot with a single bullet by my lamented friend the late Dr. Bonyun while descending the dangerous rapid of Twasinki, lat. 5 degs., on the river

* Cuvier.

Essequibo. An interesting account of this, as well as the hawks of the country, has been given by the same gentleman.*

The large owl-beaked fish-hawk is found in the Savannahs, feeding on fresh-water fish, especially the "Hassar" (*Callichthys*), whose thick plates of mail are quickly separated by the remarkable beak of this bird, the upper mandible of which is very much curved.

A smaller species, the small owl-beaked fish-hawk, is found in similar haunts as the last; its general appearance and habits also resemble the other.

Both of these birds have long and powerful wings, as well as strong claws, and scour the Savannahs in search of prey.

The eagles, or ignoble birds of prey, so called because they are not readily employed in falconry, are singularly interesting in their habits.

One of these, the great Harpy eagle of Guiana (*Falco harpyia*), is the true Fisher eagle. It possesses of all birds the most terrific bill and claws, and preys on fish and small animals, such as the sloth, monkeys, and fawns. The plumage is ash-coloured on the head and neck; the mantle and sides of the breast are of a blackish-brown; it is of a whitish colour above, and is striped with brown on the thighs; it has a black tuft of feathers on the back of the head, which it erects at pleasure.†

It is solitary in its habits, and very ferocious. It has been known, when irritated, to attack a man, and its strength is so great as to enable it to inflict a fracture of the skull with its powerful beak. When young, the plumage of this bird is white. It is called by the Macussis "Guan," and is chiefly seen on the highest mountains of the interior.

* See Transactions of the Zoological Society, February 11, 1851.

† Cuvier.

The middle-sized eagle of Guiana is known as the crested Goshawk (*Falco ornatus*) and booted eagle, or sparrow-hawk. It varies in colour from black and white to a deep brown, and has a semicircular crest of black feathers, with a white central star, which it elevates when excited. It has a loud and peculiar cry—"Ha, ha, ha, ha."

The small eagle of Guiana, *Falco guianensis*, resembles in colour and crest the *Falco harpyia* above described; it is not, however, so large, and its naked and scutellated tarsi sufficiently distinguish it. Its habits and haunts are the same as the others. It builds its nest on trees about the coast and feeds on fish.

There is another eagle peculiar to this neighbourhood; it is known as the *Falco cayennensis*, or Petit autour de Cayenne. It is of a whitish colour, but I am unacquainted with its habits.

The following TABLE comprises a list of the numerous species of Eagles, Hawks, Falcons, and Kites, found in British Guiana.

LATIN NAME.	ENGLISH NAME.	INDIAN NAME.
<i>Falco vel morphnus harpyia</i>	harpy eagle	guan
" " <i>morphnus guianensis</i>	eagle of Guiana	
" <i>coronatus v. ornatus</i>	crested goshawk	
" <i>magnirostris</i>	great beak	ohocanu and aja-king
" <i>gracilis</i>		mohi
" <i>nitidus v. striolatus</i>	plumbeous falcon	wonira
" <i>pocilonotus</i>		
" <i>concentricus</i>		
" <i>v. asturima melanops</i>	streaked falcon	
" <i>tyrannus</i>	tyrant falcon	
" <i>sufflata</i>	surinam falcon	
" <i>sequinoctialis</i>		
" <i>v. odontiorchis cayennensis</i>	little autour	
<i>Nisus sexfasciatus</i>		savato
<i>Falco v. herpethores cachinnans</i>	laughing eagle	oho and mapillo
" <i>v. buteo pterocles</i>		
" <i>v. " abbreviatus</i>		
" <i>v. ichthyoborus busarellus</i>		
" <i>v. hypomorphnus urubitinga</i>		waewipany
" <i>v. " anthracinus</i>		
" <i>v. " buson</i>	hobby buzzard	
" <i>v. " rutilans</i>		
" <i>braziliensis v. polyborus cheriway</i>		cara-carau, caraca, and tosorih

LATIN NAME.	ENGLISH NAME.	INDIAN NAME.
Milvago chimachima v. falco degener		wokira
Falco v. daptrius ater		outuanaitye
„ v. ibycter aquilinus vel leucogaster	carra-carra, or bull-dog	yacka - tata and callau-callau
„ aurantius	orange-breasted hobby	teu - teu (yeu-yeu)
„ v. hypotriorchis femoralis		sakutu
„ v. cerchneis sparverius		kiririh
„ v. harpagus bidentatus	notched falcon	umoi and otaca-raeyon
„ palumbarius		
„ v. gampsonyx swainsonii		komotoh-witwi
„ v. elanus dispar		marawia
„ v. ictinia plumbea		watatow
„ v. nauclerus furcatus		
„ v. rostrhamus hamatus	swallow-tailed kite	zitow
„ v. regerhinus uncinatus		moriro

Of the Second Order of Birds, or "Passerinae."

Of the second order of birds of British Guiana the most prominent and remarkable are confessedly the large family of the Shrikes.

They are perhaps the first birds which attract the attention of strangers on their first arrival, by their numbers, their boldness, and their habits.

The most common is that so well known to the inhabitants as the Kiskadi, *Lanius sulphureus*. This strange name is a corruption of the French sentence "*Qu'est-ce-que-dit,*" to which the shrill note of the bird bears some resemblance. It is constantly uttering this sentence, but it has also other notes shorter and deeper in tone. From the absence of shyness, these birds collect about the dwelling-houses, and do not seem at all disturbed at the presence of man. They are found very destructive to the produce of gardens, but are not often molested on account of the number of insects which they destroy. They feed on berries, fruit, insects, and worms; when feeding, they will allow you to approach so close as almost to touch them. They possess great strength

and boldness. I have often been surprised at seeing them striking large nuts with their beaks against some hard substance until they broke the shell. They did not seem to mind the concussion of the brain to which such severe blows must have subjected them. They are very pugnacious and quarrelsome birds, and are constantly at variance with one another, if we may judge by the noise they make when several of them meet together on the same tree. They boldly attack other birds much larger than themselves, such as the common vulture, pigeon, and even the hawks. From mere wantonness, apparently, they fly upon unoffending and harmless birds, peck at them, pounce on them, and dash at their heads, and worry them in every possible way; the victims all the time dodging about in order to escape the attacks of the enraged kiskadi. They also display their anger towards smaller birds, which they completely scare away by their violent assaults. If caught in traps or wounded, they are still undaunted, opening their wide mouths and snapping sharply at the fingers of their captor, and I have frequently known them to attack children and boys who annoyed or molested them. The most common species is met with in all parts of this country, the plumage of the wings and back is of a brown colour; the breast, belly, and vent are of a beautiful sulphur yellow; the head is parti-coloured black and white, with an erectile tuft of yellow and orange feathers. The female is of a different colour, and less handsome. The other species do not differ materially in their plumage and habits, and need not be enumerated. The kiskadi builds a slovenly, irregular-looking nest of thick grasses, generally upon the branches of some large tree; it looks more like a rat's nest, with a hole at the side. The female lays three eggs of a white colour, studded with black spots at the larger end.

These birds are very common both in town and country, and their perpetual vociferations attract constant attention. If excited or alarmed, they have a peculiar triumphant kind of cry, "Kis-kis-kiskadi." There are several varieties of the species here, but they are all recognised easily by their cry, and the peculiar brown and bright orange plumage.

There are numerous other species of shrikes, or birds closely allied to them, which deserve some notice here. The *Lanius cayanus* is often met with in the forests; it is nearly the size of a thrush; the head is large, of black plumage with some grey feathers; the throat, belly, breast, and vent are white, with the shafts of some feathers on the breast black; the back is ash-coloured; wings black, wing coverts ash-coloured, also the rump; tail black. It is a formidable-looking bird for its size, which is about eight inches in length, and has the habits of the other shrikes in ferocity and daring.

There are five or six different species of a shrike or butcher-bird, which are called here check birds, from the fact of their parti-coloured or chequered plumage, which for the most part in the males is black and white; the females are very different in colour, and would scarcely be recognised by one unacquainted with the red-brown plumage; they are in general about the size of sparrows; the beak is rather long and crooked. They are constantly met with among thick foliage, and have a peculiar loud and shrill note.

There are several kind of birds allied to the family of Tyrants, but I am not sufficiently acquainted with their habits to venture upon a description, and as they have a general resemblance to the shrikes, it is of less importance. There are, however, the Bald-headed Tyrant (*Gymnocephalus calvus*), the Fork-tailed tyrant, and the Tyrant of Brazil.

Birds belonging to the Tyrant and Shrike Families, according to the nomenclature of Professor Cabanis:*

Lanius sulphuratus vel Saurophagus sulphuratus—kiskadi	Cyclorhynchus flaviventris
Lanius vel Saurophagus lictor	Myobius vel muscipala barbatus
Scaphorynchus vel tyrannus audax	" erythrurus
Milvulus vel Muscipala tyrannus—Savannahs	Elanea vel muscipala pagana
Tyrannus vel " rufinus	" vel " cayennensis
" vel " melancho-	" aurifrons
licus	" brevirostris
Myiarchus vel " ferox	" albicollis
" vel " coronatus	" spadicea
	Tyrannulus vel regulus elatus
	Mionectes oleagineus

There are four or five different kinds of birds allied to the interesting families of Crown Birds and Chatterers. They are remarkable for their brilliant plumage and lively appearance. They are met with in all parts of the country, and feed on insects, seeds, berries, &c.; their general size is that of a thrush. They have no song,† but utter a lively note—"Qu'et."

One species (*Ampelis carnifex*) has a brownish-red body and breast, crimson belly, and brownish wings. The male is a splendid bird, and has a magnificent scarlet breast, head, and tail. It is known here as the Fire-bird.

The second species is of a splendid ultramarine colour, generally with a rich purple throat and breast, with dark wings and tail. It is known as the purple-throated Cotinga (*Ampelis cotinga*).

The third species is known as the "Wallababa," from the peculiar noise it makes. It is of a beautiful rich purple colour throughout, except about the wings, which are whitish, the four first feathers being tipped brown. (*Ampelis pompador*) Pompador cotinga.

The fourth species is a true Chatterer; it is of a blackish colour all over, and is readily distinguished by a tuft on its head—a kind of "feather helmet." (*Ampelis garrulus*.)

* Reisen in British Guiana. Richard Schomburgk.

† Waterton.

There is another species of a blue colour (*Ampelis cærulea*). Here we have an instance of the most charming birds as to plumage, but which are destitute of song. Nothing is known in respect to their nests, for they retire during the breeding season far away from their usual haunts.

A species of chatterer is known here as the Bell-bird (*Ampelis carunculata*), from the fact of its sweet note sounding at a distance like the tinkling of a bell. In the silent forest the note of this beautiful bird is heard at a distance of a mile or more. The Indians call the bird "Dara," and the Spaniards "Campanero." It is about the size of a blackbird, but it is of an entire white colour when arrived at adult age. The young ones are greenish in colour, and gradually become white; the females, however, remain of a greenish hue. The male bird has a spiral tube, or caruncle, from two to three inches in length, composed of erectile-tissue, and black in colour, situated on the top of the head; when loose, this caruncle hangs down, like the wattle of the turkey. They are melancholy birds, and perch themselves on the dried branches of the lofty mora-trees, pouring forth their bell-like notes, especially after rain. The note of the female is not so loud and clear as that of the male.

Another species allied to this is the *Procinatus ventralis vel tersina cærulea*. It is seldom seen, being rather a bird of passage than a constant resident in our woods.

The following species of chatterers have also been enumerated by other writers:

Ampelis cayana
" *cineracea*

| *Lipangus simplex*

There are a number of small birds, called here Tanagers (*Tanagra*), which appear allied to the linnets and finches of Europe. Many of them have a fine lively

song. They abound throughout the whole country, and the variety of species is very great. Waterton, in his highly entertaining "Wanderings," says that he has met with eighteen different species; but I am only acquainted with twelve species; they vary greatly in size, colour, and general appearance; some are decked in green like the Love birds, others are of a dull brown and grey colour, whilst many are found with the most striking plumage, such as blue and purple. They are generally about the size of sparrows, and feed on fruits, insects, and berries. The wild fig-tree* is a place of great resort to them.

Many of them are known here by the name of Sackis, and are common about the town. These are of a lively blue colour, and are very noisy and quarrelsome. I have seen them fight so desperately as to fall down exhausted and struggling to the ground; so that they could easily be captured.

The Blue Sacki (*Tanagra serioptera*) lays two eggs, bluish colour, studded with purplish spots.

There is one species of grey sacki, and three other species variegated blue and black.

Another species of tanagra is white and black.

Two very small species are blackish in colour with yellow breast, and tuft over the beak.

Another species is of a splendid dark purple colour all over except about the breast, where the plumage is tinted reddish.

The following are the species of tanagers known:†

<i>Tanagra serioptera</i>	(blue sacki)
" <i>episcopus</i>	(blue do.)
" <i>olivaseens</i>	(brown do.)
" <i>archiepiscopus</i>	
" <i>cayana vel callospiza cayana</i>	
" <i>mexicana vel</i>	" <i>mexicana</i>
" <i>gyrola vel</i>	" <i>gyrola</i>

* Waterton.

† The above list is taken from Richard Schomburgk's "Reisen in British Guiana."

Tanagra punctata vel *callospiza punctata*
 " tatao vel " tatao
 " atricapilla vel *pogonothraupis atricapilla*
 " nigerrima vel *tachyphonus nigerrimus*
 " ochropygos vel " ochropygos
 " cristatus vel " cristatus
 " canicapilla vel *geothypis nelata*
 " iridina vel *hypothypis iridina*
 " violacea vel *euphonia violacea*
 " cayennensis vel " cayennensis
Euphonia minuta

Allied to the tanagers are the warblers (*Motacilla*), of which there are several species here; in their habits and appearance they are somewhat similar to the thrushes, and it is difficult accurately to define the distinctions between these families.

The species described are—

Motacilla vel *henicocichla noveboracensis*
Phoenicoseoma vel *pyranga azarae*
Rhamphopsis atro-coccineus
Troglodytes rufulus
Cyphorhinus leucostictus
 " vel *turdus cantans* (sings well)—wren
Thryothorus platensis " "
 " *albipectus* " "
 " *coraya* " "
Campylorhynchus vel *furnarius griseus*
Donacobius vel *turdus atricapillus*

The Thrushes—*Turdus*, *Turdidæ*, *Dentirostres*.

The thrushes of this country are equally interesting with those of Europe, but do not exist in such numbers; several species are met with about the city, and are known to have a sweet song. Early in the morning these birds may be heard about the houses. They are very shy, build their nests in lonely places, and are seldom molested by the inhabitants. There are six or seven different species met with; they differ much in size, but their plumage is more or less alike. The following are the names of the species known:

<i>Turdus fumigatus</i>		<i>Turdus phæopygus</i>
" <i>gymnophthalmus</i>		" <i>albicollis</i>
" <i>albiventer</i>		

The lazy-bird, as it is here termed, is about the size of a small thrush, but is in no other way allied to it. Its plumage is, however, in general of a brown colour, and it has rather a long tail. It derives its appropriate name from its indolent habits; it builds no nest of its own, but in a cowardly manner deprives the little wren of this country of hers, destroying the eggs and substituting its own in place of the others. There is often great disturbance occasioned in the galleries of the houses by these domestic disputes between the excited little lady wren, thus turned out of her dwelling and robbed of her progeny, and the domineering lazy-bird, which appears to think that might is right.

Allied to the thrushes and the shrikes are a number of birds commonly met with, and of which there is little to say as to their habits and appearance—a list, merely, is therefore given of such birds:

<i>Myrmonax vel turdus cinnamomeus</i>	<i>Thamnophilus stagurus</i>
" <i>leucophrys</i>	" <i>cirrhatas</i>
<i>Pyriglena vel lanius funebris</i>	" <i>nævius</i>
<i>Hypocnemis vel turdus tintinnabulata</i>	" <i>ruficollis</i>
" <i>pecilonotâ</i>	<i>Formicivora vel motacilla grisea</i>
<i>Holocnemis vel turdus lineatus</i>	" <i>vel myrmothera axillaris</i>
<i>Pithys vel pipra albifrons</i>	" <i>vel muscicapa pygmæa</i>
" <i>vel turdus pectorales</i>	" <i>vel myiothera quadrivittata</i>
<i>Conopophaga angustirostris</i>	<i>Rhopoterpe guttata</i>
<i>Colobathris vel pitta macularia</i>	<i>Thamnomanes glaucus</i>
" <i>vel turdus tinniens</i>	<i>Furnarius leucopus</i>
<i>Myiothera vel " colma</i>	<i>Lynallascis ruficauda</i>
" <i>analis</i>	" <i>ruficapilla</i>
<i>Dasy cephalâ vel muscicapa thamnophiloides</i>	<i>Anabates pyrrhodes</i>
D. " <i>uropygialis</i>	<i>Xenops dentirostris</i>
<i>Thamnophilus vel lanius doliatas</i>	

The wrens (so called) of this country are allied to the ant-catchers on the one hand, and to the creepers on the other; some of the birds of this class are very tame, and build their nests in empty bottles and holes about the houses and garden trees. They are of a reddish-brown colour, and have a remarkable sweet and cheerful song. The female lays one small white egg.

This species is called *Thryothorus platensis* ; they are very useful in destroying insects which infest the houses, and their pleasing appearance and note render them popular favourites here as well as elsewhere. A bird allied to the wren is very like a canary in size and appearance ; the plumage is of a greenish-yellow ; it has a lively note.

The fly-catchers, (*Muscicapa*) are represented here by the

<i>Muscicapa vel basileuterus vermi- vora</i>	<i>Muscicapa vel setophaga rutililla Setophaga castaneocapilla</i>
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The fly-catchers are an interesting group of birds ; they live on insects, and have horizontally depressed bills with a slightly hooked point, and are furnished with bristles at their base.

Their habits are in general so like those of the shrikes as to render further description unnecessary.

One species has a long bifurcated tail, which renders its flight heavy and jerking. It perches on a bough and watches the approach of insects ; when one is discovered, the bird darts towards it and seizes it with its unerring beak, and wheeling round resumes its seat. It opens and shuts its tail in flying just like the working of a pair of scissors. The head is black, with a few yellow feathers at the top ; the throat and breast are white ; the back and rump ash-coloured, wings brown-black, and the tail blackish and forked, the two outside feathers being eight or nine inches long.

The manakins are very small birds, with the most varied plumage ; there are several species of them ; the largest is white and black, and about the size of a wren ; another is red and black ; one species is black with a white crown ; another like the last, but with a yellow and red head ; another species is dark-coloured, with a white throat.

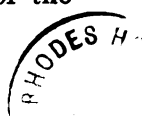
The manakins are forest birds, and are constant visitors to the wild fig-tree when the fruit is ripe.

The following species are described :

<p><i>Pipra</i> <i>pareola</i> „ <i>longicauda</i> „ <i>manacus</i> „ <i>aureola</i> „ <i>aurocapilla</i></p>	<p><i>Pipra</i> <i>cornuta</i> „ <i>leucocilla</i> „ <i>serena</i> <i>Zenopipo</i> <i>atrontetens</i> <i>Hemipipo</i> <i>chlorion</i></p>
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A very peculiar bird is allied to the family of manakins, although much larger in size and belonging to a separate group, it is well known as the “cock of the rock” (*Pipra rupicola*), or hoopoe hen. The male is of a splendid orange colour on the body and head, the wing feathers are brown, edged with yellow and red like the tail, the beak is reddish yellow. There is a fine tuft of feathers, crescent shaped, placed on the head like a cocked hat; the eyes are yellow white; the tail is short and square, and looks as if it had been docked. The female and young birds are of an obscure brown with a diminutive comb or crest. The female lays two eggs, and scratches the ground like the common fowl, which it also resembles in other respects. They build their nests chiefly of wood among the rocks, are solitary in their habits, and live chiefly on fruit. Some of the antics exhibited by the male birds are very remarkable; they are described as inclined to dancing, and have been seen capering about throwing up the head, opening the tail like a fan; now strutting about, and scratching the ground with a hopping gait, gabbling all the time until tired, when another bird takes up the performance, the others looking on with apparent delight.

There are numerous kinds of the swallow tribe met with here. Their habits are much the same as in colder countries, except that they do not migrate. They are chiefly seen in wet weather, and are frequently noticed about the mouth of the river, resting on the ropes of the



ships close to the stellings, and not unfrequently on the trees and rafters of wooden buildings. They are rarely seen in such large flocks as in Europe, owing, no doubt, to the fact of there being no necessity for them to congregate previous to a voyage. They build their nests in chimneys and wooden buildings that are not much frequented. I remember seeing, however, a long pendulous nest built by one species in the gallery of the public buildings, a place frequently thronged by people.

Another species constructs a beautiful nest of twigs which hangs suspended on the branches of trees.

I was once told by a party in the habit of shooting birds to stuff and sell, that he had met with one species of large size ; a flock of about fifty was passing and he could only procure one specimen. Its wings when extended measured about a foot in length, in all probability this was a species of the swift (*Cypselus*), which bird is not often seen in this country.

Martins and swallows are constantly seen on the sugar estates, where they frequent the neighbourhood of the "megass logies" (large wooden buildings like barns, open at the sides, and used for the storing of megass or dried cane after the saccharine juice has been crushed out by rollers), no doubt for the number of flies and other insects which abound there. Early in the morning, and about sunset, the swallows are particularly active, their rapid and graceful movements in eager search for prey invisible to human eyes afford an ever interesting sight to the naturalist.

One species of swallow met with up the Demerara river is exactly four inches long, including the tail, it measures also four inches across the wings. It has a blackish head, wings, back, and tail, the rump is white, the throat whitish, whilst the belly is of a buff colour speckled brown and grey ; the tail is short and square, and composed of ten feathers, which have their

quills or shafts projecting beyond the barb, and very sharp pointed ; the legs are not feathered low down.

A second species is of the same size as the above, but it has a forked tail about three inches long. It is of a blackish colour on the head, back, wings, side, and tail, but the feathers on the head, back, tail, and wing coverts are edged white ; the throat and belly are whitish. The legs are feathered as far as the toes.

A third species (*Hirundo purpurea*) is larger than the other two, and is of a deep bluish black on the head, wings, and back, whilst underneath it is white ; the tail is square.

These birds are chiefly seen among the shipping, and oftentimes rest on the courida trees adjoining the river.

A fourth species I received from Berbice (Canje Creek). It is of large size, being from five to six inches in length, including the tail, which only measures two inches, and is composed of twelve feathers, the outside ones being a little longer than the others ; the colour of the head, back, rump, and wing coverts is bluish black ; wings and tail brownish black ; throat and breast greyish brown ; vent, belly, and sides whitish ; legs not feathered ; the thumb opposing the other toes.

A fifth species was shot at plantation Aurora, Essequibo. It is larger than the others, measuring six inches in length, and nine inches across the wings. The colour of the head, back, and wings is lustrous steel blue ; the rump, throat, belly, and vent are white ; the feathers of the upper wing coverts are edged white on the outside ; the tail is square, of a greenish black colour, the two outside feathers being edged white.

A sixth species (*Hirundo albicollis*) I procured from up the river Demerara. It is from four to five inches in

length, has a forked tail and long narrow wings, which stretch backwards about half an inch beyond the tail. The head is round, and of a bluish black colour; the beak is short and crooked; a white patch of feathers is placed in front of the eyes. The throat and front part of the chest are white; a circle of white feathers surround the neck like a collar. The back, tail, belly, and vent are bluish black; the wings of a similar colour, but most of the feathers are edged white; a patch of white feathers is placed at the sides of the rump; the legs are feathered as far as the claws.

This bird builds a peculiar nest, which deserves notice. It is pendulous, and about one foot in length; it is made up of some woolly substance, and resembles spongio-piline in appearance. It is open at the top, and half way down the inside there is a projecting ledge.

The following species are described in Richard Schomburgk's work.

Hirundo vel prognè purpura	Hirundo melanoleuca
" vel " tapera	" vel atticora fasciata
" leucoptera	" albicollis

The Goat-suckers (*Caprimulgus*), as they have been improperly termed, are an inoffensive and interesting class of birds, which have been admirably described by Waterton. They have been styled by the French* "Engoutevent," or swallows of wind, from the fact of a peculiar humming sound which is occasioned by the rushing of air into their large mouths when distended in the pursuit of insects. The goat-suckers rest in the forests during the day, and come out towards night in search of food, which consists of moths, flies, and other insects. Their eyes cannot bear the light. It is a vulgar error to suppose that they feed on the milk of animals, for

* Cuvier.

although frequently seen hopping about near to cattle, it is only for the purpose of ridding them of troublesome companions, such as flies and worms. Waterton says that there are nine species here, and that the general plumage is like that of all night birds.

The following are the names of eight species:

Caprimulgus albicollis	Caprimulgus nigrescens	Caprimulgus grandis
" decussatus	" furoifer	" rufus
" cayennensis	" nacunda	

They have a remarkable cry, plaintive and soft; neither the Indians nor negroes like to destroy these birds; they are regarded as omens, and by the ignorant are considered as the habitations of departed souls. They are reported to sit longitudinally on the branches of trees.* One species is about the size of a wood-owl; the general plumage of all of them is very like that of owls, and does not require description; two species are about the size of thrushes; one species is of the size of a pigeon, and the others are smaller. They lay a small number of eggs on the ground, and are very indifferent as to the mode of nest.

The Sparrow tribe.—*Conirostres, Tringilla.*

The birds of the sparrow tribe are numerous in variety, but are little understood as yet. Many of them are called here grass birds, from the fact of their feeding and building their nests chiefly in the long grasses about the roadsides. Their plumage is generally dull, being black, brown, or bluish. One common species constructs a nest, close to the roadside, of thick grass and twigs. The female lays three or four eggs, of a neutral tint colour with purple spots.

The following species have been described:

* Waterton.

Saltator vel tanagra magna	Arremon personatus
" corulescens	Calyptrophorus vel tanagra gularis
" olivascens	Coccyborus ater
" vel tanagra atra	Sporophila vel loxia americana
Pitylus vel loxia grossus	" castaneiventris
" vel loxia canadensis	Sycalis vel Fringilla braziliensis
Cissopis minor	" minor
Arremon vel tanagra silens	Zonotrichia vel Fringilla matutina

There are a great many species of the Cassique in this country. They are generally known as mocking-birds, and are called by the Indians Suwacco. They imitate in a very remarkable manner the notes of other birds, also the barking of dogs, or bleating of sheep. They delight especially in mocking the Guinea-birds. They are gregarious in their habits, and feed on fruit, seeds, &c. When not better engaged, they amuse themselves by throwing themselves forward and downwards from the branches of trees, and rise again repeating the joke. These birds have a sort of song of their own, short and sweet, but it does not come up in talent to their imitative notes, which are surprisingly accurate. Their nests, constructed of roots and grasses, are very remarkable, being about three or four feet long, pendulous, and attached to the branches of trees, where they are sometimes seen in great numbers, three or four hundred sporting in the breeze; being placed, however, on such fragile foundations, they are admirably secured from the approach of animals.

About seven species are commonly noticed.

One is about the size of a large blackbird, has a shining black body, wings, and tail; the belly and rump being of a bright orange-yellow, and the beak sulphur colour.

A second species is entirely black, except the rump, which is bright yellow.

The third species, *Cassicus vel oriolus cristatus*, is the largest, and has a chocolate-coloured body and wings;

yellow patch on neck, and ten yellow tail-feathers, the two centre ones being black, and shorter than the others; beak black, tipped yellow. It has an erectile tuft of five or six long black feathers on the head.

The other species have all yellow tails, with chesnut-coloured, or greenish yellow bodies.

The following are the species of cassique known :

Cassicus cristatus	Cassicus hæmor-	Cassicus albiros-	
" viridis v. angusti-	rhous	tris v.	xanthornus
frons	Cassicus persicus	" "	chrysopterus

The Troupiales, icterus vel oriolus, are an interesting group of birds. They have a sweet song, and have been called the nightingales of Guiana; the black and orange species especially has a sweet note.

The Troupiales, or Carange,* are easily domesticated, but cannot be kept in cages. They build long pendulous nests, like those of the mocking-birds; the females are not so brightly robed as the males; the colour of the plumage in some species is quite different.

There are several varieties commonly known; one has black wings and tail, golden yellow head, neck, and breast. It is about the size of a thrush, and has a sweet and plaintive note. Another species is smaller, the body and throat are yellow. This species goes about in flocks, and has an indifferent song. The third species, Icterus vel oriolus xanthornus, has a black head and throat, bright yellow breast, and patch on shoulders; the wings are black, with a few white feathers; it is called here the plantain bird. The fourth species, Icterus chrysocephalus, is small, has a yellow head and body, black tail and throat, with parti-coloured wings. The species known are :

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Icterus xanthornus — plantain | 2. Icterus jamacaii |
| bird | 3. " chrysocephalus |

* Vielot.

Another species allied to these is very commonly met with in flocks around the roads and fields, where it feeds on the grain and insects mixed with dung. It is an entire black colour, and very glossy; its tail is hollowed out like a boat when it flies, and sometimes fan-shaped. It is a true *Icterus*, and has been termed the Boat-tailed Grackle,* (*Sturnus vel Icterus jamaicensis*). Other species allied to the above, are—

Sturnella ludoviciana
Molothrus atronitens
Lamprosars guianensis

Chalcophanes vel sturnus jamaicensis
 „ *minor*

A species of pie is known here as the Ricebird, Black Cassique, or Surinam Crow, *Cassicus Niger*. It is of an entire glossy and lustrous black colour. The feathers around the neck are erectile, and form a kind of muff, giving these birds a curious appearance when hopping about. Their general size is that of a jackdaw. They are met with near habitations, where they plunder the corn and rice-fields. They are sometimes seen in flocks of fifty or more, and occasionally hover about cattle, evidently for the purpose of treating themselves to a stray insect. They approach the orioles in their mode of flight, which is very rapid, and also resemble them in other respects.

There are two species of jay in British Guiana. One species, *Corvus cayanus*, is called Ibibirou by the Indians. It has a black forehead and beak, the rest of the head being white; the breast and belly are whitish, the throat black; the wings are of a bluish purple, the back is brown, and the tail is of a greyish purple, tipped with white. The other species, *Corvus hyacinthinus*, is of a lilac blue colour; these birds are seldom seen near the habitations of man, and are very shy and restless.

* Cuvier.

Two species of birds are closely allied to the starlings; one has a brown back, red breast and throat, and is called here the Robin Redbreast; it is very tame, and is seen along the roads, where it sometimes assembles in flocks. Its name is *Leistes americanus vel oriolus Guianensis, vel tanagra militaris*. The other species has a black body and yellowish head; it is about the size of a thrush, and sings prettily. It is known as the *Icterus vel oriolus ictero cephalus*.

The Creepers—*Certhia*.

The Creepers, or Iawarracire, are small birds which are met with in the Savannahs and forests. They have no song, but are beautifully attired. Their bodies are long and narrow. They have long slender sabre-shaped beaks. There are, at least, six or seven species known whose plumage greatly varies, being generally blue, black, or green.

The species known are :

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| 1. <i>Certhia vel dactis spiza</i> | | 5. <i>Arbelorhina vel certhia cesula</i> |
| 2. <i>Dactis vel sylvia cyanocephala</i> | | 6. <i>Certhiola flaveola</i> |
| 3. <i>Dactis vel " cayana</i> | | 7. <i>Diglossa major</i> |
| 4. <i>Arbelorhina vel certhia cayana</i> | | |

Trochilidæ—Humming Birds.

The humming birds form a very interesting group in the ornithological family of British Guiana. They are met with in all parts of the country, and vary in size from a large bee to a wren. They have all long and slender beaks, which are more or less flexible, and bend like strips of whalebone. Some have straight beaks, others curved or sabre-shaped. The plumage of all is bright and glittering. They live chiefly, if not altogether, on insects which are to be found inside flowers. If one of these interesting little birds be watched whilst

in search of food it will be seen hovering about some shrub or plant in flower; suddenly, with a rapid wing, it darts opposite the expanded corolla, and vibrating its tiny wings so rapidly as almost to defy perception, it dips its tiny beak, with unerring certainty, into the waving chalice which contains its food. Having snatched the unsuspecting insects which had been revelling in all the luxury of honied repasts, the gay destroyer passes on to other flowers, until his appetite is satisfied. From thus seeking flowers, it has been often stated that these birds live on the honey or saccharine fluids found there; but although, no doubt, they do not despise the honey when met with, they are chiefly attracted by the insect food. Some humming birds build their nests on branches of trees overhanging water, probably thinking this a secure place; but they are frequently washed away by high tides, or attacked by snakes.

The humming birds, though small, are bold and active. They attack birds much larger than themselves, and chase them like shrikes.

Their nests vary according to their species; some have a kind of rim on the edge to prevent the eggs from rolling out. The female bird lays two white eggs. The males do not appear to assist in the building of the nests, nor do they help to feed the young ones.

The following species have been described :

<i>Trochilus moschatus</i>	ruby crested humming bird	
" <i>viridis</i>	common green	
" <i>graminensis</i>	black breasted	"
" <i>rufigaster</i>	rufous bellied	"
" <i>auritus</i>	golden green	"
" <i>auriculatus</i>	"	" (large)
" <i>ornatus</i>	tufted neck	" (small)
" <i>furcatus</i>	forked tail	"
" <i>latipennis</i>	sabre wing	"
" <i>sapphirinus</i>	sapphire throated	"
" <i>platurus</i>	racket tail	"
" <i>petasophorus</i>	violet tufted	"
" <i>bicolor</i>	sapphire and emerald	"
" <i>rivoli</i>	rivoli	"

Trochilus	peila	topaz throated humming bird
"	mellivorus	white collar "
"	amethystinus	amethyst "
"	anais	blue bellied "
"	rubineus	ruby throated "
"	leucurus	white tailed "
"	mango	
"	pectoralis	
"	brevirostris	
"	superciliosus	
"	braziliensis	
"	hirsutus	
"	pygmaeus	
"	longmarcus	

Six different kind of king-fishers (*Alcedo*) are known here, some of these are very small, others as large as a pigeon. They have the same habits as those of other countries, and construct their nests in holes on the banks of the rivers. They are very shy and lonely birds, sitting on the branches of trees where they can have a good look out for the fish which sports in the water near them. No sooner is one perceived than the active king-fisher plunges headlong into the water, is lost, perhaps, to view for a few seconds, when it is seen to emerge from the wave holding its prey between its mandibles or claws, and hastens back to the same spot whence it started, to digest its food at leisure. The plumage of these birds is varied and pretty, but does not equal in splendour that of the European king-fisher.

This bird is called by the Caribs "sacka sacka," and by the Arrowaaks "saxicarlie."

The following are the species known:

<i>Alcedo torquata</i>		<i>Alcedo americana</i>
" <i>amazona</i>		" <i>supercilioea</i>
" <i>bicolor</i>		

In the same family of birds as the king-fishers we find the blue-headed mot-mot, or "houton," or "hutu," which latter name it derives from the peculiar noise it makes. It is a very handsome bird, the colour of the body is made up of different shades of green; the wings

and tail are bluish, on the head there is an erectile crest of black feathers surrounded by azure blue feathers of two different shades ; a patch of black feathers, edged blue, extends from the eye to the ear, whilst on the breast there is a similar tuft of nine feathers, or sometimes only a small patch of black ; a black membrane encircles the eye ; the beak is strong, and serrated towards the middle ; the eyes are reddish brown ; the tail is made up of twelve long feathers, overlapping in pairs, the under ones being much the shortest, and those above them gradually increasing in length.

The "houtou" has a curious habit of stripping off the barb of the two longest feathers of its tail, commencing about an inch from the extremity. I have, however, seen specimens in which this notched appearance of the tail did not obtain. The haunts of this bird are the gloomy forests ; it is solitary in its habits, and feeds on birds and insects, preferring the low brushwood to the loftier trees, except when tempted by some favourite fruit, such as the bastard "silvabali" affords.* It is sometimes seen with a small snake in its mouth, as if it occasionally indulged in that article of diet. It makes no nest, but hatches its young in sandy holes.

It makes a monotonous sound, "hutu-hutu," hence the corrupted word houtou.

The third order of birds, the Scansoriæ, consists of those which are called "climbers," from the fact of their being able to climb on trees, and other objects. To enable them to do this they have the external toe directed backwards like the thumb, by which construction they can grasp the body which is to support them in a very efficient manner, as may easily be proved by examining the feet of the common parrot, wood-pecker, and other birds. The jacamars are of this order, and

* Waterton.

deserve notice. These birds are seldom seen except by the Indians, who shoot them up the river Essequibo; they have no song, but are clothed with a brilliant golden green plumage; they are generally found on rocky mountains, sand hills, and savannahs; the smaller species frequent the savannahs and woods. They have long pointed bills, and may be considered as closely allied to the bee-eaters. They feed upon insects such as moths and butterflies. These birds are of indolent, sedentary habits, they are often seen pensively sitting upon the branches of trees which overhang water, and now and then lazily to dart upon some roving insect. There are several species here; the largest (*Galbula grandis*) is about the size of a thrush, it is of a golden green colour on the head, back, tail, and breast; the belly is red brown, and the throat white; the tints are singularly beautiful. Another species is similar to the last in colour, but smaller in size, the tail is as long as the body. A third species (*Galbula flavirostra*) has a yellow beak and claws, but in plumage resembles the others, except that the breast is not greenish. A fourth species is about ten inches in length, including the tail, which is six inches long, hence it is called the long-tailed jacamar; the plumage is bluish and brown black. All the male jacamars have white feathers on the throat.

The species are

Galbula viricauda	Galbula alliventer
" septura	" lugubris
" flavirostra	" grandis

Belonging to the order of climbers are two birds which merit description, and which I believe are not generally known to naturalists, the "Boclora," and "Cuia." The "boclora," or wow-wow (*Trogon melanopterus*), so named from the noise it makes, is about the size of a small pigeon. Its head and breast are dark blue, its belly

orange yellow, the back greenish blue, the wings black; the tail parti-coloured green, tipped blue and black, with four of the under feathers white at the outside and tip; the beak is short, strong, arcuated, the upper mandible strongly dentated and curved at the tip; there are five bundles of strong hair at its base. It is so short in the legs as to be ill adapted for walking. The legs are feathered to the toes. If the head is bent forwards a portion of the neck will be discovered without feathers. Its habits are very strange; it appears heedless of danger, and is scarcely startled by noise. It never takes long flights, and progresses in jerks.

The "cuia" is somewhat similar to the "boclora;" its head, breast, beak, and rump are of a shining changing green; its belly vermilion, with a white streak in front; the tail is black, green, and white. There are small species met with of each of these birds, but although differing slightly in plumage, their habits accord. I once saw a species of bird allied to the cuia in the forests of Essequibo; it was of a slate colour on the head, back, breast, and neck; the belly and vent red; the wings brown and grey; the tail was brown above, and speckled underneath; the feathers were remarkably loose; the beak short, broad, and crooked. This bird made a singularly loud noise.

The species known are

Trogon melanopterus
" melaneurus

Trogon meridionalis
" atri-collis

The wood-peckers (*Picus*) are a large family of interesting birds, which abound in the forests. There are, at least, fourteen species in this country, most of which I have seen. They are easily recognised by their peculiar shape, and by their bills which are long and narrow. Each of these species has a habit of sounding decayed

trees with their beaks, in order to find if any insects are present on which they prey. They only trouble suspicious looking trees, and those which their instinct leads them to believe are hollow and dry. An Indian can recognise the different species of wood-pecker by the sounds they produce when thus hammering on the trees. At a distance the large species make a sound like the woodcutter's stroke when felling trees. When any insects are discovered, the slimy tongue of the wood-pecker entraps them to their destruction. They build their nests on high trees, whose unsoundness precludes them from the attack of animals ; generally two young birds are produced. The cry of the wood-pecker is peculiar, not unlike to the mewing of kittens. The Indians give them the general name of "cotooti." The largest species is about the size of a pigeon ; it has a black and white body, with an erectile tuft of red feathers on the head, which, indeed, is characteristic of almost all the species. Another species is called the red-headed wood-pecker ; its general colour is brown ; it is about thirteen inches in length. Several species are of the size of larks, and variously coloured, bluish, black, brown, and grey, with red patches. One species is of a yellowish colour with red cheek.

The species known are

<i>Picus albirostris</i>		<i>Picus multicolor</i>
" <i>rubricollis</i>		" <i>rubiginous</i>
" <i>minutus</i>		" <i>chlorocephalus</i>
" <i>cinamomens</i>		" <i>passerinus</i>
" <i>exalbidus</i>		" <i>sanguineus</i>
" <i>rufus</i>		" <i>lineatus</i>

The name of climbers is given, par excellence, to a tribe of small birds closely allied to the wood-peckers, which they very much resemble in habits and structure, except that the tail is longer in proportion, and the feet are not so well adapted for climbing, hence an inconsistency in calling them by their present name. They

go about in flocks, not singly as the wood-peckers, and hunt the bush through for the insects which are crawling about on the trees. They have generally a large species of wood-pecker with them as a sort of chief or pioneer, whose movements they follow ; when, by his noise, they recognise him to have discovered a tree rich in insects, they hasten there, and assist him in the work of slaughter. They strike the trees occasionally with their beaks, but in general are not industrious or patient enough to penetrate the branches for their living food. They vary in size from a sparrow to a large lark. Their plumage is dull and uninteresting, being reddish brown with speckled breasts, and their beaks strong and crooked.

The "keel bill" (*Crotophaga ani*) is the name given to a bird, on account of its upper mandible being shaped like the keel of a vessel. There are two species in this country, the large and small. The small species is well known as the "old witch," or "jumbi bird," and may commonly be seen hopping about the road side, especially where there are cattle. It is so tame as to jump on the backs of cows, pigs, etc., for the sake of the insects which infest them. It is an unwieldy, ugly looking bird of a dull black colour, with a long fan-like tail ; the head and beak are large, the latter broad and strongly arcuated. These birds have a shrill note, and the females lay a white oval shaped egg. The large species is prettier, being of a bluish-black colour.

The barbots, "bucco," derive their name from the barbs, or bristles, which in bunches are placed at the root of the beak, which is strong and curved, the upper mandible being grooved to admit of the lower one ; the legs are short ; the head disproportionately large. They are not unlike the butcher shrikes, but their claws are adapted as "climbers." These birds are of lazy, indolent habits, and are very indifferent to danger. If fired at

by the sportsman, unless the shot is fatal, or very close to them, they rarely move, or else jump on another branch of the same tree, and await their fate. They go about singly, and do not fly well, having very short wings. They feed on insects chiefly, and have no song. There are several species in this country; one is about the size of a small parrot, has a very large head, and is of a brown colour, with white throat and grey white belly. A second species is smaller; head and throat brown; breast and tail brown, and speckled grey. A third species is of a black colour, with band of white feathers round the throat. A fourth species (not described in books), found up the river Demerara, is about the size of a paroquet; head, body, wings, and tail brown streaked with yellow; white band round throat; bill black at tip, yellowish at base; another species, if not a barbot, closely allied to it, is about the size of a thrush; the plumage is greenish black, with some white feathers on wings; tail square; beak reddish; it is called by the negroes, "butcher bird." There is another species much like the last in colour, but smaller in size, and having a black bill.

The species known are

Bucco macrorhynchus
 " *tamatis*
 " *tranquilla*

Bucco tenebrosa
 " *cayennensis*

The habits of the Cuckoos (*Cuculus*) of this country are much the same with those of Europe, they lay their eggs in the nests of other birds, and feed on insects; but I have never heard them repeat the same plaintive note as the others. They are to be met with in the forests, and do not approach habitations. There are four or five species here. Two of different size are of a brick-red colour, with long tails tipped with white; light red beak, overlapping at top. The larger species is of the same

size as the English cuckoo, but the tail is longer. A third species is of a speckled grey brown, like the wood-lark, with a crest on its head, dark eyes, and light brown beak short and curve l. The fourth species is of a leaden colour with a whitish breast. The species are

Cuculus galeritas		Cuculus minutus
„ cayanus major		„ helviventris nov. spec.
„ „ minor		

The Parrots (*Psitticus*) of this country are both numerous and of the most varied kind. They are constantly to be met with in the forests of the interior; but at certain seasons, when the guava-trees are in fruit, they fly over town and country in large flocks of a hundred or more, arranging themselves in pairs. Very frequently only single pairs are seen faithfully wending their way together to the spot where the ripe guavas are prevalent, where they feed early in the morning, and towards sunset, at which hours they become the victims of the sportsman, who shoots them for eating; when roasted or made up in pies they are considered excellent food, and are much sought after by the negroes. There is no difficulty in finding their place of resort, for they make an incessant noise in feeding; sometimes they are difficult to shoot owing to their lofty flight, and it requires heavy shot to bring them down as they are very tenacious of life. It would be difficult and tedious to enumerate the different species met with; the larger kinds are green in colour, and are called by the Indians "Saramaca;" one species called "Toutou," is of a bluish green with red in the proboscis; another species, *Psittacus æstivus*, called the "Screecher," is also bluish green with yellow round the beak; a third species, *Psittacus ochrocephalus*, well known as the "Amazon" is the most common, its colour is a beautiful green with a yellow cap, and a patch of red feathers on the shoulders; sometimes these parrots are

beautifully mottled green. A fourth species, *Psittacus accipitrinus*, is called "Hia-hia," or Parrot of the Sun, it has a circle of tartan-coloured feathers round the back of the head, which are erectile; the forehead is white, the back, wings, and tail green; the breast and belly tartan. The parrots build their nests in old trees, and lay in general two eggs.

The Parroquets (*Psittacula*) are smaller than parrots, and fly much swifter, not in pairs like the latter, but generally in large flocks. There are numerous species, which may be divided into the large and small; of the former the plumage varies greatly. Some are green, with black head, and orange-yellow breast, belly, and throat; others are mottled bluish black with grey breast; others bluish green with blue head: others green with brown feathers round the neck like shells, hence called Shell-necked; the head is black, tail feathers yellow and blue. One remarkable species is called the "Seven-coloured Parroquet," it is about the size of a thrush, the head and neck are of a golden green, the breast and belly bluish green, the back and long wing feathers are of a dark brown, the rest of the wings are yellow and purple, the tail is lilac purple, edged with black. These birds are chiefly met with in the creeks, and are shot only towards night. They feed on fruit and seeds. The female has the same colours, but they are not so vivid.

Of the smaller kinds of parroquets (*Psittacula*) there are about eight species, some of which are but rarely seen, and perhaps never described. They are chiefly of a green colour, some with purple tails, others with golden wings; they are all beautiful; a very small species known as the "Love-bird" (*Psittacula passerinus*) is of an entire green colour, and flies in flocks about the gardens of the town and country, where seated amid the ever-green foliage, they are difficult to be distinguished from

the sparkling leaves. They build their nests on trees, and sometimes a nest is found where wood-ants have constructed their singular habitations.

The beautiful Kessi-Kessi (*Psittacus vel conurus solstitialis*) is frequently caged and made a pet of by the inhabitants.

The Macaws, or Aras, have a wide-world reputation on account of their magnificent plumage and singular appearance. There are four specimens if not more in British Guiana, and they are readily distinguished from the parrots by their long tail; in general they are of a greenish colour, variegated with red and yellow. The true "Ara" has a splendid scarlet body, with patches of red, blue, yellow, and green about the wings. They fly in pairs, and in flocks. Another species is of a lighter red, whilst a third is more or less blue in colour.

The following list comprises the birds of each tribe:

<i>Parrots (Psittacus)</i>	<i>Parroquets (Conurus)</i>	<i>Macaws (Macrocerus)</i>
<i>Psittacus menstruus</i>	<i>Conurus tuipara</i>	<i>Macrocerus aracanga</i>
" <i>maximilani</i>	" <i>tiriacula</i>	" <i>araranna</i>
" <i>melanocephala</i>	" <i>canicularis</i>	" <i>macao</i>
" <i>pileatus</i>	" <i>versicolor</i>	
" <i>purpuratus</i>	" <i>pertinax</i>	
" <i>festivus</i>	" <i>solstitialis</i> (kessi)	
" <i>pulverulentus</i>	" <i>guianensis</i>	
" <i>dufresneanus</i>	" <i>nobilis</i>	
" <i>ochrocephalus</i>	" <i>macavuana</i>	
" <i>stivus</i>	" <i>severus</i>	
<i>Psittaculaus passerin</i>		
" <i>gregarius</i>		
" <i>modesta</i>		

The Toucans (*Ramphastos*), or Bill-birds, are perhaps the most singular looking of the ornithological tribe met with in British Guiana. They are easily recognised by their enormous bills, which in some species are about six inches in length, and fully two in depth, marked with the most striking colours—such as red, black, and yellow, and having a horny appearance. These coloured bills, unless

particular attention is paid to them,* fade after death, and soon lose their brilliant hues; it is remarkable that the colours of the bill are also those of the plumage. These birds build their nests in hollow trees; they are social but not gregarious, and having short wings and such unseemly mandibles fly but little, and in jerks. They carry the tail erect, except in flying; they feed on fruit, seeds, peppers, insects, and occasionally bird's eggs, &c.; they catch the seeds at the point of the beak, and jerk them into the throat; they have a long feathery-looking tongue; their note is loud and whistling, and they generally commence to cry on the approach of rain. They are chiefly met with in the forests, where they delight in resorting to the lofty mora-trees; the Indians knowing their haunts will shoot many of them from the same tree either with the gun or arrow. In Surinam they call the Toucan "Banara beak" or "Cujacai," and some of the Indian tribes call them "Piapoco," from the noise they make.

There are numerous species large and small as follows:

<i>Rhamphastos</i> <i>toco</i>	<i>Pteroglossus</i> <i>aracari</i>	<i>Pteroglossus</i> <i>pluri cinctus</i>
" <i>erythrorhynchus</i>	" <i>viridis</i>	" <i>sulcatus</i>
" <i>dicolorus</i>	" <i>piperivorus</i>	" <i>natterei</i>
" <i>vitellinus</i>	" <i>inscriptus</i>	" <i>bitorquatus</i>
" <i>osculans</i>		

One species, the largest, is found on the eta and cocorita palms, it is called by the Indians "Bouradi," which is rather personal, that word signifying "nose;" the head, wings, tail, and body are black, with yellow and red feathers at the throat and breast. A second species is known as the Yellow Earlet, owing to a patch of yellow feathers close to the ear; a third species has a black and whitish bill serrated at the edges; a fourth species has greenish

* Waterton.

shades, head and neck chesnut, belly and vent yellow, bill with white serratures.

The several species have received different names by the Indians, who recognise them by their cry. Thus one kind, the *Rhamphastos aracari*, is called by the Warraus "Teifari," and by the Macusis "Parupari," while to other ears the cry sounds like the word "Kulik-kulik." The females lay generally two white eggs; the young birds soon assume their natural plumage, but it takes from two to three years for the elaborate and gaudy bill to arrive at perfection.

Fourth Order of Birds, "Gallinaceæ."—Poultry.

The birds of this order have become well known to naturalists on account of their being more or less readily domesticated. They constitute the most prized articles of food as "game" to the enterprising traveller and sporting Indian, who search for them in the tangled mazes of the forests with a perseverance and caution worthy of a higher object of pursuit. It is in vain for the most enthusiastic European to endeavour with a gun on his shoulder to thread the trackless paths of the gloomy forests in search of the numerous game birds which abound there. He will pass whole days without procuring a specimen, the birds are heard to be flying from side to side, they often start at his very feet, and dart over his head, but the leafy shade, and creeping bush ropes and vines defy him to raise his gun or cover his object. The crash of dried branches and withered leaves on the ground as he proceeds warn the alarmed birds, who dart off through the innumerable branches and roots which link the trees together like the meshes of a net; but such is the noiseless step of the Indian that he can steal unseen, and almost unheard, upon the timid bird, and shoot it

either roosting on the branches, or sauntering on the ground. It requires a most practised eye to detect the birds amid the foliage, notwithstanding the large size of many of them, and very often the cunning Indian suspecting his prey near him from its chirping, but not being able to distinguish it, allures it towards him by imitating in the most perfect manner the natural cry of the bird. Once within his reach the bird rarely escapes, as the sportsman seldom fires unless very near his object.

There are several species of wild turkey met with, which may be divided into the large and small kind; of the former, the most generally known is the Powie (*Crax alector*), a name given to it in consequence of the peculiar note it utters, and which sounds like that word. They have been called by different authors "Hoccos," "Curasows," "Mitorea," &c.* It is of a beautiful black colour, with the lower part of the belly white, the cera of the bill is yellow; it is about the same size as the common turkey cock. It is a stupid kind of bird, is easily domesticated, and proves excellent eating. In its wild state it is difficult to be procured, owing to its inhabiting the deepest recesses of the forest where it perches, and builds its nest in the trees. The female lays six or eight whitish eggs which have a very thick shell. Other species are met with:—*Crax urumutum*—*Crax tomentosa*—*Crax erythrorhynchus*. Of the smaller kinds there are at least three or four different species which I have seen. The largest is about the size of a small turkey hen, it is of a beautiful greenish brown or black, with red legs and beak. The eyes are remarkably full and lustrous, brown in colour, with dark black pupil. It has red tubercles under the throat and on the beak. Another species has a whitish head,† and is called "Cuyu" by the natives.

* Cuvier.

† Penelope pipile.

A third species is of the same colour as the first mentioned, but is smaller in size. This last bird is especially known as the "Maroudi," and is often tamed by the natives and others. Indeed, all these birds are readily domesticated, and roost on the trees in gardens in preference to the fowl-house, where they are sometimes rather roughly treated at first by their more civilised brethren. They are generally called wild fowl by the lower class, and feed on almost anything. The maroudi is very voracious, and swallows indiscriminately any glittering object, as silver thimbles, coins, rings, &c. The species known are

Penelope vel salpiza cristata
" vel " marall

Penelope vel salpiza jacer caca
" vel " pipile

Of the common turkey (*Meleagris*), Guinea-fowl (*Numida*), and common fowl (*Gallus*), it would be needless to say anything, as in habits, &c., they are the same here as elsewhere. They thrive in this country very well, are subject to few diseases, and fatten readily; but they certainly have not the same fine flavour, except perhaps the guinea-birds, as in Europe. The young are sometimes difficult to raise, in consequence of the depredations committed on them by wild cats, opossums, and other animals, and occasionally very damp weather or heavy rains prove fatal to them, especially to the young turkeys, which require great care.

There are no true pheasants here, but a tribe of birds well known as the Guans, or Yacous of Guiana,* afford a specimen which goes by the name of Hannaqua, or Pheasant of British Guiana (*Ortalida motmot*). It derives this name from the loud sound it makes early in the morning and at night. They are met with in the woods and in the long grass about habitations, where

* Cuvier.

they hatch their young, and make a great noise. These birds may easily be domesticated when young, and feed on boiled plantains, potatoes, seeds, fruit, bread, &c., but refuse corn in most instances.

There are several species of Penelope, or *Ortalia*, here. The Hannaqua, the most common, is of an olive brown colour, with a long tail with reddish hues at its base. It has a red gullet, which inflates, and a crest of erectile feathers of a bluish black colour on its head. Sometimes the breast is speckled. The other species vary but little from this. Stedman in his account of Surinam says there is a black species there. They are in general about two feet in length, the tail being fully one foot. The females lay from two to five eggs, and build generally on trees.

There is a bird allied to these called the Stinking-bird (*Phasianus cristatus*), which requires some notice here. This very impolite name it derives from a most offensive odour which emanates from it during life, but when dried and stuffed, as proved by a specimen in my possession, there is not the least unpleasant smell. It measures about two feet four inches in length. The head is small, the beak short and crooked; it is of a greenish brown colour, variegated with white above. The front of the neck and tip of the tail fawn-coloured; the belly chesnut. The head is ornamented with a tuft of long and slender feathers. It is found in the marshy lands, and feeds on leaves and the seeds of a species of arum. The flesh, on account of its odour, is used as a bait for fish.

There are, at least, four or five different species of the Tinamou, or Maam (*Tinamus*), which birds are considered among the choicest game we possess. They vary in size from a pheasant to a partridge, having a small head and long slender neck. Their wings are very

short, and they have scarcely any tail. The general colour of the plumage is a mixture of olive-brown and greenish-black. They fly badly, but run swiftly. They are met with in the forests or in long grass, and feed on fruit and insects. They deposit their eggs in holes on the ground, and the young ones run after the mother just like chickens. The largest species roost on trees, although the structure of the feet, as pointed out by Mr. Waterton, would hardly lead one to suppose that this could be effected. It appears that the feet do not grasp the branch on which the bird rests, owing to the toes, especially the hinder ones, being too short; but by means of scales on the back of the legs, the bird contrives to secure itself.

The maam has a singularly loud and plaintive note, which at sunrise, sunset, and also during part of the night may be heard at a great distance. The largest species lays a great many eggs of a bluish green colour; the smaller species lays only one or two eggs, which are of a brown colour. The flesh of the maam is excellent food, and has a remarkably dense, hard, and compact appearance. The species are—

Tinamus vel crypturus variegatus
 „ vel „ *noctivagus*

| *Tinamus vel crypturus subcristatus*

The bird called Douraquara, or partridge of this country, is very different to the one of Europe. It is somewhat of the same size, but is of a darker plumage, and is a stouter bird. It has red eyes and legs, and the colour of the plumage is olive-brown. It does not fly in coveys, or feed in the open country, but runs stealthily about the forests, where it hides in the trees and brushwood. It is, in consequence, very difficult to shoot; the flesh is firm, white, and dry. It is not easily tamed, and will not breed in a state of bondage.

There are three different species of the Quail in British Guiana, one small and two large, but they are rare. One specimen which I have seen was about the size of the douraquara. Its colour speckled grey, brown, and black; legs yellowish; tail very short and square, back short, thick, and slightly curved; eyes black. It had a crest of long feathers on its head. This bird was domesticated, and had been living several years in a cage. It was considered weatherwise, as it used to crow at the approach of storm or rain. In fine weather it had quite a different note. These birds are generally found in the Savannahs in flocks of a dozen or more.

Of the family of Pigeons (*Columbæ*) there is a great variety in this country, which vary in size from a sparrow upwards. The number of species must be twenty, if not more, of which I have seen about twelve. These birds are met with at different seasons, except the ground doves, which are to be seen all the year round. Some pigeons feed in flocks in the woods, attracted thither by the ripening of certain fruits, such as the wild fig, &c Others fly across the country singly or in pairs during certain months, generally from September to December. Some of the larger kinds dwell more or less constantly in the vast forests, where they appear to feed, lodge, and breed. Without entering upon any account of domestic pigeons, of which great numbers are kept both in town and country, I shall here only allude to some of the most remarkable of wild pigeons. Of these, that known as the Itaribische pigeon deserves first notice. These beautiful birds are chiefly met with up a creek in Essequibo called the Itaribische. This large creek is a tributary of the river Essequibo, and is of great size and beauty. Its waters are dark but translucent, and deriving their origin many miles in the interior, meander through the most lovely scenery—sometimes swelling out into a larg-

lake amid open savannahs, or flowing through rich forest land and sandy hills, at times so shaded and encroached upon by overhanging trees and flowering shrubs as to be almost impassable. It is in this romantic neighbourhood that the pigeons resort about the month of October, to feed on the berries and plants of particular trees. Their plumage is reddish brown on the back, wings, and tail; sides and belly parti-coloured grey and brown; neck and breast speckled white; beak and legs red. The male is distinguished by its more brilliant plumage. These birds are very shy, and require to be severely wounded before they drop.

The common wood-pigeons are also pretty birds, seen frequently in the forests, where they startle the traveller by their rapid flight. They resemble somewhat the same description of bird in Europe. Another species of large pigeon frequents the woods at certain seasons, where they may be seen resting on the withered branches of trees. They are of a light brown colour, with various patches, and are considered excellent food. The pigeons in general here build their nests of wood, on the branches of thick trees.

The Doves may be divided into the large and small, the latter being very common, and known as ground doves, feeding along the roads and in gardens, where they become more or less tame. There are three or four species of this small but beautiful dove, which are variously covered grey, brown, slate, or lead colour, with black spots. They are about the size of sparrows, and construct their nests of coarse grass, loosely arranged in a circular form, but inside the greatest pains is taken to make them comfortable, being generally woven with fine grass and delicate fibres. The female generally lays two eggs of a whitish colour. These birds feed on grain and

small insects. There is a large species of dove much like these small ones in colour and general appearance.

Of the pigeons and doves a few species only are enumerated by Richard Schomburgk in his "Reisen in British Guiana:"

Columba speciosa		Columba talpacoti
" rufina		" jamaicensis (wood dove)
" passerina (earth dove)		" martinico (do. do.)

We come now to the fifth order of birds, called the Waders (*Grallatores vel natatores*), whose habits and structure lead them by instinct to marshy spots, and the neighbourhood of the sea or river; and as there is no lack of water in British Guiana, the birds of this order abound in great numbers and variety. They line the sea-coasts and beach, and are daily seen in almost every trench and mud-flat in the country. Some of the most useful kind, such as the snipe, plover, sandpipers, and others, migrate hither occasionally in such numbers as to afford the sportsman the most successful amusement.

Of the Plovers (*Charadrius*), several species are met with at different times of the year; but towards the end of the long dry season, or about the months of September and October large numbers of the black-breast Plover (*Charadrius virginicus*) visit the marshy spots along the coasts. The flocks of this bird are sometimes incredibly numerous, and numbers of curlews, long-legs, or green-shanks, sandpipers frequently accompany them, so as, occasionally, to darken the air by their presence. Upon such favourable occasions they may be sometimes slaughtered in thousands, and are frequently knocked down by the labourers with sticks or other weapons. Gradually, however, their numbers disappear, the flocks become less frequent, and about November not a bird is to be seen. Their plumage and habits are too well

known to render further description necessary. The species, however, are—

Charadrius vel oedicnemus bistratus	Charadrius crassirostris
" vel vanellus cayennensis	" AZARE
" vel hoplopterus cayanus	Streptilas interpres
" virginianus	

I do not know of any birds here which, strictly speaking, can be called cranes, but many approach in character this tribe of birds. Perhaps the bird which most deserves notice is the Trumpeter, or "Warracoba" (*Psophia crepitans*), according to the Indians, both which names it derives from the loud sound it produces. The anatomy of this bird readily explains the cause: there is a considerable development of the trachea, or wind pipe, which is prolonged downwards as far as the anus, and then curves upwards to enter the chest, from which circumstance also some have imagined that this loud note was produced, "a posteriori."

The plumage of this bird is strikingly beautiful, being of a glossy bluish black; the breast is bluish, with metallic lustre; some grey feathers hang down from the back; the tail is short, whilst the legs are very long; the bill is short and curved; the eyes reddish. These birds are seen singly, or in flocks, in the woods, but are easily domesticated, and are much esteemed for the table. They are very frolicsome, and will jump up, reel about, and roll over on the ground in a most ludicrous manner, giving now and then a loud blast on their natural trumpet. They feed on grain and fruit, and are often seen in poultry yards, where their singular habits attract attention. They build their nests on the ground.

Another curious bird of this tribe is the Sun-bird (*Ardea helias*), called by the Spaniards "tirana;" it is often met with on the banks of the rivers, and is readily domesticated; it is about the size of a woodcock. Its

plumage is like that of a butterfly, being speckled brown, grey, yellow, red, and black ; when distending its tail and body it generally presents a most ludicrous appearance. It has long legs, and a slender bill, but its general appearance is not that of a wader. It is very agile and sprightly, moving its tail about like the pendulum of a clock.

The Imperial boat bill (*Cancroma cochlearia*) of this country is a most singular looking bird, inhabiting the marshy districts ; where, perched on the low branches of trees, they prey upon fish. The plumage varies with their age ; in the adult male the wings and back are yellowish brown ; breast rufous brown : belly whitish, some feathers lead coloured or grey ; head blue at top, with a crest of black feathers ; the bill is broad, and like two spoons in contact, the lower mandible is flattened ; the eyes are remarkably large. The female has no crest.

The Spoonbills (*Platalea ajaja*) are commonly found on the sand banks, and about the coasts and mouths of rivers ; at times they are very common, and afford sport to the shooter.

Several species of Heron are met with here, and the two which I have seen I will describe. The largest species is a tall bird about one and a half feet high, and upwards ; the neck and breast are whitish ; the head black at top ; three long tail-like feathers hang dependent from head to back ; the wings are lead coloured, with some greenish black feathers ; the tail is also lead coloured. This bird is well known here as the "quaak," or night heron (*Ardea nycticorax*). The smaller species has a broader beak than the other ; its plumage is much the same, being ash, or lead colour, mixed with black and white ; the back of head, top of neck and throat are black ; a white patch runs backwards from the eyes ;

a few long slender feathers extend backwards from the head. These birds appear morning and evening, and feed on fish, shrimps, insects, &c. Waterton also mentions the blue, the lazy, and the brown herons; but I have never seen them.

Of the Bittern, or Tiger-birds, (*Ardea tigrinum*) as they are called, in consequence of their tawny and striped colours; there are five or six species, which differ materially in size, the largest being about two and a half feet high, the smaller ones being about the size of a magpie. One species is very common, and almost tame, being seen about trenches, and is called here the "shypoke." It is a stupid, ugly looking bird, has a loud note, and is rarely harmed.

The bitterns feed on snakes, fish, and insects, and are met with in swamps.

The Gaudins are species of the heron tribe, which are familiar to the inhabitants of British Guiana, being seen constantly about the trenches and mudflats, where they sometimes collect in great numbers, feeding on fish, snails, etc. They are sometimes shot and eaten, but have a disagreeable fishy taste. There are two species of gaudin, the white and the grey, which are respectively known as the "*Ardea alba*" and "*Ardea viriscens*." They are pretty looking birds when watched feeding on the beach, but have a heavy awkward flight.

That beautiful bird, the snow-white Egrette (*Ardea egretta*) is also an inhabitant here, but frequents the interior; its lovely plumage and fashionable plume of feathers are too well known to require description. The other species known are

<i>Ardea cocoi</i>	<i>Ardea cœrulescens</i>	<i>Ardea scapulari</i>	<i>Ardea pinnatus</i>
" <i>leuce</i>	" <i>leucogaster</i>	" <i>brazilicnse</i>	" <i>pileata</i>
" <i>nivea</i>	" <i>agami</i>	" <i>minor</i>	" <i>violacea</i>

There is a bird here called the heri, which is of the stork tribe. It has a long feathered neck ; small head, with long, thick, and straight beak, and red patch around the eyes, which are brown ; plumage of body dirty white ; wings and tail black. It stands from four to five feet in height, and is met with in savannahs and swampy places, where it preys on fish, snakes, &c. It utters a peculiar cry like the stork.

Another species, the maguari (*Ciconia americana*), frequents the banks of rivers, feeding on fish and reptiles. It is of a white colour, with black wings, which often measure six feet across. The largest species, however, is the "jabiru"* (*Mycteria americana*), which stands about six feet in height, and sometimes weighs 20 lbs. or more ; it has a bare head and neck of a black colour ; the beak is also black, and measures about sixteen inches in length, being curved upwards ; the young birds have a tuft of feathers at the back of the head ; the colour of the plumage is a dirty white ; it has a red patch around the neck, hence one of its numerous names "collier rouge ;" the feathers are long and downy, part of the wings is black. On account of its black head it is known here as the "negro cop." The young ones are grey in colour.

Another species of stork (*Ciconia*) is occasionally met with. It is known here as the blue stork, and is called by the Indians "honouri." It is about three feet in length when erect ; the head is of a bluish black at top, with long pendant feathers ; the neck is white at the sides, but of a bluish white in front ; eyes black with yellow borders ; the beak is of an orange yellow,

* The word "Jabiru" in the Guarani language signifies inflated, and is applied to this bird on account of its flaccid neck, which is capable of distension. It is called Tararamu by the Macusia, and Mora Coyasipa by the Arawaks.

with light blue membrane at base ; the body is white ; the wings lead coloured, and tipped black ; long pendant feathers hang from the body ; the legs are of a brownish colour. A wounded bird of this species was lately brought to the city, and was placed in a trench, secured by a rope ; it fed on fish and reptiles, but soon managed to effect its escape.

The wood pelican (*Tantalus loculator*) is occasionally seen in swampy marshes, and about the river sandbanks, where, sometimes in great numbers, they may be seen feeding along with the storks and cranes, whose habits they partake of. It is a large bird, about the size of a stork, but more slender ; the skin of the head and neck is naked of feathers, and is of a blackish colour ; the bill and feet are also black as well as the quills of the wings and tail.

Of the long-billed waders there are numerous species here. First in beauty and size are the birds so well known as the "curri-curris," or scarlet curlews (*Ibis rubra*), of which there are two kinds, distinguished only by the colour of the beak, which in the one is black, and the other whitish. The plumage of the adult bird is magnificent in the extreme, being of a rich scarlet colour all over, with the tips of the wing feathers jet black. When young the plumage is blackish grey, changing gradually to a lovely white when they are ready to fly, the scarlet hue being acquired with age. The beak is long, slender, and sabre shaped ; the eyes bluish grey ; the legs red. These splendid birds are frequently seen flying about in flocks near to the city, and along the coasts ; they are, however, most plentiful about August and September, when they are also in finest plumage. They fly in general very high, and the phalanx is wedge-shaped, the old birds leading at the front. When seen in fine weather the effect is most striking, the waving lines of

scarlet float in the air like the pennon of a war vessel, and their graceful evolutions when alarmed, added to the glittering hues reflected in the sun-light, are very beautiful. They are difficult to shoot, being very shy and constantly on the alert. There is a species of curri-curri known here as the fresh-water curlew, it is a splendid bird of a greenish olive and bronze colour ; it feeds on worms in creeks, where it is generally found towards night. The common curlew (*Numenius phaeopus*) derives its name from its cry. It is smaller in size than the curri-curri, which, except in colour, it otherwise resembles. The wings, head, and neck are grey ; breast and belly whitish ; eyes black ; beak long and curved. Mr. Waterton mentions a species of black curlew, with a white bar across the wings, but I have never seen it. The whistling curlews are to be met with at all times of the year, along the coasts, but are most plentiful in September. They fly singly, or in flocks, and are much esteemed for the table. The following species of Ibis are also known :

Ibis vel tantalus infuscata
 " vel " *cayennensis*

Ibis vel tantalus oxycercus
 " vel *albicollis*

During the rainy seasons, or shortly after, great numbers of snipes (*Scolopax*) may be met with in the marshy districts. They are, in every respect, similar to those in Europe, and afford great sport to the sportsman, The woodcock is also occasionally seen, but is by no means so common as the snipe. Allied to the snipe is a species of long-shanks, which is also found in swamps ; the breast is whitish ; the head and wings black ; beak slightly curved upwards.

The species known are

Scolopax paludosa
 " *frenata*
 " *grisea*

Scolopax semipalmata
Hypobates nigricollis

The sandpipers, or sea larks (*Tringa*), are small active little birds, which are constantly seen along the trenches, rivers, and coasts. They sometimes are met with in flocks of thousands, and are so densely packed as to enable the sportsman to kill upwards of a hundred at a single shot. They are excellent eating; there are several species :

<i>Tringa flavipes</i>		<i>Tringa semipalmata</i>
„ <i>melanoleuca</i>		„ <i>arenaria</i>
„ <i>cinerea</i> v. <i>canutus</i>		

There is a very pretty bird known here as the spurwing (*Parra jassana*), which is also found in marshy spots, where, with the long toes peculiar to their tribe, they walk rapidly through the long grass of the fields, or over that which floats on the water. The plumage is varied and beautiful; the back and wings are of a rich chocolate colour; head and neck black; beak yellow; breast dark; there are some rich yellow feathers on the wings; it has a red wattle on the bill; they have two characteristic spurs on the wings, hence their name, as also that of surgeons, which has been given to them. They are shy birds, and have a sharp cry; they build their nests on the leaves of some water plants; the eggs are somewhat larger than those of the pigeons, and are of a yellow brown colour, scrawled over with black; when wounded they will hide their heads to escape detection.

A species of bird (*Kamichi*) is very much like the spurwing, but is much larger, and is found in the inundated places of the interior. It is called “anhima” in Brazil, and “camouche” at Cayenne.* It is of a blackish colour, spurred at the wings, with a red shoulder knot, and has a kind of horny caruncle on the head. It feeds

* Cuvier.

on plants, seeds, and insects. It has a loud cry, "Hammi, hammi," and is called also the horned screamer. It stands two and a half feet high, and the spurs on the wings are about one inch in length.

Several species of rail are found here; one the land rail (*Rallus crepitans*) is now and then seen in trenches, and makes a loud noise when surprised. It has long bare legs with scanty plumage of body, its colour yellowish grey, the tail is short, its flesh is tough and not worth eating. Another species of rail is about fifteen inches in length; head and neck bluish purple, throat pale, back and wings greenish-brown, breast and belly chocolate coloured, beak greenish-yellow, under wing feather and coverts black bars across chocolate ground.

Other species are known:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|--|----------------------------|
| 1. <i>Crex mustelina</i> | | 5. <i>Ardea scolopacea</i> |
| 2. " <i>schomburgkii</i> | | 6. <i>Gallinula mangle</i> |
| 3. " <i>galeata</i> | | 7. " <i>ruficollis</i> |
| 4. " <i>martinica</i> | | |

There are two species of water hen, one is greyish in colour. The common water hen (*Fulica chloropus*) is a pretty-looking bird about twelve inches long, with small head and short tail; it frequents marshy spots, and feeds on fish. Its plumage is a dark slate colour, except about the thighs and tail, where there are white feathers; it has a red caruncle on the forehead, the base of the beak is red, and the tip yellow; wings and tail greenish brown, legs brownish, but above the tibia reddish.

Of the seals, or true coots, there are several species, but which are not sufficiently well known to me to warrant description.

The flamingo (*Phœnicopterus ruber*) can scarcely be considered as a bird of this country, for although occasionally seen flying across the interior, it scarcely pays us a visit worth recording.

Of the sixth and last order of birds, the palmipedes, or web-footed species, there is little new to communicate. They skim the ocean here as in other parts of the world; the long necked-divers and heavy-looking gulls are for ever sailing slowly over the waters in search of prey, whilst inland, the ducks, and their variety, lead their vagrant life in comparative security. Swarms of sea swallows skim along the borders of the coast, and it is not a little remarkable that all these birds are for the most part constantly seen flying eastward.

There are three or four species of gulls, some of which are known here by the name of fishermen. Two of the species are large and one small. The latter is of a white colour with dark wings. One large species is whitish and the other grey. The beaks are long and curved. Their flight is slow and heavy; they are frequently to be seen flying along the coasts, feeding on fish and putrid carcasses, and building their nests on the mud flats or sandy banks.

There is a fourth species of gull (*Rhyncops nigra*), about the size of a small duck, the head and wings are black; the breast, belly, and throat white; the beak is peculiar, resembling scissor blades, the upper one being shorter than the lower, and having a narrow groove which receives the sharp blade of the lower mandible. They are chiefly seen in flocks up the rivers, feeding on small fish which approach the surface of the water. They are called scissor-bill gulls by the inhabitants, but the Indians term them "darra-darra." They live and breed about sand banks.

The sea swallows (*Sterna magnirostres*) are found along the coasts, and sometimes about sandbanks up the rivers. They lay their eggs in these sands, generally two or three in number.

Palmipedes.—Topiplamatae.

The frigate-bird (*Pelecanus vel tachyptes aquilina*) is occasionally seen flying along the coasts, it is of large size, with forked tail and short feet, its colour is black, with patches of white about the neck and throat. One species which I examined was of a bluish black colour, with tints of bronze; the eyes were of a dark colour, the throat was bare and served as a kind of pouch for fish, the beak was crooked and was five inches in length, the legs were very short and feathered to the toes; the length of the bird was thirty-six inches, and it measured eighty inches across the wings. Another bird called here also frigate-bird, is very like the other, but has a white head, neck, and breast.

I once saw a bird picked up by some sailors, which very much resembled the common booby (*Pelecanus bassanus*). The plumage was of a dirty-white colour, and was very dense; the legs were short and web-footed, the bill long, sharp, and straight, except at the apex, where the upper mandible was slightly crooked.

The pelican, (*Pelecanus fuscus*) is met with off the coasts, but does not breed here. It is of a whitish plumage, with a reddish beak.

The cormorant (*Haliens vel procellaria brasiliana*) is found on the coasts, and also about the cataracts, where they may be seen sitting in small companies on the rocks and trees about the river, where they appear to build their nests. They prove very destructive to fish, on which they chiefly feed. The Indians call them "pareka."

The divers, or darters (*Plotus*), are allied to the cormorants, but are easily recognised by their long snake-like necks and small head, with slender, straight, and pointed bill, serrated at the edges. There are several

species in this colony. One species, called the black-bellied darter (*Plotus surinamensis*), is found up the rivers; it is often met with in pairs. Its plumage is black and white; it is an excellent diver, and is called by the Indians "yawiwá" and "oranih."

Another species of darter (*Plotus anhinga*) is also found in similar places to the other, alone, in pairs, or in small companies. Its plumage is black, but the females and young ones are of a lighter colour, generally greyish brown. It is a very timid bird; if alarmed it stretches its long neck out, and gazes about, and if the cause of danger appears imminent, it plunges into the water and dives for several minutes, preferring this mode of escape to flying, at which it is not very apt.

An allied species (*Colymbus dominicus*) is found in small societies in the marshes and savannahs about the coasts. The female builds her nest of grass and sedges, and lays two eggs.

The wild ducks of this country are numerous, and of various kinds; they are to be found throughout the colony, but abound especially in swampy places. The most common are the vicissi, or vis-sisi duck, the muscovy, and the common duck.

The vicissi ducks (*Anas arborea vel dendrocyna viduata*) fly about in flocks of twenty or more, and are frequently seen even in the neighbourhood of town. The plumage is striking and very beautiful, especially when the birds are on the wing. The head is reddish; the forehead pale; the breast of a deep vinous red; the wings white, green, and black; the legs are somewhat long, and the feet are so constructed as to enable them to perch on trees, where they build their nests. They have a peculiar whistling cry, "vicissi," or "vis-sisi." They are easily domesticated, and associate readily with the other breed of ducks; when any of their number is wounded,

the rest of the flock fly around their injured comrade, and by their sympathising cries seem to urge to flight. The tamed ones are sometimes used to decoy their wilder brethren; by their cry they attract the latter to settle down in the water, where they become an easy prey to the sportsman: they are excellent eating. Upon one occasion a labourer to my knowledge shot upwards of a dozen with a single barrel, but he only secured seven out of the number: a large flock had alighted on a decayed tree close to the water, and when the fatal shot arrived among them some twelve or more fluttered about *hors de combat* in the water, the wounded ones escaped by diving. These birds destroy guinea corn and other grain. There are several species of this vicissi duck.

The wild muscovy (*Carina vel anas moschata*) is larger than the vicissi or vis-sisi, and is of less gaudy plumage, being of a brownish black colour. I have never seen them in large flocks, but generally three or four are together; they alight on the loftiest trees, where their large bodies and outstretched necks present a singular sight. They build their nests on high trees, and when the young ones are sufficiently grown, the parents carry them gently down to the swampy spots to begin their education. Whilst travelling up the creeks, I have frequently seen these tempting birds perched on the branches of trees, but as they generally choose very swampy ground with high grass they are not easily approached with the gun. This bird (*Anas vel carina moschata*) is also called here the musk duck from its peculiar smell, the plumage varies, some being glossed blue or green, the head is slightly tufted, and the legs and feet are reddish. The eggs are of a greenish hue. The Macusis call them "mairva," and the Warraus "oumeh."

There are several other varieties of the duck family, but I am unacquainted with their haunts and habits; I

have seen, however, three or four small-sized ducks, whose plumage was grey and parti-coloured, and which had a general resemblance to the common vis-sisi in habits and appearance, but were somewhat smaller.

The names of some are *Dendrocygna vel anas autumnalis*; *Querquedula vel anas braziliensis*; *Dafila vel anas bahamensis*.

The varieties of the common duck (*Anas domesticus*) are to be met with in tolerable numbers, and thrive very well. The common goose (*Anser communis*) and other varieties are also to be found, and seem well adapted to the climate, but there is perhaps greater difficulty in raising the young than exists in other countries.

MAMMALIA.

GENERAL REMARKS—THE QUADRUMANA—MONKEYS, THEIR HABITS—TWO CLASSES OF MONKEYS—AN ACCOUNT OF THE SEVERAL SPECIES—THE CARNARIA—HABITS OF THE ANIMALS BELONGING TO THIS ORDER—THE BATS—THE HEDGEHOG—THE CRAB DOG—THE COATI—THE SKUNK—THE OTTERS—THE DOG—THE TIGER CAT, AND ITS VARIETIES—THE OCELOT—THE JAGUAR.

THE MARSUPIALA—THE YAWARRI, OR OPOSSUM—THE RODENTIA—THE SQUIRREL—THE WATER HARE—THE ACOURI—THE ACONOHI—THE LABBA, OR PACA—THE GUINEA PIGS.

THE EDENTATA—THE SLOTH—THE ARMADILLO—THE ANT-EATERS—THE PACHYDERMATA—THE PECCARI—THE BAKKIE AND OTHER WILD HOGS—THE COMMON HOG—THE TAPIR, OR MYPOURI—THE RUMIDANTIA—THE STAGS—THE GOATS—THE SHEEP—THE CATTLE.

THE CETACEA—THE MANATI, OR SEA COW.

THE animals belonging to the class Mammalia met with in British Guiana are not very numerous in point of variety, and whatever might have been their numbers previous to the colonisation of this country, they are every day becoming more scarce, and are receding before the advancing step of civilisation.

To acquire an accurate knowledge of their haunts, their habits, and their numbers, the naturalist would have to leave the sea-coasts and river banks, and plunge boldly into the extensive forests and wide-spread savannahs and mountains of the interior, and to make them his companions by night as well as day. Many of the

mammalia are frequently to be seen, however, at the back of estates, and especially on abandoned or neglected plantations, which abut on the bush or forest, for here lurk the tiger tribe and their victims, such as deer, acouris, labba &c.; and even in the city itself the inhabitants have often the opportunity of learning practically the predacious and cunning habits of many of the smaller animals.

It has never been my lot to travel very far into the interior, much less to have had the opportunity of studying, or even seeing, all the objects which are now to arrest attention; but it has, however, been my good fortune to meet at different times with a tolerable number of specimens, both in the living and dead state, and I hope that I have lost no opportunity of making myself as familiar with them as circumstances would allow.

The animals which constitute the class mammalia stand at the head of the creation, in consequence of the superiority evinced in their physical and mental organization; and, as a matter of course, man assumes the first rank among them, about whom, however, it is not my intention to speak. Neither will it be necessary to define particularly the structure of the animals seen here. Far better descriptions than I could possibly give will be found in most zoological works, especially those of Cuvier, Buffon, Goldsmith, and Grant. Like to man, animals move upon the face of the earth, or swim upon its waters. Like him they are viviparous, and after birth are nourished by milk (deriving their name of mammalia, or mammals, from those organs which in the female are the fountains from whence flow our earliest nourishment).

I pass over the first order of mammalia, viz., the bimana, which includes the different varieties of the human race, to consider the second order, the quadru-

mana, which comprises the monkey tribe, and which are pretty extensively represented in this country.

There are no apes or baboons, or what are known as true monkeys, to be met with here. The several species in this country are distinguished by their not having cheek pouches, and by the absence of callosities on the buttocks. They have, however, long tails, which in several species, as will be noticed, are prehensile, or capable of being twisted round the branches of trees, so as to support their weight. They have, moreover, thirty-six teeth in their jaws, being four grinders more than the usual complement of teeth in the monkeys of other countries.

They abound in the forests, where they may commonly be both seen and heard by the traveller.

They are gregarious in their habits, especially those of the smaller kind. The different species do not congregate in the same troop—each species has a corps or regiment of its own. They are the lords of the forests, living on high branches of lofty trees, where they consider themselves to be tolerably safe, except from the hunter's gun or Indian's arrow, and the ever dreaded wiles and stratagems of their greatest enemy the snake, who disputes with them the dominion of the wooded world. The snakes destroy their young; they coil themselves around the thick stems, and await a truant young monkey, or glide noiselessly among the leafy branches to dart suddenly upon young or old, to the immense consternation and jabbering of the whole monkey family.

Monkeys here feed in their wild state on seeds, fruit, roots, plants, insects, wild honey, and other sweets, but when tamed can be made to eat almost everything, and are remarkable for their enormous appetites, which, apparently, never leads to corpulence or obesity; for who ever saw a fat monkey? Their spare and active

forms are the result of their incessant muscular action. They are very salacious, and from their indecent and disgusting habits prove objectionable as domestic pets. The females generally bring forth one at a birth, and the young monkey, as might be expected, generally proves a very troublesome little fellow. Some of the females carry their young on their backs, others under their arms. If wounded by the poisoned arrow of the Indians, some species withdraw at once the fatal weapon, but soon fall after the working of the poison.

There is considerable confusion still existing in reference to the kinds of monkeys which are met with in British Guiana, different names having been given to the same animal by different writers, and several of our varieties have not to my knowledge been accurately defined, so that in the following description of them I do not pretend to convey anything very original or learned, but simply to state what I know about the species of this country, whether acquired by personal observation or otherwise; and the same remarks will apply to the rest of the mammalia here noticed.

I will divide the monkeys of this country into two classes:

1st. Those with tails prehensile.

2nd. Those with tails not prehensile.

There are in all, perhaps, about twenty varieties.

One of the most common kinds of monkey with prehensile tail is called here the howling baboon, or red howler (*Mycetes seniculus*). It deserves its name of howler, but is not a baboon. The terrible howling noise it makes is produced by a kind of bony drum which is lodged in the throat, and may be felt and seen from the outside. This drum is simply an osseous expansion of one of the bones of the larynx or windpipe, and the sound of the voice reverberated through its expanded

cavity produces the sound whence it derives its name. This monkey is somewhat larger than a fox, and is of a reddish-brown colour with long hair.

It lives in large troops in the woods, and is often shot and eaten by the Indians.

By some this is considered the preacher monkey, from the fact of its being regarded as preaching and not howling, or as well as howling in the wilderness; but the preachers have been described as black, which this is not.

The most common description of monkey with prehensile tail met with is that known as the brown, or weeping monkey (*Simia apella*), so named from the plaintive sound of its voice.

It is seen varying considerably in size and colour. The shades of brown approach in some instances almost to black, whilst in others they are more of a dirty-white. These monkeys are great gluttons, and are very salacious, notwithstanding which they are commonly seen in and about the houses of Georgetown. They are called by some Sajou, and belong to the Sapajous.* They are frequently seen in the country climbing up the trees, and although readily domesticated are never to be trusted. When a child I was very severely bitten over the body and limbs by one of these animals, and the cicatrices remain to the present time. I had been teasing it, when it sprung upon me and threw me down, and commenced operations with its teeth, much to my alarm.

The Capuchin monkey (*Simia capucina*) is another species closely allied to the other, but is distinguished by the border of the face being paler instead of darker than the rest of the body, as is observable in the common brown monkey. Its habits and haunts are the same.

* Cuvier.

Another species allied to this is the *Cebus olivaceus*, or olive monkey.

The horned or tufted Sapajou (*Simia fatuellus*) belongs also to this tribe. It is of a blackish-brown colour with the borders of the face white, and derives its name from two tufts of hair which project above the eyebrows.

A large kind of monkey with prehensile tail is often met with in the forests. It is of an entire black colour with long loose hair; the colour is paler over the ventral surface; its tail long and hairy. The face is more or less naked, with a red membrane encircling the eyes. It belongs to the tribe of spider monkeys, and is here known as the Beelzebub monkey (*Ateles Beelzebub*).

Another species very much like the above is also common, and has been termed the Quata, or Coaita (*Ateles paniscus*), but is distinguished by its flesh-coloured face. The whole surface of the body is black, no whitish appearance being visible about the belly. This is, perhaps, the most intelligent monkey of this country, the natives having been long in the habit of training them to their service, and making them learn to fetch and carry like some dogs. They have a peculiar manlike appearance, and grow to the height of about three to four feet. They are seldom seen in large societies, and are indolent in their habits.

There are two or three other species of spider monkeys, or ateles, common here. These, like the others, are readily known by the absence or mere trace of thumbs on the anterior legs or arms. One, Cajou, the *Ateles ater*, has a black face as well as body, but in character and conduct they approach one another so closely as to render separate notices unnecessary. They inhabit the forests common to this country and Brazil; are gregarious, tractable, sportive, and fond of travelling about, and are said to use their tails to link themselves

together when desirous of throwing a bridge over either water or land.

The monkeys whose tails are not prehensile have been termed Sakis. By Buffon they were named Sagouins and by others have received the generic names *Callithrix* and *Pithecia*.

There are several varieties of sakis met with here. They are easily recognised by their long bushy hair and tails; they are sometimes called fox-tailed monkeys; indeed, in size and general appearance they are not unlike that animal. Their faces and heads are small; the teeth and mouth project in a remarkable manner. They are of a morose and savage disposition, and are very noisy and quarrelsome in the woods.

One species with which I am acquainted is the black saki (*Simia vel pithecia satanas*). It is about three feet long, including the tail, and is of an entire black colour with long bushy hair. The female is of a greyish hue, and sometimes brownish red. The breast and belly in both are scantily furnished with hair. This animal is also known as the Cuxid.

The Yarkee is the name given by some to the white-faced saki (*Pithecia vel simia leucocephala*). The colour of the body is black, but the face has greyish-white hairs on the forehead, temples, and cheeks; some reddish grey hairs are seen over the eyebrows. The lower jaw, nose, mouth, chin, and a small space round the eyes are naked and membranous. The female is much lighter in colour, indeed it is of a greyish brown rather than black.

The red-bellied saki is another species common here, it is described as the (*Pithecia vel simia rufiventer*). The colour is brownish, but on the belly it is more or less red; the hair on the crown separates and falls forwards giving it a peculiar appearance. It is about the size of a

cat, and has a very bushy tail ; the ears are round and flat.

Another species is known as the red-bearded saki (*Pithecia vel simia rufibarba*),* from the fact of the beard about the face being of that colour. The colour of the upper part of the body is brownish black ; of the under part light red.

There is another species of a brown and yellowish grey colour, which has a circle of ochreous yellow about the face, hence named yellow-headed saki (*Pithecia vel simia ochrocephala*).

Another species, the (*Pithecia chiropotes*), is limited in its range, and is seldom found except about the river Rupununi where it may be seen in small societies.

Of the small squirrel-like monkeys with tails not prehensile there are several varieties, some of which are common, and others rare. They have fewer teeth than the others. Of those which are somewhat rare, may be mentioned the striated monkey and the pinche. The former, the ouistiti (*Simia vel hapale jacchus*), is of a greyish brown; the tail and part of the back are annulated brown and white; the head is reddish with a white spot on the forehead, and tufts of white hair about the ears.

The pinche (*Simia vel midas ædipus*) is of a grey colour studded with brown, tail slender and reddish; on the head there are some long whitish hairs hanging behind the ears. This little animal is very rarely seen, but has occasionally been met with in the Guianas.

Both these monkeys derive their name of ouistiti from the peculiar sound they make, which resembles that word when the syllables composing it are uttered.

The most common and interesting of the small monkeys is that pretty little animal so well known here as

* Kuhl.

the sakawinki (*Callithrix vel simia sciurea*). The body is covered with close downy hair just like fur of a golden colour, the head and feet are orange, the tip of the nose black, tail long and tipped black. It has a small round head and hairy ears. From its size, its activity, and sportive habits it has been termed the squirrel monkey, being not unlike that nimble little animal.

In the woods they may be seen in hundreds skipping from bough to bough, and I have often seen them make the most prodigious leaps, jumping over a wide road which had been cut through the forests in Essequibo, and on each side of which were lofty trees, their branches occasionally meeting overhead, and along which these squirrel monkeys dash fearlessly in a sort of "follow my leader" game, and bound off at times from tree to tree a distance of several yards across, when they may sometimes be knocked down with sticks or stones. They have a sharp twitter or cry, and are often made pets of by ladies and children, but it is only when caught young that they can thus be domesticated; the older animals do not readily bear confinement, and generally die of chagrin.

A bushy-tailed species, a large-eared ditto, and another with a black and white face have been described,* but with these I am not acquainted.

The other species of small monkeys belong to another tribe (*Midas*, or *Tamarin*).

Perhaps the most elegant of the smaller monkeys is that beautiful little animal known as the marmoset (*Midas rufimanus*), or red-handed tamarin. It is of a splendid black colour, variegated in some places with grey; the hands or feet are orange red. They live in large societies in the interior, and their voices resemble in sound the cries of birds. They are seldom tamed.

* M. Martin.

The marakina, or silky tamarin (*Midas rosalia*), is another species of this family. It is of a yellowish colour with reddish hues, and has a sort of mane upon the neck; the tail is long and bushy.

The black tamarin (*Midas ursulus*) is also, I believe, occasionally seen here, but is very uncommon; it is, as its name implies, of a black colour with reddish wavings.

A species of nocturnal monkey, the douroucoui (*Aotes vel nyctipithecus trivirgatus*), has been met with by Humboldt and others in the neighbourhood of the river Cassiquiari. It is of an ash or grey colour above, fawn colour below, with a black line on the forehead, and on each temple; length of body about nine inches. It sleeps all day, and prowls about at night, feeding on birds and insects. It is like a cat in appearance, and is ferocious and not easily tamed.

The third order of Mammalia comprises the carnaria, or those which feed on flesh, including a number of animals with the three kinds of teeth, and which are more or less unguiculated.

As a sort of link in the chain between the monkey tribe and other animals, the bats have been placed by naturalists, and in this country several interesting species are found. Bats are generally considered as nocturnal creatures, but although chiefly aroused to activity towards sunset and night, they are nevertheless far from idle during the day. I have repeatedly seen them flying about inside of houses, especially in gloomy places, during the daytime. They flew along so noiselessly that you could not hear their movements, they were evidently in quest of food for their young ones, who were perched in rows with their heads hanging downwards, and supporting themselves with their feet hooked in between the boarding of the roof. They are not always afraid of the human presence, for several

persons were living in the rooms covered in by the roof which these bats inhabited; whether the gloominess of the apartment made them believe that the sun had gone down, I do not know, but certain it is that they fly both night and day, and may frequently be heard as well as seen twittering during daylight. They are great torments to householders and others; there is scarcely a house the eaves or roofs of which are not infested by bats, whose dung, consisting of little black pellets, accumulates to such an extent as to form large heaps.

The larger kinds inhabit the forests, where they may be seen suspended in clusters on the branches.

The smaller kinds take to church steeples, houses, hollow trees, and when seen flying along can scarcely be distinguished from the small black swallows, which in many respects they resemble. I have seen hundreds dart out towards sunset from the holes in the cathedral steeple, and also from decayed trees, when visited even during daytime; and from their size, colour, mode of flight, and habit of chasing insects, I was not always certain whether they were swallows or bats. Some of these animals are well known to suck the blood of persons asleep by inflicting minute wounds on the toes and other parts of the body, and the smaller species are in the habit of thus bleeding birds and animals. So delicately is the operation performed, that the victim is generally unconscious of it until, on awaking in the morning, he finds the sheets discoloured with blood. The hemorrhage, if a large vein is opened, is sometimes pretty copious, but when the toes are attacked the quantity of blood lost is trifling, and the wound soon heals. I have seen instances of such bites, but they were principally in children, and were not followed by any evil consequences.

I only know of four or five different kinds of bats in British Guiana. The vampire bat is the largest (*Phyl.*

lostoma spectrum), measuring two or more feet across the wings, and distinguished by a peculiar leaf-like appendage over the nose; its colour is brownish-grey or reddish.

A more common species is the javelin bat (*Vespertilio hastatus*), measuring about sixteen inches across the wings, the size of the body being about four inches long; teeth, twenty-eight.

Another species is the Ph: vel vampirus bidens.

I have also in my possession a species of bat, which I procured from Berbice, of a reddish-brown colour with scarcely any tail, and about eighteen inches across the wings; the number of teeth is twenty-six. I expect this is a species of noctilio. The interfemoral membrane is very large, and the small tail is involved in its upper part.

A naturalist of this country once told me that he had met with a species of bat of an entire white colour; it was somewhat small in size, and had entered a dwelling-house up the Demerara river where he procured it. He had unfortunately omitted to take any particular account of its structure.

A strange species, *Molossus fumarius*, is also common during the day in buildings and high trees.

A small species of bat is commonly seen by travellers up the rivers and creeks; when disturbed in their haunts they dart out from old trees and water plants, and in numbers six or twelve whirl silently but swiftly about like butterflies, for which they are often mistaken, and after the performance of their mysterious evolutions disappear as suddenly as they came.

Of the insect-eating family of carnaria (*Insectivora*) there are very few varieties here, such animals as shrews and moles never having been noticed.

There is one species of hedgehog (*Erinaceous*) which is peculiar in its structure, and differs materially from the species seen in Europe. It is about eight inches

long, the head is short and thick, the neck and tail are very short, there are no external ears, but two auditory foramina or holes are observable. The legs are three or four inches in length, and the toes are armed with pointed claws. The back and sides are covered with stiff prickles of an ash colour blended with yellow stripes.

The third family of the carnaria are especially flesh-eating animals (*Carnivora*), and offer several highly interesting species to the observer. They are all fierce and savage, and their powerful jaws, armed with sharp teeth, render them very formidable in appearance, even to man.

Of the first division (*Plantigrada*), or those who walk resting the entire sole of the foot on the ground, the crab dog (*Procyon vel ursus cancrivorus*) is an excellent example. This savage animal is about the size of a small hound, and is commonly seen in cane-fields, forests, and trenches. It is of a greyish brown colour; the tail is long, and marked with black rings; the legs are rather short; the hair is rough and wiry; and it has generally a dirty appearance, from its habits of scratching in the mud for crabs and small animals. It is sometimes hunted by dogs, but generally masters them or escapes. It is called by some the racoon crab eater. It most commonly prowls about at night, is an excellent climber, and invades stock and poultry yards, retreating during the day to hollow trees, or holes in the ground. It may be readily tamed.

I believe that the common racoon (*Procyon lotor*) is also an inhabitant of this country, but I have never yet been able to meet with a specimen. Another species occasionally seen is the *Nasua solitaria*.

Another species of plantigrade carnivorous animal is the coati (*Viverra nasua*); it is of a brown colour, and in

size and appearance not unlike the crab dog. Its habits also are much the same; it climbs trees, and prowls about destroying birds and small animals.

It is spoken of by some as the quacy-quacy, or coati-monde; also kibidi and quassi, and from its long hairy tail has been likened to a fox.

The potto-kinkajou (size of a pole cat), a pretty looking animal, is occasionally seen. It is known as the potto, or kinkagous-Cuvier, and by some is called the yellow macanço (*Viverra vel cercoleptes caudivolvula*). It is about one foot and a half in length. The body is long and narrow, and the tail prehensile; it is covered with a yellowish brown fur, and has a blackish streak along the back; the head is small and round, and the face pointed like the fox. It is of a mild disposition, is nocturnal in its habits, and lives on fruits, honey, &c. It is called by the colonists yamanack; by the Arawaks wawula; by the Macusis yawarri; by the Warraus noari.

A new species lately described by Richard Schomburgk is the *Nasua vittata*. It is found in the neighbourhood of the Roraima mountains, and in its habits resembles the others of this family.

There are also several other allied species, viz., *Galic-tis vel mustela barbara*, resembling a dog in appearance and habits; it feeds on yams, bananas, fish.

Also *G. allamandi*.

G. vittata; common on the coasts, where it is known as a great depredator among poultry.

Of the digitigrade carnivorous animals, or those which walk on the point of their toes, there are not to my knowledge any true weasles, polecats, or other such animals; their place is, however, amply supplied by several destructive creatures, of which some have already been described, and the others will shortly be noticed. Thus

that disgusting animal the skunk, or chinche (*Mephitis americanus*), is frequently seen. There are three or four varieties of this species, of which I have seen only two: one was small, about twenty-four inches long, including the tail, which was five or six inches in length and bushy, thickest at the end; the colour of the body was grey-brown; the hair was long and loose, grey on head, back, and tail; the throat, lower jaw, muzzle, and legs were black; a white line extended across the forehead and ears to the neck.

The other species was larger, its general colour was brown; but neither of them was offensive to the nose, or favoured me with a display of its power.

The several species of skunk (*Mephitis americanus*) are in bad odour with both man and animals. Nature has not intended that they should be attacked with impunity; although they have powerful teeth and claws, these would be insufficient to exempt them from capture, but by means of a glandular apparatus, situated near the tail, they can forcibly eject such a disgusting and foul smelling liquid of an unctuous character as to compel the most undaunted to halt if any portion of this fluid touches them. It is so intolerably fetid as to drive back dogs and men; if the garments are unfortunately touched with it, they must be foresworn, as no washing or cosmetic eradicates the effluvia; nevertheless, the Indians eat the flesh after cutting out the gland, and compare it to pork.

The otters (*Mustela vel lutra braziliensis* and *endris*) of this country (called also savous) are of two kinds, and are frequently seen in the rivers and creeks. Upon one occasion only have I been able to meet with one in a state of nature, either alone or accompanied by others. It was swimming along a tributary of the river Essequibo, where I was bathing. Our mutual astonishment on

first acquaintance was extreme, but in the most polite manner possible he bowed his head below the water, and took a quiet dive, an act which I did not attempt to imitate. A recent traveller* describes the smaller species as travelling in packs of eight or ten to hunt for fish, to which they prove very destructive.

The larger species do not assemble in such numbers, perhaps only two or three fish together in a select company. They can remain under water for several minutes, and whilst submerged prey on the fish as they are unsuspectingly swimming along. Seizing them by the belly, they drag them ashore, and depositing them there go in search of more ; but very often the Indians, who are intimately acquainted with their habits, lie in wait for them, and cowardly steal the fish which the otters had captured and intended for their own use.

The large otters are very daring, and attack the largest fresh-water fish, such as the arapaima or pirarucu ; nay, the Indians assert that the otters combine their attacks to assault large fish, and are generally successful.

The vicinity of the otter's fishing ground may often be detected by the piles of fish bones and scales, and sometimes by a rude footpath, hollowed or trodden out of the rocky ground by the diligent steps of the fish-eating otter.

The domestic dog (*Canis domesticus*) is not an animal peculiar to this country, but as so many, and of such great variety, have been at different times imported here, they require some notice.

This country is not adapted for the breeding of dogs. An animal of this kind, for instance say a Newfoundland, terrier, or hound, on first arrival loses his appetite, craves water, pants after the least exertion, and lolls about with his tongue hanging out of its mouth. He gets

* Schomburgk. See Fishes of Guiana.

sores on the feet or body, and the insects worry him. He becomes heavy, inactive, and stupid; his particular instinct becomes impaired or lost. His voice or bark is altered; and very often he is seized with convulsions, and dies shortly after his arrival. I brought out from England a very handsome dog of the terrier species in 1842, and in the course of a few months he died in fits, after having become emaciated and listless. Most dogs are subject to fits here, but so are cats, birds, and other small animals. In the case of those which creep near to the ground, I have sometimes thought that this might be occasioned by an unhealthy miasin exhaling from the low swampy lands.

It is truly ridiculous to observe the apathetic state of dogs, and other similar animals, in this colony. If a carriage approaches, and threatens to run over them, they positively wait until the very last moment before they crawl away. Very often they are too lazy or stupid to escape in time, and with ever so much painstaking a person who has to drive much can rarely fail to crush several idle victims in the course of the year.

There is something to me very painful in the sight of an Indian's dog; the wretched looking half-starved animal is a small mongrel with long upright ears and tail, which are seldom or never cut. It is rarely fed, and lives upon less food than, I believe, any animal on record. Yet such a dog will, if roused, hunt for hours, and makes the forest ring again with its cries. If not successful in the chase of deer, labba, or acouri, it returns home panting, torn, and bleeding; but after a drink of water lies down to sleep. No one would suspect from seeing these lean dogs, sitting like spectres on their bony haunches on the prow of some Indian corial, that they could possibly undergo such fatigue. Numerous kinds of hounds have been introduced here, but they are

mostly degenerate. The blood-hound, and the Spanish dog, a sort of cross between the former and some other species, answer better than most of the others. They often prove trusty, and are savage watchdogs. The several varieties of dog are made to hunt in this country, and by a little patience and training they can be taught to attack tigers, deer, and other wild animals. In the interior wild dogs are sometimes seen; these animals somewhat resemble terriers, and always hunt in packs. The Indians occasionally catch them for the purpose of crossing the breed of their own dogs.

In spite of the hot climate, and the number and liberty of dogs, hydrophobia is altogether unknown. One or two instances have been suspected to occur, but they have been very obscure and uncertain. Dogs certainly, at times, become very outrageous, and even apparently rabid, but the instances are few, and the consequences unimportant.

Of the wild dogs there are two or three species which require notice.

The species allied to the crab dog is commonly found in the savannahs and woods. It is known as the *Canis cancrivorus*, and is rapacious in its habits.

Another species is the *Canis azaræ*, found in the high lands of the interior, and proving very destructive to the Indian's stock-house. It makes a howling noise, and attacks and slays the domesticated dog.

There are numerous species of the feline tribe of animals in British Guiana, and they are by far the most savage and ferocious of our mammalia.

The domestic cat is as useful here as elsewhere, and is found in great numbers. As before observed, when young, cats are very subject to fits, and require some care in raising them. Cats are not so thoroughly domesticated in Guiana as in Europe. In general, they

are observed to be more wild and distrustful than in other places, but perhaps this may arise from their outdoor life and want of domestic education. They are rarely made the same household pets of as in England, but are kept principally for their usefulness in clearing the houses of rats, mice, bats, and lizards, which would otherwise abound.

There are several varieties of wild or tiger cats (*Felis jaguarondi*), as they are termed. These vary in size from the common domestic animal to the bulk of a large dog, but are all more or less marked in the same manner, the ground colour being some shade of grey, and having numerous black stripes on the body. They abound in the forests and other uncultivated regions, and at times approach human habitations, where they prove very destructive to poultry. I have seen more than one species climbing the trees in the suburbs of this city; indeed, all of them are excellent climbers, and occasionally capture wild birds. They are in general remarkable for their long bodies and short legs, and the several varieties are distinguished by their tails, which are of unequal length. Some of the smaller kinds, if caught when young, may be tamed, but are always to be distrusted.

There is one species known as the black tiger cat. It is about the size of a small hound, and is of a black colour with stripes of white, but occasionally these are absent.

One of the largest varieties met with is called here the Labba tiger cat. This is an animal so closely resembling the Ocelot (*Felis pardalis*) in size, shape, and habits that I cannot but regard it as the same animal. Its tail and legs are somewhat shorter in proportion than the same organs of the ordinary tiger cats. The colour of the body is greyish-brown, marked with unconnected

irregular fawn-coloured spots or patches bordered with black. These animals are very wild and ferocious, and live on birds and small animals, such as the labba, acouri, &c.

There are also the *Felis tigrina*; *F. macroura*; and *F. unicolor* varieties of the tiger cat tribe.

The most formidable, however, of our wild beasts is the renowned "Jaguar" (*Felis onça*). This large and ferocious animal has been frequently regarded as a tiger, and is so called here; by others it has been described as the panther, and by some as the leopard. It is synonymous with the Ounce. It varies considerably in size, the older and larger ones attaining very great size. Though not equal to the true tigers in bulk and strength, the ounce or jaguar rivals them in activity and ferocity. The largest which I have seen measured about four feet in length, exclusive of the tail, and stood between two to three feet from the ground; many, however, are much larger.

The head of this animal is singularly flat, broad, and snake-like, and it has enormous strength of jaw and teeth. The colour varies according to age. It is generally of a greyish or fawn colour, beautifully marked with irregular rings, having a black patch in the centre, and shades of yellowish brown around. On the back there are oblong stripes, and on the legs irregular black spots. The beautiful striped appearance of the skin is unsurpassed by that of any of the other feline animals.

When advanced in life this animal is often met with of a much darker colour—in fact, almost black. The rings and striated marks are less perceptible,* and this difference in colour has given rise to the belief that there are several varieties of the jaguar in this country. Some speak of the black tiger, others of a reddish-brown

* Cuvier.

species, and of the spotted ounce, but in point of fact these are one and all the same species, and only differ as to age and colours as far as my knowledge extends on the subject.

The jaguar is very commonly seen, even in the neighbourhood of the city. They lurk in the "bush" or densely wooded plains during the day, but are, notwithstanding, occasionally seen by watchmen and others during daylight, but at night they venture stealthily forth in quest of deer, cattle, and numerous other creatures, such as birds, fish, and reptiles. Their favourite food seems to be deer, pigs, and cows. They have been known to travel through the lower part of a dwelling-house in the country in scent of some pigs, and having seized one, to have marched quietly off to devour it at leisure. They cannot remove oxen in the same quiet manner, but springing suddenly upon an animal, they seize it by the neck, and having thrown it down, tear or open the large vessels of the neck, and quench their thirst in the blood of their victim. After having made a sufficient meal, they drag the carcass to some secluded spot and cover it lightly over; they then retire, proposing to themselves the pleasure of returning soon to continue their repast. The Indians and negroes are aware of this habit of theirs, and laying in ambush near to the spot where the meal is ready for them, await their approach, and when the crafty tiger thinks that all is as he left it, quite secure and savoury, he is fired upon and slain by the still craftier man, who, stripping off the beautifully spotted skin as a valuable trophy and prize, casts the quivering carcass aside for the use of the vultures. The jaguars are often, however, entrapped alive, and I have seen several which had been captured in the following manner:—A large hole or pit is dug in the ground, which is palisaded round and approached by a

heavy door, which is placed in connexion with the bait (generally a pig or goat); when the tiger seizes the animal the door falls down, and the savage beast is caged, but immediately he sets to work to liberate himself, and were it not for the posts and palisades he would invariably manage to burrow his way out through the earth, as has frequently been done. He is afterwards secured by placing a strong cage opposite the doorway, which being opened, he is urged into his den, where a slide thoroughly secures him. The jaguar is rarely or never known to attack man; his wants are too lavishly supplied by the forests or cattle-pens to excite him to become the aggressor; but if wantonly assaulted he will courageously defend himself.

There is or was a man living up the river Demerara who once had a single combat with a large jaguar; I do not know what the cause of the quarrel was, but each being endowed with more than ordinary strength, the conflict was long and doubtful. Fortunately the man had a knife at his side, and whilst the jaguar was lacerating one arm and side, endeavouring to reach his neck, he had presence of mind sufficient to plunge the knife into the animal's side, when he soon dropped powerless. The brave individual was, however, frightfully lacerated, and bears or bore about him the most positive evidence of his awful contest.

"Tiger hunting," or chasing the jaguar with dogs and horses, is occasionally carried on on a small scale in the country. An island in the Essequibo received its present name, "Tiger Island," from the abundance of the jaguar species met with; even now they are often seen swimming to and from this beloved retreat.

The fourth, or marsupial order of mammalia, consists of those singular-looking animals which have pouches attached to the abdomen of the mother, who cherishes

her young ones in this manner until they are capable of supporting themselves. The young animals of this order are generally born so helpless and half formed as necessarily to perish unless provided for in some extraordinary way, and nature, ever fruitful in resources, has contrived this bag or pouch as a sort of half-way station from one state of existence to the other.

There are not many varieties in this order of animals here; the numbers of some species are, however, very great, and they are in universal detestation in consequence of their destructive and thieving propensities, and their offensive appearance and effluvia. They are rarely seen by day, but prowl about during the night, and steal eggs of all kinds, besides carrying off fowls, ducks, &c.

Upon one occasion I was awakened during the night by a noise outside the bed room door, and going out with a lighted candle to see what was the matter discovered to my surprise a large yawarri, a species of opossum, quietly seated on a table covered with cups and saucers. It was either very much entertained with my appearance and the light in general, or was very bold and reckless, for it allowed me to approach it with a stick, which I applied with so much vigour about its head and shoulders as to cause it to break. Not satisfied with this beating, I kicked it down stairs and threw it out of the window, intending to examine it at my leisure in the morning, but to my surprise on seeking for it early it had gone.

“ Sic transit gloria ‘ Yawarri.’ ”

The species known are the

<p><i>Didelphis cancrivora</i> " <i>quica</i> " <i>philander</i> " <i>dorsigera</i></p>		<p><i>Didelphis crassicaudata</i> " <i>musculus</i> " <i>palmata</i> vel <i>chiro-</i> <i>nectes variegatus</i></p>
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There are therefore seven, if not more, varieties of

opossum (*Didelphis*) peculiar to British Guiana; the word "yawarri" is applied to most of them; they vary in size, the largest which I have seen was about the size of a large cat, some are little larger than rats. They make a hissing noise when approached, and show their sharp teeth, which are fifty in number, the greatest hitherto observed in quadrupeds. The arrangement of the teeth is as follows: five incisors on each side in the upper jaw, and four in the lower; four molars, three bicuspid, and one canine at each side of the upper jaw, and the same in the lower jaw, or

Incisory Teeth.	Canines.	Grinders.	
10	1 1	7 7	
8	1 1	7 7	
<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	<hr style="width: 50%; margin: 0 auto;"/>	
18	2 2	14 14	Total 50

They have long naked ears, and the hair on the body is coarse and of a greyish-brown, the legs are blackish; head triangular-shaped, with pointed muzzle, tail naked, and marked in hexagonal divisions except towards the tip, where some bristles sprout. The feet are adapted for plantigrade action, and are marked with callosities on the soles. The toes are armed with strong claws, except the thumbs which are opposable, and have no nails, on the hinder feet.

These animals are slow, sluggish, and inactive in their movements; they are often seen on trees, but generally burrow in holes in the ground or in hollow stems. They are very tenacious of life. I once gave prussic acid to a large female who had eight young ones, quite blind, and each about two inches in length, clinging to her teats in the pouch. The wretched mother fought obstinately against the influence of the deadly poison, but even after her death, the young ones never let go their hold until forcibly torn away. I was quite surprised that they were

not equally poisoned with the mother; one of these little helpless things escaped notice and was positively alive next day.

The rodent animals constitute the fifth order of mammalia, and derive their name from the structure of their teeth, which serve not to cut or tear flesh, but rather to gnaw it; hence the term rodentia, or gnawers. Their general form, low in front and high posteriorly, cause them to spring or leap rather than walk, and many are excellent climbers. They are in general very swift of foot and are singularly active and sportive.

There are several species of squirrel or animals closely allied to the English specimens. The body is covered with smooth fine hair, white on the breast and belly, but elsewhere yellow-brown in colour streaked with white at the sides; the tail is long, bushy, and variegated in colour.

The water haas, or hare or hog, is a very common animal here, and congregates in large numbers in the woods and in cultivated districts where they prove very destructive to the produce of the fields. They are excellent swimmers, hence the name given to them by the Dutch, water haas (*Hydrochærus vel cavia capybara*). They grow to a large size, standing about two feet high; the head is enormously large; the body is covered by a bristly dark brown hair; they have no tail, or a mere trace of one; their feet are more or less webbed, indicative of their aquatic propensities. Four tusks protrude from the jaws. Their skin is exceedingly tough and is about an inch thick. Their flesh is considered excellent food, and they are often hunted. They are readily domesticated, and feed on roots and vegetables; they prey occasionally on fish.

The acouri, agouti, or coney (*Chloromys acuti*) is a species of hare very frequently met with. It is consi-

dered as the American type of the genus *lepus*, and is much sought after as game by the wild native and civilised colonist, who equally enjoy the sport and food it affords. It is about the size of a full grown rabbit, but often grows much larger. Its head is oval. The fore part of the body with the two front legs small in comparison with the posterior. It runs with incredible swiftness, or rather bounds and leaps with singular activity. Its colour is reddish-grey or brown, almost lustrous, but not uniformly the same over all parts of the body; the hair is very soft and smooth. It has twelve teeth in all, the four incisors being remarkably long, and often curved; it has four toes on the fore feet and three on the hind ones; the tail is merely rudimentary, barely an inch long, and naked. In feeding on some substances, such as corn, yams, &c., it sits nearly upright on its haunches, and holding the food between its fore feet gnaws it in a most ludicrous manner; it also feeds on roots, nuts, fruit, and plants. It is often domesticated; I kept one for a long time, but it escaped in the end, for which I was not sorry, as it was very destructive to furniture, which it gnawed. The acouri makes a grunting noise when approached, and if frightened utters a loud scream or cry; it is very timid, but will defend itself when occasion requires. It is met with in the forests, and burrows in the ground. I have seen the Indians call them almost to their very feet by imitating a sound which attracts them.

A smaller animal closely resembling the acouri, and belonging to the same family, is known here as the acouchi (*Cavia vel dasyprocta acuchi*), and has often been confounded with the other. It is, however, scarcely larger than a ferret, and is characterised by a distinct slender naked tail, about two inches in length. It is called by the natives "atouri," and has been described as

the "adouri" by an old Dutch writer.* It is of a reddish-brown or olive colour, and is mild and gentle in its habits, feeding on nuts and vegetables; indeed, in its general appearance and habits it is very like the acouri.

Another species is also found, the *Cavia lencopyga*; it is similar to the other in its habits and general appearance.

But the glory of the sportsman and the native is that beautiful animal so well known as the labba or paca (*Cælogenys*—literally, hollow cheek). It resembles the acouri in form, but grows much larger, and is otherwise different in its colour and anatomical structure, which latter need not be dwelt on in this place. I saw the bony head of one which when alive could not have weighed less than thirty pounds. The labba has five toes on each foot. This animal can also sit upright, and uses its fore paws like the acouri; the colour is reddish-brown, with three rows of large white spots along its sides; the tail is very short; the eyes are large and lustrous, and approach in beauty to those of the gazelle. This lovely little animal abounds in the forests, where it burrows in the ground, and prowls about chiefly at night to feed on fruit and vegetables; it is often domesticated, and I have had more than one in my possession, whose graceful actions often reminded me of the cat, and, like that animal, it cleans its face with its fore-paws.

The labba is largely preyed upon by men and animals, but nature has provided for the continuance of the species by rendering it prolific. It can swim, run, and leap, and is not readily surprised. It is only the noiseless step of the wary Indian, as he tracks his way through the pathless woods; it is only his quick eye and ready aim that can secure the nimble labba, ere he darts away or plunges into his hiding-place into the ground. The

* Hartsink.

traveller, or hunter, often hears its grunting cry and bounding step—nay, can occasionally catch a glimpse of one in the entangled bush, but he seldom or never succeeds in the chase, and the crafty Indian knowing this readily dispenses with his company. The flesh of this little animal is so esteemed that it is a common remark here, that “He who has eaten labba, and drunk creek water, is sure never to leave the colony.”

Of such animals as the guinea-pig, rat, and mouse there is nothing of any importance to be related.

The former, cobayes, or guinea-pigs (*Cavia cobsia*), have been introduced here, and are very plentiful and prolific. I am not aware that they are found in our forests, although to be met with in the woods of Brazil.

There are more rats than mice in British Guiana; both are exceedingly destructive, and may be found in almost every house.

There are several varieties of the rat family in this colony. One large species is known as the cane-piece rat; in dry weather especially it is very destructive to the young canes. This species is eaten by the coolies, who esteem it a delicacy.

The sixth order of mammalia affords some interesting species, which, however, have been so often described by naturalists, and others, as almost to preclude the necessity of many observations about them in this place. These unguiculated quadrupeds may be easily recognised by the absence of teeth in the front of their jaws, by their long crooked nails, and by their slow inactive movements. The first peculiarity has given rise to their scientific name (*Edentata*), as applied to this order, which is a small one, and has only three representatives here—the sloth, the armadillo, and the ant-eater.

Everybody has heard of, or seen, that clumsy looking

beast the sloth (*Bradypus tridactylus*). The lazy and indolent should observe it closely, and reflect that others regard them with almost as much surprise and pity as they bestow on this sluggish animal. Those who wish to cultivate an intimate acquaintance with it should seek an introduction in the forests, where these animals may be seen slowly moving along the branches of trees, clinging by their strong nails, and with their backs downwards to the under surfaces, and shuffling along quite fast enough apparently for all the purposes of their existence ; they feed on leaves and vegetables, and have very peculiar stomachs, not unlike those of the ruminants among animals. There is both the three-toed and the two-toed sloth here ; the former is known as the Ai, from a plaintive expression it makes ; the other as the Unau (*Bradypus didactylus*), and which is generally larger than the ai ; its colour is greyish-brown, approaching sometimes to a reddish tint.

Two other species have been described ; the *Bradypus gulans*, and the *Bradypus torquatus*.

Several species of armadillo (*Dasypus*) are met with in British Guiana. Four of these are well known, and are recognised by the number of bands, or rings, of mail of which their back is composed. There are also other differences in the number of their teeth, which need not be entered into here. The four varieties of the armadillo species best known are the three banded (*Tricinctus*) ; the five banded (*Quinquecinctus*) ; the six banded (*Sexcinctus*) ; and the nine, or many banded (*Novemcinctus*).*

The last is the largest, and measures about three feet

* The bands noticed in the larger species, frequently exceed nine in number ; as many as seventeen have been counted in specimens common to this country.

in length; the bands of the back are of a bony, or shell-like substance, held together by membranous ligaments, which admit of their sliding one over the other.

The armadillos are inoffensive in their habits, but can use their claws to some purpose if attacked.

They feed on roots, insects, fruits, and birds; they are very shy, and seldom go abroad in the day time, concealing themselves by burrowing in the ground.

The Indians feed on their flesh, and exercise some ingenuity in discovering these animals. It is said that, when in search of an armadillo, they introduce a stick in holes which the animal has made; if any mosquitoes make their appearance, they consider themselves sure to find an armadillo not far off; but if no mosquitoes are disturbed, they leave that hole and try another.

The varieties known are the

Dasypus giganteus
 " *encoubert*
 " *peba*

Dasypus villosus
 " *tatouay*
 " *minutus*

Three different kinds of ant-eater (*Myrmecophaga*) are known here, and are readily distinguished by their size.

The smallest is a pretty looking animal, about the size of a rat, and covered with a soft greyish-brown fur. It has a prehensile tail, and has two claws in front and four behind. I have seen several of these small ant-eaters, which are commonly found at the back of estates; they can live a long time without food; for one which I saw tied up, in order to tame it, refused everything that was placed before it for many days, when it effected its escape. This is the *Myr. didactyla*.

The second species is about the size of a fox, but is not so common as the small one. The tail is also prehensile, but it has four claws on each fore-foot, and five

on the hind ones ; the colour varies from fawn to black brown. This is the *Myr. tetradactyla vel tamandua*. I once had one in my possession, which climbed trees in search of ants, and which required considerable force to remove it from the branches, to which it clang like a sloth.

The third species is of enormous size in comparison with the others. It measures six feet and upwards in length. It is met with in the neighbourhood of creeks and hillocks, especially where the troolie-tree grows. The skin is coarse and thick, and covered with dense wiry long hair ; the fore-legs are thick, and the feet armed with four very sharp and crooked claws, whilst the hind feet have five. In walking the claws are curved upwards and the animal rests on the outer side of the fore-feet, which occasions an ungainly gait and prevents it from progressing rapidly ; the long shaggy tail is also more or less an encumbrance to rapid motion. It is by no means a savage animal, but is much dreaded by the natives, who, however, kill it for the sake of the flesh, which they eat. The animal itself, as its name implies, feeds chiefly on ants, but it does not refuse other food.

The seventh order of animals—the *Pachydermata*—comprise such as are distinguished by the thickness of their skins, by the peculiar structure of their feet or hoofs, and by their feeding on vegetables, besides other peculiarities. This order includes a great number of animals which are, however, very different in appearance ; but as only a few are indigenous to this country, I shall confine myself to their notice.

Two or three species of wild hogs have been met with in British Guiana, and have been named the *bakkir*, the *pingo*, and the *peccari* ; the latter is best known, and

may commonly be seen by travellers roving about in large droves, and feeding in the woods on roots and grubs. I have seen several specimens of them. They vary in size, but measure generally about three feet in length, and are of a greyish brown colour. The tail is very short, merely rudimentary ; at the lower part of the back there is a peculiar orifice connected with a glandular structure which secretes a most foetid liquid, the use and nature of which are unknown ; when a drove is disturbed the animals make a loud grunting noise, and headed by a large male, the patriarch of the family, scamper off at a rapid pace, and as they are armed with short thick tusks their charge is generally avoided by both man and beast. The Indians attack them for the sake of their flesh, which is good eating, but take the precaution of dissecting out carefully the foetid gland on the back. There are two varieties of peccari, or Mexican hog (*Dicotyles torquatus* and *labiatus*) ; the larger species is called by the natives kaivounie, and the smaller kind the abouya.

Their habits are much the same as the domestic hog, but they do not breed with them, and the females only bring forth one or two young ones at a birth.

There are besides the peccari one or two species of wild hog seen in the interior, which approach the boar in size and habits. The largest is named the Bakkir (*Sus* — ?), and inhabits the mountainous districts, feeding on vegetables and occasionally reptiles. I have never seen one, but conclude that, if present, their resemblance to the common wild boar would render description unnecessary.

The domestic hog answers remarkably well here. The present breed of pigs is well suited to the country, and the pork equals in flavour that of England and North America. Pigs are not fattened to the size which

they attain elsewhere, and the variety is not so great, but in point of delicacy and soundness the meat surpasses that of many other countries. Little or no attention is paid to the breeding or feeding them. Nothing seems to come amiss to their appetites, and the negroes and Portuguese, especially those in the country, invariably manage to harbour a pig or two in their establishments, which practice is not calculated to add to their cleanliness. On estates they do occasional mischief in the cane-pieces and on the road-sides, where they tear up the ground in wet weather for grubs and worms.

The Tapir, or Mypouri (*Tapir americanus*), is another of the hoofed animals of this country, and is met with in marshy spots in the neighbourhood of the rivers. It is called "Canta" by the natives, and has been compared to a cow in appearance, but is not so large, and resembles more a large hog. The snout is prolonged, and on the neck, which is fleshy, there is a kind of mane; the tail is short and spotted with white; the young ones are spotted white on the body. The adult animal is about five feet in length, and stands about three feet in height, being one of the largest animals we possess. The ears are small and pointed, and the general colour of the body is brown. It is by no means ferocious, but is very shy. It is hunted by the natives, and the flesh is not unlike beef, and is occasionally met with in the market. The skin, which is thick, is also found useful, and, if properly tanned, answers the purpose of leather. This animal may be considered as the hippopotamus of this country, its habits and haunts closely resembling the latter. It feeds on roots and plants, but as it is nocturnal in its excursions, it is not often seen. The anterior feet have four toes, and the posterior only three, the tips of which latter are cased in hoofs. It is called by the colonists "Bushcow."

The horse (*Equus*) thrives very well here. It is asserted that wild horses roam at large in the vast plains of the interior, but whether this is the case or not is of no importance, inasmuch as the difficulty and expense of procuring them would be greater than the present mode of obtaining horses, which consists in importing cargoes of them from Great Britain and the United States. The latter is the principal source of supply, and it is not a little remarkable that horses which have notoriously been shipped as worn out and unfit for the hardships of the Americans, rally and improve under good and gentle treatment in British Guiana. They seem to obtain a new lease of life, and after a little care in acclimatising them, turn out very useful animals. The best horses are not likely to be sent here for sale, but occasionally a very valuable animal is picked up from the cargoes. The price of a horse varies from 25*l.* to 40*l.* or 50*l.* A good horse may often be purchased for 30*l.* I paid that price myself for a mare in 1845, just after she had landed, and although hard worked up to the present time, she has never been ill nor shown any symptoms of old age.

The creole horses are somewhat remarkable in their appearance; they are slender in make, very active and fleet, but are not generally serviceable as draught horses, although exceptions occur; they are very hardy and enduring, but are seldom so well broken in as to render them tractable and docile animals. In the race-course they accomplish a mile in one minute and twelve or fifteen seconds.

The eighth order of animals (*Ruminantia*) comprise such as possess the faculty of masticating their food for a second time by bringing it back to the mouth after it has been swallowed. This is effected by the peculiar organisation of their stomachs and gullet, giving rise to

the act so well known as the chewing of the cud. The anatomy of the teeth and feet also distinguish these animals, among which I shall confine myself to the deer, sheep, cows, and goats belonging to this country. There are only three or four species of deer met with—viz., the bush deer, the cane-piece deer, the savannah deer, and a small harmless species known as the antelope or wirrebourriciri.

The bush deer (*Cervus rufus*) is the largest, and is of a brownish-red colour, with short curved horns. It is called "Baieu" by the natives, and is seen in the wooded parts of the interior, where, safe from the perils of the hunter, it becomes the prey of the jaguar and large snakes.

The savannah deer (*Cervus savannarum*) is met with in the large savannahs in herds of from four to six. It differs little in appearance from the cane-piece deer. It is often caught and tamed by the Indians.

The cane-piece deer (*Cervus simplicicornis vel campestris*) resembles the fallow deer of Europe; it is of a fawn colour, and has large branching horns. These animals are very plentiful in the neighbourhood of the estates, and are commonly chased by the sportsman, who hunts them with gun and dogs. They are very fleet, and prove courageous when attacked. They live in the woods and cane-fields, but take to the water readily if hotly pursued, where they may be captured easily if a boat is at hand, for they do not swim fast. I have seen them when wounded dash into the water, and cross a river more than a mile in width. The flesh is not equal to the venison of Europe; it is dry, and wanting in flavour.

The fourth species, known as the Wirrebourriciri (*Cervus humilis*) by the Indians, is a small but lively animal, resembling the antelope, but without horns. It

is of a light brown colour above, and whitish below, but has a row or more of white spots or stripes along its sides; when full grown these spots disappear more or less, and the animal becomes uniformly brown in colour. It is very fleet and agile, and has beautiful dark eyes. It often happens that the young of the two last species of deer are captured by hunters, and frequent attempts have been made to domesticate them. They are very docile, and soon become so tame as to eat out of the hand, but they seldom live long in a state of bondage. I have seen several of these animals which, after being carefully fed and attended to for several weeks or months, have eventually died, and, strange to say, with the same symptoms—viz., a swelling about the throat, which apparently induces spasms.

The goats imported to this country have prospered exceedingly, and flocks of them may be seen on almost every estate. They are very abundant in Georgetown, are very hardy, and require little or no care in raising them. The milk is found occasionally useful to invalids and children, and a good milch goat is a valuable acquisition to travellers going to Europe by sailing vessels, as well as to those who travel by water to the different parts of the colony. The flesh is sometimes sold in the market instead of mutton, and a roast kid is no unpleasant variety to the provisions of the housekeeper. The coolies are especially fond of goat's meat, and are frequently seen to carry home the putrid carcasses of these animals destroyed by accident, which they feast upon with impunity, to the great scandal and indignation of the vultures.

The sheep introduced into this country do not thrive well; there is a great want of sweet grass and pasture for them. The heat of the climate is unfavourable to their comfort, the woolly coat given them by nature

proves here a positive encumbrance; it becomes matted together, and after a short time falls off entirely, never to be reproduced; a sort of close thick hair covers the body, and the tails become mere rudiments; occasionally a sheep preserves its wool, but it becomes very coarse and dark in colour; the young sheep, however, continue for some time with their woolly covering, but do not fatten so well as in Europe. The creole breed is quite insufficient for the markets, which require to be supplied from other countries; hence the price of mutton is dear, ranging from 1s. to 2s. per lb.

The cattle of this country is derived from various sources; oxen are imported in large numbers every week or two from the neighbouring Spanish provinces of Venezuela and Orinoco; when brought they are generally in the most wretched condition, being squalid and thin, and fetching a price of 1*l.* 10s. to 2*l.* 10s. per head. In this state they are unfit for the market, and are purchased wholesale by the proprietors of cattle farms, who, after keeping them for several months, sell them to the butchers at a handsome profit. Their condition improves very much after grazing for some time, but the meat is rarely good, and sells in the market from 4d. to 8d. per lb. The creole beef fetches a higher price, and in general is far superior; indeed, with proper care and attention, the breed of cattle in this country might become exceedingly good. Several attempts have recently been made to improve the breed, and apparently with success, for the beef exhibited for sale about Christmas time might vie in quality with that of most other countries; but as a general rule cattle do not fatten well here. There is no scarcity of pasturage or food, but the grasses on which they subsist are perhaps not the best adapted for the maximum of nutrition, and often the want of fresh wholesome water is severely felt in the dry

seasons; this, however, might easily be obviated, and it is now a frequent practice to sink artesian wells on cattle farms in the country.

Of the cetaceous animals there are only two representatives here, and these are but seldom met with. There are no whales, or large black fish, found in the neighbourhood of Guiana.

The *Delphinus amazonicus* is only to be found in the interior of the country, about the neighbourhood of the river Takutu and the tributaries of the Amazon. It belongs to the family of the dolphins, and is allied to the whales and other cetacea.

The *Manatus americanus*, or sea cow, or sea ox. This animal is met with both in the interior and in the outlet of the larger streams. It is amphibious in its habits, and is a large unwieldy-looking animal, having an oblong body terminated by an elongated oval fin. Vestiges of nails are discoverable on the edges of their fins, which they employ with tolerable dexterity in creeping and carrying their young; hence the comparison of these organs with hands, and the name of manatus applied to this animal, of which lamantin, another name for it, is a corruption. They have also been termed mermaid, from the existence of mammæ, and at the Cape of Good Hope are known as cow whales.

The skin of the manati, as it is here called, is of a blackish colour, very tough and hard, and full of inequalities, like the bark of trees; a few bristles or coarse hairs about one inch in length are sparsely scattered over the body.

Sir Walter Raleigh in his voyages to Guiana alludes to this animal, and speaks of it as very good food.

The species here measure from seven to twelve feet in length.

APPENDIX.

THE VICTORIA REGIA.

THE famous *Victoria Regia*, although discovered in British Guiana by Sir R. Schomburgk in 1837, was, it appears, previously known to other travellers, who had met with it in the neighbourhood of the river Amazon.

The earliest mention of it in print, according to a highly respectable authority,* occurs in "Trorieps Notizen," vol. xxxv. p. 9, where it is described as "*Euryale Amazonica*," which name it derived from a distinguished botanist and traveller, Dr. Poeppig, who first found it in the river Amazon. "Previously, however, to this period, Mr. D'Orbigny, in 1828, sent specimens of this gigantic water lily to the Museum of Natural History, in Paris. He had gathered them, in 1827, in the Province of Corrientes, in a river tributary to the Rio de la Plata." Of the specimens sent, the dried flowers and fruit were lost, but judging by the leaf, it was regarded as a species of *Euryale* by the French botanists. Mr. D'Orbigny, although desirous of claiming the honour of the discovery of this noble plant, alludes to a somewhat similar species having been previously seen by Haenke, who travelled about 1801, and afterwards by Bonpland.

The plant has subsequently been found in several other stations, and abounds in some of the streams met with in British Guiana—as the rivers Berbice and Rupununi.

* Curtis's *Botanical Magazine*, vol. iii., third series, p. 3, 1847.

TABLE of Textural Analysis of Soils.—(Dr. Shier).

LOCALITIES.	Adherent Moisture.	Organic Matter.	Clay.	Coarser Matter.	Grades of coarser Matter.				Small Stones, sifting, and Loss.	Soluble Matter	TOTAL.	REMARKS.
					Fine Sand.	Sand.	Grit.	Sand.				
RIVER FRONTS:												
Blairmount, soil	6.74	5.51	50.33	35.53	31.37	3.78	.3008	1.89	100.00	Rich deposit.
Smythfield, soil	10.07	6.33	37.10	45.63	33.08	11.63	.7517	.87	100.00	} Thorough drained field.
La Penitence	7.80	6.95	27.66	57.02	25.20	21.93	9.1673	.57	100.00	
Penitence, subsoil	6.53	3.75	28.21	59.73	23.01	22.41	13.9041	1.76	100.00	
COAST FRONTS:												
Mainstay, subsoil	7.32	6.04	35.60	49.34	27.90	19.05	2.39	1.70	100.00	Good example of its class.
Lima, No. 1, soil	6.74	8.07	25.67	58.17	30.77	19.32	7.9117	1.35	100.00	
Lima, No. 1, subsoil	7.69	5.51	36.13	49.10	30.65	17.42	.6538	1.57	100.00	
Zealandia, soil	8.46	5.39	35.41	49.33	23.23	21.15	4.3857	1.41	100.00	Excellent land.
" subsoil	6.51	5.24	35.75	51.26	26.63	18.13	6.4109	1.24	100.00	
Bel Air	13.96	4.04	42.30	37.75	24.80	12.03	.6725	1.95	100.00	
Hague, No. 1	8.31	5.34	37.38	47.35	31.55	15.05	.6609	1.62	100.00	
MORA CLAYS.												
Mainstay, subsoil	8.19	4.56	35.20	50.42	28.43	18.96	2.8023	1.63	100.00	Back lands.
Mara, subsoil	10.44	4.58	42.62	40.42	31.24	9.12	.0501	1.94	100.00	Savannah behind cultivation.
Lima, No. 3, subsoil	6.33	3.97	31.18	57.27	26.73	21.54	8.8812	1.25	100.00	
REEFS.												
Port Mourant	5.95	4.70	18.40	69.44	61.75	7.22	.3215	1.51	100.00	Shell reef.
Friends	5.59	.06	48.92	44.33	39.71	4.45	.0710	1.10	100.00	Bullet-tree.
CADDY.												
Haagsbosch	2.20	.50	5.98	90.31	90.20	.00	.1001	1.01	100.00	
Enmore, No. 1	1.73	1.09	4.11	92.64	92.50	.0707	.43	100.00	
PEGASS.												
Haagsbosch Pegass	17.02	70.62	7.94	4.76	2.34	1.08	.34	...	1.00	...	100.14	
Mara	9.49	18.91	40.97	28.26	22.24	5.66	.18	...	0.18	2.57	100.00	
Lima, No. 3, soil	6.91	10.39	38.42	43.03	21.23	16.98	4.6814	1.25	100.00	
SOILS OF INTERIOR.												
Penal settlement, soil78	1.38	8.50	89.01	24.09	50.21	14.5516	.33	100.00	
" " subsoil83	1.27	4.21	93.33	19.41	47.89	25.8914	.36	100.00	Produce, root crops.
Baroo Karoo, soil	2.25	17.15	7.66	72.33	28.85	11.2	42.12	.14	.10	.61	100.00	
" " subsoil	1.50	2.82	6.87	89.36	19.93	41.76	27.29	.25	.13	...	100.55	
Barica Point	2.61	3.74	40.90	50.82	21.11	21.92	7.4039	1.93	100.00	
DOYCE'S SETTLEMENT.												
Near Barica Point, subsoil	1.26	3.14	17.62	77.43	37.55	34.52	5.2810	.55	100.00	

TABLE showing Quantity of Salt in Subsoil Waters.

Names of Estates.	Grains of Salt per Imp. Gallon.	Remarks.
Sophia, plantain walk	282.27	East coast of Demerara.
Marionville.....	219.47	
Palmyra, front land.....	19.31	Island of Wakenaan, mouth of river Essequibo.
Palmyra, highest land	24.87	
Endeavour, highest land	226.67	Island of Leguan, in mouth of Essequibo.
Endeavour, abandoned front land....	294.86	
Doorenhag, abandoned low land ...	214.89	
Enterprise, high land.....	98.13	
Lima, No. 1, abandoned front land	258.23	Arabian coast.
Lima, No. 2, middle land	102.39	
Lima, No. 3, back land	101.40	
Lusignan, abandoned front land.....	494.63	East coast of Demerara.
Lusignan, middle land	207.37	
Lusignan, back land.....	104.51	Arabian coast.
Mainstay, front land.....	431.08	
Zeelandia, B.....	118.90	Wakenaam.
Zeelandia, A.....	207.04	
Zeelandia.....	286.35	East coast of Demerara.
Bel Air, abandoned front land ...	531.48	
Bel Air, unproductive	266.73	East coast of Demerara.
Bel Air.....	160.01	
Bel Air, extreme back land.....	174.01	
Maryville, lowest land	79.82	
Maryville, highest land....	6.72	Leguan.

TABLE showing Quantity of Salt in Artesian Wells.

Localities.	Grains of Salt per Imp. Gallon	Remarks.
Military Barracks, Georgetown.....	39.75	Recently executed boring.
Well at Market-place "	20.78	
Major Staples' boring "	25.69	Essequibo.
Well near old Colonial Hospital.....	21.60	
Plantation Spring Garden	9.34	
Plantation Vigilance	325.44	

VOCABULARY OF EIGHTY-TWO NOUNS AND NUMERALS IN THE FOUR INDIAN LANGUAGES OF BRITISH GUIANA.

. Where the Accaway and the Carabisco are exactly the same, one is omitted. The vowels have mostly the broad accent.

ENGLISH.	ARAWAK.	ACCAWAY.	CARIBISCÉ.	WARÓW.
1. Man.....	Wadeely	Weenow	"	Neebooroo
2. Woman	Hearoo	Ebootey	Woorey	Teeda
3. Boy	Elunchy	Weeufootoonoh	Meh	Noboto
4. Girl.....	Headarza	Yemooricoh	Yeunooroh	Annehacka
5. Old Man	Habettoo	Tompoco	"	Edamoo
6. Old Woman	Daaca Tay	Wabotorey	Peepeh	Natweet
7. Brother	Dalookcyehey	Sayowa	Seewoh	Daheyg
8. Sister	Dayoodaata	Yeynootey	Wahwah	Daakooy
9. Uncle	Dadayinchy	Yaasoh	Yaawooh	Daatoo
10. Aunt	Darey	Waapoh	"	Daakatey
11. Cousin	Dacoenchy	Haatomoh	"	Hesenga
12. Grandfather.....	Dadookootchy	Taamoh	Taamcoh	Nobo
13. Grandmother.....	Daacoctuh	Peepeh	"	Naatu
14. Grandchild	Daalekenchy	Eupsarey	"	Naatoosenga
15. Head	Daseeye	Eupopo	Euboboh	Maquaw

ENGLISH.	ARAWAK.	ACCAWAY.	CARIBISCE.	WAROW.
16. Neck	Daanooroo	Yewasacorooy	Yenasally	Mahaabey
17. Eyes	Daacousy	Yenooroo	"	Maamu
18. Nose	Daseery	Yenatarry	"	Mayhecaddy
19. Mouth	Daleeroko	Eubotarry	Endarry	Maroho
20. Hair	Dabarra	Eyunsettey	Eusettey	Maheo
21. Ears	Dadeehy	Paanarrey	"	Mahohoko
22. Arms	Daadenaina	Yaboorey	"	Mahaara
23. Hands	Dancabboo	Yeynarroo	Yenarry	Maamuhoo
24. Fingers	"	Yeynarroo-seetei- reh	Yenarry eteedeh	Manuhoo
25. Bones	Daaboonah	Yehpoh	"	Moohu
26. Skin	Daada	Eupeehpoh	"	Mahoro
27. Flesh	Daseeroquaw	Paacah	Eubonoh	Matoomuh
28. Back	Dahabrooh	Yaaboch	Enganarry	Maahuh
29. Belly	Daadeybayou	Yeuemboo	Eucenboh	Moboounuh
30. Breast	Dalouasebou	Epopooruh	Eporoboh	Maameyhooh
31. Thighs	Dabookeesa	Eupatoh	Eupeeteh	Marolo
32. Legs	Dadaanah	Eusairuh	Euseedeh	Maahah
33. Feet	Daacooty	Eubobooruh	Pobooroh	Moomoo
34. Blood	Cooreesa	Mooenooroh	"	Hotuh
35. Fire	Ikhe-kee	Waatuh	"	Ikcoounuh
36. Wind	Awadooley	Pepeytoh	"	Ahaaka
Air				
37. Water	Wunney-yabbo	Toonah	Tooniah	Ho
38. Earth	Ororoo	Eetoh	"	Hotah
39. Sky	Oraroo } Casaako }	Caaboh	"	Nahaamootnh
40. Bow	Semaara-haaba	Ooreybah	"	Ataboroo
41. Arrow	Semaara	Polewah	"	Ataloo
42. Bow-string	S. h. Teemy	Labarey amootch	Ooreybah amootch	A. Ahootuh
43. Hammock	Davoorah	Eubatey	"	Hah
44. House	Baacheh	Yeowtch	"	Hanooko
45. Corial	Coriaal	Cooriaala	"	Wayeybacka
46. Paddle	Nahaaley	Abagoeta	"	Haatch
47. Buck-Pot	Dawadda	Toomayeng	Toomaany	Hahluh
48. Knife	Eadawalla	Mareea	"	Daabo
49. Hook	Bodeyhey	Kehwey	Kuhweh	Osceebokay
50. Calabash	Eweedah	Quahey	"	Matalu
51. Club	Moosy	Eubodooroh	Pooduh	Dooseh
52. Bends	Cornara	Casooroh	"	Naaseey
53. Cloth	Carematry	Tebooroh	Cameesa	Heakaarah
54. Sugar	Secnruco	Asekara	"	Secaramutuh
55. Salt	Pamoo	Waayuu	"	Bam
56. Pepper	Haatchey	Pooeynuy	Poomeh	Hooka
57. Gun	Aracaboosa	Arakoobsa	"	"
58. Powder	Culbara	Culbara	"	"
59. Shot	Bala	Peeroto	Beerotoh	Henehbwhah
60. Tobacco	Yeury	Taamooy	Taamuh	A. Amu
61. Sun	Hadaley	Weeyeyu	"	Aoha
62. Moon	Kaatchey	Noonoh	"	Yah
63. Stars	Weewah	Eeremah	Seereguh	Waanehuh
64. Rain	Wunney	Konobo	"	Koorah
65. Wind	Awadooley	Pepeytoh	Bybeytuh	Naahaa
66. Thunder	Acoolia cally	Gonomaru	"	Ahaaka
67. Lightning	Bylebeleero	Cabeyta	"	Nahaa
68. Hills	Ororoo Ayumun- tuh	Wooybooy	Wooboh	Abeybeyleh
69. Woods	Konoko	Eetoh	"	Hotaquay
70. Rocks	Seeba	Toeboh	"	Daunah
71. Sand	Murtooko	Sacow	"	Hocyu
72. Islands	Kai-cery	Paah-oh	Paahuh	Kabeurah
1— One	Abaar	Tegeenah	"	Bulnhoh
2— Two	Beema	Asagreh	"	Hescha
3— Three	Cabooin	Osorwoh	"	Monamu
4— Four	Bee-y-beech	Asagreyney	"	Deanamu
5— Five	Abadacabbo	Tegeneh seh	"	Munebee-naha- takanuh
6— Six	Abatemainy	Meah daroy	"	Mahabass
7— Seven	Beema temainy	Yacombeh	"	Mohomatuna- hesecka
8— Eight	Cabooin temain	Tosorwa-nobeh	"	Mohomatuna- Manam
9— Nine	Beeybeech temain	Yacombeh-nelly	"	Mohomatuna- Deanamu
10— Ten	Beema dacabbo	Yuma-cawuh	"	Mohomatuna- Nahatakanuh
			"	Mooreycooyt

THE LORD'S PRAYER IN ARAWAAK.

Kururumanny—haamary caleery oboaraady—bachooty deweet boossa—baynse parocan, bayin so pareeka—yahaboo ororoo adiako—meherachehbeyn daco-toniah—Ebehey nebehedow wakayany odomay—Mayera toonebah daynsey—Boboro talidey.—*Hedouainey.*

LORD'S PRAYER IN THE ARRAWAK.

Watchinatchi ayunumkundi; büssadalité bui iri; bui adayahiu-gaana
 Our father dwelling in heaven; sanctified (be) thy name thy kingdom
 andiabute; bünsissia banikitan harare lake ayumbanan din; büsika wamiun
 be coming thy will be done earth in heaven as than give us
 wakalé kassaka buhuman; kan wawa kaiya bubalikitau, wai din,
 our bread day every and our bad doings forgive us we as
 abalikiten nai wakaiyatchi ukunanium; kan tetegeden ulukun massi-
 forgive men wicked against us and a fall into leiyad
 kinniba-u, tumarrua buburatepha-u wakayahoe oria; adayahiu-gaana buiyau
 not us but help us evil from kingdom thine
 ettata okanna, galimettu birraisa. Kiduahein.
 power great shining around thee. Truth.

LUKE XV. 11, TO THE END.

Ikka Jesus adiake namün hiddaba, abba Waditi kamunika biamanu laditti ·
 laddikitti adiake litti umün, bussikati damün dattidannikuwa damün, biattu ke-
 la-kiahano, nattinatt akullebetta namünninu nannikuwa. (Oa kurru laddikitti
 laditti ahurrudukutta tumaqua lan-lakunatabbu waikille-mumiru; jumün lui
 arrala tumaqua lamüntu akuttakuttadahü atatadahü muttu abbe. Gidiatani-
 bena harrakeben tumaqua lan lunria manswattu hamassiahu anda kia hurruru
 bannanamutti ukunamün lihi ba/ija aussa kamonaikákabén, lan uduma akunun
 abba jumüti kabbujälti ibiti, lamünibiai: lirraha imekuda lugkubanümüni
 likittanbian porku. Ikka luhurrussidakittika ballin porku ä kissia abba, kan
 abba kurru assika lumüninu—Ikkare! kakuburugkuakoahiddabai, ladiaka la-
 münikoawa: juhulli kabbujannuatti kemekabba halininu kamünikahüabai datti,
 kan dai ahudama hamussiahü udumajaha; anssün kidappa dai akujunnua datti
 ibiti ba ahakan lumün; datti, daikewai amassikandoaré. Adayahü äme, bui äme
 ku mayumuntina bumün hiddade, dadittibanibia damün kiakanna kemekebutti
 bia bumunrubuün bussikipade—dappa lumün—La lukuburugkuamonnuu—
 Gidigki lui anssa, landalitti libiti hiddaban gahawai koalanika litti uria, litti
 addika hiddai amamallidan lugkuburugkuamonnuu lamün addallidün lira-
 buddigki lannikaka luma lussunta badja lullerugku—Lumorrua laditti adiake
 lumün; datti dai amassikandoaka Adayahü äme bui äme badja ne mayumuntina
 kiahana bumünde daditti—banibia damün—La litti umünkan litti adiake lüssan-
 nanutti umüu handate tumaqua aditu üssan ükelü abba kia assikinhuippa
 lukuna assisan ükabukunduhubigkabba ukuna, sappatu badja lukuttiukuna.
 handate hikkihitu baka üssa abba ba hupparrüpan akuttunrewali labba halli-
 kebbe!—kan iramonna ba. Ahuduttikuba lihi, dadittin ballin, kanlökakittoaba
 abuledutikoba badjai kihia dautika hiddabailan, nussa kiahana hallikebba
 luduma—Lumorrua lubukitikil anda kabbüyaria, bahüibite kan lanika lakannaba
 nayintunua näükittan ladja lan uduma asimakaaaba lüssanti libitiwa, hiddia
 ma lumün hamahükebé turraha? La ahadakuttuni Lüssanti adiake lumün
 buhukitti anda ba: butti apparru kittan hikkihitu baka üssa luutikini laditti
 wakarrihüa uduma—la usantihü adian—Ikkalui aumattoo lumonua makudu
 nuahittin bahü lugkumün nibiti—kiahana litti apattikida akugabani—Lumorrua
 lui anabaka litti adian lahakaka lumün baddika kiamanuttu juhun wyua
 ukunama dakuba ikittanibu—kemekebbün diarrumamassikan bäne, kihia
 marrikinkoabakuba damün abba kabara dayuhunu urua hallikebbaenibrade—kan
 lirraha baditti arradittikuban lannikuwa wurahü abba andinbenna bibitiba
 bussikibi lumünnin hikkihitu baka kebe üssa—la adiankan litti adiake lumünba,
 damuniwakoahüaba: daditti, tumaqua dai anibuiani kewai badja: kiahana
 hallihibékubuppa bumonua ahuduti diamutti kuba liraha buhukitti ballin, kan
 lukakittoal abuleduttikuba bai, kan antikahussia hiddabai lui—la lumün la da
 din Jesus.

Proposed Article of Agreement between the Directors of the West-India Company and the Proprietors of Berbice, dated September 10th, 1714.

1. The directors of the West-India Company, at the requisition of Messrs. Van Hoorn and Schurman, shall procure two hundred and fifty Adra or Angola slaves, two-thirds males and one third females, and such other numbers as may be further required for the use of the colony of Berbice.

2. That the above number of two hundred and fifty shall be delivered in Berbice to the order of Messrs. Hoorn and Schurman.

3. That a ship shall be equipped and sent to Africa for the reception of the slaves, and shall be provided with every article requisite for their use.

4. That Messrs. Hoorn and Schurman, besides sending an order or requisition to the directors for any number of slaves, shall also forward security for the payment of the same.

5. That upon receipt of the first two hundred and fifty slaves in Berbice, the following payment shall be made to the directors in Amsterdam; viz., for Angola slaves 212 guilders 10 stivers per head; and for Macquiron slaves 165 guilders per head.

6. That the separation between the Angola and Macquiron negroes shall be made on the fourth or fifth day after their arrival, by four persons selected for that purpose by the Company, viz., the captain, two pilots. and the surgeon, and by four other persons who were to be appointed by Van Hoorn and Co.

7. That any slaves required for the future must be paid for at the rate of 250 guilders per head; viz., 100 guilders in Amsterdam on the sailing of the slave-ship, and the remaining 150 guilders on the receipt of the slaves in Berbice, or according to such other conditions as shall be enforced by the Company elsewhere.

8. That the slaves ordered by Van Hoorn and Co. shall be transported to Berbice at the risk and cost of the Company.

9. That should the Company not be able to forward the slaves required by Van Hoorn and Co. according to agreement, that it shall be competent to Van Hoorn and Co. to equip the necessary vessels and cargo (under recognition of H. H. Mightiness) to procure the same, care being taken by the Company that no greater number of slaves shall be conveyed by such ship than that granted to Van Hoorn and Co.

10. That for the further security of the Company on the one side, and Van Hoorn and Co. on the other, certain mutual arrangements should be made that the Company should fulfil their part of the contract (under a penalty), and that Van Hoorn and Co. should (except according to Art. No. 9) not barter for or demand slaves

in any other way than through the West-India Company, and in accordance with their terms.

11. That since it has been understood that the colony of Berbice belongs to no other persons than to Van Hoorn and Co., the slaves sent thither shall be placed entirely at their disposal and pleasure.

12. That in the event of any or all of these parties being obliged to leave Berbice or abandon their properties, they shall have the power to carry away their slaves without any further payment, or to dispose of them to the best advantage.

13. That for each ship which shall be sent to Berbice by Van Hoorn and Co. the sum of 300 guilders shall be paid to the directors of the West-India Company, viz., 100 guilders on the departure of such ship, and 200 guilders on its return (besides the usual commissions), according to the practice of Surinam and the other colonies, save and except that Van Hoorn and Co. should be obliged to ship their sugar or other produce to the order of the Company.

14. That the first ship sent by Van Hoorn and Co. to Berbice shall not be required to pay the sum of 100 guilders, but the sum of two hundred guilders shall be exacted on its return, whether its cargo has been raised in Berbice or procured elsewhere.

15. That the above agreement shall continue in force as long as the octroi* of the West-India Company exists, &c.

These terms of agreement were drawn up in accordance with the extract from the register of the resolutions of their High Mightinesses of the States General of the United Provinces, and transmitted to the two parties for their acceptance and guidance.

FINANCIAL BODY INSTITUTED.

PUBLICATION.†

We, Anthony Beaujon, Governor in and over the Colony of Essequibo and Demerara and its Districts, and President in all Colleges, &c., &c., &c., and Councillors of the above-mentioned Rivers, &c., &c., &c.,

To all to whom these Presents shall come, Greeting.

* Charter.

† Under this act of the Court of Policy, the business of the Colony with regard to the electoral rights and the functions of the Representatives, was conducted until a Proclamation was issued by General Carmichael on the 7th of September, 1812, combining the Electors, or Kiezers, and the Financial Representatives into one College. This Proclamation, although not sanctioned or ratified by the King in Council, continued to be acted on with the force of Law until the year 1831, when it was specially rescinded by the Proclamation.

Know ye, that on the 23rd of June last year, by the at that time existing Government, for reasons by the publication proclaimed on the ensuing day, some arrangement and alterations had taken place concerning the administration of the Colony Funds, by which four members, commissioned from the Colleges of Electors of both rivers, were added to the Court of Policy, to have jointly the administration of said funds, and which arrangements were made provisionally under approbation of the Sovereign.

That since that time the situation of these colonies relating to the mother country had undergone a total change by their being surrendered to the commanders of his great Britannic Majesty's forces, from which the required approbation on the above arrangement relative to the administration of the colony funds can no longer be expected from our former Sovereign; and that, besides this, experience has learned that these provisional made arrangements (although concluded on with a good intention) are subject to many obstacles and retardation in the public administration, by which even the inhabitants who had legal pretensions against the Colony Funds remain after a long time deprived from obtaining their payments, as those could not be made them by general assemblies of this Combined College.

That, moreover, it is true that the respective electors have a power from the inhabitants to elect their representatives in this Court, and that of Justice; but that they never have been authorised by them, in preference to other inhabitants, to hold for their lives the administration of the Colony Funds, as seems to have been the intention of the elected department of the said funds; for which reasons we recal and annul the resolution of the Extraordinary Assembly of the Court of Policy of these rivers and districts of Essequibo and Demerary taken on the 3rd of June, 1795, to this effect: The said Councillors of Policy, combined with the electors, as then constituted, is, and shall be, null and void. Moreover, as we have taken into consideration the reasonableness and equity that the inhabitants of these colonies should be more amply represented at the raising of taxes than by a number of four colony members fixed by the constitutional laws of these colonies; and this being probably the intention and the motives of the former arrangements—at least it having some connexion with, or not foreign to the nature of the British laws in this case—we have thought proper to adjourn to the College of Governor and Councillors of Policy, with a right of voting only for the raising of colony taxes, and not further, six inhabitants, viz:—Three from the river of Essequibo, and three from Demerary, elected to that purpose by the inhabitants, in whom the power or commission shall remain invested for a space of two ensuing years, at the expiration of which a publication and advertisement from

governor and councillors shall be given to the inhabitants for the purpose of a new election.

We have further fixed the same mode of electing such members of the inhabitants entitled to vote as take place by the choosing of electors, so that, in consequence thereof, we have thought proper to advertise, as is done by these presents, that they who confirm the plan of redress in the politic and judicial government of the colony, provisionally established by their High Mightinesses, are owners of a number of twenty-five slaves and thereabove, are competent and entitled to choose three representatives in their respective colonies to represent them by the raising of colony taxes.

That the election of those representatives for the first two years shall directly have place; so that, from this date thirty days forward, every inhabitant can give his vote, for the purpose of which a locked-up box will be placed during the term of said thirty days in the hall of Government House, Demerary, and Commandant of Essequibo, in which every person entitled as before may depose his vote, signed and sealed by him, and which box shall be opened by the Secretary in presence of the Governor, Commodore, and two Members of the Court of Policy, after the expiration of said time, being the 21st of July next; and the persons who are found to carry the majority of votes, be entitled to raise with the Court of Policy, for the term of two ensuing years, colony taxes, and to examine with them the accounts of the respective receivers; admonition being hereby given to whom it doth concern, to observe in the election of such representatives that they invest their interest in the hands of those who, from their connexions, will take the real welfare of the colony in general, and that of the inhabitants in particular, to heart; and that no one may plead ignorance thereof, these presents shall be published and affixed on such places as is customary, and further sent round the colony.

Done in the Court of Policy this 11th day of June, 1796, and published the 21st ensuing.

(Signed.) ANTHONY BEAUJON.

By orders of the same.

(Signed.) M. TINNE, Secretary.

Instructions for the Post-holders with the Indians in Essequibo and Demerary.

ARTICLE 1.—The Postholder shall keep an accurate journal of his proceedings; and of all the occurrences at the Post.

Article 2.—He shall transmit (quarterly) a copy of his journal to the Protector of his District.

Article 3.—In case of any extraordinary occurrence, at or near the Post, he shall immediately acquaint therewith the Protector.

Article 4.—He shall take care to keep the Post in good order; and he shall use his utmost exertions to attach to the Post the Indians who call upon him, or who live in his vicinity.

Article 5.—He shall endeavour on all occasions to prevent misunderstandings or quarrels between the several Indian tribes; and where any such exist, he shall exert himself to restore peace.

Article 6.—When required by the Protector, he shall be obliged to repair to him without loss of time, and to execute promptly any orders he may receive from the Protector.

Article 7.—He shall not permit any persons, whether whites, free-coloured, or negroes, to pass the Post unless they show him a Pass from the Governor or from one of the Protectors of the Indians, the latter being empowered to grant such Passes, which must always specify the reason why the persons therein named are to go beyond the Post.

Article 8.—If any person, not provided with such a Pass, should attempt to pass the Post, the Postholder shall be authorised, and is even obliged, to detain such person or persons, and to bring them to town before the Governor; at the same time giving notice to the Protector.

Article 9.—But to persons having a proper Pass, he shall give every assistance in his power towards forwarding the business they are upon.

Article 10.—He shall not be allowed to carry on any traffic, nor shall he compel the Indians to sell to him the articles they bring down, but he shall suffer them to proceed without any molestation whatever in their trade. Any articles bought from them he shall cause to be duly paid for.

Article 11.—He is on no account to compel the Indians to do any job or work of whatever nature for him.

Article 12.—He shall not take or appropriate to himself the property of the Indians, much less their wives or children, on pretence of their being indebted to him, even in case of an Indian having had goods from him on credit, and refusing to pay for the same. The loss arising therefrom to be for the Postholder.

Article 13.—Should any Indian apply to him with complaints of ill treatment against other persons, he shall repair with such Indian to the Protector, who will then examine and inquire into the complaint, and give redress if the case requires it. All exclusive of the action which the Fiscal might think proper to bring against the offender or offenders.

Article 14.—Any white or free coloured person about the

Post, who might be desirous to have an Indian woman to live with him, shall acquaint therewith the Postholder, who is then to wait on the Protector with such woman and her parents or nearest relations, in order that the Protector may be enabled to inquire and ascertain whether such co-habitation takes place with the free consent of the parties, and whether the woman be not engaged to some Indian—and the Protector is then either to sanction or to refuse such co-habitation as he may think right.

Article 15.—Should the Postholder be desirous of employing any Indians for clearing wood, or for fishing, or paddling his boat, he shall be at liberty to hire them for that purpose, with the consent of the Protector, who shall previously inquire whether such engagement has been entered into voluntarily, and who will at the same time inform the Indians that if they are not duly paid as agreed upon, they may complain to him.

Article 16.—He shall be present at the annual distribution of presents to the Indians.

Article 17.—He shall apply from time to time to the Protector for the run he may want for the purpose of giving a dram to the Indians who call upon him.

Article 18.—In case of Indians passing the Post to go down the river, the Postholder shall recommend them to wait on the Protector.

Article 19.—The Court of Policy reserve the right of at all times altering and amending the present instructions as they may see proper.

Done the 18th May, 1803.

A. MEERTENS.

By Command, P. F. TINNE, Sec.

Re-printed by order of the Honourable the Court of Policy, at its Session held at the King's House, Georgetown, Demerary, the 2nd of May, 1815.

By Command, CHARLES WILDAY, Clk. Ct. Policy.

Number of immigrants who have arrived in the colony of British Guiana from 1835 to 1840:

1835, and 1st Quarter of 1836, principally from Madeira . . .	450
1836, 3 last Quarters	1427
1837	2150
1838*	1763
1839, Maltese and Germans	400
1840. To the Voluntary Immigration Society about 2900, principally from Barbadoes, and about 70 from the United States	2970
Total, at private expense	9160

* The immigrants of 1835, '36, '37, and '38 were principally from the West India islands, including captured Africans from the Bahamas. In 1838 there arrived 560 Coolies from Calcutta.

A TABLE showing the number of Immigrants introduced into British Guiana under Colonial Bounty, and at the public expense from the establishment of the Immigration-office in January, 1841, to the 31st of December, 1852:

WHERE FROM.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	TOTAL.
St. Vincent.....	2	41	43
Barbadoes.....	2199	176	2375
St. Lucia.....	...	25	25
Dominica.....	91	91
Antigua.....	127	127
Tobago.....	3	2	5
Montserrat.....	14	122	136
Nevis.....	...	82	82
St. Kitts.....	47	21	68
Anguilla.....	259	52	311
St. Thomas.....	51	13	64
Madeira.....	4312	348	45	140	668	5,975	3825	255	...	1288	1401	1719	19,976
Sierra Leone.....	415	148	239	378	1425	278	457	610	...	698	...	73	4,721
Kroo Coast.....	108	106	...	66	380
St. Helena.....	...	1112	86	819	...	746	388	15	3,166
Rio Janeiro.....	578	563	...	145	102	113	1,501
Surinam.....	31	31
Madras.....	225	2,455	1717	2052	6,449
Calcutta.....	563	1,373	1654	1398	2779	8,284
	8098	2705	401	663	2881	10,900	7761	5061	490	2092	1918	4765	47,756

The following bounties are paid under an act of the local legislature for the regulation and encouragement of immigrants into British Guiana:

Names of ports or places from which immigrants may be introduced into the colony.	Rates of bounties allowed for the introduction of immigrants.
	DOLLARS.
Madeira	30
Azores, or Western Islands.	25
Canary and Cape de Verd Islands.	25
Curaçoa	20
Margarita and Spanish Main	20
St. Helena	25
Sierra Leone	25
Brazil	25
Havana	30
United States of America and British North America	30
China, or Chinese from any port east of Point de Galle in Ceylon, imported on board any vessel which shall clear for this colony prior to the 31st of March, 1853	100

Many thousands of acres of the finest virgin land lie untouched in British Guiana, and parties introducing immigrants are not only entitled to the above rates of bounty, paid in cash, but would also have the preference of their services as indentured labourers for terms not exceeding five years, on the gradual repayment of one-half of the bounty, provided, always, that it can be shown to the satisfaction of the local authorities that suitable preparation have been made for their location, as regards food, lodging, and medical attendance.

Report to his Excellency Henry Barkly, Esq., Governor and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Colony of British Guiana, &c., &c., &c.

The report of the commissioners appointed to inquire into and report upon the condition and prospects of the colony of British Guiana,

Respectfully sheweth,—That your commissioners have proceeded to inquire into the condition and prospects of the colony, and have agreed to the following report:

Your commissioners will commence by stating, that for the purpose of pursuing their investigation in a manner suitable to the grave importance of the subject, they found it expedient to place distinct portions of the colony under the charge of separate commissioners, whose duty it was to obtain accurate answers to the printed questions prepared by the commission from every manager within their respective districts.

Your commissioners have also examined many of the principal owners and attorneys of plantations, as well as some of the leading merchants of the colony; and they have, moreover, been furnished with such official returns from the public offices as seemed calculated to aid the prosecution of their inquiries. From the body of evidence thus collected, it is with deep concern that your commissioners observe the alarming picture of ruin and distress in which all classes of the community with startling unanimity concur in representing the present state of this once flourishing colony.

Before entering at length into the consideration of the question submitted to them, your commissioners consider that it may not be unadvisable to take a rapid summary of the past and present condition of the colony, as well as to trace its progressive history as briefly as possible from the days of slavery until the present time.

The colony of British Guiana, consisting of the three counties of Demerary, Essequibo, and Berbice, was finally ceded to the mother country at the Peace of Paris, in 1814, by the King of the Netherlands. Its staple productions then consisted principally of coffee and cotton, which were cultivated to a very large extent. Labour was abundant, so much so that by the first registration, made in the year 1817, it appears that the number of slaves at that time amounted to 110,000 souls; and the planter obtained remunerative prices for his produce in the British market, the mother country sedulously protecting the fruits of his industry. Under this system the colony rapidly prospered, and its resources were developed by a liberal expenditure of British capital. The climate and soil being found to be singularly adapted to the cultivation of the sugar-cane, many of the cotton plantations were converted into sugar estates at a very great expense. This change in the cultivation was carried on to a very large extent for some years, in consequence of the great fall in the price of cotton, caused by the rapid increase in the culture of that article by the United States of America, where, in addition to an inexhaustible supply of labour, superior natural advantages exist for this species of produce. The cultivation of coffee, also, in this colony, from similar causes, gradually declined, so that when the prædial labourers were finally emancipated on the 1st August, 1838 (two years prior to the time contemplated and provided for by the imperial Act), the few estates which still continued in coffee and cotton dwindled away year after year, and the labourers located upon them were either absorbed into the gangs of neighbouring sugar plantations or became petty settlers on small lots of land. Thus commenced the pernicious system of what may be termed

licensed squatting, of which your commissioners will have occasion to speak more particularly hereafter.

With the decline of coffee and cotton in this colony, the tables of produce which your commissioners have caused to be prepared show a large increase in the manufacture of sugar. In the year 1829, which your commissioners have selected, as will hereafter appear, in contradistinction to 1849, for the purpose of showing the change which the vicissitudes of twenty years have effected upon the fortunes of the colony, the exports of British Guiana consisted of no less than 66,722 hhds. of sugar, besides 6,778,350 lbs. of coffee and 7472 bales of cotton. The cultivation of sugar continued to be carried on at a profit to the planter, and the exports averaged upwards of 66,000 hhds., until the proprietors of sugar estates, in common with others, received a severe blow by the premature termination of apprenticeship in 1838. The exports in 1839 at once fell off to 38,443 hhds. of sugar; and from that date to the memorable year 1846, they only averaged 35,949 hhds.

Undaunted, however, by repeated discouragements, the proprietors of estates made in the interval every exertion to retrieve their former position. They had not yet lost the confidence of capitalists at home, and vast sums of money were spent on re-establishing their cultivation. Immigrants from Africa, Madeira, India, and other parts of the world, were imported as field-labourers at enormous expense—every improvement in machinery was eagerly sought after and adopted—and the energy of the proprietary body at length bade fair to be rewarded by the returning prosperity of their country. In the midst of these pleasing anticipations came the Sugar Act of 1846, which at once prostrated the whole landed interest of the country, and has already been the total ruin of many a once opulent proprietor. Names, the highest and most influential, have followed one another in the *Royal Gazette* with ominous rapidity; and the estates of men formerly holding the first position in the colony have been successively brought to the hammer, and their owners absolutely beggared. The previous increase in cane cultivation caused larger crops to be reaped in the following years of 1847 and 1848, but the exports last year show a decrease of upwards of 9000 hhds. The colony still continues to retrograde—estate after estate is being abandoned—the labouring population are daily becoming more idle and disorganised—and it is the deliberate opinion of your commissioners that if the British West Indies are much longer exposed to their present competition with foreign slave-owners, without any alleviating measures being adopted, the great majority of estates, in this colony at least, will cease to be cultivated.

Your commissioners will now proceed to address themselves more particularly to the several points submitted to them by your excellency, and beg to report,—

FIRST.—Upon the present condition of the agricultural districts of the colony generally.

To judge of the prosperity or depression of an agricultural country, the first and most direct test is the extent of its cultivation and the amount of its produce as compared with former periods. Your commissioners have, therefore, drawn a parallel of twenty years; and the contrast between the condition of the colony in 1829 and its present state is melancholy in the extreme. In the year 1829 there existed 230 sugar and 174 coffee and cotton estates in British Guiana, of which almost the whole were in full cultivation; while on the 31st December last the colony numbered but 180 sugar and 16 coffee estates, even nominally carried on. Of these a great proportion are on the verge of abandonment, and the coffee plantations hardly deserve to be reckoned in cultivation at all. The alarming difference in the crop of these two years will be seen at once from the following summary, which is compiled from the returns of produce sent in for taxation to the office of the colonial receiver general from every estate throughout the colony. The tables of exports also furnished by the comptroller of customs, show the same disheartening result, for on reference to them your commissioners find a diminution of no less than 28,811 hhds. of sugar, 6,677,800 lbs. of coffee, 7272 bales of cotton. It would be but a melancholy task to dwell upon the misery and ruin which so alarming a change must have occasioned to the proprietary body, but your commissioners feel themselves called upon to notice the effects which this wholesale abandonment of property has produced upon the colony at large. Where whole districts are fast relapsing into bush, and occasional patches of provisions around the huts of village settlers are all that remain to tell of once flourishing estates, it is not to be wondered at that the most ordinary marks of civilisation are rapidly disappearing, and that in many districts of the colony all travelling communication by land will soon become utterly impracticable.

CROP OF 1829.				CROP OF 1849.			
DISTRICT.	lbs. Sugar.	lbs. Coffee.	lbs. Cotton.	DISTRICT.	lbs. Sugar.	lbs. Coffee.	lbs. Cotton.
DEMERY.				DEMERY.			
East Coast.....	18,275,147	507,507	1,127,471	East Coast.....	17,106,384	2,180	
River—East Bank.....	7,029,974	1,394,024		River—East Bank.....	4,073,591	51,049	
River—West Bank.....	7,173,964	2,040,965		River—West Bank.....	3,326,292		
West Coast.....	13,878,095	507,627		West Coast.....	7,524,027		
ESSEQUEBO.				ESSEQUEBO.			
Leguan Island.....	10,905,911	6,800		Leguan Island.....	2,504,215		
Hog Island.....	1,092,000			Hog Island.....	332,152		
Wakenaam Island.....	9,363,934			Wakenaam Island.....	3,583,942		
Tiger Island.....	1,240,650			Tiger Island.....	387,182		
Troolie Island.....	174,000			Troolie Island.....			
West and Arabian Coast	22,518,656	101,866	89,798	West and Arabian Coast	9,227,412	300	
BERRICE.				BERRICE.			
Whole County.....	12,246,286	4,671,697	378,902	Whole County.....	12,546,657	37,527	
Total.....	103,898,617	9,230,486	1,596,171	Total.....	60,811,854	91,056	
COUNTY.				COUNTY.			
1829.				1849.			
Demery.....	46,357,180	4,450,123	1,127,471	Demery.....	32,230,294	53,229	
Essequebo.....	45,295,151	108,666	89,798	Essequebo.....	16,034,903	300	
Berrice.....	12,246,286	4,671,697	378,902	Berrice.....	12,546,657	37,527	
Total.....	103,898,617	9,230,486	1,596,171	Total.....	60,811,854	91,056	

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Thus showing a gross deficiency between the two returns of—

lbs. Sugar.	...	lbs. Coffee.	...	lbs. Cotton.
43,086,763	...	9,139,430	...	1,596,171

To commence with the district of Abary, once blooming with fields of cotton, your commissioners find that the line of road is nearly impassable, and that a long succession of formerly cultivated estates presents now a series of "pestilent swamps," overrun with bush, and productive of malignant fevers. Following the coast from Mahaicony Creek to Mahaica Creek, Plantation Farm seems to be the sole estate left in cultivation, and the remainder are either given up to form a pasturage for cattle, or else totally abandoned with the exception of some few patches of reef land on which ground provisions have been planted. Proceeding still lower down, your commissioners find that the public roads and bridges are in such a condition, that the few estates still remaining on the upper west bank of Mahaica Creek are completely cut off, save in the very dry season; and that with regard to the whole district, unless something be done very shortly, travelling by land will entirely cease. In such a state of things it cannot be wondered at that the herdsman has a formidable enemy to encounter in the jaguar and other beasts of prey, and that the keeping of cattle is attended with considerable loss, from the depredations committed by these animals. The people scattered in villages along this district support themselves principally on the produce of their own provision grounds, and also by hunting and fishing, while some few occasionally work on neighbouring estates; but taken as a body, their labour with regard to the staples of the country may be said to be nearly valueless. From the last official returns prepared by the Acting Commissary of Population, your commissioners find that from the Abary to Plantation Friendship, a distance of only thirty miles, there are no less than eleven villages, four hamlets, and twenty-two detached freeholds, containing 1521 houses, and a population of 6678 souls, who for the most part, led away by the temptations of an idle life, have withdrawn from their former occupation of resident labourers upon plantations, contributing their assistance only occasionally in particular descriptions of work, and never in a way to be much depended upon.

Your commissioners now approach what is generally considered the most flourishing district of the colony, usually denominated "the East Coast;" and here it must be observed, that the extent of cultivation and amount of produce of many of the plantations equal that of former days. The following list will show the large crops made by some estates in this district last year:

		Sugar.	
Enmore	1,162,800 lbs.	} All old cotton properties.
Annandale	924,000 "	
Lusignan	1,129,600 "	
Mon Repos	1,182,004 "	
Le Resouvenir	952,943 "	
Ogle	1,200,000 "	

A number of circumstances have occurred to render this part of the colony peculiarly favoured. The Demerary East Coast Railway intersecting it, has naturally attracted a large number of the labouring class, and villages have in consequence been formed along the line, containing a vast number of the population who have emigrated from other quarters of the colony, and who, as before stated, afford their labour occasionally, though not continuously, to the estates in that district. Its peculiar soil has enabled it to resist the effects of those heavy rains which have often proved disastrous to other parts of the colony, and above all, many of the plantations happening to be in the possession of wealthy capitalists, enormous expense has been gone to in their improvement and the development of their resources. This district, however, still feels most severely the want of continuous labour, and, in consequence, great competition exists for the services of the villagers on the coast, amounting to no less than 4677 people, who are able to dictate what terms they please to their employers, and rove from plantation to plantation in the most unsettled manner. Whether, with all the advantages the East Coast possesses, it will be able to extricate itself from the ruin now becoming so universal throughout the colony, is a problem which time alone can solve. The question rests, however, upon the line of policy to be pursued by the British Government with regard to the West Indies in general; for your commissioners are of opinion that few estates (if any) in this country, however favourably situated, can long continue to resist the tendency of the present free-trade measures.

Passing the city of George Town, in the suburbs of which are situated the following villages:

Albert's Town	containing	771
Newburg	"	879
The Lodge	"	1019

Making a Total of 2669 Frecholders.

your commissioners approach three of the finest estates in the colony. Plantations "La Pénitence," "Ruimveld," and "Houston." From their vicinity to town a supply of labour can always be obtained; but of the irregularity with which the villagers work, Plantation Ruimveld affords a convincing example. This

estate, in common with its neighbours, is almost entirely dependent on village labour, and the monthly number of field labourers on the pay list last year averaged 893. With this large number, a monthly average of only 3515 tasks was obtained, thus showing that each man on the pay list only worked $3\frac{8}{9}\frac{1}{3}$ tasks *per month*! When it is considered that a task, or day's work, may be easily performed in six hours, what can show more strongly the uncertain and precarious nature of the work to which employers in this country are forced to submit?

Proceeding up the east bank of the river Demerary, the generally prevailing features of ruin and distress are everywhere perceptible. Roads and bridges almost impassable, are fearfully significant exponents of the condition of the plantations which they traverse; and Canal No. 3, once covered with plantains and coffee, presents now a scene of almost total desolation. The Haago Bosche seems the only estate left in cultivation in the canal, and that plantation, after formerly returning immense crops of coffee, last year yielded but 1400 lbs. Upon the long line of abandoned estates up this bank of the river, the system of squatting prevails to a very great extent; and difficult as it is to obtain accurate statistical information upon the subject, your commissioners have too much reason to fear that the number of settlers in this district who have almost wholly withdrawn from field labour amounts to more than 5000.

On the opposite bank of the river, from the ferry to Canal No. 1, a few estates still remain, which, from their vicinity to town affording them a supply of labour, and the spirited manner in which they are carried on, keep up a cultivation worthy of better times. Canal No. 1, however, with its sister, No. 2, exhibits in the strongest possible light the total ruin which has overtaken the coffee planters of this colony. In 1829 these canals contained thirty estates in coffee and plantains, producing 1,027,120 lbs. of coffee alone, and now there remain but eight which even keep up the semblance of a cultivation. Of these, five are rented out by negroes, and split up into endless fractions; while the whole coffee crop of British Guiana last year amounted to only 91,056 lbs., being a diminution of more than 100,000 lbs. from the crop made by *the single estate* "Java" in the year 1829!!! During the days of slavery, these estates contained on an average about 100 working people each, but now the villages formed along the canals harbour a dense and overcrowded population, whose labour is almost useless to the community. The influx of strangers into the canals from various sugar estates has been very great during the last two years, and your commissioners are informed that at this moment they contain nearly 6000 people. Their mode of life is thus described

by Mr. Tighe, a resident coffee-planter, who has lived in Canal No. 1 for more than twenty years: "They live by renting plantain-land on estates, by working as day labourers on the few estates working, and a great many by stealing coffee and plantains, the latter especially."

Ascending the river still higher, your commissioners learn that the district between Hobaboe Creek and "Stricken Heuvel" contained, in 1829, eight sugar and five coffee and plantain estates, and now there remain but three in sugar and four partially cultivated with plantains by petty settlers: while the roads, with one or two exceptions, are in a state of utter abandonment. Here, as on the opposite bank of the river, hordes of squatters have located themselves, who avoid all communication with Europeans, and have seemingly given themselves up altogether to the rude pleasures of a completely savage life.

On the west coast of Demerary but few estates have been abandoned, comparatively speaking. This district formerly contained thirty fine plantations, of which twenty-one are still nominally kept up; but the alarming diminution in crop may be seen at once on reference to the receiver-general's tables, which show that while a large coffee cultivation has entirely disappeared, the return of sugar has at the same time fallen off one-half. The want of labour is severely felt on this coast, which contains five villages and several detached hamlets, with a population of upwards of 1500 people pursuing the same idle and unprofitable mode of life as the great majority of their fellow freeholders throughout the colony.

Having thus reported upon the general condition of the various districts of the county of Demerary, your commissioners beg leave to call attention to the gradual diminution which has taken place in the amount of its produce for the last three years since the passing of the fatal Sugar Act of 1846:

COUNTY OF DEMERARY.

Year.	Sugar.	Coffee.	
1847	36,103,433 lbs.	114,016 lbs.	} No Cotton.
1848	33,362,830 "	212,603 "	
1849	32,230,294 "	53,229 "	

Your commissioners further beg to refer to the tables annexed, numbered nine and ten, showing the crops of each estate throughout the county for a successive period of years, commencing with 1829, as evidencing in the strongest manner the grievous falling off in the colonial staples for this division of the colony.

If the present state of the county of Demerary affords cause for deep apprehension, your commissioners find that Essequibo has



retrograded to a still more alarming extent. In fact, unless a large and speedy supply of labour be obtained to cultivate the deserted fields of this once-flourishing district, there is great reason to fear that it will relapse into total abandonment. As your commissioners consider that this division of the colony has suffered the most severely, they have added to the tables of crops the estimated value of each plantation within the county during the time of slavery, and up to the year of emancipation. The amounts were arrived at by doubling the values of the respective gangs of slaves, as appraised for compensation upon each estate; for it was formerly considered that the buildings and cultivation of a plantation were worth fully the slave gang located upon it; and your commissioners have no doubt they are quite within the mark in their estimation of the value of property up to 1832. With these figures before them, it is fearful to contemplate the enormous depreciation which has since taken place in West India property.

To commence with the island of Leguan at the mouth of the Rio Essequibo.

This fertile and beautiful island was for many years termed the garden of the colony, and formerly contained twenty-three sugar and three coffee and plantain estates, all of which continued in cultivation until within the last few years. At the present moment there are only eight plantations, which are even nominally carried on, and of these not more than three can be considered in full cultivation; while a large proportion of the remainder are on the very verge of abandonment. The appended table of the returns of produce from the sugar estates on this island, will show how it has progressively declined, while the values of the respective plantations, with their gangs of workmen in the days of slavery, afford a melancholy instance of the disastrous change in our colonial circumstances.

From the termination of apprenticeship in 1838, this island has severely felt the want of labour. As soon as the people were at liberty to move where they pleased, great numbers left Leguan, and became free settlers on the east coast and the banks of the Demerary river, in order to enjoy the greater facilities thus afforded them for communication with town. Then commenced the establishment of villages on the island itself, which quickly absorbed a number of the working people, for whom hunting and fishing have greater attractions than steady labour in the field. The general appearance of the island is thus summed up by Mr. John Mackenzie, of Plantation Amsterdam, who has been a resident planter for upwards of thirty years. "It is no overdrawn description, when I assert that its cultivation is now limited to one-third of its former number of estates, and these but struggling

desperately to avoid that doom which seems inevitable. Forest-trees rapidly taking the place of once smiling cane fields, and the few of the latter that are left, scarcely discernible amid a savage bush."

The island of Wakenaam does not appear in quite the same deplorable condition as Leguan; but although none of the estates in it were completely given up as on the 31st of December last, still a very large proportion are only in nominal cultivation. Your commissioners beg to call attention to a similar table to that prepared for Leguan, and here again the same symptoms of progressive decline are to be observed.

From these figures it will be perceived that, while the return of produce last year amounted to only 3,583,942 lbs. of sugar, this is a diminution of 5,779,092 lbs. from the crop of 1829. When your commissioners state that the system of freehold villages prevails in this island also, it cannot be wondered at that the want of labour is felt to a ruinous extent. Between Leguan and Wakenaam there are upwards of 2000 people living in villages, for whom the abandoned cane pieces afford excellent hunting-grounds, and, the surrounding waters abounding in fish, an easy means of subsistence.

Of the smaller islands in the mouth of the Essequibo, the appended table will give but a disheartening account

With regard to Hog Island, the cultivation formerly amounted to 858 acres, it has now dwindled down to 308, and in a similar manner the crop has sunk from 900 to 200 hogsheads of sugar. This island appears at present to be kept up almost entirely by the Coolies; and as their term of service expires in March, 1851, unless a fresh supply of labour be very soon obtained, there is every reason to fear that it will become completely abandoned.

The cultivation of Tiger Island has in like manner declined from 856 to 328 acres, and instead of a working population of 561, there remain but 125 Creoles and 189 immigrants. As the estates here are carried on principally by the latter class, it is evident that speedy immigration can alone save this island from total ruin.

Crossing over to the main land, your commissioners find the district between the Supenaam Creek and the Iteribissi Creek in the most deplorable condition. Here were formerly situated seven fine sugar estates, of which four nominally survive, but with a greatly diminished cultivation. Although the prostrate condition of this once beautiful part of the coast is to be attributed to the great scarcity of labour, the three villages of Dryshore, Warroosie, and Supenaam, contain a population of nearly 700 Creoles. The mode of life, however, pursued by these people, is thus described

by Mr. Seward, who has resided in the district for twenty-seven years:—"About one-fourth work at a time on the neighbouring estates, while the other three-fourths sit down, fish, hunt, and *steal*, both from the estates and one another." Favoured by a genial climate and a boundless fertility of soil, the peasantry of this country seem to care very little beyond satisfying their appetites, and sit down in silent apathy while plantation after plantation is growing up in bush all around them. Unable to obtain a supply of labour, the proprietors on this coast seem to be keeping up a hopeless struggle against approaching ruin, and unless immigration very soon commences, their estates must be abandoned.

In the district between the Iteribissi Creek and Capoey Creek, three coffee and ten sugar plantations formerly existed; and now the whole of the former and two of the latter have ceased to be in cultivation at all; while of the altered condition of the remainder the following summary will afford a most convincing proof:

Plantation.	1829.		1849.
	Sugar.		Sugar.
Onderneening	347,000 lbs.	193,650 lbs.
Bathsheba's Lust	432,651 "	78,904 "
Zorg	709,500 "	227,835 "
Golden Fleece	863,700 "	387,000 "
Perseverance	415,937 "	230,971 "
Cullen	561,396 "	300,000 "
Hoff van Aurich	279,900 "	96,000 "
Union	352,000 "	156,000 "
Total	3,962,084 "		1,670,360 "

being a diminution of upwards of one-half.

While these estates were making the above crops in 1829, the population of the district amounted to about 2654 slaves, and 110 whites, making a total of 2764; but on the 31st of December last, the population on estates including managers, overseers, &c., was only 954. The number of villagers, however, amounted to more than 4000 people; but so little work is performed by them, that they can hardly be said to make any impression upon the labour-market of the district.

The once famous Arabian Coast, so long the boast of the colony, presents now but a mournful picture of departed prosperity. Here were formerly situated some of the finest estates in the country, and a large resident body of proprietors lived in the district, and freely expended their incomes on the spot whence they derived them. From Capoey Creek plantation "Better Success," are situated twenty-one sugar plantations, three of which (Aberdeen, Three Friends, and Better Success) may be considered as virtually abandoned, while almost all the remainder

are in a very languishing condition. From the return of the produce and value of the estates in the mainland of Essequibo, it will be seen that the sugar crop alone has gradually dwindled away from 22,518,656 lbs. to 9,227,412 lbs.

The cause of the distress so severely felt here, seems to arise principally from the want of labour, which prevails to such an extent that estates, in the words of Mr. Hughes, of Anna Regina, "are going fast to ruin for want of a proper supply." The district swarms with villages; but no dependence whatever can be placed upon the people inhabiting them, and the estates have hitherto been worked principally by the Coolies. They are, however, now flocking up to town in great numbers, as the end of their engagements approaches, in order to claim their back-passage to India; and your commissioners learn with great regret, that the Creoles are also leaving the coast, in order to enjoy the advantages of a nearer proximity to town; so that unless a fresh supply of labour be soon obtained, Essequibo threatens to become abandoned for want of people.

The lower part of the coast, after passing Devonshire Castle to the river Pomeroon, presents a scene of almost total desolation.

Here were formerly situate seven estates in coffee, cotton, and plantains, representing in the days of slavery a capital of more than 176,000*l.*; all of which are now abandoned and almost valueless. Of the few people living in villages here, numbering about 250 souls, some cultivate their own provision-grounds, and thereby, in the words of Mr. William Henery, "obtain partial support, which they eke out by fishing and *thieving*; others go occasionally to the Essequibo coast, work for a month or two, then return and sit down in almost total idleness. Their working upon plantations on the coast is only however when sheer necessity impels. The young people are growing up in a state most dangerous to social order and the well-being of society."

Having thus completed the melancholy retrospect of the condition of Essequibo, your commissioners beg to refer to the return of produce for the last three years from that county, as showing the gradual diminution of the crops since the Sugar Act of 1846:

COUNTY OF ESSEQUEBO.

Years.	Sugar.	Coffee.
1847	20,212,185 lbs.	30 lbs.
1848	16,321,894 "	500 "
1849	15,907,503 "	300 "

The county of Berbice also suffers to an alarming extent from the want of labour. To such a degree has the system of squatting

in comparative idleness prevailed in this division of the colony, that your commissioners find that out of the 18,000 people comprising the rural population of the county, upwards of 12,000 are scattered over small freeholds and bush settlements far up the creeks and rivers, enjoying a state of savage freedom, and contributing in no way to the general welfare of the colony.

On the east coast of Berbice, from the Corentyne river westward to the Devil's Creek, were formerly situate six sugar and many cotton estates. Of these four still remain in sugar cultivation, all the cotton plantations having some time since been entirely abandoned. One of them, namely, plantation "Albion," was subsequently turned into sugar, and was considered a fine property, but is now languishing for want of labour. In this district is situated plantation "Mary's Hope," which formerly produced 900 hhds. of sugar, but is now quite given up. The buildings are crumbling into dust, and, save by a few squatters, the estate is totally uninhabited. The abandoned plantations on this coast, which if capital and labour could be procured might easily be made very productive, are either wholly deserted or else appropriated by hordes of squatters, who of course are unable to keep up at their own expense the public roads and bridges, and consequently all communication by land between the Corentyne and New Amsterdam is nearly at an end. The roads are impassable for horses or carriages, while for foot passengers they are extremely dangerous. The number of villages in this deserted region must be upwards of 2500, and as the country abounds with fish and game, they have no difficulty in making a subsistence; in fact, the Corentyne coast is fast relapsing into a state of nature. Owing to the want of roads, the magistrates' and sheriffs' courts are very irregularly held, the churches and schools are neglected, and a regular trade in smuggled spirits is carried on with the port of Nicarie, there being no sufficient coast guard stationed to prevent this illicit traffic. There is no police station or stipendiary magistrate resident in the district, and the people are living, as nearly as possible, in a state of lawless independence.

In the district between the Devil's Creek and Canje Creek were formerly situated twenty cotton estates. "The whole of the above district is now a wilderness," while, as may be expected, the roads are perfectly impassable.

Canje Creek was formerly considered a flourishing district of the county, and numbered on its east bank seven sugar and three coffee estates, and on its west bank eight estates, of which two were in sugar and six in coffee, making a total of eighteen plantations. The coffee cultivation has long since been entirely abandoned, and of the sugar estates but eight still now remain. They

are suffering severely for want of labour, and being supported principally by African and Coolie immigrants, it is much to be feared that if the latter leave and claim their return passages to India, a great part of the district will become abandoned. There are an immense number of people living in villages up this creek, and a small trade in fire-wood and timber is carried on by them, but their services as field-labourers upon the neighbouring plantations are extremely difficult to be obtained, and never for an instant to be depended upon.

On the east bank of the river Berbice were formerly twenty-two coffee and four sugar estates in full cultivation. The district for many years produced very large crops of coffee, but of this species of produce four plantations alone remain, and they are only nominally kept up. The chief cause of this wholesale abandonment of property, which has entirely taken place since the year 1838, was the want of labour produced by the withdrawal of the Creoles from the field. The six sugar estates now existing on this bank of the river are naturally very fine properties, and capable of making the largest crops; but owing to the scarcity of people to till the ground, they are now in a languishing condition. The intervening spaces between them are occupied by the abandoned fields of once beautiful coffee plantations, whose splendid works in most instances are still remaining as monuments of their former magnificence; but the want of labour and scarcity of means, so severely felt at the present moment, effectually preclude any attempt being made to restore their cultivation.

The plantations on this bank of the river are carried on principally by the African immigrants, and without them, in the opinion of Mr. Henery, "the six sugar estates in this district would have been abandoned long ago." While they are suffering to a ruinous extent from the want of labour, there are upwards of 4000 people living in villages within the district, a number more than sufficient amply to work the few estates which yet remain in cultivation; but under present circumstances, so gloomy is the condition of affairs here, that the two gentlemen whom your commissioners have examined with respect to this district, both concur in predicting "its slow but sure approximation to the condition in which civilised man first found it." Crossing over to the west bank, your commissioners find that the work of abandonment has been equally extensive on this side of the river.

Here were formerly twenty-nine coffee and plantain estates, besides three in sugar. At the present day there remain three sugar estates in full cultivation and two partially abandoned; while of the once magnificent coffee cultivation, there scarcely remains a trace. The returns of this species of produce, once

amounting to several million pounds, are now only nominal, and the whole county of Berbice hardly returns a tithe of what many a single plantation formerly produced. This district, in 1829, gave employment to 3635 registered slaves, but at the present moment there are not more than 600 labourers at work on the few estates still in cultivation, although it is estimated there are upwards of 2000 people idling in villages of their own. The roads are in many parts several feet under water, and perfect swamps; while in some places the bridges are wanting altogether. In fact, the whole district is fast becoming a total wilderness, with the exception of the one or two estates which yet continue to struggle on, and which are hardly accessible now but by water.

The west coast of Berbice was formerly a great cotton country, and included besides six fine sugar estates. The whole of the cotton cultivation has been long since abandoned, and of the sugar estates which still remain, three may be said to be partially given up. The want of labour is felt to an extent which it is hardly possible to estimate correctly, and although the estates working in this quarter have plenty of accommodation for workmen, the people obstinately refuse to tenant the vacant negro-yards, and seek in preference the settlements which swarm along this coast, where they cultivate a few ground provisions, and "spend their time," to use the language of Mr. Grant, "either in idleness and rioting, or in fishing and shooting." These people seem fast retrograding into a savage state, consistent with the wilderness which is growing up around them. Except in some of the best villages, they care not for back or front dams to keep off the water; their side-lines are disregarded, and consequently the drainage is gone; while in many instances the public road is so completely flooded that canoes have to be used as a means of transit. The Africans are unhappily following the example of the Creoles in this district, and buying land on which they settle in contented idleness; and your commissioners cannot view instances like these without the deepest alarm, for if this pernicious habit of squatting is allowed to extend to the immigrants also, there is no hope for the colony.

From the foregoing, it will be seen that the county of Berbice was formerly a great cotton and coffee producing district. What cultivation now remains is almost entirely sugar, but of the manner in which the crops have retrograded since the Sugar Act of 1846 the following return will show an example:

COUNTY OF BERBICE.		
Years.	Sugar.	Coffee.
1847	. . . 16,091,655 lbs.	2,975 lbs.
1848	. . . 14,867,133 "	105,387 "
1849	. . . 12,546,657 "	37,527 "

Your commissioners having now reported upon the present condition of the agricultural districts of the colony, and shown the misery and distress everywhere apparent upon the face of the country, will in the next place address themselves to—

The Social and Industrial Condition of the Labouring Classes in British Guiana.

The labouring population of British Guiana consists of two great classes—Creoles and Immigrants. The first may be divided into resident labourers on estates, and freeholders or squatters; the second into Africans, Portuguese, and Coolies. Of all the classes of people in this country, the native Creoles are by far the best adapted for raising the colonial staples, but, as has been already shown, the vicious practice of squatting, which seems at present the curse of the colony, has spread among them to such an extent that an overwhelming majority of their number have wholly withdrawn from the labour market. The entire population of the rural districts appears, from the returns of the Acting Commissary of population, to be as follows:

COUNTY.	Creoles resident on Estates.	Creoles non-resident	Africans.	Portuguese	Coolies.	Totals.
Demerary ...	9,259	25,067	2,222	3,854	3,510	43,912
Essequibo...	8,432	5,432	1,191	1,164	3,843	20,062
Berbice	2,248	12,256	2,407	188	1,057	18,156
Total.....	19,939	42,755	5,820	5,206	8,410	82,130

Thus it will be seen that, out of the 82,000 composing the rural population, upwards of 42,000 people hardly contribute in any way to raise the staples of the country; while the whole number of immigrants, amounting to 19,436, is about equal to the resident labourers on plantations, making an entire total of 39,375 people as the agricultural peasantry of British Guiana. The system of freeholds (as it is called here) appears one of the crying evils of the day, and is, indeed, little better than licensed squatting. Where whole districts present but a scene of abandoned estates, it is very easy to purchase land for a trifling consideration; and thus, numbers combining, deserted plantations are bought up and villages quickly formed on their sites. There are great numbers also who, strictly speaking, "*squat*" up the rivers and creeks—that is, settle themselves on crown-land without any title whatsoever. The forests teeming with game, and the rivers with fish, afford them a plentiful subsistence; and the ground, with

very little tillage, yields an abundant supply of provisions. They carry on a small trade in fire-wood, charcoal, &c., but by far the greatest part of their time is spent in absolute idleness. The accounts your commissioners have received of the demoralisation going on in these negro villages is calculated to excite the deepest alarm, and rioting and debauchery seem to be but too prevalent among them. In many of the most populous villages, in the most thriving parts of the country, very significant signs of actual retrogression are plainly perceptible. Formerly the Creole had a taste for luxuries in food and dress, and would willingly work to earn the means of gratifying his desires; but now he seems content to go about with the least amount of clothing consistent with decency, and to be satisfied with the coarsest fare.

Great numbers of them, up the rivers and creeks, seem to shun as much as possible all intercourse with their more civilised neighbours, and especially with white men. Their dwellings, which are little better than savage huts, are built at a distance from the water's brink, and carefully shrouded by trees, so as to elude the observation of passing vessels. Thus they live in the bush, with scarcely a thought or a care for a moral or religious education of their children, who are growing up around them in a state of nature, and mostly stark naked. Although the country districts are well supplied with churches and schools, the religious observances of the people in several districts presenting these advantages are greatly neglected. The following table, prepared from the stipendiary magistrates' returns throughout the colony, will show the number of places of worship and of religious and general instruction in the rural districts:

Churches.	Chapels.	Sunday Schools.	Average attendance.
34	67	75	5993
	Day Schools.	Average Attendance.	
	82	3863	

The number of children appears to be as follows:

Resident Creoles.	Non-resident.	Africans.	Portuguese.	Coolies.
5372	16,780	1744	1331	880

making a total of 26,105 children of all classes, of whom only 5993 receive any religious, and 3863 any secular education whatsoever. With the progressive retrogression of the African race in this country the heathen superstitions of their ancestors seem to be gaining ground, and "Obeah" is practised to a much greater extent than is generally supposed. All the gentlemen connected with the landed interest whom your commissioners have exa-

mined concur in representing the idle and vicious mode of life pursued by the villagers, even in the most flourishing (comparatively speaking) parts of the colony. The depredations committed by them in the neighbouring plantain walks and cane pieces, and upon each other's lands, are almost inconceivable; nor is it possible in the present state of things to put a stop to the practice. The rate of wages, moreover, is so exorbitant, considering the small number of their wants, that in the words of Mr. McKenzie, of Amsterdam, "the agricultural labourer can support himself in ease and plenty on the produce of two days' labour, or the performance of two tasks of four or five hours' duration per week—the other portion of his time being zealously devoted to his amusements."

The labouring population of British Guiana residing on estates number, as has been said 39,375 souls. Of these, 20,334 are women and children, leaving a balance of 19,041 strong able-bodied men. The average time required to perform a task, or day's work, ranges from five to six hours. For this the labourer exacts one guilder, equal to 1s. 4d. sterling; and so completely is he destitute of all ambition to better his condition by his own industry, that he is content to work two or three days in the week, and idle away the rest upon the wages he has thereby acquired. The number of tasks performed upon the various estates throughout the colony, as far as your commissioners have been able to ascertain, hardly averages ten per month, thus showing that more than two-thirds of the labourer's time are spent in perfect indolence.

These observations must be understood to apply principally to the native population; for the immigrants work much more continuously and steadily, although physically inferior to the Creoles.

At the present moment there are many estates carried on almost entirely by immigrant labour; and, as far as regards the Coolies, your commissioners have to report in a very favourable manner; 11,437 people from Calcutta and Madras have been introduced into this country since May, 1845; and although at first the Madras immigrants seemed a sickly, weak, and lazy race, and the mortality among them was very great, subsequent importations have replenished our fields with a fine body of labourers. Your commissioners look forward to the expected immigration from India as destined to save the country from approaching ruin; and unless the native of this country can in some way be induced to work, there is every prospect of the Coolie and Portuguese races supplanting the African in the labour market. The immigrants from Madeira, of whom there are upwards of 5000 in the country, are a very useful class of people. Excellent field labourers them-

selves, they also exercise an indirect influence upon the price of labour, by cheapening the commodities in use among the working classes, for a great number of them are hucksters—petty shopkeepers and traders. The Portuguese seem for the most part to prefer these occupations to field-labour; and their ambition is generally to save enough money to buy a license, stock a pack, and turn pedlars. The fortunes made by some of these people are perfectly incredible; and your commissioners could particularise various instances of parties coming from Madeira without a penny in the world, realising, after a few years' residence here, several thousand dollars. The Africans would, undoubtedly, be the best immigrants for this country if under a contract for a term of years, and those that have already arrived are a particularly vigorous, muscular body of men; but it cannot be disguised that they too readily fall into the bad habits of the idle native population, who often inveigle them away from their employers even whilst under indenture, but more particularly as soon as their engagements expire. They muster about 3820 souls, of whom 1740 are children. This number is, of course, too small to make any serious impression; and immigration from Sierra Leone is so uncertain and precarious, that it is to be feared British Guiana will never be adequately recruited from thence.

Where the supply of labour is so limited, and the field for its exercise so great, it is hardly a matter of surprise that the laws respecting the monthly engagements of agricultural labourers are hardly ever enforced. Employers are naturally afraid to bring their people before a magistrate for breach of contract, lest they should lose their services altogether. An attempt to enforce the law is too often met with a refusal to work at all; and the negroes are perfectly aware that if they leave the estate on which they may be for the time, their services will be eagerly competed for by the neighbouring managers. Added to this, the delays and want of substantial justice experienced in too many of the magistrates' courts, operate in a great number of instances as an effectual bar to any recourse being had to the relief, such as it is, afforded by the local ordinances. Again, the difficulty of identifying, or even tracing, a runaway labourer is almost insurmountable. "I conceive," says Mr. Brumell, "that there can be no strict enforcement of a contract between two parties, one of whom is known and responsible, and the other unknown and possessing only a cloth round his loins. The first intimation a planter receives of a breach of contract is the absence of the labourer; and when (if ever) he hears of him again, it is that he is in another district or county. Situated as the proprietors are, therefore, they are obliged to wink at the behaviour of their people,

knowing that on taking the slightest offence they will instantly leave and work elsewhere." To enter into minute calculations for the purpose of showing that sugar cannot be grown profitably in this colony under existing circumstances would be a needless repetition; but the appended Table, furnished by the Administrator-General of Demerara and Essequibo, as to estates under his management, illustrates the subject through the clearest light.

This return appears to your commissioners to afford an unanswerable proof of the condition of the landed interest at present. The estates referred to therein were all carried on by a public officer who could command the means required for properly conducting them; their administration was regulated by law, and every transaction respecting them closely scrutinised by a court of justice. Yet with all these advantages these estates, thirty-four in number, sank on an average 316,125 dollars during sequestration, without paying interest on mortgages or other incumbrances.

When the management of estates is attended with such a ruinous loss, it cannot be matter for surprise that the finest properties command only nominal prices in the market. Indeed, land at present seems to have no definite value; for those plantations which have changed hands of late years have almost invariably been bought in by the holders of mortgages or other liens upon them, and in many cases immediately abandoned, or else been purchased on speculation for trifling sums by parties who had no means to work them. Your commissioners beg to refer to the appended returns of estates which have been sold at execution by the Provost-Marshal of British Guiana, as showing in the strongest manner the enormous depreciation which has taken place in West India property since the year 1838.

The colony of British Guiana being purely agricultural, its commercial prosperity inevitably depends upon the state of the landed interest.

The foregoing Report has already represented the misery and ruin into which the planters of this country are plunged. It remains now but to tell of the stagnation of business necessarily caused thereby to the whole mercantile body. The two seats of commerce for the colony are the metropolis, George Town, and the town of New Amsterdam, in the county of Berbice, and in both these places the leading merchants are complaining most severely of the pressure of the times. Formerly a large and prosperous trade was carried on in estates supplies. This, owing to the wholesale abandonment of property, has dwindled away almost to nothing. The consumption of almost all kinds of im-

ported commodities has also been greatly reduced of late years, as compared with the period immediately following freedom and the termination of apprenticeship. Your commissioners beg to call particular attention to the remarks on this subject of Mr. Duncan M'Donald, a partner in the leading firm of George Anderson and Co. "For some time after the emancipation, up to, I may say, 1845, the labouring classes purchased largely of calicoes, muslins, clothing, boots, shoes, hats, and indeed dry goods generally, as also of malt liquor, hams, low priced wines (which were retailed very extensively by the Portuguese at 33½ cents per bottle), glassware, furniture, &c. During the period stated they evinced an eagerness for articles of improved comfort, and a desire to appear *respectable*. In the last three or four years various circumstances have combined to reduce the demand and consumption of articles not of luxury only, but of ordinary comfort. The labourers now usually confine their purchases to the very few and indispensable articles of clothing, and to articles of necessary food. The other portions of the community have also contracted their wants into a much narrower compass than in former years." The limited business now carried on in plantation stores is almost entirely for cash instead of the liberal credit formerly given, while almost all other description of sales are for ready money only. With the decline of the mercantile trade of Georgetown, the value of house property has fallen off upwards of 50 per cent, and it is to be doubted whether there are any business premises in the whole place that would sell at the present moment for one half of what they would have realised four or five years ago. In the present state of trade the tonnage dues and pilotage fees on all vessels coming into port are felt to be excessive, and the amount of additional fees paid to the harbour-master is a subject which urgently demands legislative supervision. The commercial interest of New Amsterdam is, if possible, at a still lower ebb than that of Georgetown, for so large a portion of Berbice is abandoned that, comparatively speaking, few plantations remain in cultivation to be supplied from the merchant's stores. The value of house property in this town has become almost nominal, it being next to impossible to effect sales of this description, even for the most trifling sums. Hardly any shipping now frequent the port of New Amsterdam, and a great deal of the produce is sent down to Georgetown to be shipped from thence.

Your commissioners have now reported, somewhat at length, upon the present state of the colony of British Guiana, both as regards its agricultural and commercial interests. They now beg to call attention to the following statements, as showing how the whole value of the products of the country is swallowed up by the

labouring classes, without leaving any profit whatever to the proprietary body:

The total value of the staples of the country for 1849	Dollars.
is found to be	3,248,686
Of these, the productions not contributed by sugar estates amount to	171,966

Leaving a balance of 3,076,720

The colony last year produced in round numbers 38,000 hhds. of sugar, which being valued at 4 cents per lb., and the rum and molasses at 30 dols. per puncheon and 11 dols. per cask respectively, give the above sum of 3,076,720 dols.

The calculation of the money required for wages to make a crop of 500 hhds. of sugar, with rum and molasses in proportion, is ascertained to be 2000 dols. per month, or 24,000 dols. per annum, which would require, to produce a crop of 38,000 hhds. dols. 1,824,000

The other expenses may be estimated at 2-3rds the wages	„ 1,216,000
	<u>3,040,000</u>

Leaving a surplus of only 36,720

to meet interest on capital, pay off debts, &c.

The produce of the sugar estates, making the above crop of 38,000 hhds., ought to be raised by the labour of 19,000 people, who would thus, allowing them to work on an average 274 days in the year, earn 288f., or 96 dols. each per annum; whereas it is calculated there are more than double the number employed on the estates in British Guiana, who therefore should earn only about 144f. each. At the same time, there are upwards of 40,000 people who are residing in the rural parishes, and hardly work at all, unless it may be considered that by their occasional labour they contribute to produce the value of the other productions of the colony, which your commissioners have shown amount to only 171,966 dols., say:

	Dollars.
Fire-wood	2,433
Coffee	9,105
Hard-wood	124,850
Charcoal	25,657
Cocoa-nuts	4,100
Hides	3,061
Shingles	2,760
	<u>171,966</u>

Our rural population of 82,000, if they chose to work, are capable of producing annually 80,000 hhds. of sugar, with rum and molasses in proportion ; but, as has been before stated, less than half of their number can be induced to cultivate the sugar estates at all, and these, at the most, only do half work, so that three-fourths of the population are upheld by the labour that ought to be performed by the other one-fourth.

Again, the immigrants cannot possibly be working as they ought, for they alone, numbering as they do 19,436 souls, are sufficient to produce the whole sugar crop now made in the colony.

In the like manner the resident Creole population, nearly 20,000 strong, could of themselves raise the same crop. From all that your commissioners have been able to learn, it is probable that the immigrants have hitherto by their labour contributed to produce by far the larger quantity of the sugar crops of British Guiana, and if this really be the case, the idleness prevailing amongst the native population, who still remain located on estates, is at once clearly manifest.

The result of the whole amounts to this, that the entire labour which the planters of this country can muster out of a population numbering 82,000, of whom at least 50,000 are able-bodied people, is not equal to that of 19,000 steady and continuous workmen.

With reference to the foregoing statement of exports, and of the population by whom they are produced, the amount of imports into this colony must also be taken into consideration. These appear, by the returns from the custom-house for the year 1849, to be of the value of 658,140*l.* sterling, or 3,279,072 *dols.*, being a surplus of 30,386 *dols.* over the whole exports of British Guiana of every description. Hence it is evident that the total value of the produce of the country is consumed within it.

This is easily accounted for by the fact of the cost of production being so exorbitant as to enable the labourers not only to consume largely themselves, but also to maintain in complete idleness branches of their families who are located in villages and other rural settlements. A great trade in provisions is carried on with the United States of America, upon which this colony is almost entirely dependent for food, notwithstanding that the villagers could with ease not only raise sufficient for home consumption, but could also supply the neighbouring islands. It might be thought that the duties imposed upon the importation of all articles of food would operate on the minds of these people as an incentive for cultivating the native roots and esculents ; but so deeply seated are their habits of indolence, that no inducement

can persuade them to take advantage of this field of honest industry so invitingly spread before them.

Your commissioners cannot take leave of this branch of the subject without reporting upon the almost total failure of the *Métairie* system, as endeavoured to be introduced into this country. A little coffee is indeed cultivated by the *Métayers* with tolerable success ; but as regards sugar, the experiment may be said to have entirely failed. More than one fine property has been ruined by trusting to this method of cultivation, and in nearly every instance proprietors have been obliged to take back the fields from the farmers on account of their neglect and inattention. In theory the system is all that can be desired, and its failure, when sought to be reduced into practice, is attributable solely to the unfitness of the working classes to appreciate its advantages.

They are not yet sufficiently advanced in the social scale to feel the benefits which would result to them from the mutual relations of landlord and tenant, between employers and employed. The great cause of its want of success arises from the indolent and unsteady habits of the labouring population, with which your commissioners have had occasion already to find so much fault—not even the prospect of reaping a lucrative harvest can induce them to bestow anything like *continuous* labour upon their fields, which consequently soon get neglected, and in process of time are either abandoned or else taken over again by the proprietor of the estate. It is a melancholy and disheartening reflection that the Creole population of this colony, after enjoying for twelve years the blessings of freedom, should have risen so little in the social scale, and that they should be at the present moment in a state of positive retrogression.

Your commissioners have now faithfully and to the best of their ability reported upon the present state of this colony, both as regards its agricultural and commercial interests. They have endeavoured fearlessly to state the truth, and to disclose the real evils which are operating so injuriously upon the country at large. In the exercise of the grave and important trust committed to them they have felt it their duty unflinchingly to expose the unsatisfactory condition of the labouring classes ; nor have they shrunk from giving an impartial account of the ruin and distress which has overtaken all classes of the community, at the risk, though it be, of sinking still lower the colonial credit with capitalists at home. In order to effect a cure, it is necessary first to probe the wound, and ascertain the real extent of the injuries which have been received ; and it is much better that our fellow-colonists, as well as the mother country, should be openly made acquainted with the actual position of affairs rather than that our

circumstances should be glossed over to suit the views of those whose interest it may be to represent the colony in a flourishing state.

The cause of the present depressed condition of British Guiana is, in the solemn and deliberate opinion of your commissioners, as already expressed, *mainly* attributable to the fatal operation of the Sugar Act of 1846. Every symptom of a change for the better was apparent until then; the cultivation had been extended and the crops increased; the labouring population were working more steadily, and evinced signs of speedy improvement. That destructive measure, coupled with the want of early and sufficient immigration, inflicted a blow from which this colony has never recovered. Everything has retrograded from that moment, a great number of estates have been abandoned, and with the decline of the agricultural interest the condition of the lower orders has very sensibly deteriorated.

The momentous consideration next presents itself, what measures can be taken to save the colony ere it be too late.

As far as the Government of England is concerned, all that can be done is earnestly and solemnly to urge upon her Majesty's ministers the gross injustice of compelling the West India colonies to maintain an unequal competition in the home market with foreign slave states. The arguments showing the injustice and grievous impolicy of the late Sugar Act have been so often before the public, that your commissioners find it needless to repeat them here. They will content themselves with expressing their firm conviction that nothing but protective duties can enable the British West Indies to compete successfully with their foreign rivals. So long as slavery is permitted, and the slave trade continues, wages will never fall, in this colony at least, to that amount that will place the price of a free man's labour on an equal footing with the cost of the food and clothing of a slave, and the interest of the capital expended on his purchase. As to the argument that a free labourer will work better than a slave, and that therefore his services are so much more valuable, the foregoing report on the industrial habits of the peasantry of this country will afford an abundant refutation. The African has no desire to better his condition by the sweat of his brow; he is quite content to earn sufficient to satisfy his few and simple wants, and never thinks of amassing money by the fruits of his honest industry. It is therefore idle to pretend that the labour of this man is of equal value with the involuntary toil of the Cuban slave. The difference between the two is simply this, that the free labourer will never work more than sheer necessity compels him, whereas the slave is obliged to work to the extreme limit of human endurance.

In the hope that a beneficial change of policy on the part of the Home Government towards the West Indies may soon take place, your commissioners now proceed to suggest the remedial measures which this colony itself can adopt.

The progressive withdrawal of the Creole population from the cultivation of the staples, and the acknowledged insufficiency of the immigrant labour at present in the colony, clearly point out that a large and continuous stream of immigration is necessary to maintain British Guiana as a sugar producing country, and save the invested capital in estates here from eventual annihilation. Your commissioners do not hesitate to offer it as their opinion, that in the course of a few years, the native population will have almost entirely seceded from working on plantations, and that consequently their place will have to be supplied by the introduction of a totally new race of labourers. It is to be hoped that these may be induced to make this colony their home, and to render their best assistance towards producing the only staple which can be successfully cultivated here, for with the downfall of the sugar estates there is reason to fear every other interest, and every trace even of civilisation, will be swept away. It is possible, indeed, that with a superabundant supply of labour, and an advance in the price of cotton, the cultivation of that article might be resumed in this colony to some extent; but to look forward to this description of produce as the means of regenerating the country, would be utopian in the extreme. The loss of invested capital consequent upon changing the cultivation from sugar to cotton, renders the project impracticable. If, indeed, the sugar estates of this country could *first* be well supplied with labour, the abandoned districts on the coast might again be reclaimed and cultivated with cotton by the intervention of a large immigrant population, and an investment of capital for the purpose, on the part of the merchants of the mother country; but it is to sugar alone that this colony must look for the means of ultimate prosperity. Notwithstanding the vast number of estates which have been abandoned, there are buildings and machinery, of immense value in the aggregate, still in tolerable preservation; which might easily be restored, could labourers be procured to cultivate the deserted cane pieces.

The best description of immigrants would undoubtedly be Africans; but your commissioners despair of this country ever procuring an adequate supply from Africa under the present system, and they would therefore earnestly recommend that every exertion should be used to obtain a speedy and abundant stream of immigration from India. If Coolies can be induced to come here in sufficient numbers, and remain here, the agricultural in-

terest might yet rally; but it is essential that no time should be lost in their immediate importation. There are many matters of internal economy respecting which your commissioners might respectfully suggest improvements, but as the very existence of the colony as a civilised community depends upon immigration, they will dismiss all other considerations with a few brief remarks, and content themselves with urging upon the serious attention of your excellency and the legislature this one all important subject, as beside it all others sink into complete insignificance.

With immigration once obtained on a suitable footing, local improvements will attend, as a matter of course, the progressive prosperity of the colony. The greatest natural impediment to the colonial agriculture is defective drainage, mainly caused by an insufficient outfall. This may be remedied by the judicious application of steam-power, and doubtless when the credit of the colony is raised with capitalists at home, funds may be procured to effect this great good; but at present it is quite out of the question. The laws regulating roads and bridges seem also to require legislative supervision; for the manifest injustice of requiring the proprietor of each estate to keep up the line of road running through his property, whatever may be the length of its façade, has become clearly perceptible since the number which have been abandoned of late years. Your commissioners would respectfully suggest the establishment of parochial rates to maintain the public roads. Among the most important requirements, however, of the colony at large are the introduction of stringent laws tending to the encouragement of honest industry, and the suppression of idleness and vice among the lower orders. For this purpose a binding vagrant act is urgently needed, as well as a trespass law, which would prevent the people from wandering where they pleased and earning a subsistence by shooting, fishing, and stealing on the lands of their neighbours.

Your commissioners will not touch upon the subject of education, as that great question is undergoing the consideration of an official board appointed by your excellency for the purpose; but it is obvious that with the advancement of religious and moral instruction among the labouring classes the better citizens will they become, and the more useful and industrious members of society.

Your commissioners have now concluded their labours, and if in this report they have trespassed at a greater length than is customary, they venture to hope that the grave importance of the questions submitted to them will prove a sufficient excuse. In conclusion, they beg leave to add that this report, although, from various causes, only now adopted, was drawn up in the month of

June last, which will account for the allusions contained in it to certain topics which have since engaged the attention of the Legislature.

All which is very respectfully submitted, &c.

(Signed) PETER ROSE, Chairman,
 JAMES STUART,
 RICHARD HAYNES,
 SAMUEL BEAN,
 GEORGE BOOKER,
 WILLIAM BRAND,
 ROBERT R. CRAIG,
 A. D. V. GON. NETSCHER,
 THOMAS NIMMO,
 FREDRICK VERBEKE,
 COLIN SIMPSON,
 WILLIAM DAVISON.

J. LUCIE SMITH, Secretary.

*Guiana Public Buildings, Georgetown, Demerary,
 December 28, 1850.*

The following extract from a Despatch written by his Excellency Governor Light, to the Marquis of Normanby, in June, 1839, is the Authority upon which the Statement is founded of the Sale of Estates previously to 1840.

Plantation Zeelandia, in Essequibo, was sold in 1838 for 42,000*l.*, but the day following the proprietor begged to be permitted to recal his assent. Plantation Alness, in Berbice, sold in 1839 for 28,000*l.*, its former value. Plantation Thomas, in Demerara, sold seven or eight years ago for 9000*l.*, and has since been sold for 20,000*l.* Plantation Vrow Anna, Essequibo, sold in 1839 for 35,000*l.*, its full value. Plantation Aberdeen, Essequibo, sold in 1839 for 20,000*l.*, a larger price than eight or nine years ago. Plantation Friendship, Demerara, (cotton and plantain), sold in 1839 for more than in 1833. Plantation Windsor Forest, Demerara, sold for 42,000*l.*, its full value. Plantation Profit sold for an equally large sum.

In contrast to this short table, we will annex the following list of estates sold at private bargain and at execution sale, principally gathered from a clever pamphlet written by an experienced colonist, Dr. Rankin, entitled, "Thoughts on British Guiana."

List of ESTATES sold by private bargain in Demerara from 1838 to 1846.

Date.	Name of Plantation.	Price.	Value during Slavery.
1838	Anna Catherina	£30,000	£50,000
"	Providence	38,000	80,000
"	Thomas	20,000	40,000
1840	Windsor Forest	45,000	85,000
"	Rome and Houston	40,000	100,000
"	Montrose	38,000	55,000
"	Ogle	26,000	45,000
"	Le Resouvenir	30,000	50,000
"	Succes	30,000	40,000
"	Belair	20,000	40,000
"	Kitty	26,000	60,000
"	Wales	26,000	50,000
"	Vriedenhoop	26,000	60,000
"	William	18,000	40,000
1844	Groenvelt	10,000	35,000
1845	Baillie's Hope	7,000	50,000
"	Vriedestein	4,000	30,000
1846	Haarlem	3,500	50,000
"	Goed Fortuin	1,700	35,000

Annual Revenue and Annual Expenditure of Demerara and Essequibo.

Year.	Expenditure.	Revenue.		Year.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	
	£	£			£	£	
1821	52,070	45,000		1839	102,538	104,215	} Stoppage of the supplies this year.
1822	48,181	46,161		1840	105,447	78,974	
1823	49,434	24,036		1841	199,310	227,468	
1824	89,332	75,800		1842	237,759	243,985	
1825	49,776	59,629		1843	182,026	186,265	
1826	61,150	43,669		1844	141,608	171,563	
1827	64,339	52,801		1845	183,911	181,459	
1828	54,252	54,702		1846	251,516	215,905	
1829	64,030	60,258		1847	229,453	213,114	
1830	62,710	66,558		1848	161,770	169,506	
1831	54,140	45,276		1849	112,940	103,374	
1832	42,494	46,548		1850	182,617	186,693	
1833	38,997	47,273		1851	193,352	203,001	
1834	45,923	81,317		1852	227,070	218,014	
1835	55,075	53,059					
1836	97,371	87,885					
1837	Not ascertained				
1838	95,064	109,29					

Revenue and Annual Expenditure of Berbice.

Year.	Expenditure.	Revenue.	Year.	Expenditure.	Revenue.
1827	£21,479	£15,821	1836	£16,575	£18,196
1828	14,126	13,998	1837	18,036	22,035
1829	16,971	22,184	1838
1830	16,783	21,229	1839	54,253	50,901
1831	15,646	11,994	1840	36,703	22,236
1832	15,481	9,805	1841	After this date the annual revenue and expenditure were included in the estimates of Demerara and Essequibo.	
1833	16,331	23,239	1842		
1834	18,503	20,847	1843		
1835	16,634	14,208	1844		

TABLE showing the number of Prisoners in the Gaols of Demerara and Essequibo.

Year.	Number of Prisoners.			Year.	Number of Prisoners.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.
1828	107	22	129	1834	1492	1021	2513
1829	54	14	68	1835
1830	67	9	76	1836	1834	577	2411
1831	77	37	114	1837
1832	97	22	119	1838	1720	406	2126
1833	126	30	156				

TABLE showing the number of Prisoners in the Georgetown Gaol.

Year.	Number of Prisoners.	Year.	Number of Prisoners.
1840	1235	1847	1799
1841	1503	1848	2662
1842	1610	1849	2144
1843	1686	1850	2202
1844	1427	1851	1841
1845	1554	1852	1622
1846	2061		

Number of Prisoners in the Gaols of Berbice.

Year.	Number of Prisoners.			Year.	Number of Prisoners.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.		Male.	Female.	Total.
1828	166	50	216	1834	261	135	396
1829	219	54	273	1835
1830	1836	214	130	344
1831	19	1	20	1837	372	158	530
1832	328	124	452	1838	178	71	249
1833	31	1	32				

Imports and Shipping of Demerara and Essequibo.

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.	Value.
1823	370	68,576	3946	£580,929
1824	365	65,562	3650	663,634
1825
1826	412	70,739	4078	550,747
1827	517	85,445	...	743,462
1828	537	85,077	5157	709,805
1829	589	82,805	5590	804,408
1830	567	89,240	5230	734,528
1831	601	89,760	5381	664,539
1832	571	84,166	5003	505,803
1833	633	93,809	5554	541,438
1834	630	90,221	5377	591,438
1835	672	95,039	5687	589,103
1836	548	96,109	5245	853,628
1837	532	90,431	5231	954,113
1838	536	94,824	5461	1,038,653
1839	501	81,293	4689	1,184,095
1840	567	93,211	5413	1,053,501
1841	662	98,386	5506	1,031,011
1842	518	98,089	4529	651,056
1843	591	97,017	5344	785,907
1844	549	87,643	4784	633,615
1845*	706	109,984	6073	841,986
1846	632	97,624	5363	1,144,176
1847	611	93,762	5233	799,093
1848	786	110,720	6278	718,885
1849	704	103,074	7128	658,140
1850	751	111,773	7486	785,157
1851	671	111,771	7247	855,419
1852	668	115,930	5876	964,986

* Imports and shipping of Berbice included from 1845.

Imports and Shipping of Berbice.

Year.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Men.	Value.
1822	204	15,991	1809	£92,598
1823	181	15,261	1008	95,762
1824	181	16,204	1623	93,597
1825
1826	190	15,113	1057	117,650
1827	218	18,917	1145	113,869
1828	229	19,733	1366	131,545
1829	221	19,161	1338	131,778
1830
1831	342	21,208	1385	161,177
1832	318	25,790	1725	172,931
1833	289	23,073	1573	183,379
1834	286	20,571	1459	111,695
1835	314	24,879	1755	119,563
1836	173	22,516	1340	127,350
1837	126	18,689	1112	180,419
1838	153	22,630	1385	224,361
1839	128	17,979	1000	219,805

TABLES Illustrative of the Schools in British Guiana.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION.	Number of Schools.	Schools where fees are demanded to increase the income of the teacher.	Schools where fees are demanded only to meet school expenses.	Schools entirely free.	Not ascertained.
Church of England . . .	44	25	6	13	0
Church of Scotland . . .	15	9	0	5	1
Church of Rome	4	0	1	3	0
Wesleyans	15	15	0	0	0
London Missionaries . . .	23	19	0	2	2
Independent Dissenters . .	14	14	0	0	0
Plymouth Brethren . . .	5	4	0	1	0
Episcopalian Methodists . .	2	2	0	0	0
Total	122	88	7	24	3

DISTRICTS.	Population, exclusive of settlements unable to support schools.	Number of children.		Number of schools.		Number of children.		Proportion that the average daily attendance bears to the number of children between 5 and 15.
		Under 5 years of age.	Between 5 and 15.	Poor schools.	Other schools.	On the books of the school.	Average daily attendance.	
Georgetown, including the Lodge and a few estates	26,210	3,139	6,032	12	23	2,706	1,986	32·924
East Bank, Demerara	5,662	597	1,068	9	0	545	309	28·932
West Bank, "	8,762	854	1,538	9	1	761	548	35·630
West Coast, "	7,679	709	1,132	5	0	565	355	31·360
East Coast, "	23,221	2,464	3,940	21	0	2,145	1,500	38·071
West Coast, Berbice	4,230	620	1,042	7	0	465	370	35·508
New Amsterdam, including Stanley Town and Smythfield	4,800	521	1,125	5	2	414	253	22·488
East Bank, Berbice	4,648	528	874	6	0	423	302	34·553
West Bank, "	3,070	383	681	4	...	315	212	31·130
Canje Creek, "	4,450	567	892	5	3	357	217	24·327
East Coast, "	3,512	426	821	7	0	497	363	44·214
Leguan	3,453	412	717	6	0	313	189	26·359
Wakenaam	4,178	402	860	4	2	222	175	20·348
Hog Island	283	35	48	1	0	33	28	58·383
Fort Island	147	17	36	1	0	20	15	41·666
Arabian Coast, Essequibo	13,800	1,774	2,905	15	1	1,130	771	26·540
Pomeroon	1	...	26	23	...
Total	118,105	13,448	23,711	118	32	10,877	7,616	

TABLE of Produce Shipped to Holland and Zealand from Demerara and Essequibo.

YEARS.	SHIPS.	SUGAR.	COFFEE		COTTON.
			libds.	tierces.	
1745.....	2	1219			
1746.....	2	1342½	...	1	
1747.....	2	559½			
1748.....	4	2202	...		
1749.....	8	3579½	...	1	
1750.....	5	2520	...	1	
1751.....	4	1445	...	2	4
1752.....	6	2606½		1	1
1753.....	1	447½			
1754.....	2	285			
1755.....	No recorded account.				
1756.....	3	1918½	8	...	3
1757.....	3	1594			
1758.....	2	859½			
1759.....	No recorded account.				
1760.....	7	878	45		
1761.....	6	1177	...	274	50
1762.....	10	2988½	43	238	10
1763.....	8	2919½	19	664	4
1764.....	8	2956½	31	211	2
1765.....	8	3678½	56	881	18
1766.....	9	4120	37	2,532	101
1767.....	10	4745½	72	2,748	84
1768.....	7	2896½	166	2,510	66
1769.....	9	3530½	491	2,715	312
1770.....	8	5795	499	1,603	337
1771.....	13	3127	641	3,538	162
1772.....	9	3338	550	4,740	128
1773.....	12	3775	1001	8,613	181
1774.....	17	5225½	1327	14,649	307
1775.....	21	4927½	2317	19,090	189
1776.....	15	3965½	1081	10,134	1012
1777.....	17	3142½	1866	20,309	1166
1778.....	27	6920½	1839	32,634	1754
1779.....	24	5899½	927	25,234	2868
1780.....	22	4000½	1437	40,023	2730
1781.....	7	1603½	460	10,250	756
1782.....	No recorded account.				
1783.....	Do.	do.			
1784.....	24	3980	703	28,078	1883
1785.....	15	4995½	440	12,333	1039

RETURN of the Produce of Demerara and Essequibo, from 1810 to 1824.

DEMERARA.					
YEARS.	SUGAR.	RUM.	MOLASSES.	COFFEE.	COTTON
	lbs.	gals.	gals.	lbs.	lbs.
1810.....	9,222,659	471,365	...	19,248,210	5,821,776
1811.....	6,167,289	...
1812.....	12,351,979	815,131	...	6,967,289	4,322,453
1813.....	13,597,072	847,081	...	2,951,555	2,408,265
1814.....	12,780,282	722,146	...	7,431,926	5,494,416
1815.....	18,657,091	965,012	...	18,270,436	3,844,690
1816.....	19,866,713	898,009	...	11,254,206	3,393,980
1817.....	22,787,125	946,106	522,988	5,370,418	3,846,889
1818.....	24,037,418	1,025,032	501,068	9,855,717	4,498,591
1819.....	33,009,248	1,445,465	526,252	3,033,410	2,485,483
1820.....	35,128,107	1,679,031	333,351	4,160,133	2,266,273
1821.....	30,855,407	1,433,574	306,572	9,898,297	2,482,127
1822.....	32,023,713	1,390,667	525,266	6,437,881	3,543,514
1823.....	36,962,174	1,265,035	1,123,667	5,986,435	2,065,957
1824.....	34,930,396	1,093,931	1,379,166	4,735,531	1,874,147

ESSEQUEBO.					
YEARS.	SUGAR.	RUM.	MOLASSES.	COFFEE.	COTTON.
	lbs.	gals.	gals.	lbs.	lbs.
1810.....	13,349,590	600,340	...	2,269,926	1,293,632
1811.....
1812.....	16,317,354	843,035	...	687,134	399,711
1813.....	16,758,414	843,286	...	614,149	267,585
1814.....	18,526,224	955,523	...	919,585	529,481
1815.....	21,865,329	1,026,806	...	1,586,443	560,298
1816.....	24,246,068	1,058,886	...	602,411	426,532
1817.....	30,462,555	1,169,161	547,151	935,454	536,048
1818.....	30,095,438	1,283,389	437,121	818,827	584,683
1819.....	33,781,912	1,356,558	485,499	440,990	228,502
1820.....	35,467,584	1,551,917	407,687	278,778	150,250
1821.....	31,279,222	1,284,238	313,200	709,359	322,499
1822.....	33,025,734	1,336,067	574,017	382,455	162,445
1823.....	37,859,359	1,152,981	1,117,366	391,588	178,161
1824.....	34,422,882	1,027,721	1,137,526	255,958	175,168

TABLE showing the Quantity of Rum (gallons) imported into the United Kingdom from British Guiana.

YEARS	DEMERARA.	BERBICK.	YEARS.	DEMERARA.	BERBICK.
1808.....	132,441		1817.....	992,981	14,298
1809.....	353,374	20,355	1818.....	835,553	18,896
1810.....	98,442	6,193	1819.....	981,138	28,190
1811.....	222,612	1,866	1820.....	1,529,088	27,935
1812.....	532,819	23,139	1821.....	1,297,764	63,536
1813.....	1,041,665	16,420	1822.....	1,193,556	32,668
1814.....	981,768	44,244	1823.....	941,195	74,221
1815.....	794,804	25,275	1824.....	930,132	44,393
1816.....	515,295	8,997			

A RETURN OF SUGAR, RUM, MOLASSES, COFFEE, COTTON, and other Productions of the Colony of British Guiana, exported therefrom, from the year 1827 to the year 1849, both inclusive.

FROM THE COUNTIES OF DEMERARY AND ESSEQUEBO.

YEARS.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Firewood.	Hard-wood.	Charcoal.	Cocoa nuts.	Horns.	Plantains.	Hides.	Spars.	Wallaba Shingles.
	hhls.	puns.	casks.	lbs	bales	cordis.	logs.	packages	No.	No.	bunches.	No.	No.	No.
1827	58,354	20,267	26,138	2,907,150	12,621		26	...	66,060	2300	650	1218	394	138,000
1828	56,364	18,903	27,226	2,347,650	6,883		271	...	76,300	1500	...	1542	1534	...
1829	60,060	23,311	21,434	2,965,050	5,148		127	...	87,400	450	...	2417	1135	225,000
1830	59,208	28,884	19,585	5,025,256	3,695	714	913	...	59,994	1510	2,450	1426	2633	833,000
1831	55,783	28,113	25,153	1,349,762	1,838	373	1984	...	67,865	1562	2022	82,000
1832	52,319	16,935	35,986	1,277,799	2,124	113	341	...	76,280	170	...	1094	442	150,000
1833	55,333	15,837	40,335	4,429,282	2,069	564	1678	...	60,010	1010	...	2007	671	192,000
1834	48,489	17,356	31,125	1,102,200	2,118	749	255	...	53,150	1645	400	2744	40	268,000
1835	56,233	21,836	24,958	1,299,080	1,476	558	234	...	32,181	3707	15	48,500
1836	56,236	19,722	33,343	1,307,700	2,220	653	591	...	69,054	1060	...	1344
1837	51,999	14,093	27,706	1,206,900	1,765	577	1232	...	77,364	750	12,000	2118
1838	43,077	14,654	22,243	1,527,600	1,210	745	1678	...	66,060	960	...	2437
1839	30,049	11,983	10,693	515,700	1,013	336	591	...	83,139	3960	...	3481	...	102,300
1840	33,628	18,614	14,103	1,531,350	271	100	1905	...	66,060	960	...	2437	...	80,000
1841	27,804	9,102	13,952	568,920	160	739	1577	...	83,139	3960	...	3481	...	102,300
1842	26,899	8,677	14,081	1,372,650	40	604	1434	...	50,790	3100	...	2569	...	178,000
1843	28,850	7,243	20,004	428,800	8	497	1577	...	106,009	2569	...	165,000
1844	30,721	9,946	17,203	716,137	...	596	210	...	50,790	3100	...	2569	...	165,000
1845	31,167	13,072	12,863	189,375	...	391	1067	...	106,009	2569	...	165,000
1846	31,286	7,703	12,056	59,175	...	1051	1405	...	131,865	1067	...	83,000
1847	36,676	15,763	9,669	130,800	...	1141	2687	...	466,530	5650	...	1569	...	335,000
1848	35,137	20,473	6,960	83,375	...	1907	3625	...	286,139	2951	...	635,750
1849	30,420	14,078	10,862	69,940	...	1338	4985	...	96,369	1100	...	2603	...	920,300

Custom House, Georgetown, Demerary,
6th February, 1850.

CHRISTOPHER BAGOT, Compt.

A RETURN OF SUGAR, RUM, MOLASSES, COFFEE, COTTON, and other Productions of the Colony of British Guiana, exported therefrom, from the Year 1827 to the Year 1849, both inclusive.

FROM THE COUNTY OF BERBICE.

YEARS.	Sugar.	Rum.	Molasses.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Firewood.	Hard-wood.	Charcoal.	Cocos nuts.	Horns.	Plantains.	Hides.	Spar.	Wallaba Shingles.
	hhds.	puns.	csaks.	lbs.	bales.	cords.	logs.	packages.	No.	No.	bunches.	No.	No.	No.
1827.....	7,459	2140	2729	1,312,200	3283	...	500	340	...	8,000
1828.....	7,350	2004	1513	2,578,650	3921	33	1,100	3,940	320	...	30,000
1829.....	6,662	3120	648	3,613,300	2124	79	2,020	...	5200	214	17,550	445	...	50,000
1830.....	9,831	4517	1124	4,447,500	1728	234	19,122	...	2295	125	300	426	6	64,000
1831.....	9,975	4937	2206	2,480,700	1732	115	14,462	...	2900	138	17,575	172	...	98,000
1832.....	11,258	5047	4356	1,508,100	1706	24½	50,226	455	4,810	185
1833.....	8,470	2240	4456	1,490,250	1680	179	7,088
1834.....	6,738	2190	2288	1,637,900	1188	16	17,141
1835.....	11,015	5311	2202	2,102,700	843	179	7,088	...	700	740	4,500
1836.....	12,036	4904	4745	2,684,900	976	186	6,700
1837.....	10,514	3509	3723	1,776,600	745	329	7,669
1838.....	11,366	3776	3263	1,700,050	593	360	21,148	...	1900	300
1839.....	8,394	4087	1441	1,263,300	351	502	17,300	...	1813
1840.....	7,026	2594	1896	1,825,950	60	160	15,640
1841.....	6,395	2016	2227	519,750	10	243	10,949
1842.....	7,312	1954	3613	804,470	...	73	5,189	88
1843.....	6,868	1053	4953	999,300	16	67	1,500	...	840	375
1844.....	8,278	1760	4474	774,600	...	258	32,900	491
1845.....	8,480	2067	4180	312,525	...	30	8,489	564
1846.....	4,915	1081	2549	43,275	...	42	6,000	231
1847.....	10,532	2720	3947	58,590	...	95	450	...	1700
1848.....	11,473	3418	2736	98,325	300	458
1849.....	7,491	1330	4850	30,610

RETURNS of Produce since 1829, and Values of Estates in this District before Emancipation:
ISLAND OF LEGUAN.

NAME OF PLANTATION.	SUGAR.										Value of Pro- perty from 1829 to 1882. £
	Crop in 1829.	Crop in 1882.	Crop in 1883.	Crop in 1888.	Crop in 1889.	Crop in 1842.	Crop in 1845.	Crop in 1848.	Crop in 1849.		
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	£
Amsterdam	639,200	560,000	540,000	303,000	240,000	223,000	136,500	132,000	154,300	154,300	75,800
Belfield and Vertrowen	588,800	720,000	684,000	445,507	447,376	334,320	198,000	203,625	40,800	40,800	106,340
Blenheim	756,500	600,000	678,400	535,500	372,800	248,000	169,000	240,000	248,000	248,000	87,880
Canefields	820,000	768,687	693,657	435,000	533,900	182,000	54,700	75,000	119,000	119,000	95,820
Cane Garden	375,000	285,600	225,000	108,700	32,256	40,000	7,200	Abandoned	34,500
Clairmont	340,000	390,000	270,000	142,500	139,500	123,000	130,300	134,000	165,000	165,000	39,960
Doornhaag and Enterprize	637,000	413,000	1,050,000	604,803	597,540	466,500	408,000	652,060	663,000	663,000	119,700
Elizabeth Ann	466,900	485,000	450,661	160,500	133,500	70,658	Abandoned	79,220
Endeavour	427,750	436,000	429,000	285,000	225,000	174,000	169,600	132,790	120,800	120,800	70,820
Henrietta	160,000	145,000	146,450	174,000	141,854	132,293	153,000	130,000	126,400	126,400	21,320
Maryville	487,000	348,800	433,000	305,600	178,500	76,500	80,412	170,300	160,000	160,000	45,940
New Osterbeck	315,300	311,750	233,654	90,000	87,000	35,000	54,500	Abandoned	...	Abandoned	29,960
Pleasing Hope	308,000	232,000	250,000	90,000	98,300	32,550	11,400	Abandoned	31,240
Retriever	425,000	321,000	300,000	187,862	190,500	93,150	73,000	Abandoned	49,000
Richmond Hill	810,000	600,000	608,500	478,590	330,500	208,500	160,380	81,600	53,760	53,760	76,520
Success	804,800	544,000	727,500	506,353	358,494	187,170	205,500	232,500	255,000	255,000	89,880
Uniform	627,000	444,000	471,900	390,000	270,000	208,000	100,000	55,407	Abandoned	Abandoned	70,540
Vrouw Anna	909,051	620,000	775,000	522,372	437,400	191,800	163,340	90,400	180,000	180,000	78,100
Waterloo	421,000	458,400	600,000	279,400	300,000	90,000	153,000	228,800	182,400	182,400	80,760
Wisselvalgheld and Maria Elizabeth	569,600	422,500	475,000	376,000	198,500	101,600	148,000	100,000	95,555	95,555	56,240
Total	16,903,911 1/2	13,971,827 1/2	16,366,199 1/2	9,942,289 1/2	3,842,390 1/2	3,220,041 1/2	2,572,932 1/2	2,663,682 1/2	2,504,215 1/2	2,504,215 1/2	1,219,240 1/2

The total value of the Estates in Leguan £ 1,319,340 0 0
For these the following Compensation was awarded and received £ 270,444 12 10
1,048,895 7 2

RETURNS of Produce since 1829, and Values of Estates in this District before Emancipation :
ISLAND OF WAKENAM.

NAME OF PLANTATION.	SUGAR.										Value of Property from 1829 to 1832. £
	Crop in 1832.	Crop in 1835.	Crop in 1838.	Crop in 1839.	Crop in 1842.	Crop in 1845.	Crop in 1848.	Crop in 1849.			
Amersfoort	lbs. 380,000	lbs. 416,480	lbs. 319,615	lbs. 225,000	lbs. 100,500	lbs. 156,000	lbs. 78,400	lbs. 24,000	£ 27,640		
Arthurville	525,000	495,000	419,100	265,600	150,000	165,000	233,250	188,667	59,280		
Bank Hall	408,000	356,500	409,500	307,700	223,600	295,455	169,640	102,400	52,380		
Belle Plaine.....	717,000	676,000	575,530	324,017	210,000	208,752	325,600	148,800	77,260		
Caledonia.....	730,000	698,000	622,500	727,400	237,150	358,400	430,500	458,000	63,500		
Concordia.....	266,000	135,200	157,500	134,700	34,000	135,000	119,600	72,000	32,680		
Donburg	150,000	258,000	180,135	91,000	60,000	84,000	150,000	98,000	20,720		
Friendship	800,000	751,000	675,000	442,400	331,650	315,000	421,979	333,300	92,380		
Good Success	352,000	330,000	350,000	237,277	105,500	136,500	203,250	175,500	59,100		
Maria Johanna	468,503	383,858	237,781	350,469	163,493	313,780	163,962	84,800	65,000		
Maria's Pleasure	675,631	713,000	600,000	268,800	247,500	315,000	438,750	260,500	75,680		
Marionville	845,000	480,500	384,350	214,500	106,400	171,000	150,000	281,300	45,500		
Meerzorg	983,000	988,806	595,547	394,800	314,091	314,091	206,900	105,600	104,760		
Moor Farm	Not in Sugar Cultivation.		
Nieuw Bendorf	375,000	323,000	325,500	267,800	79,650	126,428	113,400	384,000	30,140		
Ridge.....	380,000	380,424	320,000	262,500	147,232	193,500	94,400	52,500	42,580		
Sana Souci	400,000	416,000	400,000	217,500	84,000	169,500	236,800	145,500	46,940		
Sarah	495,000	400,000	400,000	155,400	75,250	75,000	169,875	88,200	47,500		
Palmyra	239,800	345,800	310,300	261,950	226,000	283,000	400,000	261,000	42,580		
Zeealandia	651,700	605,435	658,000	655,500	331,700	500,761	354,772	344,873	80,380		
Total.....	9,363,934	9,153,003	7,900,358	5,824,313	3,169,625	3,794,530	4,461,078	3,583,942	1,031,000		

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RETURNS of Produce since 1829, and Values of Estates in this District before Emancipation.
ESSEQUEBO COAST.

NAME OF PLANTATION.	SUGAR.										Value of Property from 1829 to 1832. £
	Crop in 1829.	Crop in 1832.	Crop in 1835.	Crop in 1838.	Crop in 1839.	Crop in 1842.	Crop in 1845.	Crop in 1848.	Crop in 1849.	Crop in 1850.	
Spring Garden	lbs. 350,000	lbs. 205,800	lbs. 270,000	lbs. 371,691	lbs. 211,881	lbs. 196,423	lbs. 225,104	lbs. 193,040	lbs. 195,900	lbs. 195,900	43,120
Good Intent	235,451	212,826	182,000	73,200	112,000	102,300	117,060	110,000	99,140	110,000	29,140
Aurora, Johanna, &c.	593,560	508,600	505,000	466,500	393,000	69,798	240,000	256,810	408,000	408,000	57,200
Hibernia and Fairfield	563,580	297,000	378,000	177,804	144,000	175,500	45,000	80,000	30,900
Vilvoorden	341,852	287,977	389,564	170,443	133,779	97,869	47,207	81,222	46,020
Middlesex	200,000	65,000	64,857	69,283	61,601	Added to Plantation	...	Huis t'Dieren.	28,780
Huis t'Dieren	635,756	382,262	321,818	238,938	229,030	206,673	196,700	289,850	232,660	232,660	72,940
Adventure	190,673	204,840	306,899	149,099	123,495	51,680	101,191	110,169	69,662	69,662	28,980
Onderneeming	347,000	312,578	266,724	124,600	162,850	124,800	126,100	203,000	193,650	193,650	40,600
Batsbas Lust	432,651	495,737	569,679	367,811	377,253	283,000	220,864	...	78,904	78,904	79,740
Zorg	709,500	433,920	550,250	403,200	354,480	421,600	333,250	257,300	227,835	227,835	74,280
Golden Fleece	863,700	703,298	998,326	726,400	599,760	420,000	409,000	480,000	387,000	387,000	113,000
Persverance	413,937	678,989	519,000	310,500	371,058	379,563	282,000	...	230,971	230,971	89,940
Cullen	561,396	450,433	464,640	272,300	...	214,500	181,000	350,000	300,000	300,000	56,440
Abraham's Zull	325,400	357,000	385,000	175,210	164,800	162,000	312,000	208,000	54,000
Annandale	279,800	118,700	410,000	278,600	133,000	160,500	226,500	120,000	96,000	96,000	54,720
Hoffran Aurich	352,000	300,000	370,000	233,250	46,750	135,000	210,000	325,600	156,000	156,000	39,160
Union and Alliance	23,800
Dageraad and Mocha
Westfield and Taymouth Manor	380,000	411,700	315,000	276,200	353,100	282,740	344,000	472,000	467,200	467,200	52,560
Affiance	759,000	650,000	560,000	431,280	317,900	374,200	516,846	289,000	429,000	429,000	80,380
Columbia	710,000	779,350	708,364	355,440	288,251	270,200	216,000	288,000	231,000	231,000	94,880
Aberdeen	360,000	340,000	410,200	363,000	331,080	360,000	297,360	16,400	43,500
Three Friends	364,000	300,000	399,000	319,500	285,000	237,000	231,200	74,200	119,800	119,800	38,541
Land of Plenty	RRS 751	740,000	783,240	548,530	601,200	636,800	482,400	360,150	215,980	215,980	100,360

N.B.—In addition to the above, the Coast of Essequibo produced in—

The year 1829 ... 101,866 lbs. of coffee.	The year 1838 ... 69,085 lbs. of coffee.
Ditto ... 89,798 lbs. of cotton.	Ditto ... 18, 80 lbs. of cotton.
The year 1832 ... 117,437 lbs. of coffee.	The year 1839 ... 141,688 lbs. of coffee.
Ditto ... 51,363 lbs. of cotton.	Ditto ... 6,300 lbs. of cotton.
The year 1835 ... 72,957 lbs. of coffee.	The year 1842 ... 24,777 lbs. of coffee.
Ditto ... 87,219 lbs. of cotton.	Ditto ... " lbs. of cotton.

The year 1845 the coffee and cotton cultivation entirely ceased.

N.B.—The total value of the sugar estates in this district was ... £2,864,661
The total value of the coffee and cotton estates was 176,480

Total..... 3,041,141

AVERAGE Prices of Sugars for the following Years.

YEARS.	Average Price.		Weight of Cask.	Duty.	Gross.		Charges including Duty.		Profits.					
	s.	d.			£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.				
1791.....	67	4	13	12	4	43	15	4	13	10	10	30	4	6
1792.....	69	4	"	"	"	45	1	4	13	10	10	31	10	6
1793.....	70	4	"	"	"	45	14	4	15	16	4	29	18	0
1794.....	54	0	"	15	0	35	2	0	17	11	0	17	11	0
1795.....	77	5	"	"	"	50	2	1	17	17	6	32	4	7
1796.....	77	0	"	"	"	50	1	0	17	17	6	32	3	6
1797.....	81	6	"	17	6	52	19	6	19	16	6	33	3	0
1798.....	86	0	"	19	4	55	18	0	21	0	4	34	17	8
1799.....	75	0	"	20	0	48	15	0	21	15	6	26	19	6
1800.....	74	0	"	"	"	48	2	0	21	15	6	26	6	0
1801.....	64	0	"	"	"	41	12	0	22	2	0	19	10	0
1802.....	54	0	"	"	"	35	7	5	22	2	0	13	5	5
1803.....	67	0	"	24	0	43	11	0	22	2	0	21	9	0
1804.....	80	0	"	26	6	52	2	0	26	6	6	25	15	6
1805.....	76	0	"	27	0	49	8	0	26	19	6	22	8	6
1806.....	68	0	"	"	"	43	14	0	27	6	0	16	8	0
1807.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1808.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1809.....	76	0	12½	"	"	47	3	3	25	9	9	21	13	6
1810.....	77	6	"	"	"	49	12	6	25	6	0	24	6	6
1811.....	67	0	"	"	"	45	5	0	28	2	11	17	2	1
1812.....	77	0	13	"	"	50	10	1	26	16	11	23	13	2
1813.....	92	0	"	"	"	60	19	2	29	10	10	31	8	4
1814.....	99	6	"	30	0	70	12	7	30	15	8	39	16	11
1815.....	99	0	14½	"	"	68	15	2	29	17	11	38	17	3
1816.....	81	0	"	27	0	58	5	8	27	15	6	30	10	2
1817.....	81	6	"	"	"	58	5	6	25	9	6	32	15	0
1818.....	84	9	"	"	"	60	1	11	27	1	4	33	0	7
1819.....	70	0	"	"	"	50	2	10	26	3	9	23	19	1
1820.....	67	6	"	"	"	47	9	11	25	8	11	22	1	0
1821.....	61	9	"	"	"	44	8	2	25	15	10	19	2	4
1822.....	59	6	"	"	"	43	6	8	25	15	7	17	11	1
1823.....	61	0	"	"	"	43	16	3	25	15	6	18	0	9
1824.....	59	0	"	"	"	41	17	11	25	0	7	16	17	4
1825.....	68	0	"	"	"	49	5	7	25	19	2	23	6	5
1826.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1827.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1828.....	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
1829.....	53	0	"	"	"	37	17	7	26	3	1	11	14	6

RETURNS of Produce since 1829, and Values of Estates in these Districts before Emancipation :
HOG ISLAND.

NAME OF PLANTATION.	SUGAR.										Value of Property from 1829 to 1862.
	Crop in 1829.	Crop in 1832.	Crop in 1835.	Crop in 1838.	Crop in 1839.	Crop in 1842.	Crop in 1845.	Crop in 1848.	Crop in 1849.	...	
Eendeavour	lbs. 352,200	lbs. 285,200	lbs. 275,500	lbs. 220,000	lbs. 161,280	lbs. 48,600	lbs. 155,000	lbs. 168,187	lbs. 178,000	...	£ 33,140
Johanna	424,500	350,000	330,000	181,500	138,000	164,500	151,500	94,281	72,900	...	33,800
Hoop and Vries	240,000	157,200	300,000	106,400	139,200	81,200	84,200	108,000	81,252	...	40,680
Ruimzicht	75,300	Abandoned	5,480
Total.....	1,092,000	772,400	905,500	507,900	458,480	294,300	390,700	370,468	332,152	...	119,100
TROOLIE ISLAND.											
New Tyle	174,000	119,700	Abandoned								
TIGER ISLAND.											
Jephienburg ...	280,000	295,500	261,000	161,000	168,400	81,200	112,000	...	127,400	...	35,600
Hamburg	577,250	458,400	444,858	301,900	179,650	218,247	158,000	151,160	148,500	...	90,500
Hoff van Hol-land	383,000	512,500	159,700	198,098	86,400	71,351	190,431	66,289	111,222	...	40,840
Total.....	1,240,250	1,066,400	865,550	660,998	434,430	378,798	370,431	197,440	387,122	...	166,940

The following is a TABLE of EXPORTS from Demerara and Essequibo, from the Year 1803 to 1809.

YEARS.	No. of Vessels.	SUGAR.			RUM.	
		Hhds.	Tierces.	Brls.	Puns.	Hhds.
1803.....	394	19,638	213	161	4887	
1804.....	71	2,161	71	19	504	
1805.....	200	15,839	212	129	3611	17
1806.....	221	19,337	474	804	4722	17
1807.....	198	16,857	138	643	5813	7
1808.....	202	18,383	168	578	6474	11
1809.....	191	17,065	210	286	6412	7

YEARS.	COTTON.	COFFEE.	MOLASSES.		
	Bales.	D. lbs.	Hhds.	Tierces.	Brls.
1803.....	46,435	9,954,610	311		
1804.....	6,318	439,520	311		
1805.....	21,202	2,295,701	1637		
1806.....	23,604	12,390,102	1694		
1807.....	26,314	4,399,141	4255	6	
1808.....	18,361	9,204,718	2544	72	71
1809.....	13,588	2,463,163	1521	19	9

TABLE showing an Account of the principal Staple Articles, the Produce of the Counties of Demerara and Essequibo, in the Colony of British Guiana, exported in each Year (1824 to 1839).

YEARS.	SUGAR.		RUM.		MOLASSES.	
	hhds.	cwts.	pnchs.	gallons.	pnchs.	gallons.
1824.....	47,783	764,528	15,826	1,899,120	24,787	2,726,570
1825.....	48,076	769,216	14,032	1,683,840	24,353	2,678,830
1826.....	44,494	711,904	14,942	1,793,040	21,134	2,324,740
1827.....	58,541	936,656	20,414	2,449,680	26,006	2,860,660
1828.....	56,155	898,480	19,013	2,281,560	27,145	2,985,950
1829.....	59,804	956,864	23,521	2,822,520	21,306	2,343,660
1830.....	58,653	938,448	29,209	3,514,080	19,585	2,154,350
1831.....	55,148	882,368	28,363	3,403,560	25,023	2,752,530
1832.....	51,628	826,018	17,292	2,075,040	35,694	3,926,340
1833.....	54,818	877,088	16,259	1,951,080	40,188	4,420,780
1834.....	47,893	766,288	17,721	2,126,520	31,125	3,423,750
1835.....	55,627	890,032	22,202	2,664,240	24,958	2,745,380
1836.....	55,663	890,608	20,132	2,415,840	33,343	3,667,730
1837.....	51,520	824,320	14,452	1,734,240	27,706	3,047,660
1838.....	42,737	683,792	15,064	1,807,680	22,243	2,446,730
1839.....	30,468	487,488	12,179	1,461,480	10,548	1,160,280

EXPORT of Staple Articles of Produce of Berbice from 1824 to 1839.

YEARS.	SUGAR.		RUM.		MOLASSES.	
	hhds.	cwts.	pnchs.	gallons.	pnchs.	gallons.
1824.....	6,348	101,568	1020	112,200	2590	259,000
1825.....	3,837	61,392	714	78,540	2051	205,100
1826.....	5,100	81,600	1394	153,340	1845	184,500
1827.....	7,397	118,352	2140	235,400	2729	272,900
1828.....	7,294	116,704	3004	330,440	1513	151,300
1829.....	6,635	106,160	3120	343,200	648	64,800
1830.....	9,763	156,208	4517	496,870	1124	112,400
1831.....	9,921	158,736	4938	543,180	2206	220,600
1832.....	11,103	177,648	5047	555,170	4356	435,600
1833.....	8,270	132,320	2241	246,510	4456	445,600
1834.....	6,607	105,712	2189	240,790	2288	228,800
1835.....	10,865	173,840	5311	584,210	2202	220,200
1836.....	14,754	236,064	4904	539,440	4745	474,500
1837.....	10,397	166,352	3508	385,917	3723	372,300
1838.....	11,333	181,336	3777	415,470	3263	326,300
1839.....	8,394	134,312	4087	449,570	1441	144,100

VALUE of Property annually created, and Moveable and Immoveable Property in British Guiana (excluding Slaves).

	£
Money expended in purchasing slaves (in the aggregate) at 120 <i>l.</i> each.....	9,960,000
Sugar, 1,000,000 cwts, at 20 <i>s.</i>	1,000,000
Rum, 4,800,000 galls. at 1 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	360,000
Molasses, 3,000,000 galls. at 10 <i>d.</i>	125,000
Coffee, 4,000,000 lbs. at 7 <i>d.</i>	116,666
Cotton, 3,000,000 lbs. at 7 <i>d.</i>	87,500
Plantains at 4 <i>l.</i> per annum	400,000
Animal food and fish, at 5 <i>l.</i> per annum	500,000
Vegetable food, at 1 <i>l.</i> per annum.....	100,000
Merchandise made	500,000
Income and sundries	600,000
Land cultivated and granted, 2,000,000 acres at 7 <i>l.</i>	14,000,000
Ditto uncultivated, 32,000,000 acres at 2 <i>s.</i> 6 <i>d.</i>	4,000,000
Public property, including wharfs, and forts, barracks, churches, goals, roads (about 250 miles at 600 <i>l.</i> per mile)	
Canals (30 miles of private canals, 12 feet wide by 5 deep, and 200 miles of drains, 2 feet wide by 18 inches deep, being necessary for an estate producing 700 hhds. of sugar	1,000,000
Private property, including dwelling-houses, clothes, plate, furniture	1,500,000
Wharfs, boats, rafts, merchandise, road, canals	3,000,000
Cattle, horses, swine	500,000
Gold and silver coin in circulation	20,000
	£
Total of property annually created.....	3,789,166
Total of moveable and immoveable property...	24,020,000

APPRAISEMENTS of Georgetown at several periods.

In 1789, Stabroek (Georgetown) contained 88 dwelling-houses, exclusive of stores. The only public buildings were houses, with kitchen and storehouse, for the commandant, surgeon-major, sexton, schoolmaster, and storekeeper-general, all requiring repairs. The population then was 238 white inhabitants, 76 free coloured, and 466 slaves; total, 780 persons.

DISTRICTS.	Year 1817.	Year 1820.	Year 1829.	Year 1839.
	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.	dollars.
Kingston	85,233	156,920	169,346	274,255
N. Cumingsburg	306,971	449,236	451,450	732,099
S. Cumingsburg	309,273	503,100	518,113	983,863
Robb's Town	341,600	445,133	356,400	512,369
New Town	162,900	213,466	120,666	247,039
Stabroek	167,226	205,190	142,450	185,064
Werken Rust	252,860	291,238	357,553	318,722
Charlestown	100,533	159,466	138,916	195,024
New Charlestown	98,670
	1,726,596	2,425,744	2,251,894	3,547,105

N.B.—This appraisalment does not include Lacy Town, Freeburg, Newburg and Albert Town. Public buildings, churches, chapels, and public schools are also excluded.

TABLE of Population of Demerara and Essequibo at varying periods.

1820..... } A few Dutch settlers, with a varying population of African slaves.

YEAR.	Slaves.	Free Coloured and Black.	Whites.
	No.	No.	No.
1817.....	77,163	Unknown.	Not recorded.
1820.....	77,376	"	"
1823.....	74,977	"	"
1826.....	71,388	"	"
1829.....	69,467	8360	3006
1832.....	65,517		
1834.....	63,641		

1841:		Creoles of B. Guiana.	Africans.	Creoles of Islands.	Portuguese.	English, Irish, and Scotch.	French, Dutch, and German.	Coolies.	North Americans.	Not stated.
Demerara	{ Georgetown	11,427	1,231	4057	351	906	228	4	105	277
	{ Country	25,810	7,001	2050	1114	533	95	145	26	699
Essequibo		14,177	3,541	2397	734	384	65	53	19	124
Total in Demerara and Essequibo...}		51,414	11,773	8504	2199	1823	388	202	150	1100

TABLE of Population of Berbice at varying periods.

Year 1764.....3476 persons.....namely: 116 whites
 1308 male negroes
 1307 female do.
 745 children.

TOTAL.....3476

ABSTRACT of the Berbice Slave Registration from 1817 to 1825.

YEARS.	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.
1817.....	13,802	10,747	24,549
1819.....	13,327	10,441	23,768
1822.....	12,007	10,349	22,356
1825.....	11,423	10,041	21,464

TOTAL Population of Berbice in 1827..... 21,802

DATE, DISTRICT.	Whites.			Free Coloured.			Slaves.		
	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.
1827:									
N. Amsterdam	130	49	179	324	530	854	695	681	1376
Country.....	289	55	344	130	177	307	10,202	8540	18,742
TOTAL.....	419	104	523	454	707	1161	10,897	9221	20,118

DATE, DISTRICT.	Whites.			Free Coloured and Black.			Slaves.		
	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.	Males.	Fem.	Total.
1833:									
N. Amsterdam	161	95	256	527	779	1306			
Country.....	270	44	314	144	201	345			
TOTAL.....	431	139	570	671	980	1651	10,243	9077	19,390

1841:	Creoles of B. Guiana.	Africans.	Creoles of Islands.	Portuguese.	English, Irish, and Scotch.	French, Dutch, and German.	Coolies.	North American.	Not stated.
Town.....	2,349	324	574	8	152	28	1	6	18
Country.....	11,486	3699	821	112	197	29	140	3	202
TOTAL.....	13,835	4023	1395	120	349	57	141	9	220

A STATEMENT showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sale, in the Counties of Demerary and Essequibo, by the Provost Marshal of British Guiana, from the 31st December, 1838, to the 31st December, 1849.

Date of Sale.	Names of Plantations sold.	In what County situate.	Amount sold for.	Names of Purchasers.	Remarks.
1839.			dollars.		
March 20	Two Brothers	Demerary	9,020	Moses Jacobs	Coffee. Since abandoned.
Oct. 3	Vries en Hoop	"	98,500	John Stewart, M.P.	Sugar.
1840.					
May 20	Batavier	"	1,000	John Mackay	Cattle farm.
Aug. 26	L'Harmonie	"	1,200	R. McLeod	Ditto.
Dec. 15	Two Brothers.....	"	1,036	R. S. Turton and S. Backer	Abandoned.
1841.					
Feb. 10	Le Desir	"	9,000	J. A. Holmes	Coffee. Estate since abandoned.
March 23	Saint Christopher	Essequibo	10,000	Boddaert and Co.	Sugar.
" 31	Haymaroonie	Demerary	200	W. Knoot	Abandoned.
May 4	Mon Bijou	"	6,675	A. C. Newbigging	Coffee. Since abandoned.
" 7	Peter's Hall	"	113,000	J. T. Osborne and T. C. Bagot	Sugar.
" 25	New Bee Hive	"	50,000	T. Daniel and Sons	Ditto.
June 9	Sans Souci.....	"	3,030	Griffith Parry	Coffee. Abandoned.
" 23	Ruinzig	Essequibo	500	W. Henry	Hog Island. Cattle.
Oct. 6	Cullen	"	78,000	Thomas Murray	Sugar.
1842.					
March 23	Diamond.....	Demerary	1,260	W. A. Campbell	
Oct. 11	John and Cove	"	81,500	J. Hopkinson	Sugar.
" 12	Ostend	"	635	H. and W. Howes and Co....	Abandoned.
" 14	Prosperity	"	1,200	Walsley and Co.	Ditto.
Nov. 3	Bushy Park.....	"	120	J. Denovan	Ditto.
" 9	Strathavon.....	"	6,000	J. W. Byar	Sugar. Since abandoned.
Dec. 5	Mon Bijou (Re-sale).....	"	900	Lucy Allcock	
1843.					
Jan. 19	Met. en Meersorg	"	48,050	Garin Fullarton	Sugar.
Feb. 2	Vive la Force.....	"	67,300	Thomas Blake.....	Ditto.

A Statement showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sale, &c.—continued.

Date of Sale.	Names of Plantations sold.	In what County situate.	Amount sold for.	Names of Purchasers.	Remarks.
1843.			dollars		
March	8 Le Desir	Demerary	1,260	Ann Beete	Abandoned.
April	6 Chantilly	"	6,500	W. S. Hamilton and Co.....	Sugar. Since abandoned.
May	23 Industry	"	38,000	Parker and Sandbach.....	Ditto.
"	9 Sophia.....	"	12,100	William Grant.....	Since added to Bel-air.
"	12 Retrievé	Essequibo	22,500	Parker and Sandbach.....	Sugar.
April	27 Belle Plaine	"	15,500	Cruikshank and Co.	Ditto.
"	28 Sans Souci	"	18,500	Walter Napier.....	Ditto.
May	1 Hibernia	"	25,000	H. G. Veitch	Sugar.
"	16 Java	Demerary	4,800	Murray, Brothers, and Co....	Coffee.
June	13 Richt door Gee	"	2,280	S. B. L. Backer	Ditto.
Sept.	14 Philadelphia	Essequibo	2,000	T. Daniel and Sons.....	Sugar.
Oct.	4 Malgré Tout	Demerary	114,000	W. S. Hamilton and Co.....	Ditto.
Nov.	21 Best and Waller's Delight	"	41,000	John Forte	Sugar.
"	23 New Hope	"	2,600	Murray, Brothers, and Co....	Ditto.
1844.					
Jan.	8 De Kinderen	"	2,400	Henry Brand.	
"	8 West Half of Drill.....	"	800	L. E. Heyliger.	
"	8 Mes Délices	"	1,000	J. Frankland.	
"	15 Part of Dantzic.....	"	1,355	J. N. Alstein.	
Feb.	7 Half of Prosperity.....	"	605	Walmsley and Blacklock.	
May	31 Thomas	"	36,000	Cavan, Brothers, and Co. ...	Sugar.
June	5 Ann's Grove	"	3,550	John Croal	Ditto.
Aug.	8 Maryville	Essequibo	18,000	A. Wishart	Ditto.
Nov.	27 Belmont.....	Demerary	12,150	J. and T. Douglas and Co....	Ditto.
1845.					
April	7 Ostend.....	"	565	C. A. Goodman.....	Ditto.
May	5 Walton Hall	Essequibo	8,200	John Kingston.....	Ditto.
"	8 Non Pareil	Demerary	55,500	David Baillie	Ditto.
"	9 Good Hope.....	"	18,100	J. and T. A. Douglas.....	Ditto.

A Statement showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sale, &c.—continued.

Date of Sale.	Names of Plantations sold	In what County situate.	Amount sold for.	Names of Purchasers.	Remarks.
1845.			dollars.		
June	9 Sans Souci	Demerary	300	George Tighe.	
"	16 Haslington	"	1,750	Henry Brand.	
Aug.	4 Unity	"	500	Colony B. Guiana.	
"	11 Caledonia	"	520	John Lane.	
Sept.	8 East Half of Perseverance	"	230	James Gordon.	
"	29 Undivided Half of Union	"	365	Henry Brand.	
"	29 Dantzic and West Half of Con- tent.....	"	380	George Chapman.	
Oct.	13 Jacoba's Lust.....	"	1,340	James Forbes.	
"	13 La Jalousie	"	50	John Kennedy.	
Dec.	8 Woodlands	"	125	J. F. Bee.	
"	8 Rebecca's Lust	"	406	J. C. Inniss.	
"	15 Fellowship	"	5,750	W. Davison.....	Sugar.
1846.					
Jan.	12 West Half of Bordeaux	"	33	Colony B. Guiana.	
"	12 L'Espérance	"	80	Ann Parry.	
Feb.	16 L'Amitié	"	400	H. E. F. Young and D. Blair	
March	9 Sarah Johannah	"	650	Alex. Smith.	
30	Genève	"	402	J. T. Hyne.	
April	13 East Half of Idroni.....	Essequibo	60	A. Marshall.	
May	11 Retreat.....	Demerary	1,010	George Booker.	
June	9 Kitty	"	14,100	Daniel Blair.....	Sugar.
"	15 Waterloo	"	100	James Forbes.	
Aug.	31 Nismes	"	25,000	J. Campbell, sen., and Co....	Ditto.
Nov.	2 Belfield	"	2,000	A. T. Hubbard.	
"	2 Vauxhall and Westminster.....	"	5,000	C. Liebau and G. F. Rockett	Coffee.
"	30 Neufchatel	"	51	James Forbes.	
Dec.	21 Vryheid's Lust and Sheet An- chor.....	"	32,500	W. R. Sandbach	Sugar.

A Statement showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sale, &c.—continued.

Date of Sale.	Names of Plantations sold.	In what County situate.	Amount sold for.	Names of Purchasers.	Remarks.
1847.			dollars.		
Jan. 4	De Hope.....	Essequibo	100	L. Brunninghausen.	
March 3	Den Amstel.....	Demerary	10,150	William Lyng.....	Coffee. Since aband. - Negro village.
" 15	Felicity.....	"	50	J. F. Bee.	
April 26	East Half of Strangroen.....	"	245	James Forbes.	
" 26	Beividere.....	"	265	Alexander Duff.	
" 26	Manilla.....	"	295	Alexander Duff.	
Nov. 3	Peter's Hall (re-sale).....	"	26,500	H. D. Baillie, J. E. Baillie, and G. H. Ames.....	Sugar.
1848.					
Jan. 26	La Bonne Intention.....	"	30,200	Alex. McLaren.....	Ditto.
Feb. 21	Bounty Hall and Success.....	"	101	C. Lamertz.	Ditto.
March 27	Malgré Tout (re-sale).....	"	13,000	C. R. Croal and J. H. Reis...	Ditto.
" 28	Vrouw Anna (re-sale).....	Essequibo	5,000	J. Campbell, sen., and Co.....	Ditto.
June 19	Letter T.....	Demerary	1,000	John Croal.....	Cattle farm.
" 19	Abary.....	"	151	John Croal.	
" 19	Catherine.....	"	380	Peter Rogers and Peggy Rogers.	
Aug. 1	Cuming's Lodge.....	"	16,100	Bosanquet and Nughten.....	Sugar. Since abandoned.
" 21	Ann's Grove.....	"	7,000	John Croal.	
" 21	Sans Souci.....	"	400	King Bristol and Peggy Rogers.	
" 21	De Kinderen.....	"	20	James Forbes.	
Oct. 4	De Grootte Diamant, or Great Diamond.....	"	9,050	M. Steele and G. H. Loxdale	Sugar.
" 16	Belmont.....	"	500	H. J. Luyken.	
Nov. 13	Haag's Bosch.....	"	8,100	British Guiana Bank.....	Coffee.
" 20	North Half of Supply.....	"	130	J. F. Bee.	
1849.					
Jan. 2	Beau Voisin.....	"	2,000	C. T. Visser.	

A Statement showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sale, &c.—continued.

Date of Sale.	Names of Plantations sold.	In what County situate.	Amount sold for.	Names of Purchasers.	Remarks.
1849.			dollars.		
Jan. 15	Broek en Waterland.....	Demerary	200	A. T. Hubbard.	Sugar.
Feb. 12	Montrose	"	9,300	J. Ewing and H. E. Crum...	Ditto.
" 12	Felcity	"	5,000	J. Ewing and H. E. Crum...	Ditto.
March 9	Amerstort	Essequebo	9,000	John Ross.....	Ditto.
" 20	Vive la Force.....	Demerary	3,000	T. Blake	Sugar.
April 30	Eccles	"	12,750	British Guiana Bank.....	Coffee.
" 30	Henry	"	3,410	British Guiana Bank.....	Sugar.
" 30	Profit	"	10,220	Josias Booker.....	Ditto.
May 4	Greenfield	"	6,000	Robert Hick.....	Since abandoned.
" 22	Golden Grove.....	"	2,500	J. B. Horsfall	Sugar.
June 4	Nabaclis	"	1,000	Thomas Daniel and Sons.	
" 4	Nooten Gnyl	"	2,550	Thomas Daniel and Sons.	
" 4	Catherina	"	500	S. Le Blanc.	
" 4	Chantilly	"	1,415	William Bruton	Ditto.
" 6	Richmond Hill and Cheltenham	Essequebo	4,600	T. C. Fitzgerald.....	Sugar.
July 17	Vilvoorden	"	1,650	W. Canzius	Ditto.
" 30	Nieu Osterbeck	"	1,900	R. M. Jones	Ditto.
" 31	Windsor Forest.....	Demerary	9,900	James Cook	Ditto.
Aug. 2	Le Grange	"	9,500	James Cook	Ditto.
" 3	Good Intent	"	800	R. Henderson	Since abandoned.
" 4	Clonbrook	"	10,235	H. Clementson	Ditto.
Sept. 1	Garden of Eden.....	"	5,000	C. A. Fleming.....	Ditto.
Oct. 3	One-third of Batsbea's Lust....	Essequebo	1,500	W. O. Canzius.....	Ditto.
" 16	Aberdeen	"	2,500	R. M. Jones.....	Ditto.
" 16	Better Success	"	1,501	British Guiana Bank.....	Ditto.
" 30	Mary Ville.....	"	6,750	Samuel F. Nurse.....	Ditto.
Dec. 17	Balfield	Demerary	3,000	Maryanne Allt.....	Cattle farm.

W. H. HOLMES, Provost Marshal, British Guiana.

STATEMENT showing the Number of Plantations now under Sequestration, December 31, 1849.

When placed under Sequestration.	Names of Plantations.	In what County situate.	Cultivation.	Names of Proprietors.	Names of Sequestrators.
1849.					
March 8	Undivided Two-thirds of Batseba's Lust.....	Essequibo	Sugar	Robert Ridley and W. O. Canzius.
Feb. 9	Maria Johanna	"	"	A. Pearson	W. O. Canzius and Samuel Bean.
" 9	Henrietta	"	"	Adm. General and J. McKenzie.
March 27	St. Christopher.....	"	"	W. O. Canzius and James Stuart.
" 10	Hoop on Vries	Demerary	"	J. and W. Alexander.....	John Mackenzie and Thomas Clarke.
April 2	Success	Essequibo	"	J. T. White.....	James Stuart and J. T. White.
" 7	Mainstay	"	"	J. T. White.....	Donald McIntosh and J. T. White.
" 13	Richmond	"	"	Donald McIntosh and S. Bean.
" 28	Sophienburg	"	"	Colin Simson and Alexander Glen.
May 5	Lowlands	Demerary	"	James Stuart and Thomas Porter.
" 5	Dochfour	"	"	James Stuart and Thomas Porter.
" 14	Vreedestein	"	"	Peter Rose and James Stuart.
" 16	Farm	"	"	R. M. Jones and W. O. Canzius.
" 21	Hibernia	Essequibo	Abandoned	Alexander Duff and C. Seward.
July 11	Walton Hall	"	Sugar	W. Davison and J. W. Thompson.
" 27	Friendship.....	Demerary	Abandoned	A. E. Luthers and R. Henderson.
" 1844.					
October 21	Johanna.....	"	Sugar.	W. H. HOLMES, P. M.

THE following ESTATES in BEEBICE, belonging to the Estate of Laing, Brothers, and Co., as represented by the Administrator-General of Berbice, to be sold in September, 1850.

Friends and Invltg, situate on the East Bank of the River Berbice, Sugar Cultivation.

- Mara " "
- Smythfield " West Bank of the Canje Creek
- Ma Retraite " East Bank of the River Berbice
- Schepmoed " " Plantain.
- " " W. H. HOLMES, Provost Marshal, British Guiana.

STATEMENT showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sales in the County of Berbice, by the Provost Marshal of British Guiana, from the 31st Dec., 1838, to the 31st Dec., 1849.

Name of Plantation.	Nature of Cultivation.	Where Situate.	Date of Sale.	Purchaser.	Amount.
Plantation Enfield	Sugar	East Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	1842.—2 Mar.	George Laing and James Laing, trading under the firm of Laing, Brothers, and Co.	Dollars. 8,200
Plantation Port Mourant.....	Sugar	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	28 "	M. von Rader.....	32,000
J. L. Hintzen's undivided one-fifth in and to Plantation La Fraternité	Coffee	West Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	26 Sep.	S. A. Westerly and Co.....	1,910
Plantation Sandvoort	Coffee	West Bank River, Canje, county of Berbice	1843—11 Oct.	Robert Semple	7,000
Plantation Dankbaarheid and Ruimzigt	Coffee	West Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	1845—29 May	The Hon. Wm. Fraser, Claud Neilson, Boyd Alexander, and Joseph Simpson	2,600
The undivided half of Plantation Ma Retraite, comprising the lots formerly known as Plantations Dulcamara, Vriendschap, and Zorg met Vergenoegeen, containing 1250 acres of land	Sugar	East Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	30 "	George Laing and James Laing, carrying on business under the firm of Laing, Brothers, and Company	10,100
Plantation Schepmoed	Coffee	Ditto	31 "	Ditto	2,450
Walter Murray's one-fourth part or share in and to Plantation Snythfield	Sugar	West Bank, Canje Creek, county of Berbice	1 Dec.	Ditto	100
Plantation Profit	Sugar	West Sea Coast, county of Berbice	4 "	Daniel and Sons	5,100
Plantation Nieuw Hoop, containing 500 acres of land	Coffee	West Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	1846—3 Aug.	Nicholas Adian Nannings	300
J. Timmers' one undivided half of the Coffee Plantation Bestendighheid, containing 500 acres	Coffee	Ditto	4 "	Edwardus Ludovicus van Voorst Tot Voorst	850
William Kewley's undivided half of the Sugar Plantation Mary's Hope, consisting of lots Nos. 47, 48, & 49	Sugar	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	10 "	The Estate of Joseph Bush.....	1,205

STATEMENT showing the Number of Plantations sold at Execution Sales in the County of Berbice, &c.—continued.

Name of Plantation.	Nature of Cultivation.	Where Situate.	Date of Sale.	Purchaser.	Amount.
Robert Tait's undivided half of the Sugar Plantation Mary's Hope, consisting of lots Nos. 47, 48, and 49	Sugar	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	10 Aug.	The Estate of Joseph Bush.	Dollars. 1,805
De Liefde and Zuid Holland, containing 1250 acres of land	Sugar	West Bank of River Berbice, county of Berbice	9 Sept.	The Estate of Thomas Edgelow	3,500
Plantation Albion and Nigg, being lots Nos. 5 and 6, containing 500 acres of land each	Coffee	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	1847—7 June	James Cavan, John Torrance, and Michael McChery, trading under the firm of Cavan, Brothers, and Co. of London	1,000
Plantation de Kinderen, containing 500 acres of land	Coffee	East Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	7 "	Edward Hicks and John Peter van Rossum	100
William Kewley's undivided half of Plantation Mary's Hope, consisting of lots Nos. 47, 48, and 49	Sugar	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	14 "	John Junor	1,200
Robert Tait's undivided half of Plantation Mary's Hope, consisting of lots Nos. 47, 48, and 49	Sugar	Ditto	14 "	Ditto	3,050
Plantation of De Liefde and Zuid Holland	Coffee	West Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	14 "	George Allanson McKidd.	530
Plantation Old and New Standvastighheid	Sugar	Ditto	14 Dec.	Thomas Williams.	6,850
Plantation Hampshire and Williamsburg	Sugar	Correntyne Coast of the county of Berbice	15 "	James Cavan, John Torrance, and Michael McChery, of London	1,000
J. Timmers' undivided half of the Plantation Bestendighheid	Coffee	West Bank River, Berbice, county of Berbice	1848—2 Feb.	Matthias Joseph Timmers	100
Plantation La Fraternité	Coffee	Ditto	26 June	Constant E. von Gorr and Abraham de Vries	2,205
Plantation Anna Clementia	Coffee	Ditto	3 July	Alexander Morrison	1,000
The undivided half of Plantation Bestendighheid	Coffee	Ditto	4 Dec.	Matthias Joseph Timmers	280

W. H. HOLMES, Provost Marshal, British Guiana.

STATEMENT of Plantations which were placed under Sequestration from 1st March, 1845, to 23rd January, 1849, whereof the Administrator-General, *ex-officio*, was Co-Sequestrator.

No.	Name of Estate.	Date of Appointment.	Name of Creditor Sequestrator.	Nature of Cultivation.	Date of Sale.	Price of Sale.	Name of Purchaser.	Loss during Sequestration.	Gain during Sequestration.	Remarks.
						Dols.		Dols. Cents	Dols. Cents	
1	Kitty	1845 17 April	E. A. Manget, T. M. Manget	Sugar	1846 9 June	14,100	Daniel Blair, mortgagee	5,864 28		
2	Vauxhall and Westminster	3 June	Adam Vyfhuis	Plantains and Coffee	2 Nov.	5,000	C. Sieban and G. F. Procter	1,777 47		
3	Nismes	26 June	Alexander Macrae	Sugar	31 Aug.	25,000	Jno. Campbell, senior, and Co.	...	2,208 07	
4	Vryheid's Lust & 28 Sheet Anchor	28 June	P. M. Watson	"	21 Dec.	32,500	W. R. Sandbach, mortgagee	11,884 29		
5	Mes Dédices	1846 14 Jan.	James Inniss	Abandoned			Not yet sold			
6	Two Brothers	14 Jan.	James Inniss	"			Not yet sold			
7	La Bonne Intention	28 Feb.	P. M. Watson, subsequently A. Duff	Sugar	1848 26 Jan.	30,200	Alexander McLaren ..	23,709 44		
8	Cumming's Lodge...	9 June	Thos. Kirkpatrick	"	1 Aug.	16,100	A. H. Bosanquet and T. Naghten, mortgagees	25,015 92		
9	Great Diamond ...	1847 14 Aug.	Matthew Steele	"	4 Oct.	9,050	M. Steele and G. H. Loxdale, mortgagees	10,635 85		
10	Haag's Bosche	18 Sept.	John Jones	Plantains and Coffee	13 Nov.	8,400	British Guiana Bank .	5,412 57		
11	Beau Voisin	10 Nov.	George Tighe	"	1849 2 Jan.	2,000	C. T. Viser	661 69		
12	Montrose	28 Dec.	P. M. Watson	Sugar	12 Feb.	9,300	James Ewing and Co., mortgagees	3,743 26		
13	Felicity	28 Dec.	P. M. Watson	"	12 Feb.	5,000	Ditto	5,869 51	
14	Amersfort	1848 8 Jan.	John Ross	"	9 Mar.	9,000	John Ross	52 35	
15	Vive la Force ...	11 Jan.	Griffin Bascome	"	10 Mar.	3,000	Thomas Blake	1,844 01		

STATEMENT of Plantations which were placed under Sequestration, &c. — continued.

No.	Name of Estate.	Date of Appointment.	Name of Creditor Sequestrator.	Nature of Cultivation.	Date of Sale.	Price of Sale.	Name of Purchaser.	Loss during Sequestration.	Gain during Sequestration.	Remarks.
						Dols.		Dols. Cents	Dols. Cents	
16	Golden Grove.....	1848 9 Feb.	James Stuart.....	Sugar	1849 22 May	2,500	T. R. Horsfall	1,490 38		
17	Eccles	2 Mar.	Adam Vyfhuis	"	30 April	12,750	British Guiana Bank	2,177 05		
18	Profit	21 Mar.	J. Alexander, subse- quently R. Hick	"	30 April	1,320	Josias Booker.....	609 22		
19	Greenfield	21 Mar.	Ditto	"	4 May	6,000	Robert Hick	1,848 62		
20	Henry	21 Mar.	J. Jones, subsequently A. E. Luther	Plantains and Coffee	30 April	3,410	British Guiana Bank	2,111 05		
21	Chantilly	8 April	Griffin Bascome	Sugar	4 June	1,415	W. Bristow	13	
22	Richmond Hill	29 April	C. Simson	"	6 June	4,600	T. C. Fitzgerald	1,500 18	
23	Good Intent	22 May	Griffin Bascome	"	3 Aug.	800	R. Henderson.....	43 09		
24	Nouvelle Flandre	27 May	P. Rose, subsequently J. Lane	"			Not yet sold		
25	La Grange	22 June	M. Steele, ditto H. S. Bascome	"	2 Aug.	9,500	Jas. Cook, mortgagee	3,093 38		Balance to 31st Dec., 1849.
26	Windsor Forest....	22 June	Ditto J. Stuart, subse- quently H. S. Bas- come	"	2 Aug.	9,900	Jas. Cook, ditto.....	6,027 33		
27	Clonbrock	6 July	T. Porter, subse- quently A. Schroeder	"	4 Sept.	10,234	H. Clementson	3,000 00		
28	Garden of Eden....	8 Aug.	J. Jones, subsequently J. C. Schade	"	1 Oct.	5,000	C. A. Fleming	3,500 00		
29	Aberdeen	8 Aug.	R. M. Jones.....	"	4 Oct.	2,500	R. M. Jones	2,500 00		
30	Batebs's Lust	8 Aug.	W. O. Cauzius	"	3 Oct.	1,500	W. O. Cauzius	1,500 00		
31	Better Success	23 Aug.	W. B. Pollard	"	5 Oct.	1,501	British Guiana Bank	1,500 00		
32	Maryville	4 Sept.	John M'Kenzie	"	30 Oct.	6,750	S. F. Nurse		
33	Henrietta	14 Dec. 1849	John M'Kenzie	"	"		Not yet sold	1,978	3,500 00	Balance as on 31st Dec., 1849.
34	Zeeburg	12 Jan.	J. Dardier, subse- quently J. H. Haley	"	"		Not yet sold	77 97	
							Total.....	192,926 90	14,344 13	

JOHN KENNEDY, Ad administrator-General of Demerary and Essequibo.

LIST of PLANTATIONS that have been under the sole Administration of the Administrator-General of Demerary and Essequibo, under appointment from the Supreme Court of Civil Justice, showing the Gain or Loss from 1st March, 1845, to 31st December, 1849.

Name of Estate.	Date of Appointment.	Name of Creditor Sequestrator.	Nature of Cultivation.	Date of Sale.	Price of Sale.	Name of Purchaser.	Loss during Sequestration.	Gain during Sequestration.
					dollars.		dols. cents.	dols. cents.
Vergenoegen.....	1845. 1 May	None	Sugar	Not yet sold	7,632 64	..
Noortgedacht	1 May	None	Coffee	Not yet sold	1,465 55	'..
						TOTAL.....	9,098 19	

SUPPLEMENTARY STATEMENT to the foregoing, containing the following further particulars :—

Name of Estate.	No. of Acres in Cultivation.	Hhds. of Sugar.	Gallons of Rum.	Gallons of Molasses.	Lbs. of Coffee.	Plantains.	Starch.	Remarks.
						dols. cts.		
Kitty.....	243	76	4,027	7,247				
Vauxhall and Westminster	217½	27,048	1516 83		
Nismes	247	252	4,762	21,316	..			
Vryheid's Lust and Sheet Anchor... Abandoned.	270	178	3,302	4,450	..	391 16		
Two Brothers	"	263	14,952	23,094	..	200 18		
La Bonne Intention	218	459	34,025	20,044½	..			
Cuming's Lodge	215	232	12,118	11,742	..	1132 72		
Great Diamond	461	15,597	26,841 brls.	1200 lbs.	106 48—Fruits.
Huag's Boesche.....	150	4,667			
Bean Volsin.....								

Supplementary Statement to the foregoing, &c.—continued.

Name of Estate.	No. of Acres in Cultivation.	Hhds. of Sugar.	Gallons of Rum.	Gallons of Molasses.	Lbs. of Coffee.	Plantains.	Starch.	Remarks.
Montrose	232	205	10,482	22,846		barrels.		
Felicity	177	289	1,850	26,284				
Amersfort.	89	89	1,470	5,260				
Vive la Force	132	111	9,016					
Golden Grove	146	73	1,180	5,548				
Eccles	61	20	1,400	866				
Profit	55	32	2,294	1,705				
Greenfield	120	67	1,514	6,895				
Henry	134	2,985			
Chantilly	91	14	...	1,391				
Richmond Hill	130	107	1,959	8,917				
Good Intent	60	44	1,323	4,056				
Nouvelle Flandre	137	251	11,277	27,002				
La Grange	173	202	15,885	1,662				
Windsor Forest	233	163	18,717	...				
Clonbrock	144	78	4,165	6,937				
Garden of Eden	112	101	4,568	3,465				
Aberdeen	100	74	1,782	5,280				
1-3rd Batscha's Lust	194	32	2,730	713				
Better Success	100	64	...	6,764				
Maryville	108	146	3,923	10,395				
Henrietta	110	79	440	5,720				
Zeeburg	94	130	922	11,199				
Vergenoegen	128	176	...	14,505				
Noorgedacht	150	15,000		...	From 1st January, 1849 to 1st January, 1850.
TOTAL.....	5483½	4013	170,033	267,213½	63,297	

JOHN KENNEDY, Administrator-General of Demerary and Essequibo.

RETURN of the Number of Location of Medical Practitioners in the Colony, and of the District and Population falling under their respective attendance.

District.	Residence.	Name.	Number of Estates.*	Number of Villages and Hamlets.	Population of Villages, Hamlets, and Estates.	Length and Breadth of District.	Remarks.
Arabian Coast...	Three Friends ...	Mr. Mushett ...	45	30	14,398	32 miles, extending back about 5 miles.	
	Hoff Van Aurich ...	Dr. Fraser ...					
	Huis t'Dieren ...	Mr. Stack ...					
Islands in the Essequibo, and adjoining ...	Wakanaam ...	Dr. Fairman ...	20	9	...	17 miles by 2 miles broad.	
	Wakanaam ...	Mr. Croal ...					
	Leguan ...	Dr. Broughton..					
	Tiger, Hog, &c.					
Demerara, West Coast ...	Anna Catharina ..	Dr. Bonyunt ...	19	6	6,243	25 miles by 5 miles deep.	
	Jalousie	Mr. Spence					
	La Retraite	Dr. M'Farlane					
Demerara, East Bank of River	Peter's Hall	Mr. M'Aulay	21	13	8,515	About 16 miles.	1927 people in detached freeholds and at foot of Falls.
	Felicity	Mr. Scott					
Demerara, East Coast	Enterprise	Mr. Edmunds	48	16†	23,516	About 35 miles in length, varying much in breadth.	Many populous villages and hamlets.
	Mahaica	Mr. Miller					
	Mahaicony	Mr. M'William					

* Of the estates many are abandoned and are only scantily populated.
 † Besides 26 detached freeholds.
 ‡ Engaged in the duties of magistrate also.

RETURN of the Number and Location of Medical Practitioners in the Colony, &c.—*continued.*

District.	Residence.	Name.	Number of Estates.*	Number of Villages and Hamlets.	Population of Villages, Hamlets, and Estates.	Length and Breadth of District.	Remarks.
Berlice Coast ... }	Hope Town..... Fort Wellington	Mr. Pollard..... Mr. Fox.....	19	9	4,474	26 miles.	Medical men situate close together in centre of districts. Roads and approaches very bad, sometimes impassable.
Berlice River, West Bank.....	17	10	3,772	18½ miles.	No medical attendance. Where inhabitants chiefly abound.— Intermediate space not included.
Berlice River, East Bank.....	Sister's Village..... Mara.....	Mr. McKenzie..... Mr. Levin.....	20	9	4,206	{ 10 miles. 9 miles.	
Canje Creek and adjoining.....	Dr. Altham.....	17	21	5,687	10 miles.	
Corentyne Coast {	Port Mourant..... Albion.....	Mr. Wallace..... Mr. Pietzzer.....	3	11	3,545	11 miles from New Amsterdam, but 40 miles of coast.	Numerous villages without medical aid.
Corentyne River.....	Skeldon.....	Dr. Van Holst.....	2	1	686	3 miles.	
Essequibo, Bartica, and Settlement in Massaroony.....	Penal Settlement.....	Dr. Ringer.....	716	18 miles.	Medical officer confined to settlement.
Pomeroon.....	Many.	4,513	40 miles to where villages end.	No medical attendance.
Total.....	23	288	163	101,408	338 miles in length, varying in breadth.	

* Of the estates many are abandoned and only scantily populated.

RETURN, showing the Number of Medical Men in Georgetown and New Amsterdam, and the Population dependent upon them for aid.

Town.	Name.	Population.	Area.
Georgetown	Dr. Blair	25,508	998 acres, Rhymland.
	Dr. Hutson		
	Dr. Dalton		
	Dr. Johnstone		
	Dr. Manget *		
	Mr. Clifton		
	Mr. Forte		
	Mr. Houston.....		
	Mr. Hutson		
	Mr. Bailey.....		
New Amsterdam ...	Dr. Driesen	4,633	300 acres, Rhymland.
	Dr. Hackett		
	Dr. Cameron		
	Dr. Cramer		
Dr. Koch			
Total.....	15 †	30,141	

* Absent.

† Several of these gentlemen attend estates.

The total Population in the County of Berbice is	27,003
" " " Essequebo	24,925
" " " Demerara	79,627
" " " Total in British Guiana.....	131,555

ABSTRACT of the Census of the Population of the Colony of British Guiana, as taken on the 31st of March, 1851, in conformity with the Provisions of Ordinance No. 5, of the same Year, enacted by his Excellency Henry Barkly, Esq., Governor, and the Honourable the Court of Policy of said Colony.

TOTAL NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.

	Under 5 Years.		5 to 15 Years.		15 to 30 Years.	
	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.
Demerary	2417	2562	4,398	4,010	8,072	6,744
Essequebo	1511	1491	2,797	2,430	3,989	3,124
Berbice	1382	1350	2,656	2,190	3,255	2,888
Total rural population.....	5310	5403	9,851	8,630	15,316	12,756
Georgetown	1437	1603	2,696	3,192	3,859	4,104
New Amsterdam	266	247	465	633	751	670
Total urban population	1703	1850	3,161	3,825	4,610	4,774
Total population of British Guiana	7013	7253	13,012	12,455	19,926	17,530

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

TOTAL NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.

	30 to 50 Years.		Over 50 Years.		TOTAL.
	Male.	Fem.	Male.	Fem.	
Demerary	8,651	6,076	3828	3501	50,259
Essequebo	4,256	3,060	1097	1170	24,925
Berbice	3,357	2,768	1324	1200	22,370
Total rural population	16,264	11,904	6249	5871	97,554
Georgetown	3,073	3,212	966	1366	25,508
New Amsterdam	594	605	170	232	4,633
Total urban population	3,667	3,817	1136	1598	30,141
Total population of British Guiana	19,931	15,721	7385	7469	127,695

RACE.

	European.	Mixed.	African.	East Indian.	Aborigines.	TOTAL.
Demerary	5,121	3,796	37,383	3401	558	50,259
Essequebo	1,758	1,845	18,548	2332	442	24,925
Berbice	450	707	19,300	913	1000	22,370
Total rural population	7,329	6,348	75,231	6646	2000	97,554
Georgetown	3,730	6,774	14,133	871	...	25,508
New Amsterdam	499	1,632	2,346	153	3	4,633
Total urban population	4,229	8,406	16,479	1024	3	30,141
Total population of British Guiana	11,558	14,754	91,710	7670	2003	127,695

The number of aborigines returned in the above table, includes only those who are located in or near to the cultivated portions of the colony. The postholder of Pomeroy has returned the number in his district, as per Table annexed; but in consequence of the wandering habits of the Indians, and the difficulty in reaching them, no exact account has been attempted elsewhere of the different tribes throughout the province.

To the numbers now given, at least 3000 must be added to represent those who are scattered among the tributaries of the upper Essequebo and Corentyne rivers. Of the total number (9000), it is probable that about one-third derive religious instruction at the various missions carried on by the Church of England at Kiblerie on the Mahaicony creek, at Bartica Grove on the Essequebo, at Cabacaboerie on the Pomeroy, and at Waramoerie on the Morocco; by the Roman Catholics at St. Rose, on the same creek; and by the Church of Scotland at Indiana, on the Supenaam.

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

TABLE showing the Aboriginal Inhabitants of District No. 6, extending from the Tapacooma Lake to Point Bareema.

TRIBES.	Pomeroon and Tributaries.					Morocco and Tributaries.				
	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Warrows	22	18	15	12	67	174	182	129	117	602
Carrabese	74	87	60	58	279	30	38	30	26	124
Accawaays	17	22	16	19	74	7	5	4	7	23
Arrawaaks	146	178	126	99	549	54	48	33	46	181
Spanish Arrawaaks	2	2	3	1	8	61	71	49	50	231
TOTAL.....	261	307	220	189	977	326	344	245	246	1161

TRIBES.	Winee and Tributaries.					Bareema and Tributaries.					TOTALS.
	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	
Warrows	142	138	86	90	456	248	255	136	132	771	1896
Carrabese	103	139	92	95	429	832
Accawaays	49	49	34	35	167	10	13	12	16	51	315
Arrawaaks	10	12	9	9	40	9	9	5	6	29	799
Spanish Arrawaaks	21	21	24	13	79	318
TOTAL.....	325	359	245	242	1171	267	277	153	154	851	4160

NATIVE COUNTRY.

	County of Demerary.				County of Essequibo.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana	11,003	11,150	5738	5760	4067	4630	3613	3466
Natives of Barbados	1,008	646	128	119	459	249	44	42
Natives of other West India Islands	715	409	54	50	577	477	10	13
African Immigrants	1,289	631	209	117	1010	597	280	148
Old Africans	1,507	1,418	666	667
Madeiraans	2,145	1,410	474	392	611	376	163	151
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, & Americans	404	62	5	3	210	43	12	4
Coolies from Madras	1,398	400	146	105	210	62	20	9
Coolies from Calcutta	1,082	195	61	26	1539	255	150	87
Not stated	7	1
TOTAL.....	20,551	16,321	6815	6572	9356	7357	4292	3920

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

NATIVE COUNTRY.								
	County of Berbice.				Total Rural Population.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana	4404	4869	3637	3366	19,474	20,649	12,988	12,592
Natives of Barbados	199	97	17	11	1,666	992	189	172
Natives of other West India Islands	149	59	7	2	1,441	945	71	65
African Immigrants	1433	777	292	104	3,732	2,005	781	369
Old Africans	840	808	3,013	2,893		
Madeirans	153	61	19	11	2,909	1,847	656	554
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, & Americans	117	22	2	1	731	127	19	8
Coolies from Madras	339	116	42	37	1,947	578	208	151
Coolies from Calcutta	302	47	22	8	2,923	497	233	121
Not stated	7	1		
TOTAL.....	7936	6856	4038	3540	37,843	30,534	15,145	14,032
	City of Georgetown.				Town of New Amsterdam.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana	3634	5709	3675	4375	787	1089	666	813
Natives of Barbados	866	682	95	100	70	68	14	11
Natives of other West India Islands	722	683	63	60	143	142	6	12
African Immigrants	88	55	8	8	81	26	8	7
Old Africans	488	518	88	83		
Madeirans	894	595	157	137	94	48	16	21
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, & Americans	686	256	47	36	140	27	7	4
Coolies from Madras	395	138	60	68	81	21	11	7
Coolies from Calcutta	125	46	28	11	26	3	1	3
Not stated	5	...	2	2
TOTAL.....	7898	8682	4133	4795	1515	1507	731	880
	TOTAL Urban Population.				TOTAL Population of British Guiana.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana.....	4421	6798	4341	5188	23,895	27,447	17,329	17,780
Natives of Barbados	936	750	109	111	2,602	1,742	298	283
Natives of other West India Islands	865	825	69	72	2,306	1,770	140	137
African Immigrants	169	81	16	15	3,901	2,086	797	384
Old Africans	576	601	3,589	3,494		
Madeirans	988	643	173	158	3,897	2,490	829	712
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, & Americans	826	283	54	40	1,557	410	73	48
Coolies from Madras	476	159	71	75	2,423	737	279	226
Coolies from Calcutta	151	49	29	14	3,074	546	262	135
Not stated	5	...	2	2	12	1	2	2
TOTAL.....	9413	10,189	4864	5675	47,256	40,723	20,009	19,707

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

NATIVE COUNTRY.—GRAND TOTAL.

Natives of British Guiana	86,451
Natives of Barbados	4,925
Natives of other West India Islands	4,353
African Immigrants	7,168
Old Africans	7,083
Madeirans	7,928
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, and Americans	2,088
Coolies from Madras... ..	3,665
Coolies from Calcutta	4,017
Not stated	17
TOTAL	127,695

PROFESSION, TRADE, OR CALLING.

	Public Officers.	Professional Men.	Merchants and Shopkeepers.	Clerks.	Agriculturists.	Agricultural Labourers.	Other Labourers.
Demerary	26	48	426	180	432	29,024	3,807
Essequibo	66	20	258	30	163	12,948	963
Berbice	1	32	110	8	174	11,760	270
Total rural districts	93	100	794	218	769	53,732	5,040
Georgetown	196	49	498	408	79	2,467	4,741
New Amsterdam ...	17	38	84	63	15	306	347
Total in towns ...	213	87	582	471	94	2,773	5,088
Total population of British Guiana ...	306	187	1376	689	863	56,505	10,128

	Mechanics and Artisans.	Domestic Servants.	Boatmen and Mariners.	Others variously employed.	No occupation, or none stated, including the ladies of the upper class.	Children not employed, being of tender age.	TOTAL.
Demerary	1696	1472	640	5,454	3,273	3,781	50,259
Essequibo	1067	860	135	495	2,232	5,688	24,925
Berbice	744	503	47	392	2,350	5,979	22,370
Total rural districts	3507	2835	822	6,341	7,855	15,448	97,554
Georgetown	2063	2067	446	4,011	3,404	5,079	25,508
New Amsterdam ...	417	645	137	570	1,004	990	4,633
Total in towns ...	2480	2712	583	4,581	4,408	6,069	30,141
Total population of British Guiana ...	5987	5547	1405	10,922	12,263	21,517	127,695

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued*.

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

	Church of England.	Church of Scotland.	Roman Catholic Church.	Wesleyans.	London Missionaries.	Dissenters of what particular Denomination unknown.	Hindoo and Mahometans.	Not stated.	TOTAL.
Demerary	10,484	3,363	4879	3520	8,571	9,008	3394	7,040	50,259
Essequibo	13,154	3,287	1477	1053	449	1,295	2332	1,878	24,925
Berbice	5,293	2,287	253	487	2,595	758	420	10,279	22,370
Total rural districts	28,931	8,937	6609	5060	11,613	11,061	6146	19,197	97,554
Georgetown	8,869	2,073	2857	3139	3,041	2,512	842	2,175	25,508
New Amsterdam	1,987	654	472	219	848	66	49	338	4,633
Total in towns	10,856	2,727	3329	3358	3,889	2,578	891	2,513	30,141
Total, British Guiana	39,787	11,664	9938	8418	15,502	13,639	7037	21,710	127,695

Several inaccuracies having been discovered in the returns from which this Table is compiled, it must be looked upon only as an approximation to, and not as an exact account of, the different religious denominations in the province.

The Wesleyan Church, according to their own published statements, number 10,774, which is 2356 more than is exhibited in the Table; and this difference is probably included in the column for Dissenters, whose particular denomination is unknown. In the same column the inhabitants of Fort Island are placed, most of whom worship with the "Congregational Dissenters," or as they are denominated in the Table "London Missionaries," and should be added to their number.

In like manner, the mission at Bartica is improperly included in this column instead of that appropriated to the Church of England, and at the Penal Settlement, where there is a resident catechist of the Church of England, and services are regularly performed by the visiting chaplain—the whole establishment, with the exception of the Hindoo convicts, is included in the column where the particular religion is "not stated."

STATE OF EDUCATION.

	Able to Read and Write.	Able to Read only.	Not ascertained, or wholly illiterate.	TOTAL.
Demerary	4,136	4,885	41,238	50,259
Essequibo	782	1,062	23,081	24,925
Berbice	493	1,012	20,865	22,370
Total rural districts	5,411	6,959	85,184	97,554
Georgetown	6,501	3,958	15,049	25,508
New Amsterdam	1,040	549	3,044	4,633
Total towns	7,541	4,507	18,093	30,141
Total, British Guiana	12,952	11,466	103,277	127,695

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

NUMBER OF HOUSES.

	IN VILLAGES AND HAM- LETS.				IN TOWNS.			
	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.	TOTAL.	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.	TOTAL.
Demerary	5,075	340	257	5,672				
Essequibo	2,011	152	91	2,254				
Berbice.....	2,943	201	82	3,226				
Total rural districts	10,029	693	430	11,152				
Georgetown.....	4317	354	224	4895
New Amsterdam	873	184	46	1103
Total in towns.....	5190	538	270	5998
Total of British Guiana.....	10,029	693	430	11,152	5190	538	270	5998

GENERAL ABSTRACT.

TOTAL NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.

	Under 5 Years.		5 to 15 Years.		15 to 30 Years.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Demerary	3854	4165	7,094	7,202	11,931	10,848
Essequibo	1511	1491	2,797	2,430	3,989	3,124
Berbice	1648	1597	3,121	2,823	4,006	3,558
Total population ...	7013	7253	13,012	12,455	19,926	17,530

	30 to 50 Years.		Over 50 Years.		TOTAL.
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
Demerary	11,724	9,288	4794	4867	75,767
Essequibo.....	4,256	3,060	1097	1170	24,925
Berbice	3,951	3,373	1494	1432	27,003
Total population ...	19,931	15,721	7385	7469	127,695

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

	RACE.					
	European.	Mixed.	African.	East Indian.	Aborigines.	TOTAL.
Demerary	8,851	10,570	51,516	4272	558	75,767
Essequibo	1,758	1,845	18,548	2332	442	24,925
Berbice	949	2,339	21,646	1066	1003	27,003
Total population of British Guiana...	11,553	14,754	91,710	7670	2003	127,695

NATIVE COUNTRY.

	County of Demerary.				County of Essequibo.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana	14,637	16,859	9,413	10,135	4067	4630	3613	3466
Natives of Barbados Natives of other West India Islands	1,874	1,328	223	219	459	249	44	42
African Immigrants Old Africans	1,437	1,092	117	110	577	477	10	13
Madeirasans	1,377	686	217	125	1010	597	280	148
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, and American Immigrants	1,995	1,936	666	667	163	151
Coolies from Madras Coolies from Calcutta Not stated	3,039	2,005	631	529	611	376	163	151
	1,090	318	52	39	210	43	12	4
	1,793	538	206	173	210	62	20	9
	1,207	241	89	37	1539	255	150	87
	7	1		
Total	28,449	25,003	10,948	11,367	9356	7357	4292	3920

	County of Berbice.				TOTAL.			
	Adults.		1 to 15 Years.		Adults.		1 to 15 Years.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
Natives of British Guiana	5191	5958	4303	4179	23,895	27,447	17,329	17,700
Natives of Barbados Natives of other West India Islands	269	165	31	22	2,602	1,742	298	283
African Immigrants Old Africans	292	201	13	14	2,306	1,770	140	137
Madeirasans	1514	803	300	111	3,901	2,086	797	384
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, and American Immigrants	928	891	3,589	3,494	829	712
Coolies from Madras Coolies from Calcutta Not stated	247	109	35	32	3,897	2,490	829	712
	257	49	9	5	1,557	410	73	48
	420	137	53	44	2,423	737	279	226
	328	50	23	11	3,074	546	262	135
	5	...	2	2	12	1	2	2
Total	9451	8363	4769	4420	47,256	40,723	20,009	19,707

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

NATIVE COUNTRY.—GRAND TOTAL.

Natives of British Guiana	86,451
Natives of Barbados	4,925
Natives of other West India Islands	4,353
African Immigrants	7,168
Old Africans	7,083
Madeirasans	7,928
English, Scotch, Irish, Dutch, and Americans	2,088
Coolies from Madras	3,665
Coolies from Calcutta	4,017
Not stated	17
TOTAL	127,695

PROFESSION, TRADE, OR CALLING.

	Public Officers.	Professional Men.	Merchants and Shopkeepers.	Clerks.	Agriculturists.	Agricultural Labourers.	Other Labourers.
Demerary.....	222	97	924	588	511	31,491	8,548
Essequibo	66	20	258	30	163	12,948	963
Berbice	18	70	194	71	189	12,066	617
Total.....	306	187	1376	689	863	56,505	10,128

	Mechanics and Artisans.	Domestic Servants.	Boatmen and Mariners.	Others variously employed.	No occupation, or none stated, including the Ladies of the Upper Class.	Children not employed, being of tender Age.	TOTAL.
Demerary.....	3759	3539	1086	9,465	6,677	8,860	75,767
Essequibo	1067	860	135	495	2,232	5,688	24,925
Berbice	1161	1148	184	962	3,354	6,969	27,003
Total.....	5987	5547	1405	10,922	12,263	21,517	127,695

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATIONS.

	Church of England.	Church of Scotland.	Rom. Cath. Church	Wesleyans.	London Missionaries.	Dissenters of what particular denomination unknown.	Hindoos and Mahometans.	Not stated.	TOTAL.
Demerary.....	19,353	5,436	7736	6659	11,612	11,520	4236	9,215	75,767
Essequibo.....	13,154	3,287	1477	1053	449	1,295	2332	1,878	24,925
Berbice.....	7,280	2,941	725	706	3,441	824	469	10,617	27,003
Total.....	39,787	11,664	9938	8418	15,502	13,639	7037	21,710	127,695

Abstract of the Census of the Population, &c.—*continued.*

STATE OF EDUCATION.

	Able to Read and Write.	Able to Read only.	Not ascertained, or wholly illiterate.	TOTAL.
Demerary.....	10,637	8,943	56,287	75,767
Essequibo	782	1,062	23,081	24,925
Berbice.....	1,533	1,561	23,909	27,003
Total.....	12,952	11,466	103,277	127,695

NUMBER OF HOUSES.

	IN VILLAGES AND HAMLETS.				IN TOWN.			
	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.	TOTAL.	Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.	TOTAL.
Demerary	5,075	340	257	5,672	4317	354	224	4895
Essequibo	2,011	152	91	2,254	873	184	46	1103
Berbice.....	2,943	201	82	3,226	873	184	46	1103
Total.....	10,029	693	430	11,152	5190	538	270	5998

GRAND TOTAL of the Population of the Colony of British Guiana, as taken on the Night of the 31st March, 1851.

Grand Total, as per Census Returns	127,695
Aborigines, not included in the Census Returns, estimated at	7,000
	134,695
Ship's Company of her Majesty's steamer <i>Inflexible</i>	150
Merchant seamen	295
	445
Strength of the 2nd West India Regiment	369
Strength of the 3rd West India Regiment... ..	298
Strength of the 72nd Highlanders	187
	854
GRAND TOTAL... ..	135,994

COMMANDEURS OF ESSEQUEBO.

1634.		J. V. de Goss.
1670.		Hendrick Roll; appointed by the Kamer Zealand.
1674.		Hendrick Roll; confirmed in office by the new General West India Company.
1676.	March 31.	Jacob Hars.
1678.	July 25.	Abraham Beckman.
1680.		J. P. De Jong.
1690.	Nov. 2.	Samuel Beckman.
1707.	Dec. 10.	Peter van der Heyden Resen.
1719.	July 24.	Laurens de Heere.
1729.	Oct. 12.	Herman Gelskerke.
1742.	April.	Laurens Storm van S'Gravesande.

DIRECTORS-GENERAL OF THE TWO RIVERS.

1751.		Laurens Storm van S'Gravesande.
1772.	Nov. 2.	George Hendrick Trotz.
1781.	Oct. 17.	Lieut.-col. Robert Kingston.
1782.	Feb. 10.	Count de Kersaint.
—	July 15.	Marquis de Lusignan.
—	Sept. 15.	Count de Kersaint.
1783.	Jan. 20.	General de la Perrière.
1784.	March 6.	J. Bourda, Provisional Governor.
1785.	Feb.	Jan L'Espanesse.

GOVERNORS OF BERBICE.

1666.		Matthys Bergenaar, Commandeur of Berbice
1669.		M. Crynsse, ditto.
1674.		
1684.		Heer Lucas Condrio, ditto.
1733.	April 22.	Bernhard Waterham.
1749.	April 8.	John Andries Lossner.
—	May 7.	John Frederic Colier.
1755.	Dec. 5.	Hendrick Jan van Ryswick.
1760.	April 4.	Wolfort Simon van Hogenheim.

1765.	Sept. 6.	Johannes Heyliger, Jun.
1768.	April 7.	Stephen Hendrick de la Sablonière.
1781.		While in the hands of the English and French, Berbice had the same Governors as Demerary and Essequibo.
1784.	May.	Peter H. Koppiers.
1793.		Abraham van Batenburg.
1802.	Dec.	Provisional Government, composed of two Members of the Council, appointed by the Batavian Republic.
1803.	Oct. 1.	Lieut.-col. Robert Nicholson, Acting Governor.
1804.	Aug.	Abraham van Batenburg, re-appointed.
1806.	Dec.	Lieut.-col. Nicholson, Acting Governor.
1807.	Sept.	General James Montgomery, Governor.
1809.	March.	William Woodly, ditto.
1810.	Jan.	Major-gen. Dalrymple, Acting Governor.
—	Dec.	Robert Gordon, Lieut.-Governor.
1812.	June.	Brigadier-gen. John Murray, Acting Governor.
1813.	Feb.	Robert Gordon, resumed.
—	Dec. 13.	Major Grant, Acting Governor.
1814.	June.	H. W. Bentinck, Lieut.-Governor.
1820.	Nov.	Major Thistlewayte, Acting Governor.
1821.	Jan.	Colonel Sir John Cameron, ditto.
—	March.	Henry Beard, Lieut.-Governor.
1825.	March.	Sir B. D'Urban, Acting Governor.
1826.	July.	Henry Beard, resumed.

GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED COLONY OF DEMERARY AND ESSEQUEBO.

1765.		Jan Cornelis van der Heuvel, Commandeur of the R. Demerary.
1789.	Aug. 18.	A. Backer.
1793.	March 31.	W. A. Baron van Grovestins.
1795.	May 5.	Provisional Government, consisting of two Members of the Court of Policy, in rotation.
—	June 29.	Anthony Beaujon, continued in office by the English on the capture of the colony.
1802.	Dec. 3.	Anthony Meertens, appointed by the Batavian Republic.

1803.	Oct. 1.	Lieut.-col. Robert Nicholson.
1804.	Aug. 18.	Anthony Beaujon.
1805.	Oct. 19.	Brigadier-gen. James Montgomery.
1806.		H. W. Bentinck.
1807.	May 9.	Brigadier-gen. James Montgomery.
—	Sept. 19.	Colonel Nicholson.
1808.	June 25.	Lieut.-col. Ross.
1809.	April 8.	Major-gen. Dalrymple.
—	May 20.	H. W. Bentinck.
1812.		Major-gen. Hugh L. Carmichael.
1813.	May 12.	Lieut.-col. Edward Codd.
—	May 17.	Brigadier-gen. John Murray.
—	Aug. 24.	Colonel Codd, acting <i>vice</i> Murray, appointed to Berbice.
—	Dec. 9.	Major gen. John Murray, resumed.
1815.	July 26.	Colonel Codd, acting <i>vice</i> Murray, gone to Islands.
—	Oct. 3.	Major-gen. John Murray, resumed.
1824.	April 26.	Major-gen. Sir Benjamin d'Urban, Lieut. Governor.

 GOVERNORS OF BRITISH GUIANA.

1831.	July 21.	Major-gen. Sir Benjamin d'Urban, Governor.
1833.	May 7.	Lieut.-col. Courtenay Chambers, Acting Governor.
—	May 17.	Colonel Sir Charles Felix Smith, ditto.
—	June 26.	Major-gen. Sir James Carmichael Smyth, Lieut.-Governor.
1836.	Dec. 27.	Major-gen. Sir James Carmichael Smyth, Governor.
1835.	May 28.	Sir Lionel Smith, ditto.
—	June 17.	Sir James Carmichael Smyth, ditto.
1838.	March 6.	Major W. N. Orange, Acting Governor.
—	March 30.	Colonel Thomas Bunbury, ditto.
—	June 27.	Henry Light, Esq., Governor.
1840.	Dec. 8.	Sir Henry M'Leod, ditto.
—	Jan. 25.	Henry Light, Esq., resumed.
1848.	May 19.	Wm. Walker, Esq., Lieut.-Governor.
1849.	Feb. 12.	Henry Barkly, Esq., Governor.
1853.	May 11.	William Walker, Esq., Lieut.-Governor.

The following useful Public Officers are also appointed for the Colony of British Guiana.

Commissioners of Roads and Bridges throughout Town and Country, or, County Overseers.
Collector of Rum Duties.
Commissioners of Public Buildings.
Commissioners of Education.
Loan and Immigration Commissioners of Correspondence.
Justices of the Peace (under Ordinance No. 19, 1845).
Commissaries of Taxation.
Inspectors of Weights and Measures.
Committee of the Lamatra Canal.
Post-holders and Superintendents of Rivers and Creeks.
Sworn Accountants and Book-keepers.
Sworn Translators.
Sworn Land Surveyors.
Commissioners for administering Oaths to Affidavits (under Ordinance No. 21, 1845).
Licensed Auctioneers.
Licensed Weighers or Gaugers.

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