

# SIMMONDS'S COLONIAL MAGAZINE.

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## NOTES ON THE COMMERCE OF SIAM.

BY THE EDITOR OF THE "SINGAPORE FREE PRESS."

It appears to us that too little attention has hitherto been given by British merchants to the capabilities of Siam for a large and profitable commercial intercourse. The trade with Siam, as far as regards British possessions, has been generally in the hands of one or two Europeans, and some native merchants from Bombay, and no attempt has hitherto, as far as we are aware, been made to give it a wider and more general character, or to test its capacity for an increase both of consumption and production; yet there is no doubt that in both respects there is much room for expansion in Siam, and that there is only wanting a greater attention from European merchants, and a better tariff, to allow of Siam assuming a much more important place in the commercial scale of nations than that which she at present occupies. Impressed with this conviction, we have hitherto taken every opportunity we could find, as well to exhibit the present aspect of commerce in Siam, as to show by what means and to what extent it might be improved; and it is with this object that we now avail ourselves of the kindness of a friend well acquainted with the subject, who has placed a few rough notes at our disposal, and which will enable us once more to state a few facts and make a few observations upon the commerce of Siam. Unlike Japan and Cochin China, intercourse with Siam does not require to be yet established; it was placed upon a legitimate legal footing even before we had achieved the same object in China, and all that now remains to be done is to prevail upon the Siamese Government to make those modifications and amendments in those parts of the treaty, as regards the residence of foreigners and the tariff of duties, which experience has shown to be opposed to a full and free development of the commerce of the country. The Siamese King, like most semi-barbarous persons, is slow to perceive the advantages which would result to himself and his country from a greater encouragement of commerce, and seeks in monopolies for that revenue which he would better find in an expansion of trade and increase of the productive resources of his kingdom; and it may be that he dreads the effects of freer contact with foreigners upon his subjects. But there is little doubt, that were the advantages of a

change of system impressed upon him by a friendly power like England, which from the proximity of its territory he has come to know and respect, and he were given to understand that a closer and, at the same time, wider commercial intercourse was desired, he would be found ready to yield to circumstances, and concede whatever was necessary or desirable. A better time than the present could not be found for attaining this important purpose; because, while the Siamese King has no doubt got rid of those foolish fears of aggression and conquest on our part with which he and other Indo-Chinese Powers were troubled at the time of the operations in China, there can be little doubt that he has acquired much juster ideas of our power and position than what he entertained in former times, and must, therefore, be convinced of the inexpediency of meeting reasonable and proper requests for extended commercial intercourse by the shuffling, evasive, and insincere conduct, which has been exhibited on previous occasions. With these observations we shall now proceed to state a few particulars relative to the trade, &c.

The imports into the port of Bangkok during the year 1846 amounted to about 1,130,000 ticals, and the exports to about 1,500,000 ticals. The difference in the amount of the imports and exports it is probable arises from the sale of the accumulated stock of the preceding year, and from the Bombay traders borrowing money to complete their shipments. The statements of the value of the imports and exports cannot, however, be given with any certainty, as there are no records kept by Government from which the same could be compiled, the duties being levied, not on the goods, but on the breadth of beam of the vessels arriving at Bangkok; their amount and value can, therefore, only be guessed at. The foregoing comprehends the trade with Singapore, Bombay, Batavia, Palembang, and England, carried on partly by means of square-rigged vessels, mostly under English colours, but some belonging to the King of Siam, and partly by means of junks. The trade with Singapore, Bombay, and England, is chiefly in square-rigged vessels; with Batavia, Palembang, and largely as regards Singapore, in junks. In the preceding estimate the direct junk trade with China is not included, as it would be almost impossible to obtain any tolerably correct estimate on the subject. The junk trade between Siam and China it may, however, be stated is much larger than that between China and Singapore, and is comprised of much the same articles of merchandise.

The trade with China until recently was almost entirely in junks, but during the last two years the King's square-rigged vessels have been carrying cargo to Canton, and more recently English vessels have also done so. The trade between Siam and the neighbouring coasts is carried on in large prahus, and is of considerable importance.

The King of Siam himself engages directly in trade to a large extent, and to this circumstance we can easily trace much of the present unfavourable influences operating against foreign trade, as well as the reluctance to enter into improved arrangements. The King's commercial fleet is large, consisting of ten square-rigged vessels, measuring altogether about 4,200 tons, and two or three vessels of medium size at present on the stocks.

The mode of carrying on trade does not appear to differ very materially from that pursued at Singapore, being by credit, barter, or for cash, according to the terms of each particular transaction. Of foreign imports, cotton manufactures hold the most important place; and this branch of trade would be most materially benefited by any improvement in the tariff, or rather by a moderate and equitable tariff being substituted for the present oppressive and almost prohibitory tonnage duties.

The articles most suited for the import trade may be stated to be—White and gray long cloths, ditto maddapollams, ditto cambrics, ditto jaconets, book lappets; velvets, plain and figured; checked fancy muslins, American drills, cotton umbrellas; figured long cloths, white and dyed; dyed cambrics, dyed long cloths; prints, chintz furnitures, and neutrals; Siam chowls or dresses, Turkey-red cloth, gray cotton twist, Turkey-red ditto, imperial-red and blue ditto, long ells, ladies' cloths, Spanish stripes, merinos of assorted colours, canvas; iron, steel, lead, and spelter; earthenware, assorted; glassware and lamps, assorted; hardware, assorted; muskets, gun-locks; brimstone, bees'-wax, cowries, flint stones, musket flints, &c.

Siam is naturally very fertile, and were proper encouragement afforded to the cultivators we might expect to see the produce of those articles of export which are the subjects of cultivation increased to a very large extent; while the articles of commerce, which, though the produce of the country are not raised by cultivation, but collected from the forests, would also no doubt be brought to market in greater abundance. Amongst articles produced by cultivation sugar holds the first place in importance. In some remarks on the monopoly of this article by the King of Siam which were published a few months ago in the *Free Press*, we showed at what a rapid rate the production of this article had proceeded previous to 1840, the year in which the King first established his monopoly. The amount produced in that year was estimated at 257,000 piculs, while in 1846 it could not be stated at more than 150,000, so rapidly has the withering effects of the royal monopoly told upon its production, while at the same time it has deteriorated in quality. The extension of sugar cultivation would no doubt be very great, were the produce left to find its way into the merchants' hands, without having to pass through those of the King or his officers. At present the crop is farmed to three or four Government officers (naturalised Chinese) who pay to Government from 1 to 1½ ticals per picul on the whole quantity produced, and compel the cultivators to deliver it to them at small and unremunerative prices, hence leaving no inducement to improved or extended cultivation.

The cultivators of sugar are all free Chinese emigrants who pay a poll tax to Government. They have no titles to the land, but hold it on sufferance, locating themselves where they find ground suitable for their purpose, and shifting to another spot when the soil they are on has become exhausted. They pay no land tax, but a duty on what is produced. The cultivation of rice is carried on in much the same way, not by Chinese, however, but by Siamese or Peguan ryots principally. The export of rice being prohibited, none finds its way out of the country, except what is smuggled, or is exported by the King on his own account.

A law exists requiring that there should always be in the kingdom rice sufficient for three years' consumption, which is observed, although perhaps not to its full extent.

The cultivation of coffee is carried on in the hilly districts on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, but on a very limited scale. The annual produce is not much more than 200 piculs, although it is understood to be increasing. The quality is reckoned to be nearly equal to Mocha, and it commands a high price in the English market. Cotton is grown in considerable quantities partly for home consumption, and the rest for export to China by the junks, who take it uncleaned. The cultivation of gambouge is increasing on the confines of Camboja and at Chantiboor. Pepper is cultivated on the hills on the east coast of the Gulf, and is all taken by the China junks. The nutmeg tree grows luxuriantly, but does not yield fruit. Indigo grows in a wild state in Siam, and all the dye used in the country is manufactured from these plants. The extensive low grounds are admirably suited for the cultivation of this plant, as well as many other valuable products.

The revenues of Siam can only be guessed at; but it is thought that they exceed eleven millions of ticals yearly. They are derived from a tax on all kinds of produce which is farmed out—of the tonnage duties fixed by the treaties with England and America, &c. In addition to the duties allowed by these treaties, others have been imposed in direct violation of them, although they are not directly levied on the foreign merchant, but on the goods after they have come into the hands of the native dealers, or on the produce before it is allowed to be sold for export; thus a duty of a tical per picul is imposed on iron for every picul used, and half a tical per tical on black pepper, and one tical per picul on white pepper previous to export. The export of timber is prohibited contrary to treaty. Sugar can only be purchased from the Government agents, and, in many other instances, are the provisions of these treaties entirely disregarded.

Opium still continues strictly contraband, but is smuggled into the country to a large extent. Daily seizures of smugglers take place, who, if rich, pay a heavy fine, and, if poor, are ironed and put on the public works. The officers of Government enrich themselves by means of these fines, hence they are exceedingly vigilant in looking after offenders; but the smuggling is still persevered in, as, if successful, the smuggler realises a profit of nearly 100 per cent on his venture.

The population of Bangkok, of which alone any estimate can be made, as it is the only part of Siam of which Europeans have any great knowledge from personal observation, may be roughly guessed at somewhere between six and seven hundred thousand souls. The following is a conjecture at the probable amount:—

English . . . . .	3
Americans (missionaries and their wives) . . . . .	10
Portuguese . . . . .	3
Ditto descendants . . . . .	800
French missionaries . . . . .	5
Chinese paying poll tax . . . . .	425,000

Carried forward . . . . 425,821

	Brought forward . . .	425,821
Ditto descendants . . . . .		75,000
Cochin Chinese . . . . .		5,000
Cambojians . . . . .		5,000
Siamese . . . . .		80,000
Peguans . . . . .		10,000
Laocians . . . . .		15,000
Burmese and Tavoyans . . . . .		8,000
Malays . . . . .		15,000

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638,821

Most of the Chinese emigrants settle in the country permanently, and take to themselves Siamese wives, and not above one-sixth of their number return to China. They readily conform to the Siamese customs, and even religion, and many of them rise to high offices under Government. They are the most industrious part of the population, and some of them are the wealthiest individuals in Siam. The Malay population consists partly of voluntary emigrants and partly of prisoners of war. These last, although still forbidden to leave the country, have in other respects experienced a very favourable change in their mode of treatment. They receive regular rations of rice from Government, and are allowed to work on their own account excepting during a certain number of days in each year, which they must give to government work. The females are in general very industrious, and work in gold and weave dresses, and many earn as much as 10 dollars per mensem. A number of Malays have emigrated to Bangkok from a Malay Colony in Camboja. The descendants of Malays, although Moslems, are said to assimilate very much to the Siamese in habits and language.

We would, in conclusion, offer some suggestions of what we think ought to be the basis of any new treaty with Siam. The abolition of the present prohibitive tonnage duties, substituting an equitable tariff of import and export duties, and prohibiting the interference of the King or Government in trade. As long as the latter continues there can be no guarantee for the uninterrupted continuance of a regular trade. At present, although by treaty the foreign merchants and the inhabitants of the country are to be allowed to buy and sell without the intervention of any other persons, and with freedom and facility, yet it is well known that the King or Government never scruples to monopolise any article of export, when by so doing, a good profit is to be made. When the King wishes to effect this, orders are issued that the particular article to be monopolised is only to be sold to the agents of the King, and it is only when the King's ships are fully loaded, that merchants are allowed to purchase from the King's stores, by which a large profit accrues to the royal treasury. It will, therefore, be necessary that this interference with the free course of trade should be well guarded against. The residence of a consul to see to the due fulfilment of the treaty, and to afford protection and assistance to British subjects, will also be necessary. Were these points carried, we might soon expect to see the trade with Siam increasing in value and importance most rapidly, and affording an excellent outlet to a large amount of British manufactures.

CANNOT EUROPE'S COLONIES FLOURISH WITHOUT PERPETUATING THE CHAINS OF AFRICAN SLAVERY ?

WE, some six months back, addressed you on the subject of scorched Africa—her golden sands—and her deeply-injured sons. The subject is a teeming one, and abounds with recollections of a very interesting kind; recollections in which Europe has long been a prominent actor, and in which she has sometimes incurred a fearful responsibility. England, the generous and the free (merited epithets of eulogy), England the liberator of the unfortunate, and the munificent helper of those who have none else upon earth to help them, has indeed been prominent in her commiseration of the lot of the Africans. England, as comporting with her established character for humanity, and her love of freedom has, in the leading policy of her conduct towards Africa, led the way in nobly pointing out to Europe her duty in the requirements which civilisation and religion exact from her in regard to the unfortunates of this most central continent of our globe.

Will not all other nations, also, of this civilised portion of the earth assist her in the glorious work? England is rich in Colonial jurisdictions. If, as is so generally asserted, "the sun never sets on her empire"—if the soils over which she has acquired a sovereignty are many of them of high fertility—if no nation on the earth which we inhabit has such ample means of enriching itself through foreign territorial possessions; in the view of these things we, sometime back were tempted to ask, why Ireland should continue to exist destitute and pauperised to anything like the extent which for the last half century she has done? Boundless arenas await her pauperised inhabitants, in other parts of the earth; soils of luxuriant fertility, and of a power of productiveness far exceeding the utmost capabilities of the Emerald Isle, are subject to England's jurisdictions, and offer their riches as the return for the investment of capital and the employment of labour, furnishing a remunerative harvest, which might be had for the gathering. These opportunities for augmenting England's wealth, and for feeding the starving thousands of her population we have, often, been at pains to point out.

In Ireland gaunt famine has lately spread desolation and ruin over the land, and our immediate attention was directed to her calls. We, therefore, felt it imperatively a duty to examine a few of the causes which operate in keeping Ireland below that standard of civilisation and riches which should characterise so important a section of these realms. We have said, that England with her vast Colonial means of amassing riches, and engendering comfort, and diffusing contentment throughout her borders, should not suffer Ireland to exhibit so perpetually on her soils discontent, discomfort, and to so great an

extent, a poverty of the bare means of subsistence. For if wealth, or a capacity of creating it, which constitutes its elements, exists within the grasp of Great Britain to an unprecedented extent, Ireland is entitled to higher things. In this capacity of creating wealth, with her extensive Colonies, either founded or to be founded, in various parts of the earth, England is without a competitor. Whether lying in the earth or in the ocean—whether in the shape of rich ores and stratification of our foreign soils, in tropical climates and latitudes, or filling with innumerable tribes of piscatory inhabitants the seas that border on their shores; whether consisting of splendid vegetable productions of a climate ever bright with vertical suns, or accumulated by the astonishing bounties of Providence in the abysses of the deep, furnishing food for men in exhaustless variety—in both these capacities our Colonial jurisdictions offer their riches for all classes of our countrymen. In Ireland, therefore, as we recently endeavoured to show, such destitution as habitually prevails, should not continue to exist; and we were urgent in our endeavours to dilate on certain things which would operate to her general benefit, while, on the other hand, we issued our protest against certain practices which have been found to operate to her bane. If Ireland forms so important a part of our political empire it becomes a high and imperative duty in all to assist her in her extremity and her need.

We now, however, diverge to another race of people, inhabiting the more central regions of the earth. The inhabitants of the eastern torrid zone, with all their woes, shall once more pass under notice, connected as they are reciprocally with the character and responsibility of the people of Europe. Some further illustrations, indeed, upon this subject, would, having once opened it, ere this have claimed a place in your pages had not Ireland with its present calamities thrown aside all other claims. And that the southern nations of Europe or any one of them should still promote and encourage, to so great an extent, a traffic in slaves (whether by connivance or avowedly legalised, is not here the question) fixes a permanent and a deep stain upon her character. It is one of the foul crimes, and one, too, of the deepest dye, of her modern institutions. For a long period has she incurred this deep amount of guilt, and recklessly pursued it, as though the common feelings of humanity open to all others were seared towards the unfortunates of another zone and colour.

A few years back an eloquent writer speaking on this subject, had the following passage: "A few paces separate from each other in the church of Westminster are three monuments to which, in God's appointed time, will be added a fourth to complete the sepulchral honours of those to whom our remotest posterity will describe the *deliverance* of mankind from the woes of African slave trade, and Colonial slavery." Alas! this prediction of *DELIVERANCE* comes somewhat prematurely, according to present appearances; for its fulfilment seems to be as far off as ever. The monuments alluded to are those of Wilberforce, Granville Sharp, and Zachary Macaulay. The survivor, Thomas Clarkson, had not yet paid the debt of nature; but laurels

ever-green, honours that can never fade, will still continue to circle around the tomb of him whose long and indefatigable life was strenuously devoted to dry the tears and soothe the sorrows of a persecuted and forsaken race. But though Clarkson lived to accomplish much, yet this crowning guilt, of Europe and America on Africa, yet remains. It is notorious that this detestable traffic is pursued with unremitting zeal, and often with unabated horrors, by the subjects of some of the maritime powers who claim the rank, and honours, and benign light, and ameliorated sentiments of Christianity. Still Africa's unhappy sons groan beneath the scourge, and languish out a life of prolonged misery at the capricious will of relentless task-masters. And yet, strange to say, most of the countries of Europe have by a formal enactment prohibited the exportation of slaves! Mr. Bandinell, who some years back wrote its history, declares, that almost every power in Europe had enacted a law deprecating the slave-trade, and had denounced its continuance as criminal; but in view of such a denouncement does it not argue supineness equally criminal that it should be more actively prosecuted than ever by their own subjects? Spain and Portugal are, in the present day, the principal offenders in this nefarious traffic; but it has likewise been carried on under other flags, by the connivance of those who had it in their power to prevent it; and if such prohibitions are suffered to be eluded, the blame still rests on their respective governments. Its abolition was pronounced by Holland in 1814, and by France in 1816; but still the palladium of rights as attaching to the Negro character is very far from being secured with any tolerable degree of definitiveness.

The woes of the African were sought to be alleviated by the example and generous mediation of Great Britain; but this mediation has, as yet, very far from accomplished its end. The slavers of Europe and America still cover the Western Ocean, at certain seasons, but whether the trade is carried on under government auspices, or whether it be done surreptitiously, makes very little difference as to the sufferings of the Negro. Is it not, then, a double disgrace to the Southern nations of Europe and the Western continent, that the exportation of slaves from the African coast should exist to the extent it does.

It was some years back predicted that if England liberated her slaves and prohibited their further exportation their lot, in the aggregate, would not be alleviated; and the sad result has verified the prediction. It has thrown this species of commerce into the hands of nations, or of those piratical outlaws of nations, who are found heartless enough to carry it on under an increased amount of danger and expense. But *can* it not, *must* it not, be speedily put down? We assume that it can; and at the risk of travelling over old ground, and expatiating on hackneyed topics, we will go into a few details connected with the general subject of this inhuman system, its usual concomitants, and its debasing effects on those who are, in any way, associated with it; and we trust in these details, either of facts or arguments, we shall not prove tiresome or inane.

The deep iniquity of modern Europe, perpetrated for centuries, and after her example of other nations in her conduct towards Africa, will



naturally lead the human mind to inquire—were the black tribes of Africa always thus persecuted? Did mankind always wage war with their fellow-creatures of another colour?

The interior of Africa was little known to the ancients—still less than it is to the moderns; indeed, so much was it wrapt in mystery that very little of truth can be rationally assumed to attach to their fablings. Was the extensive system of predatory warfare and of slavery practised in those early periods of its history by the strong and the warlike against the weak and the defenceless, which has been so long prevalent in modern times? We have no means of ascertaining; but this we know—at least we may almost certainly pronounce—that the Greek and Roman Republics of ancient Europe would have scorned to have kidnapped her unfortunate sons in the way that modern Christian Europe has done. Had the New World, with its boundless arenas of soil and fertile climate, been known to them, and had they possessed Colonies there, would they have periodically covered the Atlantic with their slave-ships, laden with wretches doomed to misery and degrading servitude in their newly-acquired possessions in the western continent? Their known clemency towards their slaves furnishes evidence to the contrary.

Strabo and Herodotus are almost the only authors of antiquity who have transmitted us any accounts of the interior of this continent. Agatharchidas, also, another ancient writer, has left us some fablings respecting Africa, but nothing authentic concerning its inhabitants. Strabo has delivered us seventeen books on the geography of the ancient world, in which he tells us very little about the actual existing state of this central region of our globe. Of these only a portion of one is devoted to Africa, and the information which the great geographer had communicated was marvellously scant. Herodotus, the venerable father of history, gained some knowledge of this continent during his sojourn in Egypt, and he imparts such information to his readers and posterity in his usual agreeable style. Before the Romans had jurisdiction in Africa, the sole possession of the north-western parts was in the hands of the Carthagenians; but their knowledge scarcely extended to the confines of the Great Desert. Their information, therefore, and consequently that of the Romans who borrowed it of them, concerning the nation that existed in equatorial latitudes, must have been slight indeed. It is therefore to the Parnassian that we must chiefly look for our imperfect knowledge of these countries. The research and inquiries of Herodotus in this quarter of our globe were active and unremitting during his sojourn in Egypt; but he had not the means of always ascertaining the absolute truth of what he narrates. On the subject of Africa, we find him, in his 4th Book (Melpomene) thus arranging its topography: we give his own words (of course through the medium of translation):—"The Africans," he says, "who inhabit the sea-coast are termed Nomades. The more inland parts of Africa beyond these abound with wild beasts; remoter still is one vast sandy desert, from Egyptian Thebes to the columns of Hercules. Penetrating this desert to the space of ten days' journey, vast

pillars of salt are discovered, from the summit of which flows a stream of water equally cool and sweet. This district is possessed by the last of those who inhabit the deserts beyond the centre and under parts of Africa. The Ammonians, who possess the Temple of Theban Jupiter, are the people nearest to this place of Thebes, from which they are distant a ten days' journey.

"Passing onward beyond the Ammonians into the desert for ten days more, another hill of salt occurs; it resembles that which is found among the Ammonians, and has a spring of water. The place is inhabited and called Angila, and here the Nasamones come to gather their dates. At another ten days' distance," he continues, "from the Angila there is another hill of salt with water, as well as a great number of palms, which, like those before described, are exceedingly productive. This place is inhabited by the numerous nation of the Garamantes; they cover the beds of salt with earth, and then plant it. From them to the Lotophagi is a very short distance; but from these latter it is a journey of thirty days to that nation, among whom is a species of oxen which walk backwards while they are feeding—their horns are so formed that they cannot do otherwise; they are before so long, and curved in such a manner, that if they did not recede as they feed, they would stick in the ground.

"From the Garamantes it is another ten days' journey to the Atlantes, where also is a hill of salt with water. Of all mankind of whom we have any knowledge, the Atlantes alone have no distinction of names; the body of the people are termed Atlantes, but their individuals have no appropriate appellation; when the sun is at the highest they heap upon it reproaches and execrations, because their country and themselves are parched by its rays. I am able to call by name all the different nations as far as the Atlantes; beyond this I have no knowledge. There is, however, from hence, an habitable country as far as the columns of Hercules, and even beyond it. In this part of Lybia it never rains. Beyond this sandy desert, southward to the interior parts of Lybia, there is a vast and horrid space without water, wood, or beasts, and totally destitute of moisture." Such—for the citation of which we crave pardon of the reader—with similar other narratives, may be said to comprise the geographical information given us by Herodotus concerning the central regions of Africa, mixed, of course, with some fables, which the nature and source of such information, and his own too credulous temperament, rendered unavoidable. Was the moral state of Africa with regard to slavery, *then*, what it is *now*? We know not; but may shrewdly guess that it was not very dissimilar. Should it not upon this supposition have been a part of Europe's policy for the last three centuries and a half to have endeavoured to neutralise the moral chaos which reigned over those vast districts stretching from the eastern shores of Abyssinia to the mouths of the Gambia? The physical circumstances of climate are the same as they were two thousand years back. Over these vast territories from Cancer to Capricorn, upon which the glorious orb of our system points its vertical and almost unintermittent rays, the same economy, moral and physical, has pro-

bably ever prevailed. From the Galla and Shangalla, eastward—predatory tribes, at war with all their neighbours—to the Bornouese and Felhatahs of the middle regions, from Suckatoo, Timbuctoo, and Sego, central cities of Africa to the western sea-coasts, aggressive warfare on the one hand, and passive submission on the other, has prevailed among the nations of the heart of this continent, and appears to have divided the destiny and varied the lot of its inhabitants. We have elsewhere suggested that the great rivers of central Africa, the majestic Niger, or Joliba, the Weed, Abeed, or Guin, which roll their mighty waters through the sultry districts of these equatorial latitudes, might, in some way, aided by the discoveries of modern ages in philosophy, be rendered subservient in relieving the excessive *drought* or *moisture*, which successively prevail over these regions, and thus render the country over which these periodical rains and droughts exercise their baneful dominions, more propitious to the arts of peace and good government. At any rate, supposing the attainments of mankind in science shall eventually fail in accomplishing this; supposing that the level of the African lakes, from the Tchad of Major Denham, eastward, or the Nuba Palus, of Major Rennell, to the lake Dobbie, or onwards to the sources of the Gambia and Senegal; supposing the level of all these extensive waters not favourable to this contemplated course of improvement; supposing this, yet Europeans might, in other ways, instead of promoting the anarchy that prevails over these extensive countries, try to alleviate their condition.

Will they not strive to do so? Will they ever continue to gender discord among the tribes of middle Africa? Is not a new order of things one day to arise? Are the swarthy sons of this continent never to take their places as men claiming like privileges with ourselves? Will not entire Europe rouse herself to a just sense of her own character, and to what is due to the violated ties of humanity, in the persons of the Africans? Will *she* not, will not the civilised world endeavour to make atonement for the miserable indignities it has so long been recklessly inflicting on them?

The Brazilians have been lately established as an independent power, will they commence their independence by inflicting the chains of ignominious slavery on the weak and on the defenceless? Can we contemplate Spain, in this matter, without feelings of astonishment? One would have supposed that she had been already gorged with the victims of her cruelty. The assassin of the aborigines of the New World—those unhappy victims of her insatiable avarice—will she still search for new victims on the other side of the Atlantic, in order to consign them by her tyranny to early unhallowed graves? Will not its nations awaken to the wrongs which she has so long persisted in inflicting on her? The nations of Europe and their Colonies, have long formed the most civilised portions of our globe. Science, art, the varied elegancies of life, polite literature, and philosophic sentiment, have been the vaunted characteristics of the sons of Europe in a proportion far beyond that of all other countries. Will they not let it appear in their treatment of Africa? Will they ever be content (with the exception of England) to

assume the merit of enlighteners of the human race, while they combine to degrade her sons below the level of brutes.

The Baron Puffendorff, while discoursing "on the Mutual Duties of Humanity" (b. iv., c. iii, p. 186), cites the following passage from two of the wisest sages of antiquity. It deserves a further citation here, as tending to show Tully's sentiments upon the great subject of reciprocal obligation in mankind as citizens of the world. It was, he says, a noble saying of Plato:—

"Ἐκαστος ἡμῶν ἅκ' αὐτῷ μόνον γεγονεν ἀλλὰ τῆς γυνέσεως ἡμῶν τὸ μηρὶ πῆ πατέρις μήσειζεται, τὸ δὲ ἐπάγρηνησάντες τὸ δὲ οἱ λοιποῖφιλοι."

Which passage Tully has thus borrowed and enlarged upon in his offices, *non nobis solum nati tumus*, &c., we are not born for ourselves alone—our country, our parents, and our friends, have all a share and an interest in our being. 'Tis a maxim with the Stoicks, that as the earth and all the productions on it were created for the use of men, so men themselves were, for the sake of men, brought into the world that they might assist and benefit each other. In this we ought to follow the guidance of nature, to bring common goods together, and freely lay them in common, and by an intercourse of giving and receiving kind offices, by art, industry, and by all our faculties, to cement the society of mankind. Has Europe or her Colonies acted upon these philanthropic principles, thus recommended by two heathens, who had not the light of Christianity to guide them? Nay, but in the matter of Africa, her conduct has been in all things the very reverse. Instead of endeavouring to promote her civilisation, to raise her in the scale of being, to cherish her and to impart those reciprocal and friendly acts which should ameliorate her condition and stamp the impress of knowledge on her unlettered tribes, she has uniformly for a long period past striven to degrade her position and to humiliate her in the eyes of the world. By continually introducing African negroes to the notice of the civilised world in the humiliating and forlorn state of slaves—by covering the intervening seas which roll between their country and her Colonies with her slave ships, laden to suffocation with cargoes of miserable victims, in whom she has sought to extinguish the last spark of dignity and independence of mind through means of intense physical suffering—she has at once infringed the great law of nature, which wise heathens felt themselves obliged to promulgate and preserve.

Is the poor pretension of right set up in order to justify the system pursued by the nations of maritime Europe? Is it urged that, because the hapless Negro of the torrid zone is purchased on the coasts of Guinea, or at the mouth of the Gambia, that, therefore, he becomes the legitimate property of the purchaser, and at his absolute disposal for life or death? This flimsy argument, one would think, had long since been disposed of, inasmuch as where there exists no right on the part of the seller, a title cannot be created in the buyer. If those predatory and marauding tribes which trouble their more peaceable neighbours in the Negro countries, cannot plead for the most part any other prescriptive right than that of unjustifiable aggression for their property in the victims they drag to the slave market—neither can the planter

of transatlantic soils prove a higher title. Was it ever pretended that the galley-slaves under Louis XIV. (in whose reign this method of expiating crime was chiefly in vogue)—was it ever pretended that the galley-slaves of Louis XIV would be sentenced to that punishment unless judicially convicted of crime? How can it be assumed, with any greater show of reason, that a free people, although living in the heart of Africa, may be treated like beasts of burthen, ranking far below the human species, kidnapped from their homes, and sold to a state of humiliating bondage? Upon this point we will once more hear the sentiments of the jurist and philosopher above cited—the Baron Puffendorff, who (book vi, chap. iii, p. 491) thus speaks:—

“ Let us see how Mr. Hobbes derives the sovereignty of masters and the subjection of servants from his state of war. And first, we must discard that fundamental error of his, that from the condition of nature which he calls a war of every man upon every man, there can result to any person a right of invading another, and of reducing him to servitude, upon gaining the victory. Yet thus much is sense; that by the right of war an enemy may fairly be killed, so the conqueror may, if he pleaseth, give him his life upon his promise of perpetual service. In which contract and composition the good which the vanquished receives is the security of his life, which, by the right of war, might have been taken away, and the good which he engages to bring to the victor is his service and obedience.”—“ In our judgment,” says this great expounder of the reciprocal laws and obligations of civil society, “ the origin of servitude ought thus to be traced out. In the early ages of the world, when men began to quit their primitive plainness and simplicity, to cultivate the method of living and to enlarge their fortunes and possessions, it is very likely the wiser and richer sort invited those of less parts and less wealth to assist them in their business for hire. Afterwards, when both parties found their benefit in this way of proceeding, the meaner tribes were by degrees persuaded to join themselves perpetual members of the families of the greater; under these conditions, that the latter should engage to supply board and all convenience of living, and the former should bind themselves to undertake all proper labours and employments as their patrons should direct. So that the first rise of servitude is owing to the voluntary consent of the poorer and more helpless persons.”

A variety of other like sentiments upon the general subject of slavery and its origin might be culled from the writings of Puffendorff and other great expounders of the law of nature and of nations, and their reciprocal and binding duties; but none of them will furnish the shadow of defined right for the system which, contrary to all law, human and divine, has been recklessly pursued by the maritime nations of Europe and America, in the affair of enslaved Africa. The pretext, therefore, which has sometimes been set up, is ridiculous, if any argument in the abstract sense is sought to be educed from the legitimatised practices of modern civilised nations. If carefully examined and traced up to its source this principle of right (the flimsy cobweb of a wretched sophistry, but which has been set up as justifying the absolute juris-

diction of planters over their slaves) must inevitably and utterly fall to the ground.

Setting aside, however, the *legal* character of the question, let us once more recur to the *moral*.

England—the generous vindicator of the oppressed—has shown a memorable example in leading the way to a slave emancipation, not only in the western Colonies, but by discouraging the traffic in the heart of Africa. She possesses rich territories on the islands and main land of South America equally with France, or Holland, or Spain, or any other maritime power of Europe.

But she has generously agreed to waive a portion of those advantages which she might otherwise derive from them, or in other words, she, as a nation, has nobly come forward to pay the immediate proprietors of slaves for any fancied loss which they might sustain, in order to give that freedom to the Africans which they originally possessed by an inalienable birthright.

Will the other Powers, who share in her maritime and Colonial advantages, not also share in the glory of doing the same; although they cannot share in the glory of originating it? Will they not, we reiterate,—and upon this high ground of honour and generosity, associated with duty, we would take our stand while pleading the rights of an unfortunate and degraded race;—will they not, instead of thwarting our efforts, assist us in the cause of raising Africa with her sons to her proper level in creation, and meting out that justice to her sable inhabitants which all claim an equal right to participate in? Alas! will the nations of Europe and America ever continue to perpetrate injustice and fraud? Will they not, in the case of Africa, at length be sensible that they have high duties to perform to the barbarian world which their civilised character imperiously requires of them? Unmindful of the long series of atrocities committed in Cuba, in St. Domingo, in Jamaica, on the Spanish Main—will they still seek to perpetuate their existence on other lands? The cruelties, the wholesale work of extermination and murder which history unfolds in bloody characters as connected with European settlements in the west, which have formed the glowing topics of eloquent indignation, from the commencement of the sixteenth century down to the period of the Abbé Raynal—shall these cruelties be still perpetrated on another race of beings equally unoffending as the Aborigines of America? Shall the Eastern shores of the Atlantic continue to supply victims for torture and death to the Colonies of the civilised portion of mankind in the West, depopulated of their original inhabitants by a course of barbarities sickening in their very perusal to the friend of humanity? For the honour of Europe, and all who boast of European descent, we hope not.

The interest of Europe, as well as her honour, is concerned in this question. There can be no doubt that the vast Continent of Africa, duly cherished by Europe and the civilised world, might contribute more in the scale of enriching them by an indefinitely extended commerce. The natural productions of mineral and vegetable life in many

districts of this continent are on a scale of magnificence scarcely to be paralleled elsewhere. If the wild animals which roam in lordly freedom in her jungles and trackless deserts—if her lions, her elephants, her tigers, her giraffes, exceed in point of size and beauty those of any other continent of the terrestrial globe—if the rich commodities of their climates and their own native industry offer themselves for an extensive traffic—why traffic in man? It is conjectured that within the last three centuries the trade of Timbuctoo has greatly declined. Although tradition has long and loudly celebrated its praise, its present size and opulence, according to the testimony of those Europeans who have visited it in our time, is greatly inferior to what might be gathered from traditional report. Leo Africanus, a writer of the sixteenth century, speaks of it as a city of great splendour; but those who have actually seen it in the nineteenth, describe it as a large assemblage of houses built chiefly of grass and mud, without the slightest pretensions to architectural beauty or grandeur of design. If, as it appears, Timbuctoo has, within the last three centuries, declined in opulence and prosperity (and that it has appears likely from the long-standing traditions of its renown and populousness), may not the cause of this decline be found in her not being a depôt for slaves. *That* traffic having taken precedence of every other, in these burning regions of the African Continent, is *now* transferred to other marts whose localities offer a more convenient emporium for its purposes. If Leo Africanus, who wrote in the sixteenth century, at a period prior to the importation of African slaves to the Western Continent, speaks of its ancient splendour in such terms of eulogy, some cause must exist for its present state of comparative meanness. Is it not probable that the cause we have assigned may have an influence in producing it.

But could not this famous city be again reinstated in its former splendours? Could not the Niger (or Joliba) be made the means of extensive intercourse with the nations of Europe? Could not its mighty waters, rolling through the heart of this continent, form the basis of intercourse with civilised nations for the rich commodities of the tropical regions of Africa, not the manacled and miserable victims of the grasping tyranny of the more powerful tribes over their weaker neighbours? The cities of Huoussa, or Lego, or Sansanding, or Walet, or Jiknie, might then traffic in other and more honourable merchandise; and the towns of some parallels of latitude throughout these vast districts might at length, through the instrumentality of the Niger, rise to far higher civilisation among their common species.

Is it not, then, a pity that her chief commercial intercourse with the great African Continent should still consist of a traffic in human flesh—in wretched victims of our own species? Is it not a consummation of crime and folly “devoutly to be” deprecated that the slavers of Europe and America should still cover the Atlantic, at certain seasons, and lay siege to the coasts of this continent with crews gloating over their fellow creatures whom they (setting at defiance every principle of civilised humanity) kidnap, or cause to be kidnapped, from their native shores?

How these victims are disposed of is universally known. Were it not notorious that such practices are still in constant occurrence, in the present day, the *fact* would be disbelieved.

But we will hear the testimony of a British Military Officer, long resident in Surinam, as to how these things were managed in that settlement of Dutch Guiana upwards of half a century since. Captain Stedman, of whom we speak, served, as is well known, as a volunteer in a Dutch regiment, sent to quell the revolted Negroes of that Colony. Captain Stedman, it will be said, wrote fifty years ago. But, even if things were much mended now, either as to the horrors of their transit, or their general treatment when located on the soils of many of the transatlantic settlements of the present period, still the narratives of Stedman, appalling as they are, only serve to show the evils of trusting absolute despotic power in the hands of a race of men who are amenable to no earthly tribunal for their exercise of it.

"I stopped," he says, "the carriage, at the water side, to behold a group of human beings who had strongly attracted my attention. This group I shall circumstantially endeavour to describe. They were a drove of newly imported Negroes, men and women, with a few children, who were just landed from on board a Guinea ship that lay at anchor in the roads, to be sold for slaves. The whole party was just such a set of scarcely animated automatons, such a resurrection of skin and bones, as forcibly reminded me of the last trumpet. These objects appeared that moment to be risen from the grave, or escaped from Surgeons' Hall; and I confess I can give no better description of them than by comparing them to walking skeletons, covered over with a piece of tanned leather.

"Before these wretches, who might be in all about sixty in number, walked a sailor, and another followed behind with a bamboo rattan—the one serving as a shepherd, to lead them along, the other as a dog, to worry them occasionally should any one lag behind or wander away from the flock. These groups of people are marched from every inland part to the factories erected on the coast of different nations, where they are sold, or, more properly speaking, bartered like the other productions of their country, viz., gold, elephants' teeth, &c., to the Europeans, for bars of iron, fire-arms, carpenters' tools, chests, linens, hats, knives, glasses, tobacco, and spirits, &c. Next, they are embarked for exportation, during which time they, without contradiction, feel all the pangs which mental or corporeal misery can inflict. Torn from their country and dearest connections, they are stowed, hundreds together, in a dark stinking hold—the sexes being separated; while men are kept in chains to prevent an insurrection. In this manner they are floated over turbulent seas, not certain what is to be their destiny, and generally fed during the voyage with horse-beans and oil for their whole subsistence."

Stedman had means of knowing the truth of what he narrates, and, therefore, his testimony may be said to stand unimpeached. We have, likewise, from his avowed sentiments on emancipation, a presumption that he has not overcharged the pictures he disseminates.



The pictures and the narrative, horrifying as they are, which Stedman cites of things which came under his own cognisance, are, it will be said, drawn from the particular Dutch settlement in which he sojourned. But it has never been asserted that this settlement alone was pre-eminent above others for its cruel treatment of its slaves. It is reasonable to think that, in most of the plantations, where despotic power was entrusted to persons who, for the most part, were little capable of using it with moderation, the same scenes occurred. Neither can it be pretended that these luckless victims were all, or even chiefly, lawful prisoners of war, taken in their own country; since, even if anything could legitimatise the wanton and treacherous system of warfare which the fiercer tribes wage against their weaker neighbours, it is very well known that many of the slaves, who drag out a miserable existence in the New World, are privately stolen from their homes.

Evidence of this might be adduced from other authorities, but two particular instances may be cited from the same work, which, with all its faults, throws more light upon the country of Guinea, and the manners of its white and black population, than almost any with which we are conversant.

"I remember once," says he, "to have had a remarkable good-looking new Negro to attend me, whose ancles and wrists, being much galled by chains, I inquired the cause. 'My father,' said he, 'was a king, and treacherously murdered by the sons of a neighbouring prince. To revenge his death, I daily went a hunting with some men, in hopes of retaliating upon his assassins; but I had the misfortune to be surprised, taken, and bound—hence these ignoble scars. I was afterwards sold to your European countrymen on the coast of Guinea, a punishment which was deemed greater than instant death.'

"The history of Quaco, my black boy, was still more extraordinary. 'My parents,' said he, 'lived by hunting and fishing. I was stolen from them very young, whilst playing on the sands with two little brothers. I was put into a sack, and carried for several miles. I afterwards became the slave of a King on the coast of Guinea, with several hundreds more. When our master died, the principal part of his slaves were beheaded, and buried along with him. I, with some other children of my age, were bestowed as presents to the different captains of his army, and the master of a Dutch ship afterwards had me.'"

These are not solitary instances. There is every reason to believe that the system of kidnapping is in constant and habitual practice among them, to a very great extent, in the present day.

We would ask, then—before we close the present paper—we would ask them all—will the maritime powers of our continent, and their American allies, continue to encourage this system—the system of inflicting sorrows and crying injustice upon Africa? We take our stand upon the ground of their common Christianity, and ask how their Governments, professing its principles, even in their most lax sense, can, by connivance, tolerate it in their subjects?

Is it not perpetuating, on both sides of the Atlantic, a degrading despotism of the most barbarous and inhuman kind? If the cruelties

perpetrated, in the last century, on the Negro race in the western settlements, as shown by Stedman and others, have, in the present, found a place on the same soils, to anything like the same extent, does not their continued tolerance cast a deep stain on their *professed* Christianity, as well as on their civilisation?

Alas! can these maritime powers forget that they have high Christian duties to perform towards the negroes of the torrid zone? Can they always remain utterly regardless of what their public avowed professions of religion previously exacts from them? While professing to be guided by mildness, and the precepts of "peace and goodwill towards men," will they continue to show, by their conduct, that they breathe nothing but rancour and hatred towards the sable and unoffending race of Africa?

While enjoining by their public acts and monuments justice and Christian forbearance, will they invariably perpetrate upon them the most cruel outrages and wrongs, and while professing to seek the welfare, and a desire to raise the condition of mankind, will they uphold a system of wholesale robbery accompanied, as it often is, with wanton barbarities, which indicate full surety that while Europeans wear a white skin they often carry underneath as black a heart as the exterior hue of the victims they persecute, barbarities which would, in truth, seem, sometimes, to have been perpetrated by fiends of darkness, rather than by creatures claiming a common consanguinity with humanity.

That the lot of these poor victims, reduced to slavery in their native land, was previously hard, forms no extenuation of the conduct of Europeans, and both Denham and Clapperton speak of it, indeed, as forlorn to a sad degree. But this only furnishes a reason why Europeans should strive to relieve it—not to aggravate its horrors. Who will say that every principle that can be urged as binding on the civilised nations of Europe does not require them to endeavour to heal these disorders rather than to ferment them.

The picture which Major Denham draws in the following passage may be taken as illustrative at once of the physical state of the country, during the rainy season, and the miserable lot of the slave:—"The waters covered the face of the country in extensive lakes, and our excursions in search of game were now confined to the immediate neighbourhood of our residence. The Gussub had increased in height greatly; and, at this season of the year, there are other reasons besides the falls of rain, which induce people to remain in their habitations. When the great lake overflows the immense district which, in the dry season, affords cover and food by its coarse grass and jungle to the numerous savage animals with which Bornou abounds, they are driven from these wilds, and take refuge in the standing corn, and sometimes in the immediate neighbourhood of the towns. Elephants had already been seen at Dowergoo, scarcely six miles from Kouka; and a female slave, while she was returning home from weeding the corn to Kowa, not more than ten miles distant, had been carried off by a lioness; the hyenas, which are everywhere in legions, grew now so extremely

ravenous, that a good large village, where I sometimes procured a draught of sour milk on my duck-shooting excursions, had been attacked the night before my last visit and the town absolutely carried by storm. The female slaves from Musgow, a description of whom I have somewhere else given, are never brought by the Tripoli or Fezzan traders; their features, naturally large and ugly, are so much disfigured by the silver stud which they wear in the under lip, that no purchaser would be found for them; besides the loss of the two front teeth which are punched out to make way for the silver which goes quite through into their mouths, the weight of the metal, after a year or two drags the lip down so as to make it quite lie on the chin, and gives a really frightful appearance to the face; these poor creatures, therefore, who are generally of a strong make, and patient under their sufferings, guard the crops and collect the harvest, and a year seldom passes without several of them being snatched away by the lions who couch under cover of the ripening corn, spring on their prey and bear it off."

But it is again on the other hand urged that if Europeans were to refrain altogether from this traffic in their own species, purchasers among the slave merchants of Fezzan and Tripoli, and other states of Barbary, would perpetuate these evils; the trade, with this train of mischiefs, would simply be thrown into other hands.

The whole of the population of Western Barbary, judging from the best intelligence we have, may be divided into three great classes (exclusive of the Jews) viz., Berrebbers, Arabs, and Moors. The two former of these are in every respect distinct races of people, and are each again subdivided into various tribes or communities; the third are chiefly composed of the other two classes, or of their descendants, occasionally mixed with the European or Negro races.

These three distinct races of people, with their numerous divisions and subdivisions, chiefly constitute the population of the north-western district of Africa; and, in many respects, they may be said (especially the two former races) to constitute the genuine descendants of Ishmael. For it appears that, so far as national clanship is concerned, with all others among mankind with whom they have any commerce, *their hand is against every man*. Each of these tribes may be said to be grand troublers of the wild and extensive districts over which they roam, and on the inhabitants of which they practice with lawless impunity every species of aggression and insult. Rapacity, oppression, fraud, and cunning, as exercised towards those over whom the chance of war constitute them the masters, may be quoted as their common and distinguished characteristics. What wonder that the peaceable inhabitants of the countries they invade are exterminated or sold to bitter slavery. What wonder that the blacks inhabiting the central and equinoctial regions of this continent should find eager purchasers and tyrannical masters, in the Moors, and Arabs, and Berrebbers, who practice every enormity towards each other; or that the unfortunate victims whose villages are broken up by stratagem and cruel aggression should continue by them to be bought and sold with impunity!

But here, again, we are fain to anticipate a new order of things. There is reason to think that the Ottoman Porte will listen to the remonstrances of Christian Powers, and issue its decrees in the proper quarters, for the suppression of this traffic on the part of the Moors. If a mandate prohibitory of this system, and tending to arrest its enormous evils, were to issue from this quarter, much good would result, inasmuch as the Moorish slave-merchants would no longer be at the pains to procure slaves, if the demand ceased.

But it is manifest the conduct of the Moors and Arabs, and other freebooters of the desert who live by violence and plunder, should rather animate Europeans to endeavour to neutralise it than to assist it. Their most pernicious example forms not, in the slightest degree, a justification or apology for a similar course of conduct in Europeans. Their dealings should be guided by a higher code of justice. We reiterate that they should seek to abate these wide-spreading evils, not add indefinitely to their sum; they should aid in endeavouring to raise the character of the destitute African, not concert means for its further degradation.

Is it not a fact, however, that some of the most enlightened races of the Negro population in these central regions would assist Europeans in their work? Both Denham and Clapperton speak of the inhabitants of Bornou as being guided by dictates of humanity, and on the whole, as the most civilised of any of the countries bordering on Lybia; and they each assert that its government would wish to see the present system put down, and one more conducive to African civilisation substituted instead. Of a similar amelioration of disposition in the Shonaas, another central tribe, Major Denham speaks; and the following picture of an interview with a Dugannah chief cannot be read without a deep and peculiar sort of interest, and may serve to show that in the interior of Africa, under the torrid zone, the higher sentiments of friendship and affection prevail, and are cherished by people in power:—

“The Dugannah chief, Tahr, came to my tent to-day. He had a fine expression of countenance, large features, and a long bushy beard; these are the particular characteristics of these Shonaas—they differ from Shonaas to the west, who have mixed more with the natives. Tahr might have sat for the picture of one of the patriarchs; and an able artist would have produced a beautiful head from such a study. Their mode of salutation is by closing their hands gently several times—as we applaud—and then extending the palms of both flat towards you, exclaiming, ‘*L’affia?*—Are you well and happy?’

“Tahr, with his followers, after looking at me with an earnestness that was distressing to me, for a considerable time, at last gained confidence enough to ask some questions, commencing, as usual, with ‘What brought you here? they say your country is a moon from Tripoli.’ I replied, ‘To see by whom the country was inhabited, and whether it had lakes and rivers and mountains like our own.’ ‘And have you been three years from your home? Are not your eyes dimmed with straining to the north, where all your thoughts must ever

be. Oh, you are men, men, indeed! Why, if my eyes do not see the wife and children of my heart for ten days, when they should be closed in sleep they are flowing with tears.'

"I had bought a sheep for a dollar, a coin with which he was not conversant, and he asked if it was true that they came out of the earth. The explanation pleased him. 'You are not Jews?' said he. 'No,' said I. 'Christians, then?' 'Even so,' replied I. 'I have read of you; you are better than Jews,' said he. 'Are Jews white, like you?' 'No,' replied I, 'rather more like yourself—very dark.' 'Really,' said the Sheikh; 'why are they not quite white; are they a bad people?' After staying a full hour, he took my hand, and said, 'I see you are a sultan; I never saw anybody like you. The sight of you is as pleasing to my eyes as your words are to my ear. My heart says you are my friend. May you die at your own tents, and in the arms of your wives and families.' 'Amen,' said I, and they all took their leave."

Bornou, then, in the midst of Central Africa, may be cited, upon competent testimony, as an example that many of the nations in the interior of this continent, whose inhabitants, though not decidedly warlike, are yet not deficient in bravery when attacked. They likewise view the cruel system of slave traffic, in such common use among surrounding nations, with a dislike bordering on abhorrence, as the following passage from Major Denham's *Researches in Africa*, will amply testify:—"The principal return which Moorish merchants obtain for their goods," says Major Denham, "consists in slaves; but Bornou is scarcely anything more than a rendezvous of Kafilas from Soudan. These unhappy victims are handed over to the Tripoli and Fezzan traders, who are waiting with their northern produce to tempt the cupidity of the slave merchants of Soudan. I think I may say that neither the Sheikh himself, nor the Bornou people, carry on this traffic without feelings of disgust that even habit cannot conquer. Of the existence of a foreign slave trade, or one which consigns these unfortunates to Christian masters, they are not generally aware at Bornou; and so contrary to the tenets of his religion, of which he is a strict observer, would be such a system of barter, that one may easily conclude the Sheikh of Bornou would be willing to assist with all the power he possesses, in any plan which might have for its object the putting a final stop to a commerce of this nature."

The enthusiasm which has recently been excited in the Chambers of Peers and of Deputies in France, upon the subject, may be said to form an important epoch in our times. The indignation caused by the revelations concerning the state of French Colonial slavery, which were there made, appears to have been universal, and may be esteemed a most happy omen of an auspicious change. Fifty years back, in the days of the French Revolution, the announcement of which we here speak, would have been greeted with very different feelings. The public mind in France, at that time, appeared callous to all generous considerations connected with her own species; and the atrocities committed by her countrymen in St. Domingo, and the recital of details here noticed, would have been far from eliciting so general a burst of indig-

nation in their national councils. Was not this sufficiently evidenced by the atrocities committed in that important island, when the unfortunate Toussaint l'Ouverture fell a victim to the wiles of Buonaparte? A new order of things has, in France, sprung up. Should we not hail the time when the same outbursts of indignation against tyranny are echoed in the French as were wont of yore to be heard in the British Senate? Shall this ebullition of feeling, as exhibited in the most august assemblage of a polite people in the heart of Europe, be suffered to subside? Oh, no! Shall it not rather reach and be reciprocated to the heart of Africa? Shall not the kindly dispositions noticed above, which were long ago expressed by the Bornouese and Shonaas towards Europeans; shall not the generous commiseration of these sable tribes of middle Africa towards their own countrymen, be responded to by civilised nations in Europe and the western continent? Will more enlightened countries, boasting withal the high privilege of Christianity, be content to be stigmatised and branded with a character of opprobrium which sinks them below these very tribes? Alas! will Europe, with all her munificent institutions for raising the character at once of our own subjects, and of infant communities in other lands where she seeks to establish new settlements, combine alone in crushing defenceless beings to whom nature has given a darker skin, and whom she has planted on peculiar geographical positions of our globe, under the zodiac, the woolly-headed and ebony-coloured Negro, whose path in life from the cradle to the tomb, stands so thickly strewn with dangers? Has the African alone, because in features and in colour he is diverse from most others of the human family, obtained a chartered right to become the luckless victim of oppression and wrong? Or has Europe and other nations, coadjutors with her in iniquity, obtained a privilege for heaping humiliation and misery upon the unfortunate descendants of Ham?

Shall this fair earth, we finally ask, continue to be disturbed and outraged by the sad and humiliating spectacle of its civilised portions, leading its more savage and defenceless tribes into slavery? Shall those nations, capable from their superior attainments of imparting the arts of peace and the kinder amenities of our nature, acquired by science and religion, continue to exemplify a conduct which allies them to the most depraved? Shall that ocean, traversed by Columbus with a view to high discovery, be degraded by his unworthy successors to some of the most ignoble purposes to which the lust of gain can stimulate mankind? Shall the extermination of the Aborigines of the Spanish western settlements, instead of being atoned for and redeemed by worthy deeds, be still followed up by fresh importations of wretched beings from the East, to be located in misery on the same soils, thus swelling the amount of crime of civilised Europe?

It has been computed that the total amount of slaves imported from the African coasts within the last two hundred years is upwards of 30,000,000! This frightful accumulation of human injustice has been said to have originated, and the precedent has been urged, from the mistaken policy of Bartholemew de Las Casas, who, say some, soon

after the first colonisation of the West Indies, imported or petitioned Ferdinand to import a few Africans from the Eastern Continent under the idea of their being better fitted for toil in those tropical regions than the Aborigines. But could the benevolent Las Casas have foreseen the frightful extent of the calamity which has resulted from his first unadvised importation of fifty Africans for labour in the new plantations, he assuredly would not have taken such a step.

He has been much blamed for adopting this measure, the commencement of such an interminable series of infelicities; but we are fain to think it was done in the integrity of his heart. For, as it was impossible for Las Casas to foresee the train of evils and enormities which his countrymen would perpetrate on the unoffending natives in the New World, so he was equally incapable of being cognisant of the cruelties of Europeans, calling themselves Christians, which his first unfortunate importation of Negroes from the shores of Africa should be the parent of. His generous advocacy of the rights of his fellow creatures in the New World would never have led him to carry them out at the expense of the equally guiltless tribes of Africa, or to inflict tortures or death on the latter in order to spare the former. Las Casas, compared with the generality of his countrymen who figured in the expeditions of that period, resembled rather an angel of light amidst demons. His high-minded and disinterested courage and humanity exerted in behalf of the weak and helpless were only paralleled by those attributes in Columbus himself.

This story, however, of Las Casas having been the first to import Negroes into the New World, has been denied by others. It is asserted that he did not sanction the substitution of Negroes instead of Indians for working the mines till 1517, whereas they were introduced by a royal ordinance as far back as 1501. The cold-hearted bigot Ferdinand—the destroyer of that illustrious man who added so much splendour to his reign—had in this, as in all other matters, made it a question of calculation as to whether Negroes were not capable of performing more labour than the Indian natives; and impressed with an idea of their being so, had heedless, as usual, of all moral considerations, doomed the former to that slavery which it is the object of the present essay to deprecate.

We ask, again, before concluding this paper, should not Europe aid in carrying out those generous sentiments evoked by the Bonouese, and should she show herself more barbarous and savage than some of the uncivilised tribes of Africa, whom she affects with such contempt to look down upon? Let her change her policy towards Africa, and as England has generously set her an example in the cause of freedom—let her nations co-operate with each other in striving, while they seek to relieve her physical inconveniences, to dissipate likewise her moral darkness. If the ancients assumed that the middle zones of our globe were uninhabitable, let the moderns, while they strive to irradiate her with the mild light of Christianity, give her the advantage also of the discoveries of modern science. Let her finally, through its mediator, endeavour to establish so extensive a system of IRRIGATION and

DRAINAGE, connected with her internal rivers and lakes, as may in some degree, at least, check the excessive *drought* and *moisture* to which the inhabited regions of middle Africa are alternately liable, and thus gradually raise her condition in the eyes of mankind. Or, if this at length be found to be a work of too gigantic a nature to be accomplished by a finite arm, let her unite in imparting that moral and religious enlightenment which shall soften her ferocity, and by training her unfledged genius, pave the way for the same grand and crowning result.

E. P.

Avon House, Wilts, August 25, 1847.

REMINISCENCES OF THE ISLAND OF CUBA; OR,  
THE SMITHS AT THE HAVANA.

BY CHARLES F. ELLERMAN, ESQ.,

AUTHOR OF "THE AMNESTY; OR, THE DUKE OF ALBA IN FLANDERS," &c., &c.

(Continued from vol. xi., p. 496.)

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE DESCRIPTION OF A "VERY HOT" DAY AT THE HAVANA.—MID-DAY,  
THE ELDORADO OF LOVERS.—SOME INTELLIGENCE OF BLANCA CABRAL  
AND THE DOINGS OF SILVA DE COPAN.

ONE day, about three weeks after the occurrence detailed in the foregoing chapter, Mrs. Smith and her niece were seated in their easy chairs before the open casement. A most delicious and refreshing sea-breeze fanned their faces, which enabled them to dispense with that artificial zephyr, which the light, but fantastically painted fans used by the Havana ladies, produce, when the currents of air in this tropical region lie dormant. The blue and white-striped curtains suspended from the cornice, bore testimony to the strength of the breeze, as they waved to and fro. Whenever they were raised from the ground, as they toyed gracefully with the refreshing breath of *Æolus*, the ladies above alluded to caught a glimpse of the almost deserted streets. Every one seemed anxious to avoid the burning rays of the vertical sun, and none, save those whose avocations constrained them to face the burning pavement, ventured to repose themselves in the streets at mid-day. Well might Mrs. Smith exclaimed with a sigh—

"Heigh ho! Well, I never! I wonder what's become of the population."

What had become of them, indeed! Why men and women of all grades, colour or persuasions, were either lolling in rocking-chairs in a



current of air, puffing and blowing clouds of tobacco smoke with a view, no doubt, to create those artificial vapours which in England too frequently veil the sun from our gaze, but which in the tropics are as scarce as black swans. Others lay extended on leathern couches, enjoying a *cigarrito*, watching the light blue smoke as it rose, curling and twisting in all manner of shapes, until lost among the rafters which support the ponderous roof, disturbing the mosquitoes which rest in their hiding-places during the day. Not a few snatched forty winks between each puff, whilst the not over melodious sounds of deep snoring, issuing from underneath tables, sofas, or pianofortes, denoted that the slaves were enjoying the same privilege as their master.

The European, whose mind is prejudiced by horrible accounts of the cruelty exercised towards slaves, and who, judging from the speeches annually delivered at Exeter-hall, must feel convinced that slaves are neither allowed meat, drink, nor repose, will perhaps discredit the picture I have just drawn of the master, the mistress, and her children dozing in rocking-chairs, and the slaves smoking or snoring under the furniture in the very same apartment. Let that good European undeceive himself. Mr. Smith, in his long-winded letter on *slavery in CUBA*, has drawn a true picture of the treatment of slaves in that island, though he has drawn animadversion upon himself, and abuse upon me, *his amanuensis*, from certain editors who have *justly* espoused the cause of anti-slavery, but who have *not understood* the motives which induced the worthy London citizen to endeavour to open the eyes of the *over-gulled* English public. I am afraid that Mr. Smith, or Mr. Smith's descendants, must give up the endeavour to open John Bull's eyes as a bad job. That two-legged animal, generally represented with a thick-set neck and shoulders, protruding paunch, and feet cased in top-boots, looking the picture of good nature, is in reality a most gullible, superstitious, and prejudiced sort of person. You might as well throw pearls to pigs as endeavour to convince him, when he has once an idea engrafted in his pate. 'Sdeath! it sticks there like a pitch-plaster. He erroneously calls obstinacy character; and unless a man be as obstinate as a bear, he is considered a weak-minded person, proprietor of a mind as impassionable as dough or putty—in short, nothing *short* of a noodle, or an unfortunate person who has been completely ruined by contagion with dirty foreigners.

Well, it is one o'clock; the streets are deserted by the white population, who have sought refuge in their houses; and the occasional sound of footsteps in the burning thoroughfares proceed from some coloured person, who, born in the tropics, rather courts than eschews the fiery rays of the sun. The liberated black, aspiring to be fashionable, sometimes saunters about the streets with an elegant umbrella spread over his head, as if he were afraid that his sooty skin would turn still blacker if brought into contact with the rays of the burning orb. I have seen many Europeans walk the streets at the Havana at midday, in the month of June, when the sun is right overhead, without suffering much inconvenience. This is attributable to the refreshing breeze which cools the air, and deprives the atmosphere of that oppressive and suffocating heat which is experienced at New Orleans, and other more inland towns,

which are not blessed with diurnal sea and nocturnal land breezes, the godsends of the West India islands.

The period devoted to the *siesta* is not unfrequently consecrated to the worship of Eros. While the old people doze, the younger members of society *are wide awake*. They squeeze each other's hands (which is rather unpleasant in July) and whisper soft nothings; lips come, as if accidentally, into contact with soft cheeks, and lip not unfrequently meets lip, in an accidental but very natural manner.

Heat is a most sociable fellow. He imparts all the abandon of a bacchanalian gay with wine, without lasciviousness, and melts etiquette in the most extraordinary manner. Oh! happy is the hour, when Donna Bartolo's duennas, or parents, buried in slumber, are reft of animation. It is then that the lover ventures into the abode of his Dulcinea or Rosina, heedless of porters, Don Basilios, or powdered menials. The door left wide open, invites him to enter. He steps over the body of the snoring calessero, and in a trice finds himself in the presence of his lady-love, who had been peeping behind the floating drapery in breathless anxiety. If the courtship be not sanctioned by the parents, the poor Capulet or Montague, with a patience that would have done honour to Job, steals up to the grated window; there he stands, exposed to the heat of the sun, not unlike a steak or a chop on a gridiron, roasted from without, burning from love from within, and he is reduced almost to carbon. True, there is some comfort in being able to gaze undisturbed upon a pair of jet black eyes, which seem to claim relationship with the sun, such is their fire and lustre; and to press a lily-white hand interwoven with blue veins, and cover it with kisses. To an imaginative mind, all this must appear delightful, but to a matter-of-fact mind, the burning eyes and smiling lips from within, would not compensate the roasting from without, which, in the middle of the day in the months of June, July, and August, is truly terrific.

Of course the quays are deserted. The sailors on board of the various vessels, unloading European merchandize, or taking in the produce of the Indies, lie beneath the awning, which covers the deck from the poop to the prow, as torpid as moles, buried in deep repose. The Negroes have crept under their carts, and the old women in the market-place, even at the risk of having their fish, fowls, pine apples, or bananas cribbed, may be seen nodding like a parcel of Chinese figures in grocers' shops. Morpheus reigns supremely over all save *lovers*, the only persons who, perchance, are making fools of themselves. Oh! delightful folly!! Who is there that can say I am not GUILTY!!!

A very few moments after Mrs. Smith had expressed her wonder as to what had become of the population, she in her turn fell fast asleep. Miss Wardy was knitting a purse, which occasionally dropped from her hands, as thought pre-occupied her mind. Was she thinking of poor Blanca Cabral or dreaming of McGuinness? Certain it was that she was deeply buried in thought, for she heard not the sound of footsteps nor caught the outlines of the shadow of a young man standing on the threshold, who seemed to feed his gaze, as he looked endearingly upon her. At last she raised her eyes—they met those of the dweller

on the threshold—a smile brightened up Clarissa's pensive countenance—a slight crimson tinged her cheek—both spoke volumes. She raised her finger to her lips and then pointed to a huge arm-chair in which her aunt lay ensconced. The young man cautiously advanced, seized her hand, kissed it, and McGuinness was rendered a happy man. During the time that Mrs. Smith lay buried in deep sleep, the lovers enjoyed a most delicious *tête-à-tête*, which it is not our intention to chronicle, as those who have made love, are well acquainted with the doings and sayings of lovers, which can only interest those who are under the mesmeretic influence of love.

Mrs. Smith started in her sleep—muttered some incoherent sentences about beef-steaks, taxes, and general elections—and then, to the utter sorrow of the lovers, opened her eyes.

"Now I might have gained a pair of gloves," said McGuinness, rising and looking as innocent as a lamb.

"If it had been Clarissa," remarked Mrs. Smith, with emphasis, "you no doubt would have earned and then claimed them. Oh, you young men are a sad set!"

"Human nature, Madam—"

"Human nature, indeed! I should like to know what you and Clarissa have been about?"

"Lor aunt!"

"Lor Clarissa! Don't I know what's what? Was I not young once—and was I not also in love *once*, ay, more than *once*. I do not allude to Peter, I took him because he suited me, because I hate love matches."

"You think they are too much like lucifer-matches, I suppose," remarked McGuinness, "all on a blaze for a moment and then nothing is left but a confounded sulphuretted smell which penetrates into one's nose, and is particularly unpleasant, when one wakes in the night, to see how old Time progresses. What are you going to do this evening?"

"Peter talks of going to the Hopera, if he can get Tauregui's box. I long to 'ear them Hetalians, and then they say the tenor, Montresor I think they calls him, is such a 'andsome man."

"Not so handsome as the bass," remarked Clarissa.

"I never heard them say that Montresor is a base fellow; all I know is that he is a 'andsome man—all the women are in love with him."

"I hope you are not smitten with him, my dear," said Mr. Smith, entering the room, followed by Fray O'Donnell.

"Me!" exclaimed Mrs. Smith, "I hope you have not been *eve* dropping at the door, if you have, Mr. Smith, you heard no good of yourself. Listeners never do. Where have you been all this time? A briling of yourself in the sun?"

"No, my dear, refreshing myself at the *Café del Commercio!* waiting for Tauregui. He has given us his box, and meeting with Fray O'Donnell, I brought him here."

"How kind of you to come, holy father—pray be seated. What news of poor Blanca?"

"She is still in a very precarious state. Poor girl, the news she received yesterday has thrown her again into a state of collapse. Some

kind and over-officious friend—and these abound everywhere, unfortunately—must needs write her a letter in which she gave her a long account of that De Copan's doings."

"Lor! what has he done now?" demanded Mrs. Smith.

"Done! Why he has, it appears, forgotten his poor Blanca, and recommenced his flirtations with the General's wife."

"You don't say so!"

"Rumour, madam, bruits it about most lustily. People have eyes; mine saw him only ten minutes ago, standing before the grated window of the General's abode. He was so busy, printing the shape of his lips upon a lily white hand, which he grasped fervently betwixt his own, that he heard not the approach of footsteps. As I came up to the spot where he stood, I distinctly heard Donna Leonora whisper something which seemed to please the fickle youth very much. I raised my hand to lay it on his shoulder, when the coquette caught a glimpse of my person, and uttering a scream, she woke the General, who had hitherto sat buried in deep sleep. "*Mil demonios!*" exclaimed the General, starting out of his cose. "*Che hai, che hai?*" "*Nada—nada, my dear,*" replied Leonora, cunningly throwing herself into her husband's arms, which enabled De Copan to scamper off, without making any apology, or deigning to notice me."

"Well, I never!" exclaimed Mrs. Smith.

"No, never!" responded Fray O'Donnell.

"What happened after that?" inquired Clarissa.

"I scarce know; but this I remember—that I found myself rooted to the spot. The General was asking me how it came that I dared to scare his wife into fits, at a time when he was taking his siesta, and when I ought to have been taking mine, as if I could not have chosen some other hour for playing such tricks. I must either have looked very foolish or very guilty, for he burst into a fit of laughter, and then invited me to walk in, which invitation I politely refused."

"The man must be blind!" exclaimed Mr. Smith—"as blind as a mole."

"Who knows?" said the monk; "perhaps he was not asleep at all. What I fear is that something dreadful will happen. His suspicions must be aroused; the man walks about by himself a good deal. I sometimes see him sauntering by moonlight—this looks as if jealousy were devouring him; and depend upon it blood will flow!"

"Lord forbid!" shouted Mrs. Smith; "we had quite enough of that at Tauregui's; the black fellow and me, wasn't we both covered with blood. Oh, shocking!"

At this moment the door opened; Peabody, in a tremendous perspiration, covered with dust and mud, entered the apartment.

"Hey-day! Mr. Peabody, what's the matter?" inquired Mrs. Smith. "Now you do look quite honfakalised, as you call it."

"I never was more onswaggered in my life, ma'am—never! Only think; I was jist dressed, guessing that I would pay my respects to you—says I to myself, I'll bring as handsome a nateral bouquet of flowers to Mistress Smith as I can chance to find in the market; so I went

there, and arter bargening ten minutes with as an amazin' a fine negro female as ever I sot eyes upon—oh! sich a flirtin', frolickin', duck of a critter, with eyes a sparklin' like black di'monds in the sun, teeth as white as those of a young shark ten months old, cheeks as round as an apple, and sich a neck, and—"

"You don't mean to say, Mr. Peabody, that the flower-girl bespattered you in that extraordinary manner?" observed Mrs. Smith, interrupting the Yankee.

"No, ma'am, no—I'm coming to the pint. I couldn't help admiring the gal, though she was as black as your shoes, for natur' is natur', that's a fact. She had sich a beautiful voice, too; but I unfortunately caught a glimpse of her feet. Lor! as Sam Slick says, when talking of the gals to Slickville, her soles was as hard as the hoofs of jackasses. All sentiment vanished in an instant. I told the gal she ought to buy herself a pair of yaller satin shoes; I paid for the nosegay—and hurried off. Jist as I was turnin' the corner of the street where Giniral Pizarro lives, some rascal run slap bang foul of me, and afore I could say 'now stupid,' I found myself sprawlin' in the gutter; and afore I could regain my legs to see who had knocked me down in so ungentlemanly a manner, the cove had disappeared. I looked for my nosegay; there it lay in the mud, knocked to pieces. I could have clawed that fellow's eyes out, I could, I was so plaguy furious; and what think you sot my dander up? Why I heard a deal of people larfin' enough to split their skin, but I could see nobody in the street. It was the young gals and their lovers, behind their drapery, a makin' fun of me. Ah! it's the way with the world, people always larf at other people's misfortunes; it's very unkind. Well, I must have looked precious foolish a sittin' in a gutter covered with darty yaller mud. At last I got up, and ran away as fast as I could."

"Have you no idea," said Mrs. Smith, looking at Fray O'Donnell, "who the person was that knocked you down?"

"Hav'n't the remotest notion, I guess—some black nigger I reckon, belongin' to one of the houses in the neighbourhood, for he vanished like the devil, and here I am looking like a brute."

"Depend upon it," whispered Mrs. Smith to Fray O'Donnell, "it was that De Copan."

"What do you say, ma'am?" said Peabody.

"Notning, Mr. Peabody; but I think you had better go and dress for dinner."

"Well, I guess I had, for I isn't fit to be seen." Saying which, he bowed, and took his leave.

## CHAPTER XXXV.

THE ITALIAN OPERA.—A BENEFIT NIGHT IN THE TROPICS.—MR. SMITH'S LIBERALITY.—MRS. SMITH'S NIGGARDLINESS, AND OBSERVATIONS ON ACTRESSES.

WE have already informed our readers that the inhabitants of Cuba are passionately fond of music. Whenever the band plays in the square,

fronting the Captain-General's palace, the environs are crowded with listeners, anxious to devour the sounds of harmony. One would suppose that the creoles were musically and poetically organised, judging from the anxiety they ever display to frequent concerts and the opera house. If a private concert be given at Count Penalver's mansion, or in the abode of other patron of the muse, you may be certain to find a dense crowd assembled beneath the open casements. Nay, one frequently meets a host of slaves running along the streets loaded with chairs, which they are carrying to the street where stands the house in which the concert is to be given, and shortly afterwards you will see a band of gay Lotharios and charming young girls directing their steps to the rendezvous. They take possession of their seats, and there they remain until the concert has terminated. Europeans, I mean those who inhabit the less temperate but more frigid zones, can form no idea of the enjoyment which these street *réunions* procure to those who have not the good fortune to be numbered among the guests. The greatest hilarity prevails amongst the crowd, who are silent during the execution of the music, but noisy and gay so soon as the strains of harmony have ceased to enchant the ear. The gentlemen and the matrons smoke their cigars, the young ladies play with their fans, listening to the soft nothings and nonsense breathed into their ears by their adorers. Round about the *élite* you see groups of negroes and negresses, standing or squatted on the ground. These sable domestics are as mad for music as their masters and mistresses, who tolerate their presence, and encourage their whims, heedless of their familiarity or fear of contagion.

It is truly a curious sight to witness these nocturnal audiences, composed of masters and slaves, whose souls are entirely given up to enjoyment and perfect freedom; they come and go as suits their caprice—all etiquette seems banished. Such a spectacle as I have described should be witnessed by some of our English aristocracy and North American democracy! (?) They would soon perceive the difference between the treatment of the slave in Cuba, compared with the treatment the white slave is subjected to in London or the *black freedman* in New York. But, then, the masters in the tropics are not so arrogant as those who reside in our latitude, and the slaves not so insolent and impertinent as the bloated, powdered menials, in London, and the independent vagabonds who cleft themselves *helps* in the United States of America. Nothing can be more true than the French proverb—" *Tel maître tel valet.*" Where there are arrogant masters you may make certain of finding impertinent, bullying servants—scoundrels who look upon you as dirt, unless you drive up in a Brougham or a chariot to my lord's door. The Cubanos may bless Heaven and thank their stars that none of that nonsense has been incorporated amongst their domestics, nor instituted by themselves.

I find that I have wandered from the subject; it was natural I should do so when picturing the tableau which I have just drawn. It must forcibly strike all our readers, especially those who have heard horrible accounts of the treatment of slaves and their degraded position. Let them go to the Havana, or to St. Jago de Cuba, or to Matanzas, or to

Puerto Principe, and they will see the scenes we describe ; and, what is more, they will hear negroes and negresses sing the grand arias of "Norma," "Belisario," "Sonnambula," "Barbieri," &c. &c., with a precision and taste that would surprise them. I have heard some of these sable songstresses warble the "Casta diva" so deliciously, so sweetly, and with so much ease, that with a few months' tuition they would have reaped rich harvests at the London and Paris Opera-houses. We are inundated with mock Ethiopians, who have nicely gulled the public by singing absurd negro songs. What a sensation a real black prima donna would create amongst our virtuosi ! Zounds ! we should hear of operas written for female Othellos, and Barbaresque or Congo heroines would become all the rage. The only disadvantage a black or copper-coloured prima donna would labour under would be the changing of the Ethiopian skin to the hue of the lily and the rose, for we could never think of hearing a sable Norma, unless Pollio, Adelgisa, and her father, as a matter of course, were to dye themselves black, and then the scene would have to be shifted from Gaul to Abyssinia or Matamba.

The taste for Italian music is as great in Cuba as it now is in London, and, we may add, even in Italy. For several years past the Havaneese have supported Italian singers of great distinction, who delighted their hearers and reaped rich harvests, the more especially if they were favourites with the public ; and, as most of the creole ladies are musical or musically inclined, every box in the theatre is let. Indeed, it is one of the most fashionable pastimes that of attending the opera and public concerts. Hence the difficulty of the Smiths going to hear the Italian company, for Mrs. Smith was much too aristocratic to exhibit herself in the pit. Pshaw ! that might do at Her Majesty's Theatre, where she and her husband sometimes gained admittance by means of pit orders presented as a favour to the common councilman ; and even then, Mrs. Smith would complain of the expense of coach hire, gloves, flowers, &c., to say nothing of the awful squeeze she had to undergo from the pressure from without, and running the risk of having the things torn off her back, or her breath squeezed out of her body by everybody as anxious as herself to secure sitting room, caring more for themselves than for the trumpery which enveloped her elegant form.

There are two theatres at the Havana ; the one called the *Alameda*, situated in the centre of the town, close to the wharf, is appropriated to the Italian Opera company ; the other, situated without the walls of the City, is called *El Teatro Tacon*, in honour of General Tacon, who was Captain-General of Cuba at the time it was erected. This theatre was intended solely for the Spanish drama, but occasionally the Italian company performs there, though it is not so sonorous as the *Alameda*, which is much smaller and a far less elegant structure. The *Teatro Tacon* is one of the most magnificent theatres in the world. It is about the size of "Her Majesty's Theatre," but far more elegant. Painted white and gold, richly, but not gaudily, decorated, having the front of the boxes composed entirely of open work, which enables one to see the toilet of the ladies from head to foot, this theatre presents a noble and imposing aspect. What can be more beautiful than to see tiers of boxes, crowded

with elegantly dressed women, the majority of whom are clad in white, decorated with beautiful bouquets in their hair and bosoms, looking like so many flower stems animated with life. The imaginative mind might work fancy to such a pitch that he could conceive himself in the midst of hours, so beautiful is the spectacle which presents itself to his gaze; and when music comes to the aid of fancy, the delusion is complete. The box appropriated to the Captain-General is elegant beyond description—the like thereof is not to be found in London nor in Paris. This theatre is entirely lighted with wax candles, and, when completely filled, offers a noble aspect. The men are very particular as to their toilette, and the same etiquette as that observed at our Italian operas is exercised at the Havana. The effect produced by a pit and stalls filled with men all wearing black dress-coats and white pantaloons is aristocratic in the extreme—even the mulattos and the blacks, who attend the theatre, observe the same etiquette as regards dress.

Having described the Teatro Tacon, we shall now invite the reader to accompany us to the Alameda, the doors of which we shall find besieged by an elegantly dressed mob. It is a benefit night, that of the Signora Pantanelli, the contralto, who is a great favourite with the public. The opera fixed upon by this excellent singer is Rossini's celebrated *Semiramide*, and she performs the part of Arsace, in which she excels. Benefit nights are very exciting ones amongst the patrons of the art, as they seize that opportunity to display the extent of their admiration towards the beneficiary, not by words or the clapping of hands, as is the custom with us, and which benefit but little the pockets of the singer, whereas it forces the artist to repeat an aria, which is done with seemingly good grace, whilst in their hearts they wish the public to the devil. At the Havana the patrons display their admiration by depositing huge piles of ounces of gold upon a silver salver, before which, in theatrical costume, the artist is seated, close to the entrance of the lobby. It is impossible to smuggle oneself into the theatre without passing in front of the Cerberus, or rather the two-eyed Argus, who, with a bewitching smile, which costs her nothing, sits watching the treasure which admiration or vanity forces out of the pockets of her admirers, and which certainly costs some of them much. I say vanity, for I have seen a marquis, after depositing twenty ounces of gold upon the salver, stand talking to the artiste until a count, also a patron of the art, should pass and deposit his *mite*. Now it chanced this evening that the count, who no doubt had dined well, or was perchance in a good humour, cast some five-and-twenty ounces on the salver, which donation naturally extracted one of the blandest smiles Arsace could assume; the Marquis could not suffer himself to be outdone, so he coolly left the theatre and then returned, laying some ten to fifteen ounces more on the salver.

The reader must not presume to imagine that these gentlemen were other than real admirers of the talent of the Signora Pantanelli, who enjoyed the reputation of being a very virtuous wife and a very well conducted woman. They liked the artiste as we like Grisi, Persiani, or Jenny Lind: here their admiration ceased. Besides, the Signora had a husband, and the domestic bliss they enjoyed sufficed to strike the malicious and the scandalous dumb.



The custom of bestowing large sums of money on the favourite beneficiary turns to a very valuable account, some actors having made several thousand dollars on their benefit night. Few think of giving silver, and, as I have shown, many vie who shall give the most. How can we be surprised at this when we hear of persons paying four guineas for stalls, and thirty guineas for boxes at Her Majesty's Theatre, merely to hear Jenny Lind, and witness the pageantry of a State visit from Royalty. An artiste who crosses the sea and risks her health in the tropics deserves this mark of favour, as money is the most striking proof of the sincerity of admirers. Words, shouts, or the clapping of hands, are mere moonshine when compared to the volumes spoken by GOLD, that arch enchanter!

Amongst those who presented themselves at the door of the theatre were our worthy friends Mr. and Mrs. Smith, Miss Hardy, escorted by McGuinness, followed by Peabody and myself.

"Heighy-tity!" exclaimed Mrs. Smith, relinquishing her husband's arm, "what's the meaning of that woman in them theatricals a seated afore them 'eaps of gold? Sure it aint a wax figure like that at Mrs. Tus—Tus—Tusso. What do you call that French woman as exhibits the heads of them fellers as was 'ung for murder, and George the 4th in his robes in state, and all sorts of notorious and great people. Well, I never! it's a live woman!"

"I've woman! to be sure she is I reckon, and a plaguy pretty one too!" exclaimed Peabody.

"If she was made of wax, she'd have melted long ago with this precious heat," remarked Mr. Smith. "She's the beneficiary; what shall I give, Peabody?"

"Give!" exclaimed Mrs. Smith. "Why you've nothin' to give! Hasn't Tauregui given you his box—you have nothin' to pay."

"It is this lady's benefit," remarked McGuinness.

"Benefit, indeed! what's that to us? I call this goin' a beggin' with a vengeance. Lady, indeed! I should be ashamed to sit in that ere manner before the Queen's Theatre a asking for halms."

"Hold your tongue, Polly, you do not know what you are talking about. Will two ounces do, Peabody?" inquired Mr. Smith.

"Yes, I guess!"

"Well, I never! It's all very fine guessing, Mr. Peabody; but if I had known Peter was going to throw away two hounces of gold upon that woman, I *guess* I should have stopp'd at the hotel."

"Ma'am," replied Peabody, "we must do in Rome as Romans does."

"Fudge! we aint creholes—thank God, I was born in the city of London."

"Then I reckon, ma'am, that, like the Scotchman, who thanked heaven that he was born in the Highlands and not in the Lowlands, you are grateful for tarnal small mercies."

Whilst this conversation was being carried on, Mr. Smith, with that dignity and generosity which characterises those who hold office in the city of London, drew two golden ounces from his waistcoat, threw them on the salver, so rapidly and dexterously, that it was impossible for the

artiste, or the by-standers to see the amount which created such a noise and confusion amongst the heap and pillars of gold, many of which, as if the earth had been violently agitated by an internal commotion, were overthrown, creating more or less noise as they were scattered about. Mr. Smith, bestowing a patronising look on the fair Pantanelli, seized his wife by the hand, pompously leading the way to the boxes, followed by his companions.

"What do you think of the theatre, ma'am?" inquired Peabody, after we were all seated.

"I was a thinking of the deal of money Mr. Smith has thrown away upon that Hetalian woman dressed up as a man. Lor! what does she know about him. She was completely awe-struck-like when she heard the rattle of the money."

"She was more likely terror-stricken with the rattling of your tongue, Mrs. Smith; for I'm sure she stared to hear you go on so," replied her husband.

"For Heaven's sake, aunt, say no more about it. Hark, the orchestra is going to commence the overture," observed Miss Hardy.

"It's a considerable pretty sight, this, aint it, Smith?" remarked Peabody. "I loves a house chock full of people; its grand, its dreadful pretty, 'specially if the actin' is good. Look into the orchestra, d'ye see what a many black fellers they've got there—first-rate scrapers on the fiddle I guess. All Wallaces in their style, and thinks themselves Paganineyes, the grinnin' rascals. You should see our theatres to the States; why, they're three times as big as this to New Orleans and New York, and, if I don't misremember, Saint Charles to New Orleans is the biggest in the world. Tow and fire, it's a'most as big as the 'Gyptian Pyramids, only of a different ship-shape. You'll be unfakalised when you see Saint Charles, ma'am, that you will; and I'm a nigger if you don't stare for five whole blessed minutes, that's a fact. But here goes the orchestra, let's be mum!"

The orchestra, led by Signor Rossi, a talented Italian maestro, played the overture *dreadful pretty*, as Peabody observed. Indeed, the musicians would have done honour to many first-rate European theatres, though half the seats were occupied by negroes. But those swarthy worshippers of Apollo have acute hearing and flexible muscles to wield the bow, so that with a little training they are no longer neophites, but adepts, in the divine art.

The first act went off uncommonly well. As a matter of course, when the lamps between the scenes, like "coming events," cast the shadow of the beneficiary before her on the stage, a grand allegretto, executed by the palms of admirers, greeted her presence, whilst the ladies threw splendid bouquets which fell at the feet of the delighted prima donna. But the handsomest proof of admiration proceeded from the box of a nobleman whose fortune enabled him to outvie his neighbours in gifts of this kind. Just as the applause and shouts were dying into that pianissimo which denotes that both the audience have had their fill of applauding, and the artiste that of bowing and scraping, a beautiful wreath, composed of white roses, was seen to hover in the air—it attracted

universal attention. Well might Mrs. Smith wonder what it could be, when she discovered the wreath going round and round like a parachute, and heard the flapping of wings. She thought of the vampire, and unconsciously put her hands to her head as if to protect her hair. Presently, as if it had been so ordained by the necromancer or the genius of the house, the wreath fell on Madame Pantanelli's shoulders, and it was then the audience perceived that four beautiful doves, which were attached to the wreath, had been the cause of its hovering round about the artiste, until it rested on her shoulders. A little more and it would have fallen upon her head, and the intentions of the donor would indeed have been carried out to their fullest intent. The applause, owing to this circumstance, recommenced, but none, save the bestower or the receiver, knew the value and extent of the gift concealed amongst the leaves of the garland. Yea, reader, and such things only can take place in the tropics, or in more genial climes than in the latitudes of Greenwich or Paris—in climes where people do not complain of spleen, *ennui*, or blue devils; this garland concealed diamond, emerald, ruby, and pearl rings, brooches and earrings.

Who would not be an artiste in the tropics? Go and ask Fanny Ellsler!

Whilst the opera was going on, McGuinness caught a glimpse of Donna Leonora, seated by herself in a box facing us. He pointed out the coquette to me, proposing, in a whisper, that we should go and pay her a visit between the acts. I readily acquiesced, and when the curtain fell we left our box, and finding the door of the General's box open, we entered, complimenting the lady on her good looks. She really looked quite captivating; and, to tell the truth, a pretty woman is a very pretty thing! No one will refuse to join issue with me on that score; and when beauty is enhanced by wit, animation, a *leetle* coquetry and tact, the devil himself must have a heart of petrified brimstone if it don't melt.

Our conversation soon grew very animated; we talked of everything and of everybody, save poor Blanca Cabral. She, poor thing, as the Witch of the Vija had foretold, was doomed to be nipped in the bud, and as she was no longer an actress in the fashionable world, that heartless world had forgotten her, as if her mortal coil counted amongst the things that had been. As the recollection of that angelic girl flashed across my mind, I could not help giving vent to thought; but the remembrance of those scenes which I had witnessed at Tauregui's, were interrupted by the arrival of a visitor, who seemed not a little displeased at the *laissez aller* of Donna Leonora. It was not the General, it was De Copan who stood on the threshold of the box. For an instant, marks of displeasure dwelt on his countenance, but they vanished when the coquette held out her hand to welcome him. Possibly he did not recognise McGuinness at first, as his back was turned to the door. We resumed our conversation, unconscious that green-eyed jealousy was watching us unseen from the opposite part of the house. Ensnconced in a box concealed by the drapery, sat General Pizarro. He watched—ay, and what passed in his heart none, save those who have suffered or suffer from jealousy, can describe. It is quite enough to feel its pangs without depicting sensations which must be more direful than the tortures a devotee is subjected

to, when stretched on a gridiron over burning charcoal; or the pangs which the thumbscrew or the scavenger's daughter inflicted on the corpu. and limbs of unfortunate heretics. O Venus! preserve us from jealousy, the thoughts of which are enough to make one's flesh creep on one's bones, to say nothing of the flutterings and palpitations of the heart, which end in aneurism.

Heedless of the old General—indifferent to *his* feelings on the subject, we flirted until the signal was given for the commencement of another act, when we took our departure, leaving De Copan in tête-à-tête with the pretty coquette. Alas, little did we dream, as we gaily left that box, of the dreadful ideas which succeeded each other in the General's mind: and little did De Copan think that— But we must pause and allow events to take their course, or else we should forestal the workings of Time, and too speedily gratify the curiosity of those who have taken any interest in the fates of Blanca, De Copan, and the other actors in this dramatic episode.

On re-entering our box, we found Mrs. Smith making sundry inquiries of Peabody about the actors and the Captain-General, who occupied a splendid box, fitted up with regal luxury.

"O'Donnell's the boy for giving you all the information about them Captains-General, I suspect. He's got their history and their everlastin' doin's at his fat fingers' ends, I reckon. A tarnal good situation they've got."

"Situation!" exclaimed Miss Hardy.

"Situation, sure; or berth, if you like it better; for what's a governor or a magistrate but a king or a queen's help. To New York, our servants as you call 'em be helps, so is a Captain-General, only he has better wages, and helps himself plentifully I guess, or else he's a goney, you may depend!"

"I should like to know all about them," said Mrs. Smith; "it will do to put in my dairy!"

"Your what!" exclaimed Peabody.

"Dairy, to be sure; I've kept a dairy ever since I left London!"

"Tarnal death! Ha! ha! ha! Well, I never! that beats all I've heerd for many a day." Then, turning to Mr. Smith, who happened to be conversing with McGuinness, he said, "I say, Smith—"

"Well—what's the matter?"

"How are you off for milk?"

"Milk?" inquired the astonished citizen. "Milk! what do you mean? What are you laughing at?"

"Laugh! why it's enough to make one laugh like blazes, to think that Mrs. Smith has been a keeping a *dairy*, and that we should have known nothing about it. What's the price of cream?"

Mrs. Smith coloured as red as Hambro' beef, and her husband looked as if he could not help it, which, in point of fact, he could not; for he had never succeeded in making his wife speak correctly, and never expected that he would.

"My aunt means a *diary*, I think; don't you, aunt?"

"I said so; it was *dairy* I said! It is very rude of you, Mr. Pea-

body, very. Well, I never! as if people couldn't keep their dairies without being laughed at."

On hearing this, none of us could withstand indulging in laughter. McGuinness, in order to ingratiate himself into Mrs. Smith's good graces, by a *bon mot* turned the laughter on Peabody, who haw-hawed like thunder, until certain murmurs and signs of disapprobation, which arose from the pit, forced the Yankee Jove to hold his peace and listen to the music, which had just commenced.

Ere closing this lengthy chapter, we must inform the reader that the greatest success attended the beneficiary and all the other artistes throughout the piece. Montresor, though his voice had lost much of its freshness, was a very creditable Idraste. Valtellina acted with great dignity as Assur, and was greatly applauded; and as for the Signora Albini, who took the part of Semiramis, she was called for after the opera, led on by the Pantanelli. The cheers of the audience were deafening, and as for bouquets and wreaths, it was a perfect deluge of flowers. They were thrown in such rapid succession that Mrs. Smith thought the poor creatures would have been buried beneath them. Had such been the case, the account of their flosculous tomb might have occupied a very interesting page in her very interesting *dairy*.

(To be continued.)

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## AUSTRALIA AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS.

BY THOMAS M'COMBIE, ESQ.

EACH country, however rude its population, possesses some scanty historical record, but Australia is a solitary exception. We discover no trace of its condition prior to the visit of European discoverers. Its Aborigines do not possess any scraps of a rude literature; they have no Saga, historical ballad, or legendary tale. We find no trace of former intellectual operations, and, as there is no contemporary record to assist us, the former history of this vast island cannot be written. A rude people were discovered on the land, but their habits were erratic and their manners barbarous; they did not know anything of their origin or past history, and their language, customs, and habits, conveyed no information to the European visitor. The white invaders of the country could discover nothing concerning them, and their uncouth and uninviting appearance did not incite them to take pleasure in their society. Possessing no knowledge of religion, music, poetry, history, legislation, agriculture, or architecture, they traversed the wilds depending for food and clothing on the chances of the chase. Even in hunting they fall far behind other savages, and they had scarcely any certain method of taking the finny tribes which swarm in their bays and rivers. They were, in short, discovered in a state of unmitigated barbarism, and from their

inferiority to some other nations of barbarians they were hardly regarded as members of the human family. They have not much improved by contact with the whites. The personal appearance of the Aborigines is haughty and free; they will neither work nor attend to any domestic duty; their sole occupation is wandering over the wide forest, sometimes in quest of game, and often for mere pleasure. The male Aborigines are particularly lazy, and never will be useful to the Colonists as shepherds or husbandmen; that they are not destitute of abilities, however, is evident from the quickness with which they will imitate the manners and customs of the white Colonists.

The history of Australia is unwritten, but much information may be conveyed in a picture of that strange country. We shall seize on such facts as may interest the distant reader, and convey some idea of the natural scenery of the vast island. The shreds and patches which lie along the coast are tolerably familiar to the traveller; but the interior of the country is only known to Leichardt, Mitchell, and a few travellers, who have penetrated into the waste for the purpose of exploring it. The settled portions of the country adjacent to the seaside are for the most part diversified by a succession of hill and plain. The surface in many places is rugged, presenting to the eye great chains of mountains, which run for many miles into the interior, forming a perfect barrier against any communication across their rugged summits. Mountains often spring up in solitary grandeur in the very bosom of the Campagna, towering to the skies, and adding a wild magnificence to the prospect. The Australian rivers are not large and rapid currents of water; but, generally speaking, slow drowsy streams, which creep along amongst the wild and luxuriant vegetation with which their banks are covered. In the winter season, however, they are often swollen by the rains, and thunder along with terrific violence, presenting an insurmountable obstacle to communication between the one part of the country and the other. The smaller streams, or creeks, are not seldom partially dry in the summer season, but change into respectable rivers during the rainy months. Many of these tiny streams invite the lovers of nature by their soft and bewitching beauty; the beds of the streams, either large or small, can often be traced for a great extent of country from the green and umbrageous foliage which the lines of trees on their banks spread forth. The eye of the thirsty and weary traveller, exhausted by the arid and burning plains, is refreshed with these verdant arbours. How beautiful are the mountains, rivers, and the green earth; and many a man would rather labour hard where such landscapes open to his view, than live in comfort and idleness in more bleak and dreary regions. Many of the rivers are lined with reeds and scrub; and it is impossible to approach their beds in consequence. The banks of the large streams are occasionally high and receding, each forming a sloping declivity, thinly covered with timber; this forms numerous magnificent valleys, which could not be found in other lands, the river slowly pursuing its course amidst the most profound tranquillity. The banks are often rocky, and shelve to the lip of the water, sometimes so precipitous that neither man nor beast can approach the liquid element (so often longed for), which

lies beyond reach in the sunless chambers and concealed cells beneath. The seasons are reversed in this land; the winter commences about May or June, and the weather is wet until September; in the autumn, however, vegetation which had been scorched by the insiccation of summer, buds forth afresh. June is, even at the antipodes, the "leafy month," and in a fine day in "our golden autumn," we would delight to sail along one of our quiet rivers; the foliage is gorgeous, for it is a bridal day with nature; the water seems hardly to move, as we glance into its dark abysses; the trees which lean over, forming a rustic arch in some places, bend with a graceful but half coquettish air; the mimosa, with its yellow and brilliant blossoms, and not seldom the purple myrtle and other variegated plants form, in combination with the green branches of the more common trees, a scene of wild beauty that brings joy alike to the heart of sunny youth and wintry age. Everything smells of nature, and the solitary traveller is the only intruder on the primeval solitude. The silence that reigns around is the most sublime poetry; the sun hardly intrudes on the solitude, its beams come creeping through the leafy bowers, the happy birds lie silent, too happy to break on the holy calm that reigns around.

Lakes of rather a limited extent exist in many parts of the country, and they are generally very lovely. True, there is little of the grand and wild sublimity which chains the romantic mind to many lakes in Europe; and they are not adapted for aquatic excursions. They resemble the artificial lakes in the parks of England more than the lakes of Westmoreland, or the magnificent lakes of the Highlands. Although they are not to be compared, for the most part, with the home lakes, yet they beautify our Australian landscape. The sun beams broadly on their placid bosoms, and literally forms a sea of sparkling diamonds of intense brilliancy. On a closer examination, however, the sheet of water is found to be so shallow as to become nearly dry in the summer season. Mangrove swamps abound, and many low wet plains are covered with water for several months each year, and appear like so many tiny lakes. We use no extravagant terms in describing some of those inviting scenes that abound in the finest and newest gem in the British Crown; but the country is unequal, and there are many landscapes that weary the eye by their dull, monotonous, and dreary aspect. In many parts, the country is destitute of timber, and consists of long, scrubby, stony, and desolate ranges. In other parts there are dense forests of cedar and stringy bark, extending over countless acres; the most luxuriant and tropical trees grow in other parts, with a soil which could hardly be equalled in any part of the world. On the grassy downs the trees are dotted over the surface with great regularity, and form some of the finest specimens of landscape which can well be conceived. The hills are commonly thickly wooded, and it is truly delightful to rise before the sun and see the morning glistening and breaking over their summits; the sunset in Europe is brilliant, but not to be compared with the sunrise in the new world. In the neighbourhood of some of the rivers there are meadows, which are valuable to the tiller of the soil from the beautiful manner in which the fruits of the earth spring forth almost

spontaneously. In the neighbourhood of the large towns and near the sea coast, the deposits of alluvial soil are cultivated by the industrious husbandman, whose thrifty labours intrude upon the usual tranquillity of the bush. The traveller, however, soon escapes from corn-fields and gardens, and is again in the wilderness, nothing seems to live in many parts of the wild bush; and days may be passed without any sound of life or human pursuits being observed. The poetry of the bush can be appreciated only by the refined ear. In the beds of the valleys through which the rivers flow this strange beauty is more remarkable than in the open forest; the water is concealed by the luxuriant herbage, but you can occasionally observe it stealing gently through among the thick trees. These elysian walks are sheltered from the hot winds which scorch the surrounding country. In the open plains these winds are dreadful, the thermometer often standing at  $140^{\circ}$ , the scrubby ranges and the long ridges of sandstone are very difficult to be traversed. The whinstone is often met with, a dwarf scrub called bricklow, with a grayish foliage, and to the north a wiry plant called the vervain; and a thick impervious scrub is frequently found to cover whole districts of country.

Our knowledge of the interior of the country was very confined previous to the exploring expeditions of Leichardt and Mitchell; these have unsealed the volume and dispelled the mists which had accumulated over it. The arid deserts of Africa and the almost boundless steppes of Asia have both been explored by our eager citizens; and the man of intelligence can form a shrewd conception of these wild regions in his fancy, even if he could not convey it in language to others. The enthusiasm and enterprise of our countrymen have incited them to discover the character of these deadly regions, even at the peril of their lives. The wish for renown has vanquished the terror of suffering, privation, and death; they set forth strong in limb and stout at heart to attain their object or die. The names of the recent discoverers in Australia deserve to be handed down to posterity, for there are not many instances of more heroic actions to be met with in history. They deserve honour at the hands of this and succeeding generations, for it is such deeds that betray true patriotism and real heroism. It forms no part of our purpose to disparage the actions of men who have distinguished themselves in arms; war is a sad necessity to men determined to be free, and the citizen who has fought the battles of his country and defended it from invasion has a title to respect, if not to admiration. The courage of the soldier is often strongest in the excitement of his profession; he rides forth to battle, surrounded by the poetry and the pomp of war—he sees men around him prepared to do or die. Each mind will forget its individual danger when reflecting how insignificant one arm is in the proud array marshalling forth to contest with another mighty force; while whole kingdoms tremble for the issue. How different the poor explorer, who possesses no such artificial aid to animate and support his flagging spirits. Each hour dangers are approaching him; and no friendly eye is at hand to look on his troubles, but in all the mental and physical anguish, which he must daily endure, the resources of his own



mind must be depended upon. Many a severe struggle have these poor pilgrims encountered; despondency, lassitude, and dreariness of heart, have all been engendered by their solitary wandering, and all have had to be overcome. How are they rewarded? They convey information of priceless value to the human race—they willingly risk life and health—they abandon both the bright dreams of youth and their chances of advancement in life. They have no wish for, or expectation of gain. The world treats them too often with coldness and neglect. And we ask what repays them? Who rewards the philosopher, the orator, the philanthropist for his midnight toil? This question need not be asked. It is not for sordid gain that they waste the best and freshest years of their lives in study. The pale and care-worn student knows different from that. The explorers of this country have conferred no ordinary benefits on our race; opening up new fields of industry for countless thousands of our fellow men; and much as has already been done by Leichardt, he is likely to do even greater things.

(To be continued.)

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## ON THE TIMBER TREES OF HONDURAS.

BY MR. H. GARDINER.

THE MAHOGANY is one of the largest trees in the forests of the West Indies, frequently growing as large and taller than the Cuba or wild cotton tree, a wood used only for making crafts. Mahogany takes a long time to attain its maturity, growing more or less fast, according to the soil. On a soft rich soil it grows rapidly, and attains a great size and height, sometimes having a height of 80 feet, and a circumference of from 24 to 30 feet. The mahogany which grows on a rocky soil is small and short, and although it may be stout and square three feet, the height is not at all in proportion. I have frequently seen mahogany on a rocky soil, although large, not exceeding 20 feet high. The quality of this species of wood is generally hard and figured; but as it takes a long time to come to this size on such ground, the heart rots before it attains its proper size, and wood found on rocky soil is, therefore, generally defective. The qualities and kinds of mahogany are various; the best description appears to grow on a soil which is neither too soft nor too rocky, but affording moderate nutrition to the tree without too much hastening or retarding its growth. A gravelly soil, with a mixture of clay and black or red loam, would appear to be most favourable to produce good mahogany.

That which grows so luxuriantly is soft and fibrous, splits freely, and has few figures, and does not polish well. The description of wood which polishes well is hard and crisp. Very large mahogany, with large figures, is suitable for tables. The finer description, either with waving

lines, called fiddle wood, or spotted like bird's-eye maple, is very beautiful. Of this latter species I have seen some specimens of St. Domingo that baffle description, and none but a connoisseur can form an adequate idea of the elegant and tasteful arrangement of its various colours, curls, and spots.

This wood is best adapted for panel-doors, side-boards, wainscot, presses, and other description of furniture which shows off to advantage. It is capable of emitting a great variety of lights and shades, according to the different positions from which it is viewed, and affords a rich mental repast to the lover of the curious, the tasteful, and the beautiful.

**CEDAR** (*Pinus cedrus*).—There are two kinds of this wood growing in Honduras, the *white* and *red kind*. The tree, in some instances, grows to a large size, and thrives best on a poor sandy soil. Both the bark and leaves are highly aromatic, and the wood is so pungent that insects will not harbour about it. For this reason it is well adapted for the internal structure of furniture, for which it is much used. Generally speaking, it is of a soft, spongy, fibrous, and plane appearance, but I have seen specimens of cedar which for colour, figure, crispness, and capability of receiving a high polish, have equalled the most gorgeous samples of mahogany. The wood is very durable and buoyant, and is suitable for the construction of light boats, boarding, shingling, ceiling, and wainscotting; and although not so hard as mahogany, nor so strong, it may be used for all the purposes for which that wood is applicable. The description which we have in the West Indies is neither so fine as the juniper of America, of which pencils are made, nor so coarse as that used for shingles.

**FUSTIC** (*Merus tinctoria*), Spanish Mera—Is of a bright yellow when polished and varnished to preserve the colour. It becomes, like other woods, much darker by keeping. Some of it is of a very fine texture, and is capable of a high polish. It is used for small pieces of furniture, but it is more known as a dye-wood, producing a yellow colour, of a brownish shade.

**EBONY**—Spanish Ebano—grows plentifully about the West Indies; it is of various colours, red, green, yellow, and black; it is hard, and takes a high polish. It is used for small pieces of furniture and inlaid work. The black and green look the best. Ebony is used for making handles, rulers, and has been sold in London from £5 to £20 per ton.

**LIGNUM VITÆ**, or Guaicum, is a highly medicinal plant, and is also used for mortars, sheaves, and other purposes for which hard wood is required. It is extremely hard and ponderous, and makes excellent mallets for carpenters.

**ROSEWOOD**, Spanish Lenno de Rosa.—Rosewood is either of a blackish or reddish kind, with curls like knots, and polishes beautifully. It has been introduced into England measuring 22 inches square, and valuing from £120 to £125 sterling per ton; but that which is cut in Honduras is of a much inferior quality and size.

**YELLOW SAUNDERS**—Sandal Wood or Satin Wood by others—Is of a beautiful yellow, and emits a very pleasant odour. When made into small

cases it receives a very high polish, and if the natural scent is not destroyed by turpentine, it preserves a highly agreeable perfume.

**YACA** is a very beautiful wood, much variegated, and receives a high polish; it is the colour of milk and coffee imperfectly mixed, and is used for inlaid work and small cases.

**POISON WOOD**, or **Black Heart**,\* is a hard, ponderous wood, of a greenish black, and polishes well; it is very hard, and makes good handles, rulers, &c.

**BILLY WKB** is hard, and is an excellent timber for trucks, waggons, or machinery of any kind.

**MANGROVE** is very durable, and makes excellent posts, sleepers, joists, beams, &c., it is plentiful about the suburbs of Belize.

**BULLY-TREE** is much used in Jamaica for machinery, shingles, boards, &c.

**IRON WOOD** is also very hard and durable, and would make good beams for ship-building.

**YELLOW PINE** grows to a size sufficiently large for most building purposes, and is extremely durable. The gum which exudes from it is suitable for making tar, turpentine, rosin, &c.

**SAPODILLA** is an excellent wood for building, machinery, and handles of tools. The fruit is as delicious as the Neeseberry cultivated in gardens, and the weary traveller frequently finds a good meal in the depth of his solitude upon sapodilla and wild honey.

**WILD TAMARIND** is nearly as good as mahogany, being used in Jamaica for all the purposes for which mahogany is used. It takes a high polish, and some of it has fine waves and curls.

If the natural resources of Honduras were properly developed, if a naturalist were to explore our forests the same as the writer has done as a land surveyor, for hundreds of miles, building and machinery materials, furniture and dye-woods would be discovered that would greatly swell the bulk of our commercial staples. And if a Dr. Dancer, a Dr. Parrot, a Lander, a Humboldt, or a Boupland were to be introduced amongst us, our humble town would be the focus of a new *Materia Medica* that would enhance the wealth and fame of British Honduras.

Belize, 19th March, 1847.

## THE STATE AND NATIONAL EMIGRATION.

Much has been said and written during the present year on "Colonisation" and "Emigration," sometimes as the synonymes of each other, at others, embracing certain critical distinctions wherewith the two terms have been invested. To all Colonial interests, it must have been gratifying to see the general topic occupying so large a share of the attention of Parliament, the press, and the public at large. For in truth, whatever varieties of opinion may exist as to the best mode of conducting

\* The magnetic influence of the Evil Eye is not quite so problematical as some think.

the operation with advantage to all concerned, there seems to be almost entire accord as to the leading principle, that to send out of the country large masses of the people, and locate them in our Colonial possessions, has become one among the foremost objects for the State to promote, either by its own direct agency, or the encouragement which it may give to public enterprise in this direction.

Yet it has required an uncommon amount of calamity to impress this great truth on the understanding of the country. The pressure of population in the limited field of home enterprise and production, is felt in every direction in Great Britain; but it is in Ireland that the evil appears to have arrived at its *ne plus ultra*. Yet everything tends to produce an *average of national misery*. The overflowings of a literally starving population of Irish, naturally take the direction of the territories nearest to Irish soil; augmenting the already existing redundancy of our own population in its ratio to the means of constant and profitable employment; while the yet unrelieved misery of those remaining in Ireland must be mitigated by an extraordinary British expenditure, which, in little more than two years, has reached the enormous sum of £10,000,000. For proof of this, we need only refer to the statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in the House of Commons, on the 8th of last month. Nor is it by any means too certain that we have seen the closing of this account in the national ledger, while it is certain that Ireland must in future be saddled with a Poor-law expenditure after the English manner, but with this possible difference in the result: England may support her paupers, and a wealthy landed aristocracy to boot; but it is doubtful whether Ireland, after supporting *her* paupers, will not have reduced her gentry also into a condition of pauperism. If we go upon the principle that the different portions of our planet must support the human beings who are born upon it, it is plain there *may* be conditions in the case of any given population, under which the mass cannot be just preserved from starvation, while a yet considerable portion leads a life of luxurious indulgence.

It is bootless to inquire whether, taking the population of the three kingdoms at its present rate of increase, and looking at the existing state of each country with respect to its "capital," under which term there is perhaps no good reason why *land*, where, as with us, it has immediate value and use, should not be included, instead of making it a separate element of national production; it is, we say, a bootless inquiry for all present practical purposes, whether some combinations might not be devised of all those items which are totalised as British capital, under which, without looking to Colonial extension, plenty of employment and plenty to eat and drink, might be constantly afforded to the entire population. Were it possible to attain any very definite idea of the working out of so grand a scheme, we fear we must assume that no human ingenuity could so contrive it, but that an age, at least, must elapse, before we could reach at results so wondrously felicitous. Free-trade will do much towards this end, but Free-trade will work no miracles. Time is required to consummate this great and good work. Immense must be the increase in the imports of foreign production before they can be

nearly equivalent to all that the British Isles are capable of producing in return; and this increase infers not only great strides in the productive industry of our foreign customers, but no little change in the direction of their industrial avocations. Indeed, before Free-trade can have all its blessed results on the people of the British empire, a social and economical revolution, very extensive and penetrating in its operation, must take place, both among ourselves and among those nations with whom we may enjoy an extensive foreign commerce. These observations must be held as not in the least degree depreciatory of Free-trade. Good results have already followed the extension of its principle, and they will be daily and constantly increasing; but great, indeed, must be the returns yielded by a foreign commerce which can materially and at the same time speedily lessen the amount of our Poor-law expenditure, and remove all present probability of Irish famine and its accompaniment—a few millions more added to the national debt.

But emigration—by which we simply mean in this place the taking away a portion of the population and placing it in new countries—has this double effect. It takes away its thousands from a redundant populace, and converts them into good customers of those it leaves behind. Looking at the surplus of a population as one of mere consumers, the consequence of emigration is, proportionately to the extent to which it is carried on, not merely to relieve the rest of the people of the cost of maintaining that surplus, but to supply them with a profitable foreign commerce to boot. Home industry and enterprise are at once relieved of a burthen, and gratified with a gain; while the emigrants themselves, from paupers subsisting on alms extorted by law from their fellow-countrymen, produce by their own labour sufficient to support themselves and add besides to the stock of food or raw products in the markets of the Mother-country. This is a succinct statement of the advantages of emigration; and to whatever extent it may be carried on in these days, those advantages are almost immediately realised. It is impossible to say whether its economical or its moral advantages are of the greatest weight and importance.

It is to be hoped the motions brought forward in the past session of Parliament by Lord Monteaule and the Earl of Lincoln, and the attendant discussion, will end in some practical benefit to the country; that in spite of the *vis inertiae* of the Colonial-office, some great scheme of national emigration, worthy of the country and the age, will at length be brought to maturity. We believe there are plenty of materials available for perfecting such a scheme; we believe the facts of the world render such a scheme entirely practicable. But a wide range of preliminary investigation is, no doubt, required; facts have to be discriminated from the fictions of self-interest, or ignorance; and the scheme itself demands a careful elaboration of details before one step is taken, before one shilling of the public money is expended, towards carrying it into effect.

We cannot but think that some of the disquisitions which have been indulged in upon Colonisation and Emigration, as very distinct things, have their foundation in a whimsical spirit of rhetoric. They are chiefly

remarkable for a neglect of the circumstances under which the two operations have ordinarily taken place. The leading idea which has been inculcated in this respect seems to be that "Colonisation" is the removal from the parent country of a body of people, embracing the various grades and divisions for constituting a complete society on the European model, and settling them bodily down in some chosen spot, with a miniature English Government in Church and State; who are thenceforth to form a happy, respectable, and thriving community. "Emigration," on the other hand, is distinguished as merely sending out ("shovelling out" it has been termed) masses of the labouring classes to a distant country; and it seems to be held, as a necessity, that these *emigrant* labourers should have no regard paid to their comfort on arriving at the scene of their voluntary expatriation, and no reference made to the immediate or future demands for their labour. Now, both Colonisation and Emigration, in the separate view we are just now content to take of them, may both be excellent in their respective ways. In the nature of things they have always been more or less attendant on each other, and must continue to be so, so long as there are regions of the earth without inhabitants, or but very thinly and inadequately peopled. On the first settlement of a country, not only unpeopled, but quite remote from any which is peopled, a system of "Colonisation" would be very desirable, and, in some shape or other, we may be certain, would be called into existence. But the Colony would have scarcely taken root, its public authority would have scarcely resolved itself into full possession of all its honours, powers, and importance; its community have scarcely organised itself into its petty social distinctions, when pure emigration would be called for. The first Colonists, occupying the good land most proximate to their seat of government, would soon find their means increased, and that they wanted more labour. Then comes the demand for emigration; and there is no reason why "emigrants" should not proceed out in any number that can be conveniently and profitably employed. Many of these "emigrants," in turn, become what, keeping up a distinction which soon becomes embarrassing, we may here term "Colonists;" and they can employ more "emigrants." Still, all this while, people of education, and possessed of capital, may be coming out, so increasing the demand, as at once affording the means for employing yet more "emigrants." In a word, if there be any useful meaning in these distinctions, it would seem to be as thus:—Colonisation is to be taken for the founding of a Colony, and it will be good or bad Colonisation according to the measures taken; and Emigration is to be regarded as the progressive addition to the population of a Colony once founded, and this also will be good or bad precisely according to the measures taken. We see nothing inherently vicious in either Colonisation or Emigration; but the mode of conducting each may involve evils of any assignable magnitude. How to avoid these evils it is the province of experience to point out.

We believe that, at the present time, there is no necessity for the purpose of conducting a large system of national emigration (and now we must be permitted to use the word without any straitened meaning), that a single *new* Colony should be established. To fill up or extend

the Colonies at present existing is all that is needed. In America we have the Canadas; in the southern hemisphere we have New South Wales, Port Phillip, South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, the New Zealand Islands, and the Cape—all Colonies firmly established, and all possessing experienced local administrations, populations which have adjusted themselves into the divisions proper and natural to Colonial life, and a large extent of unappropriated, or, at least, of unused land. In all these Colonies there is apt experience to guide new emigrants into channels of profitable industry; and there is a vast amount of dormant capital which it only requires an augmented population to call into productive energy.

It is our present purpose to attempt to indicate the general features of a great scheme of national emigration, but in so doing we shall rather keep in view its application to the Australian Colonies, with which our personal experience of Colonial matters happens to have been chiefly concerned.

Let us, however, in the first place, refer to certain conditions precedent, which, much as they may have been harped upon of late, it may, nevertheless, again be useful to recur to.

1. We may assume that there is a large redundant population in the United Kingdom, not redundant merely because of its numbers, but as evidenced by the standing amount of Poor-law expenditure. This expenditure we may not be far wrong in setting down at present, including assessments for Ireland, at £7,000,000 annually. We are perhaps, unfortunately, entitled further to estimate that an additional expenditure out of the public revenue will have to be incurred for the support of the destitute in Ireland; can we be above the mark in putting down for the next two or three years, the sum of one million annually? There is thus a great permanent amount of misery in the United Kingdom; and the relief against downright destitution and famine is attended with a frightful yearly cost. As a general proposition, then, it must be worth while attempting the realisation of measures of which at least the certain *tendency* is to bring the population, and the means of their profitable employment, into just correspondence, and this by the two-fold operation of reducing the amount of population, and augmenting the legitimate demand for labour.

2. In the Australian Colonies the ordinary figure of speech for nearly half a century to come, must be a practical truth—*there are boundless regions of good and available country yet unoccupied*. Nor is there any other country where the same amount of human labour can be made so speedily and so amply remunerative, simply because the land, in its natural state, affords the best pasturage to sheep, and the climate is eminently adapted to the production of the finer class of wools. There is no necessity for the tedious and costly process of "clearing," and no great annual expense has to be incurred as in mere agriculture. Human hands are chiefly required to gather a harvest which nature alone provides. The increase of cattle and sheep is greater than could be appropriated by any possible augmentation of population. There is thus a self-generating capital and territorial space, adequate to the largest deportation of emi-

grants—not so, indeed, that taking 100,000 souls and dropping them at Adelaide or Port Phillip at once, there is the means of immediately absorbing them into the community. Human beings cannot be so glibly accommodated. Their passions, feelings, wants, appetites, must all be ministered to; and their deportation and subsequent dispersion require many skilful combinations to be arranged beforehand.

3. The existing communities in the Australian Colonies must, for their numbers, be considered the richest in the world; and beyond comparison the best customers of Great Britain. With respect to them all it may be affirmed that the Colonies produce every necessary article of consumption in great abundance from within. Everything necessary for a comfortable subsistence is produced or is readily producible internally. But besides this the Colonies raise exportable produce—produce shipped away from the Colonies, and taking no account of the considerable interchange of products carried on among themselves—to an amount, perhaps, at the present moment, little, if at all, short of £2,000,000 annually. The most complete statistical returns for all the three Colonies of New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and South Australia, which we have at hand, do not come later than the year 1843; and from them we are enabled to calculate that the foreign exports of the three Colonies were in that year of a value exceeding £1,800,000. The united population at that time was 245,000. Thus the Australians, *of all ages and conditions*, besides supporting themselves, had the power of importing the superfluities and luxuries of life to the value of upwards of £7 for each head every year. Since then there can be no doubt production has increased in a very far greater ratio than population; and it may be asked where is the parallel to this state of things in any other part of the globe? But all this export trade is, with exceptions not worth noticing, carried on with the Mother-country; *her* exports of manufactures being the return trade. Conceive what a vast amount of British capital, even in this early day of Australian commerce, is thus brought into play?

What, then, do we see before us? On the one hand an appalling amount of national misery, and an immense expenditure required to mitigate it—the one as constant as the other. On the other hand extensive regions, overburthened with products, and whose great want is a population. In the one the cry is for food—in the other for mouths!

The general policy is obvious—the relieving the Mother-country of a few millions of her people, locating them in the Colonies, and, as we have already said, from paupers converting them into customers. But we are met with one word—the *expense!* This is a highly important consideration; but one of which too much has always been made by the passive school of politicians to which almost invariably the actual men in office belong, whatever their party designation. The expense of a national scheme of emigration may be great; *but is not the expense of being without such a scheme incalculably greater?* Trouble, trouble—that is really at the bottom of all that wise and solemn caution which the Greys, the Bullers, and the Haweses of the day, assume with their office seats; and which, far more than any really malice prepense, is the cause of half the political or personal injustice which has so long been



the burden of Colonial complaint. Not that these gentlemen are not well worked ; but they like the ordinary routine far better than cutting out anything new ; and however it may be for the public good that something new should be attempted, they rather let it pass unheeded than candidly admit *that they want more hands—that they are not equal to the functions properly devolving upon them.*

Let us consider the expense of promoting national emigration, and of *leaving it alone.* The cost of an adult pauper for two years at most, would abundantly pay for his deportation and get him entirely off the hands of the State. The payment of a sum equal to the expense of his two years' support would be to the debit side of the account—the *capital*, of which this sum would be two years' interest, would be to the credit. Presuming that we could get rid of all our able-bodied paupers, male and female, by paying £8,000,000—assuming that sum as their two years' cost, and the principle to be elucidated does not demand complete accuracy—the nation would immediately lose that amount ; but would gain in capital, or at least reacquire the use and benefit of capital, to the amount, calculating at 5 per cent., of £80,000,000 ! But this would not be the whole gain. The £8,000,000 would be an investment, which before long would yield an important addition to the foreign trade of the country. It would be the means of calling a large portion of this earth of ours into productiveness, and of the fruits thereof we should be large partakers. Does it never occur to our sleek politicians in their annual transits from Downing-street to their paternal acres, and from their paternal acres back to Downing-street, that there is no large destiny for them to fulfil on behalf of the British people beyond *governing* them at home, and maintaining hereditary quarrels or patched-up friendships with the rest of Europe ?

While, then, the expenditure of £8,000,000 is always a most important consideration, yet when we see that it involves a principle of saving such as that to which we have drawn attention, does it not seem strange that the subject should so long have been unheeded by the Government, or that when urged on their notice by opponents or "official friends, we are treated with those common-places which serve to justify every neglect of administration beyond that of its merest traditional duties ?

The practical step which we shall in the first place venture to suggest, is the appointment of an "Emigration Department;" and as the new Poor-law administration is to have its organ in Parliament, we would eventually have this Emigration Department similarly represented. Nay, conducting Emigration on a truly national scale, there is no reason why the department which superintends this contemplated branch of the public service should not take rank beside the departments of the army and navy—why we should not have our peaceable minister for Emigration as well as our Commander-in-Chief, Admiralty Board, or Master-General of the Ordnance. As for the present Land and Emigration Commissioners, they are merely somewhat dignified clerks to the Colonial-office, and would be much more useful if they were nestled in Downing-street, ostensibly doing as they were bid, instead of playing at "reports" on matters purporting to be referred to them.

We may not descend into much detail, but such a department would require an extensive and regular organisation of officers, as secretaries and clerks, inspectors, storekeepers, surgeons, &c.; in the selection of whom great care should be taken to name men of zealous and active habits, and who should be paid liberally, besides having the prospect of certain advancement held out to them if they discharged their prescribed duties ably and honourably. For one class of inspectors, such as would be connected with shipping, perhaps the navy may offer a good body to select from. There are, we believe, some 5,000 or 6,000 lieutenants, and from the older ones (the juniors, we presume, would like their own "service" best) a good selection, due pains being taken, might be made. We stipulate for pains, however; for while we are second to none in our general admiration of our naval officers, as such, we think the habits induced by a naval career are not precisely the best to qualify them for an extensive official intercourse with our public as civilians. Storekeepers would be appointed from the army commissariat, and medical officers from the surgeons of the army and navy; men being thus obtained possessing apt experience in their different branches. We do not, of course, contemplate a full development of our Emigration Department all at once; it would extend itself with the work required to be accomplished.

The local governments of all the Australian Colonies have got into the habit of compiling ample and accurate statistical data. Minute intelligence could be furnished of the number and condition of the inhabitants in every district; the number of horses and homesteads; the quantity of land cultivated; the amount of horses, cattle, and sheep; and a near approximation to the quantity and value of its products. Ample information could be obtained of the general character and productiveness of every available part of the country yet discovered. Careful inquiry upon all these points would suggest the various localities to which emigration should be directed. The ports of disembarkation nearest these localities would naturally form depots for the reception of emigrants. We can call to mind many along the great coast line commencing from Port Lincoln and ending at Moreton Bay. The number of emigrants which might immediately, or in the course of twelve months, be required in a district would have to be as nearly as possible ascertained. But we do not contemplate merely sending out this number annually. We would double it, or treble it. We know the geometrical ratio at which the demand for population increases in young Colonies; and the advantage of having a large supply of labour somewhat nearer than on the other side of the world. But it is the proper management of these *reserves* of emigrant labour which requires excellent skill.

The plan we have to recommend is one which has already been to some extent followed in the Colonies—as the expedient of the moment. We would make it a principle in the system. At every port of disembarkation, or every interior station which may be turned into a depot for emigrants (and this should always be on a site eligible for an inland town), the emigrants unable to obtain private employment should be employed by Government. And endless in a young country are the public works upon which the Government can usefully employ such a fund of

labour. In England, so accustomed are we to see around us what has been the accumulated work of centuries, that we can scarcely conceive all that Englishmen of the present age find it necessary to create in these young countries. And as the people bring their capital and their labour to the Colonies, and erect the wonderful fabric which their private enterprise in a few short years presents to our respect and admiration, so also the State should do its part in completing the social edifice. The same means must be employed by each; but the operations of a Government would be chiefly confined to particular localities. While, therefore, the current numbers of unemployed emigrants are for the various purposes of superintendence and maintenance necessarily kept together, this necessity admirably harmonises with the duty which we are now contemplating as one to be more avowedly and consistently performed by the Government than heretofore it has been. In every port or emigrant station substantial and commodious buildings should first be erected for the reception of emigrants—buildings which, when emigration ceases, might be convertible to other uses. Public store-houses, wharves, quays, court-houses, goals—which we fear cannot yet be dispensed with—would all follow in due course. Churches we hesitate about, only as remembering that there is a little question to be first decided—*which Church?*

We have alluded to the necessity of skilful management at these emigration stations. Much depends on the nature of the system; but the system may be admirable in every particular, and all shall be of no avail if the greatest care is not taken in the selection of fit agents for carrying it into effect. Your system will prescribe firmness, benevolence, discrimination, discretion, activity, just economy, in exactly the fit situations for the exercise of these respective qualities. If you select vacillating, harsh, short-sighted, imprudent, indolent, or extravagant officers, your system is at once repealed by your own mandate. You must have competent officers, and an adequate number of them. These seem very simple truths, but they are very commonly lost sight of.

The victualling of large bodies of emigrants is a matter requiring much attention. The point to attend to is to prevent the prices of provisions rising to the enormous heights to which they have formerly attained in the Colonies under the occasional influence of extraordinary demands. We have seen recently good wheat sold in the Colonies at 2s. 6d. and 3s. a bushel; and sheep, two or three years ago, were purchaseable at 2s. 6d. a-head; but we have known wheat to fetch 35s. the bushel, and sheep two guineas each. Prices are not always entirely dependant on the quantity of any commodity in a country and the quantity required for consumption. There may be relative abundance; but a *sentiment* may prevail that a commodity ought to be dear, and there may be in consequence a general, yet not previously concerted, conspiracy to *hold*. There will be this sentiment brought into play, especially amongst the Colonial wheat-growers, the moment it is rumoured that an extensive system of emigration is to be carried out. It is very desirable, no doubt, that remunerating prices should be more constantly and regularly obtained in the home markets of the Colonies; but famine

prices would for a time be destructive of the project we have in view. The object must be for the Government never to be really in want—they should never allow the idea that there may be a scarcity, to grow into the reality that there is one. The course to follow we take to be, that at least one year's supply should always be on hand. This would comprise such materials as wheat, maize, rice, tea, sugar, coffee, &c. It would also include salted provisions. Commence with this first year's supply, let it be laid in before a single emigrant arrives, and prices will before long be soberly regulated by the real demand, and the prospect of the real demand would set a large amount of Colonial industry at work, all directed to the supply of the emigrant market. Of course we contemplate supplies being drawn from England, and other parts of the world, whenever necessary; until in fact Colonial competition should drive *foreigners* out of the market.

The emigrants employed by Government should not be paid so much as the ordinary rate of wages in the Colony, and part of their remuneration, and the chief part of it, should consist of provisions, rated at fair average prices. This should be carefully explained to every emigrant before embarkation. He should land in the Colony with certain rights, but rights well ascertained. He should be entitled to adequate support, and only adequate support, until he was offered private employment at a moderate rate of recompense. That once obtained, and it will be his own fault if his future career is not one of prosperity.

To some classes of emigrants, farming people for example, with little capital, the means might be offered of obtaining small allotments of eligible agricultural land upon favourable terms. Villages of these people might be formed, or they might be located near the ports and small interior towns.

Unmarried people above 45 or 50 years of age should not be permitted to proceed out at the public cost; but lads and girls of from 10 years of age would form excellent future Colonists, and this class of emigration would be a greater eventual relief to the Parent Country than the emigration of adults.

We have all along contemplated the expense of emigration being defrayed by the Parent State. We have, however, not lost sight of the Land Funds of the Colonies. But these funds are fluctuating in amount, and we are certain the utmost sums derivable from them would in the aggregate be very far from sufficient for conducting *Emigration on a national scale*. They have quite found out, in New South Wales, that it is occupation alone which gives a value to land. It must be stocked and peopled, or be very near land in this condition, and so made capital, or readily available as capital, before it is really a marketable commodity; unless a delusion be expressly got up, during which men will buy any thing. The Colonial Land Funds will be aids and nothing more in any national undertaking of the kind contemplated.

We pretend not in this hasty sketch to determine how many emigrants should be sent out annually. Contemplating a general principle, that of relieving one country of its surplus population, by drawing off a portion of its inhabitants to another country which is in want of a population, we

would make a beginning upon *under* computations of what might at once be done, profiting by the suggestions which every day's experience would bring with it. But we are certain that the great difficulty would be in the commencement. The requisite machinery, however well planned, would require to be worked a little before it worked well. But we are thoroughly persuaded that eventually it would work well; and that, sooner or later, the day will come when the enterprise of this great nation, and the skill of its statesmen, will be far more honoured in the successful transplantation of half a million of our countrymen, than in the prosecution of the most just and necessary warfare, terminating with brilliant success, and the slaughter of the same number of human beings.

J.

London, 19th August, 1847.

## REMARKS ON THE MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.

BY HENRY MITCHELL, M.D., PH. D.R.P.

[WE extract from the *Trinidad Agricultural Journal* of the 19th June, a paper by Dr. Mitchell, of that island, on the construction and working speed of the sugar-mills in general use in these Colonies, and the return yielded under the several applications of water, steam, wind, and cattle power, which we feel assured will be read with great interest throughout the whole of the sugar-growing Colonies. Although attention has been at various times called to the quantity of cane-juice left behind in the megass or bruised cane, in consequence of the defective nature of our present appliances for extraction, the question has never been brought before the public in that plain practical manner, and the means of remedying existing defects in that respect so clearly pointed out, as on the present occasion.

The loss that not only can be proved to take place, but which might be remedied by the simple means of a reduction in speed and increase of size of the present description of sugar-mills, amounts in Trinidad, according to Dr. Mitchell's statements, to at least one-fourth of the whole crop of the Colony. For if 53 per cent. be the average quantity of liquor obtained from the cane by expression there, and 73 per cent. be the quantity that is practically obtainable (and is obtained by Mr. Bouscaren, from his mill at Guadaloupe), then canes sufficient to make 288 hhds. of sugar must be cut to make only 212 hhds., making a loss of one-fourth of the whole crop that should have been made, but as regards the crop actually made, a deficit of one-third—that is to say that the canes cut this year to make 30,000 hhds. of sugar, would have made 40,000 hhds. by an improved mode of expression.

This is surely a matter well worthy the attention of the planters generally throughout these Colonies. Here in Trinidad, at any rate (says the *Gazette*), and we believe the case is the same in nearly every other

West India Island, the great difficulty is to *grow* the cane—to get the field labour properly effected—and to leave 25 per cent. of juice behind, that might be extracted, in an article which has required so much labour and money to bring it into a state fit for manufacture, is really a waste not to be tolerated. The 70 hhds. extra that would be made on an estate now yielding only 200 hhds. would be almost clear profit to the planter. There would be only the increased expense of fuel, and an extra hand or two in the boiling-house for extra skimming, potting, &c., consequent on the increased quantity of liquor. In one crop, therefore, the expense of new machinery of an improved construction would, on such a property, have paid for itself.

We trust the attention of the parties engaged in the introduction of central manufactories into these Colonies will also be drawn to this subject. The mills of the “Usines Centrales” of Martinique and Guadeloupe are nearly as faulty in this respect as any of the other sugar-mills in general use (the mill spoken of by Dr. M. as one of Mr. D’Aubrée’s mills, at Aucoma, giving 58 to 59 per cent. liquor is a central Usine establishment)—and yet these Usines obtain 11 and  $11\frac{1}{2}$  lbs. of sugar from 100 lbs. of canes; with the improved mode of expression of which their mills are susceptible, the 11 or  $11\frac{1}{2}$  would be increased to 13 or 14 per cent., being more than double the amount now obtained by our present appliances.]

To those who have studied the subject in all its bearings, practical and scientific, nothing new is here offered, and their lenient judgment is requested on remarks especially destined to parties whose avocations confine them to particular districts, and whose industry well merits the friendly aid of science. Is it requisite to add that a thorough practical acquaintance with the staple art can alone enable the British planter to contend against daily increasing produce abroad, and open markets at home?

Most of the ameliorations which have been of late years adapted to Colonial manufacture, will be laid before the reader, and their merits or results discussed. Where the handling of the subject falls short of its importance, the suggestions of more extended observations are invited, and will be thankfully received. The first questions that naturally present themselves are—Do our mills generally express a sufficient quantity of liquor, and if not, by what means may the deficiency be remedied?

To solve the first point correctly, we must ascertain the relative quantities of cane juice or woody fibre represented by *mature* canes. These proportions have been furnished, with his usual accuracy, by M. Peligot, at the request of the French Minister of Marine, and are as follows:—For liquor making from 10° to 13° Baumé—

90 cane-juice.  
10 woody fibre.

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100 cane.

M. Dupuis, Pharmacien in Chief, repeated the analysis at Basse Terre,

Guadaloupe, with the same result. We shall therefore take the above data as correct, confirmed as they stand by M. Avequin at New Orleans, Proust at Malaga, M. Pelouse, Osmin Hervey, and other equally eminent chemists.

The few experiments made in Trinidad on mill pressure are faulty; they neither include the diameter of rollers nor their corresponding velocities—two most important items. The same remark applies to a very extended and otherwise carefully conducted series of experiments made by M. Dupuis in Guadaloupe. We shall attempt to supply the hiatus from personal inspection, and the weight of a few well-known names.

2. The position of mill rollers, whether vertical or horizontal, exercises a very trifling influence on the return, where the power and laminating surfaces are equal.

But several practical reasons exist why the latter are preferable.

First. The greater number of canes which may be passed through a horizontal mill in a given time, and increased facility for feeding over a more extended surface.

Second. This equal feeding produces equal wear and tear over the whole surface of the rollers, while in a vertical mill the feeding surface becomes unequally worn, and incapable of exercising due pressure, from the greater diameter of the upper third, to which the feeding has not extended, and of the lower part protected by the mill table. Hence new vertical rollers give a larger return than old.

Third. The frames of vertical mills require more room and are proportionately more expensive.

3. The average returns obtained by M. Dupuis, from forty-four mills in Guadaloupe, are as follows:—

61·8	Water-power.
60·9	Steam.
59·5	Animal.
56·4	Wind.

The superiority of the first two is due to their great power, from fifteen to thirty-horse; and the marked inferiority of the last, to its irregular velocity. It must be borne in mind that these averages, for the most part, represent work done by highly finished machinery, on well manned and extensive properties, whose means enabled them to appropriate each fresh mechanical improvement that science offers, M. Paul D'Aubrée, the indefatigable advocate of Colonial progress, states the mean return from less happily organised estates in Guadaloupe, at nearly 50 per cent., thus leaving 4-10 liquor in the megass—the whole amount, as above stated, being 9-10—the boiling-house receives the balance or 5-10.

4. To obviate this ruinous loss, M. Payen, well known to the beet-root manufacturing world, proposed two additional rollers for horizontal mills; this suggestion was warmly recommended by Professor Dumas, in 1843, and adopted by several estates in Guadaloupe. These mills were so far from realising the hopes of the projector, that only one remained at work in 1847, and it gave so much trouble and so little

profit during last crop, that the proprietor, M. Payen, told me that he had decided on replacing it by a three-roller of large diameter and slow revolution. Notwithstanding these failures, a seven-roller mill is now in course of erection at Cabesterre, although its talented erector "*a la certitude de succès*," its fate may easily be predicted. M. Dupuis succeeded in obtaining 5 per cent. more sugar, by following M. Peligot's plan of saturating the megass in hot water and repressing it; this proceeding was found too expensive for practice.

5. It is not unusual to confound effective force with speed, particularly in the cases of wind and water mills. Now, excess of speed simply shows excess of motive power over the work done in a given time, consequently this excess is a pure loss. (Marquis St. Croix.) The only correct method of applying power, is that which produces the largest return in a given time, and this, in cane-mills, experience has amply proved to depend on the slowness of revolution of the rollers. Some mills have the centre rollers smaller than the others, and carrying one-third less teeth. These are termed tierce-mills. They are justly considered as producing better pressure; we have examples in the island. Their superiority lies in the reduced speed of the side rollers; this end can be obtained to better purpose, by equalising the three diameters and lowering their speed. For it is to be observed that in tierce-mills, when wedged up, the small diameter of the centre roller and its increased speed, as compared with the other two, tears, or chops up as it were, the megass. A patent has been lately taken out in London for this defect.

6. It may be here remarked that the pressure of many mills is seriously diminished by channelling the rollers. The *channels* protect an infinity of small cane particles from the squeeze, and as *they* recur every two inches over a circumference of six feet and are at least one-eighth inch wide, they do away directly with one-sixteenth of the pressing surface and turn the continuity of motion into a series of jerks. Channelling is, therefore, faulty, and its place is admirably supplied by the slightly rugous surface of Messrs. Cook and Co.'s new mills. The slightly corrosive action of cane juice has the same effect. If vertical mills do not bite, when correctly hung, the defect will generally be found dependant on the degree of wear already mentioned.

7. M. D'Aubrée, speaking of wind, that worst of motives for regular work, says:—"Sometimes the breeze is so violent that the mill is fed with difficulty, and liquor overflows on all sides, the planter congratulates himself on good luck, forgetting that his canes are less pressed in proportion to the increased velocity, in fact, that he is then loosing perhaps ten per cent. more than usual."

He states the planter's return on 18 per cent. sugar contained in the canes, thus: 8 per cent., unexpressed in the megass, of the remaining 10 per cent., 5 per cent. pass into cisterns, ships'-hold, and warehouses as molasses, and the remaining 5 per cent. alone are delivered to meet expenses.

This may appear exaggerated to those who have not duly considered the subject, but it is a most lamentable approximation to truth. M.



D'Aubré may be considered to express himself feelingly. One of his mills at Acouma, a 16-horse power, 23 inch cylinder, making five revolutions per minute, and crushing canes for 15,000 lbs. (French weight) daily, gives only from 58 to 59 per cent. liquor. The same power, at a speed of 2.5 per minute, would certainly give from 78 to 80 out of the 90 per cent. of juice, and send out the megass sufficiently dry for *immediate use*, thus doing away in a measure with the expense of megass-houses. The megass as at present furnished to the stoker contains from 15 to 20 per cent. water, and is, therefore, an inferior fuel to the fresh bruised cane, which has yielded 75 per cent. liquor. The latter is not only drier, but contains 3 per cent. of highly combustive sugar, less a small proportion of waxy organic matter undiminished by fermentation. It is an error to suppose that any saccharine matter exists in fuel taken from the megass-house—that portion of sugar has been dissipated as surely as if thrown into the liquor vats. This leads me to mention a remark of Professor Baudrimont, after laying down the rule that the effective force of cylinders is diminished in exact proportion to their increased speed. The Professor goes on to say: "He who erects a distillery near a sugar-mill, and buys the newly-crushed canes for his rumery, will realise more money than the planter."

Those who are disinclined, or unable to alter their mills may profit by M. Baudrimont's suggestion.

8. I tested a mill in Barbados, which was pointed out by several parties as one of the best, capable of grinding 6 hogsheads of 40 inch truss per day. The velocity was 8 revolutions per minute, diameter under 24 inches, return 45 per cent.; in other words, for every 6 hogsheads of sugar made, 6 hogsheads remained in the megass and were lost; where four rollers had been adopted in vertical windmills, they gave an additional 7 per cent.; but even this return shows the inappropriate nature of so fickle a motor for the regular work of a sugar estate. I tried one of the best mills in Antigua, driven by an 8 or 10 horse high-pressure engine, having horizontal rollers, under 24 inches diameter—speed 12 revolutions per minute, return from 53 to 55 per cent. *Woodbrook* vertical mill in Trinidad at a speed of 10 revolutions per minute gave 55 per cent. liquor. In a statement now before me of work done by the *Valsayn* mill, the return of liquor is given at 66.5 per cent.; and another the property of M. Ambard, gives 62.5 per cent.; but this is no more to be considered an ordinary return than M. P. Guiseppi's 37½ hogsheads per week is to be taken as an average of the island.—*Exceptio probat regulam.*

The best mill I saw in the Leeward Islands was that of M. Bouscaren, in Guadaloupe. It gave 73 per cent., speed 3 revolutions per minute, diameter 24 inches—on submitting the megass subsequently to a powerful hydraulic press, it yielded 10 per cent. more, making in all 83 of the 90 parts liquor in the cane. The hydraulic presses were found too expensive, and therefore discontinued. When this mill was wedged up to give more than 65 per cent. it destroyed the megass—a difficulty easily obviated, as engineers are agreed that under equal powers the megass is torn in proportion to smallness of diameter and

increased speed of rollers; had this mill been reduced in speed to from 2 to 2·5 revolutions per minute, with an increase of one inch in the diameter of rollers, there can be little doubt that the megass would have been equally laminated, and 80 per cent. yielded without recourse to the hydraulic press. Every quality required in a mill may thus be obtained by diminishing the velocity and increasing the length in proportion to the amount of liquor required—the bearings of course must be strengthened in the same ratio. The greater the diameter, *ceteris paribus*, the less will the megass be torn. Listen to the opinion of the Marquis St. Croix, who tested mills in every way that science and practice could suggest:—"The effectual power of cane-mills is in exact proportion to the slowness of revolution of the rollers, other things being equal: my mill gave as result of the repeated experiments 46 per cent., with a speed of 8 revolutions; and the same mill at a speed of 2·5 revolutions per minute gave 70 per cent."

I hope the planters of Trinidad, for whom these remarks are intended, will not consider my expectation of 80 per cent. as too sanguine. Be that as it may, I have shown that at least 70 per cent. has been obtained.

Assuming 53 per cent. as the average of Trinidad mills, and that by better directed pressure the yield may be increased to 80 per cent., we find that this item alone includes a present loss of 50 per cent., which, on the other hand, added to a crop of 30,000 hhd., would bring it up to 45,000. The island fortunately possesses many engineers capable of making the requisite alterations, and theoretically explaining those improvements to which your attention is now practically solicited. No doubt serious consideration has been given of late to this important subject, yet I feel it a duty to rouse, as far as humble efforts may, the planters of my native land from the apathy that invariably accompanies routine. Should this public appeal to their dearest interests be favourably received, I pledge myself to point out modifications in the staple manufacture, productive of 50 per cent. further increase in the curing-house returns.

[Translated from *L'Aviner de la Point-à-Pitre*, Guadaloupe.]

A Report on an experiment of the Manufacture of Sugar, which took place on the 18th of March, 1847, by M. G. Bouscaren, on the Mon Repos estate, in the district of Cabesterre, according to M. G. Michel's patent, Dr. Ferdinand L'Herminier, the correspondent of the Museum at Paris, Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, &c., residing at Point-à-Pitre, and others, being present.

We, the undersigned, being requested by M. G. Bouscaren, as well as other persons, to visit the Mon Repos estate, in the district of Cabesterre, for the purpose of witnessing the experiment which he proposed to make, and to affirm to the quantity of sugar and molasses which it was possible to extract from the sugar cane by M. Michel's new system of manufacture, which consists in steeping the cane in boiling water, which was made to boil by the combustion of oxide of carbonic gas, did, on the 18th of March, 1847, visit the above-named Mon Repos estate to assist, and were witnesses, the whole time, to the following operations, which took place in order as here stated:—

At one o'clock p.m. a quadrangular column, serving as a gasificator, was filled with anthracite coal, the aperture being closed; water was placed on the water-wheel at one o'clock, and at the same time the inflation of the gasificator commenced; at half-past one o'clock the gas burners were lighted under the steeping-pans, into each of which had been placed 1,426 litres of cold water, which indicated in each pan a depth of 42 centimetres and a half. We had weighed in our presence 4,200 kilogrammes of canes, which M. G. Bouscaren told us were the second shoots of thirteen months. From frequent trials by means of the torsion, we have extracted from canes taken at hazard, besides those already weighed, saccharine matter which always gave 10° by the *Areometre de Beaumé*. At four o'clock the temperature of the water in the pans was at 90° Centigrade. The cane-cutter was then set in motion, and in half an hour the first basket being full, the cane-cutter was stopped in order to make a simultaneous charge of the six baskets immersed in the six pans. At the withdrawal of the basket, the water in the first pans indicated 3° of saccharine matter by the *Areometre de Beaumé*. The cane-cutter being again set going, a second basket was filled with slices in 32 minutes. The business was thus continued until eleven at night, when the seventh basket was filled. There remained some canes which we had weighed, and which gave 230 kilos., which deducted from the 4,200 kilos. weighed at the commencement, gives 3,270 kilos. of sliced cane. When No. 1 basket had got to No. 6 pan, M. Bouscaren requested us to taste the slices of cane, which we found insipid, also those of No. 2 and 3 baskets, but with the last four baskets the slices of cane retained a great portion of saccharine matter. From whence this difference? M. Bouscaren attributes it—1st, that after the stoppage of the cane-cutter (which we witnessed, fearing that fermentation might begin) he pushed on the work and only allowed the basket to remain in each pan a quarter of an hour; 2nd, that the burners of No. 3 and 5 emitted only a small quantity of gas which allowed the water in those pans necessarily to become cool. M. G. Bouscaren having declared the work finished we weighed the different liquids in each pan, and they were 7, 4, 2, 1, 0; we moreover drew from each pan a bottle of the liquid, which we corked, and put aside to try the quantity of saccharine matter. The following day these cold liquids gave by the *Areometre de Beaumé* 10, 7, 5, 4, 2. The two pumps being set in motion sent the contents of the five pans into the cauldron prepared to receive it, but the gutters of the pipe not being firm some gallons of juice were spilt on the ground. This action must be remedied. At a quarter past four o'clock fire was placed under the cauldron, and in a few minutes the usual boiling of the contents took place, the liquid looking very beautiful. M. Bouscaren began to fear that the fermentation would commence, however, it did not redden the sunflower test paper. We remarked that the juice obtained by steeping had none of the balsamic fragrance which is perceptible in the juice obtained by the pressure of rollers. At half-past seven o'clock it was emptied into the small zinc filters, the first filled held two pans, and at half-past nine o'clock another of two pans.

The total quantity of this trial gave 11 of these filters quite full. Curious to know the result, we were taken to the sugar-house. An empty and a full filter were separately weighed (the filters being of the same weight); after deducting the tare we obtained 51·50 kilos., multiplying the weight of the contents of the box by 11, we had 566·50 kilos., the total weight of sugar and molasses together, and which gave for the 3,970 kilos. of cut canes 14·27 per cent. Ultimately, and after a sufficient drainage, we shall ascertain the quantity of sugar and of molasses, and also afterwards the quantity of sugar of the second quality if necessary. To give a just idea of the outline, we found that generally before the syrup was put to drain, that it contained one-third syrup and two-thirds sugar. The 566·50 of liquid in the tanks is composed then of 377·50 kilos. sugar, and 188·80 of molasses, or in other terms 9·49% of sugar and 4·78% of molasses.

Signed the 19th March, 1847, at Mon Repos, a St. Maria, district of Capisterre, Guadaloupe.

(Signed)

F. L'HERMINIER,  
A. CRANE  
G. DE BOVIS,  
F. DE POYEN.

## SUGGESTIONS FOR THE EMIGRATION COMMISSIONERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF SIMMONDS'S COLONIAL MAGAZINE.

SIR—The following letter is an abridgement of one, forwarded by me, to the Emigration Commissioners lately appointed by Government, to receive suggestions and make inquiries respecting emigration to the British Colonies, which you are welcome to publish in your useful Magazine, if you think it worthy a place, as I conceive that the better the public are informed on such matters the more advantageous it is for the object in view.

Your obedient servant,

W. MANN.

*To the Emigration Commissioners, &c., 14, Park-street, Grosvenor-square, London.*

HONOURABLE SIRS—Perceiving by the public prints that you are appointed by the Government to receive suggestions and make inquiries respecting emigration to the British Colonies, &c., I beg leave, as a person who has resided in Australia and Van Diemen's Land for upwards of six years, and visited all the other Australian Colonies, to offer a few remarks and observations thereon.

1st. That emigration is most effectually accomplished by private enterprise, under proper Government regulations.

2nd. That in order to promote it, forest or waste lands should be sold cheap and quickly, without competition, to new comers.

3rd. That waste lands should be sold at a nominal value in proportion to the distance from home, as is the case in all Colonies except the

Australian; for some inexplicable reason these fine Colonies are an exception to the general rule, being kept in the back ground, and difficulties thrown in the way of emigration to them by the Colonial-office regulations. For instance, waste lands being sold in Canada for four shillings per acre (with the exception of the Canada-Company, who have purchased waste lands from the Government at *two* shillings per acre, but retail them out at *eleven shillings and ninepence per acre*), at the Cape of Good Hope, at *two* shillings per acre, by parity of reasoning they should be sold in Australia at one shilling per acre, in which (including Van Diemen's Land) they were formerly given *gratis*; but *now*, by some aberration of intellect or the effects of jobbing, they have been raised to one pound per acre!!!

4th. That all persons who may bring out able-bodied labourers to the Colonies, at their own expense, should be allowed waste lands to the amount of the passage-money *gratis*, or at a nominal value.

5th. That persons taking out able-bodied approved paupers, claiming out-door relief, should be allowed, exclusive of passage-money, three pounds sterling as an outfit.

6th. That the passage-money allowed in waste lands should be equal to that paid by steerage passengers in emigrant or merchant ships trading to the respective Colonies; the lands in Australia and Van Diemen's Land, to be rated no higher in compensation for passage-money than *two shillings* per acre in blocks rough and smooth; to abut, when practicable, on a river, stream, lake, or lagoon; the waste lands in all other Colonies to be given, at *one-half* their present price, to emigrant contractors.

7th. That emigration to the Australian Colonies should be particularly encouraged, as they consume British manufactured goods to the amount of *7l.* or *8l.* sterling per head per annum, being sixteen times more than *all* our North American Colonies.

8th. That if proper encouragement were given, several persons would associate to charter ships to convey themselves and friends to the various Colonies, who could not do so individually. The persons taken out would become their attached servants. Such alliance is often attended with the best success.

9th. That in the Australian Colonies a person may select a choice of climates from 10 to 44 degrees south latitude. He may either rear flocks and herds, or cultivate the vine, the olive, the sugar-cane, or the cotton-tree; or if he desires a climate equal to France or Italy, he may choose either Australia Felix or Van Diemen's Land, and follow both a pastoral and an agricultural pursuit, and cultivate the mulberry and rear the silkworm for his amusement and advantage. There is no country in the universe more free from contagious diseases of all descriptions. The climate is so mild that the emigrant may sleep under a gum-tree until he builds a log hut, which is the forerunner of a commodious substantial homestead. Nature has done everything for that fine country, but man very little, except converting part of it into a great gaol, casting the *felons* and *scum* of the empire on her shores, which demoralising practice is now happily discontinued, never more, I hope, to be adopted, as it was

considered no punishment by the convicts themselves to be transported to a finer country than their own.

10th. That the squatters, as they are termed, in New South Wales are a class of persons to whom that Colony is much indebted, for having, by their enterprise, energy, and industry, increased the wealth and prosperity of their adopted country, by exploring the forest and rearing flocks and herds where no human footsteps ever trod before, except naked tribes of erratic savages, rather difficult to manage, and to be kept on friendly terms. The squatters, on becoming independent, were taxed by the Government, but refused tenures, except on such terms as prevented improvement, consequently the bark hut is the substitute for the substantial dwelling; the mechanic, tradesman, and artisan, are unemployed; schools and religious institutions are not to be met with in such distant localities. Disputes arise between the Governor and the governed, and these adventurers are in the opinion of every one harshly treated; they are principally composed of the younger sons of gentlemen at home, who have received a liberal education; but, finding all situations and professions overdone, emigrated to better their condition; the extent of their capital forbade the ridiculous expenditure of one pound per acre for bush or forest land; they, therefore, burst the narrow limits assigned to the Colony, by the officials of the Colonial-office; they solved the problem of centralisation being necessary to Colonisation, which, according to the old school, was absolutely necessary. But, on the contrary, they proved that dispersion was their salvation, and that plenty succeeded scarcity.

Those gentlemen, therefore, should obtain for their locations the right of pre-emption, and if set up to auction, they should be allowed to retain them, if they thought proper, at the highest price offered for them; if not, to be paid by the purchasers for their improvements, as a reward for their courage and usefulness.

11th. The foregoing plan is simple in its details, and merely proposes that the waste lands in the Colonies, which are useless when unoccupied, should be made available for the public good, by giving them at half price to all persons taking out able-bodied labourers to the respective Colonies at their own expense, to the full amount of the passage-money advanced for them; and as it is preposterous to suppose that waste lands in Australia will be retained at a price which amounts to a prohibition of their sales, let them be reduced to the same price as the lands sold at the Cape of Good Hope, viz., two shillings per acre.

The question then amounts to this, are the waste lands of our numerous Colonies to be made available to their own prosperity; the trade, the wealth, and stability of the Empire—or are they not? Or is an absurd rate to be continued on waste lands which amounts to a prohibition of the sale; and is this dog-in-the-manger law of the Colonial-office to be like the laws of the Medes and Persians, never to be rescinded.

I have the honour to be, Gentlemen,

Your obedient servant, &c., &c.,

W. MANN.

Anna House, Aughnacloy, Ireland, 18th July, 1847.

THE IMPORT AND EXPORT TRADE OF HONDURAS FOR 1846.

THE exports of mahogany for 1846 have exceeded those of 1845 by 2,834,941 superficial feet; the total shipments for 1845 being 9,919,507 feet, and for 1846, 12,754,448 feet. Of this quantity 964,627 feet was shipped to the United States, and the remainder to the ports of London and Liverpool. There has been an increase of 1,212,581 feet shipped out of the limits over the year before, none of which was sent to the American market. The total value of the exports of 1846 (including that out of the limits of the Settlement, the property of the merchants at Belize) gives an increase of £91,957 6s. sterling over 1845, whilst that of the imports has fallen off £36,991 6s. There has also been a material falling off in the import and export trade with the United States. A decrease in the value of the imports to the amount of £7,755 5s. 1d., and of the exports £10,914 2s. 4d.; in the former case occasioned, no doubt, by the great reduction in the number of gangs employed, and the fact of many persons having sought employment elsewhere, or retired to plantations; and in the latter case by the great reduction in the prices of mahogany shipped there, and which has compelled the merchants of Belize to seek a more profitable market.

IMPORTS.

Report of the Number of Vessels arrived in the Port of Belize, from the 1st January, to the 31st December, 1846:—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British . . . . .	71	24,985
American . . . . .	39	4,965
West Indies . . . . .	14	484
Foreign . . . . .	5	436
Out of the limits, at the ports of Truxillo and Omoa, during the same period . . . . .	23	8,615
Total . . . . .	152	39,485

*Value of Imports in Sterling Money.*

British . . . . .	£151,837	18	9
American . . . . .	54,326	1	7
West Indies . . . . .	1,305	0	0
Foreign . . . . .	6,256	17	6
Total . . . . .	£213,725	17	10

## EXPORTS

To Great Britain, United States, West Indies, and Foreign.

*Shipped within Settlement Limits.*

9,567,570	superficial feet mahogany.
4,193	ditto cedar.
4,404 $\frac{1}{2}$	tons logwood.
19 $\frac{3}{4}$	tons fustic.
40	pieces rosewood.
5,565	serons cochineal.
387	ditto indigo.
101,031	pounds sarsaparilla.
1,488	hides.
150	barrels tortoise shell.
537,230	cocoa-nuts.
11,210	pounds old copper.
49	cases preserved turtle.
41	cases plants.

*Shipped out of the Limits.*

3,186,878	superficial feet mahogany.
997	tons logwood.
78,766	cocoa-nuts.

*Value of Exports in Sterling Money.*

British . . . . .	£298,771	14	0
American . . . . .	26,263	2	0
West Indies . . . . .	100	0	0
Foreign . . . . .	7,853	16	0
Out of the limits . . . . .	75,200	0	0
Total . . . . .	£408,188	12	0

## RECAPITULATION.

1844.

Value of imports . . . . .	£235,649	2	1
Value of exports . . . . .	358,171	6	8
Vessels arrived, 113; tonnage, 25,654.			

1845.

Value of imports . . . . .	£266,773	0	0
Value of exports . . . . .	316,230	6	0
Vessels arrived, 136; tonnage, 30,296.			

1846.

Value of imports . . . . .	£213,725	17	10
Value of exports . . . . .	408,188	12	0
Vessels arrived, 152; tonnage, 39,485.			



## FACTS FOR THE FAMISHED—A FEAST AND A FAMINE.

So many of our correspondents have recently directed public attention very ably to the pitiable situation of our Irish brethren, that we can advance little in the way of fresh arguments or incentives to action for their benefit and future well-being. We are of the opinion, however, that we shall best serve their cause by the selection of a few striking facts, which will speak for themselves, and, at least, point the way to better times and better prospects than they can hope to realise here. It is not, however, our fellow-countrymen on the other side of the Channel who alone stand in need of help, we foresee much distress as likely to prevail in our agricultural and manufacturing districts consequent upon the reaction arising from the many heavy failures in the commercial world, and the severe pressure arising from the continuance of the monetary crisis in the metropolis.

We have advanced out of our stock aid for our distressed brethren in Ireland and Scotland, but we cannot support for any long continued period this heavy drain on the public funds; nor, indeed, is it right that they should be placed in utter dependence on the hand of charity, while abundance waits to reward their honest toil and industry in more genial climes and less-heavily taxed countries. What is the state and prospect of Ireland at the present moment?—hear it from the statement of one of themselves.

“Our people are, in one place, dying, one by one along the road sides, or by dozens in houses, by scores in poor-houses, by hundreds in villages, by thousands in towns.

“And the living are seen, in lazy crowds, working at roads, which they know cannot return food for the eater, nor seed for the sower; or crowding, with the energy of hunger, in a dense mass, round the soup-kitchen. The healthy in close contact with the diseased, while the few of the upper classes, who stand their ground, and do their duty, even in the extremity, endeavour to mitigate the suffering, and to apply the permitted sustenance, as well as, under the restraint of law, and of lawfully constituted authorities, they are able; facing the peril of loathsome infection, and passing their time in scenes of danger and suffering, with which the cannon's mouth and the battle-field bear no comparison. These are faced by a host together, their duration is short, and the excitement of the hour carries the soldier through. But those are to be encountered nearly, or quite alone; no excitement of the hour to bear up the mind; day after day, month after month, the sad and murderous work goes on, and for the hundreds on a battle-field, the victims of famine and pestilence are hundreds of thousands.

“English brethren! we want FOOD; and we shall (as many of us as survive)—want food next year, and all future years. [This is their cry to English ears.] And where is the food for our millions to

come from ? From America, or other countries producing abundance ? If so, who is to pay for it ? Not poor, impoverished Ireland, whose only source of wealth was her over-abundance of food.

“ England is advancing the money to pay for our food now. Will England—can England do so next year, and the next, and the next ?

“ English brethren ! you have helped us with food. Let us now be helped to procure food by our labour, and in our prosperity you shall prosper.”

If a different system had been pursued by the Imperial Legislature and Government in the mode of assistance rendered to Ireland—if instead of employing the labour of 700,000 men on the unprofitable repairs of roads and breaking of stones, those who were willing had been encouraged to settle, with some small assistance, in one or other of our numerous Colonies in the south or west, at the Cape, in Australia, or in British North America—the advances from the Imperial Treasury would have been attended with a more lasting and beneficial result. Even now a wise energetic exertion, in the direction of common sense, will go far to save Ireland from increasing and abiding famine, and enable her happy children, who remain, to return the Imperial advances of money with interest ; and those who go forth to maintain themselves in comfort and to send of their superfluity, as so many of them have done before, to their less prosperous brethren. Already a step in the right course has been taken—in the resumption of free emigration to New South Wales and the Cape—and the report of the Select Committee of the House of Lords on Colonisation from Ireland, recently issued, leads us to hope for more extensive operations, greater attention, and a more thorough appreciation of the advantages and requirements of our numerous Colonies than has heretofore been the case.

We shall give a few passages from that Report, and then proceed to cull a few important facts and opinions from contemporary Colonial publications.

The Committee will now direct the attention of the House to some of the most prominent topics which have been adverted to by the witnesses, dividing their observations under two heads ; first, as relating to Ireland ; and second, as relating to the Colonies.

#### SECTION I.—IRELAND.

1. The excess of population in certain districts of Ireland, as compared either with the supplies of food, or with the means of employment. In this statement every witness examined will be found to concur ; but at the same time it will be seen, no less from the evidence given, than from the papers laid before Parliament, how great is the contrast in these particulars between different districts of Ireland.

2. The effect which such excess of population and subdivision of property produce, where they exist on the progress of all agricultural improvement.

3. The impossibility of raising a sufficient supply of cereal food in certain districts, to provide for a population which has been bred and hitherto supported on a potato diet.

4. The effect of this excessive population on the administration of the Poor-law and the collection of rates. In thirty-four Unions, it appears that on lands rated at a value of £1,744,391, there exists at the present a popu-

lation of 1,953,837. It is confidently stated by many witnesses, that in such cases, even if the receipt of all rents and rates were suspended, the produce of the land would be inadequate to support its inhabitants.

5. The effects of this surplus population on the peace of the country. It is stated by many practical persons, that the due management of land under such circumstances, becomes impossible, and that an enforcement of the most ordinary legal rights is attended with personal risk to life and to property. The case of the Crown lands of Ballykilcline, which has attracted the notice of Parliament, has been further elucidated by the evidence of Mr. Kincaid. In that instance, though rents have ceased to be collected for many years, there have been acts of resistance and violations of the law, a great part of the land has been left waste and uncultivated, and the poverty of the people has increased. Cases have also been stated in other parts of Ireland, where the disorganisation of a single over-peopled townland has extended its influence widely, and has led to acts of crime and intimidation subversive of the tranquillity of an entire district.

6. The effects of an over-population in Ireland, in forcing an Emigration of paupers seeking employment in England, and willing to work for the lowest wages; thus reducing the remuneration of labour, and lowering the standard of comfort and of subsistence in this part of the United Kingdom; and the necessity of Colonial Emigration as a remedy for this evil.

7. The effects and the cost of an Emigration carried into effect on particular estates, as on those of Colonel Wyndham, in Clare, the Honourable C. B. Wandesford, in Kilkenny, Lord Palmerston, in Sligo, and more especially on the property of Mr. Spraight, in Tipperary, where the consequences are stated to be increased productiveness, obedience to the law, and general contentment.

8. The deep and pervading anxiety for Emigration, as exhibited by the people themselves. This feeling, which was proved to exist, though in a lesser degree, before the Poor-law Commission, and in the evidence taken before Lord Devon and his colleagues, is now described as being general, and as being founded on the sufferings produced by the loss of the potato crop.

9. The general success of the Irish emigrant in the Colonies. This interesting fact has been proved by almost every witness examined on the point, and is proved not only in relation to British North America but to Australia. *But the evidence which is most conclusive, is to be found in the large and increasing remittances which have been made by previous settlers to assist their families and friends in emigrating.* The evidence of the Rev. Dr. Montgomery, shows the actual sums remitted through the banks of Belfast, and similar facts are stated by almost every witness connected with Ireland who has been examined. It is thus, as has been forcibly stated in evidence, that "*Emigration begets Emigration.*"

10. The excess of charge incurred by providing for the poor in the work-house, or on public works, as compared with the expense of Emigration.

11. The effect produced on the industry and wealth of Great Britain, as exemplified in the amount of British manufactured produce, consumed by an Irish peasant settled in Australia or British North America, or by the same peasant left to struggle with poverty in Ireland.

12. The expediency of permitting tenants for life and persons under legal disabilities, to raise loans and to charge the inheritance for the purposes of Emigration. This suggestion, which was first made by the late Mr. Baron Foster, has been urged on the attention of the Committee by several witnesses.

13. The expediency of amending the Poor-law, so far as relates to Emigration, by granting the same facilities for raising money on the security of Irish rates as is permitted by law in England.

14. The lessened risk that is now stated to exist of a recurrence of the evil of over-population if its pressure were once removed, from the growing and extended conviction in the minds of all, that the minute subdivision and parcelling out of land is injurious alike to the proprietor and to the farmer, from the cessation of long leases granted to middlemen, by whom this system was mainly promoted, from the greater facility with which a mischief was averted than corrected when it has once arisen; but more especially from the example of the less rapid increase of population in Leinster, as compared with the population of the more unimproved districts, by which fact it is demonstrated that increased comfort in the people cannot fail to generate habits of prudence and forethought, and an indisposition to sink in the social scale by making improvident marriages.

15. The possibility of lessening the time, risk, and cost of trans-Atlantic navigation, by the transmission of emigrants for America, from the best situated western ports of Ireland, and the possible use of steam for such purposes.

#### SECTION II.—COLONIES.

1. The capacity which exists in certain Colonies to absorb European labour with advantage to their most essential interests.

2. The extent to which this supply may safely be carried, and the limits within which on just views of policy it ought to be confined.

3. The effect of an increased supply of emigrant labour on the productive-ness and value of Colonial land, and on the funds to be realised by land sales.

4. The effect which Colonisation may be expected to produce on the investment of British capital within the Colony to which such Colonisation is applied, it being stated that such investments are now discouraged in consequence of the extravagant price of labour, which diminishes the amount of profits.

5. The effect of a larger supply of free European labour on the value of Colonial produce in cases where, as in New South Wales, it is stated that it has become necessary to slaughter and boil down sheep into tallow for the want of shepherds and other labourers required for pastoral pursuits, thus diminishing the wealth of the Colony and the raw material necessary for British manufactures.

6. The effect that may be anticipated by the promotion or encouragement of works of undisputed usefulness, such as the railroads projected in British North America, surveys of which are now in progress, or have already been completed under the auspices of the Government.

7. The effect of an augmented population in the British Colonies, not only in increasing their wealth, their agricultural, mineral, and commercial resources, their power of consuming British manufactures, and paying for them in produce of which the Mother-country may stand in need, but in adding to their strength and means of defence, and thus consolidating and securing the power of the Empire. The committee cannot close this report without once more guarding themselves from the supposition that, by suggesting these subjects as deserving the most serious reflection and the strictest examination, they are thereby prejudging the question, or expressing any conclusive opinion of their own. That opinion ought only to be formed as the result of the examination and reflection which they have already recommended. They believe that there is much in the evidence before them which will serve to guide the House and the public towards the formation of an ultimate judgment, but the evidence is still incomplete. The committee are fully aware that they have as yet examined into many points but superficially, and that some, as, for example, the state of the British possessions in Southern Africa and in the territory of Natal have not yet been considered at all. Neither

have they obtained adequate information respecting what they sincerely hope may hereafter be considered as the prospering settlement of New Zealand. The important discoveries of Sir T. Mitchell in Australia have also been but slightly noticed. But the evidence which they have taken, both as showing the rapid development of the resources of British North America, and more especially as proving the unexampled progress of the newly-planted Australian Provinces, is well calculated to warrant a hope that the great principle of Colonisation, so often treated of as among those "ancient, primitive, and heroic works" for which modern times are unfitted, not only has been realised in some British Possessions, but has been exemplified on a greater scale and with more entire success there, and of late years, than has been manifested elsewhere in the past history of mankind. To transplant our domestic habits, our commercial enterprise, our laws, our institutions, our language, our literature, and our sense of religious obligation to the more distant regions of the globe, is an enterprise worthy of the character of a great maritime nation. It is not only in its progress the pursuit and the attainment of glory, but in its success, is the performance of a high duty and the accomplishment of a noble destiny; and if it can also be made subservient to the relief of pressing distress at home, if the labour which is in excess in certain parts of the country can be rendered the source of an extending and durable prosperity in the Colonies, such a combination of advantages cannot fail the more to recommend this great question of Colonisation to the earliest attention of the Legislature.

The scarcity of labour in New South Wales, for a considerable time past, has induced a number of Colonists, chiefly those connected with depasturing pursuits, to organise themselves into associations for the purpose of defraying the expense of introducing *expirée* convicts from Van Diemen's Land.

In the close of 1845, a Select Committee of the Legislative Council of Sydney, appointed to inquire into and report upon the best means of promoting immigration to the Colony, presented their report, which we published in full in our number for December last (vol. ix., p. 393), and to which we would especially refer. For the benefit of those, however, who have not seen that report, we proceed to recapitulate a few of the leading statements therein advanced:—

The unanimous conclusion at which your Committee have arrived, is, that there is already a scarcity of labour throughout the Colony, and that the deficiency now felt is daily being experienced to a still greater and more serious extent.

\* \* \* \* \*

The primary object of all our Colonial enterprise is sheep farming.—Seven-eighths of our exportable produce consists of wool, and whatever effects the cost of its production must have the most direct and intimate relation to the interests of the Colony, as well as those of Great Britain. A reduction in the price realised by this commodity or an increased expenditure in the cost of its production (whether arising from exorbitant wages or any other cause), must strike at the root of our general prosperity, as destroying our export altogether, or as rendering the cost of its production equal to, or exceeding, the prices realised for it in the European market.

It is with much anxiety, that your Committee have learned that there is a considerable augmentation in the rate of wages of pastoral and agricultural labour, over that which has prevailed for the last two years. In some districts "the crops have been abandoned, not having labour, although twelve and thirteen shillings an acre were offered for reaping, with a supply of food."

That in the Port Phillip district, so urgent is likely to be the want of shepherds, that if the supply be not speedily sent, it is to be calculated upon "that wages will soon be as high as £40 a-year." In the district of Moreton Bay a considerable advance in wages is experienced; and it is stated that there is scarcely a single station in the district which is not from three to four men short-handed. In "Australia Felix," wages are said to be rapidly increasing; "that shepherds cannot be obtained under £24 a year." That the worst apprehensions are felt as to the event of a fresh supply of labour not being procured; and that if wages become higher, the flockmaster will be compelled to resort to the boiling down of his stock. "During the last three months the wages of shepherds and farm labourers has increased fifteen per cent." \* \* \* \* The demand for agricultural and pastoral labour is, notwithstanding what is here alleged (the possibility of obtaining a supply of *expirées* from Van Diemen's Land) so urgent and irresistible that in the absence of any system of immigration from the Mother-country, your Committee see no alternative left to the flockmaster but that of availing himself of it within the next twelve months to a considerable extent. The introduction of Coolies from India has indeed been looked to as a source from whence the want of labour may be met in the absence of all other means for its supply.

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The number of sheep and horned cattle now depastured throughout the Colony (including Port Phillip and Moreton Bay) amounts to six millions of the former, and one million two hundred thousand of the latter. The increase on this stock for the present year will, it may be safely calculated, be not less than one million four hundred thousand lambs, and two hundred and fifty thousand horned cattle.—For taking charge of, and tending this increased number of flocks and herds, not less than four thousand men will be required. Assuming an equal proportion in the sexes of the emigrants henceforth to be introduced, and making allowance for a due proportion of children, a demand and employment for not less than twelve thousand five hundred persons is thus created during the course of the ensuing year. The demand for labour for this species of rural employment is uniform and progressive each succeeding year, and must continue to be so, so long as pastoral pursuits are found to be a source of profitable investment, or until the period (one probably exceedingly remote) when the whole of the grazing lands of the Australian territories shall have become occupied.

\* \* \* \* \*

First—As to the number of emigrants to be introduced within a given period, the lowest estimate made by any one of the witnesses is twelve thousand five hundred annually.—The periodical demand created by the annual increase of the flocks and herds cannot be estimated at less than four thousand men; these, if accompanied by an equal number of women, and in the case of married couples, by a due proportion of children, would amount to about the number above specified. Your Committee feel no hesitation in expressing their belief that the number here referred to would find ready employment at moderate rates of wages; the same ratio of emigration might also, they are persuaded, be continued for a period of not less than three years, by which an importation of upwards of forty thousand persons would be effected, and the whole sum appropriated for which the loan is proposed to be contracted. This calculation is founded upon the assumption that the entire cost of emigration is to be charged on the Colony. It is to be hoped, however, that some proportion of the outlay incurred will be met in the manner suggested above, either by Parliament, or by parochial contributions, so

as to secure a much larger amount of emigration than the Colony by its own unaided resources may be able to effect.

The demand for labour in the employments here referred to is most urgent, and the deprivation of it can only be met by the destruction of the flocks and herds of the Colony; an alternative not less disastrous to the Colonists obliged to have recourse to this sacrifice, than injurious to British commerce. When, owing to the high rate of wages, a flock-master is driven to the necessity of converting into tallow, for which he probably realises not more than five shillings, a sheep, whose annual fleece ought to furnish him with a nett revenue of two shillings or two shillings and sixpence, he adopts a step the consequences of which are the extinction of his own capital, and a diminution of an exportable product of the Colony, the supply of which is intimately connected with the interests of the British manufacturer.

\* \* \* \* \*

It is not merely for this class of labourers only that the Colony holds out advantages to such as are disposed to emigrate to it. Your Committee are satisfied that a great and all but boundless field exists for the settlement of a description of men intermediate between the labourer and flock-master, and who, when once established on the soil, would constitute a class of yeomanry and small farmers. Your Committee would indeed consider the resources or prospects of the Colony as limited to an extent much to be regretted, if confined only to the advantageous settlement of but two classes—that is, the larger proprietor and the labourer. They are, however, satisfied that no British Colony possesses superior, or probably equal, advantages to those presented by New South Wales, to that description of small capitalists who emigrate in such numbers to North America; and who, investing the greater part of their means in the acquisition of a piece of land, rely upon bringing it into cultivation, chiefly through the labour of their own hands and that of their families.

Emigrants arriving in the Colony, bringing with them a small capital, and habits of industry, would constitute a social grade in Colonial society, of which it is at the present moment to a great extent deficient. A boundless expanse of land available for culture exists in the various divisions of the Colony. "Australia Felix," generally, may be said to be eminently adapted for the settlement of an agricultural population; the evidence on this point is so ample and conclusive, and is furnished by such a multitude of witnesses, it would be quite supererogatory to dwell upon it in this report; it may, however, be remarked, as a peculiar feature in the Australian lands, that tracts best adapted for the plough are naturally clear of brushwood and timber.

\* \* \* \* \*

It is calculated by the Committee that the increase of the live stock of the Colony will this year amount to one million four hundred thousand lambs, and two hundred and fifty thousand horned cattle, and require additional labour to the extent of four thousand men, which, together with an equal number of women, and two children for each couple, will make a total of twelve thousand souls. This number annually introduced for three years will give a population of about forty thousand, which is estimated as sufficient for four millions and a half of sheep, and seven hundred and fifty thousand horned cattle.

In the gloomy period of 1843, says the Rev. Dr. J. D. Lang, in his new work on Phillippsland, when sheep and cattle had fallen so low as to be scarcely worth driving to market, an extensive proprietor, Mr. O'Brien, casting about for a remedy, was struck with the idea that the

tallow of the animals, if extracted from the carcase, would realise much more in the English market than the sheep and cattle themselves in the Colony; hence the process of "boiling down."

The practice of boiling down consists in throwing the entire carcase of the sheep or bullock to be boiled down, with the exception of the hind legs, into a large boiler or vat, in which, either with or without the process of steaming, the entire fat or tallow is extracted by the application of heat, and received into casks and shipped for London. The hind legs contain comparatively little tallow, and are sold either by weight or at so much each; and so vast has been the number of sheep and cattle subjected to this process in the Colony, of late years, that hind legs of the very best mutton have been retailed for months together, in some of the Colonial inland towns, at a halfpenny per pound! By this means, although there has been a lamentable waste of animal food, which, however, the thin population of the country is quite unable to consume, a very fair minimum price has been established for sheep and cattle in the Colony—a matter of the utmost consequence to the Colonial stockholder.

The minimum for sheep subjected to this process in Phillip Island is five shillings; and I have mentioned an instance in which the hides and tallow alone of cattle boiled down in that district, realised £3 12s. per head in the London market. The importance of this discovery to the Colonial squatters will be understood, when I add, that sheep were often sold before for eighteen pence or a shilling a head—nay, they have even been sold for sixpence a head, when levied upon and sold for quit rent, to the utter ruin of the oppressed Colonist.

In the year 1845, in the Colony of New South Wales, there were slaughtered at 56 boiling-down establishments, 96,327 sheep, and 39,145 head of horned cattle, which produced 51,198 cwt. of tallow, and 542 hogs, yielding 25,569 lbs. of lard.

In the previous year (1844), the quantity of tallow derived from slaughtered live stock in New South Wales, appears to have been 48,578 cwt., and of lard, 12,529 pounds. According to the Rev. Dr. Lang, the exports of tallow were 56,609 cwt. in 1844, and 71,995 cwt. in 1845.

Mr. Gideon S. Lang, in a work on "Land and Labour in Australia," furnishes the following estimate of the wool and tallow which will be produced when one-third of the area of the district of Port Phillip is occupied, and the stock of the middle district of the Colony has increased in the same proportion—sheep and cattle in the same ratio to each other as at present:—

	Sydney.	Port Phillip.
Sheep . . . . .	8,631,250	5,000,000
Cattle . . . . .	2,125,300	500,000
Cast 5 years old . . . . .	2,151,310	1,100,000
Consumption, export, and dead . . . . .	774,907	562,200
Melted . . . . .	1,377,373	537,800
Tallow (20 lb. per sheep, 186 lbs. per head of cattle) . . . . .	33,493	8,900
Wool, 2 $\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. per sheep . . . . .	23,735,937	13,750,000



Value of the above produce in Britain—

Wool, 37,485,937 lbs., at 1s. 3d. . . .	£2,342,871
Tallow, 42,393 tons, at £40 per ton . . .	1,695,720

£4,038,591

It is stated as an authentic fact, in our last Australian papers, that among a portion alone of the large squatters in New South Wales, 400,000 sheep, and 75,000 head of cattle, are marked out for the melting-pot, and must come to it within twelve months. From them it is calculated that 10,000 tons of tallow will be procured. At the heaviest rate of consumption of animal food in the Colony, 10 lbs. of meat per head per week, the quantity of butcher's meat would feed 130,000 men during an entire year. Read, also, the following extract from the *Sydney Herald*, of the 1st of March, 1847, and will it not grieve the heart of the willing and starving labourer, who, like the prodigal in Scripture, whilst feeding on husks, knows that there is food and to spare in the far-off country to which all his thoughts and wishes tend, but which he has not the means of reaching unless by the actual commission of crime :—

“The large numbers and rapid increase of our cattle and sheep, their fat condition, the high price of tallow, and, above all, the scarcity of labour, are causing our graziers to prepare with unwonted activity for boiling down. As an immense number of animals will be thus disposed of during the coming winter, and as every carcass is primed with fat, there can be no doubt that our export of tallow will this year be prodigious. This happy expedient for turning our surplus stock into money operates beneficially in more ways than one. Besides the direct profit it brings to the owner, and the impulse it imparts to our merchants and shipowners, it establishes a minimum value for cattle and sheep, and checks the upward tendency of labourers' wages. In this last respect, its importance, in the present state of our labour market, can scarcely be over-rated. It places in the hands of the stockholders an instrument which, judiciously used, would enable them to keep wages at a reasonable level. If they would but act in concert, and moderate their wishes for numerical increase of flocks and herds, they might so adjust the demand for labour to its known supply as to put it out of the labourer's power to extort more than ‘a fair day's wages for a fair day's work.’

“Not a few of our flockmasters, however, are so wedded to the old system of adding flock to flock with geometrical rapidity, that this new-fangled practice of boiling down is looked upon by them as a severe though inevitable evil. Since every breeding animal thrown into the pot would, if permitted to live, “be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish” the owner's runs, they lament the slaughter as a wasteful sacrifice of capital. But if they could conquer their ancient prejudices, they would see that, besides the direct and indirect advantages already noticed, the boiling down system is analogous to a forest of valuable timber, or a mine of precious minerals. The slaughtering of surplus sheep for their tallow is like the cutting down of oaks, which at once find their way to a remunerative market, and are replaced by groves of young saplings that will

supply fresh exports in their turn; or like the digging up of metals out of inexhaustible lodes. Such are the facilities afforded by our mild climate and boundless ranges of natural pasture for the propagation of sheep, that if all the flocks in the Colony were decimated every year for the extraction of tallow, the vacancy would be more than filled up again within a few months. The truth of this assertion will be admitted when we state, that on the 1st of January, 1845, the number of sheep in the Colony was 5,600,000; and on the 1st January in the year following, 6,860,000; being an increase in twelve months of more than twenty per cent.

*“There is, however, connected with this wholesale seething, one very painful subject of reflection—the grievous waste of wholesome butcher’s meat, which is at present inseparable from it. When we think what a blessing this good beef and mutton would be to the thousands upon thousands of our fellow-subjects at home who are pining with hunger, one cannot but regard such waste with heartfelt sorrow.\* Let us hope that some means will yet be devised, whereby the mutton as well as the tallow may be exported with profit.”*

We will next cite Mrs. Chisholm, a lady now in this country, who has had great experience in Australia, and who thus writes in a letter she has recently addressed to Earl Grey, which we would earnestly recommend to general perusal, containing, as it does, the honest unbought statements of numerous emigrants now in flourishing circumstances:—  
 “The demand for labour in New South Wales, Port Phillip, and South Australia, is urgent and increasing. Is it not a lamentable thought, then, my Lord, that deaths should daily result from starvation among British subjects, while in this valuable Colony good wheat is rotting on the ground for the want of hands to gather it in; that tens of thousands of fine sheep, droves after droves, thousands upon thousands of fat cattle, are annually slaughtered there and “*boiled down*,” in order to be rendered into tallow for the European market, while the vast refuse is cast in the fields to be devoured by dogs and pigs, and yet no effort is made by England to provide for her struggling people by a humane system of Colonisation. Let me, then, in the name of suffering humanity, entreat of your Lordship to take into mature and immediate consideration, this demand for labour—this fearful waste of human food, and withal the vast capabilities of our Australasian Colonies (nearly equal in size to all Europe); and let me hope that the result of your Lordship’s deliberation, and that of other friends of humanity, will be to give to some of our starving peasantry a passage to a country admirably adapted to the hard-working man.”

“The Australian Colonies,” according to Mr. Mann, author of “Six Years’ Residence in the Australian Provinces,” “could take, and provide for, all our redundant and pauper population, in comfort and independence; which would neither entail responsibility nor expense on the

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\* The quantities of cattle and sheep slaughtered for tallow in the years 1844 and 1845, amounted to 59,293 head of horned cattle, and 314,124 sheep; in all, 373,400 animals in two years!

Government of the Empire, and at the same time would relieve the landed interest of the country at large, by providing for able-bodied paupers, who, it appears, by the new Poor-law, are entitled, when not employed, to out-door relief, in the shape of food. We have ships of war laid up in ordinary, and innumerable merchant vessels, before which distance disappears, that could be profitably employed on this service.

“Common sense should dictate that the greater distance the emigrant must travel to reach his destination, the land he was about to occupy should be cheap in proportion; this seems to have been the object in view when rates were fixed by the Government on former occasions. For instance, the price of crown or waste lands in Canada is *four* shillings per acre. At the Cape of Good Hope *two* shillings per acre: so that by parity of reasoning, waste lands in Australia should be only *one* shilling per acre, when in reality, by some aberration of intellect, or jobbing, they are rated at *one pound* per acre.

“Let reason, then, be consulted, and the upset price of waste land in Australia and Van Diemen’s Land be reduced to what it should be, or at least to the same price as at the Cape of Good Hope, say two shillings per acre.

“The millions, nay, billions of acres in Australia, should be thrown open to the public, on the following conditions.

“To every person who brought out able-bodied labourers, between sixteen and forty-five years of age, to be approved of at landing in Australia or Van Diemen’s Land, by a person duly appointed for that purpose, the sum of twelve pounds sterling to be allowed in land, at the rate of two shillings per acre, for each approved emigrant.

“All other land, in blocks of such size as the local authorities may determine on, to be put up at the upset price, by auction, of three shillings per acre.

“For able bodied paupers who can claim out-door relief in the shape of food, the sum of fifteen pounds sterling for their passage should be allowed in land, at the rate stated; twelve pounds being allowed as passage money, and three pounds for an outfit.

“Female paupers of a certain age, and children, should be allowed passage money, in land, in proportion to the foregoing standard.

“The reason why the sum of twelve pounds sterling, passage money for each adult, is considered sufficient, is, that in the ship by which I returned from Australia, two persons in humble life were allowed their passage *home* for ten pounds *each*, but as provisions are cheaper in the Colonies than in England, the additional sum of two pounds should be allowed.”

It is not long (says Mr. C. J. Baker,\* himself an emigrant of some experience), since domestic servants, even of bad character, could command almost any wages, and should these times occur again, a prudent and temperate servant may soon acquire such an independence, as a life of continued saving at home could alone accomplish.

The labouring man can emigrate to much greater advantage. He is

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\* Account of Sydney and Melbourne, London: Smith, Elder, and Co.

sure of employment; and whilst he is provided at the expense of his master with a hut, and as much meat as he can eat, and liberal rations of flour, tea, sugar, &c., his wages are from £20 to £30 a-year, out of which he has nothing else to purchase than a few clothes. A prudent labourer may, undoubtedly, in New South Wales, very soon lay by a little fortune, and, in the mean time, live extremely well, daily enjoying as much meat as he desires; but who will deny that in England, to say nothing of poor Ireland, the pocket of the labourer is ever empty, whilst he scarcely knows what it is to have a full and satisfying meal; or, if he can occasionally command one, such extraordinary times serve only to mark more painfully the deficiency on other days.

We might multiply individual instances of the advance in prosperity of emigrants, who reached the Colony poor, from Mrs. Chisholm's pamphlet, and from the evidence adduced before the Sydney Emigration Committee, did our space permit.

In one of the latest Port Phillip papers received, the *Melbourne Patriot*, of the 15th March, after alluding to the distressed condition of Ireland, the editor says, "It is the bounden duty of all who can 'contribute' to do so with promptitude."

*Port Phillip alone heads the relief fund with its thirty millions of fertile acres!* She offers a land literally "flowing with milk and honey" to the "famished thousands" now clamouring for food—a land in whose vocabulary *want* is not to be found, where even the common fate of the idle and dissolute cannot intrude. Such is the asylum open to the destitute multitudes of the British isles; but, unhappy wretches, starve they must, and this honour be denied to them, until the attention of the Home Government be directed to the relief it offers—a relief which, with each succeeding year, would afford greatly increased means for absorbing the unemployed labour of the Mother-country. We repeat that these advantages must lie dead and buried to England, to ourselves, and to the world, unless some scheme of National Emigration be established, and a few of the unemployed navy be temporarily converted into an emigrant marine, as proposed in the Commons by Mr. Buckingham, some years since. We cannot resist observing, *en passant*, the singular indifference displayed by the pauper crowded parishes of England upon the subject of Emigration, the more particularly when we consider the advantages its revival would hold out to them. The maintenance cost of a pauper is some £9 10s. per annum—and the charge of his passage per emigrant ship to these Colonies about £15, or rather less; in fact, we learn that Mr. Marshall, the well-known emigration agent, has issued a prospectus in which he rates such conveyance at £14 per head. Thus it will be apparent that at the cost of maintaining a pauper for 17 or 18 months, the parish would get rid of the unfortunate wretch for life; and if we estimate the average life-term of each poor-house inmate to be ten years, there would be a *bonâ fide* saving per head per pauper of *eighty-one pounds!* Now, when we are told that the inmates in the poor-houses of London alone number *twenty thousand*, some idea may be formed of the actual amount of retrenchment consequent upon their periodical and continued shipment to these Colonies.

In conclusion, let us imagine the following fact (for the truth of which we vouch), detailed at the midnight meeting of the destitute "Wilts labourers," or to the equally squalid multitudes who assembled at the "Dorchester Monster Meeting," where want in all its horrors was pathetically pleaded, and where famine and wretchedness must now be at their acme:—

Some fortnight since, Mr. Allen, a settler in Western Port, endeavoured to engage labour in Melbourne. The wages he offered was one guinea per week (for three months' certain employment), with rations of the best quality to an unlimited extent. He was unable to hire a single hand; the objections, however ludicrous they may appear, were as follow:—One fellow refused to engage because his oatmeal (which he preferred to flour) would not be boiled in *new milk*, and another, because a portion of his rations would be *beef* instead of *mutton*! Such examples are worth a thousand essays.

We do not consider we can more appropriately conclude these remarks than by subjoining a table of the current wages rate (alphabetically arranged) in this Colony:—

	per diem.
Blacksmiths . . . . .	7s.
Whitesmiths (but one in Melbourne).	
*Bookbinders . . . . .	7s.
Cabinetmakers . . . . .	7s.
Carvers and Gilders (but one).	
*Coach Builders . . . . .	
Coopers . . . . .	6s.
Coppersmiths . . . . .	8s.
Cutlers (none).	
Engineers . . . . .	7s.
Millers (flour) £100 per annum and a house.	
Iron and Brassfounders . . . . .	7s.
Nailors (none).	
Painters and Glaziers . . . . .	6s.
Plasterers . . . . .	6s.
Plumbers . . . . .	9s.
Potters (none)	
*Printers . . . . .	7s.
*Saddlers . . . . .	7s.
*Ship Builders . . . . .	6s.
*Ship Joiners . . . . .	7s.
*Turners . . . . .	7s.
Upholsterers . . . . .	6s.
Wheelwrights . . . . .	6s.
Wire Workers . . . . .	12s.
Boot and Shoemakers—making Wellington boots, 11s.; closing, £1; shoes, 5s.	
Tailors—making coats, 18s.	
	Per Annum.
Shepherds . . . . .	£25 to £35
Hutkeepers . . . . .	ditto
Stockkeepers . . . . .	£26 to £36
Ploughmen . . . . .	£30, with rations.
General Farm Servants . . . . .	£25
Man and Wife . . . . .	£47
Gardeners . . . . .	£40
Man Servant. . . . .	£30
Female ditto. . . . .	£26
Cooks . . . . .	£40
Grooms . . . . .	£70
Reaping—£1 per acre, with rations.	

All trades marked with an asterisk are short-handed; in the item, coach-

builders, information of the current wages was *refused*, we believe it, however, to be 10s. per diem. The remarks appended to the other items speak for themselves. As the English reader may not be aware of the amount of provisions included in "rations," we give them as follow, per head:—12lbs. meat, 12lbs. flour, 2oz. tea,  $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. sugar, with an unlimited supply of milk, vegetables, &c. Let the relative bearing of the Colonial rate of wages to the cost of living (remarkably cheap) be contrasted with the home wages and home provision prices, and home taxes, and it will be admitted that the artisan or labourer at Port Phillip (incredible as it may appear to our English readers) is about five times as well paid as the British labourer or mechanic, and is always certain of as constant employment as his industrious inclinations induce him to accept.

#### MELBOURNE MARKETS.—MARCH 13, 1847.

Potatoes, wholesale, per ton, £3; ditto, retail, per cwt., 3s. 6d. to 4s.; turnips, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per bunch; carrots, 1d. per ditto; radishes, 1d. per ditto; cucumbers, 1d. to 2d. each; cabbages, 1d. to 3d. each; capsicums, 4d. per lb.; parsnips, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per bunch; onions, wholesale, per ton, £6 to £10; ditto, retail, per cwt., 10s. to 11s.; greens, per bunch, 1d.

Fruit.—Apples, from 4d. to 6d. per lb.; grapes, 6d. to 10d. per lb.; damsons, 6d. to 8d. per lb.; quinces, 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. each; bananas, 3d. each; melons, 3d. to 6d. each; pears, 2d. each.

Poultry.—Geese, each, 6s. to 7s.; turkeys, 6s. to 7s.; ducks, 3s. 6d. to 4s. per couple; fowls, 3s. to 3s. 9d. per couple; eggs, 1s. 6d. to 1s. 9d. per dozen; butter, 1s. to 1s. 2d. per lb.

Hay, from £2 15s. to £4 8s. per ton.

Sales effected this week by Messrs. Bear and Son:—

Fat Cattle.—A small lot of twenty, at auction, from 55s. to 72s.; ninety head, at ditto, from 50s. to 76s. each; forty, for shipment, at £3 5s. each, or 9s. per 100lbs.

Store Cattle.—A lot of cows, springing or with calves at side, from 45s. to 70s. each; twenty-two steers, for yoking, from 52s. 6d. to 70s.; 300 mixed cattle, of ages, at 32s. 6d.

Working Bullocks.—Three teams, of six, sold at 8, 9, and 10 guineas per pair, bows and yokes given in; two teams, of four ditto, at £7 7s. and £9 per pair.

Sheep.—1,000 clean ewes, mixed age, 7s.; twenty rams, at 40s. each; 1,400 ewes, maiden, at 7s. 6d.; 200, mixed ages, at 7s. 6d.; 900 wethers, for grazing, at 6s. 3d.

Horses.—Several good hacks, privately, 18, 20, and 25 guineas each; ditto draught horses, 17 and 22 guineas each. At the weekly sale twenty-five horses were offered, nearly all of which found purchasers, at the following prices:—Hacks, from 13 to 21 guineas; harness ditto, from 14 to 19 guineas; stock horses, and inferior, from 8 to 11 guineas each; a few strong colts, just handled, from the Murray district, averaged 17 $\frac{1}{2}$  guineas each.

Remarks.—Sheep and stations sell readily; also good clean ewes, at rather advanced prices. Fat cattle have sold better this week, averaging 9s. per 100lbs. Store cattle are plentiful; quiet cows and calves much in demand; fat wethers rather scarce, at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. Horses still maintain their prices; good sound horses from the breeders' hands are much inquired for. Wool the same as last quotations.

But it is not to Australia alone that we would direct attention; the Cape Colony, New Zealand, New Brunswick, and Canada, all offer advantages, not only of mere existence to the destitute and careworn,

but opportunities of attaining, by steady industry, competence for their families.

The rich and fertile islands of New Zealand have been thrown in the shade for some time past, owing to the difficulties of the Colonising Company, which has hitherto had the direction of affairs there—and yet all accounts concur in describing this, literally, as a land flowing with milk and honey.

The sources of profitable industry, says Dr. Martin (who resided five years in the Colony), are certainly more varied and numerous in New Zealand than in any other Colony belonging to Great Britain, and hold out the strongest inducements, not only for the investments of the large capitalist, but also for the employment of the labour of the poorest man.

While our rich and recently-discovered mines of every kind, our sperm fisheries and our spar trade, afford the most inviting prospect to the man of capital, our fertile plains, and, above all, our genial climate, mark New Zealand as being eminently the Colony to which persons of moderate means should emigrate.

The settler in New Zealand has a great advantage, not only in the cheapness of the land—which can now be obtained, according to quality and situation, from 2s. to 30s. per acre—but he has also a decided advantage over the North American settlers, in the fact that the land will produce all the year round: spring, summer, autumn, and winter, alike favour the operations of the agriculturist. Our easy water carriage along the coast, and by means of navigable rivers from the interior, afford equal, if not greater, facilities than Canada herself, as far as Colonial markets are concerned. The pastoral and never-to-be-agricultural Colonies of New Holland insure a certain and remunerating foreign market for the surplus produce of the farmer.

The average return of wheat in the vicinity of Auckland, where the agriculture is still in its infancy, and very imperfectly carried on, may be stated at from thirty-five to forty bushels per acre. Barley, maize, oats, and hops, thrive equally well. Very light and poor soil, in the vicinity of Auckland, is said to have yielded from fifty to seventy bushels per acre; and an excellent judge has stated that it was the best malting grain he had ever seen—not excelled by any produced either in England or Scotland. That essential article of food, the potato, and every other field or garden vegetable or root, will thrive equally well.

“Whatever faults we may be disposed to find with New Zealand, it cannot for a moment be asserted that one of them is unproductiveness, or want of fertility. On the contrary, I believe that every man who has visited the Colony must have been much surprised both at the cheapness and abundance of our provisions. England never yet formed a Colony in which, during the third or fourth year of its formation, living was actually cheaper than in the mother-country itself; but this is in truth, and happily for us, the case in New Zealand. We can at present purchase pork, potatoes, bread, and the other essential articles of living, cheaper than could be done in Ireland itself. We may not, however, take any credit to ourselves, or to the providence of our rulers, on that account. The country and the indus-

trious natives deserve it all. But for the productiveness of the country and the industry of the natives, we should have been by this time starved out of the Colony (instead of being, as we are, enjoying the necessaries and many of the comforts of life in great abundance and cheapness), in consequence of the obstacles which have been by the foolish Government thrown in the way of the settlers. What would have become of the European population of New Zealand, had they been, with such a Government, placed in any other country but this? Had we been placed in South Australia, New South Wales, or even North America itself, with our small and limited means, and with our unjust and oppressive Government, we should have literally eaten ourselves out in less than twelve months. But, thanks to our fertile country and to our industrious native population, we have lived until we got rid of the one, and have the certain prospect of being enabled to procure and cultivate land from which we may not only abundantly produce for our own consumption, but also supply the wants of the neighbouring Colonies. New Zealand, although, for reasons which I shall hereafter state, eminently adapted for men of large capital, is still really and truly *the poor man's country*. Let any man with two hands and ordinary strength procure but the land to work upon with half food, (the other half he can procure for himself from the bush and the sea,) for the first six months, and if he be not the laziest creature that God ever made in the shape of a human being, he is an independent man, as far as mere living is concerned. If he merely till the ground, sow the seed, and gather the produce, the climate and the soil will do their part. The facilities for obtaining food are perhaps greater in New Zealand than in any other part of the world. To convince you of this, I will mention a circumstance which was told to me the other day by a gentleman who was travelling in a certain district of this country. At the house where he resided, the last of the pork had been consumed at breakfast—a circumstance which not a little disconcerted my friend, who could see no immediate prospect of procuring another supply in time for dinner, knowing as he did that his host had no tame animals about his place. The latter, however, took the matter very coolly, and after breakfast unobservedly leaving his guest, he took his gun in his hand and walked to the bush, from whence he returned in a few minutes, and proposed that the boat should be launched upon the river. After so doing, and pulling a short distance, they landed on one of its banks, where they found a large bush pig in the agonies of death, after receiving the contents of the settler's gun. The pig was instantly conveyed to the house, and a portion prepared for dinner. In the meantime, an additional supply of food was procured by a few minutes' fishing in the river. In short, when the settler wanted fish or meat, he had merely to take his dog or gun and procure the one from the bush, or his boat and fishing-line to obtain the other from the river. So abundant are the wild pigs in almost every part of the country, that a person merely requires to keep a good dog, and to take the trouble of catching them, to obtain a certain supply of pork. At our station on the Thames, we have, for



upwards of three years, derived our chief supply from that source. I do not know of anything more exciting than a regular good pig-hunt. Some of the old boars will set any number of dogs at defiance. Independent of the real and substantial advantage of this so cheaply procured food, it will at all times afford the New Zealand settler an excellent recreation to follow his dogs through the pig-grounds. Pigs are frequently to be met in herds of fifteen and twenty."

"I have seen," says Mr. Walter Brodie ('Remarks on Past and Present State of New Zealand,' 1845, p. 106), "nearly the whole of the British Colonies, as well as the States of North and South America, and I here conscientiously and honestly state that I have never seen any country to equal New Zealand." And this gentleman, be it observed, was a four years' resident there.

If we come back now to the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE—with its varied resources of wool and wine and grain—we have more evidences of unbounded prosperity. It is true that there have been disturbances in the interior, and the frontier warfare has thrown a partial cloud over the sunshine of the settlers; but this is but a temporary gloom, which cannot affect the resources of the country, or mar its capabilities as a scene for profitably industry. And here also the cry is for *labour*. And is it not a goodly country,—rich in soil, in climate, in all that can gladden the heart of man?

Let us take the account of one its most enterprising and flourishing settlers, that of Mr. J. C. Chase, an emigrant, of 1820, to the Eastern Province:—

I shall now address myself to the labourer, and my tale to him shall be short, plain, and unvarnished. I ask him to look and think upon his changeful native skies, his bitter winter and his poor accommodations—his periodical winter complaints, and "other ills that flesh is heir to," with his wife and children starving for the support which is dependent upon his labour—the attendant apothecary's bill, the stern looks of the relentless tax-gatherer; and then there is the landlord. I appeal to his spirit of independence, deadened by habitual suffering, in a land where all the privilege his *free* birth has left him is probably to give his suffrage to elect a Member of Parliament, whose face he never may see, and then "to ask his fellow man to give him leave to dig," and be refused—or should that gracious boon be accorded, then the

"Blessed prospects!

To slave while there is strength; in age the workhouse—

A parish shell at last, and the *little* bell

Toiled *hastily* for a *pauper's* funeral."

I then beg him to cast his frenzied vision hither—to a celestial climate and bright heavens, with their very excess of light; whose sun-beams shed no baneful influences on the human frame, where sickness is the exception, and uninterrupted health almost too general to be gratefully appreciated. Where doctors pine for want of practice, or take to farming, vastly more profitable; where apothecaries become poor, lean, and as transparent as the colours in their show bottles, and drugs are drugs indeed; where the ink-horn and pen-eared spectre, demanding the legal taxes, is never seen; where the landlord, in general, is the occupant himself; where artificers are not "the unwashed;" a land unlike that of the English labourer's home, where he is beset with

“the curse to wish his children may be few,” but “that better land” in which he may look forward with hope to a

“Cheerful old age and a quiet grave,  
With cross and garland over its green turf,  
And his grandchildren’s love for epitaph.”

All this may, perhaps, be said to partake of rhapsody; but I undertake to support what has been asserted by reference to fact. Mr. Elliott, one of the Emigration Commissioners, in his report of 1938, thus characterizes the advantages of the Cape settlement as a market for the operative classes. “It appears,” says he, “that the facility of hiring land on very low rents, and the ease with which the first wants of nature may be satisfied, have always rendered it far more eligible for a settler to work on his own account in the Cape than to let out his labour; and thus it is, for as soon as the indentured servant completes the term of his apprenticeship, he emerges from the station of servant and becomes shopkeeper, master mechanic, or small landed proprietor; and wonders only that his famine-stricken countrymen have not followed him.” “No industrious steady man,” says the editor of the *Graham’s Town Journal*, in whose statement unlimited confidence may be placed, “need despair of obtaining a good livelihood. The wages of mechanics vary from 5s. to 6s. per diem; that of European farm-labourers from 3s. to 4s. Comparing this rate of wages with the prices of the staple articles of consumption, it will be seen that working men are in a far better situation than in the old country. House-rent is rather high at Graham’s-town. A dwelling suitable for a working man, with a family, commanding a rent of from £15 to £20 per annum; but as land suitable for building purposes is plentiful, a careful active man seldom finds much difficulty in erecting a house for himself, and thus altogether avoids this heavy item in the list of necessary expenses. In the country, or in the smaller villages, house rent is very trifling. The working class are also far more independent than those of the same grade at home. Many of them keep their saddle horses; and country excursions, to a distance of thirty or forty miles, are of frequent occurrence.”

But now let the British labourer see what even *native* labour, and that very inferior to his own, commands in the Eastern Province of this Colony; the Fingo and his characteristics have already been described.

That servants receive a fair remuneration for their labour is easily shown. For instance, the daily pay here of a labouring Fingo, is 1s. 6d.; with this, as we have seen, they are not satisfied, but have struck, and demanded that it should be raised to 2s. 6d. Let us see, then, what this 1s. 6d. is worth, or rather what it will obtain. The coarser joints of meat are purchased by them here at about 1½d. per pound; the price of meal is 24s. per muid, of 180 lbs. Dutch, or about 200 lbs. English; that is a fraction under 1½d per pound, consequently one day’s labour by a Fingo will procure him six pounds of good beef and six pounds of wheaten meal—more than a labourer can obtain in Ireland for a week’s severe and continuous exertion. We may remark, too, that it is quite within compass to say, that a field labourer in any part of Great Britain performs within a given time at least four times the quantity of work which is accomplished by the same class of persons in this Colony, and not only so, but they do it in a far more efficient manner.

“Heavy too will be the responsibility of Government, if it refuse to assist the over-wrought and starving labouring population at home from removing to where labour is in so much request and so amply remunerated. Let it be proclaimed throughout the length and breadth of the land, that the untaught black man is here clamorous because he does not obtain more than six pounds

of meat and six pounds of flour per diem—let it be told, that while the European labourer may here breathe a pure atmosphere, he may also, by moderate exertion, obtain all the actual necessaries and comforts of life. Finally, let true philanthropy be exerted, not in disparaging the Colonies, but in improving the condition of the suffering poor at home. This may best be done by the removal of those who, in that boasted land of freedom, are sunk in abject penury, or who are pining beneath a load of care and anxiety to which the black population of South Africa are entire strangers.”

We shall now proceed to exhibit the rate of wages payable in the Eastern division of the Colony, begging the reader, at the same time, to refer to the price of provisions which he will find below:—

Overseers with provisions and lodging, £25 to £35 per annum.

Ditto, without provisions but with lodging, £60 to £75 per annum.

Shepherds, European, with provisions, &c., £20 to £25 and even £40 per annum.

General farming servants, £12 to £25 per annum.

Male house servants, £20 to £27 per annum.

Female, ditto, £9 to £12 and £15 per annum.

Mechanics, 4s. to 7s. 6d. per day.

Farm labourers, with provisions, 2s. 6d. to 3s. per day.

Farming servants would, in most cases, be allowed by their employers to accumulate and depasture without charge a small stock as a foundation for their future independence. This has been invariably done in the case of native servants, some of whom are paid in cattle, agreeably to their wish.

PRICES OF PROVISIONS IN THE CAPE COLONY.

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Beef, fresh, per lb.	2d.	to 0 2½	Butter, salt . . . . .	0	9
„ salt . . . . .	0	3	Candles . . . . .	0	7
Mutton . . . . .	0	2½	Soap . . . . .	0	6
Pork . . . . .	0	6	Bread, fine wheaten . . . . .	2d.	to 0 3
Veal . . . . .	0	4	„ unsifted meal . . . . .	2d.	to 0 3
Lamb, per quarter . . . . .	1	6	Flour, fine . . . . .	0	6
Fowls, each . . . . .	1	0	„ meal . . . . .	0	2
Ducks . . . . .	2	0	Indian corn . . . . .	0	1
Turkeys . . . . .	7	6	Potatoes . . . . .	1d.	to 0 3
Tea, black, per lb. . . . .	4	6	Tobacco . . . . .	0	9
„ green . . . . .	7	6	Wine, Cape, per bottle . . . . .	0	6
Coffee . . . . .	9d.	to 0 10	Brandy, Cape . . . . .	0	9
Sugar . . . . .	3d.	to 0 4	„ French . . . . .	1	6
Rice . . . . .	1d.	to 0 1½	Vinegar . . . . .	1	0
Raisins . . . . .	3d.	to 0 4	Beer, Cape, per gallon . . . . .	2	6
Fish . . . . .	¼d.	to 0 1	Salt, per lb. . . . .	0	1
Butter, fresh . . . . .	1	0			

The list might be continued indifferently, but we close it with this remark, that, though the price of wheaten bread is high for the consumer, it is high for the producer. The Emigration of the Dutch corn farmers has caused this, and English Emigrants stepping in to occupy derive all the advantages of a cheap farm and high prices. It should be mentioned that more rice and vegetables are consumed here than in England. The Emigrant labourer will also remember that in this Colony articles of apparel can be purchased at the numerous stores at about the same price as in the shops of London or country towns.

The next question of importance is the number of labourers which the

Eastern Province would require or would absorb, and this cannot at present be estimated below 2,000 annually; and as capital naturally follows where the means for its profitable employment are apparent, this number will soon be insufficient. The whole Colony certainly now requires 5,000.

Agricultural labourers must, of course, form the mass of the Emigrants, but especially shepherds, for which occupation lads also are well calculated; gardeners, blacksmiths, carpenters, shoe-makers, wheelwrights, masons, bricklayers, millwrights, coopers, shipwrights, tailors, and cabinet-makers, and other tradesmen, who make up the number. Young married couples would be preferred, as they are likely to be more steady and more likely to remain in their new situations. Among the female Emigrants a small number of governesses, well qualified, neither extravagant in their demands, nor with too high-flown notions of their own importance, and a large proportion of dairy and house servants, would be highly acceptable. The worst effect of these importations, as far as the employer is concerned, is that they too soon exchange "single blessedness" for the uncertain charms of married life.\*

From the foregoing observations I think the reader will agree with me that a fair case has been made out in favour of the Colony of the Cape of Good Hope as a spot where Englishmen, to use the emphatic term of Germany, *house fathers*, may safely resort to bring up and settle their families—where, as patriots, they may have the satisfaction to establish the laws, language, free customs, and independence, of their native land—and where as Christians they may extend their faith, and contribute to enlarge the Messiah's kingdom in the dark regions of Africa.

The following positions, I believe, have been fully established; and, if so, few of the Colonies of Great Britain can show a more favourable prospect to those who are inclined to leave their native land in search of a new home among the far-spread possessions of England:—

1. The Cape of Good Hope has all the advantages of a new, combined with those of an old, country. The experience of many years as to soil, climate, &c., has already been gained for the benefit of new comers, and it possesses an abundance of cheap stock and provisions not to be found in any other new possession of the Crown.

2. It possesses within its frontier lines large portions of good and tried land, which can be purchased at from 2s. to 5s. per acre, including buildings, &c., besides a considerable extent of Government property still unappropriated.

3. It has in its immediate vicinity considerable portions of country which the natives would gladly alienate for a trifling consideration, and immense tracts of fertile territory, entirely depopulated by native wars, which Government could assume and parcel out without any injury to the Aborigines, and with the probability of contributing rapidly to the civilisation of the neighbouring tribes.

4. It has a climate empyrean, perfectly unrivalled by any other possession of Britain, or any other country whatever.

5. It has a sea board of 720 miles, with fine bays, and a fertile country in its rear, only wanting labour and capital to be covered with teeming fields and opulent cities.

6. It has a rich and productive soil, and might be converted into a grain-growing and provisioning country to an extent almost illimitable.

7. Its productions are more varied, more valuable, and more in request by the manufacturers of Britain, than those of any other Colony.

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\* This was published a year or two ago, but may be considered correct to the letter at the present time.

8. It has a considerable and progressing interior trade with the savage natives, amounting to upwards of £80,000 per annum, besides a steady commercial intercourse with Europe, India, Brazil, and other places.

9. The exports of its own produce, Government expenditure, bills drawn by visitors, missionary societies, &c., exceed the amount of its imports.

10. It is the nearest wool-growing Colony to England. More than a successful rival to Australia, being half the distance; possessing superior climate and pasture, and advancing in its production of the staple article of wool in the ratio of 64 per cent. per annum to the 16 per cent. of New South Wales, or four times faster.

11. It is one of the lightest taxed countries in the world.

12. It has the blessing of equal and just laws, administered with the greatest purity by independent judges, and of trial by jury in criminal cases.

13. It participates in all the valuable advantages of a free press, and free discussion is allowed throughout the whole breadth and length of the land, except in the Legislative Council.

14. It enjoys every religious privilege without any disqualification for office—"freedom to worship" in its fullest extent.

15. The Local Government maintains in every town public schools, open to all classes, where elementary instruction is gratuitously given by able masters expressly sent out for the purpose, and who are able to impart the higher branches of education to those who pay the small sum of £4 a-year for each pupil.

16. Unlike Europe, the competition in the Colony is between the masters for labourers, and not the labourers for employment; consequently, it has no poor—no poor laws—no poor unions—no parish rates to relieve the distressed, because distress has no existence.

Biassed and interested as I confess myself to be, by long experience, yet I have no inclination to impose upon the minds of those who may peruse this work my own individual sentiments and conscientious conviction as to the value of a Colony whose advantages I have attempted to condense into a few paragraphs; but I appeal to the following few amidst "a cloud of witnesses," who might be called into court as evidence in support of its claims to the sober consideration of those who may be about to make the great "plunge," the selection of a new home apart from their ancient domain—a step which once taken can seldom be retraced.

Then follows a list of influential persons who bear testimony and corroborate all that have been advanced.

And here we must close the subject for the present.

## THE PROGRESS OF WESTERN AUSTRALIA.\*

It is now some time since we promised our readers to lay before them a comparative statement of the trade of this Colony, which should satisfy the most sceptical that it was progressing, nay, *rapidly* advancing in the road to prosperity, and that even now the balance of trade is in its favour. Various unforeseen circumstances have hitherto prevented us from redeeming our pledge, but we trust that the sketch which we shall now give of our import and export trade for the last few years will be sufficient to show that we have not overrated the efforts which have been made by the Colony towards attaining an honourable independence. It is not our purpose now to contrast our present quiet self-supporting system with the wild days when our imports consisted of every absurd and unnecessary luxury, and our exports, with the exception of a little wool and oil, of specie, and that only, for we do not suppose that any one will be found to contend that we are not now in a sounder and more healthy condition than in those days of apparent but most deceptive prosperity; but to show that ever since we began to rally from the state of general bankruptcy to which we were reduced by the sudden fall in value of every species of property, we have been steadily advancing, *as a colony*, towards, not merely solvency, but actual wealth. While speaking of the *balance of trade*, it must be borne in mind that, in order to have it really in favour of any country, it is indispensable that the value of the imports, of whatever nature, should exceed that of the exports to a certain amount; for it must be clear to every one that unless the merchant gets commodities of a superior value in exchange for those which he exports, there is no inducement for him to continue the trade. Again, the value of the exports is estimated at their price in the country from whence they are shipped, previous to any charge being added for freight or other expenses, and not at that which they fetch in the market to which they are sent; while the imports have, in addition not only that profit which the exported article may be supposed to have realised in the foreign market, but also all the expenses incurred for freight, insurance, &c. &c., up to the time when they are landed. We therefore look upon the great increase of our *imports* during the last year as the strongest symptom of prosperity, showing that the colony has actually turned the corner, and that its resources are not merely applied to wiping off old scores, but are now made available towards increasing the wealth of the colony and the comfort of the settlers. It will be seen from the following tables, that while 1845 shows, as compared with 1844, a *decrease* of imports to the amount of more than 60 per cent., the exports remaining nearly the same; 1846 exhibits an *increase* of imports of 20, and of exports of upwards of 50 per cent. above those of the previous year. Where is the hardened grumbler who will deny in this the evidence of returning prosperity?—

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(From the *Perth Inquirer*.)

IMPORTS, 1846.

ARTICLES IMPORTED.	ESTIMATED VALUE IN STERLING.				
	Description and Quantity.	From Gt. Britain.	British Colonies.	United States.	Totals.
		£	£ s.	£ s.	£ s.
Apparel and slops .....	3,685	892 6			4,577 6
Beer.....	112	74 0			186 0
Cabinet and upholstery wares ....	233	67 12			300 12
Canvas, rope, twine, &c. ....	272	131 7			403 7
Cotton goods .....	..			27 10	27 10
Flour, biscuit, and grain.....	9	3,057 9			3,066 9
Glass and earthenware .....	93	35 6			128 6
Haberdashery and linendrapery ....	3,716	601 0			4,317 0
Iron, steel, and hardware .....	1,491	234 17			1,725 17
Leather and saddlery .....	153	207 6			360 6
Oilman's stores .....	579	843 14			1,422 14
Stationery .....	204	17 18			221 18
Tea, coffee, and sugar.....	59	3,600 19			3,659 19
Tobacco and cigars, 14,370 lbs.....	298	271 2		13 6	582 8
Brandy, 4,818 gallons .....	234	432 4			1,166 4
Rum, 3,402 ditto .....	161	519 4			680 4
Gin, 1,971 ditto .....	205	106 6			311 6
Wine, 5,743 ditto .....	441	406 6			847 6
Sundries .....	1,301	673 9			1,974 9
	£13,746	12,172 8		40 16	25,959 4

STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FOR THE YEARS 1844, 1845, & 1846.

ARTICLES.	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	Great Britain.	Colo-nies.	Great Britain.	Colo-nies.	Great Britain.	Colonies.
	£ s.	£	£	£ s.	£	£ s.
Bark .....	15 0	..	100	..	112	27 0
Butter .....	..	5	..	68..	..	..
Cattle, sheep, and horses .....	..	464	..	7 0	..	830 0
Fruits and herbs .....	..	..	..	5 0	..	..
Gum .....	..	..	..	..	5	..
Hides and skins .....	2 0	103	..	86 3	..	136 15
Natural curiosities .....	not stated	..	not stated	..	55	..
Oil.....	4,514 0	..	3,250	165 10	1,255	1,886 15
Onions .....	..	..	..	40 0	..	67 10
Oats and other grains ..	..	38	..	123 0	..	..
Potatoes .....	..	220	..	392 0	..	487 16
Sandal-wood.....	..	1	..	40 0	..	300 0
Salt fish.....	..	29	..	273 0	..	76 0
Shingles .....	..	..	..	..	..	16 0
Charcoal .....	..	3	..	..	..	..
Timber .....	28 0	135	..	..	5	250 0
Trenails .....	..	..	..	..	8	3 0
Tallow .....	..	..	..	12 0	..	10 0
Whalebone .....	800 0	..	780	33 0	874	323 0
Wool.....	7,007 15	..	7,219	37 19	10,600	2,762 19
Sundries .....	..	..	85	25 0	..	112 0
Totals .....	12,366 15	997	11,434	1,919	12,914	7,288 15
Total Exports .....	£13,363 15 0		£13,353 12 0		£20,222 15 4	
Total Imports .....	36,440 0 0		20,350 0 0		25,959 4 4	
Excess of Imports ..	£23,076 5 0		£ 6,996 8 0		£5,736 9 0	

It appears from these tables that, during the past year, the total excess of imports over exports has not been more than what might legitimately be expected from a profitable trade, and that we may therefore safely set down the whole Commissariat and Parliamentary expenditure, together with that of the different missions and societies, amounting in all to upwards of £20,000, to the credit of the Colony, as clear gain over and above her whole consumption of imported articles. The most remarkable fact observable in these tables is, that almost the whole of this great increase in our exports has taken place in our transactions with the Colonies, and not in our trade with England, which shows very little increase; while the other has grown from £997, the amount in 1844, to £1,919 in 1845, and in 1846 to £7,288, or nearly eight-fold in three years. This is a trade which had scarcely an existence before, and which has arisen in a great degree from that increase of energy among the settlers and merchants—the growth, we must admit, of dire necessity—which has led them to open up new markets and try new articles of produce, instead of sitting quietly down, as in the olden time, folding their hands, and deciding “it won’t pay,” without taking the trouble to make an experiment, or scarcely even a calculation.

It must also be remembered that by far the greater part of the oil, and no small share of the wool, of 1846, has not yet left the Colony, and will, therefore, go to the credit of the exports of 1847; which year will also have the honour of our first considerable venture of timber, and during the first three months of which we have already exported *double* the quantity of sandal-wood that we did in the whole of last year. We believe we are not wrong in asserting that there will be £200 or £300 worth of gum sent home in the “Unicorn,” of a quality far superior to any sample that we have seen from South Australia—an article which figures in our tables for 1846 at the moderate value of £5; and we, therefore, think we are fully borne out in pronouncing the increase in our exports of last year beyond those of the preceding, not the result of any temporary effort, but that it will be fully supported by an equal, if not greater, proportionate advance this year. Twelve years ago the whole exports of Western Australia, as exhibited in the official returns, amounted to £69, since which time they have increased nearly three hundredfold, which, when we take into consideration the fact that our available productive population has certainly not doubled in that time, we think we are justified in looking upon as something to be proud of.

One word more on the subject of exports, and we have done. Of all extensively commercial countries, America is the one whose imports exceeds her exports in the largest proportion, yet the whole of whose imports are paid for with her own produce; and the reason given by all writers on the subject is this—that America exports all her produce *in her own bottoms*, and therefore the whole of the increased value of the articles she ships, in the foreign market, *including freight, goes to her credit*. Why should we not take a lesson from Brother Jonathan, and save £4,000 or £5,000 a-year to the Colony? For we should recollect that it is not merely the freight of our wool and oil that would be saved,



but also that of the return-cargo from England. We are quite aware that there are certain doctrines current among commercial writers with regard to the "carrying trade," which would seem to militate against our views, but we humbly conceive that the four thousand reasons which we should annually be able to bring forward in support of our ideas on the subject, would be quite sufficient to satisfy all parties concerned as to our being in the right.

It is to be regretted that we have no detailed returns of the imports for the years preceding 1846, as we think it probable that much that is interesting and instructive might have been gleaned from observing the relative proportions of the articles imported in the different years. For instance, we should have been able to observe, among other things, the effect produced by our increased consumption of Colonial wine upon the imports of foreign wine and spirits, and many other particulars interesting in a statistical point of view. One circumstance, we think, will strike every one on looking over the list for 1846—viz., the very small proportion which consists of articles of mere luxury compared with necessaries, and compared with what the same items would have exhibited a few years ago. This is no doubt highly creditable, but there is another point to which we wish to call the attention of the Colonists, which we think reflects equal disgrace upon our settlers, and that is the amount paid away for flour, biscuit, and grain—no less a sum than £3,066 9s. 1d., the greater part of which, as we all know, is paid for in cash, and thus constitutes the only part of our trade by which we are positive losers. This we cannot help viewing as a stain upon our Colonial character, and one which ought not to be allowed to continue staring us in the face year after year as it does. With this exception, we are satisfied that our commercial relations are in a sound and healthy state, and we have little doubt that any unprejudiced person who peruses the slight sketch we have given must admit, that although when compared with the enormous strides made by the sister Colony, we may appear to have been almost stationary, yet that in reality our course has been one of steady and even rapid improvement.

## REVIEWS.

*Travels in Central America; being a Journal of nearly Three Years' Residence in the Country, &c.* By Robert Glasgow Dunlop, Esq. London: Longman and Co., 1847, pp. 358.

AFTER reading carefully this work, we were, indeed, grieved to find that the talented author had, after concluding and transmitting his notes, fallen a victim at Guatemala to the fever of the climate. Mr. Dunlop's book does not aim at gossip alone, but it has a higher ambition, a nobler end; and whilst it affords to the reader a rich repast of incident and adventure, it gives to the knowledge-seeker substantial facts. Unlike the hurried notices of travel and palpable inaccuracies which we have heretofore had of the fine regions comprehended in the general term Central America, it abounds with valuable statistical and general information of the towns, the people, the climate, and the products. The writer has strongly developed the capacity for collecting and imparting useful information, and we are sure the work will meet with a large share of popular favour. Every page teems with matter which might of itself form the subject of a critique or an essay.

We are first introduced to the Bay of Conchagua and the entrance to the port of the Union, where the scenery is described as being wild and magnificent in the extreme, no fewer than nine volcanic mountains being visible at the same time.

Chanecaku (the crude juice of the sugar-cane boiled till it crystallises) forms one of the exports of Realejo, situated on the port of the same name, the trade of which, we are informed, is rapidly declining. The present exports are from 400 to 500 bales of cotton, principally sent to Costa Rica; about 1,000 tons of Brazil wood, principally sent to Great Britain and the United States; about 1,000 bales of indigo, the quality being the best of any produced in the Republic, and a few hundred bales of cocoa, sent to the states of San Salvador and Honduras.

The description of cane here used is indigenous, and very different from the Asiatic cane, which is now extensively cultivated in the West Indies, Brazil, and the United States of North America. It is said to be about equally productive with the foreign species, the canes being slender and softer, but containing more and stronger juice in proportion to their size; two crops are taken annually.

As the most practically useful to our Colonial readers, we shall make extracts of the mode of culture and results of production of the staple exports.

*Culture and Manufacture of Indigo.*

"Several vessels generally arrive at the Union from South America at the period of the great fairs which are held there three times in the year, and nearly all the indigo (the only produce of any importance) is disposed of: formerly it reached 10,000 bales, but at present it will not, at most, exceed 3,000 bales of 150lbs. each.

"The indigo, well-known in Europe by the name of Guatemala indigo, was never cultivated in that province (in the same manner as not a grain of the Honduras cochineal is grown there), being entirely grown in the state of San Salvador, in the vicinity of San Miguel, San Vicente, and the city of San Salvador, with the exception of a small quantity of very superior quality grown in the state of Nicaragua and a few bales in Costa Rica, which is all consumed in the state. Under the government of Spain the produce of the state of San Salvador alone had reached 10,000 bales, and that of Nicaragua 2,000, the produce of San Salvador in 1820, two years before its independence, being 8,323 bales. But since 1822 the annual produce has gradually declined, and at the present period (1846), it does not exceed 1,000 to 1,200 bales; nearly all the indigo estates being abandoned, partly, no doubt, from the great fall in the price of the article, but more on account of the impossibility of getting labourers to work steadily, the continued civil wars having imbued the whole population with idle habits and a disinclination to labour, while the insecurity of property and the robberies of government have discouraged all parties from attempting any cultivation which requires outlay of capital, and reduced it nearly to maize and other articles required for food.

"The plant cultivated in Central America for the manufacture of indigo is the indigofera, a triennial plant, supposed to be a native of America; but there is also an indigenous perennial plant, abounding in many parts of Central America, which produces indigo of

a very superior quality, but gives less than half the weight which is produced by the cultivated species. The ground for sowing the indigo seed is prepared in April—a piece of good forest land near one of the towns being selected, a part is cut to make a rude fence, and the remainder burnt, which is easily accomplished as every thing is very dry at that season—and the ground is afterwards scratched with two sticks fastened crosswise, to resemble somewhat the shape of a plough, and the seed scattered over it by hand. The rainy season always commences early in May, and the indigo is ready for cutting about the middle of July, taking about two and a half months to come to perfection. The growing crop somewhat resembles lucerne, and is in the best state for making indigo when it becomes covered with a sort of greenish farina.

“The crop of the first year is small, and sometimes not worth manufacturing; that of the second year is the best; and the third is also very good if it has been carefully weeded; but many indigo fields have lasted more than ten years without being resown, as the seed which falls naturally springs up again, and where the land is good yields nearly as large a crop as a new sown field. When the plant is ready for manufacturing, a number of men are collected, each of whom is either provided with or brings his own mule or horse, if he has one. Two men always go together, cut the plant, then about the height of full-grown red clover, and take it to the vats, which are large tanks made of brick and lime, holding at least 1000 gallons, and some as much as 10,000. Into these the plant is thrown till they are nearly full, when weights are put above it to prevent its floating, and the vats filled with water till it covers the mass of the indigo plant. After remaining from twelve to twenty-four hours, according to the state of the plant, weather, and other circumstances (the time required being determined by the colour which the water assumes), the herb is taken out, and the water beaten with paddles in the very small vats, and by a wheel suspended above, and turned by men or horses in the larger ones, till it changes from a green colour, which it has acquired ere the removal of the herb, to a fine blue, when it is allowed to stand for some hours till the colouring matter has settled to the bottom of the tank,—a process which is generally hastened by throwing in an infusion of certain herbs to facilitate its settlement, or, as the natives term it, to curdle (cuajar) the coloured water. As soon as all the colour has settled, the water is drawn off, and the blue, which is of the consistency of thin mud, is taken out of the vat and spread upon cotton, or coarse woollen cloth, and dried in the sun. The colour, in a great measure, depends upon removing the herb exactly at the proper time, and upon properly beating the water, neither too long nor too short. Unless these processes are properly performed, the indigo will never be of first-rate quality; but some estates will never produce the best indigo, whatever care may be bestowed on the manufacture. A mansana of 100 yards square, which is nearly two British statute acres, produces generally about 100 to 120 pounds of indigo, the carriage and cutting of the herb costing about twenty dollars, and the cleaning of the field and all other expenses connected with it, including the manufacture of the indigo, about as much more.

“The indigo of Central America is not put into moulds when drying as that of Bengal, but is allowed to remain in the rough shape in which it dries, and without further preparation is ready for baling and exportation. The bales are generally made up in 150lbs. each, and the quality is classed by numbers from 1 to 9; Nos. 1 to 3 being of the quality called *cobres* in Europe, Nos. 4 to 6 of that called *cortes*, and Nos. 7 to 9 of that called *flores*; Nos. 1 to 6 do not, at present, pay the expenses of manufacture, and are never intentionally made. No doubt, with a little more skill in the manufacture, the whole might, as in Bengal, be made of the quality called *flores*; but such improvements cannot be expected till a new race of people inhabit Central America. At present, about one half of the indigo produced is under No. 7, and as the cultivation is said not to pay at the present prices—and, indeed, hardly can be supposed to compete with Bengal, a country where labour is so much cheaper, and capital abundant—it is probable that the cultivation will shortly be entirely abandoned, unless the price should again rise in Europe. Such an event would leave the state of San Salvador without any available export whatever, as the value of the other productions is not worth naming, and the natives seem to have no intention of turning the industry to other articles which might be profitably cultivated.”\*

Mr. Dunlop goes at some length into the proposal to unite the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, by a canal connecting the Lake St. Leon with a branch of Realejo Harbour.

A pearl-fishery has long existed on the Gulf of Nicoya, and pearls are said to be more abundant along it than even in Panama. “Considerable quantities have been offered me for sale (says our author) at Punta Arenas, but they were all of a very inferior

\* A good description of the growth of indigo in India will be found in the *Colonial Magazine*, vol. 3, p. 135.—EDITOR.

quality, and worth very little. I had reason, however, to suspect that the best pearls had been previously picked out, and that the refuse were offered to me in the hope that I did not understand the articles, and might be induced to purchase from the low price."

Several very rich gold mines exist at Cuesta de Jocote, but they do not appear to be worked to much advantage.

Punta Arenas, the chief port of the thriving State of Costa Rica, possesses a rapidly increasing commerce. In 1845, the exports of coffee were about 50,000 quintals, and in three years more they are expected to reach 100,000, and the imports will of course be in proportion.

#### *Coffee Culture.*

"The cultivation of coffee forms the present riches of Costa Rica, and has raised it to a state of prosperity unknown in any other part of Central America. It was begun about twelve years ago, a few plants having been brought from New Granada; and the first trial being successful, it has rapidly extended. All the coffee is grown in the plain of San José, where, as already observed, the three principal towns are situated—about two-thirds being produced in the environs of the capital, a fourth in those of Heredia, and the remainder at Alhajuelah and its vicinity. The land which has been found, by experience, to be best suited to coffee is a black loam, and the next best a dark red earth—soils of a brown and dull yellow colour being quite unsuitable. The plain of San José is mostly of the first class, being, like all the soils of Central America, formed with a large admixture of volcanic materials. Contrary to the experience of Java and Arabia Felix, coffee is here found to thrive much better, and produce a more healthy and equal berry, on plain land, than upon hills or undulating slopes, which, doubtless, arises from the former retaining its moisture better, and generally containing a larger deposit of loam.

"I am inclined in a great measure to attribute the practice of sowing coffee in sloping land in Java to the fact that the plains are generally occupied by the more profitable cultivation of sugar-cane. In Arabia the plains are generally of a sandy nature (being lands which have, apparently, at no very distant geological period formed the bed of the sea), which may account for the plantations existing only upon the low hills and slopes.

"A coffee plantation in Costa Rica produces a crop the third year after it is planted, and is in perfection the fifth year. The coffee trees are planted in rows, with a space of about three yards between each and one between each plant, resembling in appearance hedges of the laurel bay. The weeds are cut down and the earth slightly turned with a hoe, three or four times in the year; and the plant is not allowed to increase above the height of six feet for the facility of gathering the fruit. The coffee tree here begins to flower in the months of March and April, and the berry ripens in the plain of San José in the months of November and December, strongly resembling a wild cherry in form and appearance, being covered with a similar sweet pulp.

"As soon as the crimson colour assumed by the ripe fruit indicates the time for cropping, numbers of men, women, and children, are sent to gather the berry, which is piled in large heaps to soften the pulp for 48 hours, and then placed in tanks through which a stream of water passes, where it is continually stirred to free it from the outer pulp; after which it is spread out upon a platform, with which every coffee estate is furnished, to dry in the sun; but there still exists an inner husk, which, when perfectly dry, is, in the smaller estates, removed by treading the berry under the feet of oxen; and, in the larger, by water mills, which bruise the berry slightly to break the husk, and afterwards separate it by fanners. The entire cost of producing a quintal (101½ lbs. British) of coffee, including the keeping of the estate in order, cleaning and pruning the plants, and gathering and preparing the berries, is, at the present rate of wages (two reals, or about a shilling per day), calculated at two-and-a-half dollars (equal to ten shillings); but the labourers are now hardly sufficient for working all the estates which are planted, so that the price may probably rise a little, though the present rate of payment enables the natives to live much better than has been their wont.

"The price of coffee in San José during the months of February, March, and April, after which none can generally be met with, was, in 1846, about five dollars cash per quintal. The price of conveyance is about one dollar per quintal, the duty (which is collected for the repairs of the road) one real more, so that the speculator makes, at least, ten reals, or about 20 per cent., by purchasing and sending the coffee to the port, on his outlay and charges; but it is often bartered for manufactured goods, and is also purchased beforehand—half being paid in imports, and half in cash to the grower. The voyage from Punta Arenas to Europe is at least five months, while that from Matina, the port on the north-east coast, which is about equidistant from San José, or perhaps a

league or two nearer, would not generally exceed six weeks, and the freight would cost 30s. or 40s., instead of £5, a ton.

"It is, however, said that the nature of the country between San José and Matina is so difficult that a passable road for carts, such as is made to Punta Arenas, would cost an immense sum; and the continued rains that fall nearly all the year on the north-east coast render the climate so unhealthy that it would be difficult to induce the people to embark in such an undertaking on any terms. But the fine port of San Juan de Nicaragua is only about twenty leagues distant, while both Matina and Punta Arenas are twenty-five; and could arrangements be made with the state of Nicaragua, or should the British Government take possession of it in accordance with their claim so often repeated on account of the Moschito Indians, it would immediately become the only port of Costa Rica, as the country between it and San José is said to be very practicable for a good road, and it is decidedly the finest port on the north-east coast, tolerably healthy, and not above forty or fifty days' voyage from Europe by sailing vessels, and perhaps twenty by steamers. The largest coffee estates of Costa Rica are possessed by the family of Montealegre and Don Juan Moira. The principal of these I have examined; they appear to be very carefully and judiciously managed, possess good mills for cleaning and husking the coffee worked by water power, and annually produce upwards of 500 tons. The entire produce of the year 1846 amounted to about 3,000 tons, and it is expected that the crop of 1847 will exceed 4,000 tons, near which quantity it will probably continue till the population gradually increases, the labourers, as already mentioned, being barely sufficient for the present cultivation. As the value at the present average price in the English market of 50s. a cwt. will give £200,000, the produce of the district will appear pretty considerable for a petty American state, possessing only 80,000 inhabitants, and just emerging from a half-savage condition."

*The Cochineal Insect.*

"The cochineal insect having been introduced about twelve years ago, has succeeded beyond expectation, and Amatitlan has for several years been by far the most successful place for its cultivation.

"The cochineal insect is generally supposed to be indigenous to the country near Oajaca in Mexico, though some persons in Guatemala have attempted to prove that it is a native of that state. It feeds upon some few species of cactus. The varieties which have been tried in Central America are five, the 'penka beaver' (hedge cactus), which grows to a large size, the young insect readily attaching itself to the leaves, but the greater part is found to fall off before it is ready for gathering, and it was therefore only tried at the first introduction of the culture, but speedily abandoned; the 'penka amarilla' (yellow-flowering cactus), this species has a very large round-shaped leaf, sometimes as much as eighteen inches in diameter; the cochineal thrives well upon it, but is found to yield very small crops, and the plant becomes exhausted after the insect has been allowed to feed upon it for three or four years; the 'penka blanca' (white-flowering cactus), has a leaf generally about a foot long, four or five inches broad, and two inches thick, of a dark green colour; this species is much superior to the former sorts, and grows quicker than any other, but is found to become exhausted in five or six years, and the leaf growing exactly upright, the slightest shower of rain washes off the insect.

"The fourth kind is called 'mosote.' It has a bright crimson flower, the leaf being of the same shape, but rather smaller than the white flowered, and of a lighter green than the penka blanca; the growth of this variety is the slowest of all, but is found to give food to a much larger proportion of the insects, and to last many years longer than the other varieties. It is now universally preferred in Amatitlan, and in the best land a plantation is found to last twelve years, yielding two crops a year. The 'costanea' has a bright red flower, and a leaf of a round shape, much smaller than any of the preceding varieties; but it grows fast, and has more leaves than the other sorts, and when only one crop is taken in the year, is found to produce much more cochineal than any of the other descriptions of the plant. It does not, however, last above seven years, and will not stand more than one crop annually. This variety was brought from Oajaca, about eight years ago, and is now preferred in Old Guatemala.

"The general size of the cochineal plantations in Amatitlan valley varies from one to ten mansanas, a space which contains 100 Spanish, or 88 8-9ths English yards square. Three or four estates of a much larger size have lately been planted, and one belonging to Sen. Francisco Lopez contains 150 mansanas; but these estates are not nearly so productive as those of a smaller size, as the immense number of people who must be employed to work them causes a confusion and great loss of labour. The insect is preserved during the winter from leaves cut off the cactus, and ranged in long narrow buildings, called almacenes, erected for the purpose. The roof of these buildings is from a yard to a yard and a-half wide, and for the first six weeks the front, which is open, is

covered with a screen made of cotton cloth, to protect the young insect from a sort of fly which lays an egg among them, which in a few days turns into a caterpillar and does a great deal of mischief, devouring a large quantity of the young animals; after that period they are left open to the sun and air. It is so arranged that the insects begin to breed in the beginning of October, about which time the rains cease in Amatitlan, though somewhat later in the vicinity, and most other parts of the state.

"The insect is carefully removed from the leaves as soon as it begins to deposit its young, and put into small square pieces of muslin, calico, or the bark of a description of palm-tree, the latter being cheaper, and much preferable for the month of October, as it does not fall together when damp like a cotton fabric; the four corners are pinned together with the thorn of a bush (a species of mimosa), which is very abundant in the neighbourhood; after about a hundred of the insects have been put in, one of these packets, called by the natives cartuch, is attached to each leaf or two, or one to each side between two leaves, which latter method is generally preferred. If the weather is fine and warm, the insect breeds so quickly, that in a few hours each leaf contains a sufficient quantity of the small insect, when the bag must be removed and attached to another leaf; for if it is left too long, the leaf becomes too thickly covered with young insects, which, from being too numerous, cannot obtain nourishment; and never attaining the proper size, produce, when dried, a small grained and very inferior cochineal, called 'gracella,' which is not worth more than half the price of the proper quality. As the cactus is always planted in rows of a certain length, it is usual to cover at one time the leaves of one or more rows with the bags containing the mother insect, and when they are sufficiently covered with the young animal, called peojilla, to remove and attach them to other rows of cactus.

"This may be done once every day if the weather is fine, but if it is windy or cold, they have often to remain three or four days without moving, for the wind blows away the young insects as they creep out of the bag, and prevents them from attaching themselves to the leaves. The insect does not breed so fast if the weather is chilly, and a large portion is often killed on the leaves; even a heavy dew will destroy many at the first stage. In the October seeding in Amatitlan, when it is never required to load the plant, the weather being fine and the mother cochineal in a thriving state, the bags may often be shifted, ten or twelve times before it has done breeding; but if the weather be at all unfavourable, or the mother cochineal in a sickly state, or too soon or too late gathered, it cannot be shifted nearly so often.

"When the mother cochineal is done breeding, or when the young insect begins to be sickly and of a dark red colour, the bags are taken off, and their contents shaken out and dried in the sun; and when sifted they form, what is denominated in the country cascarilla, and in England, black cochineal, which always fetches a higher price than the silver cochineal, the name given to it when the insect is dried before commencing to breed.

"During the first stage of its growth, as already remarked, the young insect is very easily injured, but when about ten days old, it is not nearly so easily destroyed. Still, as heavy showers of rain sometimes occur in October, it is nothing rare for the cochineal grower to find nearly all his labour and outlay lost, and a great part of his crop destroyed in a few minutes; but, when such misfortunes occur, all the growers suffer nearly equally, consequently the price is enhanced, and the loss is in some degree compensated by the increased value of what remains. In Amatitlan, such accidents only occur to the first crop seeded in October, the greater part of the produce of which is always used for seeding the cochineal estates in Old Guatemala in the month of January, and when the crop is not large, fetches a much higher price than it would be worth if dried for exportation. In about twenty days after the young insect has attached itself to the leaf, it changes its skin, which is called the first 'muda' (change or transformation); and in about a month more it again undergoes the same process, at each of which periods it slightly shifts its position on the leaf. At the time of the second change, the male makes its appearance in the shape of a very small fly, but how it is produced is, strange to say, not quite determined; all the natives, and even the foreigners in Guatemala, who state that they have made experiments for the purpose of ascertaining it, assert that it is produced by the female at the second change, that is to say, about the middle of its growth; but this would appear quite impossible from all data in natural history.

"I had not leisure to make proper experiments, but an intelligent North American gentleman, a doctor by profession, who had done so, informed me that previously to, and some time after, the second transformation or casting of its skin, the male and female insects are nearly equal in number, and cannot be distinguished on the leaf; but that, about fifteen days after the first transformation, all the male grubs change into chrysalises, interring themselves in a downy covering, and weaving a small thread, let go

their hold of the leaf, and hang by it for about fifteen days more, when the female is in the second change. About this time the chrysalis hatches and the male makes its appearance as stated; and, almost immediately after impregnating the female, falls off the leaf and dies. When the smallest quantity of rain occurs about this period, the males are washed off before the females are impregnated, and the insect is barren.

"In from eighty to ninety days, according to the nature of the weather, the cochineal insect attains its full growth in Amatitlan, and commences to breed. It is then left upon the leaf long enough to produce a sufficient quantity of young insects for the second crop, which attach themselves to the same leaves, and in the same manner as the first; and the full-grown insect is removed by touching it with a small piece of cane, and offered for sale in flat baskets, each containing about 12 lbs. weight of the insect. The greater part of the crop is sent, as before stated, to Old Guatemala for the purpose of seeding the cochineal estates there. This process is nearly identical with that of the October seeding in Amatitlan, already described, only that a larger quantity of the insects are allowed to attach themselves to the leaves, and some parties attach the mother cochineal in small pieces of reed, instead of bark or cloth.

"In Old Guatemala all the cochineal estates are seeded but once in the year, from the beginning of the month of January to the middle of February, but as the climate there is considerably colder than in Amatitlan, the insect does not attain its full size, so as to be fit for gathering in less than a hundred days after it has attached itself to the plant; and as the rainy season often commences in the beginning of May, a great part of the crop is frequently lost by being washed off by the rains before it is fit for gathering. In Amatitlan the second crop is ready for getting in eighty days after the first has been gathered, and is therefore always got in before the rains commence, which certainly gives it great advantages over Old Guatemala; but the second crop is always much smaller grained and worth considerably less than the first. Labour is always much dearer in Amatitlan than Old Guatemala, and an estate of equal extent costs at least twice as much to keep it in order; the wages in the former place being  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 3 reals (equal to from 1s. 3d. to 1s. 6d.) per day, and in the latter  $1\frac{1}{2}$  reals (equal to 9d.). Besides this, the cactus and cochineal insect have a number of enemies in Amatitlan which do not exist in Old Guatemala. The principal injury to the former is sustained from a species of large ant, called *seoppe*, which eats all the young shoots of the cactus, so as to prevent its increasing. The nests of this insect are very large, and sometimes extend to a depth of twenty feet in the ground, along which they run for some fifteen or twenty yards; and the insects are often so numerous that, if let alone, they will entirely destroy a cochineal estate. The natives have no means of destroying them, except digging them out of the ground; and though I discovered a means of poisoning them, by pouring into their holes water into which a small quantity of corrosive sublimate had been dissolved, I do not suppose that the discovery will generally be made use of by the inhabitants, who are too stupid and ignorant to understand anything not palpable to the eye.

"The principal enemies of the cochineal insect are three sorts of caterpillars, called by the natives *guisanos* (worms); the most common resembles an ordinary caterpillar, and is produced from the egg of a small fly, in shape like a wasp, but without a sting. These are sometimes so numerous that two or three may be seen on each leaf of the cactus, and, if not speedily taken off, will in a month, the period of their existence, eat up nearly all the cochineal insects. Another sort spins a web, with which they entangle the insect and destroy it; and the third, called '*anguilla*' (the eel), which is by far the most destructive, moves over the leaf like an earth-worm, eating all the insects, when small, with surprising rapidity, and, transferring itself to another leaf, proceeds as before. Luckily, this last-mentioned species only makes its appearance in some years, and is never nearly so numerous as the first named. No means have yet been found of destroying these caterpillars, except employing people to pick them off, which is done at so much for every twenty grubs, according to their abundance or scarcity, the price being seldom under what is equivalent to a halfpenny for each twenty, or above one penny for that number. Still, when the grubs are very numerous, it is sometimes necessary to abandon the crop of cochineal, which is not worth the expense of picking off the caterpillars; this, of course, is, however, a rare occurrence, and never happens to the whole of an estate of any size.

"With all its objections, cochineal growing has certainly been more profitable in Amatitlan than in Old Guatemala, or in any other place yet discovered. Nearly all the cultivators in Amatitlan are well off, and many who were without means a few years ago are now rich for Central America, having a fortune of from ten to thirty thousand dollars; while nearly all who have attempted the cultivation in Old Guatemala have been ruined, and very few have realised any money. Still, the supposed fatality of the

climate of Amatitlan, has so great an effect as not only to raise enormously the price which must be paid to the workpeople to induce them to do the necessary labour, but keeps the value of cochineal estates rather lower than in Old Guatemala. The second crop of cochineal is fit for gathering in Amatitlan, from the end of March to the 20th of April; and the crop in Old Guatemala, from the middle of April till the 10th or 20th of May, according to the season. Nearly the whole of both these crops are dried and cleaned for exportation to Europe, of which they are the principal source of supply. But a small number of insects are preserved, and being put into small bags, similar to those before described, are attached to leaves, carefully ranged upon shelves under the long narrow buildings, called almaces, the leaves being seeded in a similar manner to the growing plants. This must attain its full size, and commence to breed again in about ninety days, which brings it to the month of July, when the insect so reared is gathered and again attached in the same manner to fresh leaves of the cactus, ranged under cover in the same manner; this crop is again ready for gathering in the month of October, when the rains cease in Amatitlan, and is sold for seeding the cochineal estates. The price, being regulated by the supply as compared with the demand, is but little affected by the value of dry cochineal; the live insect being always then worth at least three or four times its value in the months of April and May, when it is dried for exportation. A good cochineal estate requires, in the month of October, from 100 to 140 lbs. of the live mother insect to seed each mansana of 100 Spanish, or 89 4-9ths English yards square; and each pound of the insect so used ought, if the weather be good and all circumstances favourable, to produce 8 lbs. in the crop time. The January seeding in Old Guatemala being much heavier, as only one crop is there taken, from 150 to 170 lbs. are generally used to seed each mansana. In Amatitlan the first crop collected in January generally yields from 800 to 1,200 lbs. of the live insect, from each mansana of cactus in a really good estate, which is sold at from 2½ to 8 reals (1s. 3d. to 4s. sterling) a pound, according to the demand, the abundance of the crop, &c.; but the first crop is, one year with another, calculated to pay all the expenses of weeding and managing the estate, and the cost of the seed, cochineal insect, and labour of seeding it, &c. The second crop is always dried, and each mansana will yield from 1,800 to 2,700 lbs. of the insect, and from 600 to 900 lbs. of dry cochineal, which is considered to be the net profit of the cultivator.

"In Old Guatemala each mansana ought to give 3,150 to 4,050 lbs. of the live insect, and 1,050 to 1,350 lbs. of dry cochineal, 3 lbs. of the live insect yielding as nearly as possible one of dry cochineal.

"The cost of production in Old Guatemala, one year with another, allowing for the current losses from rain, &c., is rated at 4 reals (or 2s. sterling) per lb. The cochineal insect, when not intended for breeding, is, as soon as gathered, spread out very thin upon flat shallow trays, made of cane, and covered with cotton cloth, and put into stoves constructed on purpose, each capable of containing from 100 to 200 baskets, and either heated by burning charcoal put in large clay vessels made on purpose, or by a small brick flue, into which wood can be put and lighted from the outside (the former method is the most costly and tedious, but gives the finest coloured cochineal); when completely dry, it is sifted, cleaned, and packed in bales, covered with an untanned ox hide, containing 150 lbs., in which state it is sent to Europe for sale. During the wet season a cochineal estate requires almost constant attention in cleaning and keeping down the weeds, and this must be done at least five times in the year in Amatitlan, or the cactus will be injured, though in Old Guatemala not more than two or three cleanings are given. The cactus must also be pruned at least twice in the year, once at the commencement of the rainy season in May, to make it sprout strongly, and again at the commencement of the dry season in October, when it is necessary to remove the long shoots, which would by their weight break down the cactus, and to trim the plants so as to give them an equal height and form.

"In Amatitlan a good cochineal estate in full bearing is worth from 600 to 800 dollars a mansana, and somewhat more in Old Guatemala; but in the latter a great proportion of the lands fit for growing the cactus belongs to the corporation, who, instead of selling, let them out in leases of nine years, which enables the lessee to take off six or seven crops of cochineal, as the plant is fit for seeding in two or three years, according to the quality of the land. During the last three years the increase in the number of cochineal estates has been very great, especially in Old Guatemala; and it is calculated that those now planted will be capable of producing at least 12,000 bales of 150 lbs. each of dry cochineal, while hitherto the produce of the best years has not much exceeded half that quantity. The increase in Amatitlan is also considerable, and the whole valley is now covered with cochineal estates, which may, jointly, be capable of producing 5,000 to 6,000 bales. A number of new cochineal estates have also, within



he last two years, been planted at Vi la Nueva, which is four leagues from Guatemala and two from Amatitlan, and also at Chiquimula, and in the Province of Vera Paz at alamar; so that, taken together, the produce of the state of Guatemala should shortly be equal to about 20,000 bales of cochineal, which is considerably more than the entire annual consumption of the article.

"Hence, either the use of the dye must be greatly extended, or the price must fall so low as to force part of the cultivators to abandon the business."

The climate of the valley of Amatitlan, to which Mr. Dunlop is the first British subject who has penetrated, is found to be very fatal to Europeans, and even more so to the natives of the neighbouring towns, great numbers of whom die in the rainy season. Even the natives are not exempt from intermittent fevers; this, however, is attributable, in a great measure, to the dissipated and irregular life led by the mestizos, mulattoes, and even the white creoles. Our author never felt any bad effects from the climate of Amatitlan, though often exposed to the sun all day in the management of a cochineal establishment, and in the rainy season wet several times daily. To the Spaniards who have attempted to settle, the climate has certainly proved rather fatal; but as those who go out to America are the very worst of the most debased provinces of Spain, the greater part being literally the sweepings of Cadiz, they at once adopt all the vices of the creoles in addition to their own, which are neither few nor trifling, and generally lead an even more debased and irregular life, so that it is not to be wondered at that they cannot stand a trying climate.

Some parts of the country are remarkably healthy; thus, at Esquinjala, about three leagues from the port of Izapa, sickness is almost unknown, and the natives live to a great age, many of them exceeding 100 years. It therefore forms one of the favourite resorts of the inhabitants of Guatemala, who go there to bathe and amuse themselves between the months of March and May. Venison is so cheap there, that an entire deer may be always bought for from 2s. to 4s. sterling.

Having devoted so much space to the preliminary chapters, we cannot touch upon the political history of the Republic and its revolutions. We should also have been glad to have spoken of the natural history, mineralogy, &c., of the country. We have, however, given our readers a fair impression of the work, which will especially recommend itself to the notice of our West Indian subscribers.

*The Overland Mail and the Austrian Lloyds.* London: George Mann.

THIS is a semi-official pamphlet, intended to call more prominent attention to the Austrian Lloyd's establishment, with its splendid fleet of twenty-five steamers, and the advantages which Trieste offers as the port of communication with our Indian empire. According to the pamphleteer—

"Such unalterable advantages are the property of the Austrian Lloyd's, the geographical position being so much in its favour that a straight line on the map will connect Alexandria, Trieste, and London. It is a fact, that the passage from Alexandria to Trieste is above 200 miles shorter than between Alexandria and Marseille; that it is more agreeable and less dangerous, the passage from Alexandria to Candia lasting only fifty hours, after which a charming coast remains constantly in view; and, moreover, eight different roads can be taken from Trieste to London, leading through the most important towns and the most beautiful districts of the Continent; while from Marseille travellers can only go to Paris, or must make a circuit of considerable extent if desirous of visiting Italy or Switzerland. The Trieste route offers also the great advantage that quarantine commences on board the steamer at Alexandria, under the control of an appointed officer, and concludes on entering the port of Trieste, while after the miseries of a tedious voyage to Marseille the traveller must still continue confined and discomforted in its quarantine."

A mass of most valuable information, as to the length, expense, &c., of the different routes through the Continent are given, which are cleverly elucidated by maps and plans. Our time and space will not allow us to go into the details and calculations, but we advise a careful study of this pamphlet by all interested in the subject, and this embraces a very large class now-a-days.

We cannot, however, deny ourselves the temptation of extracting the following account of the Austrian Lloyds:—

"This excellent institution was established after its prototype, the London Lloyds, in the year 1836 in Trieste, and soon became the centre of the whole maritime activity o

that rapidly rising port, which, with respect to traffic, is already considered the ninth port in the world, as the commerce in one year (1846) was estimated at £14,500,000. The Austrian Lloyds at present consists of two sections—the Lloyds proper and the Steam Navigation Company. The Lloyds proper has three departments:—The first is the management of a splendid establishment appropriated for the meeting of merchants, shippers, &c., connected with which there are reading-rooms supplied with upwards of 200 newspapers and various ship-lists of remarkable accuracy. The second department is the United Insurance Office, in which the several Trieste Insurance Companies participate. The third department is that of the newspapers, of which the Lloyds, having correspondents in all parts of the world, publish a German and an Italian newspaper four times a week. They are esteemed on the continent the most influential organs of political economy, commerce and navigation, and are distinguished by a strenuous advocacy of sound free-trade principles, which has already operated to a certain extent against the high prohibitive system of Austria.

“There is a printing-office, in which are three large steam and fifteen Stanhope presses, all busily engaged by the intellectual activity of this modern queen of the Adria.

“The second section of the Lloyds—the Steam Navigation Company (which is the leading party in promoting the acceleration of the Indian Mail)—has a capital of £300,000 in 6,000 shares of £50 each. In the month of May, 1845, his I. R. Majesty the Emperor of Austria was pleased to grant to this Company the privilege to be considered a branch of the I. R. State Post Establishment, with exemption from all taxes, dues, &c.”

*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine* for July. New York: F. Hunt.

OUR Transatlantic contemporary maintains its ground in public estimation from the novelty and importance of its articles on commercial affairs. There is an excellent paper on the Hawaiian kingdom, by Mr. Jervis, editor of the *Polynesian*, which we shall endeavour to republish shortly, although we have previously gone over much of the ground in the sketches by Mr. Wylie published in our *Magazine* in 1845.

The want of a more direct postal communication seems to be much felt, and the vast increase of the trade of the Sandwich Islands, connected as they are with the whale fisheries, gives them a greater importance.

Upwards of 5,000 dollars, it is said, are now annually expended by the Government and merchants in forwarding their letters through Mexico. Were a good mail route established by the United States, to and from the kingdom to the United States, at least 10,000 dollars postage might be annually counted on from this quarter. The operations of the merchants are frequently much embarrassed for want of a proper and safe communication with Europe and the United States.

*Adventures on the Western Coast of South America and the Interior of California*, &c. By John Coulter, M.D., Author of “*Adventures in the Pacific*,” &c. 2 vols. 1847. London: Longman and Co.

The author before us, although very superficial in his sketches, forms a pleasant gossiping companion, in giving us amusing accounts of his rambles through the wilds and fastnesses of California, and glimpses of savage life and scenery in many of the islands of the Pacific Ocean. “Moving accidents by flood and field,” whale-fishing, tiger-hunting, bear-hunting, and battles with the natives form the staple subject-matter of the volumes.

We have recently been treated to so many works on the islands of the Pacific, by Melville, Sir George Simpson, and others, that we are becoming almost as familiar with the manners and customs of our antipodean brethren as with those of our continental neighbours.

The good ship “*Stratford*,” Capt Lock, on board of which the Doctor is located, is a whaler, and we are introduced to him in the first volume, on the vessel's voyage to Tahiti from the Georgian Islands. Dr. Coulter leaves her at Tacames, and with an Indian guide, named Jack, proceeds to explore the interior. The Doctor's medical services seem to have been frequently called into request; and at a little village named Tolo, situate between Esmeraldas and the city of Quito, where the only emblem of his profession that he carried about him was a lancet, he was called upon to open veins indiscriminately; had he been disposed to settle there he might soon have

realise a fortune. The hint may be useful to some of our needy provincial Esculapuses, and we require no premium for pointing out this desirable locality to them.

"What seldom occurs to medical men, even in the respectable towns and cities of Great Britain and Europe—perhaps I may even add 'and elsewhere'—happened to me here. The patients and their friends were pressing on me doubloons in no inconsiderable number, which, from their hospitality to me, I thought I ought to refuse, and was in the act of so doing, when my very philosophic guide gave me a wink and a look, that plainly told me to pocket all that was offered; and I came to the conclusion that, although the medical profession was not generally a 'go-a-head' one at home, yet this instance, with many others I have experienced abroad, stamped it as one of the best recommendations I could have had."

Here is an instance of—

#### *Yankee Appropriation.*

"The trading, or dollar-hunting propensity of the inhabitants of the United States, is shown strongly in this instance; Fisher, a native of New England, United States, happened to stray round Cape Horn, and, after visiting many places, he arrived at our present anchorage; he soon found out that something could be made out of the place, as many vessels touched at it. Now the owner of the extensive place on which this small settlement existed, was a Spaniard, who made a welcome for Fisher; after an examination of the premises, the extent of the estancia, or farm, the herds of cattle on it, its convenient situation as a place of call for shipping, &c., he 'calculated it would do,' if it were his own, or he had the management of it.

"To accomplish this desirable aim he made love to the old man's daughter, wooed and won her, and, from what I heard, behaved kindly to her afterwards; the death of the old man put Fisher at once into possession of all, wife, farm, and herds, and he is now actual owner of a fine grazing plain of about forty miles long, and from twelve to fifteen miles wide. I must here say he is a good, kind, and hospitable man, deserving his gain."

He rejoins the ship, taking his guide on board, but ultimately leaves her in the bay of St. Francisco.

The Californian Gulf appears to be one of the resorts of the whale, and the ship met with very tolerable success there, taking also many turtle.

We do not remember to have before heard of the following kind of bath, which is in use at the town of Yerba Buena.

#### *Indian Hot-air Bath.*

"I was strongly recommended to try the hot-air bath, greatly in use here, both by Indians and foreign residents; they term it "Temescal." Its construction is peculiar, and deserves notice. A kind of wicker work is formed in the shape of a large circular sentry-box, with an oval head, and a doorway to enter it. This contrivance is plastered all over thickly with well-wrought tough clay, which makes it air-tight. This strange erection will last for years, only give it a periodical plastering.

"When this temescal, or hot-air bath, is about to be used, a large wood fire is heaped up close to the door, and as soon as the fire has emitted nearly all its smoke, and nothing remains but a large body of burning embers, you enter it, and either sit down or stand up as you please. From the heated air and closeness inside, the most copious perspiration ensues, which, being kept up as long as possible for a man to bear this, as it were, oven, is considered by the Indians, and indeed many enlightened residents in California, to be a certain cure for at least rheumatism.

"It is also used as a restorer after great fatigue, by the Indians, but in these instances their plan is different from that pursued by foreigners; they will go into the temescal, remain longer, and bear more heat than any white man could, and after coming out, fairly dripping with perspiration, will rush down to the river, swim about for a few minutes, come in, and put on their clothing again; this sudden emersion of the heated body in the cold stream, few white men could bear with impunity; but the Indians are accustomed to it from boyhood, and the application of the temescal, in their own way, seems to have a very refreshing effect upon them.

"I have seen Indians, after a long journey, or a harassing two or three days' hunting, enter the square of the mission, staggering from fatigue, the first thing he asked a brother to do, was to light a fire, and, after using this hot-air bath in the manner I have described Indians do, he would not only be refreshed by its use, but, in all probability, engaged in a fandango, or one of their own wild dances that evening; in the square of all the missions, there are several of these temescal, and the peculiarity of their shape is a remarkable object in the view.

"Well, I did give the hot-air bath a trial, and I found so much benefit from its applica-

tion, that I continued its use for several days, until I was perfectly free from pain, and could run and jump about in gallant style."

Getting tired of his Californian trips he takes a passage in the "Hound," Capt. Traiver, for the Georgian Islands; they first steer for the Kirgsmill Islands. The purpose of the cruise of the "Hound" seems to have been to pick up cocoa-nut oil, arrowroot, beche-de-mer, tortoiseshell, dye-woods, or, in fact, anything that would answer the Sandwich Island or China markets.

At Drummond's Island the Doctor seems to have been overpowered with hospitality and generosity, half-a-dozen young and well-looking girls were furnished him as wives. Here is his account of their introduction—

"Having seated themselves in the centre of the floor, the first thing they did was to look at me, then laugh heartily. A song was commenced and continued for several minutes, accompanied by the occasional clapping of hands, then another chorus of laughing, and all got up to caper and dance round the house and over the soft covering of the floor. 'Well, thought I, these people are certainly very merry, and inclined to entertain their guest.' I could perceive, by an occasional exclamation, that some of them had picked up a word or two of English from previous visitors.

"They seemed to enjoy themselves in the very climax of merriment. When I asked the man what was all the fun about, he answered, grinning in a peculiar manner, 'By-and-by, you'll see.' They seemed at last to have partially tired themselves, and again squatted on the bed of leaves. Some lay down. Their only dress consisted of a small cloth round the waist, which extended nearly to the knees. Two or three of them now stood up, and spoke to me in the native language.

"I was all along imagining that the entire performance was intended as an act of hospitality for my amusement, when my interpreter informed me that they were told to come here by Hoonoo, who had tabooed them all to me for wives. I was certainly amazed at first at this peculiar and immoral stretch of hospitality, on the part of my young friend the chief, but soon found out that such an act was customary with the strangers visiting those islands, and that it would be considered strange, unusual, and partially insulting, to turn them out.

"However, I needed a determined part, and told them I did not want one, not to speak of half a dozen wives; they told the interpreter they would stop where they were, that they were (in their English) 'wiffy me,' and would not stir. I was now informed that all women tabooed to any man, looked upon him as long as he remained as their husband, and that to turn them away would insult them and their friends, and that some of their male relatives might revenge the act. However, bribery has its influence here as amongst civilised people, and I promised presents to all these young women, which compromised matters in some measure, though I was obliged to leave them in undisturbed possession of the building, and go into Hoonoo's house, where I folded myself up in a mat and slept in a corner till daylight the next day."

At Utiroo, on the north side of the island, the natives take a fancy to his clothing, and he is obliged to strip and make an exchange of his dress for the fish-skin cap and war mat of a chief; and thus metamorphosed, his friends, and particularly the half-dozen of wives allotted to him, did not on his return at first recognise him.

The treacherous character of the natives becomes manifest, and they make a bold attack on the vessel before her departure. The ship next proceeds to Simpson's Island. The population of the Kingsmill group, in number about fourteen, is said to be very great. They subsequently shape their course for New Ireland, where they meet with an Englishman, named Thomas Manners, of London, who had turned native, and become adviser to the king. The author lands and makes some excursions into the interior, where he finds proofs of cannibalism being prevalent. Afterwards, he takes part in their combats, and enters with avidity into all the excitement attendant on the novelty of savage life and customs.

*A Royal visit—King Teru and his Retinue.*

"On the evening of the second day, we were honoured by a visit from the royal family of this district, or bay, which the called Wattoo. They were eight in number, three men and five women; and, whether they considered these lords of the creation entitled to superior distinction from the weaker sex or not, I cannot say, but, at all events, the men were in state in an elaborately ornamented large canoe, whilst the ladies were in a small plain one, and paddled on by some of their own sex.

"The three men were first on deck, one of them, a man of large frame, but great age, was the king, and called by the other two chiefs who accompanied him "Teru," his long hair was perfectly white and rested in folds on his shoulders and back of the neck;

his face was besmeared with a mixture of grease and red ochre, round his neck he wore a large and buncy necklace, or rather collar of shells, boars' tusks, and human teeth; his skin was very dark, a fold of fine matting encircled his loins, and a kind of cape of the same material was over his shoulders, which he threw off the moment he came on board.

"The chiefs who came with him were small men, had their hair frizzled well out from the head, and plentifully powdered with white chalk, they had also a profusion of shell and bone ornaments on them, and both their faces were liberally streaked with white paint; as to their covering, it was as scanty as Teru's. After they had a stare at us, and we at them, they retired to the after-part of the vessel, and the ladies were permitted to come up, which they did with every ease and confidence, but were in so undressed or naked a state, that the greater part of our men involuntarily turned round, and stepped a little out of the way. They gazed around at everything, smiled at every one in the perfect simplicity of true barbarism. The captain felt so awkward at such an exhibition of naked people on the deck among his crew, that he invited them at once down to the cabin to get them out of the way.

"It was curious to observe the aged and hoary-headed Teru, handle everything with as much curiosity as a child would a play-toy. The chiefs that were with him had more reserve, and seemed more dignified, though more ferocious in aspect. The five women, though black, were well formed and fine featured: their hair was hanging loosely on their shoulders, and made shining black with oil. They all had on necklaces of varied coloured berries. The piece of mat, which scarcely covered them from the waist to the knees, was not fastened, but merely held in one hand. In sitting down, they frequently neglected the precaution of even holding it. The king and chiefs paid little or no attention either to them or to their movements, so they had all the talk to themselves.

"Shortly after we were seated in the cabin with our royal friends, a young prince, grandson of the king, joined the rest of the party. He was about sixteen years old, and the most animated and engaging boy that I had seen for some time. He was remarkably handsome; the colour of his hair was not altered by powdering it like the chiefs, but it was profusely oiled. He had no ornaments whatever on, but stood before us as nature formed him, perfectly unconscious of appearing before people in an almost naked state.

"Every limb and muscle was continually and gracefully in motion. As for his dark, but expressive eyes, they danced in his head with rapturous delight, at everything he saw on board our vessel. It was at once quite evident he was held in the estimation of the ladies, being as it were the Cupid of the party. They all seemed highly gratified when he leaped in among them. He had a look and a smile for each; but that once over, he amused himself with everything that appeared new to him. His youth, manners, and movements, prepossessed all in his favour; and the old king seemed greatly pleased when he saw each of us giving him some trifling present.

"What appeared to afford him most amusement was a small harmonicon I gave him—a thing that you could get in any toy-shop for a few pence. When presenting it to him I showed him how to sound it, and he kept it to his lips incessantly blowing away, to the no small amusement of the ladies, but finally, the annoyance of old Teru, who made him stop playing it until a more fitting time. The rest of the party were pleased with the beads, trinkets, and baubles, given to them, and were about taking leave of us, when the old king made many signs expressive of a wish to hear the noise repeated that so frightened some of his people the evening of our arrival. Accordingly, the captain ordered one of the carronades to be fired off. The report of which so astonished the whole of them, from their close proximity to the gun, that they instinctively thrust their fingers into their ears, and some fell down on the deck in affright; whilst the young fellow I have spoken of, stood leaning over the vessel's side, fixed and immovable, with mouth and eyes wide open, gazing after the smoke of the gun until it altogether vanished."

At one of the Willaumez's Islands they meet with a white settler in the person of one James Selwin, a native of Bristol, England, who amuses them with a narrative of his history and adventures, and entertains them on shore at his singular habitation—being monarch of all he surveys, his family alone being in possession of the island. They fall in with an American brig, commanded by Capt. Stewart, and cruise together, and at New Guinea meet with another white man, one Terence Connell, from the county Kerry, who is a king of the Horraforas, a cannibal tribe. Connell narrates his history, from which it appears that he was one of a party of eleven convicts, who escaped from Sydney in a boat, and, after enduring many privations, fall into the hands of the Horraforas, by whom all but himself and another are

murdered, and his comrade being subsequently killed in a battle with a rival tribe, Connell, for his bravery, is elevated to the sovereignty of the tribe.

After many other adventures, Dr. Coulter rejoins his old ship, the "Stratford," at Tahiti, and returns in her to England.

*A Letter on Cotton Cultivation in India, as affected by the East India Company's Salt Monopoly.* By D. C. Aylwin, Esq. London: James Madden.

MR. AYLWIN, who is the prime mover in this country on the salt question, loses no opportunity of enunciating his views of the injustice of the odious Government monopoly of salt in India.

In the present pamphlet he labours effectually to prove that if the monopoly were abolished Eastern India could successfully compete with America in the production of cotton. Mr. Aylwin is of opinion that taking into consideration the facility of transit, the adaptation of climate and sufficiency of congenial soil, abundance and cheapness of labour, Eastern India will be enabled to rival the United States in the production of cotton, in the same manner as she is now competing with the West Indies in the cultivation of sugar, and has for many years superseded South America in the manufacture of indigo. The subject of cotton cultivation in the East is one in which we take deep interest, and to which we shall endeavour shortly to recur more at length.

*De Bow's Commercial Review of the South and West.* J. C. Morgan: New Orleans.

THE April, June, and July numbers of this useful publication have reached us, and we are pleased to notice a marked improvement both in the getting up and contents of the work. One of the articles, entitled a "Few Notes for Sugar Planters," we would gladly have noticed at some length, but that information on this subject is at present pressing upon us from many quarters. Mr. De Bow we hear is bringing out a work on Sugar and Cotton Cultivation, which we expect to find an important acquisition to the planter, from the many sources of information at his command, and the great care with which he discusses and elaborates his subjects in all their bearings. The "Commercial Review" is fast taking up the position in the Southern and Western States, which "Hunt's Merchants' Magazine" has attained in the Eastern States. There is ample room for both in the wide and extended field of the United States; and they will rather assist than interfere with each other, by developing the resources of the different States, and drawing forth the business talent of the many able writers of America.

*The Sugar-Planter's Manual; being a Treatise on the Art of obtaining Sugar from the Sugar-cane.* By W. J. Evans, M.D. London: Longman and Co., pp. 244.

THIS is a work, the want of which has long been felt, treating exclusively of the manufacture of sugar, by scientific processes, from the juice of the cane. The object of Dr. Evans, as stated by himself, is to supply the British sugar-planter with the means of acquiring a knowledge of those principles which ought to guide him in the art of making sugar. No man could be better qualified for the task he has undertaken, of which he has acquitted himself in a most able manner. Practically acquainted with all the processes in use, having visited the West Indies, Madeira, &c., to judge for himself of the imperfections of the existing systems, he brings his experience to bear in his advice and remarks, and his name has already been before the public in connexion with the new pan for concentrating syrup at a low temperature over the open fire, and at the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere, which was patented some time ago by Mr. A. Gadesden, one of the most intelligent sugar-refiners of London. It has long been advanced as a taunt against the West Indians, that they have sat with folded arms, neglecting to avail themselves of those scientific appliances, improvements, and discoveries, which were day by day being made known.

The injustice of this charge could easily be shown, but we will not grapple with it in this place. Suffice it to say that the ignorance which formerly prevailed is fast giving place to a more enlightened knowledge of the theory and principles, both of agricultural chemistry and the best processes for the manufacture of sugar and rum.

In Demerara we have an experienced agricultural chemist, Dr. Shier, retained by the Colony, who has already effected much good by his experiments and reports. Barbados has the advantage of Dr. Davy, a relative of the distinguished Sir Humphrey Davy. Trinidad is not far behind-hand; for some time past very able treatises on sugar manufacture have appeared in the local journals, and we have the pleasure of publishing in our present number a valuable paper on the improvements necessary in sugar-mills, by Dr. Mitchell. Jamaica is availing itself of the services of a trained and practical chemist, in the person of Mr. Churchill; and many of her island writers, Mr. Thomas Hennay, Mr. Whitehouse, Mr. Cargill, and others, have published most valuable treatises on sugar cultivation and manufacture, to which we have given a place in our pages. Let it not, then, be said that there is any indifference or indisposition to profit by improvement, but the leisure, the opportunity, and the advantages for pursuing that spirit of scientific inquiry and research have been hitherto wanting. Dr. Evans therefore comes to their aid at a most seasonable juncture, and a more competent guide and instructor they could not have. He is, moreover, we are glad to find, a staunch advocate of Colonial interests. Thus, speaking of the Sugar Duties' Act, he says—

"The object of the Sugar Duties' Act of 1846, is the immediate reduction of duties upon all foreign sugars and their prospective equalisation in a very <sup>large</sup> <sup>scale</sup> the sugars indiscriminately, whether of British or foreign growth, or the produce of free or slave labour. This Act professes to be based upon the principles of free trade, but its details show that it is very far from being so. It removes all protection from sugars, the produce of British possessions; but it has not removed one single restriction imposed upon the grower. These may be stated to be as follow:—

"1st. Restrictions imposed upon the obtaining an increase of labour by immigration.

"The price of labour forms, indubitably, the most considerable item in the disbursements of a sugar estate in the British West Indies; the planter, therefore, naturally regards it as the chief obstacle to his competition with his foreign rival. In the Spanish West Indian Colonies, and in Brazil, not only does slavery exist, but, in spite of all our efforts to check it, the slave trade continues. These of themselves, it might be supposed, would be formidable advantages on the side of the sugar planter in those countries. But they are not the only ones he possesses. If he choose to employ free labour, he can obtain it where he pleases; he can import it under any flag; he is not restricted by any Passenger Act; and he can enter into arrangements, by contract or otherwise, with the parties offering their services, either in the country whence they come, or in that where they are brought, without limitation of time. From these causes the Spanish planter could import labourers under a British flag, in an English vessel, at an ultimate cost of probably half that which is now paid in our own Colonies.

"2nd. Restrictions on the use of adequate means to obtain both a larger amount of extract, and also one of better quality than is now effected.

"Until a very recent period the planter was not permitted, in consequence of the fiscal regulations then in force, to import into this country sugar of a quality superior to that known as Muscovado.

"It is to this cause that we must attribute the imperfect mode of manufacture at present practised in the Colonies; for how can we expect to find improvement when such effectual means are enforced to prevent it? Although the duties attached to sugars of different qualities have been greatly reduced, they have not been equalised; and a very considerable protection is still kept up in favour of the refiner. This system of taxation is in the highest degree injudicious; for, to quote part of an address from M. Peligot to Admiral Duperré, formerly minister of state for the French Colonies, 'it has been demonstrated, that the sugar which pre-exists in the cane is white, and it is always so obtained when a part of it has not been destroyed. That the proportion which is obtained is consequently greater the less dark it is in colour.' And he asks, 'What ought to be thought of a legislative measure which imposes upon industry the exorbitant obligation of producing at the same time, what is bad in quality and small in quantity, and which places a barrier before one of those things which the laws ought most to respect, progressive amelioration!'

"3rd. Restrictions on the importation of the raw material (that is cane-juice in a state of inspissation) for manufacture in this country.

"The Planter contends, 'that he ought to be permitted to bring home his cane-juice in the form of a concrete, on the payment of the ton of such a duty as will be commensurate with that at present attached to sugar and molasses; or, that he should be allowed to manufacture it in bond, paying upon his extracts the duties fixed for sugars of corresponding qualities.'

"If the planter feels that the difficulties attendant upon an improved manufacture in the Colonies are for the present at least, so great as to appear to him to be insuperable, he is right in making the foregoing demand; and which, I should think, there would be little doubt of meeting with cordial reception by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, as it is demonstrative that the sugar duties would thereby be considerably increased in amount; while from the augmentation in quantity and the improvement in the quality, the public would, *ceteris paribus*, be supplied with a better article at a lower price.

"4th. Restrictions on the employment of saccharine substances in the manufactures, &c., of this country.

"If the West India proprietor is to be subjected to the disadvantages of free trade, it is manifestly simple justice that his produce should be free too, and should enjoy all the benefits that may be supposed to be obtained by that system of commerce. He has, therefore, a right to demand that sugar, molasses, and treacle, be used for any purpose that the purchaser may choose to apply them, on the payment of a duty equivalent to that now imposed on substances which their employment may be supposed to displace.

"5th. Restrictions imposed by the Navigation Laws

"It is contended that the planter ought to be permitted to ship his produce on board of any vessel which will convey it cheapest, without distinction of flag."

"6th. Restrictions on the importation into the Colonies of merchandise the produce of foreign countries.

"It is demanded that all discriminating duties cease; that is, that all protective duties in the Colonies in favour of British manufactures, &c., be entirely repealed."

"7th. Restrictions on the importation of Colonial spirits into this country.

"As the Colonies form a part of the British empire, the duty on Colonial and home-made spirits should be the same."

"Such are a few of the restrictions under which the British planter at present labours. I am disposed to agree with him in the belief that if some of the more important of them be not removed, or an equivalent be given to him in the shape of a differential duty, that no means which, unaided, he can pursue will save him from ruin. But as the removal of the principal among them would be attended not merely with advantage to the Colonies, but to the Mother-country likewise, I apprehend that their continuance will not be for long."

The first part of the work is devoted to a sketch of the chemical and physiological facts connected with the growth and development of plants, their constituents, &c., after which he describes the properties of cane-sugar and its refuse—molasses and treacle, and then gives us an admirable chapter on the anatomy and physiology of the sugar-cane, the composition of its juice, and the different methods employed to ascertain the quantity of saccharine it contains.

#### *Nature of Cane-juice.*

"When recently expressed, it is opaque, frothy, and of a yellowish green, or sometimes greyish colour. It has an aromatic and sweet taste, and balsamic smell, and produces a slightly acid reaction on litmus paper. In the latter respect it offers considerable variations. Its specific gravity is said to vary from 1046 to 1110, from 7 deg. to 15 deg. Beaumé. These must, however, be considered as its extreme limits, which are very rarely observed. I have never seen it in any country of a density below 8.5 deg. nor higher than 13 deg., the temperature being 80 deg. Its specific gravity usually fluctuates between 1070 and 1090, 10 deg. and 13 deg. Beaumé. The difference in density depends upon many causes, as the age of the cane, the climate, the soil, the season, the temperature of the atmosphere, &c.

"Cane-juice consists of two parts, easily separated from each other by filtration, the one being a perfectly transparent fluid of a pale yellow colour, the other a dark green fecula, which remains upon the filter.

"The latter, upon examination under the microscope, is seen to be formed of a green globular matter—chlorophyll, portions of woody fibre, cellulose in the state of the broken up parietes of the cells, and a few shreds of coagulated fibrine. By the application of heat, and the addition of a small quantity of lime, these substances separate readily from the pure juice, and then constitute the *scum of the clarifiers*. This scum has been analysed by Auvquin, who states that it consists of ceresic or wax, 7.5, green matter 1.3 albumen and wood 3.4, biphosphate of lime 0.5, silica 2.1, and water.

"The transparent liquid which remains when the above matters have been separated by filtration, consists of water, sugar, a small quantity of dextrine, varying, probably from 1 to 4 parts in 1000 in ripe and healthy canes, soluble compounds of proteine, saline matters, and a colouring principle, distinct from the green matter mentioned above, being soluble in water."



The constituents, as determined by analysis, from an average taken from numerous experiments made by different persons, are as follows :—

Water .....	81
Sugar .....	18.20
Organic matter, precipitated by diacetate of lead .....	0.45
Saline matter.....	0.35
	100.00

In the second part of the work we come to the *practical* portion—that which treats of the means resorted to to extract the juice from the cane, the different species of mills and motive powers, and the waste of megass as fuel (a point which we have often urged); and here it is that the Doctor brings his observation and experience to bear very fully. There is one point, in passing, which we may call attention to, and that is the want of an intercommunication of ideas between the different Colonies. However much their soils and situations may differ, they must have many subjects in common which it would be desirable to advise on; and what better medium of communication exists than the numerous existing agricultural societies, many of which profess to publish papers and transactions which they, however, seldom or ever exchange.

Dr. Evans, on this point, says—“Unfortunately, there is no organised system as yet established among the Colonies, by which the knowledge and experience of one may be diffused among the many. From the want of the means of reciprocal communication, repeated and well ascertained failures of a scheme, which have caused its rejection in one Colony, do not prevent frequent and renewed trials of it in others. Or, if it has proved successful, ignorance of its success, aided most probably by a scepticism which has been rendered obstinate from witnessing repeated failures, causes a long period to elapse before its reception becomes general.”

The inefficiency of the present mills in use is specially alluded to, and the observations of Dr. Mitchell, in our present number, fully borne out.

“To render a mill as efficient as possible, the following rules should be attended to :—

“1. The rollers should be made to approximate as closely as the work which they have to perform will admit of. In mills, in which the rollers observe a vertical direction, the space between the first and second should scarcely, if at all, exceed one-fourth of an inch, whilst a distance of one-sixth of an inch is the most that should be allowed between the second and third. When they are placed horizontally, the upper one ought to observe a space of one-fifth to one-fourth of an inch from the two lower. These distances can never, perhaps, be accurately given in every case, but the requisite degree of bracing should always be strictly attended to. 2. The velocity of the rollers should be rendered as uniform as possible, not by diminishing the amount of the motive power, but by a carefully regulated supply of canes. 3. The canes, when thrown upon the feeding board, should be upon the same plane, and never suffered to cross each other, otherwise the motion of the rollers will be checked, and the canes will be submitted to unequal pressure. 4. The megass should invariably be repassed between the rollers, so as to extract, as much as possible, the juice which still remains in it.

“When the canes are rich, and their juice of considerable density, the megass should be sprinkled with a little water, or, where it is practicable, exposed to the action of steam before it is submitted to the pressure; but when the canes are large, green, and watery, this may be dispensed with.

“By following the foregoing rules, the quantity of cane-juice may be increased, at least, 20 per cent., that is, a mill which ordinarily gives 50 lbs. of juice for every 100 lbs. of canes which are crushed by it, may, by a little attention, be made to increase the quantity to 60 lbs. at least, and the one which now produces 60 lbs. may be made to yield 70 lbs. on a like quantity.

“This amelioration may be obtained without any additional outlay of money; a little watchfulness on the part of the planter, to see that his orders are carried out, being all that is required for its accomplishment.”

That, by any mechanical means, the whole of the juice will ever be extracted from the cane cannot be expected; indeed, from obvious physical causes, this result would be impossible; but it is certain that the quantity at present obtained, 50 lbs., may very readily be increased to 70 or 75 lbs. from 100 lbs. of canes.

Dr. Evans is an advocate for increased pressure of the megass, the substitution

of coals as fuel, and the return of the trash as manure to the soil, by which the quantity of canes for the ensuing crop would be increased at least 20 per cent., and in the greater number of Colonies very much more. He instances Barbados, where many estates, after a good supply of manure, readily yield, in favourable seasons, three tons of sugar per acre, which, without that assistance, would not yield one. He estimates the value of the megass employed as manure at 50 per cent. greater than when used as a material for fuel. We think, however, the Doctor is rather too low in his figure as to the cost of coals; we doubt much whether they could be landed at 20s. per ton in the West Indies. At the Royal Mail Steam Company's depot they average, we believe, 25s. to 27s. per ton. We are then instructed in the principles which ought to guide us in the desiccation of cane juice, and many improved methods are suggested. This is one of the most important parts of the subject under review.

Separate chapters are devoted to evaporation and filtration through animal charcoal, the concentration of syrup, the crystallisation, and the subsequent processes of potting or curing, claying, &c.

Our author points out as an indispensable requisite the removal of the treacle from the other coppers.

"The first improvement upon the present method, therefore, consists in placing the teache over a separate fire, and in giving it a slight modification of form. In the latter respect, it should be a circular vessel about 45 inches in diameter, and 14 or 15 inches in depth, the bottom of which should be slightly convex, that is, arched upwards; and it may be supplied with a cock for drawing off the syrup when duly concentrated."

Dr. Evans censures, and most justly, the vicious system at present pursued in the curing-house, and suggests many important improvements in potting, &c., especially the preservation of a more equable temperature—say 900—and the exclusion of cold air and draughts.

A very favourable comparison is made between the products from sugar cultivation in Barbados and Demerara, strongly in favour of the former.

The following recapitulation of the rules and counsels laid down in the work should form the *vade mecum* of every planter:—

"1. The canes should be cultivated with a view not merely to their size and abundance, but we should, at the same time, by every means in our power, cause them to yield a juice as rich in saccharine matter and as free from all impurities as possible; and to prevent the evil which would result from decomposition of the juice when cut, the canes should be conveyed to the mill without loss of time.

"2. We should attempt to get from the canes the largest quantity of juice, either by improved mills, or by close attention to the fitting, bracing, feeding, &c., of those now in use, by sprinkling the megass with water, or by exposing it to steam, and by repassing it between the rollers.

"3. We must employ the best means in our power to defecate the cane-juice, that is, to make this liquid approximate as near as we can to a solution of sugar and water only. Its speedy exposure to the action of a high temperature must be effected, and the greatest caution must be practised in the administration of the '*temper-lime*.'

"4. The defecated liquor should be evaporated to the density of 32 deg. Beaumé, or to any other suitable degree, with the greatest expedition, care being taken at the same time, that the carbonisation of even the smallest particle of the sugar be prevented, by constantly preserving in the pan a depth of liquor sufficient to cover that part of it which is exposed to the fire.

"5. The object of filtering the liquor through animal charcoal is the more perfect removal from it of the albuminous principles, excess of lime, colouring matter, acidity, &c.

"6. That the concentration of the syrup to sugar proof should be effected with rapidity, and at the lowest temperature possible.

"7. That to promote an abundant and perfect crystallisation, repose, moderate warmth, and an equable temperature, are necessary; and to effect the better curing of the sugar, these two operations should be performed in the same vessel.

"8. That to induce the complete separation of the molasses, the sugar, when sufficiently cured, should be submitted to the process of liquoring.

"9. The molasses must be concentrated before any fermentative change shall have commenced."

The subject of the proposed central manufactories is taken up and discussed, and the Doctor's opinion is adverse to them. A company got up in England to promote this measure, would, he considers, neither ameliorate the condition

of the proprietors of sugar estates, nor would it prove a lucrative speculation to the parties concerned in it. When the estates, however, are small—where they are contiguous to each other, and where the works are inadequate for effective manufacture—he concedes that the proprietors might advantageously throw their separate plantations together and make of them one large estate, in the centre of which the factory might be established.

The Doctor suggests, and wisely, that as the sugar-cane has never been produced from seed, and plants raised from germs become in time liable to deterioration and disease, whether a great improvement in the vigour of these plants might not be effected, by a change of cuttings between Colony and Colony, or even between plantations in the same Colony? Or, would it not be useful to obtain occasionally a new stock from the countries which originally produced them?

The interchange of cuttings between estates and contiguous Colonies is practised, but not to any very great extent—at least it was customary when we were in Jamaica as a sugar planter some eight or ten years ago.

We have thus gone cursorily through Dr. Evans's masterly work, which is full of the most valuable information for the planter, and will certainly become immediately the text-book and standard work of reference on sugar manufacture. It should be in the hands of every overseer, book-keeper, and attorney, who cannot fail to profit by a careful and frequent study of its contents. To the agricultural societies of the Colonies it will recommend itself, and we trust our brethren of the press will take due care to make it prominently known by means of this notice and our extracts, if the work does not come directly into their hands.

*The Law Relating to Benefit Building Societies, &c.* By Charles Egan, Esq. London: R. Hastings.

THIS little work comes before the public with strong claims for support. Mr. Egan having digested and elucidated the different Acts of Parliament and decisions of the Judges, applying to such prudential unions. These societies are springing up in many of our Colonies, and when we consider the vast number of persons who are daily becoming more and more interested in Building Societies, the necessity for such a condensed legal treatise is the more apparent.

What adds to the value of the book is, that there is an excellent and very full index, which amazingly facilitates prompt reference.

*Saunders's Geographical Catalogue.* London: Trelawney W. Saunders, 1847, p. 104.

THIS Catalogue is, in our opinion, an excellent idea, calculated alike to benefit the public and the compiler; it is a classified arrangement of the different maps, charts, guide-books, &c., under proper divisions and sub-divisions, and is, we are told, the first fruit of a proposal to establish a general dépôt in London for maps and other works, both British and foreign, relating to Geography. To the tourist and intending traveller such a repository as Mr. Saunders's for information and selection will be peculiarly valuable.

#### PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

“Case of the Colonists in Reference to the Kaffir Invasions.” By the Editor of the *Graham's Town Journal*. Fraser's, Farmers', Sharpe's, Belle Assemblée, and Sportsman Magazines, the Athenæum, &c.

## COLONIAL INTELLIGENCE.

## INDIA.

The Legislative Council of Calcutta have passed a Draft Act for regulating Coroner's Juries in that city. It makes the minimum necessary to constitute one, not twelve, but three, the finding of which jury shall be as good, valid and effective law, as one by twelve jurors. This is a great innovation upon the duodecim system, but it seems to have been urgently called for.

A notification appears in the *Gazette* announcing that henceforth imported salt may be bonded in private warehouses, licensed by the Controlling Board.

The abundance of rain during the month of June had not been favourable to the Indigo crop, which cannot now be expected to rise above the average, unless indeed fine weather in July should improve its chances. The fall of rain registered during June in Calcutta was 12.61 inches; at Bombay there fell in one day, the 12th June, not less than 13½ inches. The fall of rain at Narainpore during the month of May was 5.90 inches. Twenty-three inches of rain fell at Rumpore during the eight days, from the 13th to the 20th of June.

It is proposed to establish a new weekly paper at Agra, to be called the *Agra Messenger*.

We understand that the labours of Mr. Williams, the Surveyor of the Mining districts of India, have resulted in the discovery of a very valuable seam of coal, inferior in geological position to those which have been hitherto working, and one which will afford "coking coal" of very superior quality, especially adapted to the use of locomotive engines. This discovery sets at rest the discussion which had arisen regarding the value of the Burdwan coal field; which as Mr. Williams asserted some time since contained coal of very superior quality, but which, according to the opinion of others who had paid some little attention to the subject, had already been fully explored. We cannot but congratulate Mr. Williams on this discovery, establishing the truth

of what he some time since fearlessly asserted regarding the value of the Burdwan coal-bearing strata; and we are glad to find that the Government has so soon reaped the fruits of procuring the services of a thorough practical miner. We learn, too, that machinery has been recently sent up the Damooda, which will afford Mr. Williams every opportunity for prosecuting labours which are so important to the interests of the country.—*Bengal Hurkaru*.

The island of Bombay has recently suffered from a desolating conflagration, by which the British hotel, and several godowns of the merchants were destroyed.

Attempts have also been made to burn the vessels in the harbour. The Bombay shipowners and merchants have in consequence appointed a committee to inquire into the best method of defeating such villany, and a registration act for seamen is loudly called for in consequence.

A recent notification by the Bombay Government admits goods crossing from Kurrachee or other sea-ports in Scinde to Bombay, free of duty.

A new joint-stock association, called the Bombay Spinning and Weaving Company, is about shortly to be established in Bombay. The capital is to be five lakhs of rupees, divided into 5,000 shares of rupees, 100 each. A deposit of rupees, five per share, is required to be made, and six months' notice will be given for any further call. About 3,000 shares have been already subscribed for. The object of the association, which is sufficiently indicated by the title, is to manufacture cotton fabrics from the raw material on the spot, by means of machinery imported from Europe.

## CEYLON.

Our papers from this Colony are to July 12. A dinner had been given by the merchants of Colombo to the new Governor, Lord Torrington. His Lordship has, however, drawn himself into hot water, at this early stage of his government, by the pertinacity with

which he upholds the intention of moving the verandahs which obtrude on the streets or abut on Government land, although the nuisance, if such it can be called, has been tolerated from time immemorial. A proclamation has been issued, in which we find the following passage:—"All verandahs which can be shown, by the production of title deeds or other documentary evidence, to have been in the possession of the parties prior to the British occupation of Ceylon, are exempted from the operation of this order."

Major-General William Smelt, C.B., had arrived in the Island, and assumed the Commandership of the Forces.

William Dallas Bernard, Esq., A.M., has been appointed Private Secretary to the Governor.

J. Armitage, Esq., has been Gazetted (provisionally) an official member of the Legislative Council during the absence of Mr. Ritchie.

Subscriptions were getting up among the planters to place a steamer at the Maraar Straits, to facilitate the crossing of Coolies. The expenses of a steamer are estimated at £600 per month, and her services would be required for three months of the year. It is expected the Coolies would pay 6d each for the passage.

#### NEW SOUTH WALES.

We have Portland Bay papers direct by the "Rookery," to the 30th March, but we have dates from Sydney to the 3rd April by the "Post Office Packet." We are sorry to find that the Colony of North Australia is to be abandoned, after all the preliminary expenditure incurred, and we differ with the "Sydney Atlas" as to the benefits that would have been derived.

Two Colonial vessels left Moreton Bay for North Australia on the 3rd March. The "Kangaroo" steamer, which had left Port Jackson on a secret expedition, it was rumoured, had been sent down to reconnoitre the North Australian settlement.

The Legislature had been further prorogued to the 20th of April.

It appears that North Australia is to be abandoned, and Barney is not to be a Governor after all. We can sympathise with the unfortunate officials who have thus had their honours shorn from them before they were well fledged; but we

must congratulate the public generally upon the timely stop that has been put to, what must inevitably have turned out the most disastrous instance of Colonisation ever exhibited to the world.—*Atlas*.

When we stated, a few weeks back, that the Queen had been pleased to revoke her letters patent and commissions for forming the Colony of North Australia, we are aware that many of our readers imagined we had been deceived; but our information came from a quarter which led us to place the most implicit reliance upon it, and to assert most positively that the formation of the Colony was to be discontinued. We are now enabled to state that despatches were yesterday received by the Governor, desiring that immediate steps may be taken to break up the settlement, as it is not intended to form a new Colony. The "Kangaroo" will be despatched to the northward either this afternoon or to-morrow morning with the intelligence; so that by the end of April we may expect to see the whole of the officers and people in Sydney. Our original announcement is thus fulfilled to the letter.—*Sydney Herald*, March 30.

What consequences, to the extension of trade and commerce, may follow an apparently insignificant movement on the part of the British ministry in taking possession of the small island of Labuan, time only can fully develop. The best possible results are anticipated by parties fully capable of correctly reasoning on the multitudinous affairs in which the step is involved. The ultimate effects of the measure are anticipated to be magnificent. Labuan is not intended for a mere naval depot—a place of convenient rendezvous for steamers visiting those seas, or an ordinary British Colony, designed merely to raise produce for British consumption; the island is intended as the key to a vast archipelago, and to serve as the centre of a trade in British manufactures, bearing some comparison with that of India itself. With all the teeming population of China, and the freedom of access which our shipping have secured to certain of the ports of that empire, the prospects at Labuan, are, to the interests of commerce, far less ambiguous.

The commercial emporium already virtually established in Labuan, gives the British merchant a convenient access to

forty millions of consumers for their goods. These people have traded already in British manufactures, as to have imbibed a taste for the produce of our looms; it only requires time, a more direct and less hazardous communication with them, to induce their millions to enter into an unrestricted trade for every species of produce of British industry. Every part of the Archipelago is either naturally supplied, or capable of supplying, valuable exports, which find a ready sale in both European and Chinese markets. The ability of the people at once to purchase British goods, is, therefore, not a matter of doubt; and a desire for useful and ornamental articles of manufacture, will be a strong inducement to urge them to extraordinary exertion to procure increasing supplies. Whilst a taste has been created amongst the inhabitants of those numerous islands for British manufactured goods, the piratical condition of the coasts and seas to be traversed, has curtailed, to a great extent the trade which otherwise would have been considerably extended, by their means. A commercial emporium established at Labuan, under British authority, is designed to remedy this evil, and to remove one of the greatest impediments which exists to successful enterprise, in that quarter of the globe. The prospects held out to the extension of British trade amongst these islands, show that when a necessity exists, what an abundance of means and appliances can be brought to bear, under British intelligence and prowess, for the revival of trade and the enlargement of the circle of commercial traffic. These numerous islands, lying between India and New Holland, appear now, as if by magic, converted into marts for the sale of our manufactures; and only because the increased power of productiveness in Great Britain require fresh markets to be made for the sale of their goods, therefore, these islands are destined to serve the purpose required of them. When new outlets to British industry are required, such outlets are never wanting, at the moment required. The wool growers of Australia, we should think, may dismiss their fears, as to the want of a market for the purchase of their produce. While our fatherland holds up its head among the nations; while British enterprise and intrepidity

continue of the same character—which, under a superior power, has raised the nation to its present high position; and while the Australians continue in commercial union with the parent state, fear will be out of place, as to our flocks being over productive, and our fleeces too heavy for either the manufacturers at home to purchase, or their customers to consume. The wants of the world are increasing in a corresponding ratio with the means of supply; and it would seem that in the natural course of things, the necessary effect of supply is to create demand.

Gulong is to be recommended as a free warehousing port, and the "Thomas Lowry" sailed on the 7th, with stores, &c., for the Colony. Owing to the present scarcity of labour, the squatters in the neighbourhood of Moreton Bay had petitioned for the resumption of transportation.

Mr. Assistant Surveyor Burnett started at daylight this morning, on his expedition to the northern country, to trace down the Boyne River. The drays left the settlement some days previous. Mr. Warner, A.S., will follow almost immediately; he has been detained some days in consequence of his being unable to procure men for the service on which he is engaged, namely, to define the boundary of the Colony of New South Wales and Northern Australia. As the weather is favourable, with the prospect of its continuing so, there is every probability, judging from the well known energy and perseverance of Mr. Burnett, that the present expedition will be successful.—*Moreton Bay Courier*, March 6.

The expedition for the purpose of following down the Victoria River had started. Only eight individuals, including Mr. Kennedy, the officer in charge; Mr. J. J. Martyr, Assistant Surveyor; and Mr. Wall, the naturalist, are engaged in this expedition, and of which number Mr. Kennedy and two of the men were with the Surveyor General on his late travels. The equipment consists of two drays, three tents, and twenty horses. It is not proposed that any cattle for food should accompany the expedition, but that the explorers should rely for animal nutriment on their guns and fishing-nets, and a plentiful supply of flour, tea, sugar, and tobacco, sufficient to last the period the party will be out, which is

calculated at fourteen months, being procured from the last station beyond the boundaries of location. The route, purposed to be taken by the expedition, is the Great Northern Road, and across the Wollombi, by the mountain passes, to Liverpool Plains, and which it is opined will be for many months to come the most serious portion of the journey, as, when once fairly on the route for the Victoria, the road, for about a thousand miles, to the point where Sir Thomas turned, is said to be one along which a carriage might with perfect security be driven.—*Sydney Herald*, March 10.

*Dr. Leichardt*.—A private letter from a gentleman attached to Dr. Leichardt's present expedition, mentions that in the event of the successful accomplishment of the journey to the Swan, Dr. L. contemplates attempting to pass overland from the Swan River to South Australia, an undertaking which, though it seems in point of magnitude to fall infinitely short of either of the gallant Dr.'s former efforts, is nevertheless of considerable hazard, and if attended with the successful result of opening up a practicable land passage will be productive of immense benefit, not only to South Australia and the Swan River settlement, but also to the whole of the other Australian Colonies.—*M. Argus*.

*The Boundary Line*.—The boundary line between Port Phillip and South Australia is to be settled at last. A gentleman named Wade attached to the Government Survey Department has arrived per "Christina," from Sydney, under whose superintendence a party of eight will proceed to the rendezvous on the Glenelg River, where they will be met by a similar party on behalf of the North Australian Government. Both parties will there unite and proceed to strike the line necessary for the police purposes of Colonies. The line will run due north and south.—*Port Phillip Gazette*.

*Postal Communication*.—In January last, the Acting Superintendent, Capt. Lonsdale, wrote to the South Australian Government, relative to the expedition of the arrangements requisite for the completion of the overland mail between Melbourne and Adelaide. We believe no answer has been received as yet; but there is every reason to believe that Major Robe will see the necessity that exists for the acceleration of a measure which is ex-

tremely desirable. This morning, Mr. Greene, our indefatigable mail contractor, starts for Mount Gambier, to ascertain the state of affairs there. He estimates that the overland route between the two southern cities can be accomplished in about eleven days, which may be ultimately reduced to the average of a week. Four days are taken between Melbourne and Mount Gambier, and seven days will be required between that place and Adelaide.

**WESTERN AUSTRALIA**.—We have no later dates from this Colony, nor from South Australia, or Van Diemen's Land.

Our Singapore, Pinang, and Hong Kong papers have not come to hand by this mail, as the steamer from China did not reach Point de Galle in time for the homeward packet. A report, however, is current from Ceylon that disturbances had taken place with the Chinese, who had again assailed our merchants at Canton; our position there, as we stated in our last, is a critical one, and the Chinese certainly bear us no affection.

#### NEW ZEALAND.

We have Nelson papers to the 13th February, inclusive, but we do not find any intelligence of importance in them, nor in those from Wellington to the 27th March.

The disputed question of the land claims at Wainui is said to be finally disposed of. £5,000 is to be paid to the natives claiming the land (belonging chiefly to the Agalitoa tribe) and ample reserves are made for their use, and they have expressed themselves perfectly satisfied. By this arrangement the Government obtain all the land from Wainui to the Tararau, comprised in the New Zealand Company's limits. During the discussions which ensued on the sale of the land the natives evinced considerable anxiety for the release of Rauperaha, but they were given distinctly to understand that for the present he would not be liberated.

There had been a severe drought throughout the whole of the Northern Island.

#### MAURITIUS.

We have intelligence overland to the 1st June.

The Government has promulgated fresh regulations for the distribution of newly-arrived emigrants. Her Majesty's

ship "Rattlesnake" left Port Louis on a surveying expedition to the north coast of Australia and New Guinea.

The planters and Sir Wm. Gomm are as much at issue as ever. The Governor pointing to the increase in the production of sugar as an infallible sign of prosperity, the planters, on the other hand, stating that this has been the result of improved machinery and manures, introduced at vast expense. They declare that the labourers alone are prosperous.

The quantity of sugar imported to the 30th April was 124,476,117 lbs.

#### CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

We have advices from Cape-town to the 19th of June, and from the frontier to the early part of the same month. It was said that the refractory chief Pato, had intimated his intention of shortly visiting Captain McLean, at King Williams's-town, for the purpose of "surrendering himself to the clemency of the British Government." Sir George Berkeley, the commander of the forces, had arrived at Graham's-town, from Caffreland. The investigation of claims for compensation—a matter of prominent interest to parties suffering from the incursions of the Aborigines—had commenced in earnest, under the superintendence of the Commissioners appointed to carry out the inquiry. The letters from the neighbourhood of Waterloo-bay, and Buffalo-mouth, do not speak favourably of the peaceable disposition of

the Caffres, who were still appropriating to their own uses the property and cattle of the farmers. A piece of plate was about to be presented by the Colonists to Colonel Somerset.

Her Majesty's ship, "Nimrod," left Algoa-bay on the 25th May, for Natal and Mauritius, with troops.

The Governor and the Lieutenant-General, had arrived at Graham's-town, where it is supposed that they would remain for the winter. A General Order had been issued, offering to the officers and privates of the 27th, 90th, and first battalion 91st regiment, whose term of service had expired, allotments of lands on the frontiers, on condition of their doing military service in cases of emergency. The object is to gather a disciplined body of men on our frontier, available in cases of difficulty, and as a protection to our frontier districts; an excellent object, and to accomplish which, it appears that the most proper course has been adopted.

#### CANADA.

Our Montreal papers are to the 29th July.

The Legislative session was brought to a close on the 28th July.

A long and interesting despatch from Lord Grey, on the subject of Emigration to the Province, is published in the Montreal papers, which we shall refer to more especially hereafter.

## BIRTH, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

### BIRTHS.

At Toronto, on the 5th July, the lady of the Rev. Dr. Ryerson, of a son and heir.

On the 2nd July, at Mailmaison, Ceylon, the lady of C. Elliott, Esq., of a son.

### MARRIED.

At Niagara, Canada, on the 25th June, John B. Geale, Esq., Lieut. Royal Canadian Rifles, to Miss Cox, daughter of Capt. Cox, of that town.

At Cornwall, Canada, on the 3rd July, at the residence of the bride's father, Henry Jones Ruttan, Esq., of Cobourg, to Margaret, only daughter of James Pringle, Esq., of Cornwall.

At St. John's, Newfoundland, on the 22nd July, Robert W. Lilly, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, acting Chief Clerk of the Supreme Court of that island, son of the late Hon. Judge Lilly, to Eliza Dalrymple, only daughter of the Rev. Richard Williams, Chairman of the Newfoundland Wesleyan Missionary Society.

At Halifax, N.S., on the 1st July, H. C. D. Twining, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, to Mary Martha, eldest daughter of the late Hon. C. R. Fairbanks, Master of the Rolls, &c.

At Colombo, Ceylon, on the 15th June, C. W. Clayton East, Esq., 15th Regiment, to Lillie Campbell, youngest daughter of the late Capt. M'Lachlan, 57th Regiment.

On the 13th June, at the Cathedral of St. John's, Antigua, Burnhorn Musgrave, Esq., eldest son of Anthony Musgrave, Esq., M.D., Treasurer of the Island, to Frances Albany, youngest daughter of the late John A. Wood, Esq.

### DIED.

At Beechmount, township of March, Canada West, the lady of Capt. John B. Monk, late of the 97th Regiment, in the 49th year of her age, leaving a numerous and afflicted family to bewail her loss.