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ENGLAND'S COLONIAL EMPIRE:

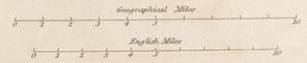
MAURITIUS

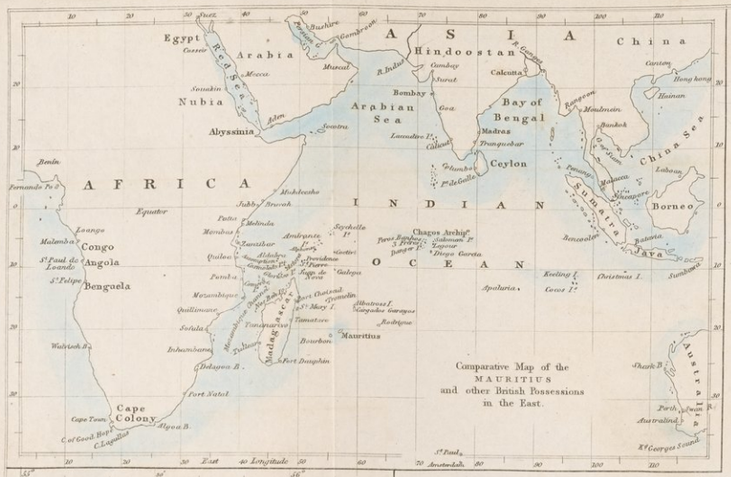
AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

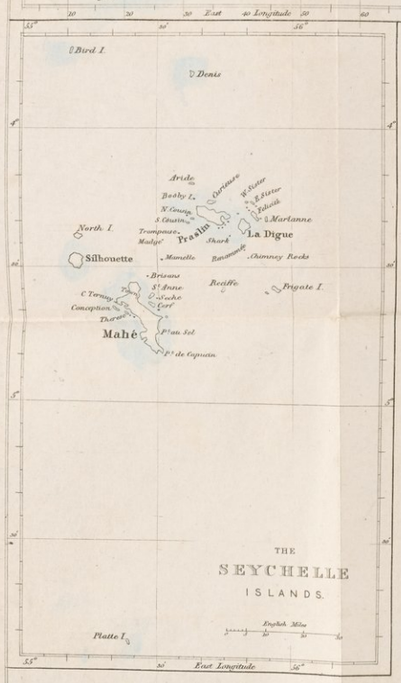
THE MAURITIUS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

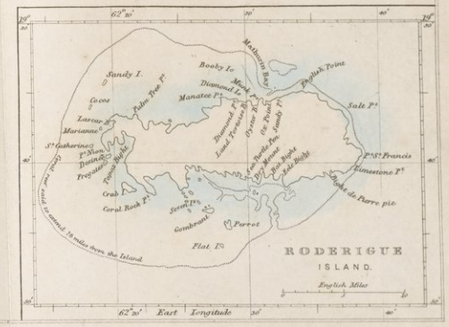
BY

W. HUGHES.









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AN HISTORICAL,

POLITICAL AND STATISTICAL ACCOUNT

OF

MAURITIUS

AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

BY

CHARLES PRIDHAM, Esq., B.A., F.R.G.S.

Ἦν δὲ λέγωσιν ὡς οὐ δίκαιον τοὺς σφετέρους ἀποίκους ὑμᾶς, δέχεσθαι. μαθέτωσαν, ὡς πᾶσα ἀποικία εὖ μὲν πάσχουσα τιμᾷ τὴν μητροπόλιν, ἀδικουμένη δὲ ἀλλοτριοῦται· οὐ γὰρ ἐπὶ τῷ δοῦλοι, ἀλλ' ἐπὶ τῷ ὁμοῖοι τοῖς λειπομένοις εἶναι ἐκπέμπονται.

Speech of the Corcyrean Ambassadors at Athens. Thucydides, Book I. Cap. 34.

"Policy foresees that if the Isle of France were abandoned, the English would drive all foreign nations out of the seas of Asia, and would possess themselves of all the riches of those vast countries."—*Abbé Raynal*, 1787.

LONDON:
T. AND W. BOONE, 29, NEW BOND STREET.
MDCCCXLIX.

ADVERTISEMENT.

In presenting to the Public the first volume of a work, the execution of which, in conformity with the comprehensive plan developed in this volume, has been deemed by many impracticable, the Author cannot fail to be influenced by sentiments of a mingled character—by a feeling of diffidence when he reflects on his unfitness, at so early an age, for a task that may perchance be rightly deemed gigantic —by a partial satisfaction, accompanied by hope, when he considers that he may have to some extent succeeded in an object which others of far greater ability, but perhaps less patience, have successively abandoned—by a sentiment, he trusts, he may say akin to patriotism, in that he should be the instrument, however humble, of describing the components of an empire that, considered in any point of view, is as unrivalled for its grandeur and fame as for the spirit of wisdom and justice by which its affairs are administered.

With these preliminary remarks, he may proceed to observe that difficulties such as are involved in the undertaking a work of this description, and, what is more, in a description of this particular colony, arise not alone from the circumstance that the greater part of the materials are derived from foreign sources, and conveyed in foreign languages; not alone from the severity of the tests to which every thing must needs be subjected; nor the unexampled

drudgery which a writer, alone and unassisted, must make up his mind to undergo; nor even from the multifarious nature of the subjects of which he has to treat, but from the supreme ignorance and indifference that (with some brilliant exceptions) pervades every class of our people, with reference to our colonial possessions, not excluding those to whom one might naturally look for assistance in a work of this description; and in the case of Mauritius, by an equal if not greater indifference on the part of the colonists to every thing transpiring in Great Britain, save as it may affect their own interests, causes whose combined effect has been to render the dominant country and her colony a sort of "*terra ignota*" to each other. If however the writer cannot supply this twofold want, he trusts that a knowledge in the Mauritius that its wants are understood, and its people appreciated, will tend to bring about the interchange of those kindly feelings on many accounts so desirable.

To those who, from taste, or from a connexion with the island, may have formed an acquaintance with the portions of its history that have already appeared, it may be interesting to know that I have succeeded in tracing a consistent account of the history of the colony during its occupation by the Dutch, for which the local annalists have hitherto failed in accounting. It will be superfluous to speak of the connexion and consistency which I have been enabled to give to the history in general; for an illustration of this I must be content to refer the reader to the various parts of the work itself, and will simply confine myself to stating, that every part of the work has been subjected to the sternest possible ordeal, I have endeavoured, to the best of my ability, to add to its interest by furnishing a description

of the indigenous productions of the island, which I hope will prove acceptable to at least a portion of my readers. I felt convinced from the first that the matter contained in a work of this description (unsatisfactory as it may be to the writer) should be of a miscellaneous character to satisfy the varied class of readers who may resort to it for information. I am fully sensible of having entered too diffusely into the narrative of the naval combats that took place off the coasts of the Isle of France during the wars of the revolution. For that irregularity I could plead much by way of apology. I will, however, content myself with specifying three of the many reasons which induced me to deviate to so great a degree from the brevity of my original plan. First, the protracted and diversified fortune of the struggle. Secondly, the attempts made by French writers (and among them the Baron Dupin) to extract from the issue of some of those,—which I acknowledge to have been well fought engagements,—a result eulogistic to French courage, and questionable to British honour. Thirdly, the excessive prolixity of the French despatches, from which, with the view of obtaining that best of all possible evidence, self-conviction, I have selected my account of the engagements, making use of the British despatches only where necessary to supply a vacuum in the narrative.

I should be oblivious of favours and assistance, for which I on the contrary cannot be sufficiently grateful, did I fail to offer my most cordial thanks to Messrs. Blyth and Brothers for their kind and generous aid; to Mr. Ebsworth, of the firm of Reid, Irving and Co.; to Messrs. Barclay Brothers; and to Messrs. Robinson and Davy. To R. G. Porter, Esq., of the Board of Trade, I am indebted

for the latest statistical information. To the Right Rev. Dr. Collier, Bishop of Ruspa, I also beg to express my obligations for information on the state of education, &c., in the colony. And here I must cut short my acknowledgements by thanking the Public Departments and private individuals, from whom I have received more or less assistance, not forgetting Mr. Hughes, the Geographer, my coadjutor in the illustrative department of the work.

An impression of the seal of the Mauritius is contained on the cover of the volume.

Canning Place, Kensington,
July 22*nd*, 1846.

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ERRATA.

Page 6, line 11, *for* astronomers *read* astronomer.
— 12, — 3 from bottom, *for* Rodolpho *read* Rodolphe.
— 20, — 26, *for* charge *read* change.
— 25, — 16, insert comma after captured and delete after part.
— 47, — 22, *for* eter *read* etez.
— 48, — 8, *for* Bouganville *read* Bougainville.
— 58, — 6, *for* Dupressis *read* Duplessis.
7, omit comma after Vigoreux and place it after Governor.
— 64, — 6, *for* Tronquemale *read* Trinquemale.
— 72, — 7, *for* then *read* than.
24, *for* from the Isle of France *read* for the Isle of France.
— 103, — 14, *for* langredge *read* langridge.
— 111, — 19, *for* Dornal *read* Dornald.
— 125, — 2, *for* who *read* now.
— 127, — 4 from bottom, *for* pent *read* peut.
— 135, — 4 from bottom, *for* body politic *read* political body.
— 142, — 8, *for* attended *read* unattended.
18 from bottom, *for* Tanavarino *read* Tanarive.
— 144, — 18 from bottom, *read* Zelée with an accent.
— 146, — 19, add " on it" after letters.
— 160, — 5 omit semicolon.
— 176, — 8 from bottom, *for* prejudiced *read* prejudicial.
— 185, — 5 from bottom, *for* the *read* this.
15 from bottom, add " and."
— 190, — 20 from bottom, read Mahébourg with an accent.
— 191, — 20, *for* Grand, &c. *read* Grande Rivière.
— 194, — 20, *for* swo *read* two.
— 202, — 19, *for* fool's attendant *read* fools attendant.
— 203, — 12, *for* Riviére *read* Rivière, and *passim*.
for Magnan *read* Mayan.
17 *for* Latinier *read* Latanier.
— 204, — 10, *for* Vaconas *read* Vacouas.
14, *for* Frambroisier *read* Framboisier,
— 209, — 2, *for* Magnan *read* Mayan.
— 220, — 16, *for* with *read* by.
— 222, — 5, omit comma after interior.
— 235, — 11, *for* mere *read* mire.
— 255, — 12, *for* them *read* it.
— 257, — 20, omit as.
— 269, — 3 from bottom, *read* Première with an accent.
— 289, — 11, from bottom, *read* suppléant with an accent.
— 293, — 3 from bottom, insert commas after plaintain and pineapple.
— 295, — 15; 346, lines 12 and 17 fr. bottom, insert accent under François.
— 298, — 8; 308, line 4 from bottom, *for* Manevilette *read* Mannevilette.
— 310, — 20, insert comma after island.
— 320, — 11 from bottom, insert comma after concessions.
3 from bottom, *for* desirable *read* derivable.
— 331, — 7 from bottom, *for* require *read* requires.
— 335, — 21 from bottom, *for* " who" *read* " when".
— 338, — 3 from bottom, *for* pirate *read* pirates.
— 339, — 3 insert comma after slaver.
— 365, — 29, *for* Angree *read* Angrec.
— 366, — 13, *for* velonté *read* velouté.
— 367, — 1 from bottom, *for* Th. μεμαι κυλον *read* Th. μεμαι & κυλον.

THE MAURITIUS,

&c. &c.

CHAPTER I.

Area—Geographical Position—Early Discovery.

In one of the most centrical positions in the Indian Ocean, with a proud elevation above the coral reefs, by which, save where a few channels or openings intervene, it is on every side surrounded, lies the far-famed island of Mauritius.

Its geographical position, according to the observations of the Abbé de la Caille and M. D'Après Mannevilette, supported by Major Rennell, is between the parallels of 19° 58′ and 20° 33′ south latitude (computing the former from Cap Malheureux, its northernmost extreme, and the latter from Port de la Savane, its extreme point to the south), and 57° 17′ and 57° 46′ east longitude from Greenwich, while its points and anchorages are thus given by Lieutenant Raper, R.N. :—Cooper's Island, the middle anchoring ground in Port Louis, 20° 9′ 4″ south latitude, and 57° 31′ 7″ east longitude; Queen's Battery, Grand Port, 20° 22′ 6″ south latitude, and 57° 45′ 7″ east longitude; Round Isle, off the north-east coast, 19° 51′ south latitude, and 57° 50′ east longitude; Port de la Savane, its southern extreme, 20° 33′ south latitude, and 57° 27′ 30″ east longitude.

The form of the island would be completely elliptical, were it not that the coast trends to a considerable extent in a north-westerly direction — a circumstance which has probably had its effect in giving rise to the erroneous opinion entertained by some of the earlier navigators of its circular shape.

The Abbé de la Caille and M. Gentil estimate its greatest diameter from north to south at 31,890 French toises, equal to 63,780 English

yards, or 44 miles; and from east to west at 22,124 French toises, equal to 44,248 English yards, or 32 miles. Its surface contains 432,680 acres, at the rate of 100 rods to an acre, and 24 feet to a rod, or 676 square miles, while its circumference is estimated at 90,661 fathoms, equal to 45 French or 35 marine leagues.

The distance of the island in relation to the undermentioned countries, with all of which it is either politically or commercially connected, is as follows:—From Great Britain, viâ Aden, Suez, and Marseilles, about 9,500 miles; from Algoa Bay, Cape of Good Hope, 2,327 miles; from Aden, 2,700; from Madras, 2,800; Western Australia, 3,780; Madagascar, 480; Bourbon, 120; Seychelles, 1,050. The Mauritius is divided into nine quartiers, or cantons, called Port Louis, Pamplemousses, Rivière du Rempart, Flacq, Grand Port, Savane, Rivière Noïre, Plains Wilhems, and Moka.

The original discovery of Madagascar and its twin sisters, Mauritius and Bourbon, is a point involved in the deepest obscurity. A question, therefore, arises in the outset, whether, even if we had it in our power, it would be politic to lift up an emblazoned torch of discovery, which must depend for its subsistence on a sometimes forcible, yet frequently disconnected train of circumstances, and to dazzle the eyes with a vision, which, though it might possess an adventitious glare, would vanish with the hypothesis in which it was enshrined; or prudent to aim at an *ex cathedrâ* decision on a subject, which, more maturely investigated, might fail in producing so conclusive a result. Influenced by this salutary caution, we shall therefore studiously abstain from hazarding an *opinion* on a question so enveloped in the mists of ages, and content ourselves with a simple *review* of the discoveries supposed to have been made by the ancients of the south and south-eastern parts of the great African continent.

Premising, then, the discovery of this part of Africa to have been gradually effected, (an undertaking more likely to have had commercial enterprise for its object than any passion for scientific discovery) and the circumnavigation of the whole continent to have been accomplished at a later period, (a fact which has been related by Herodotus,[1] and repeated by later historians) to what other nation can we look for the completion of so useful a purpose, than to the Phœnicians, who, at an early period, engrossed the lucrative commerce of the Eastern seas, and were in the possession of stations, from whence this commerce would have its distribution? Accordingly, the convoy furnished to Solomon[2] at Ezion-Geber,[3] with a view to his expedition to Ophir, proceeded from this power. The navi-

[1] Herodotus, Melpomene, c. 42.

[2] 1 Kings ix. and x. 2 Chron. viii.

[3] Ezion-Geber, or Gaber, is at the head of what is now called the Gulf of Akaba, an estuary of the Red Sea, then called the Gulf of Œlana, or Eloth. See Bruce, &c.

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gators employed by Necho, king of Egypt, in the circumnavigation of the African continent,[4] were Phœnicians. A similar undertaking subsequently made, though we are uninformed as to its eventual success, was engaged in by Carthage,[5] a Phœnician colony; nor can the case of Sataspes,[6] a vassal of Persia, be deemed an exception to their peculiar claims, who, having committed a crime to which the punishment of death was attached, obtained a reprieve in consequence of a proposition successfully made to Xerxes by his mother, that he should immediately depart on a voyage of discovery round the Libyan peninsula, in the place of suffering the usual penalty of the law. But although he cruised by its coasts for a considerable distance, and brought back a glowing account of the discovery of new regions, the inhabitants of which fled at his approach, and averred that he was only prevented by a combination of unfortunate circumstances from a further prosecution of his original intention, yet that monarch did not deem it expedient to permit of any deviation from his previous sentence. He was therefore executed, and with his death terminated all Persian discovery of this continent.

On a later occasion we arrive at a clearer notion of the progress of Phœnician discovery during the period before adverted to, from the representations related by Pliny to have been made to Alexander by Clitarchus, historian to his expedition, who in all probability derived his information through no other medium than the merchant princes of Tyre.

It will be remembered, that we have hitherto been without any specific relation of the separate parts of the coast of the African Continent, any geographical phenomena, or other peculiarities, a knowledge of which would have materially assisted us in coming to a conclusion as to the reality of such discovery. No account has been given of the supposed origin of the inhabitants, of their manners or customs, so likely to arrest the attention of the explorer into new regions; and the inquirer is precluded, in the absence of general data, from placing implicit confidence on a tradition, to which such obscurity is attached. Pliny, however, puts into the mouth of Clitarchus a representation of the African islands; some of their products are distinctly narrated, and an opinion of their origin is advanced.

[4] It is proposed under the colonies of Western Africa to proceed with the hypothesis of the circumnavigation of Africa by the Egyptians from the point to which it has been already sustained in the Appendix, namely, the Bay of St. Thomas, and after tracing its course along the western coast, where it would have the greatest difficulties to encounter, to follow it on its return to Egypt through the Mediterranean. In like manner will be noticed the voyage of Sataspes, the Periplus of Hanno, the trading voyages of the Carthaginians, and the missions of Eudoxus, Polybius, &c. &c.

[5] Melpomene, c. 43.

[6] Naturally (says a modern writer) Sataspes selected a Phœnician crew as the king's best nautical subjects; naturally they preferred the false route by the west, and failed.

The reader will find no great difficulty then, in believing that the representations of the historian on a subject replete with so intense an interest to a monarch, who wept that he had no more worlds to conquer, were not likely to be received with indifference, even amidst the dangers of a campaign; or, if transmitted in writing, would be suffered to grow musty amid the regal portfolio. Accordingly, Thirlwall relates that Alexander, on his return to Susa, was generally believed to have entertained the project, not only of circumnavigating Arabia to the head of the Red Sea, but afterwards the whole African continent; then, entering the Mediterranean by the Pillars of Hercules, to spread the terror of his arms along its western shores.

These reports were not without a visible foundation. On his return from India, he prepared to equip a fleet on the Euphrates, and sent orders also to Phœnicia for vessels to be built there for the purpose. But the excesses that had taken place during his absence on the Indian expedition, and his anxiety to consolidate his own dynasty and the Macedonian power, as well as to give a cohesion to the discordant materials of which his empire was composed, effectually suspended this important undertaking, which was destined to be wholly abandoned on his premature death.

At no long interval, an unexpected competitor with the Phœnicians, who had hitherto nearly engrossed the commerce of these seas, appeared in the Egyptian nation, under the Ptolemies. Those monarchs saw at a glance the advantageous position of their adopted country for the trade of the three continents, its adaptation to the growth of corn, then, as ever, the basis of commercial exchange, and lost no time in entering upon a trade, by which a share of the surplus of Egyptian produce should be bartered for the commodities of tropical Africa, which, carried on Egyptian bottoms, might be exchanged for the productions and manufactures of more temperate Europe. Yet was Phœnicia, though it had suffered a temporary prostration by the Macedonian expedition, far from overwhelmed, and, so late as the period of Roman supremacy, was still actively engaged in the commerce of the east.

The progress of African discovery has now been cursorily traced through a period of upwards of two thousand years; it will be right, therefore, to pause for a moment, and reflect on the evident improbability that two of the most enterprising nations of antiquity (premising their descent into an equivalent degree of latitude,) should fail of having their attention directed to an island of such vast extent as Madagascar, which is separated from the main land only by a narrow channel, or, having once beheld it, would be content to neglect its rich and varied productions[7] for those of the less favored continent. Assuming, then, that such a discovery was made by the ancients, (although we are still left in ignorance of the time when, and by

[7] Clitarchus, verò, Alexandro regi renuntiatam adeò divitem, ut equos incolæ talentis auri permutarent.—Plin. lib. vi., c. 36.

whom it was effected) we shall find but little difficulty in concluding that the eastern coast, from its superior natural advantages, would be selected for the exportation of the largest part of its productions, while no inordinate stretch of the imagination will be required to enable us to conceive the possibility of one or more of a marine thus employed, tossed by the storms so prevalent in this quarter of the globe, seeking a temporary shelter in the neighbouring isles of Bourbon and the Mauritius.

The next mention made of an acquaintance with the geographical position of these islands occurs in the works of the elder Pliny—a man indefatigable in his researches on these subjects, and unwearied in collecting the latest geographical information. After citing Ephorus, Eudoxus, and Timosthenes, in confirmation of the fact, "insulas toto eo mari (*i. e.* Indico) complures esse,"[1] he selects from the first of the three a statement almost approaching to a description: "Ephorus auctor est, à Rubro mari navigantes, in eam (*i. e.* Cernen) non posse propter ardores ultrà quasdam columnas (ita appellantur parvæ insulæ) provehi." His own statement is as follows:—"Contrà sinum Persicum Cerné nominatur insula, adversa Æthiopiæ, cujus neque magnitudo neque intervallum à continente constat, Ethiopias tantùm populos habere proditur." Ptolemy of Alexandria, who flourished during the reigns of Adrian and Antoninus, and was thus in possession of the double advantage of the description already given by the naturalist as a guide to further inquiries, as well as a nearer residence to the islands in question, for the most part coincides[2] with Pliny as regards their position and products, though he distinguishes by the new name of "Μενουθίας" the "Cerné"[3] of the latter.

[1] Plin. Nat. Hist., lib. vi. c. 36.

[2] Ptolemy, lib. iv. c. 9.

[3] M. Lemaire observes on Cerné:—"Jactatur, inquit, necdum tamen fidem obtinuit. Satis obscuri nominis, et incerti situs hanc fuisse tum insulam innuit: nec velle se famæ, quæ de eâ forte percrebuit, sponsorem fieri. Sic Eustathius ad Dionysii vers. 219, discrepantes refert auctorum de ejus situ sententias; Lycophrone, ad ortum solis: Polybio ad occasum: ad meridiem Dionysio statuente. Nullus dubito quin hæc Pliniana, sive Lycrophroniana, sive Dionysiana Cerné sit ea quam St. Laurentia vocitamus, sive Madagascar Μενουθίας eadem Ptolemæi."—Lib. iv. c. 9.

Adversa Æthiopiæ—"Plane (says the same writer) hic situs congruit cum hodiernâ Madagascar: nam extimo promontorio exortum solis æstivum respicit, sinumque Persicum occidentali: latere Æthiopiæ inferiori ab exortu solis æstivo ad hibernum occasum prætenditur."

Parvæ insulæ—"Les isles de Mascaregnhas sic enim Lusitani vocant, sex septemve insulas exiguas quæ Madagascari ad septentrionem objacent sub lineâ fere æquinoctiali."

These islands now called "the Seychelles" were discovered by the Portuguese, and their position is correctly laid down in all the charts of the Indian Ocean which appeared in the 17th century. This fact has, however, been unaccountably overlooked by every English writer. These islands must not be confounded with the single island named at first Mascaregnhas but afterwards Bourbon.

But a short time had elapsed after the Portuguese discovery of these islands, an indistinct notion of which had always floated before the minds of the geographers of the middle ages, when the attention of the learned world was directed to a solution of the question by various authors, each of whom was anxious to outstrip his antagonist in setting forward points of similarity, which, from the nature of circumstances, could never have really existed. It was reserved, however, for a learned disciple of Loyola, who flourished in the 17th century, to explain satisfactorily the account of Clitarchus, and to identify the Cerné of Pliny with the Μενουθίας of the Egyptian astronomers.

In the earlier part of the middle ages, at a time when they were endeavouring to raise the superstructure of commerce over the acquisitions made by arms, the Arabians are supposed to have become acquainted with Madagascar, if not the two smaller islands, and from them Marco Polo is said to have derived his knowledge of the former, which they called "Sarandib."

II. It was in the first year of Governor Almeida in India, that the islands of Madagascar, Cerné, and Mascaregnhas, with some others, were discovered by the Portuguese. Don Laurentio d'Almeida, son of the Viceroy, Don Pedro Mascaregnhas, Tristan d'Acungha (from whom a small island N.W. of the Cape has derived its name), Diego Fernando Suarez, and Ruy Pereira, &c., were the first who have become immortalized by the discovery of these, and other places in the Indian seas. In 1505, Ruy Pereira discovered Madagascar, to which he gave the name of St. Laurentia. The south and south-west parts of the coast were visited by Fernando Suarez and Tristan d'Acungha, and other officers were subsequently sent by Albuquerque to make a more elaborate investigation. Don Pedro Mascaregnhas in the same year discovered Mauritius and Bourbon, and, in return for his services, was appointed Governor of Cochin.

To the Mauritius he gave the name of Cerné, probably from a notion that that isle (instead of Madagascar, of whose existence he was then perhaps ignorant) had been so called by Pliny. To Bourbon he gave his own name—Mascaregnhas. Although the Portuguese retained these islands during the greater part of the sixteenth century, they never appear to have viewed them in any other light than as mere stations of refreshment, weakly yielding to the belief that the secret of their route to the Indies would be permanently preserved, and that they would suffer no molestation from the powers of Europe in their monopoly of Indian commerce. Indeed, during the whole period of their supremacy, they had never a force strong enough to have opposed the progress of an hostile fleet, had one chanced to have arrived, except in the Red Sea; and the advantages possessed by the Mauritius, as a naval station and a key

to their connexion with India, so far as their actions can be considered as a test, remained wholly unregarded. All they did, on their early discovery, was to land some deer, goats, monkeys, and pigs, some of whose progeny may still be found in the wild and uncultivated parts of the island. Nor was the neglect under which Cerné and Mascaregnhas had pined under Portuguese rule, destined to be removed by their union with Spain, which, oppressed by the weight of its empire in Europe, the Americas, East and West Indies, would naturally overlook two islands, whose importance and value could only be determined in the approaching struggle of European nations for supremacy in the seas of the east.

III. It was in the course of an expedition to Bantam that the discovery of the isles of Cerné[1] and Mascaregnhas was effected by the Dutch. The importance of this object had occasioned the equipment of a larger fleet than had ever appeared in these seas. A pilot, named Guzerate Abdul, had been brought from Java expressly for the purpose of insuring the greater safety of so large a fleet. On the 1st of May 1598, the expedition set sail from the Texel, under the command of Admiral James Cornelius Van Neck, in the flagship the *Mauritius* (the *Amsterdam* was commanded by Vice-Admiral Wybrand Van Warwick, who at a later period so highly distinguished himself), with six other vessels, which took their names from the six provinces of Holland, Zealand, Gueldres, Utrecht, Friesland, and Overyssel. The voyage was attended with the usual casualties, until, in the month of September, the fleet being dispersed in a violent storm off the Cape of Good Hope, five of the vessels were driven towards Madagascar. They doubled Cape St. Julien, and on the 17th came in sight of the island of Cerné. Ignorant of everything save its name, the Dutch dispatched two boats to reconnoitre the shore, one of which discovered the south-east port, which, sheltered from the winds, and having an excellent bottom, appeared capable of containing fifty ships. The Vice-Admiral, not knowing that the island was uninhabited, was compelled, owing to the sickly state of his crew, to adopt the most cautious measures. On the 20th, he ordered a large party to land and take up a position, by which a surprise might be prevented. On several successive days he ordered out boats to examine other parts of the island, to discover if it was inhabited.

These parties met with an astonishing variety of birds, which surprised them by their tameness, and their submitting to be taken by the hand. They discovered also many streams of water, which flowed from the mountains, and the island on every side appeared to promise abundance of refreshments, among which the cocoa was remarkable for the variety of its species and the luxuriance of its

[1] "Cerné" is said by the French to signify "Cygne," whence Mauritius was also called "Cygnea."

growth. On the shore was found about three hundred weight of wax, impressed with Greek characters, a hanging stage, the spar of a capstan, and a large yard, evidently the relics of some unfortunate vessel that had been buried in the waves. No trace of human beings was, however, discernible. After having ordered public thanks to be returned to Almighty God for having conducted them to so fair and secure a harbour, the Vice-Admiral named the island "Mauritius," after Count Maurice of Nassau, then Stadtholder of Holland, and the port "Warwick Haven," after himself.

Before his departure, the Dutch commander ordered a board to be fastened to a tree, on which were sculptured the arms of Holland, Zealand, and Amsterdam, with the inscription in the Portuguese language of "Christianos reformandos." A piece of ground was also enclosed with stakes, of about 400 fathoms in circumference, which was planted and sown with vegetables and seeds, to make an experiment on the soil. Some hens, in addition to those which were found wild about the island, were left for the sustenance of the crews of any vessel which might hereafter put in, and an entry was made in their journals, that this isle might be as advantageously visited by outward, as St. Helena by homeward-bound ships. But though many of their countrymen reaped the benefit of the advice thus offered, it was nearly forty years before a permanent settlement was effected.

Vice-Admiral Wybrand Van Warwick, on his return to Holland in the October of the next year, finding his ship in a leaky state, again put in at the Mauritius, which was still undisturbed, and abounded in cattle, fish, fowl, and fruits, so that, having landed such of the crew as were sick, they speedily recovered, and, having supplied themselves with all kinds of refreshment, they continued their voyage.

Although the Dutch must be considered masters of the Mauritius at this period, they had no establishment there in 1601; nor, though discovered, was Mascaregnhas ever occupied by them, principally on the ground of its affording no secure harbour.

These facts are stated by Hermansen, who, in passing close to the former island, determined to avail himself of its recent discovery for the supply of his ship with water and provisions, both of which had begun to fail. He accordingly dispatched a tender, called the *Young Pigeon*, to procure the necessaries in question. That vessel, however, did not return for a month, when it had a Frenchman on board, whom it brought from the island, and who gave the following account of himself.

He had embarked in England, some years before, on board a vessel, which set sail in company with two others on a voyage to the East Indies. One of these vessels was lost off the Cape of Good Hope, and the crews of the two that remained were so greatly reduced that it was deemed expedient to burn one of the ships, and

to consolidate the two crews on board the survivor; still, however, they were the prey of continuing sickness, till a sufficient number of seamen did not remain to work the vessel, and she went ashore on the coast of Pulo Timor, near Malacca, where all the crew died except himself, four Englishmen, and two negroes. These forlorn people took possession of an Indian junk, with the extraordinary design of returning to England. The commencement of their voyage was successful; but the negroes, alarmed at being so far removed from their own country, conspired together to get possession of the vessel. Their design being discovered, they threw themselves into the sea from despair, or the fear of the punishment with which they were threatened. After being tossed about by successive storms, they were at length driven to the Mauritius, but, unfortunately, at the moment when harmony was essential, not only to their comfort, but almost existence, these wretched men disagreed among themselves before they had been eight days on the island. The Frenchman wished to remain there, until it should please Heaven to send them relief, while the English insisted on putting out to sea, and determined to continue their voyage. They did not hesitate to do this, and the Frenchman was equally determined, so his comrades hoisted their little sail, and left him to the solitude of this uninhabited spot. There he had passed nearly two years, sustaining himself with the fruit of the date tree, and the flesh of turtles. In everything that related to corporeal strength he was as vigorous as any seaman on board the Dutch ships; but his understanding appeared to have sustained a shock, which seemed still more evident, when he was pressed with a succession of questions, or when a conversation was continued beyond a certain period. His clothes had by degrees fallen from him, and he approached a state of complete nakedness.

In 1606, Admiral Matclief, having put in at the Mauritius for the refreshment of his crew, met with Admiral Van der Nagen, on his return from Bantam. About this period the Dutch had resolved on the exclusion of all other nations from their colonial possessions, and had entered on that career of commercial monopoly, which, wherever practicable, they have since retained with the most inflexible obstinacy. It might have been therefore expected, that, with a view to the maintenance of such a policy, they would have secured themselves in the possession of an island, which, by the natural advantages of its position, might, in the hands of a rival, have rendered nugatory some of the most cherished objects of their ambition.

But to return to the narrative :—

The first foreign navigator, who touched at Mauritius after its discovery by the Dutch, was Captain Castleton, the commander of an English vessel called the *Pearl*. His visit took place in 1613, when the island was yet uninhabited, in which state it probably con-

tinued, till it became the resort of the pirates who so infested the Indian Ocean at this period, and was the centre from whence their operations were conducted. No doubt the losses incurred at the hands of these freebooters, and the lowering aspect of European affairs, succeeded in at length rousing the attention of the Dutch to an object, which they had hitherto so culpably neglected.

Accordingly, Captain Abel Jansen Tasman was ordered to make a survey of the island on his homeward passage from Batavia, who found it fifty German miles more to the east, than had been laid down in the charts.

CHAPTER II.

Establishments formed by the Dutch—Their temporary relinquishment—Re-occupation and final abandonment—Possession taken by the French—Administrations of MM. de Nyon, Dumas, Maupin and La Bourdonnais.

In 1644 followed the settlement of the island. A fort, called Frederick Henry, with magazines, was constructed at the south-east port, and Vander Mester was selected to fill the office of governor. It appears that the Dutch anticipated, only by a few days, a French settlement sent out from Dieppe; nor was this the only attempt made by France at this period; another vessel, from Rouen, bent on a similar undertaking, arriving at Mauritius, (or as they called it, St. Apollonia[1]) found the Dutch settled at their new establishment, and engaged in the construction of other means of defence. The next day, in sailing to the north-west of the island, they found an English vessel of 500 tons, and carrying twenty-eight pieces of cannon, the crew of which offered to assist them in dispossessing the Dutch,—a favour which they thought proper to decline.

The Dutch at length resolved upon an earnest application to the development of the resources of the island. Their plans, well conceived, might have met with a proportionate success, had they been more scrupulous in the employment of the means at their disposal. Vander Mester, conceiving that the new colony was cramped in its

[1] I am only able to account for the presence of the mythical isle of St. Apollonia in the charts of the seventeeth century, by the supposition, that as Cerné, or Mauritius, was at first placed many leagues too much east, and Rodriguez, on the contrary, too far to the west, some of the earlier navigators (supposed to be French) in their voyage to India, have, without landing, fallen into one of the numerous confusions and errors so common at this period, and most of all, in this ocean. An analogous error will be discovered under the Dependencies. M. Flacourt was the first to designate (in his description of Madagascar) the supposed isle to be "feinte et chimerique."

energies by the deficiency of labour, sent a vessel to Madagascar (where the French had just commenced a settlement) to purchase a number of slaves to supply the want.

Pronis, the French governor, a man of low origin, and already guilty of many malversations, acceded to their request, and kidnapped a number of Malegaches, who had settled under French protection. This breach of faith, which proved the ruin of both colonies, was considerably enhanced in the eyes of the natives, on their discovery that sixteen women, of the race of the Lohariths, (a superior caste) were among the captives.

The Malegaches, excited to the highest pitch of indignation, could no longer confide in a nation guilty of such enormities. It is almost needless to relate the issue: suffice it to say, their ignominious expulsion eventually followed; and it was not long before the bones of Frenchmen bleached the shores of the country, where they had so lately met with a generous, but too confiding hospitality. Nor did a greater degree of success attend the Dutch in the execution of a design so nefariously conceived. No sooner had the captives landed at Mauritius, than a large party fled to the woods, and the others, stung by the harsh treatment they received from their new masters, soon followed the example. Thus was raised up a body of men called Marons (i. e. outlaws, or banditti) who, urged by the pangs of hunger, or the desire of revenge, were ever on the watch to insult and attack their oppressors.

But a storm was impending from an unexpected quarter, which it required all the fortitude of the Dutch to encounter, and the presence of their best fortune, to avert. The English East India Company, who were then in possession of a few inconsiderable settlements in Hindostan, finding the minds of the native princes were becoming gradually alienated from their interests, succeeded in tracing its origin to Dutch intrigue.

Powerless for good or ill themselves, they eagerly supported the proposal made to Charles the First, by the merchants of London, that a squadron should be sent to the East Indies for the revival of English commerce in that part of the globe, without prejudice, however, to their own peculiar rights and privileges. The expedition, which was furthered by Prince Rupert with a view to the ultimate colonization of Madagascar, consisted of six large ships, freighted with a rich cargo to be bartered for the commodities of the East. The latter object succeeded beyond the most sanguine expectations of its projectors; but the Dutch, who dreaded nothing so much as the revival of English commerce, finding them dispersed, on their return to Europe, captured two of the largest ships, with their crews and cargoes.

A subsequent expedition, which met with a similar success in trade, was, in like manner, defeated by this determined nation, who carried one of the largest ships in triumph to the Mauritius.

Such was the fate of an expedition, which, had it met with a success anything like proportionate to the expectations formed of it, would have effectually turned the balance of power in the East.

The Dutch settlers, harassed on one side by the Marons, and checked by the parsimony of their East India Company on the other, became disgusted with an island which, had it not been for their own indolence, might have produced all the necessaries of life. Added to this, ebony (one of the woods which were natural to the place,) obtained a highly remunerative price in the European market, while indigo and tobacco could have been raised with considerable advantage. At length, then, they retired, leaving the Marons in undisputed possession of the island.

These banditti, however, fearing the return of their *ci-devant* masters, at a moment when they might be unprepared for resistance, still kept their mountain fastnesses, from whence sallying forth upon the crews of ships visiting the island for refreshment, they frequently surprised and cut them off.

The constant occurrence of such disasters required the application of an immediate remedy. In consequence, a resolution was passed by the general council at Batavia in favour of the resettlement of the island,[1] in the belief, that the adoption of precautionary measures would remove the objections formerly raised against the colony. Three establishments were immediately formed. One on the north-west; another on the south-east side; and a third upon the Rivière Noire. M. La Mocius was appointed governor. State criminals from Batavia and the other Dutch colonies were now banished to the Mauritius, and a stone fort with magazines and warehouses for the convenience of shipping reconstructed.

But the old seeds of mischief still remained; new ones had also arisen. On the one hand, the Marons remained masters of the interior, which, by compelling the Dutch to confine their settlements to the sea coast, led to an illicit trade, in which some of the convicts by their skill and experience profitably participated. Added to this, the governor received an inadequate remuneration with but few perquisites; he was seldom, therefore, enabled to resist temptation. English, French, and Portuguese ships met during this period with mysterious accidents, which *obliged* them to put into Mauritius to refit; though there was not so much as a dock or yard for the purpose, but there were magazines into which goods could be conveyed with singular dexterity.

M. La Mocius was succeeded by M. Rodolpho Deodate, a native of Geneva, but a man of indifferent character, who, under false pretences, imprisoned and maltreated for four years a party of Hugonot

[1] Another reason is given by a French writer for the adoption of this step by the Dutch, which certainly accords with their character, viz., their desire to prevent the other nations of Europe from felling the ebony trees, with which this island abounded.

refugees (who had escaped to the Mauritius in an open boat from Rodriguez) though they had been previously recommended to his protection by the Dutch government.

About the commencement of the eighteenth century, the fort, having been burnt by the slaves, and the directors of the Dutch East India Company beginning to have a thorough knowledge of the piratical transactions before-mentioned, they resolved upon a second withdrawal of the colony, which, being brought off, and with the troops conveyed to the Cape of Good Hope, Dutch connexion with the Mauritius was altogether terminated.

II.—It was during the period, which intervened between the first retirement and the subsequent reoccupation of the Mauritius by the Dutch, that Captain De la Haye, commanding a squadron of five ships, which were sent by the king of France with a view to the inspection of the French possessions in the East, finding the island thus deserted, took a nominal possession in behalf of the French East India Company. The design of forming a settlement, if it were so early conceived by the French, would soon, however, be frustrated by the reoccupation of the Dutch.

The final abandonment of the island by the latter did not long, however, escape the observation of the French settled at Bourbon, who, from their connexion with the establishments of their nation in the East, had increased their numbers to a degree, which, if the existing means of subsistence were considered, appeared to render a re-emigration highly desirable at no distant period. Possession was accordingly taken in the name of the king of France, by William Du Fresne, captain of the ship *Chasseur*, by orders of M. de Beauvilliers, governor of Bourbon, on the 20th of September, 1715, and the name of the island was changed from "Mauritius" to "Ile de France." The foundation of an establishment was also laid at Port Nord-Ouest (Port Louis) and an authentic act, declarative of possession, being drawn up, was deposited amongst the archives of Bourbon. Du Fresne, nevertheless, departed without leaving any one to maintain his recent acquisition, and it was not, until the end of 1721, that any permanent settlement was effected.

On the 23d of September in that year, Le Chevalier Jean Baptiste Garnier de Fougerai, commander of the *Triton* of St. Malo, retook possession in the name of the French East India Company, to whom the island had been ceded by the king, and fixed a pole, decorated with a white flag, to which was attached the following inscription.[1] M. de Nyon, a knight of the order of St. Louis, and a lieutenant-colonel of infantry, was selected by M. de Beauvilliers in the October

[1] Vivat Ludovicus XV. Rex Galliarum et Navaræ in æternum vivat. Hanc ipse insulam suis dictionibus voluit adjungi, illamque jure vindicatam in posterum insulam francicam nuncupari. In gratiam honoremque tanti principis istud vexillum niveum extulit Joannes Baptiste Garnier de Fougeray, dux navis

of 1721 to fill the office of governor. He did not arrive, however, till the January of the next year, and commenced his administration by the establishment of a provincial council, composed of six of the principal inhabitants.

This assembly was, nevertheless, dependent on the superior council of Bourbon, and the governor was compelled to take his oath of office in the latter, before presuming to sit in his own. M. de Nyon, following the example of the Dutch, fixed the seat of government at Port Sud Est, (Grand Port.) The only events, which marked his government, were an attempt on sedition by a part of the troops, which was soon appeased, and the penalties which were attached to "Marronage" increased in its violence by the addition of the slaves recently imported to the Marons, who had been left by the Dutch. A lively apprehension was also excited by the scarcity of provisions, which the infant colony was long dependent for on the neighbouring islands, and it was not until the arrival of Mahé de la Bourdonnais that the removal of this obstruction on its progress was accomplished.

M. Dumas was appointed on the 26th of August, 1726, Governor-General of the isles of France and Bourbon. As he selected the latter place for his residence, the resources of the isle of France still remained undeveloped. Indeed the company long scrupled to retain an island, which, as affairs were conducted, brought nothing but expense with it, and had more than once determined to leave it to the Marons, as the Dutch had done before; but some event or other had always occurred to hinder the design. M. Dumas was succeeded in October 1728, by M. de Maupin, who, like his predecessor, was governor of both islands.

The most violent hurricane, as yet experienced by the colonists, happened during his administration, and its horrors were in no degree diminished by an unexpected irruption of the Marons, who expelled the inhabitants from the quartier of Flacq.

With a view to the re-establishment of order in a colony, which had so early become a scene of licentiousness, confusion, and anarchy, as well as to provide means of defence for the isles of France and Bourbon (a measure which the threatening posture of European affairs appeared to render far from premature) Mahé de la Bourdonnais was appointed governor of both islands in November 1734, and in June 1735 he arrived at his destination.

To give some idea of the condition, in which he found the isles of

dictæ "*Le Triton*" ex urbe San Maclovio oriundus, in minori Britanniâ, cum ipse huc appulerit, die 23d Septembris, eodem anno in Galliam navigaturus. Deo favente anchoras solvit.

Near this place he set up a cross on a side of which was inscribed his own name with the arms of France, and on another the following lines.

"Lilia fixa crucis capiti mirare sacratæ,
Ne stupeas; jubet hic Gallia stare crucem.
Anno 1721.

France and Bourbon upon his arrival, it may be observed, that the latter was first peopled by a party of Frenchmen, who were saved from the massacre at Fort Dauphin in Madagascar; by mechanics and other labourers from the different vessels, which touched there, or by those of the European pirates, who had made their submission, and met with the royal clemency. The former was not inhabited till between the years 1712—1720, and even then the number of persons settled there was so few, that, as has been seen before, the East India Company hesitated whether to retain or abandon it. At length, however, a distinct vocation was assigned to each colony. To Bourbon the culture of coffee. To the isle of France the supply of refreshments to ships employed in the trade to India and China. To say the truth, however, the grounds of the perplexity in which the Company had been involved with regard to its retention, were by no means trifling. To place the emigrants in a condition to form a settlement in accordance with the views before mentioned, it appeared to that body, that the most natural and effectual means would be, to furnish the former, both white and coloured, with arms, implements of husbandry, live and dead stock, slaves, &c., to be repaid out of the fruits of their industry. Such, however, was the injudicious manner in which these advances were made to all kinds of people, without the least inquiry, whether they had the industry, or talents requisite to ensure success, and so little was the discernment that had been practised in other respects, that the Company had as yet derived none of the expected advantages from the undertaking, and the inhabitants, instead of being able to maintain themselves, continued a dead weight on their hands. In short, until the arrival of M. de la Bourdonnais, the isle of France had proved more burdensome than profitable to the Company, who, in the place of finding provisions prepared for the ships as they had designed, were compelled to send an additional quantity from France for the purpose, besides having to provide for the support of the settlers themselves. Weary at last of a proceeding so fruitless, and indignant at the indolence of the inhabitants, they gave precise orders to La Bourdonnais, not only to withhold any further advances, but to demand the restitution of those already made. It is easy to conceive, how the communication of these indispensable orders alienated the minds of the people; but this was not the only difficulty, with which the new governor had to contend in the execution of his commission.

The administration of justice, of the police, and of commerce, as well as of the military and marine departments, was a source of still more painful concern. He found justice administered by two councils, one of which was dependent on the other. The superior council was at Bourbon, until the arrival of M. de la Bourdonnais. Previous to his departure from France, he had pointed out to the ministry the expediency of declaring these bodies independent of

each other, and that, as superior, over which the Governor presided. To this end his Majesty issued letters patent in 1735, to confer an equal power on the council of the isle of France, in whatever concerned the criminal law, and assigned the superiority with regard to the general administration to that of the island, in which the Governor resided. As may be supposed, these alterations were attended with many beneficial results, and it was open to M. de la Bourdonnais to boast, that during the eleven years of his government, there was but one law-suit in the isle of France, inasmuch as he had accommodated all disputes by his own amiable interposition. It might be added, that that discord, by which the harmony of the two councils had, before his arrival, been so often interrupted, no longer prevailed.

The administration of the police was the more difficult, as the Marons carried disorder and desolation into the very heart of the island. La Bourdonnais discovered the secret of destroying them by arming blacks against blacks, and forming a marechaussée of the negroes of Madagascar, who at length cleared the island of the greater part of these marauders. Of commerce there was no trace when he arrived. He began by planting the sugar-cane,[1] and establishing manufactures of cotton and indigo. A vent was found for these productions at Surat, Mocha, Ormuz, and Europe.

Agriculture had also experienced its share of the general neglect, and such was the indolence of the inhabitants, that they had not availed themselves of any of the advantages with which the surrounding soil was ready to reward their labour. M. de la Bourdonnais, however, gave a new turn to their character, and by gradually weaning them from their slothful habits, awakened a spirit of enterprize and activity. He began by inducing them to cultivate all the grains necessary for the subsistence of the two islands, in order that they might be no longer subject to that state of dearth which had returned so frequently as to have become periodical, in which the settlers had been compelled to take to hunting and fishing, or to search for the native fruits and roots of the country for a precarious subsistence. He succeeded, after some difficulty, in naturalizing the manioc which he procured from St. Jago and the Brazils. For this purpose, he was compelled to employ all his authority to enforce the cultivation of the plant, though it was to prove an unfailing resource against that scarcity which they had so often suffered. He published an ordinance, by which it was compulsory on every land-owner to plant 500 feet of ground with manioc for every slave in his possession. Nevertheless, the larger proportion attached to their old customs, and disposed to resist authority, spared no pains in discrediting this branch of agri-

[1] The sugar works which he constructed produced in 1750 a clear annual revenue of 60,000 livres to the East India Company.

culture. Sensible at length of the folly of their former prejudices, they at last experienced and acknowledged the utility of this plant, which at once secured the islands from the possibility of famine, so that when their harvests were laid waste by hurricanes or destroyed by grasshoppers, (a frequent event) the inhabitants found in the manioc the means of repairing the disaster. Besides this root, which grew in such abundance, the island produced five or six hundred muids of corn, while the quantity raised before the arrival of La Bourdonnais was too trifling to be mentioned.

To provide for the subsistence of the inhabitants by the culture of the soil, did not alone suffice. It was incumbent on him to place the islands themselves in a state of security, for he found them without magazines, fortifications, barracks, or hospitals; nor were there workmen or marines, and the other troops had been drawn off to Pondicherry. To attain these objects, La Bourdonnais spared no exertions, but they were attended with such difficulties and mortifications, as well from the actual state of things as the character of the inhabitants, that he had frequently determined on renouncing the enterprise. Upon leaving France, he had been assured that he would find several French engineers at the Isles, not one of whom was there on his arrival. It is true they had been conveyed there, but continual disputes had arisen between them and the members of the council, which had dispersed them all. Part had returned to France to bear their complaints in person; the others had retired elsewhere. The whole corps of engineers was, therefore, reduced to a mulatto, who superintended the construction of a small windmill in an unfinished state. There was also a magazine which had been commenced four years before, but was still roofless, and a small house for the chief engineer.

Of such a character were all the public buildings that he found in the Isle of France, nor could the Isle of Bourbon boast of any superior degree of preparation: as he was then without engineer or architect, he was under the necessity of assuming both those characters! Fortunately he was well acquainted with mathematics and the science of fortification, so that his plans met the approval of the Company. For their execution he collected a large number of negroes, and putting them as apprentices to a few master workmen he had brought out with him, he assigned to each his different occupation; but they required his constant inspection; and the difficulties he had to contend with in compelling the one to afford instruction, and the other to receive it, it is almost impossible to conceive. At length, however, he found himself in possession of a sufficient number of workmen to carry his designs into execution. The obstacles, indeed, terminated not here. To collect a sufficient quantity of materials was a work of no less difficulty. Trees had to be felled in the woods, stone to be hewn from the quarry, and carts to be constructed to convey them to their destination; added

to this, there was not a road along which they could pass, or a horse to draw them. Roads had therefore to be formed, and bullocks broken in for the yoke; and all these various labours had to be accomplished by a people, whose indolence resisted all exertion, and whose minds were as insensible to the general good, as to the public interest.

M. de la Bourdonnais, however, contrived, by a judicious mixture of gentleness and severity, as different characters and occasions required, to keep them to their labours, and to erect a series of public works, whose beauty and utility were soon universally acknowledged; nor was the Company the only recipient of the fruits of these labours; the colony itself derived infinite advantages from the establishment of roads, the construction of carts, and, more than all, from the emulation excited by this great man in the breasts of all the inhabitants, so that the largest proportion of materials for building, such as wood, lime, &c., were reduced to a fifth part of their former value.

The only hospital in the Isle of France was a large hut, formed of stakes and palisadoes, which could not contain more than thirty beds. He ordered the erection of a large and commodious one, in which from four to five hundred beds might be conveniently placed.

The administration of the hospitals was a source of incessant trouble and vexation to La Bourdonnais; he was compelled to change the superintendence five or six times, and subjected himself for a whole year to a daily visit of inspection; yet, in spite of the most assiduous care, he could not altogether preserve them from the bad effects of idleness, incapacity, and knavery. The ingratitude of the invalids was no less a cause of annoyance. He had been compelled during the first years of his administration, partly from the uncultivated state of the country, partly from a partial failure in the supplies from France, to retrench their allowance of food in proportion to the moderate quantity of provisions. Indeed, he had been at times compelled to order the substitution of game and turtle (no great hardship!) for a more regular diet. Their complaints were loud against this forced economy, as if it had been in his power to treat them better. But ingratitude is a prominent evil in all such communities; every private person was selfish, employed himself at the present merely with a view to the supply of his actual necessities; was careless of the future, and still more so of the necessities of others!

It would be needless to enter into a detail of all the various buildings and works erected by M. de la Bourdonnais in the course of his government; suffice it to observe, that they consisted not only of magazines, arsenals, batteries, fortifications, hospitals, and barracks for the officers and soldiers, but also of mills, quays, offices, shops, canals, and aqueducts. Previous to his arrival, water (an article so indispensable both for existence and cleanliness) had to be

sought at the distance of a league from the town, and when discovered, the means of conveying a quantity sufficient for the supply of the inhabitants were so inadequate, that there was a constant deficiency for the most necessary uses. The aqueduct, which he constructed, was nearly six thousand yards in length! It conveyed fresh water to the port and hospitals, and was an accommodation attended with inexpressible advantages both to the inhabitants and the ships, which touched there for refreshment.

The indefatigable activity and spirit displayed by the Governor-general in the establishment and support of the insular marine, were no less worthy of commendation. Before his arrival, the settlers were in such a state of ignorance of everything that related to ship-building, that they were unable to calk or careen a vessel, and were not even qualified to undertake the slightest repairs of those of their fishing boats, which had become foul or decayed, but were compelled to have recourse to the carpenters of ships, which put into their harbours. La Bourdonnais was grieved to behold the reign of indolence and ignorance in an isle, which, from its centrical position, might have become a second Batavia; or, to say the least, an entrepôt for the commerce of that part of the Indian Ocean, as well as a port of refuge for the vessels of the Company. Eager to profit by these, its natural maritime advantages, he encouraged those of the inhabitants who were unemployed, to support his patriotic exertions, and by their united efforts, so large a quantity of wood had been cut down, conveyed from the woods, and put into a preparatory form, that, after the expiration of two years, he found himself in the possession of materials sufficient to commence his naval works. He commenced by the construction of pontoons for careening and loading ships, as well as lighters to carry water, and for the transport of materials and other daily service; provided barges, large boats, and shallops. He next turned his attention to the repair of coasters, and European vessels, and to effect this, provided wet and dry docks, and built sawing mills. In 1737, he undertook to build a ship of war, which proved an excellent vessel, and in the following year launched two other vessels, besides putting a ship of 500 tons on the stocks. In a word, from his persevering spirit and indefatigable skill, a vessel could be built or refitted with as much facility at Port Louis as at any other port in the east. For this purpose he invented two machines, by one of which ships and transports were hauled up for repair in a most expeditious manner; by the other, a volume of water was brought up in a moment of pressing need, which could be let down again and refilled in less than an hour.

Previous to the arrival of La Bourdonnais, the captains of the Company's vessels had assumed a degree of independence and wilfulness, which by no means accorded with the good order and advantage of the service; nor could they endure with any other feeling than impatience the commands of a man, who had so lately been their

comrade. The cross of St. Louis, with which he had been honoured by the King, no less inspired their jealousy. The service was in danger of suffering from these discontents, and it required all the firmness and conciliatory spirit of La Bourdonnais to restore good order and discipline into its different departments. But though the officers of the Company did not venture to oppose themselves openly to regulations enforced with so much temper and moderation, and could not with any degree of justice refuse their assent to the necessity of maintaining subordination, they continued to entertain a secret resentment against him. In the first years of his government, from the natural state of the island, and afterwards from an unfortunate mortality among the horned cattle, he had been unable to furnish the Company's ships with their full complement of meat; but this was a misfortune of the times, and not the fault of La Bourdonnais. The captains, however, though they appeared perfectly satisfied with his endeavours, and left him with every external mark of their approbation of his conduct, had no sooner arrived in France than they presented their complaints against him for neglect in furnishing them with the necessary supplies for their homeward voyage, and alleged the death of some of the crews as the result of starvation.

Another subject of complaint also arose from the same quarter, of which he was by no means the cause. He had orders from the Minister to send home from the island the old ships' crews, and to replace them by those he might find on board the vessels of the Company. This charge did not fail to excite the discontent of the officers, who complained that the new men were much inferior to the old, although they knew that he had only acted up to his instructions, and had winked at the retention of the latter, wherever he could. He had also been ordered to furnish vessels leaving the Isle of France for Europe with water and provisions for five months, and, to prevent accidents, to retain the superfluous rigging and stores. When it became his duty to take an account of these provisions, and to retain the excess, they invariably declared he had taken too much, and left too little.

La Bourdonnais, however, found to his satisfaction that there were some just and reasonable enough to appreciate the purity of his motives. It will be easily conceived, however, that the former assigned him the chief agency in all the misfortunes that had occurred during the voyage, and as there were none to contradict it, it cost but little trouble to give him the worst reputation in the world; nor was he long in perceiving that these representations had been received in all quarters with a degree of credit, which they did not deserve.

In 1740, the death of his wife rendered it necessary for him to return to France; and on his arrival there, he observed an unaccountable prejudice prevailed against him in the minds of all, which

he soon found reason to ascribe to the calumnies of his secret enemies. The ministry, Company, public—in short, the whole world, were ready to regard him with an evil eye. In this unmerited situation, he made his complaints to Cardinal Fleury; stated in the strongest terms his fidelity to the king, and his zeal for the Company, and demanded permission to offer his justification against the secret charges, which had been made against him, declaring at the same time that he did not possess a foot of ground in the island; had decided but one law suit all the time he had been governor, and that he was ready to render a hundred fold to any one, who could prove that he had received the least injury from him. The cardinal, so remarkable for the ordinary urbanity of his deportment, suddenly assumed an acrimonious expression of countenance, and with a mysterious air replied, that the complaints against him had been loud and abundant; and upon a demand of the names of the complainants, excused a disclosure on the plea of secrecy being necessary to justice.

La Bourdonnais next demanded a list and specification of the charges, which met with a similar refusal. "You have been," said he, "too severe, and have not treated the inhabitants and officers with sufficient respect." "In what?" enquired he. The minister would not, however, enter into the facts, and without any further explanation, contented himself with insinuating that the Company had reason to be displeased with his administration. He demanded, to no purpose, of what it complained? in what he had betrayed or neglected its interest? These questions remained without any answer. Upon renewing his application to the Count de Maurepas, and M. Orry, comptroller-general, he was informed that the accusations against him should undergo a scrupulous examination. At this critical moment a libellous publication appeared, containing a long detail of charges, which reflected on his character as Governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon. But conscious of his own rectitude, and despising the author of these calumnies, a man whose life and writings had been more than once branded by justice, he let them, grave as they were, pass without any particular answer. At length, however, he deemed it necessary to check the course of public prejudice, which ran with so much violence against him, and he completely effected it by the justification which he published. At the same time, orders were issued by the Ministry to the Directors of the East India Company, which enjoined on them, that as they were now in full possession of the facts of the case, as stated by both parties, and were able to judge of the truth or falsehood of the several heads of accusation, they should verify them by a report. This having been done, the Directors handed in the following statement: "The Company, after most exact inquiries and strict examination, find and testify that the whole of the imputations against M. de la Bourdonnais are false."

The public now no longer hesitated in restoring him to their good

opinion, and the ministry expressed their approbation of his conduct. Satisfied on this side, he found new subjects of chagrin and discontent from the secret and implacable enemies, which he now discovered in the Company. This circumstance very sensibly affected him. He perceived to what ceaseless vexations enemies of this sort had it in their power to expose him in a post such as he filled, which would inevitably happen when among those to whom he was accountable for the execution of his office, and who possessed the power to command the details, there were several, who, from motives of secret passion or interest, were strongly disposed to trouble the repose and disconcert the measures of his government. He therefore resolved on tendering his resignation; but the ministers, to whom he communicated the resolution, would not permit him to execute it.

The wish to retire, however, still occupied his mind, when the armaments on the point of equipment in the several ports of France seemed to announce an approaching rupture with Great Britain and Holland. A consideration of these movements induced him to communicate his views on the state of affairs to the most sensible of his friends, and he concluded by suggesting a plan of arming a number of ships to attack the commerce of those countries. So sanguine were the expectations formed by them of his project, and so forcibly had he pointed out the advantages which might be reaped by that nation, which should find itself prepared to enter on the war simultaneously with its declaration, that in order to facilitate its completion, they at once proposed to advance five millions of livres, on condition that he would take a tenth share in the armament, and assume the command in his own person. The proposition was no sooner made, than he hastened to Fontainbleau to unfold his plan of operations to the Count de Maurepas, and to demand his permission to carry it into immediate execution. "If you agree with my project," said he, "I will equip six men-of-war and two frigates, and set sail for the east. If war should be declared, I shall be ready to make an instant attack on the commerce of Great Britain, and to undertake expeditions against her colonies. I engage to apply whatever money I may take to the service of the Company, which will render it unnecessary for them to send any specie out of the kingdom; and in order that I may not interfere with their privileges, I will dispose of the merchandise, of which I may possess myself in the South Seas. After its sale, I will return to China, and having changed the money, which I have received for gold, I will touch at the Isles of France and Bourbon, in order to supply the Company with whatever funds it may require, and bring the rest to France. If, however, war should not be declared, while I am in the Indies, I can freight my vessel for the benefit of the Company; so that, whatever may be the event, this armament can in no respect injure its privileges, while it is equally evident, that, if war is

declared, I shall have it in my power to strike one of the grandest blows that have ever been inflicted on the seas.

The minister was fully sensible of the importance of his plan, and gave it a general approval; but, at the same time, reminded him that, in the opinion of the Company, the war ought not to extend to the east of the Cape of Good Hope, since it was the interest and custom of both companies to observe a neutrality between each other in the Indies. La Bourdonnais showed him that their expectation was ill-founded, and that they could not count on any neutrality in the east, unless the belligerent powers entered into such a convention on their own account, as the vessels of the king sailing in those seas had little respect to the particular treaty of the Company. The Count desired him to draw up a statement containing a detail of his views, and to transmit it for the inspection of Cardinal Fleury and M. Orry. This project was highly approved of by the ministry, and the comptroller-general imparted to him the orders of the king, which were, that he should be furnished by the Government with two frigates, that the East India Company would add four vessels, and enjoined him to execute for the Company the plan he had formed for himself, with the assurance that the king would take care of him and his fortune. But, flattered as La Bourdonnais may be supposed to have been by these marks of confidence and favour, he could not help reminding the minister that, as the project had been kept secret from the Company, he was well aware of the opposition he should find from that body, who, piqued at not having been consulted in an undertaking, in which they were to be so materially concerned, would manifest their discontent by delaying the operations of the armament; but the minister regarded not his disquietude, and persisted in recommending secrecy, with the promise to advance him to a distinguished rank in the naval service of France, and thereby secure him from vexatious proceedings on the part of the Company. This, however, did not wholly satisfy his mind, or remove his apprehensions, and the event proved that his conjectures were not ill-founded. But things had advanced too far, and M. Orry would hear none of his remonstrances, but ordered him to obey the commands of his Sovereign.

La Bourdonnais left France on the 5th of April 1741, with the general commission of captain of a frigate, and the particular commission to command the *Mars*, one of the king's ships of war. The fleet consisted of the *Fleury*, of 56; the *Brilliant* and *L'Amiable*, of 50 each; *La Renommée*, of 28; and *La Parfait*, of 16. The *Mars*, of 60, and *Griffin*, of 50 guns, which had at first formed a part of the squadron, were subsequently countermanded. Arriving at the Isle of France in August, he learned that the Mahrattas menaced Pondicherry, and, to prevent a siege of that place, that the garrisons of the Isles of France and Bourbon had

already been transported thither. He proceeded, therefore, to Pondicherry, after having put his islands in a state of security.

To fulfil this object, he began by ordering the construction of a fortress to defend Port Louis, and directed that the inhabitants should be trained on Sundays to the use of arms, marked out their posts and places of rendezvous, with orders that they should repair thither on the first alarm, and directed that the first vessel which might arrive should be sent to Goa to fetch provisions. After having issued these prudent and necessary regulations, he departed for Bourbon on the same errand, and from thence set sail for Pondicherry, which he found in a state of tranquillity. Returning to the Isle of France in 1742, where his presence was essentially necessary, he waited there for the intelligence of war between Great Britain and France, which he had daily expected, and prepared himself for immediate action. Meanwhile he received the high approbation of the king, and the eulogium of the ministry, and letters of nobility were directed to be sent to him.

As his ships arrived at the islands, he ordered them to be successively refitted, so that he had his fleet ready by May in a better state of equipment, than when it left France. The hostilities at Mahé being terminated, and the islands cultivated, fortified, and secured from insult, he waited with impatience for the information that war was declared, to engage in an expedition against the enemies of France in India, which had been the original object of his armament.

In the interval, he determined on employing the vessels of the Company in transporting its merchandise from Mahé, Pondicherry, and Bengal, to the Isle of France. By this means the voyage home was much shortened to the merchant vessels, and, while he furthered the objects of the Company by forwarding their cargoes, he kept the vessels of the squadron at the Isle of France in a state of preparation for the first *coup de main*. This project would have met with the success it deserved, had not the Company, at the very moment his hopes of acquiring fame for himself and rendering service to the country had reached the highest pitch, frustrated all by the issue of precise orders to disarm his squadron; and to quench all representations on his part, he was expressly commanded to send every ship home, and let them return empty, rather than keep one of them at the islands. In this unexpected and mortifying conjuncture, he had no alternative but obedience.

In 1744, M. de la Bourdonnais, finding himself obliged to remain in his government, and that he must no longer indulge himself in military speculations, gave himself up entirely to economical arrangements. He employed himself in establishing sugar, indigo, and cotton works, which he began at his own expense, and which answered his utmost expectations. In these occupations he was actively engaged, when, on the 11th of September 1744, he received

intelligence from Europe, that war had been declared between France and England. This intelligence at once revived all his apprehensions, especially as it was accompanied by a letter from the Company, containing precise orders, by which, on the ground of the alleged neutrality, he was forbidden from engaging in any act of hostility towards the English. At the same time, it was permitted him to defend himself in case hostilities should be commenced by the English, and he was authorized to retain one or two vessels for the purpose; but what could he be expected to do with one or two merchant vessels against the fleet dispatched to the East by Great Britain? Moreover, as the Company had thought proper to recall the squadron, which had left France under his command, the incalculable advantage of arriving first with an armed force in India was lost; all the projects of La Bourdonnais were overturned; the superiority of the English was decided; and all his fears, that the French would be defeated and captured in every part, confirmed. It will doubtless be asked, What was the foundation of the Company's security, and why the minister permitted the retirement of that body to hinder the execution of a project so safe and advantageous to the state as that of M. de la Bourdonnais? But an answer cannot be found! The Company, regardless of all the asseverations of that officer, and all past examples, persisted in firmly believing that a perfect neutrality would be observed by England in the East. Under this persuasion, it considered the presence of its vessels to be useless, and as an impediment to the neutrality, which it had flattered itself would be observed. This unfortunate prejudice, so vainly combatted by all the reasoning of M. de la Bourdonnais, while it brought nothing but loss to France, saved millions for her enemies. As for La Bourdonnais himself, when reflecting on the weighty arguments he had employed during his residence at Paris, in attempting to undeceive their minds in this important point, he could never persuade himself of their real motives in ordering the return of the squadron. At this mortifying conjuncture, all he could do was to send off a vessel on the instant to M. Dupleix, governor of Pondicherry, with the intelligence that war was declared, and despatched a vessel to France with letters for the Company, in which he repeated his efforts to undeceive them in their hopes of a neutrality. In the interim, until he should receive fresh orders, he was compelled to yield the command of these seas to the enemy. He did not, however, suffer any vessel to go out of port; he redoubled his efforts to finish a ship, which he had laid on the stocks, and completely repaired the *Bourbon*, that had arrived from the Indies.

In obedience to the orders of the Company, M. Dupleix confidently entered upon a negotiation with the governments of the English East India Company's settlements for the conclusion of a treaty of neutrality. The council of Madras, however, would not,

(as M. de la Bourdonnais had foreseen) render itself responsible for the conduct of his Britannic Majesty's ships of war, either as regarded those at present, or that might hereafter cruise in those seas, but solely for its own: for it could not be imagined, that the captains of English men-of-war, finding an opportunity of capture, would respect the mutual conventions, made between the two companies without the consent of their sovereigns, and contrary to the general regulations of warfare, which make no exceptions in favour of vessels armed by trading companies. To prove that the French risked every thing, and that the English hazarded nothing in these treaties, it will be sufficient to observe, that the latter had ships of war, as well as merchantmen, in the Indian seas, while the former had only commercial vessels, and not a single man-of-war. Thus in drawing up the treaty, it was declared by the English to extend to merchant vessels alone, so that it was evident, that all the French vessels would be taken by the English men-of-war, who were not included in the treaty of neutrality, while the English merchantmen would be safe, since the treaty guaranteed them from all insult on the part of the Company's vessels, which were the only French ships to be found in the Indies, and that could be equipped for war. At length the signal error, which had been committed by the French East India Company, was discovered, when it was too late, and they acknowledged the folly of having despised the reiterated representations of M. de la Bourdonnais. On the 5th of April, they were informed by the *Fleury*, which arrived from the Indies, of the capture of the *Favori* by an English vessel, which she could have herself taken, had it not been for the orders of the Company. The French ship the *Fleury*, which had been equipped for the attack of the pirate *Angria*, met with four English vessels in the roads of Cochin, and though she had it in her power to effect their capture, yet being restrained by her orders, she suffered them to depart unmolested. At the same time, all the French merchantmen were taken with the exception of one, commanded by M. Villebague, brother-in-law of M. de la Bourdonnais, who, suspecting the consequences of a declaration of war, changed his course, and reached Pondicherry in safety.

It will be needless to enter into a further detail of the losses incurred by France; it will be sufficient to relate a remarkable circumstance connected therewith. When Captain Burnet, who commanded an English ship-of-war, captured their merchant ships, he observed, that he only executed against the trade of France the design projected by M. de la Bourdonnais against that of Great Britain.

Though M. de la Bourdonnais was extremely mortified that the decisive stroke, which he had so long meditated against the enemies of France, should have been rendered abortive, he was not altogether disheartened, nor did he relax in his efforts, as will hereafter

appear, to repair the misfortunes of his country. On the contrary, he made the same exertions, as if he had been the cause of them. The letters, which he received by the *Fleury*, not only informed him of the arrival of the English ships of war in India, but made him acquainted also with the actual situation of Pondicherry. M. Dupleix, the governor of that settlement, jealous from the first of the estimation in which M. de la Bourdonnais was held, had haughtily insisted on the strict observance of the neutrality by all the French East India Company's servants, both as regarded the English factories and ships, while the English themselves, so far from interpreting the treaty in a similar manner, had attacked the French establishments on every coast, and finally the town of Pondicherry itself was menaced by the English squadron. The governor and council were now constrained to represent to La Bourdonnais the state of alarm the settlement was in, and the dangers, to which their commerce was exposed in the Indian seas. They entreated him to afford them all the assistance in his power, informing him at the same time that they could do nothing more on their part than send him by the first opportunity the crew of the *Favori*. In a word they urged him with the assurance that they depended on him alone to arrest the progress of the enemy.

The necessity of affording some assistance to Pondicherry determined M. de la Bourdonnais to keep the *Neptune* of 40 guns, which was ready to sail for Europe, and in its place to dispatch the *Charmante;* he also retained the *Bourbon* of 44, the *Insulaire* of 30, the *Favourite* of 26, the *Renommeé* of 26, and the *Decouverte* of 10 guns. At the moment, when M. de la Bourdonnais had resolved, if it were possible, to equip these vessels for actual service, he was almost destitute of every thing necessary to carry his design into execution. An extraordinary drought had occasioned an alarming scarcity in the preceding year; the harvest of the current year had been ravaged by the locusts; the *St. Geran*, with a large cargo of stores and provisions from Europe, had been wrecked on the Ile d'Ambre, in view of the Isle of France; and another vessel, which had been despatched to India for rice, had returned without being able to execute its commission: in short, to complete the scene of distress, there was not more than five or six months' provisions in the island, nor did he find a general disposition in the inhabitants to assist him at this critical moment; but his own zeal supplied the want of volunteers. Notwithstanding all these discouraging obstacles, he employed his utmost activity in forwarding an armament, which appeared to him the more indispensable, in that it was the only means of protecting the ships, which the Company must send from France to maintain its annual commerce. M. de la Bourdonnais exhausted every imaginable resource to collect men to form the crews of his ships, and procure stores for their support, but his endeavours were thwarted in every quarter. The inhabitants of

the Isle of Bourbon were so horror-struck at the shipwreck of the *St. Geran*, that those, who had previously been eager in requesting employment on board the ships of war, now refused to expose themselves to the dangers of the sea. On the other hand, the island was in such a state of dearth as to require every assistance it was in his power to afford; he was, besides, under the necessity of victualling the ships of the Company, which were laden with merchandize for Europe, as well as to procure subsistence for the crews till their departure; he was also obliged to furnish daily supplies for the troops, the sailors in harbour, the workmen, and, in general, for all those, who did not possess plantations. In this difficult situation he addressed himself to the council, and proposed that a general account should be taken of the provisions in the possession of the inhabitants, and that, after leaving sufficient for their subsistence, they should be obliged to furnish the rest at a fixed price for the public service. It will be readily believed that these economical arrangements set almost every one against him; they were nevertheless unanimously approved of, and confirmed by the council on the 8th of January, 1745.

In order to procure men to make up the deficiency caused by the failure of the supply from the Isle of Bourbon, he proposed to make a demand of every twentieth negro at least, in that isle, on condition of paying the owner at the rate of eighteen livres a month for his service, and returning 200 piastres for every one that might die in the Company's service. He added, that, if the inhabitants should refuse to accede to these conditions, his advice was, that the authority of the government should be employed to compel them. This measure was also approved by the council, as it was rightly conceived to be an expedient indispensably necessary, but it increased the number of his enemies. He was, however, fortunately relieved from the necessity of carrying it into execution by the arrival of a vessel freighted with negroes from the coast of Senegal, by some French merchants.

As M. de la Bourdonnais had been permitted by the East India Company to have a share in this adventure, and had full powers to direct the affairs of his commercial associates, he proposed to the council to purchase two or three hundred of these negroes for the service of the Company. This offer had a double advantage; it relieved the Isle of Bourbon from a compulsory supply, and was a pecuniary advantage to the Company, so that his proposition was at once accepted by the council.

At length, by his activity and perseverance, he had the extreme satisfaction to see his armament complete, and in May, 1745, it was in a condition to receive his orders. It was, nevertheless, a point of some difficulty to decide on the manner, in which it might be most profitably employed, and it was a matter for serious consideration, which of the two schemes that had been proposed should be finally

adopted. The first was, to set sail directly for the Indian seas, with a view to make prizes, which appeared to him far from impracticable, as the English squadron remained in the Straits.

The second was to wait the arrival of the Company's ships from France, in order to conduct them to India. The latter measure, upon mature deliberation, appeared the most prudent; for the Company, persuaded of a neutrality in the East, would not fail to despatch its vessels to the isles during the year to take up cargoes as usual for Europe, and to inform themselves of what was passing, so that, unless he waited their arrival in order to conduct them in safety to their destination, they would fall into the hands of the enemy. The council, having met and deliberated, held with him that the latter plan of operations would be the most feasible, as it would be the wisest measure to secure the commerce of the Company before he employed any active means to annoy its enemies.

It was, therefore, adopted, and, after receiving their official confirmation, he prepared to carry it into execution. At this moment a frigate arrived from France, which brought him the following orders from the Minister of Marine, dated the 29th of January, 1745 :—

"The Company has despatched you a frigate, which will be followed by the *Achilles* of 70, the *St. Louis* of 50, the *Lys* of 40, the *Phœnix* of 44, the *Duc d'Orleans* of 36 guns, with 1,500 men on board. These five vessels cannot depart from the East before the end of February; they are to proceed in company to Cadiz, and from thence to the Isle of France, where it is not supposed they will arrive before the end of August. The king's intention is, that you take the command of these ships as soon as they arrive at your island."

As the dearth, which had for some time threatened the island, began to be very sensibly felt, he despatched his ships to victual at Madagascar, with orders to wait for him there; at the same time he retained the *Bourbon*, on board of which he resolved to embark on the first of August to join his squadron and proceed to India, in case the ships promised him from France did not arrive. On the 20th of July, the *Expedition* frigate brought intelligence that the fleet would not arrive at the island till October.

In accordance with this intimation, M. de la Bourdonnais delayed his departure for India till November; and as the monsoon would not then permit him to pass by Madagascar, where he had determined to join the ships he had sent there to take in provisions, he sent orders to them to return to the islands, that he might profit by the monsoon to conduct them to Pondicherry; but, unfortunately, the vessels, which ought to have arrived from France in September, or October 1745, did not arrive till the January of the next year, owing (as has been alleged) to some intrigues, in which M. Dupleix, and some of the directors of the East India Company were engaged. This delay

was the source of two misfortunes, which were attended with great pain and difficulty to La Bourdonnais. In the first place, it left him too short a space of time to complete the repairs of his ships; nor was this the greatest obstacle; an epidemical disease, then prevalent, had carried off the greater part of his naval artisans at a time when they were most needful. He was, therefore, obliged to form for himself a new set of workmen to supply their place; and what is very singular, from among those whose previous occupations had no connexion whatever with the dock-yard. He accordingly employed house carpenters to shape the ship-timbers, and repair the defective parts of vessels; locksmiths to forge nails, and make carriages for guns, and tailors to make sails. It will be readily conceived with what reluctance artisans, unaccustomed to such work, would have executed them, and how imperfectly such labours would have been performed; indeed, it would not have been possible for him to have succeeded, had he not possessed a perfect acquaintance with the science of ship-building, and made a practical application of it to the necessities of the moment by furnishing models, regulating the shape and measure, and superintending every class of workmen in his own person with unceasing activity and care, and sometimes by actually assisting them in their manual operations.

In short, his knowledge and activity supplied all his wants, and at length surmounted difficulties, which appeared insurmountable to every one, but himself. The second misfortune was still more grievous, than the first; it consisted in a deficiency of provisions and equipment. The ships, which composed the first armament, had consumed their provisions in waiting for the arrival of those expected from Europe; and the latter, having been victualled but for fourteen months, there remained no more than four months provisions after the voyage, so that M. de la Bourdonnais was under the necessity of victualling both squadrons. The crews on their arrival were also in a very bad state, and the *Achilles* alone was equipped as a ship-of-war, the others being armed only as merchantmen. It was necessary, therefore, to add to their force, and augment their crews; and this had to be accomplished by a man who was already in want of every thing.

In the mean time, he formed soldiers by dividing the crews into companies, and incorporating workmen and with them as many negroes as he could clothe. These he instructed in the use of arms and the practice of military evolutions. He himself taught them how to scale a wall and apply a petard; he exercised them too in firing at a target, and qualified the most dexterous among them to manage a machine, which he had himself invented, to throw grapnels for boarding, to the distance of a hundred and eighty feet, by means of mortars; in a word, he formed a body of soldiers, on whom he could rely in the moment of danger; and his success would undoubtedly have been still more complete, if the officers of both

squadrons had been willing to second his zealous and indefatigable activity; but the good will he discovered in some was more than counterbalanced by the murmurs and disapprobation of the others. The sacrifice of their personal interest was the principal cause of their discontent, as, in order to change the merchant-men into ships-of-war, it was absolutely necessary to unload and leave on shore the ventures allowed by the Company to the officers, so that they risked the loss of those advantages, which they had expected to derive from the sale of them in India. They loudly complained of the deceit practised on them by the Company, and the injury they should sustain by being deprived of those privileges, which could alone remunerate them for the hazards of so long and dangerous a voyage.

These complaints, which were made in the most public manner, caused no small uneasiness and mortification to M. de la Bourdonnais, who day by day remarked how they discouraged the crews, and the more easily as they were now reduced to half allowance, and were kept in a state of continual and laborious discipline. They all felt with what suavity and address he had endeavoured to stifle their complaints, and the ingratiating attentions and persuasive arguments he had employed to gain them over to his views; but while he succeeded with some, there still remained those who did every thing in their power to thwart his designs. As each of his vessels were successively equipped, he sent them to Madagascar to subsist, and collect provisions, until he could join them with the rest of the squadron.

On the other hand, as the ships which arrived from Europe in his absence would be subject to his orders, he directed M. de St. Martin, who remained in the Isles as deputy-governor, to detain a part of these vessels in port, and to make use of their equipment in arming the others. These were destined to cruize off Bombay, and to capture such English ships as might be returning from Gedda, Mocha, or Persia; and he left further orders that they should make the best of their way to Mahé after this cruise, so that they might be in a state to execute any subsequent directions in the beginning of September. In short, after having done everything that depended on himself for the good of the service, he prepared to depart for the coast of Malabar, where he reckoned on meeting in May the English ships coming from Surat. Previous to his departure, he sent a dispatch to the Company at home, which gave an account of his situation and designs. All things prepared, M. de la Bourdonnais set sail from the Isle of France on the 24th of March, 1746, his squadron being victualled only for sixty-five days.

CHAPTER III.

The administration of M. David—Expeditions of Admiral Boscawen and Count d'Aché—Government of MM. Bouvet, Magou, Boucher, Dumas—Intendancy of Poivre.

M. DE ST. MARTIN filled the office of deputy-governor of the two islands on the nomination of his relative M. de la Bourdonnais during the visit of the latter to France, and subsequent expedition against the English settlements in India, and the Baron Grant was entrusted with the direction of their military defence.

It has already been seen how M. de la Bourdonnais contrived to form an effective corps of soldiers by making them practise various manœuvres of attack and defence on the principal batteries of the island, and sham assaults on the forts with bamboo ladders. All the Creoles being thus disciplined and inured to military exercise, formed excellent volunteers for joining with the European troops in the enterprise, which he meditated on Madras. M. de la Bourdonnais having ordered all the troops under arms, presented himself, and commanded all those, whether officers or soldiers, who were willing to go on this expedition, to advance beyond the lines. Not a man remained behind. M. de St. Martin was succeeded in 1746 by M. David, who had previously filled the post of governor of Senegal. He is thus described by Baron Grant in a letter to some friends in France.

"The arrival of our new governor has brought prosperity with it. The inhabitants are enchanted with the manners of M. David; he is not so enterprising as M. de la Bourdonnais; but mildness, humanity, and politeness, are the least of his good qualities. He is rich, and displays the best possible intentions for the welfare of the colony, and from the manner in which he speaks and acts, we shall derive considerable advantages from his administration. After he had made the necessary arrangements for the welfare of the colony, he engaged certain undertakings on his own account. One of these he formed on the sea-shore, for the manufacture of lime from coral, and placed seventy negroes in it. This was a very necessary establishment to carry on the buildings of the Company. He built also a beautiful stone house for himself, which he called L'Epreuve, as it was the first of the kind which had been constructed in the island. He has sent a frigate to France constructed at Port Louis, whose build has given general satisfaction. The East India Company, now assured that the island produces plenty of provisions and refreshment for their ships, will direct them all to stop at this port, which will be considered, as a principal magazine

for their commerce; at the same time every possible encouragement will be given to promote industry and advance cultivation. The different undertakings formed by M. de la Bourdonnais and M. David for raising cotton and indigo have failed, which will render useless the magazines erected by the latter for cultivating them with the necessary advantage and convenience. The sugar plantations have in some degree succeeded, whose produce resembles the coarse honey of Europe: time and industry, however, will bring it to perfection. The more wealthy adventurers are absolutely starving by being compelled to purchase the provisions necessary for themselves and their people. They have had the inconsiderate ambition to burthen themselves with large bodies of slaves, before they had provided the means of maintaining them. On his return from Madras, M. de la Bourdonnais found his place occupied by M. David. Many of the inhabitants were anxious to dispose of their plantations, being persuaded that the changes, which had taken place in the government, would be attended with inevitable disadvantages to them. It will indeed be very difficult to find such a governor as M. de la Bourdonnais. M. David had received orders from the Company to make every possible inquiry, and obtain all possible information relative to the administration of his predecessor. He was at the same time instructed not to give up to him the command of the ships, which were to return to Europe, if he had been guilty of any malversations. M. David had fulfilled his commission before the arrival of M. de la Bourdonnais at the Isle of France, and was fully convinced, that all the complaints exhibited against the latter had proceeded from passion and a spirit of mutiny. As soon as he had landed, M. de la Bourdonnais, to give the fullest proof in his power of the uprightness of his conduct towards individuals, as well as of his zeal and fidelity to the king and Company, repeated the course he had taken in France on a similar occasion, and publicly challenged those who had been injured by him, in any way whatever, either in the Isle of France or Bourbon, to come forward with their charges, that he might immediately do them justice, and make such restitution as they had a right to claim. But though he was now superseded in his government, and was not only a private, but in some measure a disgraced man, not a single complaint was instituted against him; in short, so irreproachable did his conduct appear in every particular, that M. David did not hesitate to deliver him the order of the king to command the ships destined for Europe."

Thus terminated the connexion of M. de la Bourdonnais with the Isle of France, which had lasted for eleven years—years fruitful in events both for the colony and its metropolis, during which the seat of the government had been transplanted from Bourbon to the Isle of France through the sagacity of the Governor-general, who saw at a glance that the possession of two such harbours gave the decided

pre-eminence to the claims of the latter over the former island, which was without that qualification.

The monuments of his industry still remain. Indeed, he may be truly said to have been the founder of Mauritius. "His memory still remains (says the local historian) in every heart; his portrait is in every house; his memoirs in every library, and his statue in the Place d'Armes."

The reaction against the French power in India consequent on the removal of M. de la Bourdonnais from the command, and the haughty and dishonourable conduct of M. Dupleix, the governor of Pondicherry, with respect to Madras and the native governments, was not long in producing a sensible change in the condition of the Isle of France. The war with England still continued, and the constant reinforcements, which had been sent out by that power, had again retrieved its naval superiority in the East, so that whole fleets, destined for the Isle of France, were either taken or destroyed, a few corvettes alone arriving to announce the disasters, and they were often in a crippled and dismasted condition. Baron Grant thus describes the state of the island in 1746:—

"We have been informed that fifteen ships have been dispatched from the East, laden with provisions for our islands; but unfortunately the English fell in with them, and being superior to them in point of force, have taken them all except one small vessel, which escaped but to make us acquainted with our misfortunes. We live at present in a most wretched state of incertitude, in want of every thing; and, to complete our misery, we are afflicted with a continued drought, which has known no interval throughout the year, but from an hurricane which visited us during the last month, and ravaged everything, occasioning many fatal accidents. Several persons were killed and wounded during its continuance, and, to complete our distress, it was succeeded by a cloud of locusts, which devoured whatever the hurricane had not laid waste."

The English ministry at once perceived that a blow had been struck against France in the East, which required but to be followed up with energy and resolution to produce the most splendid results. For the furtherance of this object, Mr. Boscawen, who had already highly distinguished himself in the execution of the several commissions with which he had been intrusted in Europe, was elevated to the rank of admiral, with the command of a powerful fleet, whose primary operations were to commence with an attack on the Isle of France, which had become the centre of French power in the East, and, after its reduction, to proceed to the attack of Pondicherry.

In November 1747, the rear-admiral sailed from England, with the combined squadrons of the maritime powers under his command, consisting of twenty-eight ships of war of different sizes—one of seventy-four, one of sixty-four, two of sixty, two of fifty, one of twenty, a sloop of fourteen guns, a bombship with her tender, and an hospital

ship. These belonged to the navy of England; eleven of the East India Company's vessels were likewise employed in transporting the military stores and the regular troops, which amounted to 1,400 men. The principal part of the fleet arrived at the Cape of Good Hope in March, but five ships were detained till April. They were joined at the Cape by six ships belonging to the Dutch East India Company, on board of which were 400 soldiers.

The troops having been landed for refreshment, were all re-embarked before the 16th of April, the day on which it had been determined to sail; but contrary winds and weather detained the fleet until the 8th of May, when they left the Cape, bound for the Isle of France, which the admiral was ordered to attack on his passage to the coast of Coromandel, if, on investigating its state of defence and preparation, he should judge such a measure to be prudent and practicable. After a fatiguing passage of thirty-five days, in which the fleet was again baffled by adverse winds, it came in sight of the eastern coast of the Isle of France on the 23rd of June, at daybreak, having parted with three of the Dutch ships in the bad weather.

As soon as the ships came in sight of the north-east point of the island, the admiral called a council of war to ask the advice of his captains as to which they thought the most proper course for the vessels to take in going in. The result of these deliberations was, that they passed between Long Island and Gunner's Quoin, and proceeded along the north coast in a line of battle a-head, the men-of-war leading, and the East India Company's ships following them. Before night, they had advanced within two leagues to the north-east of Port Louis. The admiral, imagining the French squadron bound for India might be still in the harbour, sent a party to reconnoitre the strength and position of the enemy, by whose account only two places had been discovered where the smoothness of the water seemed to render a descent practicable, all the rest of the shore being defended by rocks or breakers. He therefore deemed it expedient to bring his ships to anchor in the "Baie des Tortues," between the mouths of the river of that name and the "Rivière du Tombeau." The rest got in the next day, having been fired at in their passage from two fascine batteries of six guns each, but without receiving any material damage.

Early the next day, it was ascertained that the enemy had raised other batteries of a similar description on each side of the two rivers, between which the squadron was at anchor, from which they soon commenced firing, and were perceived to be hard at work in the wood opposite to where the squadron lay in throwing up intrenchments, as well as raising other defences. Some of the vessels which had shells thrown at them by the French increased their distance from the shore, but, as it was of the utmost consequence to the success of the enterprize to prevent the enemy from proceeding

with these works, Admiral Boscawen ordered the *Pembroke*, which lay nearest the shore, to fire and disturb them at their work; but the result was attended with very little execution on either side. Let us here pause for a moment to consider the means possessed by the island to meet this formidable invasion.

As the war with Great Britain had been carried on for some time, previous to the arrival of the squadron, under Admiral Boscawen, it had long been conceived that the island would be subject to the attacks of the enemy. The Isle of France was, therefore, in the course of being fortified by the French Government at a great expense, and numbers had been employed in putting it in a state of defence; yet the works had advanced but slowly, though they had been directed by able engineers, and were in a state far from complete on the appearance of the British fleet. But the natural advantages for defence possessed by the island, coupled with the works already raised, were calculated to afford a formidable obstacle to the landing of an enemy, as was fully proved by the successful resistance made against this attack. The port was at this time full of vessels belonging to the Company, with one ship of war of sixty guns, named the *Alcides*, commanded by M. de Kersaint, who laid her across the entrance of the port. The French worked all night through, with a great deal of confusion, to be in readiness for the following day. The Count de Restaing, who had been commandant of the artillery, had, before his departure, examined the arsenal, and, having found an old mortar, had placed it on the point that commands the entrance of the harbour, before which the English fleet was at anchor. At break of day, they found themselves in a condition to discharge a bomb at the nearest of the English vessels, which did not, however, reach it. A second was thrown nearer, and the English admiral thought proper to increase his distance in a small degree, in the conjecture that they had a battery of mortars; and when he perceived that no more were discharged, he concluded that it was from his being removed out of their distance, though the real cause proceeded from the impossibility of their throwing another shell, as the mortar had been rendered useless by the second discharge. The English remained off the island for several days, and, from the frequent communications between the ships, the boats continually passing from one to the other, the French concluded that they held frequent councils respecting their future conduct.

But to return to the combined squadron. Admiral Boscawen now ordered the *Swallow* sloop, under Captain Lloyd, of the *Eltham*, the two principal engineers, and an artillery officer, on whose judgment and accuracy he could safely rely, to reconnoitre the coast along the shore quite up to the ports, and fix on a spot where the troops might be landed with the least difficulty, and in the most orderly and expeditious manner. On their return, they reported that

the means of defence possessed by the enemy were very numerous and respectable, that they had been fired at in their passage by eight different batteries planted along the shore, as well as from the forts at the entrance of the harbour,—that a large ship, with two tiers of guns, lay at anchor, with her broadside across its mouth,—that there were thirteen other ships within, several of which were large, and either equipped for actual service or fitting for it, and that, as far as they were able to judge, it was impracticable to land anywhere to the east of the harbour on account of the thickness of the woods, which came down close to the water-side. In consequence of this information, Admiral Boscawen resolved to alter his plan and mode of attack, and proceed beyond the Grande Rivière to the west of the town. Still, however, it was extremely doubtful whether a landing here was practicable, and, in order to ascertain this point, the masters of six of the line-of-battle ships were directed, as soon as it was dark, to sound in their barges along the shore, and discover the depths of water, and see particularly whether it was possible to land at the place proposed. Their report was, if possible, still more unfavourable than that of the officer who had been sent before to reconnoitre; for they stated that a reef of rocks ran along the shore at the distance of twenty yards, which rendered it impossible for boats to land except at the entrance of the rivers, where the fleet rode, or at the harbour itself, where the channel which led into it was not more than 100 fathoms wide, and was strongly protected by batteries, and that the entrance would be subject to a further difficulty by the operation of the south-east wind, which would blow off shore. After receiving this intelligence, it was but too evident to the Admiral that no serious attempt could be made against this possession of the enemy; but as he always gave up with reluctance a point on which he had set his mind, or which he thought his country expected him to carry through, he called a council of war, composed of the principal naval and military officers, before whom he laid these reports, and his instructions, so far as they related to the attack of the Isle of France, and to consult with them on the best measure to be taken. The council coincided with him in the opinion that the enterprise should not be abandoned without another attempt to discover a landing-place, since, if that could be found, they entertained little doubt of ultimate success. It was therefore resolved that, as they were unacquainted with the strength of the enemy, three armed boats, of ten oars each, should be sent, under the command of Major Cuming, to endeavour to land in the night, and take by surprise a prisoner from the shore, from whom intelligence might be obtained of a proper and safe landing-place. This was attempted, but in vain.

On the next morning, the 25th of June, the council being again assembled, it was resolved that, although their force was sufficient to reduce the island, yet, as the capture of the Isle of France was not

the principal object of the expedition, as there was such a strength of ships in the harbour, and the preparations which the enemy had made along the coast made it certain that the attack must be attended with considerable loss, while the maintenance of it, when taken, would not only retard, but might possibly disable the armament from undertaking the siege of Pondicherry, which Admiral Boscawen was instructed to consider the principal object of his destination, no further attempt should be made, but that the fleet should proceed as quickly as possible to the coast of Coromandel, that they might arrive there in time to act before the change of the monsoon in October.

Two days elapsed before the fleet could leave the island, which, joined to the delay that had already ensued, placed the ships in such straits for wood, water, and provisions, as to make it necessary to divide those articles among each in proportion. Just as they were on the point of setting sail, one of the three Dutch ships which had parted company in the storm, joined them, but the other two were never seen or heard of. After the fleet had cleared the island, the other Dutch ships took their leave, and stretched sail for the southward.

The Admiral being anxious, in pursuance of the resolution of the council of war, to make the shortest possible passage to Pondicherry, passed with his fleet through the islands and shoals to the north of the Isle of France, and arrived at Fort St. David on the 29th of July, where he found the squadron under Admiral Griffin, whom he succeeded in the command.

Before the cause of the failure of this formidable expedition is considered, it will be well to take a moment's view of the state of affairs in the island. Baron Grant, who was charged with its defence, thus continues:—

"On the sixth day, one of the largest of the English vessels approached within cannon-shot of a place where they supposed we had a masked battery. They cannonaded it from break of day with great warmth, but without the least return, as it was nothing else than a large heap of faggots collected for a lime furnace, which their balls scattered about. In the evening of the same day, we descried a number of well-armed sloops, escorted by a frigate, ranging before the batteries, from which, however, they could not be reached. We concluded that their intention was to make a descent at La Petite Rivière, eight miles to the west of the port, which was unguarded, and where there was a small inlet through which one boat alone could pass at a time. As I was attentive to guard the coast, we narrowly watched their motions, and, hastening to the point with some light pieces of artillery, we arrived there at an early period of the night. We saw the frigate and the sloops furling their sails opposite to us, while the latter appeared to be approaching the opening of the river. I immediately ordered the artillery to play on

the boats, and directed that, after the first discharge, the drums, which had been scattered about in different places at some distance, should come in beating a march, so as to indicate the approach of troops from various directions. This step made the English suspect that our force was very considerable, and they accordingly retired from the shore. We thought it necessary, however, to pass the night under arms. At break of day the different vessels had returned to their former stations, and at eleven A. M., the whole fleet, relinquishing the attempt, was under sail from the island. Four of their ships, after having saluted the Admiral, passed to leeward, while the rest held their course to windward, as if proceeding to India. It has since been reported that these four ships had several families on board, and a large quantity of utensils for the cultivation of the island, the capture of which they had reckoned on with certainty. The same report added, that we were all of us to have been sent to the Cape of Good Hope; and thus was Admiral Boscawen deceived by appearances, and concluded from circumstances, which were very fallacious, that we were in a state of defence and preparation very superior to our actual capacity; or they might have imagined that the time spent in taking the island would interfere with more important operations in India."

It is nevertheless difficult to conceive how the island could have held out under a protracted siege, as the whole of the French force consisted of only 300 regular troops, the European inhabitants, who were disciplined as a militia, 1,500 Caffre slaves, on whose service and attachment the French had little reliance, and 1000 sailors belonging to the ships.

The prestige attending the successful commencement of a campaign having thus early vanished, dispirited the English in the same proportion as it instilled courage and energy into their opponents. M. Bouvet, an able and experienced mariner, who commanded a flying squadron of seven ships-of-war, and two smaller vessels in these seas, succeeded in eluding Admiral Griffin, and landed a number of volunteers of colour from the Isle of France for the succour of Pondicherry, with 200,000*l.* of silver for the service of the Company. This opportune relief, and the successful resistance of the Isle of France, produced such an effect on the garrison of Pondicherry, that they offered a resistance, as vigorous as it was unexpected, to the English admiral, so that the squadron under his command was compelled to return to Fort St. David to winter, the campaign having proved an entire failure.

In the interval, M. Bouvet, returning to the Isle of France, brought back 200 men, whom he landed for the relief of Madras before the English squadron could appear in sight. M. David was succeeded in the government of the Isle of France by his brother-in-law, M. Bouvet, in 1750. The former appears to have greatly endeared himself to the inhabitants by the good qualities before

mentioned. Baron Grant, in speaking of him, makes allusion to the abruptness of his departure. "We have received the pleasing assurance that M. David, our late governor, will return; he is impatiently expected here, and will be received with the sincerest pleasure by us all. We understand that there is a difference among the directors about his return; we shall, however, soon learn their decision by the ships whose arrival is now the object of our impatient expectation."

It was during the government of M. Bouvet, that the celebrated astronomers and geometricians, M. d'Apres Mannevilette, and the Abbé de la Caille, visited the Isles of France and Bourbon for scientific purposes. The former became distinguished for his acquirements in hydrography, and published a series of charts, called the "Oriental Neptune," whose correctness has been little invalidated by more recent discoveries.

In 1755, M. Magon succeeded M. Bouvet as Commander-general of the two islands. He commenced his administration by giving a general permission to cut wood, which threatened to injure the agriculture of the island by inducing drought, and render it more defenceless in the event of an attack from the enemy, by removing one of the principal obstructions to their landing.

Upon the re-commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and France, in 1757, powerful squadrons were again dispatched to the East by both the belligerent powers. The van of the French was commanded by M. de Soupirs, and was followed by the main body of the squadron, under Count de Aché, on board of which was the Count de Lally, an officer of Irish extraction in the French service, to whom was committed the government of the French establishments in India, as well as the direction of the military operations. It is not within the province of this work to trace the early progress and final defeat of the latter officer, or even that of the fleet under Count d'Aché; it will be sufficient to observe that, after an engagement with the English squadron, under Admiral Pococke, in which, though not a ship was lost by either party, he was compelled, after having been roughly handled, to retire with all the mortification of a defeat, and arrived at the Isle of France after thirty days' sail.

In Port Louis he found a reinforcement of three ships of the line, under M. d'Eguilles, an officer of experience and reputation, with three million livres destined for the service of Pondicherry, two of which he detained, and countermanded the departure of the latter officer for that place. There were also several vessels belonging to the Company, which from the presence of the formidable force of their nation, were unarmed for war. The crews of the united squadrons amounted to 5,500 men, and all the provisions which could be collected in the isles, or even from Madagascar, with the supplies sent from Europe, were insufficient for the support of so

large a body of men, in addition to the regular inhabitants. After several meetings of the council had been held to consider the means of relieving this distress, it was resolved that one of the men-of-war, with eight of the Company's ships, should be sent with 3,500 men on board, to the Cape of Good Hope, where they might purchase a sufficiency of provisions for the squadron in the ensuing voyage, and the crews might be supported in the interval, without breaking in upon the general stock. On the arrival of these ships at the Cape, in January, 1758, they purchased at a vast expense a large quantity of grain, wine, and meat, and returned to the Isle of France in April.

The departure of the squadron from the island was, however, retarded for three months by the equipment of some of the Company's ships for warlike service, and it did not sail, in consequence, till July. After a result similar to that of the year before, they returned again to the Isle of France in November. Their arrival renewed the scene of former distress. The island, after all the exertions of La Bourdonnais, had never produced provisions sufficient for the settled inhabitants, and had on this occasion, been further exhausted of the stores collected from abroad by victualling the squadron at its departure, so that there was but little left to support them on their return; and this scarcity had been injudiciously increased by the equipment of two vessels for an attack on the English settlements in the Gulf of Persia. In this perplexity it was resolved to follow the example of the year preceding, and three merchantmen were again sent under convoy of the *Centaur*, of 74 guns, belonging to the French East India Company, to purchase provisions at the Cape; but an unexpected difficulty here arose. The Count d'Aché had proposed to entrust the command to the Captain of the *Actif*, one of the King's ships of war; upon which there immediately arose a clamour from the Captains of the Company's ships, who protested against this preference, as derogating from their peculiar rights and privileges. In the delay thus occasioned, one of the frightful hurricanes to which this island is periodically subject, burst forth on the 27th of January, and lasted without intermission for thirty-six hours. Thirty-two vessels in the port were torn from their anchors, but with the exception of a vessel of thirty guns, were fortunately prevented by an ooze in the bay from driving on the rocks, and becoming complete wrecks. Of the smaller craft there were few, however, which were not either stranded or wrecked. The ruin was still greater on the land. Every species of vegetation above the surface of the earth was totally destroyed. The cattle and fowls were washed away by the torrents, or perished by the inclemency of the tempest; and of the magazines of grain, which were constructed of wood, some were overthrown, and the rest opened to the winds and rain. Three months were employed in repairing the damage occasioned by this awful visitation, in which interval, some few provisions were brought by trading vessels

belonging to the colony, from Madagascar, and the surplus of the produce of Bourbon.

On the 8th of June, a vessel arrived from France with the intelligence that an armament was fitting out in England for the attack of the two islands, in consequence of which the French Government sent the regiment of Cambray to reinforce the garrison, and directions were given to the squadron under Count d'Aché, if still remaining at the Isle of France, to continue there, and if it had left for the Indies, it was to be immediately recalled. These orders determined Count d'Aché to remain with the greater part of the squadron for the defence of the island, but to send a part to Madagascar, till the middle of August, to save the consumption of provisions. Permission was also given to the council of war, supposing it received no direction how to act before this time, to proceed to the execution of any service of which the condition of the ships might be deemed capable. The Admiral was soon after superseded, having been defeated for the third time by Admiral Pococke. M. Magon was succeeded, in 1759, by M. Desforges Boucher; and in August, 1764, the administration of the island passed from the hands of the East India Company to those of the King. The Abbè Regnal offers the following observations on the causes of this change:—"This island had for a long time engaged the speculations, rather than the industry of its possessors, and they wasted their time in conjectures concerning the advantages which might be derived from it. Some were inclined to make it a central mart for all Indian merchandize, which, brought thither in Indian bottoms, could then be shipped on board French vessels, which would never proceed further. A two-fold advantage evidently arose from this scheme. First, the expenses were lessened, as both the pay and maintenance of Indian sailors was very trifling; and secondly, the ships' crews were more effectually preserved, as they sometimes suffered greatly from the length of the voyage alone, and still more frequently from the climate, especially in Arabia and Bengal. This plan, however, met with little support, as it was feared the Company would fall into contempt, unless they displayed in these distant latitudes a naval force sufficient to procure respect. Others, in accordance with a new system which engaged their attention, were of opinion that the inhabitants of the Isle of France should be allowed to trade to India, which they had never yet been suffered to do. The supporters of this system maintained that the proposed freedom would prove an abundant source of wealth to the colony, and consequently, to the mother country. But the island was then in want of both vessels and specie; it had no article for exportation, nor any means of consumption. For all these reasons the experiment proved unsuccessful, and it was resolved that the island should be entirely confined to agriculture. This new regulation gave rise to fresh mistakes. Men were sent from the mother country to the colony,

who neither understood husbandry, nor were accustomed to labour. The lands were distributed at a venture, and without distinguishing what was to be cleared from that which was already in a state of cultivation. Money was advanced to the planters, not in proportion to their industry, but to the interest they could make with the Government. The Company, who got cent. per cent. upon the commodities which the colony drew from Europe, and fifty per cent. upon those that were sent in from India, required that the produce of the country should be delivered into their warehouses at a very low price. To complete the misfortunes of the colony, the Company, who had kept all the power in their own hands, broke the engagements they had entered into with their subjects, or rather with their slaves."

Under such an administration, no improvements could be expected. Discouragements threw most of the colonists into a state of inaction; those who had some share of industry remaining, were either in want of the means that led to prosperity, or were not supported by that strength of mind which enables men to surmount the difficulties which always attend on new settlements. Those who had an opportunity of seeing and observing the agriculture of the Isle of France, found it little better than what they had seen amongst savages: the Government felt themselves bound, therefore, to take it under their immediate control. MM. Dumas and Poivre were accordingly sent out to take possession in the name of the king, the one as Governor, the other as Intendant and Commissary-general of the Marine. The former was recalled at the expiration of the year, but found time enough for the commission of several arbitrary acts, one of which was the deportation to Rodriguez of one of the "Superior Council," which being duly protested against by that body, was promptly disavowed by the sovereign at home. Henceforward, up to the period of British supremacy, the Governor and Intendant shared between them the administrative powers, though in a somewhat unequal proportion. The former, contenting himself almost entirely with the military command, left to the Intendant the mananagement of finance, the imposition of taxes, the care of agriculture and commerce, and the direction of justice and the police. The "Superior Council" now reformed, was composed of those of the colonists, who were superior either from their wealth or intelligence, (a proof that the benefits to be derived from the infusion of a popular element into the representative system of the colonies were already appreciated) and soon after became both a legislative and judicial body. The governors were now enjoined by the home Government to give the preference in every case to native colonists for all public functions, and every royal ordinance gave anxious solicitude for the welfare and contentment of the colony.

M. Poivre, the first Intendant, had been connected with the Isle of France by a series of essential services, long before his appoint-

ment to the newly-created office—services which can cease to be remembered only, when nations, peculiarly favoured by Heaven, shall be found universally to monopolize its gifts; when philanthropy shall pass for an idle word: and the introduction of an useful plant, or the making two blades of grass grow where one grew before, shall no longer be ranked in the category of human benefactions.

Let us glance then, as briefly as possible, at the earlier portion of his public career, one of whose principal points was a project for the transportation to the Isles of France and Bourbon of the spices, whose culture had been hitherto concentrated at the Moluccas. For two hundred years past, the Dutch had been enriching themselves by the sale of cloves and nutmegs. To secure to themselves the exclusive trade in those articles, they had destroyed or enslaved the nations that were in possession of them, and, lest the price should fall even in their own hands, had rooted up most of the trees, and had frequently burnt the fruit of those they had preserved. This barbarous avidity, which had so often excited the indignation of other nations, so strongly exasperated M. Poivre, who had travelled almost all over Asia as a naturalist and philosopher, that the Company, sensible of his indignant feelings on the subject, and struck with the grandeur and utility of his project, acceded to his suggestions, and charged him with their immediate execution.

Having succeeded in the first object of his mission, he proceeded to fulfil the second, but he was only able to procure a few nutmeg trees in a state for transplanting, and a considerable number of the nuts themselves of good quality, and ready to germinate. Cloves could not be obtained, save at the Moluccas themselves, for the Dutch would not dispose of them until they were in a state no longer possessing germinating properties. After he had rendered such essential service to the East India Company,—services which had been duly acknowledged—Poivre naturally looked to the continuation of an enterprise, whose success had been already assured, and which was attended with inappreciable advantages to themselves. He learned, however, at the Isle of France, that the Company was divided into two parties; that the one, which was for the moment predominant, was not that which had favoured his scheme and applauded his labours; that at the head of this party was a director of Dutch origin, who, piqued at the prosecution of a project, adopted by his predecessors, and already carried into effect, would firmly oppose any measure which should render his adopted a competitor with his native country in the growth of the precious spices. Poivre at once perceived that he would not have it in his power to render serviceable the information which he had acquired, or to enrich his own country with the same inexhaustible sources of opulence, as the Dutch East India Company had done theirs without either risking his life in the midst of the Dutch settlements, or

exposing himself to the ingratitude and persecution of his own countrymen. He was a man, however, "*tenax propositi*," and, in a conference with M. Bouvet, governor "par interim" of the Isles of France and Bourbon, and one of the most able men, whom the French East India Company had in its service, he so forcibly showed him that the old instructions had not been revoked, and so strongly urged the importance of the enterprise, and the certainty of its success, provided he would devote a vessel for the purpose, that M. Bouvet, after he had viewed in combination all the requirements of the colony, whose marine was then small in number, and in a wretched state of equipment, took on himself to displease the predominant party at home, and to place at his disposal a small worn-out frigate of 160 tons, badly furnished in every respect.

This proceeding was, under the circumstances, a great and rare instance of zeal and courage on the part of Bouvet, and Poivre always remembered it with the liveliest feelings of satisfaction. During the equipment of his vessel, he divided among three colonists in the Isle of France, his collection of plants, and embarked, like another argonaut, in 1754, on his little frigate,—the image of that feeble bird, which the Scripture describes as sent by Noah in the midst of the immense seas to discover a precious bough,—so the little ill-constructed, ill-equipped vessel proceeded on its benign mission, and sailed so extremely slow, though the wind blew constantly in its favour, that it did not reach Manilla in less than double the time which an ordinary vessel would have employed in making the same voyage. It was ready to sink on its arrival, and the necessary quantity of water had been for some time retrenched to the crew. Poivre found the Spanish Government embroiled in serious disputes with the neighbouring countries. The king of Yolo it retained prisoner. The high character of Poivre enabled him to obtain the liberation of that chieftain, who evinced his gratitude by becoming his devoted friend, and giving him all the information he could desire.

After acquiring the confidence of the Spaniards, he repaired his little vessel, and set sail for the Moluccas. Thus, perhaps, for the first time, did a vessel of war, in the place of advancing to spill human blood on an enemy's coast, proceed to the collection of useful plants—an idea worthy of the author of the "Voyage of a Philosopher," every page of which breathes the purest spirit of philanthropy. Many of the crew, and two of his officers had previously deserted the vessel, of whose defects they were fully cognizant, but which it had been found impossible to put in a state of repair for a voyage to unknown lands, and for traversing seas infested by pirates. Poivre did not conceal from himself the danger, and had more than once determined on renouncing the enterprise; but, deeming casualties from the elements less a subject of alarm, than those arising from the conduct of governments, he resolved to succeed or perish. He was prevented, however, by the leaky state

of his vessel, from landing on any of the Moluccas. He put in, therefore, at Timor, where he formed a friendly connexion with the native prince and the Portuguese government in that isle, who procured for him several nutmeg trees, a large quantity of the nuts and clove berries in a state of ripeness. He then returned to the Isle of France, after making some useful observations on the monsoons, and remitted all the precious plants he had brought with him to the Superior Council of that colony in June, 1755. Those which had been distributed by him among some of the inhabitants in the year preceding, had all perished, and many circumstances led to the belief, that their destruction had been premeditated, and was the effect of a malicious disposition on the part of the Director of the gardens, who had been sent out to the Isle of France by the party who opposed the introduction of the precious spices. The course of events proved that he had done well in not procrastinating his departure on his late expedition. M. Bouvet was no longer Governor of the Isle of France, but had been replaced by a new officer, who had received no instructions favourable to Poivre, either from the party, who was then predominant, or from that of his protectors, who, supposing he had perished in the waves, had thought no more of him, or his expedition.

The new governor, though well-intentioned, had it not in his power, and was still less willing to take upon himself to afford him any means of returning on an enterprise, the success of which would have been so certain. Under these circumstances, Poivre obtained permission to return to France. The ship, in which he embarked, wintered at Madagascar, with whose resources he lost no opportunity of making himself acquainted, more particularly in connexion with the Isles of France and Bourbon. He arrived in France in 1757, and immediately gave an account of his mission; but the decay of the East India Company rendered that body regardless of its results. The Company, having soon after ceased to exist, the Isles of France and Bourbon were left to disorder and anarchy. In this state the king was not long in resuming the control, and the ministry, assured that Poivre was the only man, who could repair the disasters that had ensued since the time of La Bourdonnais, pressed on him to return. He was accordingly dragged from his retirement at the end of nine years, and summoned to Paris by the Duc de Praslin, the minister of marine, who constrained him, despite of his repugnance, to accept the functions of Intendant of those isles with the cordon of St. Michael, and letters of nobility. They gave him ample powers, but unfortunately he was thwarted in many of his designs by the military chief, who was associated with him in the government. He found the isles in a state bordering on annihilation. Agriculture, commerce, and fortifications had all been equally neglected. Since the government of La Bourdonnais, which continued for twelve years, and by whom agriculture was intro-

duced, the harvests had often failed, and the place had always been more or less in a state of want. The inhabitants had wandered from project to project, and endeavoured to cultivate every kind of plant, but without the perseverance necessary to ensure success. Poivre was not long in putting every thing on its former footing, and at the same time instilled a taste for the arts and other improvements. His first care was to raise a sufficiency of provisions, a measure of the utmost importance to two islands, which ought not only to have supported their own inhabitants, but the squadrons of the king also during war. He displayed great activity in introducing from Madagascar, the Cape of Good Hope, and India, every domestic animal and production suited to the consumption of the inhabitants, and the requirements of navigators, besides importing a number of cattle and sheep to stock the island. The activity of Poivre in this way multiplied the means of subsistence from abroad, and was of inestimable advantage to the colonists and to the state. In 1770 on an appearance of war, the French ministry sent to the Isle of France land and sea forces to the number of 10,000 men. The vessels that conveyed them were found on their arrival to be destitute of stores, money, and provisions. The Duc de Choiseul, in his dispatch to Poivre, observed with the most perfect nonchalance: "Je sais bien qu'on manquera de tout, mais vous eter là et nous comptons sur vous."

Poivre found himself placed under difficult circumstances. A provision for the colonies was seriously compromised by the events of the war, yet, though he was thwarted within, and neglected by the minister from without, he supplied every thing out of his own resources. The affection and esteem, which he had obtained in India, and subsequently among savage peoples, procured him the succour, which the ordinary means would have been unable to afford. The minister was not then deceived. Poivre provided all, despite of two successive hurricanes that in the same year ravaged the isle, and stranded a great part of the vessels, but the confidence he had inspired in India, and the resources which his foresight had provided, saved the troops and fleet. It was among the Dutch at the Cape that he found the greatest succour. The reputation of his honesty had gone before him, and they were satisfied with letters of change in return for the provisions they furnished. At the same time he overcame the prejudices, which the Dutch had up to that time entertained in favour of the English, and their inherent mistrust of the French. He knew, however, the possibility of many sorts of accidents rendering foreign assistance precarious; he aimed, therefore, at an increase of the produce of the island, and under his encouragement the Isles of France and Bourbon soon produced abundant crops of Indian corn, rice, and other grains. His experience had already suggested to his mind, that it was the chief aim of the ministers and politicians of Europe, who had passed for great, to increase mercantile gains, and that they looked upon the

colonies as additional means of augmenting the number and occasions of voyages, and held that their subsistence should proceed from the merchants of the mother-country. Poivre, on the contrary, thought that the means of life could hardly be too abundant for the consumer. On this account he attached to himself by every service and favor, Commerson, who put in at the Isle of France on his return from making the tour of the world with Bouganville. He engaged him to remain and make himself acquainted with the natural history of the island; next, to teach the planters the best way of employing their territorial riches, and the plants which their vigilance had procured, and was still procuring. Commerson remained during the whole of Poivre's administration at the Isle of France, and died in the same isle, a little after the departure of his friend and protector, from disgust and chagrin in beholding the abandonment of those old pursuits which, though following on different principles, they had been so well agreed on. Among the plants introduced by him into the Isle of France, and which he himself cultivated, may be singled out the rima, or bread-fruit tree. This plant multiplied so fast that it soon became one of the principal aliments of the inhabitants, and was shortly after transported to the Antilles, where it ensured the subsistence of both the white and coloured races.

But he became most celebrated for the success which his care and intelligence well merited in conveying the nutmeg and the clove from the Moluccas to the Isle of France to an extent sufficient for their naturalization. During the time he was most occupied with the administration of the colony, he had lost none of his fondness for his early pursuits, and had instructed Provost, an officer in the service of the East India Company, who had acquired a smattering of the languages of the Indian Archipelago, in the necessary details, to whom he also committed letters to the different Indian princes. Some difficulty was at first experienced in the equipment of vessels for so protracted a voyage from the low state of the exchequer; but this was at length obviated by the opportune arrival of a vessel laden with naval stores, whose cargo was purchased for the occasion, and the corvette *Le Vigilant*, commanded by M. Tremison, an officer of the French marine, and *L'Etoile du Matin*, commanded by M. d'Etcheveri, set sail from the Isle of France. The two vessels kept together as far as Manilla, then, passing on to Mindanao, touched at the isle of Yolo, whose king received them with the greatest cordiality, for he regarded Poivre in the light of a father. This prince gave Tremison a letter for the king of France, in which he styled that monarch "his great and powerful protector." He furnished them also with every information, and assured them that, if their expedition was not successful that year, he would procure as many spice trees as they could desire in the year ensuing. Tremison, D'Etcheveri, and Provost, next touched at

the Isle of Miao, where their researches were entirely fruitless, the Dutch having recently destroyed every spice plant in the island.

Between that isle and Taffouri, a failure in the stock of provisions determined the two commanders to husband their time; and in a council held on board the *Vigilant* in March 1770, it was resolved that the vessels should separately proceed to execute the mission, which they had been charged to undertake in concert, and a rendezvous was mutually agreed upon. Tremison betook himself to Timor, where he was enabled to procure the necessary provisions, and to commence his researches. D'Etcheveri received on board Provost, with orders to act as he might judge best for the success of the expedition and the national service, and visited in his little vessel all the islands east of the Moluccas, frequently landed at Ceram, and, in short, without affording the Dutch republic or East India Company any legitimate subject or even pretext for complaint, these intrepid navigators obtained of the kings of Geba and Pataram (sovereigns independent of Holland) an immense number of both clove and nutmeg trees, with several chests of nuts and berries. On their return, a new danger presented itself from the Dutch squadron, which was then cruizing in the straits; but the prudence and *sang froid* of D'Etcheveri, together with the insignificance of his vessel, by averting suspicion, favoured their escape, and they rejoined Tremison in safety at the point agreed on. Here they shared between the two vessels the plants they had procured, and arrived at the Isle of France in June 1770. The superior council of the Isle of France placed on its records the narration of a success which had been so long desired, and, by a resolution passed after the retirement of Poivre, it claimed a reward from the king for an administrator who had rendered such a service to the colony, as well as for those who had concurred in the execution of his views. Fearing, upon more mature consideration, that the modesty of Poivre might suppress the eulogies so justly his due, it charged the Chevalier des Roches, commandant-general, with its presentation to the minister. It had been in reality no light undertaking, nor did it promise slight benefits to France, which saw before its eyes a new sphere of commercial wealth—for Europe, which might participate in a new market—but, above all, for the inhabitants of the Moluccas themselves, whom it was thought the Dutch would no longer oppress: that they might seize upon their products, and preserve their own exclusive privileges, when that cruelty had become useless. The ability and intelligence with which Poivre had directed the several voyages, and by means of which he was enabled to render this distinguished service to his country and all humanity, coupled with the reputation he had acquired among the native princes would have of themselves been sufficient to overcome all the obstacles which the Dutch East India Company opposed to

navigators seeking to penetrate among the Moluccas. Almost all who had previously made the attempt had fallen victims to the rigour and vigilance of the Dutch; but Poivre, who had spent the greater part of his life in benefiting mankind, was sure not to be at a loss for gratitude or friends.

His pleasure at the successful termination of an enterprise which had cost him the half of his life, was clouded, however, by one source of regret. Hardly were the spice-trees landed at the Isle of France, than by the zeal of the commandant, and the unanimous advice of the superior council, Poivre alone excepted, a law was enacted which punished as treason the importation to any other country or colony, either of the clove and nutmeg trees themselves, or of their produce when in a state of germination. Repugnant as Poivre was to a regulation which was founded on that very spirit of monopoly which he had succeeded in overthrowing, yet, as he found himself alone in his opposition to the measure, he was compelled to affix his signature, though not without a determination to write to the minister, and make known the dangerous consequences of so exclusive a privilege.

The Duc de Praslin judged with Poivre that it would be both unjust and absurd to interdict a portion of the colonies of France from a culture which was encouraged in others, and the more so as the spice trees concentrated at the Isle of France might be destroyed by a hurricane, or the misfortunes of war. He gave directions, therefore, that some of these precious plants should be conveyed to Bourbon, Cayenne, and the Seychelles, but the greater part were still retained in the Isle of France. Their success was complete in all the three colonies, and they soon became an article of commerce: their fruit, too, when acclimatized, was as beautiful, and gave out a perfume as strong, as that of the Moluccas themselves.

Poivre did not confine himself to this expedition, although it had brought back 400 nutmeg trees, several thousand nuts in a state to plant, a number of clove plants, and a chest of the berries in bud. His foresight feared the possibility of those moral and physical accidents which he had more than once experienced. He sent back Provost, therefore, to the Moluccas in the June of 1771, under the orders of M. Cœtevi, an officer in the king's service, who was accompanied by the corvette *Necessaire*, commanded by M. Cordé, in the service of the East India Company. They proceeded to Gebi, and brought back a large quantity of plants with the nuts and berries. The vessels returned in June, 1772. This expedition was still more fortunate than the preceding, and for ever assured to the French colonies the possession of the precious spices.

While Provost and D'Etcheveri had sailed in *L'Etoile du Matin* on a conquest so noble, every measure had been taken in the Isle of France that the young plants should find suitable soil and culture on their arrival. For this purpose Poivre purchased of the East

India Company an enclosure at some distance from St. Louis, called Monplaisir, where he formed at his own expense a magnificent garden, which soon surpassed that of the Dutch East India Company at the Cape, and is reported by more than one traveller to have been one of the wonders of the East, containing almost every plant of both hemispheres. Here he passed all the time which the duties of his administration left him free. He directed also all the details of rural industry in his own person with great ability. The garden, which he had purchased of the East India Company, was soon after ceded by him to the king at the original price he had given. Previous to his departure, he instructed M. Ceré, for whom he had destined the direction of the garden at Monplaisir, in all the details of Asiatic cultivation, and Ceré subsequently justified the choice by his care, ability, and courage.

It is painful to reflect, however, that after the success of Poivre, and all the activity and pains employed in the introduction of spice trees into the Isle of France, men should have been found, with no other motive than jealousy, to destroy them after his departure. This fact has been attested by a man who saw the destruction passing before his eyes, and had need of all his influence to prevent the garden and plants, which had been enclosed and nurtured by Poivre, from becoming annihilated, as well as to defend Ceré against the enemies which his zeal and patriotism in preserving the fruit of Poivre's labours had evoked.

M. Ceré succeeded in securing the first harvest of cloves and nutmegs in 1777. One of the chief desires of Poivre had been to add the dry rice of Cochin-China to the plants that already enriched his garden—for he set as great a value on this aliment as on the most precious of spices. He had often proposed to go and discover it himself in Cochin-China; but a sort of fatality had at that time fixed the attention of nations and governments on an enterprise which had an *éclat* inverse to its utility.

He had afterwards been directed to give his undivided attention to the introduction of spice trees, and it was not known that Cochin-China, which appeared at that time to present no important object for commerce, merited an expedition for the procurement of its rice. The colonial marine, too, was then small, and did not admit of a diversion on two different enterprises. The means which Poivre had devised to render the two enterprises compatible with each other were further impeded by the obstacles which the division of the civil authority, the presence of the military chief, and the general diversity of views, interposed. Obliged, then, to renounce his project of obtaining the dry rice from Cochin-China during his own administration, he aimed, by a change in the culture of the moist rice, to accustom it to grow by degrees without having its root under water. He began by planting it in the different cantons at the commencement of the rainy season, so that the natural

moisture was found sufficient for a part, which grew up and fructified.

The means adopted by Poivre to restore to Port Louis the advantages which nature had once so lavishly bestowed, but which successive governments had neglected, are detailed in another place. The solicitude of Poivre, equally active and benevolent, could not confine itself to objects within the province of his administration. He set, with reason, the greatest importance on determining, by correct astronomical observations, the position of the isles and shoals which intervene between the Isle of France and India. For this purpose he had engaged his friend the Abbé Rochon, who was then a member of the Academy of Marine, and afterwards of the Academy of Sciences, to undertake this interesting labour, and made every preparation for the purpose. At the moment of his embarkation, a conflict of authority hindered the departure of Abbé Rochon; and Poivre, much to his chagrin, saw lost the opportunity of making a discovery so useful. As the event turned out, it was fortunate for all parties. The Abbé was to have embarked in the same vessel as that under the command of the estimable but unfortunate Marion. The fate of that able and virtuous man, who was massacred and devoured by the anthropophagi of New Zealand, was soon made known, and Poivre thanked Heaven for the opposition which, in retaining the Abbé Rochon, had removed a frightful danger. They wept together the fate of Marion, whom they tenderly loved, and to whom they had been bound by the strongest ties of friendship.

Poivre left the Isle of France in 1773, his Intendancy having lasted for five years. The memory of men, who have filled an eminent place in the career of the public administration, merits no less notice than that of those who have done honour to humanity in the arts and sciences. Poivre was the true model of an administrator; in him the private were the source of public virtues. To a perfect disinterestedness he joined a scrupulous equity, an active solicitude for those placed under him, a calm firmness and perseverance approved by all, and an unalterable equality of soul and temper. The administration of justice was altogether organized by his care, and carried to perfection by his zeal. As his whole life had been devoted to the public good,[1] he returned to France with but a moderate fortune, which his economy had accumulated, to that

[1] Poivre was the author of several works, which suffice to prove that he was a man of sound judgment and philosophic inquiry. The first was "The Voyage of a Philosopher," translated into English by Goldsmith, and contains observations on the manners, arts, and agriculture of the people of Asia and Africa; "A Memoir on the Preparation and Dyeing of Silk;" "Remarks on the History and Manners of the Chinese;" and a discourse addressed to the inhabitants of the Isles of France and Bourbon, which, with various other manuscripts, have been collected and printed by the Academy of Lyons, of which he was a member.

which he had possessed prior to his appointment. But he left his memory in the hearts of the inhabitants of the two colonies, and the king settled on him a pension of 12,000 livres. It is needless to add, that his administration was free from broils, and that he never encountered an enemy. M. Poivre died in 1786. The Isle of France has, as yet, reared no memorial to this celebrated man, except the street of St. Louis that bears his name—a stain which, it is to be hoped, they will soon endeavour to efface.

In November 1768, M. Dumas was succeeded as governor by M. Steinaver, who was himself followed in the June of the next year by the Chevalier des Roches. In August, 1772, the Chevalier de Ternay arrived in the place of Des Roches; and on the same day M. Maillard de Merle succeeded M. Poivre as Intendant. In December 2nd, 1776, the Chevalier de Guirau la Brilliane was named Governor-general, and M. Foucalt was appointed Intendant of the two islands in November 1777. In May, 1779, arrived Le Vicomte de Souillac as Governor-general; and M. Chevreau as Intendant-general, in July 1781. The latter was succeeded, in 1785, by M. Motais de Narbonne, as Commissary-general.

In this year a special mark of favour was bestowed on the Isles of France and Bourbon, by which the former, in consequence of its singly possessing ports where ships could ride with safety, was almost exclusively benefited. The old East India Company was dissolved, and a new one was formed in its room, with the enjoyment of a monopoly of trade between France, India, and China, with the single exception, that a permission to trade with the East Indies was conceded to the inhabitants of the isles, so that the vessels of the Company and the two colonies were able to navigate the Indian Ocean to the exclusion of all other French ships. At the same time it was allowed to the latter to convey the merchandise of Europe to the Isle of France, which was disposed of by its merchants in the ports of the East, China excepted, concurrently with the East India Company. This measure rendered the colony a vast entrepôt between Europe and Asia. Hence arose a sudden and factitious prosperity. Industry was turned to commerce alone, and agriculture was neglected.

It was during the government of the Vicomte Souillac, that the war kindled by the American Revolution, broke out into a general flame, and France, assuming on a sudden a hostile attitude towards Great Britain, the war was extended to the East by the departure of a squadron of eight ships of the line and four frigates, under M. Orve, and a reinforcement of five ships of the line and two frigates, under Admiral Suffrein, who assumed the sole command on the demise of the former officer. The land forces amounted to 3,500 men.

The line of policy marked out by France in concentrating her forces at the Isle of France, was to seize the opportunity which was

afforded by the centrical position of the island, for bursting on the Indian Peninsula, and unite her forces with those of Hyder Ally, with whom she had concluded an alliance against the common foe.

After the successful accomplishment of this object, the squadron captured a British ship of the line, and a frigate, which had separated from the body of the fleet. Meanwhile Great Britain had not been a passive spectator of the superiority of her opponent, and, though the larger part of her fleets and forces were diverted by the conflict on another continent, yet Sir Edward Hughes soon found himself in a position to proceed with his squadron in quest of the enemy. Within a period of seven months, four battles took place, though they were unattended with any decisive result to either party. In the first the British maintained their ground, though not without a considerable loss, and the enemy retired. The second left the issue in like manner undecided. In the third and fourth the victory was claimed by the British fleet, but the enemy retired in good order, and when their opponents were out of sight, captured a number of East Indiamen. Perhaps there never was a series of conflicts, in which bravery and discipline were so equally matched, as in the respective squadrons of Admirals Hughes and Suffrein. The possession of the Isle of France, although it could seldom or never ensure the superiority to the French squadron, was, notwithstanding its disadvantages in some respects, such as the dearness of provisions and the frequency of hurricanes, invaluable for every purpose of refitment, and the victualling a fleet, when but slightly damaged, and, by its centrical position, enabled it to gain a march over its opponent, as well as to intercept its commercial marine, as was constantly proved by Admiral Suffrein during the whole of the American war. It is rather surprising, however, that the Isle of France had not been put in a better state of defence against an attack in the absence of the squadron. Captain Munro, who visited it after the termination of the war, observes on this head :—

"The principal inhabitants of the island laugh at our not having sent in the beginning of the war the squadron of Sir Edward Hughes to attack it on its way to Madras. One of the most respectable persons in the town frankly assured me, that they were much afraid of it, and that the island was in such a sad state of defence, that, anticipating the event, they had already begun to think of the articles of capitulation. I think myself it would have infallibly fallen into our hands ; for at this time scarcely any works of defence had been raised, and there were not more than 500 European troops in the island. I doubt not, but that the French will take care for the future not to be surprised in such a weak state."

CHAPTER IV.

The French Revolution, and its effect on the Mauritius—The Administrations of D'Entrecasteaux, the Comte de Conway, General Malartic, and the Comte de la Morlière.

On November the 5th, 1787, arrived the Chevalier de Bruny D'Entrecasteaux, as Governor-general, who was in his turn succeeded by the Comte de Conway, in 1789; M. Dupuy filled also the office of Intendant. The power enjoyed by the Governor and Intendant had of late been exercised in so arbitrary a manner that several of the inhabitants became anxious to free themselves from it, and the distance of the mother country only increased their impatience to learn the events of the French Revolution, which broke out in 1789. The colony had recently made a rapid increase in wealth and population, in consequence of the erection of factories by French merchants for carrying on the trade with the East. The new Intendant, who had been formerly counsellor of the Chatelet at Paris, was both amiable in his manners, and possessed of a superior capacity, and succeeded by his mild conduct and vigorous policy in conciliating the confidence and friendship of the inhabitants. M. Macnamara then commanded the marines. In the late war he had gained, as he well deserved, the reputation of a brave and skilful officer, and was decidedly opposed to the Revolution. A vessel, which sailed from Bourdeaux in October, 1789, and arrived at the Isle of France in the January of the following year, brought intelligence of the great power the national assembly of France had usurped to itself. The captain, officers, and ship's crew had all assumed the tri-coloured cockade. On their landing with this revolutionary signal, and relating the occurrences that had taken place in France, the flames of revolutionary violence instantly burst forth in all parts of the colony, and the cockade was instantly adopted. Unfortunately, some ill-intentioned[1] young men of the town, wishing to avail themselves of this moment of effervescence, and to follow the rapid march of events in France, posted up advertisements in the streets, inviting all the citizens to form themselves into primary assemblies, after the example of those that had met in all the communes of France, to draw up memorials of demands and complaints. General Conway, the governor, who was imbued with all the prejudices of the old noblesse, perceiving that the people were infected by the

[1] "Les Refraî chisseurs," a body of young men who had formed a part of the crew of the squadron of Admiral Suffrein, but remaining at the Isle of France, lived by their wits, and engaged in constant affairs of honour with the more respectable inhabitants. On their dissolution they were succeeded by the "Chevaliers d'industrie."

principles of the French Revolution, determined to oppose it by his own authority, and made none of the concessions requisite to calm the popular spirit. He accordingly sent a party of soldiers to arrest the young men who had posted up the advertisements, and planted the tri-coloured flag, and hastened to the house of the Intendant to consult with him on the occasion; but the people had been collected in the square, and the young men, whom the Governor-general had just caused to be arrested, with the cockades in their hats, happening to pass at that moment to prison, were set at liberty by the multitude, who went immediately to the house of the Intendant, and compelled the Comte de Conway himself to accept of the national cockade.

On the following day, the inhabitants of St. Louis united in a primary assembly for the whole colony, after the example of those in France. It was composed of fifty-one members, who were freely selected from among the inhabitants according to the new electoral system, and it established the different constituted authorities, to whom it confided the internal government of the colony. Arriving at the Isle of France during this state of commotion, M. de Macnamara, commandant of the French marine in the Indian Ocean, could not conceal his aversion to such revolutionary proceedings. The soldiers of the 107th and 108th regiments, who formed the garrison of the island, following the example of the army in France, had abandoned themselves to the cause of the revolutionists. M. de Macnamara, however, deemed it his duty to give an account of their defection to the Minister of Marine, but he was betrayed: a copy of his letter was sent to the barracks, and incited the soldiers to threaten him with their vengeance. For this purpose the grenadiers collected themselves in a body, to march down to the port, and lay their hands upon all the boats and canoes they might find there, with the view of proceeding to board the ship, and seize the person of the admiral himself. Informed, however, of the preparations that were making to take forcible possession of his ship, the latter had made ready and pointed his cannon; but the moment the grenadiers presented themselves to mount on board, his sailors refused to defend him, and he was left to the discretion of those furious men, who conducted him on shore, and led him as their prisoner before the newly-constituted authority of the colony, which was sitting in the cathedral, and loudly demanded that he should be punished. The fermentation of the soldiers had risen to such a pitch, that it was not possible to appease it, so that the members of the assembly, with the desire of saving the life of this brave man, found it necessary to make him undergo several formal interrogatories, and to send him to prison for his own security, hoping that the fury of the soldiers, who unfortunately resolved on conducting him thither, might thus be appeased. In his way to confinement, M. de Macnamara, passing by the door of a watch-

maker of his acquaintance, conceived some hopes of escaping from the midst of his furious[1] escort. With this design he rushed in at the door, which was open, flattering himself that by using his pistols, which he had kept in his pocket, he should intimidate those that dared to follow him; but his threats only increased the rage of the soldiers, who, throwing themselves in a crowd upon him, murdered him in an instant, and after cutting off his head, and parading it through the town, cast it into an adjoining sewer; giving to the Isle of France a horrible example, the remembrance of which still makes it shudder with indignation.

The inhabitants were distressed and humiliated at seeing their island, till then unspotted by crime, stained by so bloody an outrage. It was the only one, however, that happened during the whole course of the revolution, while France herself, and all the other colonies, were inundated with the blood of victims to democratic injustice and barbarity.

In July, the Comte de Conway, giving in his resignation, set sail for France, and was provisionally replaced by M. de Cossigny, commandant at the Isle of Bourbon. M. de Malartic, named Governor-general by Louis XVI., a short time previous to his deposition, arrived in the Isle of France in June, 1792. He found the two colonies governed each by its particular colonial assembly, whose decrees had the force of law after receiving the sanction of the governor, who represented the state. The command of the military force, and the regulation of the interior department, were also committed to this officer, in conjunction with four commissaries of the king. To the Intendant was left the administration of the finances. Everything now appeared to promise a state of repose for the future. The national assembly of France had expressly recognised the new order of things by the resolution, "Les assemblées coloniales actuellement existantes subsisteront;" and the assembly itself had exhibited a disposition to effect the gradual removal of abuses by three decrees, one of which forbade the mutilation of Marons, or fugitive slaves, after capture; the second abolished the trade in slaves; and the third established political equality between the whites and free citizens of colour, a class of recent origin. But the paternal administration of the new governor could not entirely quiet the agitation which the news brought by every French ship tended to augment in making known the dominancy of the Jacobins, and the general anarchy in which the mother country was involved.

In this state of things, the most prudent and influential of the inhabitants united their efforts with the governor and the majority of the colonial assembly, but were unable to hinder the formation of a Jacobin club, called the Chaumière, and the erection of a guillotine

[1] The pusillanimity of the colonial assembly in leaving M. de Macnamara to his fate has been much reprobated.

by that body in the public place, with the design of employing it against the victims of their suspicions. The new club soon rivalled the constituted authorities. Some of the more resolute of the party proceeded to the house of M. de Malartic, and compelled him to grant them a sloop to convey one of their detachments of 100 men to the Isle of Bourbon to arrest M. Dupressis Vigoreux, the governor M. Fayol, the civil commissary, and M. de St. Felix (who had been formerly commandant of the marine, but had been deprived of his office by the influence of the party styling themselves "Les amis de la liberté et de l'égalité"), with some others, under the pretext that they had corresponded with the English. Having succeeded in this design, they brought away the prisoners on board the sloop.

On their arrival at Port Louis they were landed under an escort of the party, and conducted to the Chaumière, then sitting. The president, who had formerly been a police-officer, gravely observed,—"The people accuse you, and the people will judge you." Upon this they were fettered and conveyed to a dungeon, where they remained nearly six months. The colonial assembly, which was better composed, at length succeeded in putting a stop to the effervescence of the Jacobins; and the guillotine,[1] that terrible instrument of slaughter, became (thanks to their firmness) a simple Jacobin formality, and in happy contrast with those which were making France stand on an end,—it was undefiled by human blood. Orders were also given that the prisoners brought from Bourbon should be judged by a court-martial alone, to be named by all the citizens of the colony, united in primary assemblies, each in its own district. The delay occasioned by this proceeding, gave the assembly time to concert together so as to contrive that the choice of the members of the commission might fall upon upright persons, and their design was crowned with success.

At this moment an account arrived of the decree of the national convention, abolishing slavery and the slave-trade in all the colonies and dependencies of the French Republic. This intelligence, in which the inhabitants of the colony were so deeply interested, operated like a talisman in changing their views of the policy of the Revolution; and the Jacobins, lately so formidable, were now only composed of men whose object was the downfall of the government.[2]

[1] So absurd were the Sans-culottes, that for want of a human victim for the guillotine they sacrificed a sheep.

[2] The Sans-culottes (says the local historian) were by no means rapacious after gain in their political movement, but were pure and honest even in their excesses. They were the introducers of a stern equality, and a relaxment of manners in society, and would assume an air of familiarity with their superiors, not excepting the governor, which strangely contrasted with the natural constitution of society. Their proceedings at the Isle of France had little of originality about them, as they imitated, to the letter, the folly and childishness of the same party in France. They had a great hatred of the clergy, whom they at first constantly insulted and maltreated.

The military commission nominated for the trial of the prisoners, found no difficulty also in dissolving itself by objecting to the mode of its institution. Encouraged by the news of the defeat of Robespierre and the Jacobin clubs in France, the colonial assembly, which was already strong, from the change that had taken place in the public mind, at length determined on still further freeing itself from the yoke of the Chaumière, by causing the different Jacobin leaders to be arrested, and shutting up the place of their meeting. The guillotine was on the instant removed from the public square, and the prisoners were set at liberty without having undergone any trial,—a measure for which there were no solid grounds, in the general opinion of the colony. The principal Jacobins, to the number of thirty, were also immediately deported to France. Abandoned by the mother country, which was then the prey of anarchy—left to its own resources in the midst of a maritime war, and surrounded by the English fleets, the Isle of France, by the sagacity and prudence of its governor and Colonial Assembly, and the patriotism of its inhabitants, not only preserved its internal peace almost intact, but made the national flag respected on the surrounding seas. M. de Malartic ably profited, moreover, by the influence and authority he had obtained in reserving to himself the execution of the laws, which appertained to his rank as governor, and induced the Assembly to pass a resolution which recognised as obligatory no laws emanating from France, unless they had been previously examined and sanctioned, and no revolutionary decree was either published or executed in the Isle of France.

In the course of 1794, measures were taken, by the equipment of a naval force in the colony itself, to interrupt the blockade of the port, which had been for some time maintained by two English men-of-war.[1] This object was at length accomplished by the patriotism of the inhabitants, the female part of whom signalized their

[1] The French account of this battle, though not absolutely incorrect, is calculated to give a false impression. The French force consisted of the *Cybele*, a frigate of forty guns; the *Prudente*, of thirty-six; and two corvettes, the one of twenty, the other of fourteen guns, the whole under the command of Capt. Renaud. The English force consisted of the *Centurion*, of fifty; and the *Diomede*, of forty-four guns. Though much damaged by the French fire, from her having been singly exposed to it, the *Centurion* compelled the enemy to retreat, which they did (says Mr. James) under pretence of repairing damages, and actually pursued them for some distance. The same writer states, that the *Cybele* would have been taken had it not been for the misconduct of the captain of the *Diomede*, who would not, from a private pique, bear up to assist his consort, for which he was broken on his return to England, but subsequently reinstated. The French loss in the battle, was thirty-seven killed, and eighty-seven wounded. English loss, three killed, and twenty-three wounded. The French account is incorrect, because it does not state the *rate* of the British ships, the principal point in question, and because it attempts to prove that they were driven from the blockade of Port Louis by the French squadron, merely because they retired *elsewhere* to repair damages, which, as a matter of course, they would do.

devotion by placing their jewellery at the disposal of the Government.

The intelligence, however, which the colony had received of the decree of the French republic, by which negro slavery was abolished (without any proviso for compensation to the owners), still kept it in the utmost anxiety, as well from its attachment to France, as from the certainty of the misfortunes which such a measure would occasion the moment it was put into execution, in a community which, out of a population of 70,000, contained 55,000 slaves. Nor did the example of St. Domingo present a less frightful picture of the consequences which they considered must inevitably follow. The persons most alarmed at their situation, in consequence of being the largest proprietors of negroes, were the planters; for they could not be blind to the fact, that their very existence would be but precarious while the decree remained disannulled; perhaps, too, they were influenced by an opinion that they should be happier if they belonged to a government that would protect their property. But they, whose fortune depended upon commerce, and who had already formed to themselves exterior resources, as well as those who expected to form them, preserved a passive attachment to France, wishing, however, to retard, as much as possible (but without compromising themselves in the business), the execution of the decree, if an official order should arrive to that effect, more especially if it was supported by a power adequate to that object.

Such was the state of opinions, when, on the 18th of July, a squadron of four frigates, under the command of Vice-Admiral Sercy, entered Port Louis, bearing on board MM. Baco and Burnel, two agents of the directory of the French republic, who were charged to proclaim the immediate emancipation of the slaves, and the overthrow of the independence momentarily assumed by the colony. It being the Decad (*i. e.* holiday), almost all the merchants of the town had left, according to custom, for their country houses, as well as several members of the Colonial Assembly. They hastened, however, to the port, immediately on a signal having been made from the mountains, announcing the arrival of the squadron; but, although some general measures had been taken to prevent the entrance of any one into the colony without the permission of the Colonial Assembly, the division of Admiral Sercy had already anchored at the mouth of the harbour, and the agents, dressed in their directorial costume, had left the ship, followed by a company of grenadiers attached to the troops that accompanied them, who were commanded by General Magalon. The officer commanding the pinnace in the harbour remonstrated in vain with the agents on their landing, until they had received a permission from the Colonial Assembly, which should also be ratified by M. de Malartic. No force having been prepared to oppose the landing of the troops, they received no interruption; and the people, assembling in crowds to meet them,

flattered themselves that they were the bearers of resolutions favourable to the colony. They were accordingly conducted, with all possible respect and ceremony, to the Colonial Assembly, which had hastily assembled for their reception.

After they had unfolded their commission as agents of the directory, they proceeded to speak in a manner most favourable to the colony, and declared that they had no other object than its happiness and prosperity. They were, therefore, received in the most respectful manner. One of the members of the Assembly, however, with more courage and presence of mind than the rest, demanded if there was not a commission appointed to receive from the agents the orders and instructions with which they were charged, and to make a report of them to the Assembly. This question appeared to take the agents aback, but, evading it, they were that very evening installed in the government house.

On the day following, they reviewed the two regiments, the 107th and 108th, which formed the garrison, and caused the troops which they had brought with them, consisting of 800 men and two companies of artillery, to be landed at the review. They paid the highest compliments to the soldiers, and affected to blame the colony, which rewarded such services in paper money. A speech such as this soon spread abroad, and began to confirm the fears of those who were alarmed at the arrival of persons, who, by their great powers, might become the arbiters of their fate. The evasion of the agents, in producing their instructions, had already, indeed, excited their suspicions; nor was it long before the mask was thrown aside by the agents themselves, who, deeming themselves secure in their new position, sought for a pretext to quarrel with the governor, whom they were instructed to depose, and even went so far as to threaten to have him hanged. They were also so imprudent as to menace in the same manner M. des Croizelles, the member of the Colonial Assembly who had demanded that their instructions should be laid before them, and made no secret of their intention to enforce the observance of all the decrees of the republic.

On the next day, they reviewed the national guard of St. Louis, and were astonished to find it four thousand strong. They were now received with an appearance of mistrust, which soon became general, and the alarm was communicated to the inhabitants in the interior, who, after a conference with each other, came armed into the town.

For the last two days, the Colonial Assembly, which was charged, in particular, with the safety of the island, had established a committee of nine members to correspond with the agents, and endeavour to gain some information as to their future intentions. The silence in which they persisted no longer left any doubt of their design of putting into execution the decree, which abolished

slavery and the slave trade in every colony of France. The inhabitants, then, being at last awakened to a sense of the imminent danger which surrounded them, were influenced by a unanimous feeling to enforce the deportation of the agents; but, as it was apprehended that they might be supported by the troops, twenty young creoles devoted their lives to the service of the colony, and vowed the death of these instruments of republican despotism.

On the 21st of July, almost all the inhabitants of the island were assembled in the public place, at the door of the government house, where the agents still continued to reside, although informed of the danger which threatened them. Early in the morning, the Governor-general Malartic, borne in triumph on the shoulders of the people, was taken from his government, and carried to the Colonial Assembly. The agents, viewing this manifestation of the popular enthusiasm in the light of a defiance to themselves, ordered General Magalon, who had accompanied them, to cause the troops to take up arms against the inhabitants. This order the general excused himself from obeying, on the plea that, as he was under the command of General Malartic, he could not lawfully act without his permission. The agents in vain informed him that they deposed General Malartic, and appointed him as his successor. In the meanwhile, some young creoles entered the government house by the windows, and announced to the agents that, as they were the bearers of orders that would bring destruction on the colony, they deserved death; at the same moment one of the agents narrowly escaped being killed by a pistol that was discharged at them, and the other was preserved by the commissioners of the Colonial Assembly, who happened at the moment to be treating with them. The inhabitants, on being informed of the event, and seeing that the soldiers remained quiet in their quarters, contented themselves with insisting on the immediate re-embarkation of the agents—a demand to which the members of the commission acceded; and, having persuaded the agents to submit, they were obliged to accompany them in person, to save them from the general indignation, and conducted them on board a sloop, which received orders to convey them to the Philippine Islands, as one of the most remote places in the world from France. This order was confirmed by General Malartic, who had been present during the whole of the tumult. The sloop, having in twelve hours received all the stores necessary for its voyage, got under sail; but, on the day after their departure, the agents dressing themselves in their directorial costume, harangued the crew, and soon induced them to mutiny against the captain, and consent to return to France, after putting in at Madagascar to take in the stores necessary for so long a voyage.

The colony being thus freed from the presence of the agents, gave itself up to transports of gratitude towards the military chiefs and troops who had refused to shed blood. Every one, in proportion to

his means, presented the soldiers with largesses, and good order and tranquillity resumed their sway under the administration of the constituted authorities. An advice was immediately sent to France with an address of the Colonial Assembly to the two councils and directory, announcing the deportation of the agents, and representing it (as may be supposed) in a manner most favourable to themselves. The imminent danger to which every one had been exposed by the threatened emancipation of the slaves, had rallied all, as it were, to the common standard, and produced a general union for the immediate dismissal of the agents. Every one congratulated himself on so happy an event, and rejoicings were celebrated on the occasion throughout the colony. But the conflict of interests was not long in rekindling discord, and the ill-intentioned who are ever active in fomenting mischief, conceived hopes of renewing the public disorder by means of the soldiers of the garrison. The latter, to whom the colony had continued to give proofs of its gratitude in order to maintain peace, abused the kindness with which they were treated, and giving themselves up to licentiousness with the negro women, formed a plan of freeing them by force from the servitude which retained them with their masters. The Colonial Assembly, which had watched with such care for the preservation of the community, on being informed of the fresh danger with which it was threatened, succeeded in obtaining an order from M. de Malartic for conveying all the soldiers who came in the squadron of Vice-admiral Sercy to Batavia, which was accomplished at the end of 1797, under the pretext that that colony, which was in alliance with them, was threatened by the enemy and required their assistance.

The Isle of France was now placed in a position the most critical that can be conceived. One cause of internal alarm had been removed but to raise up another; this overcome, the seeds of discord yet remained, and waited for an opportunity alone to spring up and re-embarass the community. It was still engaged in a struggle with the French Republic, whose emissaries it had ignominiously expelled, and whose ultimate vengeance it feared, and had from its own slender resources alone to defend its soil from the insults and attack of an English squadron of observation. Nor was the English admiral in command of the station slow in his endeavours to profit by a condition so critical, and at once offered to take the colony under British protection. He was met, however, by a peremptory refusal, and in an answer, dictated under the influence of those heroic feelings, which the presence of an imminent danger frequently serves to engender, they replied, "En repoussant les commissaires de la République, nous n'avons fait que conserver notre colonie à la France; nous la trahirions, en y laissant entrer ses ennemis."

The emergency was pressing: it was evident that every nerve must be strained, and not a moment lost in organising a new and effective body of men in addition to the national guard, already called out.

Every man of an age capable of bearing arms was now added to the old body, and to this was joined a corps of flying artillery. By frequent exercise under able officers, they soon acquired an aptitude for every military manœuvre. Nor were their efforts confined to their own island. Since the time Madras had been captured by La Bourdonnais, and Tronquemale had witnessed the valour of Suffrein, the youth, but more especially the Creole part of it, had made themselves remarkable by the intrepidity they had displayed on board the fleets of France, or by the efforts of individual enterprise. Privateers[1] were now immediately equipped, and succeeded in bringing in an immense number of East Indiamen as prizes into Port Louis. Its defence, too, covered the island with glory, and the proceedings adopted in the teeth of events that threatened its destruction[2] belong rather to the age of romance, were not romance set aside by reality. Seldom perhaps has history furnished an example on a parallel with this instance, save that of the defeat of Demetrius at Rhodes, though wielding the concentrated power of Antigonus; an instance in which a single and inconsiderable island, denuded of nearly the whole of its military force, by the natural strength of its position and the bravery and patriotism of its inhabitants singly and (for a long time) effectually resisted the hostilities of the mightiest of nations, mocking the chagrin with which it witnessed the capture of its richest merchantmen, and unsupported by, nay, rather engaged in a struggle with, its own metropolis, dared to send the larger part and finally the whole of its regular troops to Europe, to the succour of the Dutch at Batavia, and of Tippoo Sultan at Mysore. Its reputation was now spread far and wide, and it was for a brief space (ridiculous as it may appear) regarded in the light of an independent power. It was in this character that a deputation from the inhabitants of Graaf Reynett came to request its assistance against the English. These ambassadors were followed by others from the king of Pegu on the same errand, and an embassy from Tippoo Saib to the Colonial Assembly arrived at the Isle of France in 1798.

But a new danger menaced the colony from within. It will be remembered that the skeletons of the two old regiments were all the troops that remained in the Isle of France. The Colonial Assembly by diminishing the number of the soldiers in the colony, flattered itself that it could the more easily retain them in their duty, and had succeeded in maintaining tranquillity until May 1798, when these regiments having also formed a similar project of proclaiming liberty to the slaves, the Colonial Assembly obtained an

[1] The Isle of France sent forth twenty private corsairs exclusive of corvettes and the national frigates.

[2] Even the revolutionists differed among themselves, which threatened more than once to bring about a collision between the respective quartiers or municipalities, as well as between the latter and the central government in the town. "Every one" (says the writer of the local history) "wanted to be a legislator."

order from General Malartic for the embarkation of two companies of grenadiers on board the frigate *La Seine*, then ready to sail on a cruise. The grenadier companies may be said to be the soul and to contain the energy of the French regiments, whether good or bad. The parties, therefore, who wished to excite trouble in the colony, perceiving that their designs would be frustrated by the embarkation of the grenadiers, determined on executing at once the plan of insurrection they had been so long fomenting. They accordingly represented to the grenadiers that the order for their deportation had been obtained from General Malartic by surprise; that in the place of sailing on a cruise they were to be sent to Tippoo Sultan, with whose despotism and cruelty they were well acquainted, and that the plan had been formed by the Colonial Assembly for their destruction, as might be proved by the deportation of their comrades to Batavia, a colony remarkable for the unhealthiness of its climate. The grenadiers easily yielded to these insinuations, and refused to obey the orders for embarkation.

General Malartic in vain pointed out the criminality of disobedience, and condescended so far as to assure them that they were not to be landed in the dominions of Tippoo Sultan, but were only to reinforce *La Seine*, which was otherwise too weak for a cruise; that they would have a chance of making some rich captures, and consequently obtain a share in the prizes, but all this did not satisfy the soldiers. General Malartic now threatened to use more forcible means of persuasion, but they insolently replied that he would find it to be a difficult undertaking, and, despite the entreaties of the greater part of their officers,[1] they induced the whole of their comrades in the other companies of the regiments to mutiny and take up arms. Their first proceeding was to get possession of eight field-pieces lying near their quarters; next to break open the doors of the armoury, where the cartouches and cartridges were kept. Fortunately the officers of the regiments were men of the old régime, connected with the colony by the ties of property or relationship, and succeeded in preventing the soldiers from coming out of their quarters in arms (as they had several times intended to do) by remaining there themselves, so as to restrain them, if possible, from any act of violence. Thus passed the night, the soldiers remaining the whole of it under arms in their quarters. The news of the insurrection of the garrison had soon, however, spread through every canton in the island, and orders had been sent to every part, that every man capable of bearing arms should hasten to the town in the course of the night. At day-break on the 25th of April the "réveille" was beat in the town by the drummers of the national guard,

[1] The soldiers were incited by the revolutionists to kill their officers, with whom they were for the moment displeased, but the latter escaped by their address.

and every one eagerly flew to the post that had been assigned him, confident that the fate of the colony was now to be decided.

In the course of the night every means had been prepared for the attack on the soldiers, who had fortunately remained in their quarters. In a moment the whole national guard of the colony was assembled: a battery of four pieces of cannon and two howitzers were planted on the hill, which commanded the court of the barracks where the soldiers were still under arms, and at break of day in amazement discovered these preparations. Twelve field-pieces served by the young men of the colony, who had been thoroughly disciplined for the service, with four columns of the national guard, advanced each on different sides to the attack of the barracks. Some companies of the national guard, which contained a number of Sans-culottes in their ranks, and could not, therefore, be depended on, were posted so as to be kept in awe. All these arrangements having been executed with the greatest celerity, General Malartic, accompanied by the Committee of Public Safety which was selected from the Colonial Assembly, and at the head of the national guard, summoned the mutinous companies of the grenadiers to embark immediately on board the frigate for a cruise, at the same time informing them, that, if they persisted in a refusal, he would instantly employ force. The matches were lighted and cartridges distributed on both sides: the muskets were loaded, and every thing presaged a most frightful issue to the combat. The grenadiers still persisted in their refusal, when a suggestion was offered by the Committee of Public Safety, which they were induced to accept by the address of one of their officers, who offered to accompany them, viz., that General Malartic should issue an order for the return of the regiments to France, to which they should be conveyed by the frigate,[1] and a merchant vessel to be prepared for the purpose; in the mean time a parley should be granted till noon to enable them to make up their knapsacks, collect their linen, and depart. The soldiers, after much hesitation, accepted the proposal, and the same day the Isle of France was freed from the lawlessness of 800 armed stipendiaries of the French Republic, who had conspired its overthrow, as much by the good conduct of the officers (most of whom remained behind in the colony) as by the courage and unanimity of the inhabitants.

The colony now looked forward with confidence to a state of tranquillity. It was hoped that it no longer contained in its bosom an individual who was not interested in its preservation, seeing that it was fortunately governed by a general, who, though holding his post under the French Government, accorded with every wish of the Colonial Assembly. It was thought also, that that Assembly, renewed as it was every year by the suffrages of the citizens, was linked with its happiness and prosperity. But the power of the

[1] This frigate, *La Seine*, was captured off the coast of France, and with the troops carried to England.

Governor was now (as indeed it always was) become entirely dependent on the will of individuals, and a dispute soon arose with respect to the law about to be enacted for the re-imbursement of the debts contracted in paper currency (bullion not being obtainable) the depreciation of which as issued in the colony by the Intendants in the name of the French Republic, had, as in France, increased in such a proportion as to bear a real value, less by a thousandth part, than the sum it had nominally represented. To make matters worse, the depreciation had not been arrested until it had fallen to the last stage of debasement by a deposit of merchandise in the magazines of the general commune, certain quantities of which, as fixed by the law, were handed over to every bearer of the paper currency who wished to exchange it.

As soon, then, as intelligence reached the Isle of France with regard to the decree which had emanated from the two councils in France, relative to the payment of these debts contracted at the time of the paper currency,[1] a violent discussion arose in the Colonial Assembly as to the propriety (now that credit had began to revive) of deciding whether the holders of the bills should be repaid by their real or fictitious value. The creditors demanded the one most advantageous for themselves, and strongly approved of the measure, which had emanated from France. The debtors, on the other hand, represented, with great force and truth, that, from the circumstances under which the different contracts had been in general entered upon in the colony bearing no resemblance to those which had taken place in France, it would be a crying injustice to apply the same laws where there was an evident difference both in the manner, situation, and contracts of the colony. In this mêlée of discordant interests, the Colonial Assembly, guided by past circumstances alone, adopted the mode of payment most founded on the principle of justice, and the whole affair was on the point of being finally arranged, when the creditors entered into a conspiracy to dissolve the Assembly, and procure the enactment of a law more favourable to their interest. Regardless of everything save their personal interests, and without reflecting on the consequences of their conduct, they joined themselves to the Sans-culottes and a number of lawless individuals who had been ever on the watch to take part with those, who wanted to excite insurrection and disorder.

It was in the afternoon of the 4th of November, 1799, that the conspiracy burst forth in the town of St. Louis. The insurgents had selected this the most sultry part of the day, knowing that the

[1] The more prudent inhabitants would neither purchase nor sell produce except in bullion, foreseeing the result of an unlimited paper-currency. In 1798, 10,000 francs in assignats were given in exchange for one piastre in money, and General Decaen bought up a milliard of letters of order, which represented immoveable property for 20,000 piastres. The lower orders were the chief victims of this financial crisis, and many of them were nearly starved under its operation.

majority of the more respectable inhabitants were now accustomed to retire to rest. The alarm was first beat at the top of the great street, a kind of suburb where the conspirators principally resided. The Governor, hearing the réveille beat without his orders, immediately despatched one of his aides-du-camp to inform himself of the cause, and take the necessary measures for its discontinuance. The municipality also repaired to its post, and sent likewise one of its officers to support the orders of the General, but neither the aide-du-camp nor the municipal officer were regarded by the conspirators, who assembled in arms, and formed themselves in a body near the drummers. The two officers being unable by their representations to hinder them from continuing to beat the alarm, endeavoured to snatch the drum-sticks from the drummers, but were prevented, and a pistol was fired at both of them, but fortunately without effect. The réveille proceeding, the conspirators continued to increase, till they amounted to six hundred. They now hurried to the parade to take possession of the field-pieces in the court of the municipality. The guns in question belonged to a company of flying artillery, which was composed of chosen young men, all devoted to good order, and zealous for the honour of their corps. The réveille was no sooner heard by the young men than they hurried to their post, but found to their consternation that their cannon were already in the hands of the insurgents. Impelled, however, by a dauntless courage, and without reflecting that they had only their sabres to defend themselves against men armed with loaded muskets and bayonets, they made a rush to retake their cannon, but notwithstanding their impetuosity they were compelled to yield to the fire of the conspirators, who were superior in number. Several of them fell victims to the attack, and the rest were obliged to retreat. The insurgents being now in possession of the parade, the artillery, and magazines, placed sentinels at every point to prevent a concourse of the inhabitants, and loudly demanded of General Malartic to dissolve the Colonial Assembly. The different members of that body, though informed of the dangers that awaited them, hastily collected in one of the halls of justice that overlooked the parade, so as the better to adapt their resolutions in accordance with the turn of events. General Malartic during the tumult entered the hall, where the Colonial Assembly was collected. The conspirators rushed in with arms in their hands, and menaced the Governor and assembly with the whole weight of their vengeance, if the latter did not immediately dissolve itself. Citizen Journel was their president, a man who had acquired the esteem of the whole colony by the bravery and steadiness he had displayed in all the critical positions in which the Assembly had been placed. This moment of threats and terror brought new honour to him. His answer to the conspirators, who only waited for the signal to tear him in pieces, was as firm and courageous as if he had presided at a moment of the greatest tranquillity.

"Citizens," said he, "neither your threats nor the sight of your bayonets pointed against our breasts will induce the Assembly to dissolve itself, if it does not believe it necessary for the tranquillity of the colony. It is your duty to withdraw, and leave it to examine with leisure and with wisdom the decision it may make in regard to your demands." The cries of fury were redoubled at this answer. The conspirators next addressed themselves to General Malartic as the representative of the metropolis, and that venerable old man, thinking by his condescension to prevent greater mischief, pronounced the dissolution of the Colonial Assembly, and succeeded by his intercession in saving the most distinguished members from being murdered, several of the insurgents having rushed forward and compelled them to escape by the back doors. Meanwhile a general consternation had seized upon the most respectable inhabitants of the town, who, availing themselves of the darkness of the night, had sought momentary refuge in the country, and a withdrawal from the designs planned against them by the principal conspirators. Nay! to such a height did they carry their insolence, as to force General Malartic to sign an order for the imprisonment of twelve members of the Assembly. St. Louis presented everywhere the aspect of a civil war. The Sans-culottes, backed by the creditors who were likewise armed in order to intimidate the Colonial Assembly, were masters of all the posts in the town; cannons were pointed and fires lighted on every side to prevent the inhabitants of the country from co-operating with the refugees from the town in marching against it. The country people, informed of the events in the town, reflected maturely upon the re-establishment of good order, being unwilling to compromise the fate of the colony upon which their existence depended, by too hasty a movement of vengeance. A consultation was now held between the different cantons, and it was unanimously resolved that they should march from their respective localities against the town on the morning of the 6th of November. The delay that had intervened had already worked a great change in the minds of the conspirators, who had united to destroy the Colonial Assembly. Many of them who had been induced without reflection to enforce the dissolution of that body, so as to prevent the enactment of the law, which it was preparing for the repayment of the debts contracted during the depreciation of the paper currency, soon began to be ashamed of their associates, and to dread the misfortunes, which their conduct was about to bring upon the colony. Hence they refused to concur in the means, which the Sans-culottes were anxious to adopt to prevent the country people from entering the town to re-establish order.

Terrified at such a defection from their ranks, and perceiving that their number was small in comparison with that of their opponents, they offered no resistance, but suffered the different detachments from the country to enter the town in quiet; and the latter, having

taken possession of the post, formed a camp on the parade. The resolution of the majority of the inhabitants, who were collected in the town, was submitted to the deliberation of the directory representing the general commerce of the colony, and the municipality of St. Louis simultaneously assembled under the auspices of General Malartic. Although some very grievous enormities had been committed, and the perpetrators deserved the most extreme sentence of the law, the colony was, nevertheless, contented with the expulsion of the principal criminals, to avoid the effusion of blood—an abstinence which had been hitherto observed, in spite of all the commotions of the French revolution, the murder of Macnamara not being imputable to it, as it had been committed by the soldiers, from whom the inhabitants had subsequently delivered themselves. A vessel, named the *Hippolite*, was now, therefore, provided to convey the disturbers of the colony's tranquillity to France, and they sailed on the 15th of November to the number of forty-six.

The Isle of France being thus freed from the principal ringleaders of a conspiracy so fortunately terminated, found itself without a Colonial Assembly, which had been formally dissolved. The general opinion was, that it would be expedient to avail themselves of the present moment to discover the best means of reconstituting the original authority which the colony looked to as the centre of its safety, difficult to be preserved in the critical situation in which it found itself placed towards the metropolis. We have in turn witnessed the dismissal of the agents, the expulsion of the soldiers, the deportation of the disaffected, and its persistance in a refusal to adopt the decree abolishing slavery. It was, nevertheless, willing to remain a French colony, though it was well acquainted with the revengeful intention of the French directory, and the majority of the two councils. It was resolved, therefore, by General Malartic, in accordance with the desire of a committee assigned him as a council, that fifteen commissaries should be selected by the primary assemblies of the colony, eight for the county, and seven for the town, to remodel the constitution of the Colonial Assembly, which up to that time had been composed of fifty-one members, who had been found too numerous, since in each shock the colony had undergone several members of the Assembly had been the principal instigators, and had been actually proscribed and exiled in consequence. The proceedings of the committee were in accordance with the general wish, and the number of the Assembly was limited to twenty-one members for the future, of whom fourteen were sent by the country, and seven by the town, to be named by the primary assemblies of every canton in the colony.

This resolution, having been sanctioned by General Malartic, was carried into immediate execution, and the new Assembly met again on the 21st of December. With the restoration of tranquillity,

agriculture again reared its head, and cultivation rapidly extended. M. de Malartic died on the 20th of July, 1800, after eight years of a stormy administration. The regret was universal; for it had been under trying circumstances that he had won, by his sagacity and firmness, the esteem and affection of the inhabitants. The English squadron, then on a cruise before the island, spontaneously proposed a suspension of arms, while the colony paid the last tribute of respect to its chief, and their vessels, hoisting the national standard, honoured, in a manner similar to their own officers, the death of him with whom they had been engaged for six years in a bloody and murderous warfare. His funeral was celebrated with the greatest pomp, and his remains deposited in the Champ de Mars, until a monument could be raised, with the inscription of "Au Saveur de la Colonie."

The embassy dispatched to the Isle of France in 1798 by Tippoo Saib[1] met, as may be expected, with a most favourable reception in the colony, and after the establishment of something like a mutual compact, a proclamation was issued by M. de Malartic, inviting the inhabitants to enrol themselves as volunteers in the service of the Sultan for a stipulated rate of pay. A few accepted the offer in the Isle of France, and, with a larger party from Bourbon, were landed at Mangalore. The whole force did not exceed 200 men, including nearly 100 officers, few of whom had either experience or skill. The movements of Tippoo in this direction had not, however, escaped the observation of the Anglo-Indian Government under the Earl of Mornington, who lost no time in dispatching a letter[1] to General

[1] Tippoo had arrested and thrown into prison Ripaud, the French captain of a privateer from the Isle of France, which had been driven by stress of weather into Mangalore. The latter promised Tippoo the assistance of France against Great Britain in return for his release, and offered to carry back ambassadors from that potentate to the Isle of France, where he stated there was a large body of troops. The ambassadors were dispatched accordingly, but found, to their surprise, on arriving, that the troops had been deported; their letters were therefore sent to France. Meanwhile, Tippoo, deceived by Ripaud's representations, had commenced hostilities.

Another dispatch from the same quarter to Sir R. Curtis, in the command of the squadron at the Cape, demonstrates, in a striking manner, the facilities afforded to the nation in the possession of the Isle of France for an attack on the Indian Peninsula:—

"It appears highly probable, from recent information, that, with a view to the fulfilment of all her objects on Egypt and India, France may endeavour, at an early season, to throw a strong reinforcement into the Isle of France. Its success would aggravate the danger of our Indian empire. I therefore feel it my duty to recommend you to take immediate measures for establishing the most strict and effectual blockade of the ports of the Isle of France, which your force will permit, and to apprise Admiral Rainier and myself, whenever it is in your power, of the state of such blockade, of its probable duration, and its effect on the enemy's force and conduct, as well as a statement of the internal strength and defences of the isle. I enclose a note, which has been furnished to me, relative to the most eligible plan for maintaining a blockade of its ports. This was given me by an intelligent navigator who passed a month on the island. I apprize you, in the

Harris, commanding the army of the Madras presidency, which contained a copy of the proclamation of M. de Malartic, as well as a number of inferences and suggestions thereon.

strictest confidence, that my views are favourable for a reduction of the Isle of France. It is possible I may make the attempt in the course of January, 1801, or in May. In the first case, I cannot hope for further assistance from your Excellency, then that you should send the most considerable force you can spare to cruise off the island, or blockade its ports at the earliest season; and, if success should attend us in January, the naval defence of the island will be left to your squadron. Should the attempt from India be postponed till May, you shall hear from me again, and in either case you will render a most essential service by blockading the ports of the island according to the suggestions I have offered; and by despatching advices to Vice-Admiral Rainier and myself. You will probably observe that my requisition for a reinforcement of troops for the Cape is connected with my eventual design against the Isle of France; but as I am satisfied that the design can be best executed from India direct, and that any attempt to obtain a co-operation of troops from the Cape would be subject to much difficulty, and would, perhaps, only serve to disclose a plan, of which the success must principally depend on its secret execution, I have resolved to make no communication whatever to the Cape government of my present intentions, nor is any person in India acquainted with them, except Vice-Admiral Rainier and my brother Colonel Wellesley, who will be employed if I should carry my plan into effect. The subordinate governments of India will not be apprised of my views, unless an armament should hereafter depart from the Isle of France from Trincomalee, where I am now assembling a large force as a central position for the general naval and military defence of this empire. This force will be eventually applicable to various objects, according to the course of events and circumstances. One of these objects may be the reduction of the Isle of France, which I know to have been absolutely defenceless in August.

In a letter to Vice-Admiral Rainier, with whom he remonstrates on his disinclination, from an assumed want of orders, to concur in the objects of the expedition, he displays a most anxious desire for the speedy capture of the Isle of France:—

"In the view which I have uniformly taken of the resources and position of the Isles of France and Bourbon, and of their importance to the enemy, I have always considered them as powerful instruments for the attack on India. Under circumstances, in which it might have been expected that the early attention of the enemy would be directed to some effort against the empire, I considered the attack of the Isle of France, not as an hazardous diversion of our European force, but as a measure of wise precaution, and judicious defence, by which we might be enabled to pre-occupy a military station, and naval resources essentially necessary to the enemy in the prosecution of any system of extensive operations against our possessions in India; nor would I overlook the important collateral benefits to be expected from the seasonable removal of an evil, under the pressure of which every one of the possessions entrusted to my charge has for some time past experienced the most severe injury. During the past year the enemy from the Isle of France has actually carried on the most active hostility against our trade and commerce in India, with the most alarming degree of vigour and success. The impunity of this species of warfare has become injurious to our interests, and derogatory to the reputation of our power in the opinion of our native subjects, dependants, and allies, while it tends to revive the hopes of our native and European enemies in India. The entire destruction of the piratical power of the French islands is, therefore, in my opinion, absolutely essential, not only to the trade and commerce of India, but to our national character. Your Excellency will observe that this view of the nature and objects of the proposed

After the fall of Tippoo, a number of papers were found in his palace at Seringapatam, which, as the Governor-general observed in a letter to the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, "proved the danger

expedition, and of the various contingencies on which its eventual prosecution was always intended to depend, entirely precludes the application of the argument started by you in the letter to which I have the honour to reply. First, because I never intended to undertake the expedition against the French islands without full previous knowledge that it would not subject the safety of India to exposure; secondly, because the seasonable occupation of these islands would afford the most effectual means of embarassing any movement from France, either towards India or the Red Sea; thirdly, because a naval war, of the most destructive nature, is now actually waged by the enemy against the commerce of India by their aid, and cannot be terminated without their reduction. If the latter argument would require any additional illustration, it would be furnished by the extent of the injury which the trade and commerce of India have sustained from the activity and boldness with which the inhabitants of the Isle of France have employed the limited resources of the island in the prosecution of hostilities during the present war, under every disadvantage of internal discord, and of the neglect, if not the positive enmity of France. In the midst of these difficulties and embarassments, the naval force of the French islands has carried into Port Louis British property to the amount of 3,000,000*l.* sterling, since the commencement of the present war."

In a letter to Mr. Secretary Dundas, in October, 1800, the Earl of Mornington again called his attention to the expedition.

"You will recollect that, in the event of my succeeding during the ensuing months of January or May in my designs against the Isle of France, a considerable body of troops will be required to garrison that island, and should not be less than 2,000. Its reduction would destroy the present resort and haunt of the most formidable force of piracy in these seas, but other stations might possibly be substituted by the indefatigable activity and enterprise of French, American, Danish, and Irish adventurers. The capture of the *Kent* will, I trust, induce Lord Spencer to condescend to pay some attention to my urgent entreaties."

The expedition against Egypt, led by Napoleon Bonaparte, diverted the attention of the Governor-general for the moment to that quarter.

"My conviction that the expulsion of the French from Egypt is indispensably necessary for the future security of the British empire in India, has determined me to relinquish for the present the projected expedition against the Isle of France, which I shall employ on the shores of the Red Sea."

But on the successful termination of hostilities there, he again reverts to the subject in a letter to General Baird.

"I direct you to act as commander-in-chief, and Colonel Wellesley as second in command. If you should reduce the French islands, Colonel Wellesley will remain in the government. You will receive from me constant advices of their state and strength."

The peace of Amiens again frustrated the expedition, but he wrote to Lord Castlereagh:—

"While the Cape of Good Hope and Isle of France shall remain in the hands of France, the security of this empire in war must rest upon the extent and condition of the naval and military forces in India, and a constant and diligent observation of the enemy's motions; we shall therefore be subjected to a heavy expense in supporting a separate marine for these objects, for the protection of the country trade, and Company's ships. During the late war, the captures made in India by privateers fitted out in the Isle of France, are estimated at four millions sterling."

On the recommencement of the war, he again wrote to that nobleman:—

"On the reduction of the Isle of France, it would be a practicable and expedient measure to compose a part of the garrisons of native sepoys from India;

of allowing France to retain these islands, so that if a war should continue, I trust you will strike a blow against these prolific sources of intrigue in peace, and of piracy and buccaneering in war." The retirement of the Marquis of Wellesley from the Indian government in 1805 again postponed an undertaking, whose importance could not, in his opinion, be too highly estimated, and to whose accomplishment he had looked forward as to one of the most glorious objects of his vice-royalty.

But to return to the Isle of France. On the death of M. de Malartic, in July 1800, he was immediately succeeded by Le Comte Magallon de la Morlière. The new House of Assembly, though it had been reconstructed on a principle which apparently precluded any violent ebullitions of republican fury from within, found itself constantly impeded in the career of legislation by the remnant of the republican party, to whom the late deportation had not extended. Measures were, therefore, taken in 1801, for the transportation of 108 of their number to France ;[1] but the vessel that conveyed them to their destination foundered off the shores of that country, and the majority on board perished.

Meanwhile a strong and energetic government had been established in France, and under its influence the equivocal independence, for some time maintained by the Isle of France and Bourbon, soon began to totter to its fall. After he had effectually stifled the liberties of France, Bonaparte next turned his attention to the destruction of those of the colonies, by the decree of the 30th Floreal, in the tenth year of the republic, which passed almost unnoticed in France, but subjected the colonies to a most arbitrary régime. This law, which was only composed of three articles, re-established the trade in slaves, restored a legal existence to slavery, and suspended for ten years the constitution which had formerly been bestowed on the colony. No sort of resistance was offered to the proposed measure by the House of Assembly (in which the moderate party had long obtained the supremacy), who abjectly fawned on the hand that had dealt destruction to their liberties, by passing a vote in favour of the election of Bonaparte to the consulship for life, and voting an address to the consuls.

and as it would be difficult to despatch an expedition from Europe direct, it would be most advisable to commence the operation by reinforcing the English troops in India. An expedition might thus be prepared here with the advantages of a short voyage, of the most recent information relative to the defences of the island, and with the aid of a proportion of native troops."

Despatches of the Marquis Wellesley.

[1] Captain Pelham Brenton erroneously states, in his "Naval History," that these men were transported to the Seychelles, to the number of 108 ; but, being met by an English frigate on their passage thither, their vessel was sunk, and all on board perished.

CHAPTER V.

Naval history of the Isle of France during the French Revolution—Expeditions of Sercy and Linois—Successes of the Island Corsairs, and their depredations on British commerce—Surprise, capture, and abandonment of Bourbon—Descents of Captain Willoughby on the coasts of the Isle of France—Recapture of Bourbon—Expeditions of Hamelin and Duperré—Seizure of Ile de la Passe by the British—Conflict at Grand Port—Expedition against the Isle of France—Its success, &c.

THE naval history of the French Revolution, as connected with the Isle of France, presents little worthy of notice until the arrival of the British squadron under Admiral Rainier, who sailed from England in May 1794, and was soon after followed by the French squadron under Vice-Admiral Sercy,[1] which, with the insular marine,

[1] The *Centurion*, Captain Osborne, of 50, the *Resistance*, Captain Pakenham, 44, the *Diomede* of 44, and *Orpheus* frigate, were the English vessels cruising in this part of the Indian Ocean in 1794. The *Duguay Trouin*, a French frigate of 34 guns, and the corvette *Vulcan*, were captured in that year by the latter vessel. As the Isle of France was the source from whence all the French naval operations in the Indian Ocean emanated, it may be right to give a brief abstract of the proceedings of Vice-Admiral Sercy after leaving that island. The fleet of this officer had originally consisted of three frigates; namely, the *Forte* of 44, *Régénérée* of 36, and the *Seine*, armed *en flûte* and two corvettes, which, having parted in a storm from the remainder on the passage, were captured by English cruisers. Sercy was reinforced at Port Louis by the *Vertu*, *Cybèle* and *Prudente* frigates, with which he departed in 1796 on a cruise off Ceylon and the coasts of India, made some rich prizes, and would have made others had it not been for the check he experienced after a cruise in the Straits of Malacca from the *Arrogant* and *Victor*, two English men-of-war of 74 guns each, which dogged him for a considerable distance, but avoided an action, his force being so much superior. The French retiring after making out the British force, were chased by the latter, and an action ensued, in which the *Arrogant* was much crippled, as were the *Vertu* and two other French frigates, which, being taken in tow by the rest of the squadron, made all sail away. The British loss in this spirited encounter was twenty-four killed and eighty-four wounded; French loss forty-two killed and 104 wounded. The result was, that Sercy was compelled to abandon his designs on Indian commerce, and retired to the Isle of France to refit. The next year, Sercy sailed with his six frigates to Batavia, with the regency of which he entered into a treaty for the supply of the Isle of France with provisions. Sailing from thence he came in sight of five or six Indiamen, whom he took for a superior force, and congratulated himself on his escape. In this illusion he was aided by the British commander, who, with a boldness greatly to his credit, affected to assume the offensive, hoisted the flag of Admiral Rainier, and sent one of his vessels to reconnoitre the French ships. The chagrin of Sercy, who discovered the truth on his return to Port Louis, may be easily conceived. In 1798, he again sailed for Batavia with the combined squadron, which carried on board the troops expelled from the Isle of France, ostensibly with a view to succour the Dutch, but in reality to rid the colony of their presence.

The squadron now dispersed on marauding expeditions. Part returned to France. The *Prudente*, a frigate of 36 guns, was captured in 1799 by the *Dædalus*, an English frigate of 32 guns, after a warm engagement, in which twenty-seven

succeeded, as we have seen, in capturing a great number of the East India Company's vessels.

The peace of Amiens again put it in the power of France to dispatch a squadron which had been heretofore diverted for the national defence at home, to the Isle of France, under Contre-amiral Linois. The fleet of the admiral, on board of which was M. Decaen, with the title of Captain-general of the Isles of France and Bourbon, and a commission to execute the new decree, consisted of the *Marengo* of 80 guns, the *Atalante*, *Belle Poule*, and *Semillante* frigates, a corvette of 28, and a Batavian brig of 18 guns, and contained a large garrison for the defence of the islands. M. Decaen disembarked on the 26th of September, 1803, took possession of the government, dissolved the Colonial Assembly, which had lasted for twelve years, abolished the whole existing system by a proclamation of twelve lines, and promulgated the new constitution formed for the colony by the consuls,—in virtue of which all the executive, legislative, and judicial powers were committed to three high functionaries, styled the Captain-general, Colonial Prefect, and Commissary of Justice. The secrecy which seems to have been maintained in France as to the objects of this expedition, directed the attention of the English ministry to its destination, and, in a despatch to Lord Grenville in 1801, Mr. Wickham, the British ambassador at the court of France observes:—

"As to the intended expedition of the French to the Isles of France and Bourbon, of which I spoke in my despatch of last November, I am still positively assured that it is yet agitated, though great pains are taken to conceal its real destination, and that the vessels of which it is composed appear to make a part of the St. Domingo squadron. It is suggested that the Red Sea may make a part of the object of the expedition, but that its first destination is the Isle of France, the dependence of which it is first necessary to secure."

The French admiral proceeded from the Isle of France to Pondicherry, which was to be restored to France by the peace, and to be governed by General Decaen. Hearing, however, of the probability

of her men were killed, and twenty-two wounded, and the *Forte*, another of the squadron, which had committed great depredations on British commerce while cruising in the Bay of Bengal, was captured, after a terrible combat, by the English frigate *Sibylle* of 38 guns, though the *Forte* carried 48, with a corresponding weight of metal. In this engagement, the *Sibylle* had five killed and seventeen wounded; the *Forte*, sixty-five killed, and eighty wounded. The *Preneuse*, another French frigate, commanded by L'Hermite, being disguised as an English ship, captured two valuable Indiamen in the roads of Tellicherry, with 600 prisoners on board, in 1798. In the next year, cruising off the Cape, it encountered two small English vessels, which it was unable to capture. A ship of war, from the Cape station, was sent in pursuit, but returned without accomplishing its object. The *Preneuse*, retiring to the Isle of France, was driven ashore by two English vessels, and there set on fire, her crew being made prisoners.

of war[1] again breaking out, Admiral Rainier, who was fortunately stationed off the coast with four men-of-war, and the same number of frigates, refused to give it up, or even to permit the French to land, upon which M. Linois, after giving full vent to his indignation, cut his cables and returned to the Isle of France. Here he received official dispatches from Europe, which gave intelligence of the war, as well as instructions to commence hostilities. He immediately set sail for the Eastern Archipelago, attacked Bencoleen, an English settlement in the island of Sumatra, captured some richly laden Indiamen, burnt others, and prepared to intercept the China fleet on its passage to England. This fleet, which was under the command of Captain Dance, a brave and resolute officer, though consisting exclusively of East Indiamen, and country ships, resolved not to yield without a struggle;[2] and so strong was the resistance it opposed, that the French admiral was compelled to sheer off. On his arrival in England, Captain Dance received the honour of knighthood, and high rewards from the East India Company.

Admiral Linois was again disappointed in an attack upon an English frigate of 50 guns, though he had with him the *Marengo* of 80, and two frigates; and hearing that the British fleet was in pursuit of him, he set sail for the Isle of France, after having committed great depredations on the commerce of the East India Company. Having completed his repairs, he took advantage of the departure of the British fleet under Admiral Rainier, for sailing on another cruise, in which he was more successful in the acquisition of wealth than of honour.

[1] The treacherous designs of Bonaparte on British India, even during the peace of Amiens, and his intention to recommence the war on the instant that the French naval power in the East was sufficiently strong for the purpose, are confirmed, if previous evidence were insufficient, by the following extract from Napoleon's instructions to General Decaen, published by Count Dumas in his "Precis des Evénemens Militaires."

"The mission of the Captain-General is, in the first instance, a mission of political and military observation; but the First Consul, if well informed by the Captain-General, upon whom he relies for the punctual execution of these instructions, may, perhaps, place it in his power to acquire a great glory, which prolongs the memory of man beyond the duration of ages."

[2] The conduct of Linois on this occasion will be best estimated by the following abstract of the engagement:—

"British vessels formed in close order, while French closed astern, with the intention of attacking their rear, which, being expected by Captain Dance, he prepares to support it. French ships preferring an action by day, haul close to the wind. With the light of day, Linois attempts to cut off the rear of the English, on which Dance makes the signal to tack in succession, bear down in line ahead, and engage with the enemy. French fire returned with great spirit by the English, on which the former haul their wind, and stand away to the eastward. Indiamen pursue; but reflecting on the immense amount of property that might thus be endangered, and the danger of being carried too far from the mouth of the Straits of Malacca, tack about." The excuse offered by Linois was, that he judged by their conduct that these ships had an escort. English loss in the engagement, one man killed and one wounded.

In the interval, Admiral Rainier had stationed Captain Osborne in the *Arrogant* of 74, with a small squadron to blockade the ports of the Isle of France. Many of the enemy's vessels were either captured or destroyed by this excellent officer; but notwithstanding his vigilance, the French squadron with all its prizes, reached Port Louis in safety.

Quitting the island for the third time, Linois scoured the Mozambique Channel, proceeded to the mouth of the Red Sea; next made for Ceylon, and from thence directed his course for the Cape of Good Hope. Soon after he fell in, off the east coast of Madagascar, with the *Blenheim* of 74, commanded by Sir T. Trowbridge, with ten Indiamen whom she convoyed. Under the conviction that she was an Indiaman (he had fallen into the contrary mistake on another occasion), Linois hastened to bring her into action; but the moment he had felt the effect of her guns, he quickly removed out of gunshot, hauled his wind, and escaped, the British ship being too bad a sailer to pursue. No man had more perseverance than Linois, none more opportunities of encountering his enemy, and none was more unfortunate in the results. In short, his whole naval career was marked either with error or misfortune. The Isle of France was made the grand depôt of the plunder he had collected, where, being converted into specie, it was shipped for France. After having gained as much booty, and inflicted as much injury as he could accomplish, he resolved to carry the rest of his spoils to Europe. On the way, the *Marengo* and *Belle Poulle*, richly laden, were, after the best contested action in which Linois had engaged, overtaken and captured by Sir J. Borlase Warren, with the admiral on board.

The Isles of France and Bourbon were now the only relics of French dominion to the east of the Cape of Good Hope. The shelter afforded to shipping, and the resources possessed by the government of these islands for the equipment and victualling of ships-of-war and privateers, had enabled some of the most enterprising French officers to inflict incalculable injury on the commerce of India. The successes of Sercy, Linois, Bergeret, Hamelin, and Duperré were in great measure to be ascribed to the facilities with which they could make good the defects of their ships at Port Louis. The Creoles of the island, moreover, who were men of an active and adventurous spirit, delighted in the most perilous of enterprises, and ably seconded the operations of the French fleets by the equipment of a large number of privateers, with which they cruised successfully in the surrounding seas that became the theatre of most sanguinary conflicts with English vessels and their own. Napoleon, gratified by their bravery and success, directed that the thanks of the nation should be transmitted to them, and, as a farther reward, decreed the admission of the produce of the island into France free of duty. Among the most remarkable of these corsairs may be singled out the

names of Surcouf, Tréhouart, Perrot, Thomasin, &c. In[1] all their enterprises against British commerce, they were materially assisted by a number of reckless American adventurers, who infested the whole of our possessions in the East, brought fast sailing ships to the Isle of France, fitted them out there, met the corsairs at a rendezvous mutually agreed on, gave information of the sailing of all our trade, bought not only the cargoes of the prizes for the American market, but the hulls of the ships to carry back to our own settlements, and there are strong reasons to believe, that collusive bargains were entered into in anticipation of the captures made in consequence of such intelligence; in a word, this island became a centre for the freebooters of every nation to fit out privateers and commit depredations on English property. In 1809, when the injuries sustained from the enemy had exceeded all bounds, when the East India Company bitterly complained of the loss of their richest vessels on the one hand, and the reclamations of our merchants could no longer be slighted on the other, when our navy, though everywhere triumphant, could not correct the evil, either by a blockade[2] of the island, or by

[1] Martin's Colonial Library.

[2] Port Louis, with the French frigates *Semillante* and *Bellone* was blockaded in 1808 by the *Pitt* frigate of 36 and the *Terpsichore* of 32 guns. The latter afterwards departed for Ceylon, while the *Pitt* whose crew was reduced to less than one-half by sickness, cruised alone off the isle and captured several vessels. Sensible of her weakness, the French resolved to go out and engage her in the *Semillante;* but her captain changed his plan and steered for Bourbon to convoy merchantmen there detained, chased for some distance by the *Pitt,* which having scarcely hands enough to work the ship, proceeded to Ceylon, when the French ships re-entered Port Louis. The *Bellone* and *Henriette* were subsequently captured by the English, but the *Semillante* escaped, and had the good fortune to capture eight richly laden merchantmen, which she carried into Bourbon. The blockade of Port Louis was resumed by the English with the *Sceptre* of 74, and *Cornwallis,* and *Dédaigneuse* frigates. Several attempts were made to capture the *Semillante,* but bad weather favoured her escape on the first occasion, and she was protected on another by more than 100 pieces of cannon on the shore. On the departure of the English, the *Semillante* regained Port Louis with her prizes in safety, chased in vain by her antagonists. Soon after she again set out on a cruise and made some rich captures. On another occasion she met near Ceylon with the *Terpsichore,* whom she engaged. That vessel had from age and weakness been compelled to leave a great part of her guns behind, yet the *Semillante* did not dare to board her, but hastened to escape, first throwing on board a quantity of combustible materials, which caused an explosion. *Terpsichore* having put out the flame, makes sail, and recommences the action, but the *Semillante* avoided close quarters, and flies, pursued by the *Terpsichore* who had twenty killed and twenty-two wounded in the action. Arriving at Port Louis, the *Semillante* was found to be unfit for further cruises, and was dispatched to France laden with colonial produce. The French ships left at Port Louis were the frigate *Canonniére* of 40, and the *Jena* corvette of 18 guns. At this moment the English gun-brig *Laurel* of 22 guns, Captain Woolcombe arrived off the Isle of France, and finding there no British cruiser, watched the enemy's motions. Having captured a Portugese ship on her way from Bourbon to the Isle of France, on board of which were some French ladies as passengers, Woolcombe sent a boat with a flag of truce to General Decaen requesting him to send a small vessel to take the ladies and their baggage on shore. The second

bringing their ships to action, the Indian Government considered the subject as worthy of their attention, and the conquest of the colony was resolved on. This measure had been procrastinated since the departure of the Marquis of Wellesley, partly through the tact of General Decaen, who had so well succeeded in deceiving the Government of India as to the real state of his defences, as to have prevented an attack being made in the interval, and, when an attack was determined on, four times as many troops were sent as were required.

The state of politics in the Indian peninsula, and the perfect subjection of the native powers, at length enabled the Governor-General to spare such a body of troops as should, when seconded by the ships-of-war, ensure the possession of these islands to Great Britain, and thus deprive the French cruisers of all support from their own settlements. As a preparatory step to the enterprise, Vice-Admiral Bertie who was in the command of the naval station at the Cape of Good Hope, was directed to enforce the blockade with yet greater rigour, and captain (afterwards Vice-Admiral Sir J. Rowley) was entrusted by him with the execution of the service. Meanwhile a detachment of the 56th regiment, and a strong body of Sepoys under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Keating, had embarked at Bombay early in 1809, with orders to take possession of the island of Rodriguez, 300 miles eastward of the Isle of France, with a view to afford occasional aid to the squadron cruising in the neighbouring seas, and by the proximity of its situation, to contri-

captain of the *Canonniére* coming on board with a flag of truce, ascertained the *Laurel's* force in guns and men, and induced his superior to meet her with the *Canonniére* of 44 guns and 420 men outside Port Louis. After a short engagement, in which the *Laurel* poured forth a spirited fire, she was compelled, her rigging being destroyed and her masts shot away, to strike to the superior fire of her antagonists. In this action the French frigate had twenty killed, while the *Laurel* had none killed, and but nine wounded. The French commander returned Captain Woolcombe his sword, and that officer was acquitted for the loss of his ship by a court martial. The *Canonniére* was shortly after captured by the *Valiant* of 74, laden with the products of the Isle of France, and the *Jena* corvette subsequently shared a similar fate.

Continuing our brief notice of the subordinate naval history of the Mauritius, we come to the action between the *Caroline* French frigate and the *Europe*, *Streatham*, and *Lord Keith* East Indiamen of 20 guns each, of whose re-capture we have just spoken. These vessels had been placed under the convoy of the *Victor* sloop of 18 guns, but having parted from her in a storm, fell in with the *Caroline*, then cruising in the Bay of Bengal, which had been informed of their position and force by an American captain (a miserable wretch, who having shared the protection of their convoy in the morning, was base enough to immediately betray them). An engagement ensued, in which the *Caroline*, by her superior force, soon disabled, and captured the *Europe* and *Streatham*, overcoming them in detail by her skilful management. The other vessel escaped from her hands. The conduct of the French captain is highly praised for his humanity to the prisoners. After her capture at Bourbon the name of the *Caroline* was changed to *Borbonnaise*, and Captain Corbet was appointed her commander, Captain Willoughby succeeding him in the *Néréide*.

bute in straitening the enemy's quarters in the Isles of France and Bourbon. In September, having been informed by Commodore Rowley that Bourbon might be advantageously attacked by a combined operation of the army and navy, Colonel Keating very readily joined in the enterprise, and Captain Corbett, of the *Néréide*, from his perfect acquaintance with the coasts and defences of Bourbon, was employed in bringing them down to their destination.

The squadron of Commodore Rowley, consisting of the *Raisonable* of 64, the *Boadicea*, *Sirius*, and *Néréide* frigates, with the *Otter* sloop of war and *Wasp* gun-brig, having sailed from Rodriguez, a landing was effected on the 21st of the same month by the troops (which consisted of 300 soldiers and as many sailors and marines) at Grande Chaloupe, seven miles from St. Paul's. The enemy were driven in great confusion from the town, and the batteries were successively carried with great rapidity (their guns being instantly turned by Captain Willoughby on the shipping in the roads, from whose fire the troops had been considerably annoyed in the descent) without the loss of a single officer, and but few of the troops. The squadron now opened its fire on the shipping in the bay, which had long been the rendezvous of the French cruisers and their prizes, and though these had been run on shore, they were at length secured, and proved to be the *Caroline* frigate of 48 guns, and 400 men, the *Europe* and *Streatham* East Indiamen, her prizes, a privateer (formerly the *Grappler* gun-brig) and several smaller vessels. The whole, with the exception of the *Europe*, were sent to the Cape under convoy of the *Otter* sloop of war, and a great part of the cargoes of the two Indiamen, having been taken on shore, were reshipped on board the *Streatham*. The principal magazines, field-pieces, and other military material had been carried off or rendered useless the day before, but the appearance of a French force on the heights, and their advance in force on the town of St. Denis, determined the commanders to reland a small detachment and destroy the Government stores, valued at upwards of a million sterling, for which Captain Willoughby volunteered.

The French troops, under General Desbrulys, now retreated to St. Denis, and an armistice of five days was concluded with the commandant of St. Paul's, during which the troops and seamen, after having obtained a full supply of fresh provisions, were re-embarked for Rodriguez at the stipulated period, carrying with them all the public stores to be found in the place, and the ordnance that had not been spiked or destroyed. General Desbrulys the French commander, chagrined at the success of this coup-de-main of his antagonists, committed suicide on their departure. Of the many brilliant actions of the war (to which the French themselves were not altogether without a claim), the landings of Captain Willoughby, of the *Néréide* frigate, at Rivière Noire and Port Jacotét, in the south-west part of the Isle of France, were perhaps the most remarkable, and, by their

cool intrepidity and height of daring, threw every other completely in the shade. Protracted as had been the blockade of the Isle of France by the English squadron, they had never made an attempt at landing on the island, and the expedition of Admiral Boscawen itself, after coming to an anchor and surveying the coast, had departed without being able to set a foot on shore. Discovering a brig and two other small vessels at anchor under the protection of the batteries at Rivière Noire, Captain Willoughby, who was cruising off Cape Brabant in the *Otter* sloop of 18 guns, thought it practicable, notwithstanding the immense strength of the batteries, to cut out these vessels by a "coup-de-main," and resolved to attempt it in the night. In the mean time, to prevent suspicion, he bore away for Bourbon, pulling back for Rivière Noire in the evening, and entered the harbour unperceived in three boats. After securing one of the objects of their search, two boats were detached to board the brig, while Captain Willoughby proceeded to search for the gunboat which was missing. The party sent to board the brig found a body of soldiers drawn up to defend her, whom, in the face of a heavy fire of musketry, they repulsed, and after a smart struggle on her decks, carried the vessel. But the batteries were now alarmed, and fired; the English were therefore compelled to abandon the vessel, but carried out the lugger in defiance of a heavy fire, with the loss of one man only.

Another attempt subsequently made by this officer to cut out the *Astrée* frigate, which was moored under the protection of the same batteries, proved ineffectual from the strength of the latter, and after he had exchanged a few broadsides with them, he was compelled to retire. His next proceeding was attended with a more signal success. Descrying in one of his cruises, about the end of April 1810, a ship of 400 tons at the anchorage of Jacotét, Captain Willoughby resolved on making an attempt to cut it out by means of his boats. Before, however, he could reach the ship, a French schooner, lying at anchor, had given the alarm, so that, by the time the boats had approached the shore, both of the batteries and two field-pieces were playing upon the only spot where the troops could land. They landed, nevertheless, with the greatest self-possession in spite of every obstacle, and as every one knew what was to be done, the whole party, led by Captain Willoughby, followed by Lieutenants Burns, Langhorne, and Deacon, made an instant dash upon the batteries, which they stormed and took possession of in less than ten minutes. They next rushed to the guard-house in the rear, which was protected by forty regular troops, twenty-six artillery men, and a strong body of militia with two field-pieces, which had already succeeded in driving back the boats with the men left to guard them. As soon, however, as they opened a fire on Captain Willoughby, he gave the word to charge, but to his utter astonishment the enemy immediately took to their heels, leaving the two field-pieces and their

officer, himself a brave man, and apparently stupified with astonishment and chagrin, in the hands of their assailants. With the dawn of day the French discovered that the opponents from whom they had so ignominiously fled, consisted of only fifty seamen, and as many marines. The strongest battery was still untaken, and before it could be reduced it was necessary to pass the Rivière des Galets, whose banks were precipitate and strongly guarded. The stream was also at this time swollen by the rains, and the current was strong and deep. It was crossed, however (or rather swam over), without loss, and the party, after giving three hearty cheers, charged with the bayonet, and carried the hill and batteries in a most rapid and brilliant manner. After they had burnt the signal posts, destroyed the gun carriages, spiked the guns, and removed the field-pieces and all the military stores on board the frigate, they were on the point of retiring, when that part of the enemy which had been first defeated having rallied on being reinforced by the militia and inhabitants, the captain instantly took measures to get into their rear, which when they perceived they again took to flight. The party now re-crossed the river, and carrying off the schooner, embarked in safety on the *Néréide*, with the loss of one man killed, and Lieutenant Deacon and six others wounded, having remained on shore four hours after the morning had dawned, and intelligence had been given of their landing.[1]

In the succeeding months, attacks were made on Belombre and the post of the Cap de la Savane, but with a disproportionate success. The Isle of Bourbon, or (as it was then called) Isle Bonaparte, had been attacked, as will be recollected, in the preceding year, by Commodore Rowley and Lieutenant-Colonel Keating; but the force at that time employed was not considered strong enough to retain possession of the island; it was therefore abandoned, and the enemy was left for a short time in tranquillity.

On the 10th of June, 1810, a detachment of 4000 men (half of whom were sepoys) from the grand army afterwards to be employed against the Isle of France, embarked at Madras, and arrived at Rodriguez. On making Bourbon, Captain Pym, of the *Sirius*, was directed to cause a diversion by landing the first brigade of 950 men at Grande Chaloupe, near St. Denis, which, after seizing the batteries, cut off all communication between St. Paul's and the former town, while the rest of the squadron pushed for the anchorage. The difficulty of effecting a landing on the windward side of the island, proved, however, to be greater than had been expected; but Captain Willoughby, having volunteered to land with 150 men, succeeded in the attempt, and took possession of Sante Marie. Two of the principal points being secured, and the remainder of the army having been disembarked at Grande Chaloupe, the island surren-

[1] From information corroborated by what fell from the French officers, a body of 600 men could have reinforced the batteries within an hour.

dered[1] on the 9th of July, and Mr. R. J. Farquhar was left with the greater portion of the troops as governor par interim.

On the commencement of the following month, Captain Pym, of the *Sirius* frigate, which was then stationed off the Isle of France, and particularly off Grand Port, then called Port Imperial, to the south-east or windward side of the island, conceived the possibility of more effectually preventing the ingress of the enemy's ships into that harbour by occupying the Isle de la Passe, a coral islet, in which there was a circular battery and barracks, distant about a league from the main land, and commanding the narrows, as well as defending the entrance of Port Imperial. With this intent, and the further design of landing near Mahébourg before that post could be strengthened, and distributing the proclamations of Governor Farquhar, which it was thought would sap the fidelity of the French militia, (the principal strength of the island,) a party pushed off in the boats, but their attempt was frustrated by the violence of the weather; the attack was therefore postponed till the following night, when seventy-one men were debarked from the *Sirius*, who, under cover of a storm and the most profound darkness, made themselves masters of the islet[2] with the loss of eighteen men killed or wounded, before the French on the main land could be informed of the enterprise, and dispatch the necessary succour. Having obtained possession of the enemy's signals, he gave them to Captain Willoughby, of the *Néréide*, and stationed him to guard the position he had so nobly and judiciously won, while he himself proceeded on a cruise to the leeward of the island. At break of day the signals announced the success which had been gained by the English. Hardly had the news of the capture of this important post arrived at St. Louis, than (according to the French account) General Vandermaesen betook himself to the point most menaced by the enemy, and was joined by many of the inhabitants of the neighbouring quartiers. Full of confidence (it continues) in the valour of their general, the volunteers vied with the regular troops in their eagerness to be led against the English, who, favoured by the position of their recent conquest, had effected several descents on different parts[3] of the adjoining

[1] The regular French force at Bourbon then amounted to 575 troops, and there was a militia of nearly 3000 men.

[2] This fort carried 18 guns, and the landing-place was defended by a chevaux de frise. A battery had then to be passed, and the garrison consisted of eighty regular troops. The batteries on the south-east side were carried without the loss of a man.

[3] Captain Willoughby landed at Canaille with sixty soldiers and 100 marines and sailors, with whom he marched six miles along the coast, attacked the fort at Point du Diable, commanding the north-east passage into Grand Port, and carried it without the loss of a man. French commandant and three men killed in the encounter. Having spiked or carried off the guns, he moved off to old Grand Port, a distance of twelve miles, where he was attacked by General Vandermaesen with a strong detachment, whom he defeated with the loss of six killed

coast, and in their incursions had profusely circulated proclamations,[1] which called upon the inhabitants to put themselves under British protection, depicting the advantages which would accrue to the colony therefrom, both in a political and commercial point of view.

For a moment retracing our steps to equalize the course of the narrative, we find that the frigate *Bellone* of 44, Captain Duperré, which had been dispatched from France in 1809, in company with *La Manche* of 40, *La Venus* of 40, and another of 40 guns (four of the finest frigates ever built in France), as a reinforcement to the naval division in the Indian seas, after capturing or destroying several British merchantmen, was chased in its turn by three English cruisers in succession, after she had arrived within sight of the Isle of France, but escaping them by the dexterity of her manœuvres, entered the port in safety. Here, having debarked a quantity of military stores designed for the service of the colony, she was refitted and victualled for a cruise. In defiance of the blockade, which was so strictly maintained by the English, as apparently to forbid the egress of any vessel from the port, the *Bellone* successfully effected her escape, and set sail for the French settlements in Madagascar, where, having accomplished the object of her mission, she proceeded to the Bay of Bengal; here she fell in with and chased the *Victor* corvette, Captain Stopford, which, after its rigging had been cut to pieces, and main and mizzen masts split, was compelled to strike its colours. She next encountered *La Minerve*, a Portuguese frigate of 52 guns, which she also captured, and was joined by *La Manche* with two East Indiamen, her prizes. These having been manned from the frigates, the united division sailed in close company for the Isle of France, with a view of protecting the entrance of the prizes. Arriving in safety at the port, the squadron, after a complete refitment, succeeded in escaping from the pursuit of the English cruisers, and set sail for the southern coast of Madagascar, with the design of

or wounded, and, after gaining all requisite information, he returned on board the *Néréide*. Captain Willoughby afterwards landed at Grande Rivière, destroyed the signal house, &c., but perceiving the enemy had 700 or 800 men posted near a battery there, he returned to Point du Diable. From the forbearance practised by the British force, which laid no hands on private property, the French inhabitants had refrained from molesting them, but the appearance of five French ships of war to the west of the island recalled the recreant militia to their duty, and they poured in from all quarters; so that Captain Willoughby, having accomplished all his objects, deemed it prudent to retire (more especially when he perceived the approach of the French naval force), defied to no purpose by the jests and provocations of his opponents.

[1] In his despatch to the French Government, General Decaen vehemently inveighed against this proceeding as opposed to those dictates of loyalty and good faith, the force of which ought never to be extinguished by war itself. "Monument," said he, "à jamais frappant du génie vénal de la nation, qui l'a dictée. de l'or! Voilà leur moyen de séduction! de l'or! pour payer l'honneur français et décider des guerriers, des administrateurs et des colons fidèles, à se vouer à l'infamie!

intercepting the East India and China trade, which they knew was compelled to take this route on its passage to Europe. Two circumstances, which they could not have foreseen, effectually deprived them of the spoil their minds had pictured as already within their grasp.

An embargo had been laid on all the British shipping at Canton, in consequence of a momentary difference between that nation and the Chinese Government, and every vessel at Madras had been taken up by the Government of that Presidency, for the transport of troops to Isle Bonaparte. On the third of July, however, after they had touched at St. Augustin's Bay, and scoured in vain the Mozambique Channel, three East Indiamen, on their passage from the Cape of Good Hope to India, hove in sight of the squadron off Mayotta, and the signal was given for a general chase. The *Minerve*,[1] Captain Bouvet, and *Victor*, Captain Breton, favoured by a change in the wind, overtook them at three o'clock in the afternoon; the signal for the attack having been given, they hauled to the wind on the starboard tack, and the combat commenced within range of pistol shot. The *Minerve* directed a part of her fire on the *Windham*, and her whole larboard broadside on the *Ceylon*, which was close astern to her consort. The *Victor* now came up and opened her fire, while the *Minerve* shot ahead, and then bore down as if to board her opponents, to which they were far from averse, inasmuch as they had a large body of troops on board. The *Windham* having made sail to strike the French frigate on the larboard quarter, her consorts co-operated in the manœuvre, but were unable to accomplish it before the *Minerve* had passed athwart the hawse of the *Windham*, and wore to cut her off. This tactic was on the point of being crowned with success, when the *Minerve* suddenly found herself disabled of her top and topgallant masts by her own impetuosity, while the English ships, encouraged by this unexpected disaster, had recovered in the respite from their disorder. At this moment the *Bellone*, Captain Duperré, came up, and lost no time in prolonging the line to windward, and, drawing her bowsprit under her poop, ranged herself side by side with the vessel bearing the distinctive mark of command, pouring at the same time a heavy fire on the *Windham*. At six o'clock they were still closely engaged: the fire of the English was excellently and most unintermittingly served by the soldiery on board, and their musketry was equally brisk and effective. At eight, however, the captain and first-mate of the *Ceylon*, which had borne the brunt of the fire, being wounded, her

[1] This frigate was partly manned by Irishmen, who, having been taken prisoners in British ships, were induced by the French to enlist in their service, under the artful plea that France was about to invade Ireland, and having freed it from the British yoke to restore the Roman Catholic religion. Some British sailors were also base enough to desert the national flag, and under the threat of strict confinement, serve against their own nation.—*James's Naval History.*

masts, rigging, and sails being cut to pieces, many of her guns disabled, and her loss in killed and wounded being severe, she surrendered, and her example was followed by the *Windham*, after she had assisted in securing a retreat to the *Astell*, Captain Hay,[1] which profiting by the darkness of the night and the damages sustained by the *Minerve*, seized an opportunity, while the French were occupied in securing the *Windham* and *Ceylon*, to make her escape, for which the captain and crew were handsomely rewarded by the East India Company. The total English loss in this engagement was twenty killed and seventy-six wounded. French loss, twenty-two killed and thirty-eight wounded. These vessels carried twenty-six guns each, and had 1,200 men, forming the 24th regiment of infantry, with a general, the colonel, and its colours on board. At the expiration of twelve days, the squadron with its prizes was under weigh for the Isle of France.

And now was the tide of success, which had lately set in almost unbroken in favour of Great Britain, no longer to preserve its wonted course, disaster to follow disaster, and a coincidence of apparent accidents to protect and even lead the enemy to a partial victory over the unrivalled heroism and superior numerical force of the British navy, as if it had been determined by some over-ruling Providence, that the expiring genius of Gallo-Indian power should emit one feeble flickering ray previous to its utter extinction. On the 20th of August at day-break, the mountains to the windward of the Isle of France were distinctly seen by the squadron of Duperré, and at mid-day, Port Imperial itself came into view. In the port was descried a frigate, anchored under cover of the fort on Isle de la Passe, evidently of French build, with the tri-coloured flag floating from her mizzen, and indicating by her signals, that the English were then cruising off Port Napoleon and the Coin de Mire. One of the frigates now made the private signal, which was answered from Isle de la Passe. Duperré deemed it, therefore, prudent to put in, if it was only for the purpose of making further inquiries, and, having regulated the order of advance, he bore up for the harbour, the *Victor* leading the way, and the *Bellone* bringing up the rear. In the interval the crew of the *Néréide* had been posted at their guns, and awaited the order to fire; the batteries on Isle de la Passe, manned by a party from the 33d and 69th regiments under the command of Captain Dodd, were equally prepared to give the enemy a warm reception, and the *Victor*, with her topsails clewed up and her men aloft to furl sails, was just on the point of doubling

[1] Captain Duperré characterised this officer as "cet indigne fuyard" under the supposition that he had struck his colours, and having taken advantage of the security with which his surrender had shielded him, made sail and escaped. The reverse was, however, the fact, for, though desperately wounded, he would not strike his colours,—a fact confirmed by the officers of his less fortunate consorts.

the *Néréide*, when she was hailed by the latter, and commanded to strike her colours. This order was accompanied by a broadside, which quickly produced obedience: her helm was put down, her colours struck, and her anchor let go in an instant: at the same moment the French flag was hauled down both from the fort and the frigate, and the English flag hoisted in its room, both on the one and the other. As soon as Duperré saw the fire from the *Néréide*, and the Isle de la Passe, his first idea was, that the whole of the southern part of the island was already in the possession of the English; he therefore gave the signal for a general rally, and to keep to the wind. But it was too late. The *Minerve* had advanced so close on the corvette, as to be unable to execute the movement, and had consequently received on her entrance through the pass the whole fire of the fort, as well as the broadside of the *Néréide*, which had just time to reload her guns, when the *Ceylon*, the prize East Indiaman, also entered the narrows, and coming into action, returned the fire with great spirit.

Duperré now saw that there was not a moment to be lost; the *Minerve* and *Ceylon* had passed into the anchorage at the bottom of the bay, and the *Victor* was lying alongside the *Néréide*,[1] he determined, therefore, to force the passage with the *Bellone;* if it was only to recover the corvette, and rallying his squadron, work a diversion that might be useful to the colony. Entering the pass under easy sail, he returned the fire of the fort and frigate with a vigorous broadside under the stern of the latter, but the channel, occupied by the *Néréide*, was here so extremely narrow, that the *Bellone* was compelled to tack about, so as to prevent running on board of her when passing. The *Windham*, to which the *Bellone*, after having herself passed, had thrown out signals to follow, was directed by M. Duperré to imitate his manœuvres, but the captain, from an indecision or unwillingness to incur the danger, preferred remaining out at sea, and was forced to seek another port. While the attention of the *Néréide* had been distracted by the attack of the *Bellone*, the *Minerve* had hailed the *Victor*, which had already struck, and ordered her to cut the English, rehoist the French colours, and make up for her. By this manœuvre the whole French squadron reached the harbour, and came safely to their moorings

[1] The situation of the *Néréide* and her boats, which were absent, and contained a great portion of the crew, as well as a party of soldiers, was very critical. Presently, however, they were seen pulling down the narrow channel, up which the *Minerve* and *Ceylon* were sailing; so that their capture appeared inevitable, but to their surprise, though passing within pistol shot of the two Frenchmen, they were suffered to pass unmolested. Another accident, which had well nigh proved her destruction, almost immediately followed. A powder magazine exploded near the anchorage, killing three and wounding twelve of her men, besides dismounting five of the guns. During the action with the four ships, which had passed and engaged her in succession, the *Néréide* had three men killed and several wounded, and had sustained considerable damage.

under the protection of the batteries. Duperré now found that the French flag was floating everywhere, and that the Isle de la Passe was alone held by the foe; he gave orders, therefore, that the squadron should take a more advanced ground of anchorage in the hope of capturing the frigate and retaking the fort, which was instantly done. On putting himself in communication with the shore, he learned the capture of Isle Bonaparte, and the situation of the Isle of France. On the 21st, shells having been thrown by order of Captain Willoughby with a view to compel the French frigates to anchor farther from the *Néréide,* their proximity being considered dangerous, Duperré placed the squadron nearer the shore in the form of a crescent with its rear to the rocks, which skirt the bay, and the van close to the coral reef. In the mean time the *Windham* East Indiaman, whom we left in search of a port, had anchored at the mouth of the Rivière Noire, where she was boarded and retaken, in defiance of the formidable batteries, by the boats of the *Sirius* without arms, and was immediately dispatched by Captain Pym to Isle Bonaparte.

To give the French an idea of the confidence with which he looked to the ultimate issue of events in despite of his (at that time) critical position, Captain Willoughby despatched a boat with a flag of truce to demand the restoration of the *Victor*, which had surrendered the day before, but to this Duperré demurred, and on his repeating the demand, a peremptory refusal was returned. Previous to his taking this step, the British officer, whose motive in enticing the French into Grand Port had originated in the conviction that they would be an overmatch for the English frigates cruising off Port Napoleon, had sent a boat to Captain Pym to acquaint him with his situation, and prepared at the same time to defend himself, in case the French squadron became the aggressor. On his receiving intelligence of the entry of Duperré's division into Port Imperial, an advice of that movement was immediately sent by Captain Pym to the *Magicienne* and *Iphigenia* frigates then cruising in security before the north-west port, where they had little doubt Duperré would endeavour to enter.

On the 22d the *Néréide*, which the strong breezes from the south-east had prevented, equally with the French squadron, from quitting their respective positions, the one at the entrance, the other at the bottom of the bay, was joined by the *Sirius*, to which Captain Willoughby made the signal that he was prepared for action; that the enemy was inferior in force to the two British frigates supported by the fort, while the master of the *Néréide* assured Captain Pym that he could lay him along-side the *Bellone.* The plan of attack was, therefore, instantly conceived and arranged in consequence of the position of the French, but, in steering in for this purpose, the *Sirius* grounded on a shoal, and could not be got off till the following day at noon, which for that day frustrated the design.

Upon a consideration of the weak state of his crew, arising as well from the prizes he had to man, as from the engagements he had fought, Captain Duperré demanded a reinforcement of men from General Decaen, who hastened from St. Louis to Mahébourg to confer with him, and promised him every assistance it was in his power to afford, as well as assured him that the division of Commodore Hamelin would shortly arrive to give him the preponderance, and frustrate the expectations of the English.

On the 23d at four o'clock in the afternoon, the *Sirius* and *Néréide* were joined at their anchorage by the *Magicienne* and *Iphigenia* frigates, under the command of Captains Lambert and Curtis. With this additional force it was conceived that the enemy would no longer offer a resistance, and, without giving them a moment to increase the number of their batteries, the plan of attack was instantly arranged, and, every disposition having been taken, the British squadron again stood in to the attack.

From the preparations they had been making, Duperré had no doubt of the intentions of his opponents; he lost no time, therefore, in securing the most favourable position, and took every necessary precaution to prevent a surprise. A reinforcement of officers and men, in part from the frigates of Commodore Hamelin's division, had been dispatched to Port Imperial over land, and were, immediately on their arrival, distributed among the squadron of Duperré, so that he now saw himself prepared for every contingency that might occur, and beheld with calmness the English frigates direct their course, one for the *Minerve*, a second for the *Ceylon*, and the other two for his own frigate and the *Victor*, indicating by their movements that they meant to attack him at anchor.

At 5h. 10m. P.M. the engagement began by a well-directed fire from the French ships and batteries. In steering for the *Bellone*, the *Sirius* grounded for a second time on a coral reef, and in such a position as to preclude the possibility of her returning the fire of her opponent. Soon after the *Magicienne* also grounded, on being placed alongside the *Minerve*, and though she commenced action with musketry, yet from her position only three of her guns could be brought to bear. Nor was the *Minerve* herself in a more fortunate condition. Both her own and the cables of the *Ceylon*, which now struck her colours, had been cut away by the shot of the *Magicienne*, but before a boat could be sent to take possession of the latter the two vessels had drifted on shore with their broadsides towards the *Bellone*, and their fire became in great measure useless. Meanwhile the *Bellone* would have been fouled by her consorts, had she not cut her cable and herself ran aground, preserving at the same time an excellent position for the combat. So far the English seemed to have rather the advantage, as they had two frigates left to oppose to the *Bellone* and the batteries, though one of these, it is true, was prevented by circumstances from sharing in the action.

At this juncture, the *Néréide*, Captain Willoughby, seeing what had befallen the *Sirius*, and regardless of the raking fire poured on her, steered with characteristic gallantry for the *Bellone*, and between these two ill-matched vessels a furious cannonade commenced, in which the *Victor*, being near, likewise took a part. As the log of the *Néréide*, from which I make the following extract, will convey a more distinct notion of the state of that ship, than any language, however forcible, from the pen of a person not actually present; I shall, without an apology, present it to the reader.

"*Néréide* brought up with the small bower in five fathoms a quarter of a mile off shore, and within half a pistol shot of the *Bellone* and *Victor*, veered to half a cable, and commenced action at 5h. 30m. P.M. Shortly after, the *Iphigenia* cleared the pass, and seeing the position of the *Magicienne*, anchored on her larboard quarter, and commenced firing on the *Minerve*. The *Sirius* had previously grounded. And then did Commodore Duperré turn what had threatened to prove an entire defeat into a decided victory. From this moment the *Néréide* was almost singly exposed to the more powerful fire of the *Bellone* and the cross fire of the batteries, while the *Iphigenia*, which was separated from her by the interposition of a shoal, vainly endeavoured to run down to her assistance. The effect was soon visible, her spring was first shot away and she swung round with her stern to the *Bellone*, which, after having been fouled by her consorts, had altered her position nearer in shore. The small bower cable of the *Néréide* was, therefore, cut and let go, the better to bring her starboard guns to bear. At 10 P.M. Captain Willoughby was severely wounded on the head; the mast of the quarterdeck and the guns of the forecastle were dismounted; most of the guns disabled on the main deck, and the other parts of the squadron on the rocks, and unable to render any assistance. She next ran aground astern, where she was hulled by the ships and batteries, and five hours having elapsed since the commencement of the action without the arrival of a single boat from any one of the squadron, Captain Willoughby ordered the now feebly maintained fire of the *Néréide* to cease, and the few survivors to shelter themselves in the lower part of the vessel, directing at the same time a boat to be dispatched to Captain Pym to apprise him of his situation, and the defenceless state of his ship, leaving it to him to say, as senior officer, whether or not it was practicable to tow the *Néréide* out of reach of the enemy's shot, or set her on fire and endanger the *Bellone* and other French ships aground. At 10h. 30m. P.M. the boat returned with orders for Captain Willoughby to repair on board the *Sirius*, which that officer thought proper to decline. A boat was then dispatched to the *Bellone* to inform her that the *Néréide* having been entirely silenced by her fire had struck with a dreadful carnage on board. An officer was now sent from the *Iphigenia* to know the cause of the cessation of her fire. At 11h. 20m. the boat, which had been dispatched to the *Bellone*, returned without having been able to reach that vessel in consequence of a shot from the batteries, which had left her in a sinking state."

The fire from the other English frigates had ceased, with the exception of that from the *Iphigenia*, which proved that they were labouring under some great disadvantage, while the broadsides of the *Bellone* became, if possible, still more vigorous, fed as they were by the assistance in men, cordage, and ammunition, sent by the captain of the *Minerve*, which was saved from being captured by the *Iphigenia*, only by the intervention of a shoal. The victory had now declared itself decisively in favour of the French, when about

11h. 10m. P.M., and at the very moment when his victory appeared complete, Commodore Duperré was struck on the head by a grape shot, and, being hurled off the deck into the waste, was taken up insensible. Apprised of the misfortune that had occurred, Captain Bouvet of the *Minerve* instantly hastened to replace him in the command of the *Bellone*. The French still continued their fire on the *Néréide* at intervals during the night. At 12h. 30m. P.M. the mainmast went by the board, and several ropes had caught fire, but were fortunately extinguished. French colours were now hoisted on the fore-rigging, but the batteries and *Bellone* still directed their fire on the unfortunate frigate, though they had been hailed times without number to say that she had struck. A momentary cessation of fire gave a short respite of two hours to the combatants: meanwhile fresh troops poured unto the enemy's ships from the shore, and replaced the killed and wounded. Though the whole of the French ships, with the exception of the *Bellone*, had taken the ground at an early stage in the contest, yet they were left in such a condition as to possess every advantage over those of the English, while the *Néréide* had sunk as low as the shoal would permit.

On the recommencement of the engagement, it was perceived that the union jack, which had been nailed to the head of the mizzen-mast was still flying, and, as there was not a particle of rigging or rope to go aloft by, the mast itself was cut, and the enemy ceased firing at 3h. 30m. AM[1] At 4 o'clock she was boarded by a boat from the *Bellone*, which spiked her guns, took possession of the keys of her magazine, and committed to the deep the bodies of the slain. And now a most frightful scene of carnage presented itself to their view! On a shred of the mast was still floating a fragment of the union jack, lingering as if unwilling to quit in death the noble men who through their lives had won such glorious triumphs under its auspices! The decks were covered with the dead and the dying!

[1] The cause of this cessation has been otherwise accounted for, and indeed, of the two, the following would appear to be the more probable reason. "On the 24th (says the French account) at 3 o'clock in the morning, the aide-de-camp of the Captain General Decaen was sent to announce to the French frigates that a prisoner of their nation from Isle de la Passe, who had been detained on board the *Néréide*, having escaped the broadsides vomited forth by the *Bellone*, had disengaged himself from the midst of the dead and dying, and precipitated himself into the water, for the purpose of making the shore, and apprising General Decaen of the fact, that the *Néréide* had entirely ceased her fire at 10 o'clock the night before, that Captain Willoughby was aleady dangerously wounded, and seeing the impossibility of offering any protracted resistance to the fire of the French division, had dispatched men on several occasions to lower the English flag, but that the fire from the frigates had always struck down those who presented themselves to execute the order, that the crew, filled with consternation, had precipitated themselves into the hold in disorder, leaving to his fate their captain, who, stretched prostrate on the deck without assistance, was weltering in his blood." This advice at length suspended the fire, which had been till then almost wholly directed on the *Néréide*, in revenge, perhaps, for the leading part she had taken in the passage of the 20th.

Nearly every officer and seamen had been killed or wounded! No part of the ship had been sheltered! The shot of the enemy had even penetrated into the hold, and Mr. Timmins, a young midshipman, had his head shot off, when sitting at the door of his cabin in the 'tween decks, while bleeding from a previous wound. Captain Willoughby himself was found reclining on the capstan, his arm dangling out of the socket, one of his eyes hanging on his cheek, and though otherwise severely injured, singing aloud, "Rule Britannia," &c. Even in this situation he struggled, under some impulse of mental aberration, until he was overpowered by the French. Around him were 116 of the crew lying dead, and of the wounded many breathed their last on being landed. Lieutenant Deacon received twenty-two wounds. Lieutenants Burns, Morlett of the 33d regiment, and Aldwinkle of the Madras Artillery, were also among the slain. Not an officer had escaped unhurt, and very few of the crew. At 10 A.M. the boats of the *Bellone* under the command of M. Roussin again boarded the *Néréide*, and found things in a state too horrible to be conceived. The English were now replaced by the French colours, and the decks were wetted by the direction of that officer, who was alarmed lest the explosion from the *Sirius* should set fire to the former vessel, she being to leeward and the wind strong.

As soon as the English on Isle de la Passe perceived that the French had hoisted their own in the place of the national colours on board the *Néréide*, they directed their fire in turn on that ill-fated frigate, and, as the French had not as yet completed the reduction of the others, they again abandoned her. From this moment up to an hour after midnight on the 24th, the *Magicienne* became the sole mark of the French guns; they were under the necessity of waiting, however, until she had surrendered, to take possession of her, as their boats would have been otherwise too much exposed to a cross fire. The cannonade lasted till 2 o'clock, but on the French side only. From time to time the *Magicienne* fired a few random shots, the last efforts it would seem of despair. The boats held frequent communication with the other frigates, from which it was clear to the French that their enemies meant to abandon her. At 5 o'clock in the evening her ship's crew, who had eight of their number killed and twenty wounded, were observed to quit her, as she was then bilged and in a sinking state. She was subsequently set on fire by Captain Curtis to prevent her from falling into the enemy's hands, and at 11h. 30m. P.M. she blew up. The crew reached Isle de la Passe and the *Iphigenia* (which had taken a very small share in the action) in safety. At 3 o'clock in the afternoon the latter frigate had warped herself out of her position to larboard of the *Magicienne*, and for some hours afterwards was actively engaged in endeavouring to get the *Sirius* afloat, which Captain Pym had laboured for two days and nights to accomplish, but in vain. The night was spent

by the French in watching the movements of their antagonists. On the morning of the 25th their fire was in its turn directed against the *Sirius*. She returned it for a time with her bow guns, but her position rendered the contest too unequal to be supported long. At 10 o'clock the English were observed to quit her, as they had done the *Magicienne* the night before, and she was perceived to be on fire in several places. The flames, fanned by the evening breeze, and darting forth from out the darkness, offered to the countless spectators on the shore a resplendent and yet a horrible spectacle. At 11 o'clock at night the powder magazine blew up, and destroyed what remained of the gallant vessel. Rushing in crowds to the boats, her crew in like manner repaired to the *Iphigenia*,[1] which had now 1000 men on board, and was completely blocked up in an enemy's port without water and provisions. This frigate, which alone remained intact out of the four, partly in consequence of her having been anchored by the side of the *Néréide*, and therefore masked from the fire of the batteries and fleet, no longer announced by her position an intention of continuing to take a part in the combat, but hastened to make her escape under the guns of Isle de la Passe with the wreck of the crews[2] from the *Sirius* and *Magicienne*. Meanwhile the French squadron that had taken part in the late engagement was actively employed in repairing damages and getting afloat in the rear, while the *Bellone*, as the least injured in the action, prepared to crown her victory by having herself towed up in pursuit of the *Iphigenia*, which, blocked up by the winds and the French squadron, remained at their mercy, when the division of Commodore Hamelin, consisting of the *Venus* 44, *La Manche* 40, *Astrée* 40, and *Entreprenant* corvette, which had been released from Port Napoleon on the relinquishment of its blockade by the English frigates, suddenly appeared in the offing on the morning of the 27th, and took their position in her van, so as not to leave the English any possible means of escaping from their fate.

After Captain Lambert had by excessive exertion succeeded in

[1] Captain Lambert, in the *Iphigenia*, had previously offered to Captain Pym to run down and endeavour to carry the *Bellone* and the other French ships by boarding, as he had now got to the east of the shoal which had before prevented his pursuit of the *Minerve*. Captain Pym wished him, however, to continue warping out, as he had yet hopes to get off the *Sirius*. The French shot continuing to rake his vessel, Captain Lambert sent another boat to Pym, stating that he should be obliged to recommence the action in his own defence; but Captain Pym still wished him to warp out of gunshot, which he at length accomplished by means of a light breeze that sprung up.

[2] The loss of the *Néréide* has already been mentioned. That of the *Magicienne* was eight killed, and twenty wounded; of the *Iphigenia*, five killed, and twelve wounded. The *Sirius* suffered no loss, being out of range of shot; though Captain Pym, on the other hand, states that she lay within shot of all the enemy's forts and ships, and was only able to return their fire with two guns. The loss of the French is generally considered to have greatly exceeded the alleged number, as the frigates were constantly recruited from the shore.

warping his ship close up to Isle de la Passe (whose capture had turned out so lamentable) and landed the crews of the *Sirius* and *Magicienne*, an officer was dispatched by General Decaen with a summons to surrender, to which Captain Lambert, flattering himself with the hope of being rescued, for some time demurred. A negotiation was also opened between the captain and French squadron, when he offered to surrender the island, provided the *Iphigenia* should be allowed to retire with her officers and men to a British port, but this being rejected, and Commodore Hamelin having repeated the summons and endeavoured to make him sensible of the impossibility of resistance against the attack he was preparing to direct against him, Captain Lambert, being in want of ammunition and the commonest necessaries before a five-fold force, found himself under the necessity of capitulating, under a promise that the officers[1] and men should be forwarded within a month to the Cape of Good Hope (a pledge which remained unfulfilled), and in every other respect gave up the treatment of himself and his companions in misfortune to French generosity. At 11 o'clock on the morning of the 28th the French flag was hoisted on the fort and on board the frigate of which Captain Bouvet was appointed commander. A garrison was also sent to the fort from the Isle of France, and the prisoners, to the number of 100 naval and military officers, and 1600 soldiers, seamen, and marines, were conveyed to Port Imperial. The loss of the French in the late action had been likewise far from inconsiderable. The *Bellone* had thirty-seven killed, and 112 wounded, and the other frigates had severely suffered, though not in a similar proportion.

Such was the result of the conflict at Grand Port,[2] a conflict to

[1] These officers were retained at the Isle of France till its capture in December, though General Decaen had pledged that they should be sent home on parole, or exchanged within a month. Captain Willoughby being now a prisoner, a council was held by the French Governor, to determine whether or not he should be punished for having distributed proclamations among the inhabitants subversive of their allegiance. It was decided, however, that, as he had been taken in honourable fight, he should be treated as a prisoner of war. His wounds not permitting his removal, he remained at Grand Port, where he was passably treated. Not so his brother officers, Pym, Lambert, and Curtis, who were removed to St. Louis, and treated in the harshest manner. Some ladies, who had been taken in the captured Indiamen, were also thrown into prison. Where (says Mr. James) was General Decaen? where was French gallantry? What has M. Dupin, the advocate of French humanity, to say to that? As for Captain Hamelin, the hero of Tappanooly, he permitted his officers and men to plunder the British of almost everything, adding personal insult to Captain Lambert, to whom he had intimated before his surrender that if he did not accede to the terms proposed by General Decaen, the French frigates would commence an attack on the *Iphigenia* and Isle de la Passe, and on carrying them would put the crew and garrison to the sword.—*James's Naval History.*

[2] By a French survey of Port Imperial, and the position of the contending ships drawn by an officer who was present, it has been made to appear that the *Sirius* grounded at the distance of sixty-three toises from the *Bellone*, and the *Néréide* not thirty; the other two ships in the intermediate distance. This

which will be attached an enduring interest, so long as Great Britain shall remain mistress of the seas, as much from the fact that the valour of some of her bravest officers was perhaps for the first time counterbalanced by a succession of unavoidable accidents,[1] as from

statement is notoriously incorrect; the *Sirius* was nearly a mile from the enemy, the *Iphigenia* about the same distance, the *Magicienne* much nearer, and the *Néréide* within hail.—*Brenton's Naval History.*

[1] Baron Dupin has, with a casuistry unusual for him, attempted to prove, from the issue of this engagement, that in cases where the French possess an equality of force, they are a match for their more skilful antagonists on the sea. We will proceed, however, to subjoin his remarks, with the addition of our own comments thereon. Speaking of the close of the action, he says, "Le lendemain l'action recommence avec le même acharnement. Les frégates Françaises et trois des frégates Anglaises sont échouées sur des bas-fonds, et se battent dans les positions données par cette immobilité forcée. Le nombre des morts et des blessés est plus grand du côté des Français; mais la constance est moins grande du côté des ennemis. Les Anglais ne peuvent plus soutenir le feu de nos batimens. Une première frégate se rend à nous. Une seconde se brûle elle meme le second jour du combat. La troisème se brûle également, le troisième jour du combat. Enfin la quatrième, réfugiée sous le fort de la Passe, se rend, à l'apparition de la division Hamelin, qui vient jouir de ce beau triomphe de notre force navale. Ainsi, par une suite d'actions brillantes, la frégate *Bellone* cause à nos ennemis, la perte des cinq frégates. Quelques jours après, *L'Iphigénie* notre prise, montée par Captaine Bouvet prend encore *L'Africaine*. Il fallait alors, coup sur coup et de tous nos grands ports, envoyer vingt frégates dans les mers de l'Inde pour rejoindre les heros qui venaient d'y faire de si grandes choses. Mais on n'envoya que des secours insignificans, qui la plupart manquèrent leur destination. C'est ainsi que la France a perdu pour jamais une île qui soutenait avec gloire le nom de notre patrie, et qui menaçait le commerce oriental de l'empire Britanique. Il me plait d'avoir prouvé ce fait: dans le temps mêmes où les Anglais répétaient partout à haute voix que notre force navale, démoralisée, n'osait plus soutenir contr'eux de combat à forces égales, nous pouvions leur opposer d'illustres succès et montrer tout ce que notre marine (si la sagesse eût réglé ses distins), etait capable d'entreprendre et d'exécuter." Before we analyze these statements of the Baron's, it may be well to observe, that he classes the capture of three Indiamen by two powerful French frigates and a corvette, as one mark of French prowess. Another mark was its forcing its way through the Pass. A third and principal, the conflict at Grand Port, though he is compelled to admit the grounding of three out of the British force. The fourth and last the capture of the *Africaine*, but he here conceals the awkward fact, that her capture was effected by two frigates, both of a force superior to her own. "Nor had Duperré (says Mr. James) any cause but to regret so unfair an account of a victory, which the shoals and rocks of Grand Port, rather than the prowess of French seamen, or the cannon of French ships, gained for him. The same writer pertinently remarks, that if the British ships had, from previous acquaintance with the difficult navigation of the place, been enabled to take the stations assigned them, the enterprise would have been crowned with success, and a very serious blow inflicted on the French naval power in these seas. Too much precipitation was used: had the attack, instead of taking place an hour or two before dark, been postponed till early the next morning, when the water was smooth, and the shoals discernible, the British commanding officer would have written his despatch under very different feelings from those which must have possessed him when giving an account of a defeat so complete, calamitous, and uncalled for." Soon after the capture of the island, Captains Pym, Lambert, Curtis, and Willoughby, and their several officers, were tried by court-martial on board the *Illustrious*, at Port Louis, for the loss of their respective ships, and

the loss of four of her frigates and a portion of her troops. The battle had not been wholly confined to the sea. Detachments were landed from Isle de la Passe and the squadron, with the intention of working a diversion in favour of the latter, but the presence of General Decaen with the troops and national guard militated against the success of the attempt. General Vandermaesen was also posted at another point of the bay exposed to the English fire, and ably seconded every operation of the squadron.

The division of Commodore Hamelin, which had been blockaded (as has been before stated) by the English at Port Napoleon, but was subsequently released from its duresse by the diversion effected in another part of the island, had cruised in the Indian Ocean during the preceding year without any remarkable success, but, according to Captain Brenton, with eternal infamy to her commander. In the month of October *La Venus* and the rest of the division, after capturing an Indiaman, proceeded to Tappanooly, a British settlement in the island of Sumatra, which they completely laid waste, forcing the female part of the inhabitants on board a prize. After having plundered it of every article, disabled the guns on the batteries, carried off or maimed the horses and cattle, and destroyed the plantations, he set fire to the town, burning alike private and public buildings.[1] "If" (continues that gallant officer) "Commodore Hamelin

were most honourably acquitted. Its decision on Captain Willoughby's case deserves recording:—"The court is of opinion, that the conduct of Captain Willoughby was injudicious in making the signal to the *Sirius*, that the enemy was in inferior force, she being the only ship in sight, and not justifiable, as the enemy evidently was superior, but it is of opinion that H.M.S. *Néréide* was carried into action in a most judicious, officer-like, and gallant manner; and the court cannot do otherwise than express its high admiration of the noble conduct of the captain, officers, and ship's company during the whole of the unequal contest, and is further of opinion that the *Néréide* was not surrendered to the enemy until she was completely disabled, so as to render further resistance useless, and that no blame whatever attaches to them for the loss of the said ship. So (says James) the noble behaviour of the officers and crew threw such a halo of glory round the defeat at Grand Port, that the loss of the four frigates was scarcely considered a misfortune.

[1] After leaving Tappanooly, the French division fell in with three Indiamen, which engaged them in a most spirited manner. The *Windham*, Captain Stewart, though there could be little chance of success, singly encountered a French frigate, which was to windward of the rest, and compelled her to join her consorts, but meeting with a want of co-operation from the other two ships, Captain Stewart made all sail to escape. Meanwhile the other Indiamen had struck to the French, while *La Venus* pursued the *Windham*, which, though for a long time maintaining her ground, was at last overtaken and captured, and Commodore Hamelin sailed with his prizes for the Isle of France. On the way the *Venus* was met by a dreadful hurricane, lost her topmasts, and filling with water, was given up by Hamelin and his crew, who requested Captain Stewart to endeavour to save her with his late crew, at the same time pressing him to give a pledge that his men should abstain from taking possession of the frigate. Captain Stewart refused any such terms, but replied that Commodore Hamelin must take his chance of that. Having caused all the arms to be removed, the French gave up the frigate to his charge, and by his great exertions, the wreck of the

was really present at this detestable and disgraceful scene, he ought, when taken, to have been sent back to Tappanooly, and made to answer for his barbarity with his life. What more could have been done by the Ashantees, than was perpetrated by this representative of the emperor of a refined and polished nation? Was there ever an example of such conduct in the British army and navy? I am proud to say there never has, and trust there never will be." Of the conduct of the commodore on this occasion, unless its enormity has been greatly exaggerated, no palliation can be offered, and the reader will not fail to be reminded of the contrast it presents to that of the brave, and therefore generous, Duperré.

No sooner had General Decaen become acquainted with the design of the English on Port Imperial, and perceived that their aim was to overpower the division of Duperré, than (as we have already seen) he directed Commodore Hamelin to hasten to their assistance. The *Venus*, *La Manche*, *Entreprenant*, were therefore immediately refitted and victualled, and such was the zeal and activity employed on the occasion, that six hours had scarcely elapsed after the receipt of the instructions from General Decaen, than the division, reinforced by a number of volunteers, who embarked on the invitation of that officer, was under weigh for Port Imperial. Baffled by a series of adverse winds and currents, the progress of the division was greatly retarded, and eager as it might be to share in the dangers and rewards of the division of Duperré, its efforts to surmount the obstacles which opposed themselves to the rapidity of its course were vain notwithstanding, and Commodore Hamelin arrived but in time to conclude (as senior officer) the terms of a capitulation, to which the English, who could not be blind to the horrors of their situation, were forced to submit.

With scarcely as much force as common prudence would have required to insure his squadron from capture, Commodore Rowley proceeded to retrieve the disasters of his countrymen. He had fortunately agreed with Colonel Keating that a military post should be established on Isle Platte, after the possession of Isle de la Passe should be secured. For this purpose, the *Bombay Merchant*, a large transport, was laden with water and provisions sufficient for both islands, and carried on board the flank battalion of an infantry regiment, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Austen. The commodore had just completed this part of his arrangements, when he was joined by the *Windham* in St. Paul's Bay on the 22nd of August, which had been recaptured from the enemy by the *Sirius*

frigate's topmasts was cleared, the water reduced in the hold, and the *Venus* carried safe into the Rivière Noire, with scarcely a drop of water for the prisoners or crew, and no provisions but rice, so that she could not have been carried off by the English captain. The *Windham* was subsequently recaptured by the *Magicienne*, Captain Curtis, and being conveyed to the Cape, was there rejoined in a cartel by Captain Stewart—*James's Naval History*.

the day before, and from her he learned that Duperré had forced the passage at Isle de la Passe, and that it was the intention of Captain Pym to attack him in that anchorage without waiting for any further reinforcement. The more highly the commodore appreciated the talents and courage of Captain Pym, the more he dreaded his fatal resolution, convinced of the extreme hazard of the enterprise, certain that he would make the attempt, yet, assured that in the course of a few weeks the enemy's squadron must surrender without firing a shot to the combined forces, which would then proceed to attack the Isle of France, he resolved to run down to his assistance, if the issue were not already decided, and in that case to act as circumstances might dictate. Two of the flank companies, and a detachment of artillery, were therefore hurried on board the *Boadicea*, and the transport, with the remainder of the force, was directed to follow. But the passage was unfortunately retarded by a succession of baffling winds, till the event had been decided, and the boat which had been dispatched by Captain Pym to Commodore Rowley before the surrender of the *Iphigenia*, without attracting the observation of the French, was picked up on the 27th by the *Boadicea*, and acquainted her commander with the unfortunate result of the action at Port Imperial. Never (says Captain Brenton) was an officer more completely mortified and disappointed than was Commodore Rowley on receiving this melancholy dispatch. In making the Isle de la Passe on the following morning, he perceived the French frigates close off the Port, of one of which he stood within gunshot, and within six miles of Isle de la Passe, where he descried the *Iphigenia*, but could not approach her (although she was at that time in possession of the English), a third frigate coming down upon him to windward; the commodore tacked, and stood off, and was chased by the French squadron. *La Venus*, Commodore Hamelin, from being in a cleaner state, had a great superiority in sailing, and might easily have brought the *Boadicea* to action, but preferred to wait the coming up of her consort, *La Manche*. The event now turned on a trial of tactics, in which the superior genius of Rowley was not long in bearing off the prize. He ran as far leeward as St. Denis, but perceiving that the French frigates had hauled off, he again stood forward towards them, in order to give an opportunity to the transport to communicate with and succour the *Iphigenia*, and perhaps afford time for her escape by diverting the attention of the French from Isle de la Passe.

At daylight on the following morning, the chase was again renewed by the French frigates, until the *Boadicea* arrived off St. Denis, from whence an express was sent by the Commodore to Captain Tomkinson, of the *Otter*, directing him to move, with his whole ship's company, into the *Windham*, and join him immediately. On his arrival off St. Paul's, Commodore Rowley found that the

command of the *Windham* had been declined by Captain Tomkinson, on the plea that she was unfit for service, in consequence of which Captain Lyne had, by the most indefatigable exertions, transferred her guns to the *Emma* transport, and joined the Commodore off the Port with this assistance, upon which he resumed his route towards the Isle of France. Finding, however, that the *Emma* could not keep up with him, he detached her on a cruise between Isles Ronde and Rodriguez, to give information of the state of the enemy's force to any British ships she might encounter, and proceeded himself in the *Boadicea* to the Isle de la Passe, from which he discovered on his arrival that the *Iphigenia* had sailed, but that four ships remained in the port, which were, the *Bellone*, *Minerve*, *Néréide*, and *Ceylon*. As the *Iphigenia* had capitulated long before, nothing more could be done at that time; he returned therefore to St. Paul's Bay, Isle Bonaparte.

A few days after her capture, the *Iphigenia* was placed in a fit state to proceed on a cruise; and, being manned by detachments from the crews of the two divisions, was dispatched by the Captain-General Decaen, in company with the corvette *Le Victor*, under the command of Captain Bouvet, in quest of vessels sailing between the several English stations. They were afterwards to be joined by the *Astrée* and *Entreprenant*, which had lately formed a part of Commodore Hamelin's division, and were at that moment detached to reconnoitre the seas to the north of the island, and insure a free communication between Ports Napoleon and Imperial. After they had succeeded in making a few inconsiderable prizes, the latter returned to Port Napoleon to refit, and were directed by General Decaen to prepare for setting sail to Port Imperial, where they would effect a junction with the *Iphigenia* and *Victor*. They weighed anchor on the 3rd of September, but adverse winds did not permit the two parties (each sailing from a different port) to meet each other so easily as had been expected.

On her way the *Astrée* captured a merchantman from the Cape of Good Hope, which was laden with stores for the Isle of France, under the supposition that it had fallen into the hands of the English. Upon the junction of the division, it was found that the *Iphigenia* had been equipped in such haste as to have neglected several of her requisite stores; the *Victor*, Lieutenant Morrice, was therefore sent to procure them, and the other corvette was detached to explore that part of the coasts of Madagascar, which the English vessels were most likely to frequent in search of provisions. Previous to her return to Captain Bouvet's division, the *Victor* captured the transport, which had accompanied Commodore Rowley in his late reconnoitre off Port Imperial, with 350 sepoys, a large quantity of military stores, and 30,000 piastres.

Anxious to profit to the uttermost from the late success at Port Imperial, General Decaen returned to that place on the 8th of

September to concert measures with Commodore Duperré, whose health was now re-established, for the blockade of St. Denis, the capital of Isle Bonaparte, and to intercept the *Boadicea* and other English vessels, with the third division under his command, which, though ready to sail as soon as the wind would permit, was destined, from one cause or other, to remain inactive in the harbour.

On the 19th of September, a vessel of parley, which had been sent to Isle Bonaparte to endeavour to effect an exchange of the prisoners captured at Isle de la Passe, returned unsuccessful, and bore dispatches from Mr. R. T. Farquhar, governor *par interim*, intimating that his sense of duty would not permit him to make the desired exchange. They were consequently re-embarked.

No sooner had the crews of his squadron been refreshed, than Commodore Rowley, who had been warned of the appearance of the *Astrée* and *Iphigenia* in the offing, again weighed anchor from the Bay of St. Paul's, on the morning of the 12th of September, in pursuit of the enemy, then descried to windward, in company with the *Otter* sloop-of-war, Lieutenant Tomkinson, and *Staunch* gun-brig. Apparently astonished at the promptitude with which he had repaired the late disaster, the French seemed rather to decline a collision with an opponent, whom their hopes had led them to believe was of inferior force, by keeping to windward. Anxious, however, to assure themselves more clearly of the strength of the English force, they tacked about, as if to meet it, but, discovering that he had completed the embarkation of his crews, and was endeavouring to haul his wind, they immediately imitated his manœuvre. At this moment, the frigate *Africaine*, Captain Corbett, of 38 guns, which had been for some time hovering around the coasts of the Isle of France,[1] having heard, on putting in at Rodriguez, of the misfortune at Isle de la Passe, though she was on her way from England to Madras with dispatches for the Governor-General, which directed him to send an expedition immediately against the Isle of France, changed her route, and hastened to join the division of Commodore Rowley. Though making her appearance in a manner so unexpected, she instantly followed in

[1] On the 11th of September, the *Africaine* came in sight of the Isle of France, and detached her boats in pursuit of a French schooner, which had sought shelter among the rocks. Here, however, they met with an unexpected resistance from the neighbouring inhabitants, who, having assembled for her defence, and kept up a warm and constant fire from their coverts on the shore, the British were compelled to retreat, with the loss of two men killed and sixteen severely wounded. The *Africaine* next bore up for Bourbon, off which she descried the *Astrée* and *Iphigenia*, which presently stood on the larboard tack, as if disposed to offer battle, on which Captain Corbett, who was then employed in landing his wounded, hoisted a broad pendant and red ensign, his object being to simulate the *Boadicea*. The *ruse* had the desired effect; for, on seeing a second frigate advancing towards him, Captain Bouvet judged it to be the *Windham* Indiaman.

the wake of the French division, having first landed her wounded, and received in return a small party of soldiers from the island. One of these, the *Astrée*, was rallied within hail by the *Iphigenia* at sunset, after which both stood out more directly to sea, the *Africaine* still holding on her course, and rapidly gaining on the French frigates every moment, as well as leaving her own division, which had now recognised her far removed in the rear. As soon, however, as she had advanced so far as to be almost within range of the French guns, she for the first time paused in her impetuous career, and proceeded under easy sail, in order to allow the *Boadicea* time to come up to her assistance. The intention of Captain Bouvet had been to hurry out to sea as much as possible, and to decline the engagement till the following day, counting throughout on the inferiority of the force which would advance to sustain her. This view he imparted to Captain Lemarant, commander of the *Astrée*, and directed him to keep that vessel in the rear to leeward. About midnight, the frigate which had chased them was observed to be repeatedly exchanging signals with some other vessel in the distance, and influenced, whether by the approach of this reinforcement, or from the effect of some intervals of calms and variable breezes, in consequence of which she had continued to near them, the *Africaine*, which had been thrown by accident into a good position, knowing also that the French frigates would otherwise escape to Port Louis, decided on engaging her opponents single-handed. The same cause, by which Captain Corbett had been apparently induced to contend against such fearful odds, operated in like manner to prevent the *Boadicea*, which was now about three or four miles astern (her consorts still further removed) from running down to her assistance; and thus was an event, which had appeared at the outset so likely to redound to the credit of the British arms, once more to terminate in disaster, and the gallant Rowley to experience another bitter mortification. Finding herself ranged on the starboard side of the *Astrée*, the *Africaine* commenced her fire on that frigate at three o'clock A.M. with her larboard guns, to which she replied, till she found herself disabled of her jib-boom and fore top-sail, on which she crowded sail to gain the side of her consort, and get out of reach of the English fire. The lightness of the breeze, which had been gradually falling since the action, would have deprived the *Africaine* of her former advantage in point of sailing, even if her running rigging had not been cut away; hence she could hardly steer. The *Iphigenia* now bore up, and bracing her sails on the mast astern, and taking her post on the lee quarter of her consort, closely engaged the *Africaine* at 3.30 A.M., which, bearing up as well as she could under the repeated broadsides of the *Astrée*, recommenced a brisk and spirited fire on the *Iphigenia*. After some volleys, however, she endeavoured to avail herself of a fresh breeze that sprung up, and, making sail, run

along the *Iphigenia* to windward, at the same time recommencing the action with the *Astrée* on her weather bow. A sudden fall in the wind enabled the *Iphigenia* to retain her position. Not having succeeded in her design, and becoming more and more unmanageable under the superior fire of her antagonists, the *Africaine* crowded sailed for the purpose of executing by the prow of the *Iphigenia* a movement which, while it promised her for the moment an advantageous position, might remove her from the side of the frigates. As it happened, however, it only had the effect of unmasking and presenting her prow to the side of the *Astrée*, which was able to keep her enfiladed, while the *Iphigenia*, by imitating her manœuvre, remained constantly at her side, all her attempts having only served to draw her nearer to that vessel, which poured in a raking and destructive fire of grape-shot and langredge, while making her preparations to board. Finding at 4.30 that the *Boadicea*, though removed at no great distance, continued to be prevented by the light and variable breezes from rendering any assistance, that Captain Corbett had been mortally wounded at the very beginning of the engagement (one foot being shot off above the ankle, and a compound fracture of the thigh of the same leg having ensued by a blow from a splinter) that her jib-boom and fore and mizzen topmasts were shot away, that the three lower masts were reduced to a tottering state, her hull pierced in all directions, her quarter-deck nearly cleared of officers and men, and her main-deck so thin, that only six guns could be manned, and her fire gradually growing feebler, while the enemy had commenced raking her fore and aft, the senior lieutenant found himself compelled (no chance of escape being apparent) to surrender after a gallant resistance, and having ceased their fire and lowered the English flag, the French frigates were hailed at 5 A.M. with the information that she had struck.[1] She continued, however, to be a mark for their fire for a quarter of an hour longer, during which several of her men were killed, after which she was boarded and manned by the French, and a part of the prisoners, who had escaped in the carnage, were conveyed with a quantity of military stores on board the French division. The loss sustained by the English in the late action was most

[1] The judgment of Captain Corbett in not waiting the coming up of the *Boadicea*, has (according to Mr. James) been much questioned. Had the *Africaine* (says he) shortened sail for that purpose, the French frigates would have made sail for Port Louis. A near approach would soon have shown that the supposed Indiaman was a real frigate and a large one too, and Captain Bouvet, brave as he undoubtedly was, would have declined engaging two British frigates, a sloop, and a brig. So untoward, however, was fortune that a few minutes before the *Africaine* had hauled down her flag, a breeze swelled the sails of the *Boadicea*, and she passed within musket-shot of the enemy. Had Rowley attacked them then, the *Iphigenia* would have made but a feeble resistance against the *Otter* and *Staunch*, while the *Boadicea* might have gone in chase of the *Astrée*, but caution was necessary with a force so reduced as that of the English.

severe. Out of a crew of 295, the *Africaine* had forty-nine killed, and 114 wounded. Of the officers, Captain Corbett did not (it is said would not) survive the capture, which it has been alleged the misconduct of the crew[1] tended in no slight degree to facilitate. The master was also among the slain, having had his head carried off by a round shot. The senior lieutenant had been wounded in four places, but could not be persuaded to go below. The next officer was shot through the breast. The lieutenant of marines, a mate, and three midshipmen were likewise severely wounded. The French force, which consisted of the *Astrée* of 44, and 360 men, and the *Iphigenia* of 42, with 258 men, had nineteen killed and thirty-five wounded. The *Astrée* received but little injury in the engagement.

The dawn of day once more broke on the gallant Rowley in presence of an enemy superior to him in force and numbers, but immeasurably inferior in skill and resources. Casting his eyes around for a brief space on the spectacle presented to his view, his vanguard dismasted to the very level of her decks, the sea which surrounded him covered with the dead bodies and pieces of wreck, and the French frigates, which appeared to have suffered to no great extent, already in possession of the *Africaine*, and promptly drawn up in order of battle, while the *Boadicea* was alone and within reach of Commodore Hamelin's division, then cruising in the neighbourhood, he rightly conceived that a renewal of the action under these disadvantages would be nothing less than an act of madness, and resolved to return and bring up the *Otter* and *Staunch*, then out of sight astern; which being effected, he again led them towards the enemy, who, judging it prudent not to await his arrival in their present destitute condition, abandoned the *Africaine* at his approach, leaving an officer and nine Frenchmen in charge of her with most of the wounded, and about eighty-three of the crew,[2] whom they had not time to remove. At 5 P.M. the *Boadicea* arrived close abreast of the *Africaine*, when the latter fired two guns and hauled down the French

[1] On his appointment to the *Africaine*, the crew at first refused to serve under Captain Corbett, being intimidated by his reported severity. Strong measures having been adopted, they eventually yielded. It would appear, however, that he was still the object of dislike owing to his excessive severity, as the unskilfulness of his crew in gunnery, one cause of their having done so little execution, has been attributed to this cause. A report arose that Captain Corbett's death wound was inflicted by his own people, but this is without foundation, it having arisen from a cannon-ball. Others affirm that, unable to brook his defeat, he cut the bandages of his amputated limb, and suffered himself to bleed to death. The want of surgical aid is assigned by Mr. James as the immediate cause of his death.

[2] The late crew of the *Africaine* swam off to the *Boadicea* on her arrival, and expressed the utmost eagerness to renew the action with the French frigates, under an officer whose mild system of discipline had been made known to them; proving that, though their ship had been captured, their spirit was unsubdued.—*James's Naval History.*

colours, while the *Astrée*, taking the *Iphigenia* in tow, made all sail to windward.

From the capture of the *Africaine* having followed so soon on the disaster at Isle de la Passe, considerable attention was excited, on the arrival of the intelligence in England, as to the cause which might have contributed to such a result, and Lieutenant Tullidge, the senior surviving officer, was subsequently tried before a court-martial for the loss. But as it appeared that he had most faithfully discharged his duty, had received four severe wounds, and had only surrendered, when nothing could be done to save the ship, he was most honourably acquitted, and promoted to the rank of commander.

Taking the *Africaine* in tow, the *Boadicea* now proceeded with the rest of the division to St. Paul's, the French division having been descried more than once in the distance. On the 15th, Commodore Rowley weighed anchor, and steered for St. Denis, when the French frigates, having again reconnoitred, returned to Port Louis.

The flood of misfortune had not yet expended itself. The *Ceylon* (not the one before mentioned, but another Indiaman purchased at Bombay to co-operate with the division of Commodore Rowley, and mounting thirty guns) was commissioned as a ship-of-war, and placed under the command of Captain Gordon; her crew was nevertheless in a most defective state, which was not altogether compensated by the fortunate accession of a party of soldiers, who assisted in her defence, which, for its obstinacy (says Captain Brenton) and the happy results to which it conduced, brought a greater degree of honour to her captain and crew, than many victories which have received the rewards usually allotted to merit, leading in great measure to the subsequent success of Commodore Rowley.

The *Ceylon* had sailed from Madras in August, under orders from Vice-Admiral Drury, and carried Major-General Abercrombie, with a small body of troops, on board, to assist in the capture of the Isle of France. She arrived off Port Napoleon on the 17th of September, and discovered seven sail of frigates and a corvette lying in the harbour. After reconnoitring several parts of the coast, Captain Gordon deemed it prudent, as the British squadron was not in sight, to make all sail for Isle Bonaparte; but he had not escaped the notice of the enemy's scouts from the signal station, who at first announced the *Ceylon* as a man-of-war, but subsequently as an Indiaman with troops on board.

At 1 P.M., the *Venus* and *Victor*, part of Commodore Hamelin's division, sallied forth in pursuit, though the English vessel was now twelve miles to leeward of the port, and were descried by the *Ceylon*, which steered W. by S., under all sail. Commodore Hamelin, whom we left on a late occasion engaged in the chase of the *Boadicea*, Commodore Rowley, had been completely eluded by the superior tactics of that skilful veteran, and, finding it impossible

to bring him to action, had returned to Port Napoleon, alleging, as his motive, that the favourable winds had saved the enemy from falling into his hands.

"Observing at dusk that the *Venus* was considerably ahead of her consort, the *Ceylon* shortened sail to allow the former to close; but finding, at 10 P.M., that she had likewise reduced her sail to wait the arrival of the *Victor*, the *Ceylon* again made sail to keep the two ships apart. Having much the superiority in sailing, the *Venus* again overtook her, when she shortened sail to commence action. Passing under the stern of the English ship, the *Venus* hailed her with a discharge of musketry, and received in return the fire of the *Ceylon's* stern chasers. She next ranged up on the *Ceylon's* starboard quarter, and now (says Mr. James) was the mutual discovery made of the immense disparity in size and apparent force between the two ships, which, though it did not dishearten the one, animated the other."[1] The engagement now became close, and continued till 1.15 A.M., when, having ascertained that her opponent was a sloop-of-war, the *Venus* wore round and dropped astern. The *Ceylon* had now an opportunity to repair her damaged rigging, and make sail and escape from an antagonist of whose superiority, when single-handed, she was fully sensible, without requiring the presence of the *Victor* to strengthen the assurance. She was, however, again chased, and overtaken by the *Venus*, at 2.15 A.M., when the action recommenced with such fury that it was not long before the French ship had lost her mizzen, fore and main topmasts, and the *Ceylon* her fore and main topmasts and gaff. The rigging of both frigates was also cut.

Finding, in her chase of the *Ceylon*, that the *Venus* had a great advantage over her in speed, so much so as to have run five miles ahead at six o'clock in the evening, and that the *Ceylon* had also considerably gained on her, the *Victor* endeavoured, by every means in her power, to make up her lost ground; but in vain, for night coming on, she was bewildered as to the course most proper to adopt. At two o'clock in the morning, however, she perceived lights blazing ahead, and one a little to the leeward of her. She directed her course, therefore, to the quarter from whence they originated, strongly conjecturing that it could be no other than the *Venus* herself. A short time after, the firing was so briskly repeated, that she did not doubt but that her consort had overtaken the *Ceylon*, and was then engaged with her. Isle Bonaparte was then on her side to leeward. Owing to the darkness and confusion inseparable from such a scene, the *Victor* was not at first able to recognise friend from foe. At 4.30, however, being within gunshot, she shortened sail, and recognising *La Venus*, passed within pistol-shot of the English frigate, on which she opened her broad-

[1] James's Naval History.

sides, but without any return on the part of the former. *La Venus* herself was reduced to a mere wreck from the fire of the *Ceylon*, and at four, having dropped to leeward, with the masts over the side, fired only at intervals. Unfortunately the united fire of the French had shot away the topmasts of the *Ceylon* about the same time, and she became unmanageable. The contest was, nevertheless, protracted till five A.M., when the *Victor*, which had her fore and main masts intact, passing to windward, took a raking position athwart the bows of the English frigate, where she maintained her fire unchecked by any return from the *Ceylon*, which supposed her to have been a frigate.[1] At length Captain Gordon directed the mizzen mast topsail to be cut away, so as to enable the ship to get before the wind; but this resource failing, and everything having been done for her preservation, the colours were hauled down to the superior force of the enemy, on a boat having been dispatched by Commodore Hamelin to inquire whether she had struck. The *Victor* immediately lay to, and sent her boat to convey the officers and crew of the *Ceylon* on board the *Venus*, which they found to be a frigate of forty-four guns and 380 men, and the *Victor* (formerly English) eighteen guns and 120 men. The *Ceylon* (formerly the *Bombay Indiaman*) had 290 men on board, including 100 soldiers, of which ten were killed and thirty-four wounded. The loss of the *Venus* is not given. Captain Gordon was most honourably acquitted for the loss of his ship by the court-martial before whom he was tried.

On the recovery of the *Africaine*, her command was entrusted by Commodore Rowley to Mr. Langhorne, first lieutenant of the *Boadicea*, to whose zeal and services that commander bore the highest testimony, and arrived in St. Paul's Bay on the 18th of September, with her shattered hull, which, after undergoing temporary repairs, he again embarked on in pursuit of the enemies of his country. He had not been many hours at anchor before the three French vessels made their appearance abreast of St. Denis, at the distance of three leagues to leeward, two of which appeared to have greatly suffered as to their masts and rigging. At eight A.M.,

[1] Mr. James makes some just comments on this engagement. "It is generally an advantage to a well-disciplined ship to engage at night, because in case of being assailed by a superiority of force, she may reduce the odds to the level of her own power by a superiority of tactics. But the *Ceylon* would have done better had she fought by day, not owing to any lack of skill in her crew, as the damage done to her antagonist testified, but because the obscurity of night caused her to over-estimate the force of the *Victor*, which, if known, would have been greeted with a broadside which would have probably sent her to the bottom, or, at all events, disabled her from offering any effectual resistance. The *Ceylon* was in no worse state than the *Venus*, and had a suspension of fire continued a few hours longer, the British force would have saved her, and prevented a French corvette of sixteen guns from claiming the honour of having summoned a British frigate to surrender.

the *Boadicea*, with the other sloop-of-war, and *Staunch* gun-brig, whom we left at that anchorage, hastened in pursuit; but the light winds so long retarded their movements, that before they could clear the bay the enemy was nearly out of sight. In the mean time, the *Victor* had been directed by Commodore Hamelin, who had descried the British vessels, as they cleared the bay, to take her prize in tow, and follow him, which she instantly ran up to do, as the lines which served for that operation had been many times broken. At 9.30, the towing-rope broke, and, on the *Victor* approaching the *Venus* to inform her of the disaster, she was ordered to rejoin the *Ceylon* with a cable, by which that vessel was for a time secured, and to convey a party of her men on board for her defence. At the same time, Commodore Hamelin sent a request to Lieutenant Morrice, in command of the *Victor*, to furnish him with written information as to the position of Captain Bouvet's division, to which the latter replied, that, in a late interview with that officer, he had stated that it was his intention to cruise to windward of Isle Bonaparte. At 11 A.M., the *Venus*, having freed herself of most of her rigging and sails, hoisted her fore and main sails, and a small sail on the stump of her mizzen, and stood on the starboard tack, having gained a league and a half on the *Victor* and prize, which now made all sail to come up with her. The wind was now E.S.E., and the sea was also rough. The *Victor*, in consequence, made little way, being too light to tow the *Ceylon* with any effect, and dropped down considerably to leeward. The rigging of the *Ceylon* having all fallen on the mainsails, and they on the masts, the officer in charge of that vessel was directed to disengage them as quickly as possible, so as to allow the *Victor* to proceed with greater rapidity.

At mid-day, nothing was seen of the vessel, which had been signalled in the morning. At two o'clock in the afternoon, however, the *Boadicea*, having the advantage of a fresh breeze, again hove in sight, and neared them rapidly. Three sail were shortly afterwards signalled to windward by the French squadron, directing their course under full canvass; one of them approached the *Victor* so rapidly, that she crowded sail to bring herself nearer the Commodore, fearing lest the *Ceylon* she had in tow should part from her in the attack. At 3.30, the *Africaine* was also perceived to be loosing from the bay of St. Paul's. The fears of the commander of the *Victor* were now realized, the *Ceylon* having parted from her; on seeing which, *La Venus* ran down to her assistance, and the Commodore, having been hailed by Lieutenant Morrice with a request for further orders, advised him, as the least disabled of the division, to save himself by flight, and, making sail for Port Napoleon, inform the Captain-General of the sad reverse of fortune. To facilitate this manœuvre, *La Venus* tacked to larboard, so as to run down on the English division, then about two miles distant.

The *Ceylon* having no topmasts, and only her coursers to set, bore up to assist her crippled consort; but as soon as the *Victor* was out of gunshot, the English on board rehoisted the national flag, and she again became a British ship-of-war, under the command of the second lieutenant. At 4.40 P.M., the *Boadicea* ran close alongside the *Venus*, on which, after brailing her mainsail, she directed her whole broadside, which that vessel for some time returned with great spirit. At 4.50, however, the *Boadicea*, passing to leeward of her antagonist, poured in a rapid and overwhelming fire upon the parts most exposed, by which she was quickly silenced, and, striking her own, displayed the British colours. The *Otter* and *Staunch* immediately bore up to board and man the *Venus*, on whose decks were found nine killed and fifteen wounded. The *Boadicea* had none killed, and but two wounded; but her bowsprit had been badly struck in the action. The *Ceylon* was now boarded by Captain Tomkinson in the *Otter*, when the troops, with Major-General Abercrombie,[1] were recovered in safety, and Captain Gordon[2] returned on board, with his lieutenants, to resume the command of his recaptured frigate. The *Victor* being too far off to be pursued with success, Commodore Rowley taking the *Venus* in tow, returned with his prizes to St. Paul's Bay on the 21st of September, where Colonel Keating afforded him every assistance, and recruited his crews with the soldiers belonging to the garrison. In his report to the admiral respecting his late engagement, Com-

[1] A ludicrous incident connected with the recapture of the *Ceylon* strikingly exemplifies the glorious uncertainty of war. On the capture of that frigate by the *Venus* and *Victor*, Commodore Hamelin, who had observed Major-General Abercrombie engaged in reconnoitring the coasts of the Isle of France, and was fully aware of the proposed destination of the British commander, after exchanging compliments, somewhat ironically observed, that he presumed he should have the honour to introduce his prisoner to General Decaen rather sooner than he had perhaps contemplated. In the course of a few hours, the British officer being thus happily recaptured, politely thanked the Commodore for his courteous offer of introduction, and now felt extremely delighted in being able to return the compliment by introducing him to Commodore Rowley.

[2] Captain Gordon's account of the late action is as follows:—"At 5 A.M. the enemy's foresail enabled him to wear close under our stern, and take a raking position under our lee quarter. H. M. S. lying an unmanageable wreck, I directed the mizzen topsail to be cut away, and endeavoured to set a fore stay-sail in hopes of getting the ship before the wind, but without effect. The second ship having opened her fire with the great advantage the enemy had by having both his ships under command, enabled him to keep his raking position, and pour in a heavy and destructive fire, while H. M. S. could only bring a few of her guns to bear. In the shattered and disabled state of H. M. S., retreat was impossible. The superiority of the enemy's heavy and destructive fire left me no hopes of success. Reduced to this distressing state, feeling the firm conviction that every energy and exertion was called forth, under the strongest impressions that I had discharged my duty, and upheld the honour of His Majesty's arms, and feeling it a duty to the officers and crew, who had nobly displayed their bravery, to prevent a useless effusion of blood, I was under the painful necessity of directing a light to be shown to the second ship that we had struck."

modore Rowley distinguished Captain Tomkinson of the *Otter*, Lieutenants Langhorne and Street of the *Staunch*, and Lieutenant Ramsay of the 50th regiment, as having more particularly signalized themselves.

To return once more to the division of Captain Bouvet. On the 15th, after having completed the repairs of the rigging, masts and sails of the *Iphigenia*, that officer returned to the coasts of Isle Bonaparte. The next day he was joined by the *Entreprenant*, which had been sent to cruise off the coast to leeward. On the 17th, the *Boadicea* was seen ahead near the roads of St. Denis, as well as another vessel of size to leeward, which manœuvred to join her. The French division now approached the *Boadicea*, and laid to, till it was about two miles distant to windward, desirous to entice the commodore to sea, but he remained still in his position, thinking probably that Commodore Hamelin's division would have come up to their support, and it was, therefore, useless to attack him. In the evening of the same day, the *Entreprenant* was detached on a special mission of observation, and the division prepared to return to the Isle of France. They were the rather induced to take this step, as the masts and rigging of the *Iphigenia* were only preserved by dint of the greatest care and precaution, and would have infallibly fallen a sacrifice to the first bad weather. The crews were enfeebled by the loss of some of the best of their number, and exhausted with the fatigues of a long campaign, which had terminated in a succession of combats; in fine, the wounded required proper support, and would have perished had they been exposed to a longer detention on the sea. The *Astrée*, which had not suffered so much in the action with the *Africaine*, might perhaps have been able to continue the cruise. In their passage home, they fell in with the *Aurora*, an English corvette, which they captured, and carried her, with 100 prisoners on board, into Port Napoleon.

The late success of Commodore Rowley paved the way for the final reduction of the Isle of France, to which Vice-Admiral Bertie directed the squadron under his command. In his letter to the secretary of the Admiralty, written on board the *Africaine* in St. Paul's Bay, on the 13th of October 1810, that officer says, "I hoisted my flag on board the *Nisus*, and sailed from the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of September for the Isle of France. On the 2d of October I made the land, and proceeded to reconnoitre Ports Imperial and Napoleon without meeting with any British cruiser. Thence I proceeded to St. Paul's Bay, where I found the *Boadicea*, *Otter*, and *Staunch* gun-brig together with the *Africaine* and *Ceylon*, which, with the imperial frigate *La Venus*, had been taken or recaptured from the enemy. A momentary superiority, thus obtained (says the Admiral) by the enemy, has been promptly and decisively crushed by the united zeal, judgment, and intrepidity of Commodore Rowley, in the *Boadicea*. On his arrival at Isle Bonaparte, the vice-

admiral immediately commenced his preparations for the attack of the Isle of France. The prize and recaptures were equipped: the name of *La Venus* was changed to *Néréide*, as a memorial of the gallant defence of that ship, and in eleven days after the Admiral's arrival the *Boadicea*, *Africaine*, *Nisus*, *Néréide*, *Ceylon*, *Otter*, and *Staunch* were ready for sea.[1] With this force, Admiral Bertie set sail for Port Napoleon, before which he arrived on the 19th of October, and found the whole of the enemy's squadron lying in the harbour.

The French on their side had not been idle. The division of Duperré, which had been for a long time detained within Port Imperial by a succession of adverse and obstinate winds, had employed the interval in the repair of damages, and the equipment of the prize frigate the *Néréide*. Profiting by a calm, they were towed outside the reefs on the 15th of October, and set sail for Port Napoleon. Here they were on the point of being prepared for a cruise, when the appearance of the English with so superior a force, and the certainty of an approaching attack, suggested the necessity of adopting measures of defence. The *Bellone*, *Minerve*, and other frigates were placed under the command of M. Dornal de Guy, and a line of embossment was formed by the four, their bowsprits, being drawn close to the poop, fronted the opening of the port, so that their broadsides presented a battery of eighty guns. Added to this, two strong chains were drawn across the gorge at the entrance, and a number of vessels were sunk to contract the passage. The regular defences will be noticed elsewhere. These measures were combined in a manner to defeat every attempt of the English on this point, after which strong detachments of the crews were disembarked, and placed at the disposal of the Captain-General.

The blockade of Port Napoleon, which had sustained such frequent interruptions, being again resumed, Commodore Rowley was left with the *Boadicea*, *Nisus*, and *Néréide*, to observe the motions of the enemy, while Vice-Admiral Bertie proceeded to Rodriguez in company with Major-General Abercrombie to join the transports with the army from India. On the 24th he was joined by Rear-Admiral Drury, from India, with the *Russell*, *Clorinde*, *Doris*, *Phæton*, *Bucephalus*, *Cornelia*, and *Hesper;* and taking under his orders the Rear-Admiral and his squadron, he detached a part to strengthen the blockade. At Rodriguez (where they arrived on the 3d of November) they found a large force from Bombay assembled. The division from Madras also arrived on the 6th, under convoy of

[1] "A remarkable instance of the casualties, to which naval warfare is more particularly subject, happened at this period. The *Ranger* transport had been taken by *La Venus*, laden with stores and provisions for the squadron; the loss of this vessel was a misfortune, therefore, which threatened most serious consequences, but after *La Venus* had been captured by the *Boadicea*, she was found to have on board the stores of the *Ranger*, which sufficed for victualling the British squadron for four months."—*Brenton's Naval History.*

the *Psyche* and *Cornwallis*, and a third from Bourbon on the 12th. Rear-Admiral Drury was now therefore directed to resume his station in India, taking with him the *Russell*, *Phœton*, and *Bucephalus*. Though the divisions from the Cape of Good Hope and Bengal had not yet met at the rendezvous, it had nevertheless been determined that the fleet should put to sea on the following morning, as from the advanced season of the year, and the threatening aspect of the weather, the fleet could no longer be considered secure in its anchorage at Rodriguez; measures were therefore taken to meet every contingency that might occur, in the event of their being disappointed in the junction of so large a part of the armament. Early, however, on the morning of the 22d, Vice-Admiral Bertie received a communication from Captain Broughton of the *Illustrious*, announcing his arrival in the offing, with the convoy from Bengal. All the divisions with their convoys having thus united, with the exception of that from the Cape, the commanders agreed that it would be impolitic for the Bengal division to anchor, but that the best course would be to proceed direct to the Isle of France without waiting for the troops from the Cape. The whole fleet accordingly weighed anchor at daylight, as had been originally intended, and a junction having been effected with the Bengal division in the course of the day, the squadron bore up for its destination.

And now was the Isle of France, that had so long been an object of solicitude to the Government of Great Britain, and checked her forces in the full career of victory by the depredations of its naval adventurers, as well as alarmed her by the formidable plans and combinations which had emanated therefrom,—to fall before a force the French could not hope to resist,—a force, which, whether its strength, valour, discipline, or equipment be considered, was the most powerful that had ever been afloat on the Indian seas. Year after year had the project been destined, from one cause or other, to suffer a repeated postponement, and the Marquis of Wellesley had beheld with regret the failure of one of the most cherished objects of his ambition; but the perfect subjection and peaceful demeanour of the native governments, coupled with the fortunate turn events had taken in Europe, powerfully co-operated in enabling Lord Minto, then Governor-General of India, to dispatch such a body of troops as should at once crush all effectual opposition. To this end Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Bourbon, Ceylon, and the Cape respectively furnished their quota of troops, and the first and last detached a large part of their naval armaments to co-operate with the intermediate division of Commodore Rowley in the work of subjugation. The land army commanded by General Abercrombie, consisted of 11,500 men (irrespective of those on board the Cape division, which amounted to 3,500 more) attended by a small proportion of cavalry, and a formidable train of light and heavy artillery. The combined fleet, under the command of Vice-Admiral Bertie, consisted

of twenty ships-of-war[1] besides fifty East Indiamen and transports. The greatest obstacles, opposed to an attack on this island with any considerable force, had invariably been considered to depend on the difficulty of effecting a landing in consequence of the reefs, which surround every part of the coast, and the supposed impossibility of finding an anchorage for a fleet of transports. By the indefatigable exertions of Commodore Rowley, assisted by Lieutenants Street of the *Staunch*, Blackiston of the Madras Engineers, and the masters of H. M. S. *Africaine* and *Boadicea*, these difficulties were fortunately removed. Every part of the leeward side of the island had been minutely examined and sounded, and it was found that a fleet might anchor in the narrow passage, formed by the small island called the Gunner's Quoin and the mainland, and that there were openings at this spot through the reef, which would admit of several boats entering abreast. These obvious advantages fixed the determination of the two commanders, though they could not help regretting that circumstances prevented the disembarkation from being effected at a shorter distance from Port Napoleon.

Owing to light and baffling winds, the fleet did not arrive in sight of the island till the 20th, and it was on the morning of the following day, before any of the ships passed within the Coin de Mire, and bore up for the point of debarkation at Grande Baie about seventeen miles to windward of Port Napoleon, where, the *Africaine* leading, and the ships-of-war following with their convoys according to a previous arrangement, the whole fleet was at anchor by 10 o'clock, A.M. At this moment a grand explosion was perceived about a league to the westward. It arose from a portion of the works at Fort Malartic, situate at the head of Grande Baie, and the

SHIPS.	GUNS.	COMMANDERS.
[1] Africaine	44	Flag-Vice-Admiral Bertie.
Illustrious	74	Captain Graham.
		Captain Broughton.
Boadicea	38	Commodore Rowley.
Nisus	38	Captain Beaver.
Cornelia	36	Captain Edgell.
Clorinde	36	Captain Briggs.
Menelaus	38	Sir Peter Parker, Bart.
Doris	36	Captain Lye.
Phœbe	36	Captain Hillyar.
Néréide, formerly La Venus	44	Captain Henderson.
Psyche	36	Captain Edgecumbe.
Ceylon, retaken	30	Captain Tomkinson.
Hesper	32	Captain Paterson.
Hecate	18	Captain Rennie.
Eclipse	18	Captain Lyne.
Egremont	14	
Emma, government armed ship	..	Lieutenant Street.
Monche	14	
Staunch, gun-brig	14	Lieutenant Craig.
Actæon	16	Lord Viscount Neville.

fort nearest to the squadron, which the enemy unwilling to wait an attack, had blown up on retiring. To cover the landing of the troops, two brigs-of-war drawing little water anchored near the reef within 100 yards of the beach, while the boats, which contained the first division, consisting of the reserve, the grenadier company of the 59th regiment with two six-pounders, and two howitzers, and the light infantry under Major-General Warde, collected outside the reef and proceeded to the shore at Mapou with parade precision. Before the evening had closed, 10,000 men with three days' provisions and their artillery, stores, and ammunition, as well as several detachments of marines serving in the squadron, with a large body of seamen, had disembarked without accident or resistance. To the fleet were allotted three distinct operations. One division was left to maintain a vigilant blockade of Port Napoleon. A second remained for the protection of the convoy at the anchorage, and a third, under the more immediate command of Vice-Admiral Bertie, shifted its position as circumstances required, so as to keep up a more effectual communication with the army, as it advanced, it being wholly dependent for its supply of stores and provisions on the resources of the navy. As soon as a sufficient part of the European force had been formed, it became necessary to move forward, as the first five miles of the march lay through a thick wood and a narrow bad road, which it was of the utmost importance that the enemy should not be allowed to pre-occupy. Lieutenant-Colonel Smythe was, therefore, left with his brigade to cover the landing place, with orders to rejoin the army on the following morning. For about a mile the column moved along the beach to the right, after which, diverging a little to the left, it entered the wood. Here the advanced guard under Colonel Keating was encountered and fired upon by a picquet of the corps, retreating from Grande Baie, by which that officer, Lieutenant Ash, and a few of the men were wounded. In the evening the column had succeeded in gaining the more open country, without any further efforts having been made by the enemy to retard its progress, and continued to move on during the night, but halted at one o'clock in the morning, when the men were permitted to rest for a few hours.

Before daybreak the army had again resumed its march with the intention of halting no more till it arrived before Port Napoleon, but the troops had become so completely exhausted, as well from the exertions they had made, as from the deprivation of water, of which this part of the country is destitute in summer, that General Abercrombie at noon found himself compelled to take up a position in two lines on a gentle elevation at Moulin-a-Poudre, a wood stretching along its front, and extending with some intervals to Port Napoleon, from which it was five miles distant. At 2 o'clock, General Decaen, some mounted officers, and about eighty of his hussar guard appeared within 100 yards in front of the British

line, after having surprised and cut to pieces a small picquet, which they fell upon in the wood. They succeeded in making a good reconnaisance, and arrived at a near estimate of the British force. As none but dismounted cavalry had as yet been landed, he was pursued by the light companies of the 12th and 59th regiments. A few of his men were killed, and he himself received a ball through his hat, and was slightly grazed on the leg. Early the next morning, Lieutenant-Colonel MacLeod was detached with his brigade to seize the batteries at Tombeau and Tortues, and open a communication with the fleet, as it had been previously arranged that the army was to draw its supplies from these two points. Some of them, which had offered little resistance, were already in possession of parties of seamen from the squadron. The remainder were successively evacuated (the enemy having spiked or withdrawn his guns) on the approach of the troops. At 5 o'clock the army, divided into columns of sections, advanced by the centre through the road, which traversed the wood in that direction, led by the reserve, composed of the flank brigade and two flank companies of the 59th regiment under Major-General Warde. The column had not penetrated above 300 paces, when a desultory fire was commenced by the enemy's light troops. Several men were struck down in the column, but the English troops of a similar description evidently opposed them with a more correct effect. They were overtaken in attempting to destroy a wooden bridge over the Rivière Sêche. They had only succeeded, however, in raising the planks of a small part, so that the troops filed over the bridge without any greater inconvenience, than that the artillery were obliged to drag their guns over the river through a narrow, but rapid current, rendered more difficult from the innumerable fragments of rock scattered through its whole bed. The enemy's line supported itself on the east point of the mountain, called Pieter Both, extending nearly parallel to the wood at a distance of 200 paces from it, and reaching to a gentle eminence on its left, on which were a planter's house and offices ; it was, therefore, a most favourable position for attempting to make an impression on the head of the column, as it emerged from the end of a narrow road with a thick wood on each flank. The French force, there posted, consisted of 3,500 men, with several field-pieces and howitzers under the command of General Vandermaesen.

The chief force with the Governor-General Decaen, remained within the lines. At the above point there was a signal-post, from whence every movement of the English could be telegraphed. The skirmish of light troops continued, until the head of the column composed of the European flank battalions under Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell of the 33d regiment, had emerged from the wood, and formed with as much regularity as the broken nature of the ground would admit of. The enemy's line then gave a confused volley, and while the corps which had cleared the defile were being formed, the

column was exposed to a shower of grape, which, though well-directed, was much too elevated. The grenadiers of the 59th were next formed, and, having reserved their fire, and being supported by all the flank companies of the reserve in succession, they rushed to the charge with great spirit. The foe waited till they were within fifty paces of them, when they broke and precipitately retired, leaving their field-pieces and ammunition, with the killed and wounded, in the hands of the English, and hurried over the plains to their lines in great confusion. This advantage, however, had not been purchased without the loss of Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell and Major O'Keefe of the 12th regiment, two excellent and valuable officers, who, from having been mounted, had been more exposed to the enemy's fire.

A corps now ascended the mount, and pulling down the French, hoisted the English flag. This was a signal to the army for a moment of general exultation, and their cheers loudly reverberated from the adjoining hills. In the course of the forenoon, a position in front of the enemy's lines (but beyond the range of cannon-shot) was occupied by the British force. The ground admitting of it, the army had began to deploy, which as soon as the French perceived, they fired from a battery of heavy ordnance on the right extremity of the lines, but with little effect.

The heat of the weather, the lassitude of the troops, and the lateness of the day prevented the assault on that occasion. The army consequently retired, and took up a position about 400 paces in the rear, waiting with anxiety for the morrow. During the night, a party of marines, who, from the heat of the climate, had assumed a lighter garb of white and blue, approaching with the intention of joining the troops, were mistaken for Frenchmen. An alarm instantly spread through the ranks, and some shots were unfortunately fired, by which a few were killed and several wounded.

The enemy were in like manner disturbed by a false alarm, during which the irresolution of the national guards, taken in conjunction with the appearance of the Cape division and a reinforcement of troops, which disembarked in safety at Petite Rivière on the opposite side of the coast, had their influence in inducing General Decaen to propose terms of capitulation. As an antecedent step, he sent a flag of truce to the outposts, which did not, however, prevent the progress of the arrangements for a general assault, while the fleet, which had been under sail with the break of day, indicated by its movements an intention of combining with the army in an attack upon the port. Many of the articles of the treaty appearing perfectly inadmissible to the naval and military commanders, "I made my dispositions (observes General Abercrombie in his despatch) to detach a corps on the following morning to the south side of the town, and prepared to order a general attack," upon which M. Decaen offered to revise his propositions, and Commodore Rowley with Major-General

Warde being selected by the British commanders, and Commodore Duperré with General Vandermaesen as commissioners on the side of the French, the most offensive were yielded, and the terms offered by the British being finally acceded to, the treaty for the surrender of the island and its dependencies was signed and ratified on the 3d of December, and it has ever since remained a colony of the Empire. On the same day at 6 o'clock, the grenadiers marched into the lines, and occupied the principal forts and batteries of St. Louis, while the fleet took possession of the port and roads.[1] The French squadron was subsequently delivered up to Admiral Bertie by command of General Decaen.[2]

Of the feelings of the population at this crisis it is impossible to speak with decision, as the French, to whom alone we have to look for a description, differ among themselves; it is highly probable that both may be correct to a certain extent; that the planter and merchant, weary of a war which in a great measure hindered the exportation of the products, on which they depended for a subsistence, looked with favour, or, to say the least, with indifference upon British occupation, while the populace, or more unthinking part of the population, intoxicated under the influence of that idiosyncracy of liberty,—the passion for national aggrandizement,—would be averse to any government, that militated with this its most cherished principle, nay, would passively endure the most degrading oppres-

[1] Before this had been accomplished, however, an event had taken place which threatened to be attended with fatal consequences. The prisoners taken at Isle de la Passe had been confined on board the prison ships in the harbour of Port Napoleon: and being kept indiscriminately under hatches for some months, had been scantily victualled, and treated with severity. On the morning of the 3d, the French officer of the guard went down to inform them that they were now at liberty, and that the arrack on deck was at their service. Heedless of consequences, the prisoners became intoxicated, quarrelled with the French soldiers, and anxious to revenge the treatment they had undergone, threw a Frenchman overboard, and were proceeding to other excesses, when a French frigate moored along side, poured on them some rounds of grape, by which twelve of their number were killed or wounded, and the remainder driven below.

[2] The ships and vessels taken at the Isle of France, were the frigates *Astrée* of 44, *Bellone* 44, *La Manche* 44, *La Minerve* 52, the *Victor* corvette of 10, the *Entreprenant* and another of 14 guns each, all fine vessels, besides thirty-one sail of ships and brigs of large tonnage. The *Iphigenia* and *Néréide* of 36 guns each were also recaptured. The amount of booty taken at the capture was not very considerable. The distribution of the proceeds became a subject of litigation between Vice-Admiral Bertie, and the Honourable R. Stopford, the latter having superseded him in the command of the station at the Cape of Good Hope, previous to the surrender of the Isle of France. Sir William Scott, after a long and patient hearing, gave it in favour of Vice-Admiral Bertie, who gladly paid all the expenses of the appeal. General Abercrombie was honoured with the Order of the Bath, and promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-General. Great rejoicings ensued in England on the arrival of the intelligence of the late success, but the delight at so agreeable an event was mingled with surprise that such an attempt had not been previously made, and that this nest of pirates and piratical enemies had been so long permitted to send forth its swarms of cruisers to prey upon British commerce.—*Brenton.*

sion at the hands of the civil power, provided a full indulgence were meted out to it in this particular. The capture of Isle Bonaparte, which tended to recall the government to a sense of its danger (for the expedition, from its having experienced so many delays, had ceased to be regarded as an object of apprehension), might possibly render the sentiments of the former less equivocal in favour of British connection: with the latter it would naturally have a contrary tendency. The government on its side appears to have laboured most strenuously to convince the authorities at home of the attachment of the colonists, as if it doubted of its reality itself. Hence every trifling manifestation of public feeling, from whom, or from what cause soever originating, was faithfully recorded and exhibited, as a fresh proof of devotedness to a régime, which had despoiled the colony of all its free institutions, and ruled with the despotic sway of the sabre. The proclamations secretly introduced from Isle Bonaparte, and freely distributed in every quarter of the island, as soon as the fleet had anchored, still further tended to unsettle the loyalty and attachment of the colonists. By them the people were exhorted to estimate aright the advantages which were likely to be enjoyed as British subjects; the deplorable state of the colony was forcibly depicted, a pledge of religious freedom, and the full enjoyment of their local laws and customs was also held out, with a promise, that, when admitted into the empire, the Isle of France should be treated as one of the most favoured English colonies, while the alternative premised, that in case the inhabitants should be found uniting with the military force during the contest that was impending, they would expose themselves to all the hardships of war: but if they remained quietly at their homes, they would be protected from injury and their property respected. In reply to this, M. Decaen is said to have addressed a letter to Mr. Farquhar to the following effect:—

"The attempts to seduce the subjects of the Imperial majesty from their duty and allegiance is a violation of the laws of nations and of war. The loyalty of the people was not to be shaken, and he only regretted that a sufficient number of these perfidious publications had not been landed that he might use them for cartridge-paper."

Opinions are no less divided as to the temper of the troops. Without doubt the influence of a tropical climate, and the inaction consequent thereon, the absence from the opera and those scenes of pleasure, which are enjoyed by none more keenly than the soldier of France, preponderated over the scale of duty, by which elsewhere he might have felt himself bound to be regulated; nor were the inclinations and ambition of General Decaen and his principal officers less obviously directed towards home. The first who had served with credit[1] under Moreau in the celebrated retreat of the Black

[1] As a legislator, some praise is due to M. Decaen for the prompt, resolute, and effective manner, in which he as it were remodelled, and put on an altered foot-

Forest, and had been placed on the first rôle of French generals, had been long since disgusted at seeing himself blocked up many thousands of miles from Europe, while his old companions in arms had gained the bâton of marshals, and those of the latter the epaulettes of generals. These sentiments all tended to a similar result. The majority regarded the defence to be so unequal, as to be impracticable: all held it to be contrary to their secret inclinations and private interests. On the other hand, the policy of the treaty of capitulation, the principal conditions of which were, that the French troops should be transported to France with their arms, baggage, and standards on board of cartels, at the expense of the British government, and that the colonists should preserve their religion, laws, and customs, has been much and seriously questioned.

A celebrated naval historian (from whom we have made copious extracts through the whole of this naval campaign) has stigmatised it as a convention in no way superior to that of Cintra; inasmuch as the troops were not even made prisoners of war for an exchange, but left at unconditional liberty, while a military officer, who was present at the siege, and was therefore, perhaps, more capable of forming a correct estimate of the further defence that might have been sustained by the French, observes, "Had we assaulted and carried the lines, the further progress of our army must have depended on the nature of the opposition presented by the French troops. In that event, had they disputed their ground in the rear of the lines with any degree of pertinacity, to mark the period of halt to a victorious soldiery, and to arrest the winter torrent in its descent from the hills, would seem equally feasible. A chief object was the preservation of the town. Had terms been refused to the French, the glory of the army might doubtless have been considerably enhanced by the exertion of its determined courage, and high state of discipline, and the issue of an attack upon the town might

ing, a society that had become disordered by fifteen years of anarchy. His treatment of the finances, which he found in a deplorable state, was in like manner successful. By recalling the residue of the paper money, which he effected for 1000 piastres, (so depreciated had it become), he removed the sources of former contention, and overcame a difficulty which might have otherwise proved almost insurmountable to any succeeding government. In despite of his despotic tendencies, he summoned a colonial council a short time before the arrival of the expedition to enable him to raise a sum of money for striking a blow against the English, but he would not take its advice or permit it to question his policy. His conduct to Captain Flinders, an officer who had been engaged at the peace of Amiens in making scientific researches at the Isle of France, and who was detained a prisoner for seven years by General Decaen, has been censured by all. So impressed were the British officers engaged at the capture of the island with his barbarity, that they refused an exchange of courtesies on that occasion. It should be stated, however, that Captain Flinders, in common with the other prisoners, was treated with the greatest kindness by the inhabitants, who endeavoured by every possible service, to mitigate the miseries of captivity.

have been certain in our favour, but the loss[1] that might have been sustained in officers and men would have been without an adequate equivalent.

The motives of General Abercrombie were both politic and humane. By permitting so small a body of veterans at so remote a distance from Europe to return to their native country free from any engagement, he secured an important conquest without deterioration of its worth, protected the interests of the inhabitants, who had long laboured under the most degrading misery and oppression, avoided the hazard of events at a period of the season, by the lateness of which every hour became more valuable, prevented the effusion of blood, and in every other particular accomplished the objects of the expedition as much as if the town had been taken by assault.

The same officer, though by no means impressed with the brilliancy of General Decaen's military talents, as evinced in his defence of the Isle of France (owing, as he concludes, in some degree to the poverty of his treasury) proceeds to enumerate the forces at his command. His regular force, including disciplined sailors, was 2500. He had a national guard of 6000, and might have had at his disposal 10,000 chosen blacks. The natives of Madagascar are from infancy trained to war, and are muscular and courageous. These, behind walls, with a knowledge of the passes, might have rendered it a sanguinary contest. The people would have been a capital resource in the hands of a zealous commander, and one to whom they were attached. The roads into the town, which were then few in number, should have been broken up, and defended at proper places by slight works, the banks of the ravines occupied and strengthened, the bridges destroyed, and the woods, through which the roads pass, should have been intersected at different places by abattis.

The moment the British fleet came to an anchor, he had instant intelligence by telegraph. Had he dispatched a small corps with some light guns in that direction, it might have disturbed them at night in the wood with immense advantage. He seems to have deluded himself with the idea, that an attack was to be expected almost exclusively on the port; he therefore added some works on the sea-side, which were already strong enough, and omitted to improve the works on the land side, which were eminently deficient, and thus violated a great maxim of war—equality of defence. Amidst this conflict of opinions, it may perhaps be safely assumed by the reader, that, from the force General Decaen had then, or might shortly have had, at his disposal, and the reinforcement, which was subsequently sent from France to his assist-

[1] As it was, the total loss of the combined army was seventy killed and 200 wounded, and that of the French was about the same in number.

ance, taken in connexion with the near approach of the hurricane months, during which the safety of the fleet, on which alone the army depended for its supplies, would have been endangered at its anchorage, that it would have been impolitic to drive him to an extreme, like a stag at bay, and that the course adopted by the commanders was, under the circumstances, the most prudent. The want of forecaste, however, which was displayed by the English commissioners in sanctioning the stipulation, by which the inhabitants were permitted to retain their antiquated, and, in many respects, barbarous code of French laws, has entailed endless difficulties on the British Government, and it is a source of regret that a civilian was not selected in the place of a military man, for a post which demanded a larger share of political foresight and acumen than is generally allotted to the last named profession.

A squadron of three French frigates, the *Clorinde*, *Renommée*, and *Néréide* of 40 guns each, on board of which were 600 troops and a large quantity of military stores, sailed from Brest in the February of 1811 under the command of Commodore Roquebert, with the design of relieving the Isle of France, whose capture had not been yet ascertained. On the 24th, however, the French commodore received a notification of the intended attack on that island, so that on his arrival in May off Isle de la Passe, he very prudently dispatched a boat from each of the frigates to the shore at midnight to gain intelligence. The calm of the evening being uninterrupted by any hostile sound, induced the French to suppose that the island was still in their possession. The dawn of day, however, soon dissipated the illusion; for though French colours were hoisted on the fort as a ruse, there was no private signal. This at once alarmed M. Roquebert, who was yet further surprised by the advance of four sail to leeward at sunrise, and the simultaneous appearance of the signals at Isle de la Passe and along the coast (which from their having undergone no alteration since the advent of British power were understood by the French) indicating the presence of three French frigates to windward.

The English squadron, which consisted of the *Phœbe* and *Galatea* frigates of 36 guns each, and the *Racehorse* 18 gun-brig were part of a force that had been directed by Rear-Admiral Stopford, who was in command of the Cape station, to cruise off the Isle of France, and endeavour to intercept the French division with two others of the enemy's vessels, and on descrying them, made all sail in chase. Information of the arrival of the French was also sent to the *Astrea*, Captain Schomberg of 36 guns, then at Port Louis. The enemy being informed by a negro on the shore of the condition of the colony, tacked and stood off to the eastward, followed by the British force, which, imitating the example of the French, hoisted the national colours. In the evening, the distance between the two hostile

squadrons was much diminished, and at 8 P.M. the French frigates bore up and stood towards the English force, which shortly after wore and steered to the westward in the direction of Isle Ronde, then five or six leagues off. The enemy having at that time a superior force and a favourable breeze to manœuvre with, Captain Hillyar, who anxiously awaited the arrival of the *Astrea*, seemed rather to decline an engagement, which led Commodore Roquebert, who held it dangerous to follow the British into the indraught between Isle Ronde and Serpent, to discontinue the chase, and proceed to the eastward, when the two squadrons were about five miles apart.

On the 9th at daybreak, they regained a distant sight of each other; but the *Phœbe* and *Galatea* bearing up about noon to join the *Astrea*, the French ships disappeared, on which the English returned to Port Louis. Being deplorably in want of water and provisions, the commodore, after having reduced the allowance to his crews, bore up for Bourbon, and made the land, on which, however, he could not alight, though the defences were weak, in consequence of the heavy surf. Disappointed here, he steered for the coast of Madagascar with the design of obtaining there a supply of provisions. On the 19th he surprised the settlement of Tamatave, the garrison of which, then enfeebled by disease, consisted of a hundred officers and men of the 22d regiment, who, after the capture of the Isle of France, had been sent thither by Mr. Farquhar, governor of that island, in the *Eclipse* of 18 guns, and had taken it from the French.

On the 20th at daybreak, Captain Schomberg, who had sailed from Port Louis direct for this settlement, came in sight of Roquebert near Foul Point with the division under his command, and made all sail in chase, being favoured by a light breeze from off the land. The French ships now formed in order of battle, the *Renommée* being placed in the centre, the *Clorinde* ahead, and the *Néréide* astern, while the British closing in, formed in line ahead, the *Racehorse* being abreast of the *Phœbe*. At 3.50 the French, being on the larboard tack, wore together, and after keeping away for a short time, hauled up on the same tack. The British ships approached the enemy on the starboard tack, and when the *Astrea* was abreast the *Renommée* the latter opened her fire, which the *Astrea* presently returned, as also the *Phœbe* and *Galatea*. Passing out of gun-shot astern of the *Néréide*, the *Astrea* prepared to tack and renew the action, but, as was to have been expected (says Mr. James) so near to the land, particularly off Madagascar, the cannonade produced an almost instant calm to leeward, and the *Astrea* was unable to execute the movement. The French ships, on the contrary, from being to windward, felt its influence the longest, and the breeze had not entirely ceased before two of the French ships had borne up, and stationed themselves in a destructive position near the *Phœbe* and *Galatea*. The *Racehorse*, whose fire should have supported them, here proved ineffective. Owing to the leeward position of the

Galatea, and the efforts of the *Phœbe* by backing her sails to support her consort, these two ships lay nearly abreast of each other. On the starboard quarter of the *Phœbe* lay the *Renommée*, and on her starboard bow the *Néréide*, which had just cleared herself from the *Astrea* and *Racehorse*, then a mile and a half ahead of their consorts, and like them becalmed. At 6.30 a slight breeze from the south-east enabled the *Phœbe*, which up to this time had only been able to bring her bow guns to bear on the *Néréide*, and her quarter ones on the *Renommée*, as the swell hove her off and brought her to, to close on the *Néréide* in a raking position. The result of her fire was soon evident by the silence of the *Néréide*, which was only saved by the interposition of the *Clorinde* and *Renommée*, who, seeing her distress, ran down to her assistance. These two frigates had, by the aid of their boats, kept their broadsides to bear on the *Galatea* in the interval, and cut her up till she was rendered unmanageable, her fore and mizzen topmasts having fallen over the side, and her hull being shattered, she could not wear. After three of her boats had been shattered or cut adrift by the enemy's shot, the *Galatea* succeeded in opening her broadside on the *Clorinde* and *Renommée*, the latter of which received the greater part of her fire. On a light breeze springing up, and while the French frigates ran down to assist their consort, the *Galatea* made for the *Astrea* and *Racehorse*, and with her the action ceased, having lasted four hours. At 8.30 she passed to leeward of the latter vessels under press of sail, and Captain Losack hailed Captain Schomberg to inform him of the shattered state of his ship, her foretopmast having fallen over the larboard bow, and the mizzen topmast upon the main yard, her bowsprit being badly wounded, and her hold having nearly four feet of water, while her rigging of every sort was cut to pieces. The *Astrea* immediately closed with the *Galatea*, and, on hailing her, was informed that she was in too distressed a condition to wear and renew the action.

The *Astrea*, however, supported by the *Phœbe* and *Racehorse*, followed up the advantage they had gained, and renewed the combat with the *Renommée* and *Clorinde*, which, after having compelled the *Phœbe* to quit the side of the *Néréide*, had ordered the latter, then in a defenceless state, to make the land. Commodore Roquebert stood on his course in the most gallant manner, though unsupported by the *Clorinde*,[1] and at 9.50 P.M. came close to action

[1] The *Clorinde* kept shamefully aloof during her consort's gallant action. Captain Schomberg states in his despatch:—"Another frigate, *i. e.* the *Clorinde*, on closing struck, but on a shot being fired at her from her late commander, she was observed trying to escape." Nothing of this appears in the French account. On the contrary, it is there stated that the *Clorinde* avoided closing. Mr. James is of opinion that that vessel was not so pressed as to render such a step necessary; besides, continues he, mistakes of this nature are frequently made, when the action is fought in broad daylight; how much more, then, in an engagement by night?

with the *Astrea*, whom, with a heavy fire of grape and musketry, he endeavoured to lay athwart hawse,—a movement, which was prevented by the *Astrea*, who was conscious of the numerical superiority of her opponent. After a warm cannonade of half an hour, during which several raking shots were fired on her by the *Phœbe*, while the *Racehorse*, discharging a whole broadside direct between the masts of the *Astrea*, had set her mainsail on fire, the *Renommée* made the signal of surrender. The *Racehorse*, which was ordered to take possession of her, being unable, in consequence of the loss of her fore topmast, to make up, a boat was despatched from the *Astrea*, while that ship and the *Phœbe* proceeded in pursuit of the *Clorinde*. That frigate had hung out a light, and ceased her fire in token of submission after a few broadsides from the British force, but perceiving the disabled state of the *Galatea*, and that the other English ships were prevented from immediately following her, she made all sail on the larboard tack, and endeavoured to effect her escape. She was chased by the *Astrea* and *Phœbe* till 2 o'clock in the morning on the 21st, when Captain Schomberg, having found that the *Clorinde*, from the little damage she had received in her rigging and sails, gained considerably on the British force, and recollecting that the *Galatea* required assistance, and the ship they had captured securing, returned for that purpose. The *Renommée* was found to carry 44 guns with 470 men on board, and had, in common with the *Néréide*, suffered a considerable loss in the action, though its extent[1] is not positively defined. The *Clorinde* had escaped uninjured. The British loss was as follows. The *Astrea*, which was somewhat damaged in her sails and rigging, out of a crew of 270 men had two killed and sixteen wounded. The *Phœbe* lost her foretopmast, had her three masts and bowsprit injured, her sails and rigging cut, and hull pierced, with seven killed and twenty-four wounded. The masts of the *Galatea* were completely disabled, her hull and stern shattered in all parts, and her loss sixteen killed and forty-six wounded. The *Racehorse* had suffered no loss.

Having taken out the prisoners from the *Renommée*, and substi-

[1] The loss of the *Renommée* is stated by Mr. James to have been ninety-three killed and wounded, including Commodore Roquebert. The *Néréide* had twenty-four killed and thirty-two wounded. *Clorinde*, one killed and six wounded. The same writer makes the following liberal remarks on the engagement:—"The difference in guns, men, and size rendered the parties in this action about equally matched, notwithstanding the presence of the brig. Had the *Renommée* not have been so roughly handled by the *Galatea*, and had the *Clorinde*, when the *Renommée* was attacked by the *Astrea* and *Phœbe*, given to the former the support that was in her power, that ship would have effected her escape, and that without disparagement to the *Astrea*. The conduct of the *Néréide* in not surrendering to the *Phœbe* after having sustained so heavy a loss in killed and wounded was also resolute, so that, if some glory was lost to the French navy by the conduct of the *Clorinde*, more was gained by the acknowledged good conduct of the *Néréide* and *Renommée*.

tuted an English crew,[1] Captain Schomberg, after making good his damages, prepared to proceed to Tamatave, whose situation he wno learned. The damaged state of the *Phœbe* not permitting her to make a rapid progress in the face of the adverse winds and currents, Captain Schomberg despatched the *Racehorse* to summon the French garrison to surrender. On his arrival off the port, he found there *La Néréide*, which they had so lately engaged and returned, therefore, on the 24th, to the squadron with the intelligence. As Tamatave was the nearest port in which his ship could be refitted, the commander of the *Néréide* had steered directly thither, and, foreseeing an almost immediate attack, had stationed his ship in the most advantageous position for defence. The English force now made all sail for Tamatave, but were prevented by a strong gale from reaching it till the 25th, when having no one on board who was capable of acting as pilot, and it being found impossible to sound the numerous and very intricate shoals with which the port is surrounded, without being exposed to the fire of the frigate and a battery of twelve guns, Captain Schomberg very prudently dispatched Captain de Ripp of the *Racehorse* with a flag of truce and a summons to surrender to the French commanding officer. The latter, like a brave man, refused to yield unconditionally, but proposed to deliver up the frigate and fort to the British on condition that he, his officers, the garrison, and crew should be sent to France without being made prisoners of war. These terms were complied with on the 26th, when the fort of Tamatave and its dependencies, the *Néréide*, and other vessels in the port, were taken possession of by the *Astrea*, and the guns on the batteries having been previously spiked as a measure of precaution, in consequence

[1] A rather singular circumstance appears to have prevented the *Galatea* from joining her consorts to leeward. The *Renommée*, which had still a crew of nearly 400 effective men, had been taken possession of by only two officers and five men. In this state of things the wonder is that the French did not retake their ship. The crew, it appears, were eager to do so, but the commanding officer refused to give his sanction to such a proceeding. Hence the English remained in quiet possession during the night, but were not permitted to hoist the English over the French flag on the following day, nor to make any signal to the *Galatea*, which was then to windward, or to the *Astrea* and her consorts to leeward. Not knowing that the *Renommée* had been captured, and receiving no answer to his signals, Captain Losack was uncertain, whether it was not the French squadron, of which he was then in sight, and while the *Renommée* bore up to join the British ships, he made the best of his way to Port Louis. An implied charge of misconduct is considered to have been made on Captain Losack by his superior officer, who, in praising the conduct of the officers and crews of the other frigates, was silent with respect to the *Galatea*. This arose, perhaps, from her declaring her inability to wear, though Captain Schomberg was of a different opinion, or else from her having hoisted a signal of distress before she was reduced to the emergency of being actually sunk, or on fire. On his return to England, Captain Losack demanded a court-martial, which the Admiralty declined to grant, on the ground that they were satisfied with his conduct.—*James's Naval History*.

of the number of prisoners, the squadron anchored in the harbour. Meanwhile the *Clorinde*[1] bent her course for the Seychelles and anchored at St. Ann's, from whence she returned to France in June.

In this manner was France, by the selfish and unscrupulous policy of Napoleon, bereft of the whole of her colonies and dependencies in the East, her naval forces in the Indian Ocean being utterly extirpated, while her expulsion from the territories she had possessed in the west combined to render her an outcast among the nations, over which she had recently ruled with so domineering a sway.

CHAPTER VI.

Proceedings of the British Government after the capture—Diplomatic relations with Madagascar—Administration of Sir R. T. Farquhar, Major-Generals Warde and Hall, Colonel Dalrymple, Major-General Darling—Slavery and its terrors—Governments of Sir Lowry Cole, Sir Charles Colville, Sir William Nicolay, Sir Lionel Smith, and Sir William Gomm.

ALMOST simultaneously with the conclusion of the treaty, a proclamation was issued in the name of his Britannic Majesty by Mr. R. T. Farquhar, governor par interim of the Isle of Bourbon (who now also assumed that of the Isle of France), directing the inhabitants to follow their usual occupations,[2] and to obey the orders of their superiors, until the arrangements of the new government should be completed. The office of Colonial Prefect or Intendant was now abolished. The Governor united in his own person all the execu-

[1] On the 24th of September, when close to the port of her destination, the *Clorinde* was near falling into the hands of the *Tonnant* of 80 guns, Sir J. Gore, who ineffectually endeavoured to cut her off from entering the Passage du Raz. At noon the *Tonnant* opened a distant cannonade on the *Clorinde*, and continued the chase, till she had received some damages from the violent winds, when finding that she had no chance of taking her, and that the *Clorinde* from having her sails perfect, was fast outrunning her, she returned back, and the frigate arrived at Brest. Soon after his arrival her captain was tried by a court-martial for not having done all in his power in the action in which the *Renommée* had been captured, and was sentenced to be dismissed the service and imprisoned for three years.—*James's Naval History.*

[2] The forbearance of the British troops, who abstained from every excess, though elated with the joy of victory, has been praised by the local historian in terms no less forcible than those used by the commander-in-chief. Everything was conducted as in times of peace, and in a few days St. Louis resembled a vast European market, rather than a captured city. The productions of India, Bourbon, the Cape, and England soon found a ready market, while those of the colony were immediately despatched to London. Immense sums of money were also put in circulation by the new government and the troops, which brought back hope, where despair had so long reigned undisturbed.

tive and legislative powers, so that the constitution, promulgated by the consuls in 1803, was in this manner tacitly abolished without being replaced by any other. The name of the "Isle of France," which had been at first preserved and figured at the bottom of all official acts, was summarily and implicitly changed by Major-General Warde in his proclamation of the 9th of April, 1811, in which he announced his appointment as governor of the "Mauritius" by the king of Great Britain[1] in the room of Mr. R. T. Farquhar. The latter name has been thenceforward preserved.

On the 20th of May, 1812, expired the ten years for which the consuls had suspended the constitution. In the year before, Mr. R. T. Farquhar returned to the Mauritius, and resumed the head of affairs. In January 1813 he promulgated the act of parliament (51 Geo. III. cap. 23) abolishing the slave trade in all the colonies of Great Britain, and an office was subsequently established for the registry of slaves. In 1814, Louis the XVIII. remounting the throne of France definitively ceded the colony to Great Britain by an article in the treaty of Paris. Bourbon[2] was under the same treaty restored to France, and in 1815 was taken possession of by the commissioners of the king. One of the first measures of the new government of the Mauritius was, to issue a proclamation, announcing that Port Louis would be closed to the ships of France and every other foreign nation, those of Great Britain alone being permitted to trade. In the year following, diplomatic and commercial relations were entered into between the Mauritian government and Radama, king of the Ovas, who, from a petty chieftain in the north of Madagascar, had gradually extended his authority over a great part of the island by means of his superior courage and sagacity, and political agents were reciprocally despatched to either island by the respective governments. Two sons of Radama, accompanied by several Ovan chiefs, took up their abode also at the Mauritius, on their way to England, and were received with every attention.

[1] "The French inhabitants made many inquiries of the British officers as to the probability of the island being placed under the East India Company's government, of which they seemed to be under great apprehension. Had this taken place, the trade would have undoubtedly become a complete monopoly, and the resources of the island enfeebled."—*Military Officer.*

[2] The commentary of the French government on the address of the Prince Regent to the British parliament, in which he observed:—"The conquest of the Isles of France and Bourbon has still further diminished the number of the enemy's colonies," was a signal mark of the estimate they had formed of British diplomacy.

"Dans les circonstances actuelles, l'ile de la Réunion (*i. e.* Bourbon) et l'ile de France ne rendaient rien à la métropole et lui coûtaient plus de vingt millions francs chaque anneé. Avec vingt millions, on peut construire dix vaisseaux par an; c'est donc pendant cinq à six annees que pent durer encore la guerre actuelle, de quoi avoir cinquante vaisseaux de ligne. Les colonies occupées *par les Anglais reviendront* à la métropole ou à la paix ou lorsque l'empire aura cent vingt vaisseaux de haut bord et deux cents fregates et batimens légers."

The king on his part engaged to discountenance and suppress the slave trade in his dominions on the payment of an annual subsidy, and the addition of other trifling benefits. One of these was that his army should be drilled by an English serjeant, whom he appointed generalissimo. Missionaries had been previously introduced, through whom, with the aid of a few English mechanics, his subjects were partially instructed in some of the arts of more civilized life. Schools were erected, a printing press was set up, and a college was founded at Tanarivo. By the zealous and active co-operation of Mr. Hastie, he had succeeded in subduing most of the petty chieftains that remained in opposition to his supremacy, and everything appeared to promise him the sway over an united empire, when death checked him in his victorious career.

On the return of Governor Farquhar[1] to England in 1817, he was visited by that officer, a mark of attention with which he was greatly delighted. A similar convention for the suppression of the slave trade was also concluded with the Imaum of Muscat, a country in the south-east part of Arabia. On the 8th of September, 1817, a council of the commune, a species of municipal institution, was established by Governor Farquhar in each quartier of the island, but the proclamation by which it was constituted restricted its deliberations to certain objects, to which its attention should be directed by the Governor. Even this meagre remnant of liberty was not destined to be permanent. Its dissolution arose from a singular cause, as well as mournfully indicative of the petty insolence of the military commander, and the loathsome tyranny to which this ill-fated island was for some years exposed. Mr. R. T. Farquhar had previously returned to England on leave of absence, and Major-General Ralph Darling filled the post of governor par interim.

In the month of November, 1819, the cholera morbus suddenly broke out at St. Louis, and spread with frightful rapidity into the country districts, continuing without intermission till the end of April 1820. Nearly 12,000 persons perished under this awful visitation. The general belief was that it had been brought with

[1] Major-General Hall succeeded Mr. Farquhar in 1817, and soon rendered himself extremely unpopular. The severity of his administration was the more felt in consequence of the mild and conciliatory disposition of his predecessor, who was as courteous as he was at all times accessible. The new governor, on the contrary, was reserved and difficult of access, and had about him a "brusquerie" that caused much disaffection. His seizure of the foreign vessels in Port Louis, under the pretence that they had contravened the navigation laws, met with opposition even from the officers of the government, who were in consequence superseded by him, but subsequently reinstated by the home government. The measures adopted to ensure the due observance of the laws relating to the suppression of the slave trade, rendered him no less obnoxious. Arrests and deportations rapidly succeeded each other. The procureur-general was suspended, from his declining to support a course so extreme, and so general became the dissatisfaction that Major-General Hall was recalled at the expiration of the year.

the English frigate *Topaz*, in whose favour General Darling had neglected to observe the usual sanatory precautions. In consequence of this event, representations were addressed to that officer by the council of the commune of St. Louis, which were met on his part by an arbitrary assumption of the power to dissolve them, which was carried into effect on the 18th of February 1820, by a simple circular addressed to each member, and without any proclamation. On reporting the step he had taken to Lord Bathurst, then secretary of state for the colonies, a despatch was transmitted from London, authorising him to issue a proclamation pronouncing the definitive abolition of that institution. On the return of the Governor, now Sir R. T. Farquhar, in 1820, he issued a proclamation, which announced that Port Louis was re-opened[1] to foreign vessels under certain restrictions. After having rendered many important services to the colony, that officer retired[2] from the government, and was succeeded in 1823 by Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole. The new governor was the harbinger of measures of the highest importance to the colony. A series of devastating hurricanes had laid waste the crops of the planter, destroying the support of his dependants, and leaving the island in a state of poverty bordering on insolvency, while the oppressive duty on sugar, its staple product, excluded it from the market, to which it could most naturally and profitably look without opening that of the country, with which it had been formerly connected. On the 27th of June, 1825, however, an act was passed by the Imperial Parliament, permitting the importation of the products of the colony into England, which had hitherto been included under the imports of the East Indies, on the same terms, as those of the West Indies. This act of justice gave a new impulse to Mauritian agriculture, and the crops of sugar were soon doubled, as will be seen from the tabular statement inserted in another place.

In the month of August in the same year appeared a proclamation from Governor Cole conceived in a similar spirit. "Seeing that it has pleased his Most Gracious Majesty by his letters

[1] The opening of the port to foreign vessels was, in some respects, beneficial, as it facilitated the discharge of the arrears that had existed before the capture of the island. It had the effect, however, of increasing the imports in a scale disproportioned to that of the exports, which for a long time proved highly injurious to the colony. The price of provisions was also extravagantly increased, which pressed hard upon the industrial portion of the community.

[2] The departure of Sir R. Farquhar is mentioned by the local historian as a misfortune that was very sensibly felt. During his government, the agricultural resources of the colony had been developed in a manner such as to astonish even the natives themselves, commerce had revived from a state of unparalleled depression, and the revenue had augmented to a considerable degree. The public works had begun to render communication both rapid and facile; in a word, the prosperity of the island had been assured by his energy and sagacity. The manner in which he endeavoured to heal the wound inflicted on the colony by its permanent separation from France is no less deserving of commendation.

patent, issued under the royal seal and sign manual, by and with the advice of his privy council dated 9th of February 1825, *to ordain that a council be established in this colony to consult with the Governor, and assist him in the administration of the government of the same*, and seeing that his Majesty *has* made known that it is his good pleasure that the said council shall be composed as follows :—

PRESIDENT.—His Excellency the Governor, or the officer charged with the temporary administration of the civil government of the colony.

MEMBERS.—The Chief Justice. The Colonial Secretary. The officer second in command of the troops. The Collector of Customs with the title of "Honourable."

"His Excellency the Governor in consequence makes known by the present proclamation the establishment of the said council, and orders its publication for the information of the inhabitants of the said colony and its dependencies." From this period the laws were no longer in the shape of *proclamations* emanating from the Governor alone, but *ordinances of the Governor in council.* One drawback to the advantages of the measure was found to consist in the suppression of the royal instructions, so that the colonists were ignorant as well of the constitution as of the powers of the council, nor could they discover whether its office was to advise the Governor, or whether the majority had the power of passing an ordinance in opposition to the will of that high functionary. This inconvenience was, however, the less felt from the reputed character of the executive. Sir Lowry Cole had been no long time at the head of affairs before he had rendered himself beloved by the whole colony, of which he was considered "the father and the friend," and, though it fell to his lot to have to enforce a number of regulations intended to elevate the condition of the negro, but of a character highly obnoxious to the planter, yet "such" (observes a contemporary writer) "was the confidence created by the frank and generous disposition of his excellency, and so conciliatory was the intercourse he maintained with the principal inhabitants, that their knowledge of his upright and honourable principles, and his abhorrence of anything like tyranny and oppression, and their conviction of the sincere interest he felt in their welfare, increased the moral influence of his high station, and gave a paternal interest to his government, which made his opinion respected, and ensured the success of measures sanctioned by his recommendation."

On the other hand, it has been asserted that he winked at the prosecution of the slave trade, and, by his vacillating course of proceedings, permitted the planter to violate the ordinances he had promulgated, and in this manner betrayed the interests of his government. Be this, however, as it may, there can be little doubt that the slave trade was carried on during his administration, and that de-

ception was practised upon him in some other respects, but there is no reason to believe that he could be privy to a proceeding which had been long since declared to be a felony by the laws of his country, or that his obtuseness was greater than that of the subordinates who were more immediately concerned in its prevention. Sir Lowry Cole was succeeded in June 1828 by Sir Charles Colville, who promulgated in the following year the order in council of the 22nd of June in the preceding year, which abolished all the unjust distinctions then existing between whites and free citizens of colour. This measure which the government might have adopted with safety long before, produced little or no excitement, and the two classes for some time associated without those strong prejudices of origin, by which the frame-work of society is even yet disturbed in other countries. A similar boon had been conferred on this class by the Colonial Assembly thirty years before the measure now authorized by the British government, but had been abrogated with every other vestige of liberty by Napoleon. In 1830, in consequence of the objectionable constitution of the newly created council, and the publication of an order in council, by which some stringent regulations were introduced as to the treatment of slaves, the colonists resolved to despatch an agent to London to lay their complaints at the foot of the throne, and demand certain ameliorations in the laws of their constitution, and in the general administration of the colony. "M. Adrien d'Epinay, who had been long distinguished" (says the Almanach de l'Ile Maurice) "among his fellow-citizens by his zeal and intelligence, was by them selected to undertake this important mission. On the 10th of October 1830 he embarked for England, carrying his instructions, their petitions, and the regular powers. He returned to the Mauritius in the October of the following year, and gave an account of his mission in a general assembly held in St. Louis. Lord Goderich, then Secretary of State for the Colonial Department, had received him in the most favourable manner, and promised attention to the principal reclamations of the colonists. These promises were partially fulfilled by the creation of a legislative council, into which seven of the inhabitants (as we shall presently see) were admitted, and the important concession of the liberty of the press, by whose means (where it is not perverted) the road is opened to the other blessings of constitutional liberty. Both of these measures were soon after carried into effect by the local government in accordance with the instructions of the minister."

The executive and legislative council that had preceded, and by whom a large number of important ordinances had been passed during the seven years it had subsisted, was abolished on the 18th of January 1832, and on the same day the following notification entitled "Order of Government" was published by Sir Charles Colville. "His Excellency the Governor, orders that it be made known, that it has pleased his Most Gracious Majesty to address to

him his royal commission, renewing the letters patent issued by his late Majesty King George the Fourth, constituting and naming his Excellency Governor and Commander-in-chief of the Mauritius and its dependencies, as well as giving him power to form and establish a council of government, which should be composed of certain officers of the crown, and an equal number of other persons selected from among the principal merchants and inhabitants of the colony, and to name and appoint the latter by means of commissions drawn up and signed by his Excellency.

"It has pleased his Excellency, in execution of the aforesaid commission, and the instructions under the royal sign manual, which accompany it, authorizing the Governor to name as members of the said council, such persons as his Excellency shall judge fit, to make known that the seven persons required have been named accordingly.

"It has also pleased his Excellency to order that it be made known, that on the 25th of the current month he will hold a levee, at which the royal commission shall be publicly read, and the aforesaid members of the council of government, shall, on admission, take the oath prescribed."

Five days after, another official act appeared on the same subject. "It has pleased his Excellency, the Governor, on referring to the order of government dated 18th of January, to make known for the general information, that the undermentioned persons are the official members of the council of government, to wit, the President of the Court of Appeal, the Commander of the Forces, the Colonial Secretary, the Collector of Customs, the Colonial Advocate,[1] the Attorney-General, the Protector of Slaves." At the levee held this day at the government house the royal commission was read by his Excellency with the accustomed honours, and his Excellency and the members of the council[2] present took the prescribed oaths in presence of the public authorities and principal inhabitants of the colony.

Office of the Colonial Secretary,
St. Louis, January 23rd, 1832.

G. F. Dick,
Colonial Secretary.

These acts, it will be observed, only made known the composition of the council without giving any information as to its powers and privileges, of which the public still remained in ignorance. In

[1] The functions of Colonial Advocate and Attorney-General having been conferred on the same person, the Auditor-General was afterwards named to complete the council, and the office of Protector of Slaves being abolished, that officer was replaced by the Colonial Treasurer.

[2] "The new Legislative Council, which was composed of seven officials, and seven unconnected with the Government, had," says *Un Vieux Colon*, "a majority, who, though in office, broke their engagements to gain popularity."

the same year the royal instructions issued on the 20th of July, 1831, were received from England. By these the rules to be followed in the council of government, commonly called legislative council, were marked out. The first ordinance passed by the council established a penal code, whose enactments assimilated with that of France, but it was subsequently disallowed by Lord Goderich, then colonial minister. No other code having been since introduced, the Mauritius is still governed by that drawn up by the French Republic in 1791, many of whose provisions are extremely rigorous and incomplete. The second ordinance, published in the same year, established the liberty of the press, which had been hitherto subjected to the previous censorship of the government secretary. Conciliatory as was the natural tendency of these ameliorations, they were found to be insufficient to restore peace and contentment to the colony. From the first years of the establishment of their authority, the British government had seen with concern that the estrangement of the inhabitants and their aversion to their rule, so far from becoming enfeebled by time, assumed day by day an increased energy, threatening, on the first shot that should be fired in war, to restore its ancient possession to France. The cause of this alienation, independent of the reaction in favour of a sympathy with their old metropolis, and a returning feeling of nationality, for a moment blunted by the disasters and privations they had endured on her account, had at times been more directly stimulated by the repression of everything in the shape of constitutional liberty, and the substitution, in its stead, of the arbitrary will of the Governor. To diminish the number of these internal enemies, it has been alleged (with what credibility it is impossible to affirm) that measures were adopted by the British government, calculated by their tendency to compel the discontented to dispose of their property to the English, who had come to establish themselves in the colony, and that for this purpose they had recourse to a series of measures both arbitrary and vexatious, but that the emigration, proving tardy in its operation, and being found to be unattended by its expected results, it was necessary to resort to other measures of repression, and the opposition, which had assumed a character so formidable, it was thenceforth determined to divide.

With respect to the former course of proceeding, it may be urged that the impolicy of such a step, not to mention its injustice, its certain defeat as soon as suspicion should arise, and the universal failure it has in every age experienced, are reasons in themselves sufficient to throw discredit on an allegation, which in all probability owes its origin to the fact, that it was expressly stipulated in one of the terms of the treaty, that the French inhabitants should enjoy the privilege of removing themselves and property to any part of the world within a definite period. As regards the latter line of action, by which races may be (as it is popularly termed) played off upon

each other, its policy is perhaps not only less questionable, but even justifiable, provided it is only resorted to by a government (as in this case) for the simple purposes of self-defence. Society in the Mauritius may be predicated then, as now, to have been divided into three distinct classes. The whites descended from the early French settlers, or more recent accessions, the mulattoes, and freed blacks. The first of these were the issue of concubinage between the white and his female slaves, the last ci-devant slaves who had been freed in return for some meritorious service, whether by the Government or individuals. The slaves themselves. Thus far the first and second of these classes had lived on a mutual good understanding. The latter, peaceable, thrifty, and laborious, had gone on enriching itself by the patronage of its former masters, whose prejudices, carried to so absurd a height in other colonies, had here lost their excessive severity; and the advantages, by which the mulattoes were apparently satisfied, were held to be the recompense of the prudent conduct they had manifested during the troubles of the French revolution, in aiding the planters to keep their slaves in subjection.

The aversion to its rule displayed by the planter, and the sympathy excited in England for the man of colour, who had so long been degraded, induced the colonial government (as we have before observed) to divide the opposition, to which its authority was exposed, by the union between this rising class and the European planter, and to address themselves to his love of advancement by endeavouring to elevate him in the social as well as in the material scale, and to identify him in a greater degree with the class from which he had originally sprung. The mulattoes on their side were in general indifferent at first to the contemplated change in their condition, inasmuch as it promised to bring little, if any, advantage in a material point of view, an object to which their regards were principally directed; yielding, however, at length to the flattering invitations of the government, they attached themselves firmly to its interests, and without estranging themselves from the white planter, continued to be little disposed to return to a state of which they now saw the disadvantages. On the other hand, the laws that had been promulgated by the Imperial Parliament on the slave question since the general peace, the stringent regulations in favour of the negro, and the perfect equality thenceforward to exist between the white and the man of colour, while they met with a strong resistance in the West Indies, appeared to the Mauritian planter to be called into vigour without a sufficient regard to interests so important, and prejudices now beginning to be recalled. In addition to the shock which the prejudices of the planter had sustained, his discontent was destined to be further excited, when the agents of the Government, in whom he had so little confidence, benevolently interposed between himself and that which he deemed the most

precious part of his property—his slaves, whom he already found it difficult to keep under restraint, and, by weakening the bonds that united them to their masters, threatened a compulsory effranchisement and rebellion. Feelings like these were sure to find a vent in some direction, and, the theatre being selected for the purpose, the pieces, from which any disparaging allusions to the English nation could be extracted, enjoyed a preference on every occasion, and met with the most vehement applause. Many times the disorder was pushed to an extreme, till the Government at length deemed it their duty to interpose and suppress the effervescence every day increasing, by closing the theatre, and deporting the actors to Bourbon. Meanwhile, the attachment of the mulatto and the labouring population being firmly secured, the Colonial Government could have afforded to look with contempt upon the disloyalty of what was, after all, an inconsiderable portion of its subjects, and have baffled the designs of France (had such been conceived) for the recovery of her ancient possession.

In March 1832, a new order in council, for regulating the duties of masters and servants, bearing date of the 2nd of November, 1831, arrived, and was immediately put in force. Previous to this, a project for the emancipation of slaves, which the colonists[1] saw was inevitable, having been prepared and drawn up, was transmitted by them to England for approval. The same vessel that had brought the order in council was also bearer of the intelligence that Mr. Jeremie, *ci-devant* Chief Justice at St. Lucia, whence he had been recalled on the complaint of the inhabitants, was to be sent to the Mauritius as Procureur-General. A forcible pamphlet, which he had published in London, and in which he expressed a desire to see the emancipation of the slaves immediately achieved, was, at the same time, received. A report spread abroad that the object of his mission was to carry this into effect at the Mauritius, where he was anxious to make a primary experiment. The news, transmitted from mouth to mouth, finally reached the ears of the slaves themselves, among whom a ferment arose, which was presently followed by acts of disobedience and insubordination. Fires also, the work of the incendiary, burst out in several places. A deputation of the principal inhabitants assembled, in consequence, on the 27th of March, at the Government-house, and presented an address to the Governor, expressive of the danger by which they conceived the colony to be menaced, and requesting that he would authorize the

[1] Professing a desire to moderate and direct the course of events on this exciting subject, these men proposed to the Government to prepare the colony for the approaching change by discussion, and styled themselves "the Colonial Committee." They soon, however, degenerated into a body politic, and attacked the Government; but Sir Lowry Cole did not compel them to confine themselves to the original object of their institution; so that the minority, who remained faithful to the principles for which they had met, were silenced by the others.—*Un Vieux Colon.*

colonists to form themselves into a corps of volunteers for the maintenance of the public tranquillity. His Excellency granted the authority. Volunteers were immediately formed in the town and country districts, and guard was punctually kept, day and night, for the repression of any movement among the slaves.

On the 4th of June, in the same year, arrived Mr. Jeremie,[1] in the ship *Ganges*. On the following day, after taking the oath prescribed, he was admitted to a seat in the Council, which was announced on the same day by an official notice, and inserted in the Government *Gazette*. His presence augmented the public uneasiness. The course of affairs was interrupted by a spontaneous movement.[2] All the shops were simultaneously closed. The advocates and solicitors quitted the courts of justice, which now became deserted. It seemed as if the whole colony had become all at once paralysed. The markets were without provisions, and the harvest, which ordinarily commenced at this period of the year, was left uncut by the inhabitants. Addresses without number poured in from every quarter of the island, entreating the Governor to put an end to the deplorable state of affairs by the removal of Mr. Jeremie from his post. An extraordinary meeting of the Legislative Council, to which was added a certain number of persons chosen from among the most respectable and influential in the colony, was summoned by Sir Charles Colville, and to the united body was submitted the question of the return of that magistrate. A very large majority pronounced in the affirmative.

Having in this manner ascertained the opinion of the leading men, the Governor was anxious to assure himself of that of the mass of the planters. A general meeting of the white inhabitants was therefore held at St. Louis on the 27th of June, and an address was unanimously voted, demanding the immediate removal of Mr. Jeremie, which was soon covered with several thousand signatures.

[1] Mr. Jeremie had been named Procureur-General in the room (says *Un Vieux Colon*) of a violent demagogue, who afterwards joined the malcontents, and had been raised to that post by the influence of the party styling themselves "French," who had rested all their hopes of innovation on him. So reckless was the effervescence of the rabble, that the new officer had nearly been massacred on landing, and on the following day was compelled to enter the courts of justice without the insignia of office, and by a private door. In argument and mental qualifications (continues the same writer), his opponents were by no means a match for him; and had he arrived eighteen months sooner, he would have been received with open arms by the colony, few of whose inhabitants would then have joined the malcontents, the creditors would not have been ruined so universally by fraudulent debtors, nor would justice have been so universally tampered with by chicanery, while the indemnity would have been distributed among those for whom it was designed.

[2] *Un Vieux Colon* denies that the course of affairs was interrupted by the people in general, but states it to have been the act of the clique before mentioned, who hoped, by preventing provisions from entering the town, to exasperate the populace, and drive it into excesses.

Upon this, Sir Charles Colville no longer hesitated, and published an order of Government to the following effect on the 16th of July :—

"His Excellency the Governor has judged proper, in conformity with the decision announced by his Excellency to the Council of Government, to ordain, that the Honorable Procureur and Advocate-General embark for England with all possible promptitude.

"Given at the Government-house, St. Louis, 16th July, 1832.

"CHARLES COLVILLE,
"Governor and Commander-in-Chief."

On the 29th, Mr. Jeremie departed from the island. Order and tranquillity were instantly restored, affairs resumed their wonted course, and every one returned to their ordinary occupations.[1] On

[1] The local writer, whom we have before quoted, gives a far different account of the authors of this movement to that with which our English readers are perhaps acquainted, and thus characterizes the men, "who, having sprung from the scum of the population, succeeded by their senseless, but incessant clamour, in working on the fears and imbecility of the Government." We must content ourselves with an *abrégé* of the description of their proceedings, with which he fills several hundred pages, in (as we cannot help thinking) a very unprofitable manner. "This party, which may be said to have been the spawn of the French Revolution, was composed of men, who to the most visionary ideas respecting the restitution of the colony to France, joined the most fraudulent intentions with respect to the debts they had contracted. During the earlier years, in which the new Government was established, the transition through its agency from the extreme of despondency to a prosperity unexampled, the revival of commerce, the development of the agricultural resources of the island to a degree unknown before, the retention of the French language (for a long time even in official documents) and laws, and the moderation with which it aimed at assimilating the colony with British interests, had produced their effect on the whole community, and gained for it the co-operation of the more respectable proprietors and merchants; and though the men in question occasionally indulged in violent and ridiculous sallies (on hearing, for example, of the return of Napoleon from Elba, &c.), and were eager to insinuate themselves into place by means far from scrupulous, yet they were checked, and their clamour excited little sympathy, as was proved during the visit of the Earl of Moira to the Mauritius, who, though he had filled a prominent place during the wars of the Revolution, met with the most courteous reception from the colony in general. The lapse of time, which familiarizes men with the most perfect of institutions, and the measures adopted with respect to the slave trade and slavery, gave them at length a chosen opportunity (which they were not the men to slight) for carrying their malevolent intentions into effect. Two circumstances (or rather evils) inherent in the constitution of Mauritian society, tended to further their otherwise powerless efforts. The bar, with some honourable exceptions, had long intrigued for the possession of a monopoly of wealth and honours, the direction of the public opinion, as well as of the affairs of commerce. Restrained within due limits by General Decaen and Sir R. Farquhar, it subsequently became the promoter of disorder, made itself conspicuous in assemblies and in the press, conspired with the debtors to defraud their creditors, and by its chicanery rendered the movement of justice as slow as it was obnoxious. In like manner, the press, to whom liberty had at length been conceded by the Government, (though the censorship, so far from having been placed in the hands of the proper authorities, had in reality previously been controlled by the leaders of disorder) became an instrument in their hands for insulting their opponents. A new and secret

the 31st of January, 1833, Sir Charles Colville was succeeded by Sir William Nicolay, in compliance with his request that he might

association, called the "Bande Noire," now arose, which for the better accomplishing its objects, divided the island into departments. It possessed an almost unlimited influence over the courts of justice by means of its adherents among the bar, over the finances by means of the bank, whose operations it conducted, and over the police by the aid of the press, which seemed to be free for such purposes only. With liberty and equality ever on their lips, these adventurers opposed every act, which had the liberty of others for its object, and were furious against the government, if it propagated in its proclamations ideas similar to their own. According to their own account, their aim was to defend the property of the colonists to the death, but they nevertheless flattered and caressed the anti-slavery party, vociferating at the same time against all ordinances for ameliorating the slaves, and ill treating the protectors charged with their execution. Though Sir Lowry Cole had followed in the steps of Sir R. J. Farquhar and was universally respected for his frank, simple, and generous disposition, yet was the visit of Sir Hudson Lowe chosen as an opportunity for insulting him and dishonouring the national flag. The government thus menaced, refrained from striking again, created protectors of slaves, yet did not protect itself; promulgated ordinances, conceived but to be eluded, abandoned its employés to menace, persecution, and mal-treatment, in the fulfilment of their duty, as a recompense to those, whom its imbecility had given the actual management of affairs, and placed men in office, when it should have deported them. The result was the triumph of the latter and the depreciation of English interests. The arrival of Mr. Jeremie brought things to a crisis, but excitement had arisen long before, and might have been foreseen by the Government, which appears to have considered it as the mere effervescence of a number of young men. The press, which should be the palladium of liberty and justice, and give warning of danger, now became yet more violent, the youth were with difficulty kept under restraint, the Marseillaise and Parisienne were chanted at the theatre, and in the streets, where they served as rallying cries to (what may be called) the insurgents, while everything betokened the coming storm. At this moment a body, styling themthemselves "the Committee of Public Safety," who were identical with the *ci-devant* colonial committee, presented themselves to the Governor, and demanded an authorization to arm. Having gained permission, the leaders, when their party was assembled, for the first time showed hesitation and incertitude, and would have been willing to fill a more subordinate part. In fact they had miscalculated the public feeling, which was only an effervescence, and would have rejoiced at an insurrection among the slaves (whom indeed they did accuse of an intention to revolt, and alleged were incendiaries) to have given a reason for their interposition. Taking courage, they at length sounded the cry to arms; occupied posts; prevented the assembling of merchants; shut the bazaar; left negroes unemployed; intimidated workmen from proceeding to labour; forbade transactions in produce; held out menaces, imprisonment, and stoning to those who persisted; sent out spies, who rendered a faithful and circumstantial account of their investigations, to note everything they saw or heard; and compelled the civil commissaries (who otherwise feared the loss of their posts) to connive at their excesses. The silence of the streets was interrupted for forty days solely by horsemen bearing despatches. The rich, expecting the pillage of their property, were anxious to dispose of it at any price, while the factious, unconcerned for the result, which they foresaw, took the opportunity to reduce their debts. Meanwhile the press, which was eager to encourage discord, insulted the Government, as it did all who were exposed to its machinations, asserted that the people were calm and moderate, that the installation of Mr. Jeremie was illegal, and that their party was making enormous sacrifices for the public good in furnishing food gratuitously to the poor, while they at the same time defrauded their legitimate creditors. The same exaggerations and falsehoods were resorted to

be permitted to return to England.[1] The character of that officer, acknowledged by his opponents to have been at once frank, open, firm, and conciliatory, was revered by all who surrounded him; but, from his arriving at the helm of affairs at a critical period, and being compelled to execute orders which, though just, were in their application necessarily severe, he could not be justly appreciated by the soured dispositions of men, who, in spite of all his efforts, became more and more estranged from him. In short, society itself was divided into two parties, equally animated by those peremptory and splenetic sentiments inherent in the violent conflicts of politics. In vain did Lady Colville, a woman of high birth, and of a sweet and amiable temper, aim at bringing about a reconciliation by means of grand and magnificent réunions. The parties met, but new causes of rivalry produced also new sources of exasperation.

On the 4th of February, 1833, Sir W. Nicolay published an order in council of the 6th of November, directing the dissolution of the volunteers, under pain of death. The corps had already disbanded itself some months before, tranquillity having been re-established among the slaves. The measures taken by the new Governor were considered by the planters as clearly demonstrative of the nature of the reports made by Mr. Jeremie to the British Government. His powers, too, had become in like manner extended. They held it,

as at the French revolution, with a view to exasperate and corrupt the masses. Women were said to suffer the throes of premature accouchement; children to flee; and slaves to revolt at the mere mention of the name of Jeremie. The orders of government were received by the committee of public safety without being executed, they gave no account of their proceedings, nor would they co-operate with the regular troops, and yet for all this they have in the place of punishment received rewards.—*Un Vieux Colon.*

[1] In so grave an emergency as that in which he had been placed, Sir Charles Colville, who had no other thoughts than for the prosperity of the colony, was tranquil and relying, and the truth having never reached him, he thought he was surrounded by friends of order and the established power, instead of enemies of both. It has been thought that he did not coincide in the instructions sent out from home, and his flexibility towards the malcontents, whom firmness would have suppressed, would seem to warrant the assertion. Since 1832, the Government had been of the species denominated "laisser faire," but the eagerness of the home government to accomplish the emancipation of the slaves, induced it to seek support among these soi-disant friends of the colony, who desired nothing more than to enrich themselves at its expense. In return for these advantages, it has endured raillery, insult, and revolt, and has been compelled to reward the agents of such transactions, making vice sit by the side of virtue, and the oppressor by the oppressed, has suffered fortunes to be built on the ruin of honest families, and its best subjects to be pillaged for the sake of adventurers. Though the Governor had not hesitated to compromise his private fortune, in rendering assistance to a number of proprietors overwhelmed with debt, by lending them a large sum on the public security, yet so base was the spirit engendered by party, that the men, who had profited by his generosity, were subsequently opposed to him, and obliged him to surround himself with troops to secure his person from insult. The sum advanced was squandered on insolvent debtors, nor was it wonderful that such should have happened, when it is considered through whose hands it in a great measure passed.—*Un Vieux Colon.*

therefore, to be an object of particular importance, that an agent should be despatched to England to give a version of their own with respect to the late occurrences, and gain the ear of the minister. To that end a general assembly was convened at St. Louis in February, 1833, by the permission of the Government. The choice of the colonists again fell on M. Adrien d'Epinay, and he embarked for England four days afterwards.

On the 29th of April, Mr. Jeremie returned to the island on board a vessel of war, with two regiments destined to reinforce the garrison. His arrival was announced by an official notification, dated the 29th of April, and he immediately entered on his functions at the court of appeal, and he took his seat in the council. One of his first measures was to cause the publication of a series of ordinances restrictive of the liberty of the press, by the first of which a power was extended to the public accuser of using his discretion as to prosecuting the editors of journals in the Court of Assizes, or the Tribunal of the Correctional Police. By a second, the exclusive privilege of all judicial and legislative announcements was assured to the Government *Gazette*. A few days after, a number of the inhabitants in the quartier of Grand Port were arrested on a charge of conspiracy against the Government. The same occurrence had taken place in the year preceding. The accusation of high treason was sustained by Mr. Jeremie with the greatest pertinacity, but, in despite of his utmost efforts, the Court of Assize, presided over by Chief Justice Blackburn, pronounced their complete acquittal on the 29th of March, 1834, and they were immediately set at liberty, after having passed seven months in confinement. From that moment the power of Mr. Jeremie ceased to be felt, and an official advice of the 3rd of September announced his dismissal, by order of the King, and the nomination of M. P. d'Epinay in his room. The President of the Tribunal of Premiere Instance, who was thought to have exceeded his authority in the case of several commercial houses of St. Louis, was at the same time dismissed, and both took their departure for England.

To give an account of all the proceedings of Mr. Jeremie during his residence in the Mauritius, would be to drag ourselves into subjects, rather more akin to political discussion than is consistent with a treatment of facts; suffice it to observe, that, while the rectitude of the intentions by which the British Government were actuated cannot be for a moment called in question, they would nevertheless seem to have been unfortunate in the selection of their agent, whose measures were as precipitate as they were imprudent and vindictive. In January 1835, M. Adrien d'Epinay returned to the Mauritius after an absence in London of sixteen months. His reception in England had been accompanied by reserve on the part of the Government, which he finally succeeded in dissipating by his perseverance. After many interviews with the Secretary for the colonies, some of his re-

quisitions were acceded to, but the readjustment of the ministry protracted a decision. No sooner had the new minister, Mr. Spring Rice, been put in possession of the facts on which he rested his claims, than he was replaced in his turn by Lord Glenelg, who was by no means so favourably disposed as his predecessors to the concession of his demands. On his arrival in the colony, however, his labours were rewarded by a succession of banquets and other acknowledgments in every quarter of the island. On the 1st of February 1835, the Act of Parliament passed on the 28th of August, 1833 (3 and 4 W. 4. cap. 73), came into operation, and slavery ceased from that moment to exist in the Mauritius. This great event was unaccompanied by anything in the shape of disorder, and was celebrated by the negro with the most heartfelt feelings of gratitude and joy. An order in council of the 6th of July in the same year preserved to the colonists the rights of apprenticeship over the *ci-devant* slaves. In October, 1836, the magnificent port of Mahébourgh, which had up to this time remained closed to trading vessels, was opened by an advice from the collector of customs. In his late mission to England, the policy of the measure had been strongly urged by the agent.

Sir William Nicolay was succeeded early in 1840 by Sir Lionel Smith, G.C.B., &c. who had so eminently distinguished himself by his gallantry and soldier-like conduct in every part of the globe, and his advocacy of the cause of humanity in the West Indies. The attention of the new Governor, whose mind was as unwarped by passion and prejudice, as it was quick in the detection of a false and pseudo philanthropy, was principally directed to a mitigation of the evils, which had been found to result to the proprietary of the colony from the loss of slave labour, as well as to an earnest endeavour to obtain the resumption of Coolie emigration from India, and a refutation of the mendacious assertions made by a party of fanatics in England relative to cruelties alleged by them to be inflicted on the emigrants.

The hard services of this officer in tropical climates had worn out his constitution (accelerated in great measure by his constant attendance upon his consort) at the comparatively early age of sixty-four. He was seized in January 1842 with hydrothorax, or effusion of water on the chest, from which he almost immediately expired at Redruit, his country-house.

Sir Lionel Smith was succeeded by Lieutenant-Colonel Stavely, the senior officer in command of the troops, until the arrival of Sir William Gomm, K.C.B., the present Governor, who had at the outset to contend with financial difficulties of no ordinary character, arising in great measure from a monetary crisis, that had in its turn originated in overtrading and an excess of imports. This difficulty was overcome by his prudence and firmness, and the career of his Excellency may be said hitherto to have been as successful, all things

considered, as that of any of his predecessors. A better feeling now exists on the part of the colonists towards Great Britain, and though it would be unreasonable to expect an immediate fusion of ideas and interests so diverse, yet the good work has commenced, and promises to be progressive. A knowledge of the English language is now also becoming generally diffused, while, in a material point of view, the introduction of Indian labourers has been effective in producing an increase in the export of sugar, and proved to be attended by the calamities so unceasingly predicted by its detractors.

Before we close the chapter, we cannot refrain from adverting to a subject akin to the matter contained in it. In the course of the history, mention has been incidentally made of the vast and neighbouring island of Madagascar. It is not our purpose to transgress to any great degree the limits to which we had confined ourselves in respect of a country, to do adequate justice to whose importance, resources, and extent, or to narrate whose annals, encumbered as they are with deeds of savage life, would fill volumes, rather than the few pages we can possibly devote to such a subject. We shall commence then by observing, that Madagascar is not only an island of vast extent, and in some parts very densely peopled; but is also most fertile, offering great variety of temperature, with some of the finest harbours, and the best timber in the world. The interior is also remarkably healthy. It is, however, for the most part surrounded by a narrow border of swamp, owing to the sea and the mouths of the rivers being frequently on the same level, as is the case on the west coast of Africa. This swamp is of a most deadly nature, and, at one season of the year, living in these parts of Madagascar is almost certain death to a European. In one, if not in more districts, the swamp ceases, or at all events is very narrow. The capital, Tanavarino, on the high lands, near the centre of the island is very healthy, but only approachable by a narrow path, little more than six feet wide, cut zigzag through the woods to make the distance appear greater than it really is. Towards the capital flows a broad and navigable river, which penetrates far inland. The south and west coasts are beautifully clothed with timber, and verdant with the richest pastures. Along the east coast, a margin of low land extends from ten to thirty miles from the shore, and along the west coast from 50 to 100. The land then rises, forming extensive steppes or tables, running north and south, diversified with hills of greater or less elevation, the highest about 6,000 feet above the sea, luxuriant valleys, passes, and ravines, craters of extinct volcanoes, immense forests, savannahs, rivers, and lakes; the latter, says Martin, affording some of the finest scenery in the island, while almost every part of the coast is indented with spacious harbours and bays, some of them fifty miles deep, with soundings in every part, and sheltered from all winds. The principal tribe or people are the Ovahs, who are now in the ascendant, and the Saccalanas,

who were friends to the English, but have been lately crushed by the Ovahs. The population of the island has been estimated at five millions, and is divided into two distinct races; the one inhabiting the table land of the interior; the other the districts bordering on the coast. The features of the latter partake, both as regards the nose and the configuration of the skull, of the negro character. Their figures too are lofty and Herculean, the complexion black, and they have in general dark bushy hair. The former, including the Ovahs, are of a copper colour, and resemble Asiatics, their hair is long, and silky, and the head and face of a European mould.[1] The Malagash are clothed, says Martin, the men in flowing robes of cotton cloth, principally of native manufacture, frequently of the plaid pattern, and worn like the Roman toga, the women wear a short jacket with long sleeves and folding robes round the waist and limbs. They manufacture to a considerable extent silken cotton, hemp, &c., some of their clothes being dyed with hues of the brightest colours. They work also iron, tin, copper, gold, and silver, out of which they make chains of great length, and of neat and often elegant workmanship. The Spanish dollar is the principal coin in circulation, and is often divided into a number of parts representing a proportionate value. The policy of Great Britain of late years would seem to have been non-interference with the internal affairs of Madagascar, though it has had numerous provocations to such a step. The French, on the contrary, from their possessing no harbour at Bourbon, have long been desirous of a footing there, and have made several attempts, as at Nossi Beh, which have in general proved unsuccessful, owing to the unhealthiness of the climate. St. Mary's, however, has long been in their possession. Tamatave, the scene of the recent conflict, was captured, as the reader will remember, at the close of the war from France, by a part of the squadron cruising off Mauritius, but it would appear to have been subsequently abandoned by Great Britain.

We now revert for a moment to the state of affairs after the death of Radama, of whom we have spoken in another place. That monarch was succeeded by Ranavala Manjaka, the present queen, who was no long time in undoing all the good effected by her predecessor,

[1] A somewhat striking instance of the superiority of the light over the dark coloured Malagash is given by Mr. Martin. A certain number of youths of both colours were placed on board the vessels of war on the Cape station, in order to form a set of seamen for Radama, as we had already aided him, through the instrumentality of Mr. Hastie, in forming a powerful army. Six light and six dark-coloured youths were shipped on board the *Ariadne*, one of each colour was placed under the care of the carpenter; another pair under the armourer; another under the sail-maker; the light coloured race learned their respective trades as aptly as an English youth would have done. The dark coloured were slow, but persevering, and as sailors never exhibited that activity aloft, which their fairer countrymen did, though the latter were an inland people, and the former maritime.

ordering all the missionaries out of the kingdom, and burning or decapitating all the native Christians on whom she could lay her hands, being many thousands in number. Some, however, escaped to the Mauritius, by means of the British missionaries, with whom they were conveyed in a frigate sent by Sir R. Farquhar for the purpose to that island, and after undergoing a course of training, were employed in the instruction of their own countrymen, then in slavery on that island.

The queen who, though indulging in constant intoxication and hideous acts of cruelty, is really a superior woman, is about fifty years of age, and has, à la Catharine, a constant succession of lovers, who are said to be equally desirous with herself to repress the progress of civilization. She is in partnership in several sugar estates at Madagascar with a Frenchman from Bourbon, who finds machinery, and she, land and slaves.[1]

In the May of last year, an order was issued by Ranavala, that all the foreign traders in her dominions (principally from Mauritius, and Bourbon) should become naturalised Malagash, and thereby subject themselves to a law which, among other disabilities, rendered them slaves under certain contingencies, and in the event of non-compliance with certain rules; and she gave them a very short time to dispose of their property and leave the island, in case of their unwillingness to become so naturalised, which had the immediate effect of interrupting the trade with Mauritius and Bourbon in articles almost indispensable to the existence of those islands. On intelligence of this premeditated outrage arriving at the Mauritius, Sir William Gomm, immediately despatched Captain Kelly in the corvette *Conway*, who, on arriving in Tamatave roads, found there, in accordance with a previous arrangement, the *Berceau* and *Zelee* French men-of-war, sent thither by Admiral Bazoche, the Governor of that island, to receive on board the European residents, who were in great danger from the tyranny of the queen.

On their arrival, both the French and English officers agreed, that if they committed, without any manifest provocation, an act of hostility against the Ovahs, they might expose to serious danger the Europeans residing in other parts of Madagascar, from Fort Dauphin to Vahemar, and they accordingly determined to temporize. The next day, therefore, the English officer landed, and held a conference with the Malagash, among whom was Razakafidy, the Governor of Tamatave himself. They comported themselves in a most insolent manner, informed him plainly that they had imperative orders from the Queen to enforce the measures against the

[1] The Appendix contains a short account of the various attempts to colonise Madagascar by the French, as well as a consideration of the grounds on which their claims are based, and a statement of their late aggressions in the Indian Ocean, to which we refer the reader.

traders, that in case of non-compliance they would drive them into the sea, and refused to wait until a letter from Captain Kelly to the Queen, requesting a sufficient time, at least, for the embarkation of their property, and protesting against such treatment, should be sent to her at the capital. An export duty of ten per cent. *ad valorem* had been also imposed on the embarkation of their effects. The French they flatly refused to admit even to a conference. Captain Kelly returned, therefore, on board. The next day was occupied in the embarkation of the European residents and their effects, or as much as could be got off, and the duty was not rigorously enforced. The Ovahs[1] also evacuated the town, carrying off baggage and burdens to the three forts parallel with the coast.

On Sunday morning, the united division bombarded the fort. The reasons which induced Captain Kelly to adopt this course were the harsh treatment of the residents, and the obligation to embark at such a notice, and under such circumstances, as amounted practically to a confiscation of their property; the insolent bearing of the Malagash at and subsequent to the conference, and the refusal to allow him to communicate with the Queen in a satisfactory manner. Three hundred and fifty men, of whom one hundred were from the garrison at Bourbon, and the others belonging to the crews of the division under the command of Captain Fiereck and Lieutenant Heseltine, accompanied by the refugees, who requested permission to follow as volunteers, landed in the afternoon of the 15th, and advanced across a plain under a sharp fire from the fort, which was in great measure screened by a plantation of trees, and a battery of grape and musketry, which were directed with a precision which would have astonished them, had they not been informed that the artillery was superintended by a renegade Spaniard, who made a most improper use of his talents. The enemy was, however, driven out of the battery, and the guns were spiked. The outwork or screen, which had been supposed to be the fort itself, was stormed and taken. They now discovered the real fort or keep (of the existence of which, incredible as it may appear, the residents at Tamatave, not being allowed to visit the works of defence, were themselves ignorant), which is of a circular form, and mounting thirty guns, casemated in a circular gallery. The garrison of Tamatave consisted of one thousand men, viz., four hundred Ovah regular troops, and six hundred Betsimisaracs auxiliaries. The wall was about thirty feet high, and surrounded by a ditch of about the same width.

[1] At two o'clock, a boat, which awaited the reply of Razakafidy, Captain Kelly having given time till that hour to acknowledge the receipt of his protest, returned with the following laconic answer:—

"We have received your letter, and we clearly declare that we can make no change in the proclamation which we have issued, it being a law of Madagascar.

"I salute you,

"RAZAKAFIDY,

"Commander and Governor of Tamatave."

Possession was kept of the top of the screen for upwards of half an hour, and a constant fire kept up. Having no means of breaching the wall, and the men falling fast under a shower of balls and grape-shot, they retired, carrying off the flag, for the possession of which the French and English sailors disputed for a long time. The flag-staff being shot through, fell inside the circular fort, on the edge of which it had stood. It was then put on a lance, or something of the sort, and stuck again on the wall in a crevice of the stones. Being again shot away, it this time fell outwards, hanging down within a few feet of the bottom of the ditch, between the inner fort and the screen. Two English sailors and a midshipman, and two or three Frenchmen, made a rush into the ditch after it, seized it, and neither party being able to get it from the other, after struggling a considerable time in the very hottest of the Malagash fire, they were about to come to cutlass blows with one another, when Lieutenant Kennedy, of the *Conway*, to prevent mischief, rushed down, and with his knife cut it in two, giving half to each party. The standard was of pure white, with the Queen's name, "Ranavala Manjaka," in large letters, two or three letters remained with the flag-staff. The English got the "Manjaka," and the French the major part of the "Ranavala." In returning after this admirable arrangement, Lieutenant Kennedy was getting through one of the embrasures in the screen, when a gun went off, and killed several, but he escaped with a slight wound from a splinter. The guard-house, custom-house, and a considerable part of the town having been burned, the troops landed on the following day, carried off the remaining European property, as well as the wounded. The killed, whose heads were next day exposed on the beach, stuck on pikes, they were compelled to leave behind. The men-of-war and all the merchant ships then sailed from the harbour. The loss of the English was:—Killed, four; wounded, one officer and eleven men. French:—Killed, three officers and fourteen men; wounded, one officer and forty-two men. The *Zelée* and *Berceau* lost a topmast each from the fire of the enemy, but the *Conway*, which commenced the fire, had only a few ropes cut. Nearly all the balls passed over the ships, which had anchored about eight hundred yards from the shore, and whose fire was excellently served.

On the intelligence of this outrage arriving in France, the ministry at once determined to inflict a signal punishment on the treacherous Ovahs, and an expedition was immediately equipped, of which rumour gave the command to the naval representative of the House of Orleans itself. Three causes, however, operated in the first instance to delay, and finally to postpone to an indefinite period, the vengeance so promptly aimed at. The revival of war in Algeria, and its threatened extension to Morocco; the jealousy and distrust entertained by the larger part of the French press of any warfare in which England should be a co-operator, and its conse-

quent unpopularity with the opposition, combined with a conviction then prevalent that Madagascar might prove a second Algeria, if not yet more deadly; and, what was more, the disinclination of the minister (who had conceived the expedition solely with the view of quieting his opponents in the Chambers), on seeing the apathy and repugnance with which they viewed it.

Meanwhile, Sir William Gomm had effected a survey of the whole coast, with the view of facilitating the operations of any armament that might be despatched by the two powers. In one of his descents, the English officer was met in a deprecatory tone by the Ovahs, who assured him that it was far from their intention to insult or oppress the English, and that they would never have experienced such treatment had they not conceived that his countrymen had combined with the French, who had always sought to overthrow their independence, in a design for the subjugation of the island.

END OF PART THE FIRST.

PART THE SECOND.

CHAPTER I.

PIRACY IN THE INDIAN OCEAN.

Quin et commercia ipsa infestant ex insulis Arabes, Ascitæ, appellati, quoniam bubulos utres binos sternentes ponte piraticum exercent sagittis venenatis.—PLIN.

THE insecurity of the ancient navigation of the northern part of the Erythrean Sea, which is recorded by Pliny as having arisen from the piratical attacks of the Arabs, was extended, according to the Abbé Roçhon, to its southern waters, soon after Vasco de Gama had discovered the new route to the East. After a careful search, however, for any statement that might bear out this opinion of the early rise of piracy, we have come to the conclusion that he has assigned too early a date to its first establishment, despite of the confidence we have in his general accuracy. Nor does he give a single instance in support of his assertion, nor is one perhaps anywhere to be found. That piracy commenced, however, in the East, during the succeeding century, is certain; for we find in the earlier annals of the Mauritius that the colony was withdrawn from thence by the Dutch in consequence of the Governor having been found to be implicated in these transactions. During the whole of the seventeenth century, commerce was seriously harassed by these freebooters, who were composed of a motley assortment from every nation in Europe, but principally of Englishmen, whose national commerce had now become important in the East.

An early writer on eastern piracy (whose pages are the more striking from their containing recommendations for its suppression that appear to be identical with the regulations of the new Act for the Registry of Seamen) thus accounts for the formidable hordes who at this time sprung up in the East:—

"They (the pirates) began their barbarous trade shortly after the

late private war between the East India Company and the Moors, when the news of the rich booty their ships had acquired stirred up the old buccaneer gangs of the West Indies, where prizes had become scarce, and the Spaniards were less easily robbed than formerly, to direct their course to the East. Here, having met with a success equal to their expectations, their numbers were increased by fresh accessions. During the war that broke out between France and England, the privateers, whose success against French vessels had been limited, were so tempted by the secure and successful life then enjoyed by the pirates, that whole companies both from England and the American colonies flocked to Madagascar, &c. They who went from England either had a commission to distress the enemies of the nation, or went in merchant ships, and, mutinying against their officers, ran away with the vessels, or else, having touched at Madagascar for refreshment or traffic, and their ships being sold, taken, or cast away, and they being left destitute of an opportunity for returning home, turned pirates. They who went from the North American colonies were either old buccaneers, who had commissions from the Governors, or such as went to trade with the pirates of Madagascar, and, being debauched by their bad company, joined them."

The fear of these brigands deterred the English slave dealers, who had commenced their operations on the western coast of Madagascar, more particularly at St. Augustine's Bay, from a perseverance in that trade. Several squadrons of British men-of-war were now sent against them, but they cruised without success.[1] "A single ship, however," observes the quaint writer from whom I have extracted this fact, "commanded by one Millar, hath done more than all the chargeable fleets could do; for with a cargo of strong ale and brandy, which he carried to sell them, he killed five hundred of them by carousing, though they took his ship and cargo as a present from him, and most of his men entered into the society of the pirates, who had now selected a place on the east coast of Madagascar as an asylum, which had a good harbour to shelter them from the weather, but was difficult to enter, from being environed with islands and dangerous shoals. Hearing that a squadron of British ships were in quest of them, they removed to the main isle, where

[1] The mode of punishing pirates before the reign of William III. differed little from the punishment inflicted on other malefactors, being very summary. In the eleventh year of his reign, however, an Act was passed for the more effectual suppression of piracy, as it was found by experience that pirates in the East and other remote places could not be punished without great trouble and expense, having to be brought to England to be tried within the realm, as directed by the statute, so that many were encouraged to turn pirates, thinking they should not be brought to trial, and increased in insolence, &c. This bill was, therefore, to facilitate punishment, and condemned accessors to the same penalties as principals.

they made themselves free denizens by intermarriages with the natives, so that it was difficult to dispossess them."

The adventures of these men, when stripped of the horrors and excesses by which they were attended, and which are often too sickening for recital, possess many features of interest for the philosopher, from the conflicting feelings to which the varied nature of their lives gave birth, the remorse which the temporary cessation or abstinence from piracy frequently brought with it, and the polity under which they lived when on shore, in itself a remarkable instance of the love of order implanted in the breasts of even the most ferocious of mankind.

Our purpose here is to confine ourselves to a brief sketch of the more interesting incidents, in which they appear as connected with Madagascar and the Mauritius, and for this we must refer the reader to the Appendix.

CHAPTER II.

THE SLAVE TRADE.

Ὦ μοι τεκέων ἐμῶν,
ὦ μοι πατέρων, χθονος θ',
ἃ καπνῷ κατερείπεται
τυφομένα, δορίληπτος
πρὸς' Αργείων, ἐγὼ δ' ἐν
ξεί νᾳ χθονὶ δὴ κέκλημαι
δούλα.

HECUBA, Chorus, *ἀντιστρ. β'.* l. 473.

IN the same manner as slavery itself will be perceived to possess separate and distinct features in its relation to the Mauritius, so also will the trade in slaves. Unlike a similar traffic on the western shores of the African continent, it began, as it ended, consistently. If its ferocity was from the first startling, it was to the last without disguise. It spake not of peace with its lips, bearing a sword behind! A Hawkins was not there found to gloss over its enormities by whispering into docile ears an exciting tale of national greatness, or to dazzle the eyes of suspecting philanthropists with an opening vision of sable regeneration. It was throughout a deliberate deed of blood! The landing from the bark of the pirate commenced, as it ended, in blood. Blood flew in torrents on every occasion. Peoples had to meet peoples in a strife kindled not by themselves, but yet they died or bled. Far worse the latter alternative. Their misery then but commenced. Battened down like

cattle under the suffocating hatches, or cooped up in the narrowest space on deck, they were either relieved from their sufferings by an instantaneous death, or a life far less preferable remained.

We have stated, on the authority of the Abbé Roçhon and other writers, that pirates were the first to undertake this trade to the Mauritius. These men, whose adventures in the Indian Ocean have been cursorily traced in another part of this volume, had for nearly two centuries skimmed the vast surface of the eastern seas with the mark of murder and desolation on their foreheads. The ubiquity of their movements had the effect of creating an erroneous impression of their real power, and the general success of every outrage had given an air of invincibility to their courage. Alarmed at last by the din of preparation to be heard in almost every port in the Indies possessed by Europeans, they retired in a body to the north-east coast of Madagascar, where, by abstaining from brigandage, they remained for a time unnoticed, and formed an establishment at Nosse Ibrahim, called by the French "Sante Marie." Here they contracted an alliance with the natives, whose usages they partly adopted, and designed the new settlement as the future inheritance of their children: fortune, however, had otherwise ordained. Some of their number, unable to resign without a struggle the wild charms of a corsair's life, had ventured out anew, and, after capturing several vessels richly freighted, had at last fallen in with a Portuguese man-of-war of seventy guns, lying at anchor at Bourbon, and bearing on board the Conde d'Ericeira, Viceroy of Goa, with the archbishop of that colony. This vessel, having been disabled in a storm, had lost the whole of her masts, had thrown overboard the greater part of her guns, and, being in this manner incapable of resistance, fell an easy prey to the pirates. The large amount of plunder here obtained, and the losses elsewhere incurred at the hands of these reckless freebooters, again directed public attention to their new retreat.

The pirates, inured to danger, and relying on former successes, offered a long and desperate resistance. They were, nevertheless, unable to hold out against a force so considerable as that despatched against them, and suffered a severe chastisement, most of their vessels being set on fire. The absolute destruction of their maritime power, though it put an end to their oppression of commerce, did not prevent them from conceiving a project, which, if still more criminal and felonious than the other, was, nevertheless, more consonant with European feelings, and, I may add, profit. The nations of that continent had displayed an indignant sense of piracy, and the plunder of merchandise on the seas; the fleet of the men, by whom these offences were perpetrated, they had sacrificed to their just resentment, but their moral perception no longer held them out in an abhorrence of the traffic in human flesh. The pirates, perfectly contented with the opening to a career which promised to be

so closely akin to their own, professed to appreciate their motives, and lost no time in entering on this bloody trade, in which they became lawfully recognised adventurers, while the more harmless, because more humane life, they had formerly led was universally proscribed and detested. I leave it to Europe in the present day to reconcile these subtle distinctions of their more refined forefathers. The first aim of the pirates was to sow discord among the native tribes of Madagascar, into the interior of which they had been so recently compelled to flee. Unmindful of the generous treatment they had there received, they commenced by stirring up a war between the Bethalemenes, a tribe of the interior, and the Antarames, a people on the sea-coast. The prisoners of each they purchased, and shipped off to Mosambique, Bourbon, or the Mauritius, till the other tribes one after another became the victims of their impious treachery. If there was a deficiency in the number required, a party of whites, accompanied by some of the natives, were despatched on a foray to the nearest village to fill up the complement, while the pirate captain marked out with callous eye the district in which his fellow-man was to be captured, contenting himself with leaving to the sons of Ham themselves to fulfil his behest of butchery. The rapidity with which the stroke fell upon its unhappy victims was not a whit the less remarkable. The landing of the pirate, the negotiations with the chief, the battle consequent thereon, the defeat, the capture of prisoners, their embarkation, seemed the work of an instant. Never perhaps was human misery before consummated in so brief a space, or ever so simultaneous in its operation. The black flag of the pirate, which had flaunted so rakishly on the breeze, now half mast high, was superseded by the blood-red flag of slavery, and the proud ship, whose decks had so lately scorned an encumbrance, were now occupied by hatches for the cargo in men, while the felon and motley crew, who had so often passed their gibes, and feasted on the fate of the Moslem, Hindoo, or wealthier European captives, now casting their eyes around and beholding their wretched victims, were vividly reminded of the issue of those daring feats of old in which they had once so joyously participated, and grasped the cutlass with a yet sterner hand, as they laughed that a chance was yet left for emplunging its cold steel, and drawing it forth reeking with the blood of men. Relentless as was the cruelty of these men towards the negro on his passage, and reckless as they were of the mortality which the crowded hatches occasioned, yet the latter suffered not here to the same extent as his brethren in the interior of the continent. He had not to accomplish the dreadful journey by land, goaded by the maddening whip of the driver, or to encounter such lengthened horrors in the middle passage. A few days of suffering almost intolerable brought him in sight of his savage taskmasters and alien home, had not the sharks, the counterpart under water of

the pirate and slave-dealer above it, previously received as their share of the human cargo those whom sickness or disease seemed to render unprofitable when landed. If a leak arose, no compunctions of conscience prevented the throwing overboard of the live slaves to lighten the vessel, which, added to the mortality originating with their capture, augmented by the journey to the shore, the number of deaths from suffocation on the passage, the cause we have previously specified, and the slaughter of the helpless and infirm unable to support themselves immediately on their disembarkation, will give a mortality[1] of five for every two landed.

Here ceased not, as we shall shortly find, this cool and deliberate murder. A yearly recruit of an eighteenth part of their number was found absolutely necessary. Hence the colony, if left to itself, would in eighteen years have suffered a total extinction. All the other crimes then committed by mankind, from the creation of the world up to the present time, not excluding even war itself, would not equal the slave trade in the extent of the sacrifice of human life. There is some difficulty in ascertaining the exact date of the first shipment to the Mauritius, but it is clear that it took place some time in 1723, for we find, in the November of that year, that three of the recently imported slaves, being convicted of joining the Marons, then the *ci-devant* slaves of the Dutch, were sentenced to death. This will leave a period extending over more than a century for the prosecution of the horrid traffic. Allowing, then, for natural deaths, and the mortality arising from the causes above mentioned, it will be found that the number of human beings who have perished from first to last, either by its direct agency or by a connection with it more or less remote, will fall little short of eight hundred thousand souls for the island of Mauritius alone.

The active measures adopted by La Bourdonnais for a development of the resources of the island, without doubt gave new activity to the trade, which would be further stimulated by the introduction of the manioc, which was at all times a cheap and certain means of sustenance, and removed the apprehension of the starvation of the slave after his landing, a result which had happened in instances without number. La Bourdonnais endeavoured also to alleviate, as far as it was in his power, the cruelties to which they were exposed in the passage by sea, and aimed at an efficient discharge of the duties imposed by the Code Noir for their protection on land. In his expeditions against the English settlements in India, he enlisted many of the negroes into his service, and by pro-

[1] The mortality on board Dutch slave ships was, according to the most accurate estimate, from five to seven per cent. On French ships from Africa, ten per cent. On Portuguese, less than either French or Dutch, but more than on English. After the Regulations Bill, the English rate of mortality was three per cent. Thus there was a mortality of seven per cent. on French above English ships.

per training and encouragement rendered them faithfully attached to his person, as well as brave and expert seamen.

In proportion as the pirates dropped off or removed, the colonists and merchants of Europe engaged themselves in a traffic to which age had now given the rights of prescription. The Mauritius was thenceforth by no means confined to the supply to be derived from Madagascar. The eastern coast of the continent, and Goree and Senegal on the western, furnished their respective quotas to the nefarious traffic. The average price of a Malegache slave was a barrel of powder, a few muskets, a small quantity of linen, with the addition of a few piastres. Fifty crowns was the price if paid in money. The value of a slave, however, diminished not with the increase in the number imported, but rose with the demand for labour. In 1776 the number of free coloured amounted to 1150; slaves, to 25,190. In 1799 the former had increased to 35,00, and the latter to 55,000. In 1832 the free coloured amounted, at an approximate estimate, to 16,000; slaves, 63,536.

A decree of the French republic, oasis-like amid the desolation of democratic rule, prohibited slavery and the slave trade in all the colonies of France. Let it not be forgotten, then, that there was one leaf of gold to be found in the volume of republican legislation, and that in the last stage of a tottering existence it was, nevertheless, not too selfish to forget the claims of the negro, a course of procedure which presents a striking contrast to a similar legislation elsewhere, which, arrogating to itself a superior freedom, has done worse than nothing for the severance of the fetters by which the slave is manacled, and is at this moment engaged in a domestic and internal traffic no less impious than that we have described. The ordinance of the French republic to which we have alluded was completely set at nought by the planter, for, though the slave trade was professedly abolished, its prosecution continued to be winked at, and the system of slavery remained entire, so that a temporary alienation from the metropolis was the result. Upon the accession of Napoleon to the consulship, an edict was issued, by which the former was directly abrogated, and the slave trade again reared its noxious head, regardless of the war that raged on the very ocean on which the whole of its operations were conducted. After the capture of the island by Great Britain, the slave trade was a second time placed under the ban of the law, and the severest penalties followed on a conviction. A negotiation was subsequently opened with Radama, king of the Ovahs, in the northern part of Madagascar, who engaged to discountenance and suppress the slave trade in his dominions on the payment of an annual subsidy, and with the Imaum of Muscat, a province of Arabia. But the facilities, which a perfect knowledge offered to the planter, and the coral reefs, which, though they might appear to be an insurmountable obstacle in the eyes of the Colonial Government, were, by averting suspicion, in reality of the greatest

advantage to the prosecution of the trade, for while they seemed to render a landing impracticable at any other than the two principal ports, yet there were creeks and openings into which the buoyant and narrow pirogue could pass without the slightest danger. The subject of the greatest astonishment will, however, be found to consist in the fact, that the confusion and change inseparable from the influx of so large a body as thirty thousand, or, according to the exaggerated statement of the Anti-Slavery Society, fifty thousand slaves, could have so long escaped the observation of the colonial authorities. Visitors at the Mauritius had been for some time unable to account for the strange blacks met with in every part of the island, who spoke neither the vernacular patois of the negro, nor possessed a language of their own. The substance of what was officially communicated on this subject so late as 1823, or ten years after the trade had been declared a felony, is contained in a letter from Sir R. T. Farquhar, and another from his successor, Sir Lowry Cole, in November 1824, both addressed to Earl Bathurst. The fair inference from these communications would seem to be, that in those years the slave trade had been reduced to a very low ebb in the Mauritius. It is impossible, however, under all the circumstances of the case, not to entertain very considerable doubts of the accuracy of that information, and a conviction of the gross deception practised upon both Governments on the subject. Sir Lowry Cole, indeed, affirmed, that not only had the introduction of slaves ceased, but that on the part of the inhabitants there was no disposition to renew the trade, but rather a feeling of indignation at its horrors. This appears also to have been the opinion of his predecessor. On this a contemporary writer remarks, "The planters of the Mauritius have doubtless professed to renounce and detest the slave trade, but it is very difficult to give them credit for the sincerity of their professions. They had long been familiar with this trade, and had evinced even to a recent period an attachment to it so rooted, as to lead even some of the higher classes to brave, for the sake of its profits, all the infamy of a felonious conviction. What, then, could have wrought this extraordinary conversion in so short a time? An external difference of conduct might, indeed, be fairly expected. The increasing vigilance of our cruisers augmented the risks of transgression, while the extremely low price of colonial produce during the period in question diminished the temptation to transgress. But, to infer from this temporary cessation of the trade, even if such cessation had actually taken place, that the planters of the Mauritius had become in principle adverse to that trade, is not consistent with the character of those planters, or with what we know of human nature itself. Besides, it is notorious that, during this period, the planters were making great efforts to obtain the removal of the protecting duty on their sugar, and they must have felt that a decent external compliance with the abolition laws was essential

to their success. If a reference be made to the official testimonies already adduced, as disproving this suspicion, it may be urged in reply, that the papers laid before Parliament furnish numerous proofs of similar representations in favour of the conduct and dispositions of the colonists on the part of the local authorities in the West Indies at the very moment, when the whole course of proceeding pursued by the former was furnishing a direct and palpable contradiction to the official eulogy. One of the strongest presumptions against the alleged purity of the Mauritian planter is drawn from the records of Parliament. Had they been as sincere in their abhorrence of the slave trade as they are represented to be, and we may add, had the Colonial Government been as earnest and vigilant in its repression as they were bound to be, some proof of this would have been found in the regularity with which the order in council for the registration of slaves had been complied with by the slaveholders, and in the strictness with which the salutary provision of that order had been enforced by those charged with its execution. It was felt by all enlightened abolitionists, and by none more than the king's Government, that the only effectual security against the continuance of the slave trade to any extent, which the planters of Mauritius might desire, was in the establishment of a perfect system of slave registration. Experience had shown that, for the due repression of the slave trade at the Mauritius, no reliance could be placed on the fidelity of courts and juries composed of planters, themselves participating, or desiring to participate, in its criminal gains. And as for the navy, what could one or two cruisers, however vigilant, effect to prevent small and fast-sailing vessels from throwing slaves ashore during the night, without the cognisance of any person except the inhabitants, who were equally the parties interested in concealing the transaction. The slave market, be it remembered, was distant only a few hours' sail. Slaves could there be bought for a few dollars. That they were eagerly desired by the planter, no one will doubt. What, under these circumstances, could prevent an active slave trade but a well regulated registry? But the registry was not well regulated at the Mauritius, as was proved before the imperial legislature. A registry of the slave population regularly kept, it was admitted, could alone effectually prevent the illicit importation of slaves. What is perhaps the most remarkable is, that, although the due establishment and the vigilant superintendence of the slave registry was one of the first and most essential duties of the local Government, and though it was recognised by the Executive at home as the most effectual means of preventing the slave trade, yet the imperfection, not to say the perfect nullity of the Mauritius registry, appears to have excited no attention till a subsequent period. It was obvious, however, that, in the peculiar circumstances of the Mauritius, the very course which the best friends of the slave trade would be disposed to pur-

sue in order to secure its undisturbed continuance, would be to declaim against that trade, and threaten punishment on those who should engage in it, and yet allow the slave registry to fall into complete disorder."

The order in council, which established a slave registry at the Mauritius, was promulgated there in 1815. From that time, had the provisions of the Registry Act been fulfilled, the introduction of slaves, if not entirely prevented, must have been rendered difficult and hazardous. If any one object, therefore, more than another deserved the vigilant inspection of the Colonial Government, it was this. A strong suspicion that this essential instrument for the prevention of the slave trade had become wholly inoperative, was awakened by an examination of the returns made to the House of Commons, and printed by their order in March 1823, and which were found to be in so unsatisfactory a state as not even to afford any accurate information with respect to the slave population, much less to prove any effective check on the illicit importation of slaves. The suspicion thus excited was afterwards considerably strengthened by a return to the same House on the 27th of June 1825 by the registrar general of colonial slaves in Great Britain. It is entitled "Return of the slave population in the Mauritius, as received in the office of the general registrar, since its first establishment," and is as follows:—1816, Males, 55,717: Females, 29,706: Total, 85,423. The duplicate slave returns in Mauritius for 1819 were found to be so imperfect as not to afford any means whatever of ascertaining the slave population at that period, and were therefore sent back to the colony for correction. This neglect was the more remarkable, as it was in defiance of the provisions and penalties of an act of Parliament passed in 1819 for securing the regularity of such returns. To whom the neglect was to be attributed does not appear. It was deemed, however, so criminal in itself, and so ruinous in its effects, that, together with other matters connected with slavery, and the slave trade in that part of the world, it did not fail to excite anew the attention of Parliament. The able writer whom I have before quoted further observes:—"Until the existing state of things as to the registration of slaves has undergone a radical change, all general statements as to the non-introduction of slaves into the Mauritius must be regarded as illusory. It is known too, in this case, that a Governor is surrounded on all sides by functionaries, judges, and juries, who are almost one and all holders of slaves, and who are therefore deeply interested, not only in keeping open the channels of supply, but also in concealing every act of delinquency, so that, without the infallible means of information which a perfect system of registration alone can afford, it would be impossible for him to pronounce with confidence as to the execution of the abolition laws, and if this reason is applicable to the Mauritius under the depression arising from low and protecting duties, which prevailed

there in 1822, 23, and 24, how much more strongly does it apply at the present moment, when the removal of the restrictive duties, and the general rise in the price of colonial produce, must have given an increased stimulus to cultivation, and rendered the temptation of the adjacent slave market still more irresistible. It would be easy to show, in addition to this, in how open and barefaced a manner new negroes were introduced from the Seychelles by means of certain formalities, which, under all the known imperfections of the system of registration, could be of no use in checking, but were of great use in facilitating an illicit slave trade. It would be idle to suppose that the slave registry at the Seychelles was more perfect than that at the Mauritius, and yet the certificate of the officer commanding at the former, was sufficient to ensure the admission into the latter of any number of slaves he might accurately describe and certify as coming from those islands, and for anything that appears, he himself might have first imported these slaves from Mozambique or Zanzibar, and then transferred them to the Mauritius. The whole affair was an outrage on the honour and character of the British nation, and France and the other powers, whom the Government were then strenuously urging to adopt a plan of registration for the more effectual suppression of the slave trade, might almost have charged it with hypocrisy, when they contemplated the operation of that system in the Mauritius." To this it was objected that the slave trade having been abolished by Radama in Madagascar, and by the Imaum of Muscat in Eastern Africa, there was no source left from whence slaves could be easily drawn to the Mauritius, and that the trade being now declared to be piracy by statute, none but a few desperate characters would venture to engage in it. "As for the treaty with Radama," continues the same writer, "supposing it to be religiously observed on his part, and in consideration of the large annual payment made to him by the British Government, which he would otherwise forfeit, this is possible, but it furnished no security against the slave trade in those parts of Madagascar, which were not subject to his authority, more especially those under French rule. The treaty with Radama could not in the slightest degree interfere to prevent a vessel, which might have cleared out at Port Louis to any destination or to sea generally, which was there a common pretence, from calling at one of the French settlements in Madagascar, taking slaves on board, there landing them in the night at some inlet in the Mauritius, and appearing the next day at Port Louis, and entering at the custom house there as returned from her voyage in ballast. The treaty with the Imaum of Muscat presented also no effective barrier to the introduction of slaves into the Mauritius by British subjects, which was the crime that should have been specially provided against. Besides, even if it were credible that importations had ceased during 1822, 23, and 24, yet credulity itself could hardly have supposed that they would not be renewed. It

could not be hoped that in the absence of all effectual check from registration, as well as of all disposition in the colonial courts to convict slave traders, either the fear of the gibbet or the treaty with Radama, and the convention with the Imaum of Muscat would prevent the revival of the slave trade (even supposing it to have ceased for a time), more especially since the restrictive duties on sugar, and the enhancement in the price of that article had combined to give a new and powerful stimulus to the extension of sugar planting. It would be folly to have expected it."

This general but, as it appears, conclusive reasoning on the subject, derived additional force from the amazing disparity in the sexes existing among the slaves in the Mauritius, which does not appear to have lessened since the capture of the colony, but which would have been greatly lessened in the intervening period had importations really ceased. The inference fairly deducible from this fact is corroborated by the late progressive increase of sugar cultivation in the Mauritius, a cultivation generally held to be not only more destructive to human life than any other, but requiring a greater number of hands to carry it on, and it is further urged that, connected with this fact, it is necessary to bear in mind, that the known prejudices of the planter at the Mauritius in favour of the buying, as compared with the breeding system, the contiguity of the slave market, the extraordinary cheapness of slaves, the known partiality of the courts of justice in favour of slave traders, the eminently harsh and destructive nature of the bondage, which prevailed there, considered together, it will be impossible to acquiesce in the opinion so confidently announced that the slave trade had long ceased at the Mauritius. But independently of all the strong presumptions adduced above, and which are sufficient to justify the refusal of an implicit assent to the statements which we will presently notice, in which the illicit importation of slaves is represented as having ceased long before, a circumstance subsequently occurred which went far to convert presumptions into proofs, and called for an increased vigilance in the enforcement of the law, and an increased attention to the due registration of slaves. As a set-off to these allegations, it was asserted by the defenders of the planter that the increase in the great staple export might fairly be assigned to the following causes: —first, the natural consequence of the impulse given to agriculture by the repeal of the high duties; the large quantity of new land brought into cultivation, which was said to be vastly more productive (in many cases quintuple) than the worn-out soil of the old plantations, and required not the same labour in manure and tillage; the large amount of capital expended in steam-engines and other machinery, and the improvements effected by experience in the application of labour and general management of the plantations. The advantages derived by the colony from the attention paid by the local Government since Sir L. Cole's administration to the for-

mation and repair of roads; the accession of the labour of slaves formerly occupied in the transport of produce and provisions, as extra domestics, or as bearers of palanquins; the great increase in the number of carts, carriages, and beasts of burden of every description; from the augmented value of manual labour, and the facility of the improved roads; the abandonment of the export of minor staples (formerly important) in consequence of the planter finding it more profitable to devote himself to the cultivation of the cane, and the decrease in the labour expended in the growth of maize and manioc as provisions for the slaves, as shown by the vast increase in the import of rice, which then became their food, and lastly the removal of some proprietors with their slaves from the dependencies to the Mauritius, and the transfer to the planter by sale or hire of the slaves possessed by individuals, who were formerly employed either as domestics or fishermen, or in raising supplies for the markets—are alleged as having powerfully contributed to the increase in the production of sugar.

CHAPTER III.

SLAVERY.

THERE have been three epochs of slavery, of which the last will bear a subdivision into three subordinate heads, whose outlines, though clearly defined in other countries or colonies, are, from the late period in which the system was introduced, less obviously discernible in the Mauritius. Under the first the system as yet scarcely acclimatised, seemed to pause and look around for precedents by which its machinery might be afterwards regulated. In default of a discovery sufficiently satisfactory, so much of the Mosaic law as was adapted to the infantile institutions of the colony, and the temper and habits of the slave population was engrafted, partly upon the regulations that had previously obtained in the other French colonies, but principally upon those originating in the caprice or inclination of the planter or the East India Company with those which the Government deemed most adapted for the particular case. In these, though little if any regard was had to the comfort, some few acknowledgments of duties on the part of the planter towards his slave might have been selected from the confused mass. The slave, if despised and sunk into the lowest stage of degradation, was by these held to be something more than a chattel convertible as the interest of his master might dictate, and though the regulations were practically ineffective, yet humanity is ever the gainer, if its precepts be but tacitly recog-

nised. During the second period of its duration, the ingenuity of man, or rather of the fiends in his shape, working upon an almost irresponsibility to law, rendered the system, as will be hereafter seen, absolutely intolerable. Hence this may be considered the middle or darkest age of slavery. In the third, the cruelty of the system, though still predominant, was gradually but sensibly mitigated by the agitation[1] awakened in Europe by a recital of its horrors, which, when brought to bear upon the Governments of that continent, compelled them to interfere with its atrocities. The system will be viewed perhaps with greater perspicuity through its several stages, if it be taken in the order of time. Of its first commencement in this island little is recorded, save the frequent fire which marked its earliest footsteps, the constant escapes to the Marons in the forests, and the longing lingering look over the vast ocean, which separated him from his native land, the negro's fondest gratification.

As we have before observed, the condition of the slaves, as far as it was in the power of a governor to interfere with the subject, was somewhat ameliorated under La Bourdonnais. He introduced the manioc or cassada root from Brazil, which, though when in a green state was absolute poison, became a most nutritious food after due preparation, and compelled every planter or inhabitant in the possession of land to cultivate 500 square feet of manioc for every slave, which had the immediate effect of obviating the starvation to which the negro had been frequently subjected. The people, however, had become so habituated to idleness, and were so disgusted with everything in the shape of authority, that they did everything in their power to discredit the root; and instead of throwing cold water upon the scheme, poured hot which killed or checked the plants. At length, however, they became so convinced of its utility, that a large quantity was grown, and it was at once constituted the food of all the slaves in the island. From this it will be gathered, that it was not until some time after the departure of La Bourdonnais that the horrid cruelties related by St. Pierre were perpetrated. A slight mention of the working of the system again occurs under the intendancy of Poivre. Guided by those sentiments of humanity, which were his leading characteristic; he perceived, with regret, that the negro was considered as little beyond a mere instrument of cultivation, and was deemed unworthy of the slightest regard on the part of the proprietor. He resolved, there-

[1] Les Amis des Noirs, among whom were enrolled some of the most distinguished actors in the grand drama of the Revolution, may be said to have owed their origin to the pathetic representations of St. Pierre, from which we have so largely quoted. The genius of Mirabeau found here a theme on which to lavish its most brilliant gifts, and Madame de Poivre, wife of the deceased Intendant of the Isle of France, no less distinguished herself by her zeal in the cause of humanity.

fore, upon an exercise of his authority, as joint administrator, in their behalf, and, as a primary step, enacted an ordinance, forbidding the imposition of the excessive loads[1] which the negroes had been hitherto compelled to bear on their heads or shoulders, over a broken and then almost impassable country, and thenceforth limited their burthens, which had previously exceeded 120 lbs. weight, and were conveyed by tedious routes along by-paths, where beasts of burthen could be no avail, to 60 lbs. for the male, and 50 lbs. for the female slave. Poivre was left, however, with the melancholy reflection, that his ordinance, in itself so harmless and even capable of proving beneficial to agriculture, by the preservation of its agents, remained without any practical enforcement. Yet, though his measure was thwarted by those from whom he should have received support, and acted as little more than a protest and an enunciation of his opinions, it served, nevertheless, to disconnect him from the atrocity of the system, and demonstrated his recognition of the principle, that where a Government has no longer the power of command, its next best and most dignified course is to instruct and enlighten those of whom it is in advance. Before we proceed further, it will be right to give a description of the slave population, of their customs, origin, &c. A striking discrepancy will be found to exist in the accounts given of this class. The Viscount de Vaux, whose father, himself a planter, had been driven, in common with others of the French nobility, to settle in the Mauritius, in consequence of his unfortunate connection with the airy schemes of Law, and was in the possession of slaves, describes them as idle, insolent, and not to be relied on. Of all the different races, from which the slaves were made up, he singles out the Malagash as falling the most fully under these imputations. But the statements of the noble Baron are really worth little or nothing, for the premises on which he grounds his conclusion are of themselves founded in error, for the slave to do wrong must have a power of volition of his own, but the noble Baron was not prepared to grant him this, but held him to be a senseless chattel, and in the first instance recognised the right of tearing him away from his country and kindred, and putting him under the most irksome restraint. It would, perhaps, be unfair to picture the noble Baron in a similar condition, but sufficient has been said to show how the negro has ever been maligned. St. Pierre describes them as having neither so flat a nose nor so black a skin as the Guinea negro (he alludes here to the Malagash), some of them were merely brown, and others, as the Balambous, had long hair of a brown or carotty colour. They were active, ingenious, had a high sense of honour, and even of gratitude, were far less mindful of

[1] In speaking of asses, St. Pierre observes, that their introduction would be highly beneficial to the colony, as they would lighten the severe labours of the negro, on whose head every load, however heavy, was remorselessly imposed.

injuries done to themselves personally than of those offered to their family, the last of which they deemed an insult of the highest degree. When in their own country they made a variety of things with much art and industry. Their ragaye or half pike was very well forged, although they had nothing but stones for both anvil and hammer. The linen or pagnes, which were weaved by women, were very fine, and beautifully coloured. Their manner of throwing their garments around them was also extremely graceful. Their head-dress was very regular in rows of curls and braids nicely arranged one above the other, in like manner the work of women. They made excellent guides in travelling, and were very expert in obtaining a light, which was effected by rubbing two sticks together, one of the veloutier, the other of bamboo. They were passionately fond of dancing to music, and playing an instrument called the tantam, which was a kind of bow with a gourd bottle fitted to it. The sound of it was very soft, and was a pleasing accompaniment to their songs, of which love was always the subject. The girls danced to the song their lovers composed, while the spectators beat time and applauded the performance. They were very hospitable. A black, who was travelling, might enter unknown into the first cottage he passed, and sit down and partake of their food with its inhabitants, without being asked whence he came, or whither he was going. This custom was general. [We will here fill up the picture by a quotation from Baron Grant, who describes] "his negroes as requiring continual attention, which compelled him to rise frequently in the night to see if they were in their huts. They were very fond of nocturnal excursions, either to gratify their gallantry, or to pilfer from their neighbours; indeed so strong was this disposition in them, that no severity seemed equal to the correction of it. The offices of religion were at first regularly performed to the negroes, morning and evening, in every plantation, and they were married by a simple ceremony suited to their understandings. We assorted," says he, "these matches in the best manner we were able, and endeavoured to gratify their inclinations, whenever it was in our power. The ceremony consisted in nothing more than a short discourse, recommending mutual kindness and fidelity, accompanied with a menace of punishment to the party who should be guilty of misbehaviour or improper conduct.[1] The whip was the instrument of justice employed on these occasions, and the person who was

[1] As some set-off to the relentless cruelty of the planters towards the negro, it should be stated that he found it both politic and advantageous in a pecuniary point of view to allot a small piece of ground for tobacco and gourds. The negro cabins were ranged in lines like tents in a camp. Flocks and poultry were bred in these small plantations, the harvests were plentiful, but generally injured by grasshoppers. This laudable practice, which prevailed in all the colonies of France was derived from the Romans, by whom the slaves were indulged with some property of their own, the reward of their industry and good behaviour, which was distinguished by the name of *peculium*.

appointed to exercise it was called the 'Commander.' This officer punished the offences of the man; should the wife be guilty, the whip was consigned to the husband, who might correct her in the presence of the 'Commander,' though it often happened that he pardoned her on the spot, and they departed perfectly reconciled. Notwithstanding their occasional disagreements, they were in general fond of each other, and discovered the most tender affection for their children. Such were the arts, such the manners, these simple people brought with them to the Mauritius." Of all the French writers on the Mauritius, St. Pierre is the only one, with the exception of M. Sonnerat, who has had the courage to touch upon the condition and treatment of the slave population. The enormities of the system were vividly delineated by him, for he witnessed some of the horrors of its middle age. A man, however, of noble descent, so philanthropic, and with a reputation already established, would be the last to exaggerate the cruelties of the system, had he not been himself an eye-witness of them; indeed, there was no attempt at concealment on the part of the planter, or even a desire of glossing over their enormities. This was perhaps well, else had hypocrisy been added to a catalogue of crimes fearful enough to consider. St. Pierre was kindly and hospitably treated by the planters in all cases, and described only the scenes which he had with his own eyes witnessed, in themselves sufficiently disgusting. An officer in the army, and for some time stationed at the Mauritius, he made the tour of the island, and had therefore the best of opportunities for seeing the working of the system. Had his statements then proved to be incorrect, or even exaggerated, numbers would have been found to expose his misstatements, both in the colony and in France. Such never having been the case, and other things being taken into consideration, we cannot but place the greatest reliance on his truthfulness. "Of the slaves," he says, "they are landed with just a rag round their loins. The men are ranged on one side, and the women on the other with their infants, who cling from fear to their mothers. The planter, having examined them as he would a horse, buys what may then attract him. Brothers, sisters, friends, lovers, are now torn asunder, and bidding each other a long farewell, are driven weeping to the plantations they are bought for. Sometimes they turned desperate, fancying that the white people intended eating their flesh, making red wine of their blood, and gunpowder of their bones. They were treated in the following manner:—At break of day, a signal of three smacks of a whip called them to work, when each betook himself with his spade to the plantation, where they worked almost naked in the heat of the sun. Their food was bruised or boiled maize, or bread made of manioc, a root for which we have no name in Europe. Their clothing, a single piece of linen. Upon the commission of the most trivial offence, they were tied hands and feet to a ladder, when the overseer approached with

a whip like a postillion's, and gave them fifty, a hundred, or perhaps two hundred lashes upon the back. Each stroke carried off its portion of skin. The poor wretch was then untied, an iron collar with three spikes put round his neck, and he was then sent back to his task. Some of them were unable to sit down for a month after this beating; a punishment inflicted with equal severity on women as on men. In the evening, when they returned home, they were obliged to pray for the prosperity of their masters, and wish them a good night before they retired to rest. There was a law in force in their favour called the Code Noir, which ordained that they should receive no more than thirty lashes for any one offence; that they should not work on Sundays; that they should eat meat[1] once a week, and have a new shirt every year; but this was not observed. For how could it be expected that the poor wretches who complained of its infringement could obtain redress from judges who were, perhaps, the tyrants under whose oppression they languished, and whose avarice withheld the food, rest, and rewards it decreed. But," said they, "these people are not to be restrained but by severities. Punishments must be inflicted; iron collars with three points, whips and fetters to their legs, and chains of iron for their necks must be made use of; they must be treated like savage beasts, or the white people could not live like men." From this principle, so grossly unjust, no consequences could be deduced but what were equally unjust and inhuman. Sometimes, when grown too old for labour, they were turned out to get their bread, where they could. One day he witnessed a poor creature who was nothing but skin and bone, cutting off the flesh of a dead horse to eat. It was one skeleton devouring another. "Nor did it suffice," says he, "that these poor negroes were victims to the avarice and cruelty of the most depraved of men, but they were also the sport of their sophistical arguments. Our priests told them, that the slavery of their present life would ensure them a spiritual liberty for ever in heaven. But the greater part were brought to the island at an age too advanced to learn French, and our missionaries did not understand the language of their country. Moreover, those who were baptized were not a jot better treated than the rest. I am concerned," he

[1] M. Sonnerat's words would here perhaps suffer by a translation. "L'habitant n'emploie jamais ses benefices à l'amelioration des terres. Les esclaves ne travaillent que nonchalamment, que peut on attendre d'un malheureux qu'on force à grands coups de fouets de rapporter l'intêret de ce qu'il coute! J'ai connu des maitres humains et compatissans, qui ne les maltraitent point, adoucissaient leur servitude mais ils sont en très-petit nombre. Les autres exercent sur leurs négres une tyrannie cruelle et révoltante. L'esclave, apres avoir travaillé toute la journée, se voit obligé de chercher sa nourriture dans les bois, et ne vit que de racines malfaisantes. Ils meurent de misere et de mauvais traitement, sans exciter le moindre sentiment de commiseration, aussi ne laissent ils pas êchapper l'occasion de briser leurs fers pour aller chercher dans les forêts l'independance et la misêre."

proceeds to say, "to see that philosophers, who enter the lists with so much alacrity to combat other abuses, scarcely speak of the slavery of the negro without a degree of pleasantry. It is a subject they seem desirous of avoiding. They dilate upon the massacre of Paris, as if the crimes of these days in which the half of Europe is concerned, either as principals or accessories, are not equal to them. Can they believe the iniquity of murdering a number of people of a different persuasion to ourselves to be greater than that of bringing misery and torments of the severest nature upon a whole nation to whom we are indebted for those delicacies which our luxury has rendered necessaries. When an European seemed afflicted at these sights, he was told he did not know the negro; that they were such gluttons as to steal victuals from the neighbouring houses; so idle that they took no manner of care of their master's business, nor performed what they were set about; that the women were totally inattentive to the affairs of their families, and so little concerned about children, that they had rather procure an abortion, than bring them into the world. The negroes were naturally lively, but after having been for some time in slavery became melancholy. Love seemed the only passion their sorrows would permit them to be sensible of. They did all in their power to get married, and if their own choice was suffered to take place, they generally preferred those who had passed the prime of their youth, who, they would tell you, made much better soup than the very young ones. They gave the wife all they possessed. If their mistress was the slave of another planter, they would go three or four leagues in the night to see her, through glens and thickets almost impassable. When under the influence of this passion, they were alike fearless of fatigue or punishment. Sometimes they appointed a rendezvous in the middle of the night, and under the shelter of a rock, danced to the dismal sound of a bladder filled with peas; but the approach of a white person, or the bark of a dog, immediately broke up the assembly. They had also dogs with them, and these animals knew perfectly, even in the dark, not only the white man, but the dog that belonged to him, both of whom they feared and hated, and howled as soon as they appeared. The dogs of the whites seemed on their parts to have adopted the sentiments of their masters, and at the least encouragement would fly with the utmost fury upon a slave or his dog."

St. Pierre goes on to observe, that "the caprices which the children of the whites were suffered from the earliest age to exercise upon the slaves to a degree of tyranny beyond all bounds, added to their ignorance all the depravity incident to the worst form of society in Europe. In short, the blacks were sometimes unable to endure their hard lot, and gave themselves up to despair. Some hung or poisoned themselves; others would get into the smallest boat, and without sails, provisions, or compass, hazard a voyage of nearly five hundred miles

to Madagascar, where they have been frequently seen to land, and, having been retaken, were sent back to their masters. He saw many of them hung, or broken alive: they went to execution with joy, and suffered without a cry. He once saw even a woman throw herself from the top of a ladder. On the quay, he has beheld them sometimes so overwhelmed with grief, that they have been unable to utter a cry, and would bite the cannon to which they were tied. They believed" (continues St. Pierre) "that the father of mankind was not unjust as men were. They used to say that before Europeans landed in their country they fought with sticks headed with iron, but that they had now been taught by them to kill each other at a great distance with fire and ball; that in order to procure slaves at a cheap rate, they fomented continual divisions among them; that formerly they followed the impulses of nature without fear of those grievous distempers with which they have since poisoned the constitutions of their women; that they suffered them to languish without clothes, without nourishment, and beat them inhumanly without reason." A female slave ran up to him one day, and, throwing herself prostrate at his feet, informed him that her mistress made her rise so very early every morning, and sit up so late every night, that she was almost wholly without sleep; and that, if overcome with fatigue she did chance to drop asleep, her mistress caused her lips to be rubbed with ordure, which, if she did not lick off, she underwent a whipping. A relief from this intolerable grievance was what she begged him to intercede for. He did so, and obtained his request. Intercessions of this kind were sometimes complied with, and the punishment was redoubled a few days after. He was witness to this conduct in the case of a councillor, whose blacks complained of him to the Governor, and he assured him on the morrow that he would have them fleaed from head to foot. Not a day passed without men and women having been whipped for having broken earthenware, for not having shut the door after them, or some such trifling reason, and when almost covered with blood, were rubbed with vinegar and salt to heal their wounds. He describes in another place a scene that he witnessed at the house of a creole lady, on whom he was paying a visit. Some of her dogs had commenced quarrelling with each other, and she ordered one of the negroes at hand to separate them. This not having been effected with the despatch she required, she inflicted a blow with a prickly shrub on the nearest dog, which sent it howling piteously away, and another on the bare back of the slave, which covered him with blood in an instant.

The eyes of the philanthropist might well be weary of seeing such sights, his pen of writing such a recital of horrors, and his ears of hearing their doleful moanings. "The sights to be seen on every side," says he, "were poor negro women bent over the spade, their children, the companions of their labour, flung at their backs.

Negroes passing trembling and shrinking before him. At times might be heard the sound of the tambourine afar off, but far more frequently the smacks of the whips, which echoed in the hills like the report of a pistol, and cries of 'Mercy! Master, mercy!' which at once struck on the ear and pierced the heart. If," proceeds he, "I seek a retirement, I find a country rugged, rocky, and mountainous, whose inaccessible summits retard the course of the clouds, and, breaking them, form torrents that rush into abysses equally horrible and tremendous. The winds that war in the deserts, the hollow dismal sound of the waves dashing upon the breakers, the sea before me, vast and extending to unknown regions, all combine to depress my spirits, and furnish me with ideas fit only for an exile and an outcast. Whether coffee and sugar are really necessary to the happiness of Europe is more than I can say, but those two commodities have brought wretchedness and misery upon two continents. One of these is depopulated that Europeans may have a land to plant them in, and another is stripped of its inhabitants for hands to cultivate them. It is thought more for our interest to cultivate the commodities we want on our own plantations, than to purchase them of our neighbours. But since carpenters, bricklayers, masons, &c., from Europe, can work in the open air exposed to the sun, why should not white men be employed in all sorts of labour? But what, then, would become of the proprietors of these lands? I answer, that they would become the richer by these means. An inhabitant would live at his ease were he to employ twenty Europeans; possessed of twenty slaves, he struggles in vain with an almost insurmountable poverty. So true it is, that without liberty, property and population must decrease, and that injustice and good husbandry are incompatible."

There is yet left a part of the slave population, or rather of that which was once, but now no longer predial, with whom we have still to deal. These were the Marons, or fugitive slaves, who preferred a struggle with hunger and misery in the forests, caverns, or mountains, to the direr alternative of slavery. The reader will remember that their existence was coëval with the Dutch occupation of the island, and that the annoyances to which the colonists were exposed by their incursions powerfully contributed in inducing them to abandon the island. The measures adopted by La Bourdonnais to effect their removal are detailed in another place; yet, though success attended his efforts, many still remained, who formed on his departure a source of accretion for the numerous refugees from French barbarity. The Malagash are said to have been most inclined to desert from their masters, and, incited by the love of liberty, to have retired into the most inaccessible woods and mountains, where, forming themselves into bodies, they attacked the plantations in which they had formerly been slaves. The mischief they occasioned was sometimes very destructive both to the planta-

tions and those who inhabited them. When impelled by hunger, neither domestic nor wild animals, not even the monkeys, escaped them, which they transfixed by means of a kind of short spear or javelin, which they threw to a considerable distance and with great dexterity. Numbers were taken or destroyed by the detachments of troops sent after them, but many still remained, and, from the ferocity of their character, were a subject of continual alarm and hostility to the planter who lived in the vicinity of the forests they inhabited. "When they were taken," says Baron Grant, "they were punished with the greatest severity, being treated as wild beasts, and shot whenever an opportunity offered; but what may appear perhaps as excessively cruel was the effect of dire necessity, as the French were naturally humane (?); and if very severe examples had not been made, they could not have lived in safety." "It is true," he continues, "that in general they contented themselves with pillaging what was required for their support, but they would sometimes accompany their plunder with fire and sword. The danger arising from their hostility was increased by the perfect knowledge they possessed of the plantations they had deserted. Besides, their old comrades and mistresses would frequently give them information of the most convenient opportunites for a descent, and second their designs. We did not, however, go in pursuit of them, till they invaded the plantations, or committed some crime which called for vengeance. They were then hunted down as obnoxious animals, and suffered in the same manner, a process which, cruel as it may seem, was absolutely necessary in point of policy. A longer absence from home than twenty-four hours might therefore be attended with very serious consequences; as the negro demanded the most attentive vigilance or very severe punishment: I chose to adopt the former regimen."

His humanity was, however, of no avail; for we find him complaining in a subsequent letter that the strongest of his negroes had deserted him[1] to join the Marons, who lived on the fruits of nocturnal rapine, and had been shot in one of his marauding

[1] The desertion of slaves was not confined to private individuals, for we find the following minute sent to the East India Company at home, for approval:— "By means of a numerous garrison, it is possible the desertion of the Company's slaves, by good management and shutting them up at night, may be prevented, and the attempts of the Madagascar blacks, who are termed freebooters, might, by forming good posts on the sea-shore and the interior of the island, be guarded against. Slaves may then be bought without hazard, and all agree that they can be had cheaper and better, and are more intelligent and laborious, and are sooner trained to all kinds of work than those procured elsewhere. The Company, thinking that the good of the service required that an entire jurisdiction over the blacks should be established, wrote to the Council at the island to employ such means as were necessary to engage the inhabitants to make detachments against them. They were promised 140 livres for every freebooter they destroyed, but that recompense not proving sufficient, M. Bouvet offered a slave at the Company's expense."

expeditions. "This black," says he, "cost me three hundred livres, and since the return of the Governor, slaves of his kind are sold for a thousand. This is a considerable loss in the first instance, besides the value of his labour, but we are consoled in these cases by the kind and ready assistance we receive from our friends and neighbours. We nevertheless experience difficulties of many kinds, for besides the augmentation in their price, disease, death, and flight deprive us of our negroes. We are allowed, however, to pay one-third of the sum in grain on receiving them, and credit is often extended over three years."

The same writer mentions another instance of the insecurity of life and property, so universal under the system of slavery, which happened with respect to his uncle and himself. Being informed of his absence, eight of the negroes entered into the apartment of his relative during the night. They deliberated for some time whether they should not murder him, but perceiving that he was asleep, they contented themselves with robbing him, as well as the baron, and among other things carried off his fire-arms and a barrel of powder. Enraged on his return at this daring act of plunder, the latter took a small detachment of soldiers with him, and remained six weeks in the forests and mountains in pursuit of them. He killed the first he met, who was on the point of employing his own arms against him. They captured the most dangerous of them, who had been guilty of several murders, and they suffered the punishment they deserved. One of them had been his huntsman, and had rendered himself so formidable throughout the island, that it was dangerous to frequent the roads in the neighbourhood of the woods, from an apprehension of this man and his band of companions.

We will conclude our description of their savage but picturesque mode of life, with an extract from St. Pierre, who met, in his tour round the island, with a troop of negroes armed with fusils, whom he perceived on a nearer approach to be a party sent out by the police of the island. They stopped when they came up to him. One of them had got two puppies, just whelped, in the shell of a gourd; another led a woman, tied by the neck with a cord made of rushes, which was the booty they had taken from a camp of Marons, which they had routed. They had killed one man, whose "grisgris" they showed him—it was a kind of talisman, made like a rosary. The poor negro-woman seemed overwhelmed with grief, and could answer none of the questions he asked her. She carried upon her back a bag made of vacoua, which he opened, and was horrified to find therein the head of a man. The conversation turned on the subject of the Marons, for one of his companions had met the party with the woman, who bore the head of her lover. Troops of two or three hundred at a time might still be seen in the environs of of Belombre, the part they approached, who elected a chief, disobedience to whose orders was punished with death. They were

forbidden to take anything from the houses in the neighbourhood, or to go to the side of the frequented rivers to seek for fish and other food. In the night they went down to the sea-side to fish, and in the day-time drove the deer or stags into the interior parts of the woods, with dogs trained to great perfection for this purpose. When there was but one woman in a party, she was reserved for the chief, but if there were many, they were in common. The children that were born were immediately killed, lest their cries should ever discover their retreat. The whole morning was spent in casting lots to presage the destiny of the ensuing day. They had an affection for each other, of which St. Pierre was furnished with a direct proof. He was informed by a planter that, being out hunting, he met a Maron, whom he pursued, had overtaken, and presented his gun at —it missed fire three times, upon which he was on the point of knocking him down with the butt-end, but was prevented by two negro women, who came out of the wood, and weeping, threw themselves at his feet. The black secured the opportunity to escape, but the planter brought the two generous creatures home with him, one of whom he showed to that officer. Another mode of desertion was practised by the Malagash, who had been rather accustomed to war than to labour, and whose desire of returning to their country employed all their thoughts. Though, to catch the wind, it was necessary to make a large circuit in coming from Madagascar to the Isle of France, "they seemed," says Baron Grant, "to have had an instinctive knowledge that the distance of their country was not in proportion to the length of the voyage, and would direct their hands to the point where it lay, and exclaim, in their corrupted French, 'ça blanc la li beaucoup malin; li couri beaucoup dans la mer là haut; mais Magascâr li là.'" This opinion sometimes incited them to undertake the most desperate actions, and they would make the most daring attempts to return to their home. Sometimes they would regard us with a most ferocious aspect, as they have adopted the belief, since the affair at Fort Dauphin, in their island, that the wine we drink is the blood of negroes. In their escape into the forests and mountains of the Isle of France, they would endeavour to get possession of a canoe or other small boat along the coast, wherever they could find it, and showed not only uncommon courage, but also address and activity in putting to sea. At other times they contrived to make a large pirogue or canoe, of a single tree, some of which are large in this island, and in one of these they would trust to the mercy of the waves, and attempt a passage to Madagascar, nearly five hundred miles distant, with a mere calabash of water and a few manioc or cassada roots. It has also happened that when they have found themselves too numerous for the canoe to contain them with safety, they would alternately embark and swim through the voyage. Though many of these adventurers were lost, some of them have been known, by the force of the currents and the

favour of the winds, which generally blew that way, to have regained their native land, having been recognised by French people who had seen them at the Mauritius. Sometimes they have even been known to make for the continent itself over the stormy and pathless ocean, and, though the majority perished, some succeeded. Such were the extremities these ill-fated beings resorted to, to escape from an existence absolutely insupportable. We now arrive at the third epoch of slavery in the Mauritius, which may be said to have commenced with the French Revolution, one of the chief aims of whose leaders was to accomplish its abolition.

The slaves, too oppressed to be insensible to a relief emanating from whatever quarter, evinced their satisfaction at the near approach of liberty, which was followed by a state of ferment, when by the veto of the planters a delay interposed to the accomplishment of the boon. In fact a difficulty of recent growth, and one arising from out of their own class, whose origin might be traced to that most inveterate and deeply-rooted of the human passions, the love of gain, presented an effectual impediment to the realization of their hopes. The mulattoes and freed blacks had already become an important constituent in the framework of colonial society, and the pride with which they viewed the holding their own people in bondage revolted, no less than their interests, at a measure which would evidently militate not only against their progressive advancement, but even against a retention of their actual position, and might. by the advance of the inferiors they despised, degrade a portion of their number. Accordingly they resisted the measure during the whole period of the revolution no less strenuously than the white planter, and displayed a most extraordinary vigilance and resolution in the repression of the slave population. The statements we have seen respecting what has now become the middle class, as well in the Mauritius as in the other tropical colonies, coincide in assigning them qualities which, morally considered, seem to partake of the defects incident both to the white and negro character; on the other hand, some of their number have displayed such a degree of thrift, activity, and industry, as to attract the favourable notice of the local government. Unlike the mulattoes, who owed their descent to the connection between the planter and his female slaves, they were indebted for their liberty to the favouritism of the planters, "from whose indulgence," says Baron Grant, "resulted so many inconveniences, that it was found absolutely necessary to abridge the power, and limit freedom to those alone who might have saved the lives of their masters." From the time of British occupation they had increased year by year, and during the first year in which the fees and taxes upon manumission had been abolished, nine hundred out of a population of sixty thousand nine hundred, were emancipated by the free will of their owners. The number continued to increase with the promulgation of several additional regu-

lations, tending to facilitate emancipation. The weak points in the character of the free coloured class are thus given :—

"The listless indolence, lazy pride, and gross immorality of this class can only be known by personal observation. Frequent attempts were made to procure the labour of the poorer of them upon the plantations; but in most cases their pride and insolence defeated the design, and they preferred a precarious subsistence by less creditable means. The conduct of the wealthier towards their slaves was harsh and severe, and they even surpassed the whites in discipline and cruel usage, every kind of torture short of murder being resorted to; and, strange to say, those who had once been slaves were always the most cruel masters. In 1826, the British Government for the first time interfered with slavery in the Mauritius. We find that the Malagash had lost nothing of the simplicity and fortitude ascribed to them by the early writers. Mr. Martin describes the slaves in general as having principally consisted of two races; the one from Mozambique and the eastern coasts of Africa, the other from Madagascar, where the lowlanders of the west coast were generally captured for the French islands; these he states to possess great strength, if personal appearance be a criterion, and to be of a bold, sometimes ferocious, and even vindictive appearance, but when well treated to have been faithful and hard-working. A more recent visitor observes that the slaves were still unclothed, with the exception of a piece of blue cloth round the waist, which hardly reached the knees. Long habit, however, lessened the disgust which first arose at so revolting a sight. At this time they were said to have been in a degraded condition, and great cruelties were even then exercised in the country, where there was little fear of detection. The female slaves had begun to display much finery; those who had long straight hair were very proud of it, and treated it with the greatest care, while those whose hair was woolly used their utmost efforts, by unwearied combing and oiling, to bring their rebellious locks into a state of discipline."

An officer of her Majesty's ship *Thunderer*, who visited Mauritius in 1840, in a brief description of the coloured races, says of the Malagash :—

"They were bareheaded, the hair twisted, and worked into snake-looking points, which stuck out, and had a most Medusa-like appearance, their only garment was a white cotton shirt worn as a flowing robe, similar to the Roman toga. They are a fine-looking race, and in this simple dress there is yet a noble mien around them."

They were as passionately fond as ever of their native land, to regain which they would still brave the greatest dangers, and even death itself, in the hope that when life had departed the spirit might return to its natal shore. Of the *sang froid* with which the

slave met death, when inspired with the hope of returning to his country, an instance occurred when Mr. Martin resided at the Mauritius:—

"For the purpose of being executed, a Malagash slave committed arson, and was sentenced to be beheaded. That gentleman accompanied his brother officers to visit him in prison; he appeared rejoiced at the near approach of the termination of his earthly career, and walked after his coffin a mile to the place of punishment, where a platform was erected with a slope upon which to ascend. Upon the platform was placed a broad plank on an inclined plane, about the length of the intended sufferer, and on either side stood two executioners in masks, dressed in a blood-red clothing, with large axes in their hands. The Malagash stood on the verdant earth, cast his eyes around, nodded joyfully to his comrades among the assembled crowd, pointed to that part of the heavens where his country was situate, then, with an enthusiastic expression, knelt for a moment on the grassy sod, stretched out his hands in mental prayer to the bright noonday sun, hastily arose, ran with alacrity to the platform, and stretched his body on the inclined plane. The one executioner quickly buckled two broad straps over the prostrate being; the other raised his arm, and within less than a quarter of a minute from the time that this brave man knelt on the beautiful earth in prayer to the glorious symbol of the Almighty, his bleeding and still animate head rolled from the scaffold, and his free spirit ascended where slavery has no control over our race! Who that possesses a Christian soul, but must rejoice that a system productive of such results has ceased for ever in the British empire?"

The general principle of improvement being now adopted, several humane regulations were brought into operation on the recommendation of the governor, Sir L. Cole, to the principal planters. The corporal punishment of female slaves was generally discontinued throughout the island, and the inhabitants gradually prepared for the ordinance of the governor in council on the 7th of February, 1829. By this charter of the slave population, many and most important benefits were proclaimed. In it was intimated the intention of the Government to make effectual provision for the religious instruction of the slaves. All proprietors were enjoined to cause their slaves to be baptized, and instructed without delay in the principles and observance of the Christian religion; the sanctity and privileges of the Sabbath were distinctly recognised, and a free toleration in attending religious worship was declared; the right to contract marriages was stated, and the separate sale of the husband and wife, and of their children under the ages of twelve or fifteen, was prohibited. Slaves were made competent to acquire stock, and to possess moveable or immoveable property. A savings bank was established as a means of preserving it, and they had free power to dispose of the same by wills or testamentary dispositions. An

opening was made for their elevation to the civil privilege of their evidence being admitted into the courts of justice, as soon as they were instructed in the nature and obligation of an oath. The most humane regulations were set forth respecting the mode and degree of punishment. The use of the carter's whip was expressly prohibited. Twenty-five lashes was the extent of punishment allowed in one day, nor could the chastisement be repeated while any unhealed sore or laceration remained. More than nine blows could not be inflicted until twenty-four hours at least had elapsed since the commission of the offence. Females could no longer be subjected to corporal punishments except by the direction of a court of justice or the protector of slaves, and no punishment was lawful unless witnessed by one free person, or at least six slaves. A correct register or record-book of all punishments, whether by the whip or imprisonment, was required to be kept by every proprietor, and he was liable to be called upon to swear to the truth of the same under a heavy penalty. The offence of any false or fraudulent entry, or of any erasure or destruction of the register, and in general any unlawful punishment or inhuman treatment of a slave, was declared to be a misdemeanor, and made the offender liable to a fine of 200*l*., six months' imprisonment, and the confiscation of the injured slave; nor was this all, for it was further ordained that in case any proprietor, manager, or overseer, should be convicted a second time before any court of justice of having inflicted, or caused to be inflicted upon any one or more slaves any punishment or treatment of an unlawful or inhuman nature, independently of the punishment such person might have incurred by law for such offence, the slave or slaves, the object of such offence, were to be declared by the courts as confiscated for the use of his Majesty;[1] and the person or persons was further declared incapable of owning or

[1] Crown slaves in Mauritius, in 1818, 1,200; annual charge, 4,000*l*. The Government slaves were those, who were either found the property of Government at the capture of the island, or such as afterwards became forfeited to the Crown. They were fed and clothed by the Government, and in sickness they received humane attention in the hospital. Some were employed in the various public departments as artificers, labourers, messengers, and others were hired out to private individuals at the ordinary price of the colony. Their children were usually bound as apprentices from seven to fourteen, after which period their services ceased to be gratuitous. The females who had families were allowed to attend to their children, some had also the charge of orphans. These slaves had a regular religious instruction. The apprentices at this time were the negroes rescued from slave ships since the abolition of the slave-trade, and were bound by the collector of customs for fourteen, and latterly for seven years, to individuals, who, by the indentures they signed, engaged to teach them a trade or occupation by which they might earn a livelihood, to provide them with all things necessary for their comfort, and to permit and encourage them to attend public worship. The slaves who had run away, or been guilty of any offences, were chained together in couples, and were employed in carrying water from house to house, or in drawing carts into Port Louis. The sound of their clanking chains is said to have been horrible.

possessing any slave within the Mauritius or its dependencies, or of acting as overseer or manager over any slave or slaves in any manner whatever. The weight of chains and burdens was restricted, and a sufficiency of food and clothing required to be given by the laws previously existing; but this ordinance secured to the slaves employed on agricultural labour a due time for rest, viz. one hour for breakfast, and two for dinner. And to enforce and crown the benefits of the ordinance, a person was nominated as the protector and guardian of slaves, who was thought most free from local influences and prejudices, and the duties of his office were distinctly explained and vigorously enforced. He had assistants resident in every district of the island, and a clear and explicit mode of prosecuting offences within his jurisdiction was provided and pointed out. The effect of these regulations was soon visible; and in a despatch to the Home Government, in 1826, Sir L. Cole used the following words, "I am gratified in being able to state, that, both from the information I have received and from my own observation, the treatment of the slaves has materially improved in this colony."

CHAPTER IV.

SOCIETY.

THE first French people who established themselves permanently in the Mauritius, were some husbandmen from Bourbon. They brought with them simplicity of manners, good faith, and confidence, a love of hospitality, and an indifference to riches. After Mahé de la Bourdonnais had rendered the island interesting by his labours, and it was thought a proper place to touch at in the passage to India, people of all ranks and conditions poured into it, among whom were the agents sent out by the French East India Company. The principal employments of the island being vested in their hands, they lived in a state approaching to that of the nobles at Venice, and to their aristocratical manners joined the business of financiers, then, as ever, prejudiced to the spirit of agriculture. Every appointment was at their disposal, and their power was alike absolute in trade as in judicial matters. Some of them cleared the land, and built houses, all of which they resold at a very high price to those who had ventured thither in the hope of advancing their fortune. A great outcry was raised at this, but the power was in their hands, and no redress from their exorbitant profits could be obtained. Several persons in the marine service of the Company

also arrived, who could not for a long time understand that the dangers and fatigues of the trade with India were to them in proportion as the honours or profits of it were to those for whom they laboured. As this settlement was so near India, a sanguine hope of advantage from fixing in it animated their minds, and they became its inhabitants. Their arrival raised great expectations, but they soon became discontented. The Company sent out a military force, some of the officers of which were of high birth. These could not stoop to intercourse with men who had been merchants' clerks, except to receive their pay, nor did they like the sailors, whose manners were too blunt and unpolished. Thus their pride standing in the way of their fortune, they continued as poor as when they left France. They were followed by some regiments of the King, many of whose officers, allured by the love of repose and the serenity of the climate, were induced to take up their abode in the island; but, as everything was at the disposition and submitted to the power of the Company, the subaltern met not with the distinction paid him in garrisons, while he was looked upon as an alien by the merchants. To complete the settlement of the island, an additional number of merchants arrived, with small capitals, who, finding the colony without commerce, augmented the abuses of money-jobbing, which they found already established, and employed themselves in forming petty monopolies, which soon rendered them obnoxious, and they acquired the name of "Banians," a name as much hated in the East as that of the Jews was formerly in Europe. On the other hand, they affected to despise any particular distinctions of rank, and were fond of propagating the opinion, that, after having passed the line, every man was equal to his neighbour. At length the war in India inundated the Mauritius with the scum of Europe and Asia. Bankrupts, ruined libertines, thieves, and wretches of every description, driven from the former by their crimes, and from the latter by the bad success of the French arms, attempted to re-establish their fortunes on the ruin of the public.[1] On their arrival, the complaints of the people were augmented; every character was now traduced

[1] The remarkable analogy existing between the early state of society at the Isle of France, as described by St. Pierre, and that at Corcyra at the outset of the Peloponnesian war will at once occur to every reader of Thucydides. A no less remarkable identity will be perceived in the causes from whence they originated, if allowance be made for the disparity in their respective stages of civilization. At Corcyra as at Mauritius, war had produced scarcity, and scarcity superinduced the classes that fatten rather on the wants and shortcomings, than the legitimate productions of new communities. Necessity in her turn adapted men to occasions, and hence arose passions secret or uncontrolled, which, as the historian rightly observes, are inconsistent with the healthy progress of peace and genuine prosperity, "for men are then better minded, because they are under no compulsion of doing anything against their will; but war, by taking away the free supply of daily necessaries, is a violent master, and conforms men's tempers to the present occasion."—*Καί τήν εἰωθυῖαν ἀξίωσιν τῶν ὀνομάτων, κ. τ. λ.—Thucydides, Lib.* 3. *Caps.* 82, 83, 84.

with an Asiatic ingenuity hitherto unknown to the calumniators of European society; no woman was now looked upon as chaste, nor any man as honest; all confidence and esteem were at an end. Thus by vilifying mankind they hoped to reduce them to their own level. All their expectations being founded upon a change in the administration, they at last effected their design. The Company yielded to the King, in 1775, a colony which had brought them nothing but trouble and expense. Order and peace were now expected to resume their sway, but the new Government only added fuel to the flame, for a number of persons were sent by authority from Paris to make their fortunes in an island then almost uncultivated, and where paper was the only currency. One part of the inhabitants, who were attached to the Company from gratitude, saw with pain the introduction of the royal jurisdiction: the other, who had reckoned on the favour of the new Government, when they saw it principally occupied in plans of economy, were proportionably chagrined and disappointed. To these new differences were added — the dissentions of bodies of men, who were continually at variance even in France,—the departments of the pen, the marine, and the sword. In short, the mind of every individual, being neither occupied by business nor amused by public entertainments, retired within itself to brood over its own disquietude. Discord reigned all over the island, and there was none of that love of society which might have been expected to prevail in a remote island at the end of the world. Each man wanted to make his fortune and leave. To have heard them talk (says St. Pierre) one would have supposed that the island would again become uninhabited; every man declared he would go away next year, and some announced this intention thirty years ago, but remained to say the same the year ensuing.

An officer from Europe soon lost here his military ardour. In general, he had but little money, and was in want of everything. His house was without furniture; provisions, when bought retail, were excessively dear, and he found himself the sole consumer between the merchants and inhabitants, who seemed to strive who should impose upon him most. This forced him to act on the defensive; buy by wholesale, and make the most of all opportunities for good bargains, every commodity having been of double value after the departure of the ships. The anxiety of providing for his family being at an end, another no less painful ensued. He tormented himself with the thought that he was an exile from his native land, and destined to remain, he knew not how long, in one destitute of every comfort and convenience. Want of employment and company, aided by the hopes of gain, allured him therefore to engage himself still further in that commerce, to which mere necessity at first drove him. The regiments furnished a considerable number of workmen, for the heat was not so excessive as to prevent

the white people from working in the open air, but they were not rendered so beneficial to the colony as they might have been by a better disposition of their labour. Among the recruits sent from Europe, there were frequently wretches capable of the most atrocious villanies, whose deportation from their native country, where their crimes had rendered them unworthy to remain, to a colony in an incipient state, could not fail to produce the most injurious results. Some of these unhappy culprits would frequently become so desperate, as to murder each other with their bayonets upon the most trifling occasion.

Though the seafaring people did but come and go, they had yet a great influence on the manners of the inhabitants. They delighted to complain alike of the places which they had left, and of those at which they arrived. They would constantly remind people that their lucky *hour* had *passed* by without their having taken advantage of it, a *proposition* to which the latter demurred, *principally* on the ground that they had found it *perpetual*. The truth was, they had always bought too dear, and sold too cheap, and saw ruin, where they could not clear a hundred and fifty per cent. A cask of claret, for instance, cost one hundred and fifty livres, and everything else was in proportion. It will scarcely be deemed credible that European goods were dearer here than in India, and Indian goods dearer than in Europe, and yet the seamen were much regarded by the inhabitants, who could not have lived without them. Their murmurings, and perpetual going to and fro, gave the island all the bustle of an inn. From such different conditions resulted, as it were, a people of different nations, each hating one another. Probity and honour were in no esteem. The cunning man was here the man of wit. On the other hand, mistrustful and wary people were disliked: the reason was, there was less to be got from persons on their guard, by whom their arts might be detected. They were quite insensible to the happiness of a generous mind, had no taste for literature and the arts, but deeply regretted their absence from the opera and the women of Paris. Every sentiment of humanity was here depraved, if not extinct. St. Pierre was once at the funeral of a wealthy merchant, but saw no signs of affliction; his brother-in-law indeed remarked that they had not dug the grave deep enough. This indifference extended to all about them. The married people in the town were very few. Those, who were not rich, gave that as their excuse for remaining single; others said they would not settle till they had returned to France, but the true reason was that they seldom met with a repulse upon the negro girls. Besides, there were very few good matches for the men, ten thousand francs being a fortune but seldom heard of. The greater part of the married people lived on their plantations, and the women scarcely ever came to town but to a ball or to confess at Easter. They were passionately fond of dancing, and no sooner was a ball announced, than

they would come in crowds, borne in their palanquins from every quarter. There were as many of these vehicles in a family, as there were children, and each was attended by eight blacks. The husbands, who were more prudent and economical, were averse to these excursions, which were a great hindrance to the business of the plantations, but the roads were so bad, (where there were any) that wheel carriages were of no use. The women, who were very numerous, had but little colour, but were well made, and in general handsome.[1] Nature had given them a great flow of wit and vivacity, and, if they had been better educated, they would have been most agreeable companions, but some were so ignorant as to be unable to read. At their meetings they were reserved and silent, as each brought with her some secret pretensions, either from the fortune, employment,[2] or birth of her husband, while others reckoned upon their youth or beauty. An European looked with disdain upon a Creole, who in her turn looked upon the former as an adventurer. In spite of the scandal, which was ever speaking to their prejudice, they were more deserving than the men, who neglected them for the black slaves. Such of the women as were really virtuous were the more to be commended, as it was not by their education that they were so. They had at once to combat with the heat of the climate, the indifference of their husbands, and the prodigality and ardour of the young officers skilled in seduction and regardless of repulse ; if then they ever failed in fidelity to the marriage vow, blame was to be ascribed to those who had introduced the manners of France on the shores of Africa. In other respects they had many good qualities; were domestic, sober, (seldom or never drinking anything but water) and clean in their habits. Their ordinary dress, which was of fine muslin, lined with rose or other coloured taffetas, was neat and becoming. They were very fond of their children, who ran about the house almost naked very soon after they were born, never being put into swaddling clothes, but were frequently bathed, and allowed to eat fruit at their discretion. As

[1] Admiral Kempenfelt observes under this head, that both men and women were strong and well made, and the latter were so numerous from the disinclination for marriage prevalent among a part of the population, that every artificer, workman, and soldier had a wife, who were very fruitful—a circumstance, which he imputes to the salubrity of the climate, and their regard for moderation and temperance. They were fond of continual exercise, and were bold equestrians. In the beauty and elegance of their shape he held them to surpass the women of old France.

[2] It was remarked by a person who visited the Mauritius, towards the latter end of the last century, that the inhabitants of the Mauritius, who were mostly exiles from France, were neither so independent in their circumstances nor so easy in their minds, as those of Bourbon, though they affected more dress and gaiety, and had better houses and furniture. Every third person you met of a fair complexion wore at his button hole the order of St. Louis. The people of Bourbon were likewise held in contempt by the poor noblesse of the Mauritius on account of their ignoble extraction.

they were left entirely to themselves, and were uncontrolled by the superintendence of education, they soon became strong and robust. The puberty of both sexes appeared early. Girls were married at eleven years old. This abandonment of their nurture to nature left the children ignorant to an extreme, while the vices of the negro women, which they imbibed with their milk, added many of the defects of that unfortunate race.

Some children were sent to France for education, but returned with vices perhaps more amiable, but nevertheless more dangerous. There were at this time about four hundred planters in the island, and about a hundred women of condition, few of whom lived in the town. The evening was their time for visiting, but for want of conversation they soon grew tired of each other or gamed. At eight o'clock the evening gun was fired, when all retired home. To an existence thus profitless and monotonous, there were, nevertheless, some remarkable exceptions. St. Pierre depicts a scene of the interior, where innocent happiness and rustic simplicity were for once congenially associated, and seemed to derive additional lustre from the heartlessness and demoralization of the community, with which they stood in so singular a contrast. It will appear to the reader the more remarkable, as its principal features would seem to belong to a pioneer settlement in Australia or North America, rather than to that of an island in the tropics. "We were met," says he, "by a black belonging to M. Normand, whose house, from which we were a quarter of a league distant, we proposed to make our quarters for the night. As we went down the hill, another negro approached us with water, and informed us that we were impatiently expected. We found the house to be a long building, formed of palisadoes, the roof of which was covered with the leaves of the latanier. There was only one room, in the middle of which was the kitchen, at one end the stores, and here the servants slept; at the other was the bed of the planter and his wife, which was covered with a cloth by way of tester, upon which a hen was sitting; under the bed were some ducks; pigeons harboured among the leaves of the roof, and at the door were three dogs. All the implements both of the house and field were hung against the walls. What was my surprise at finding the mistress to be both a handsome and genteel woman. Both she and her spouse were persons of condition in France. They had come here years before to seek their fortune, and had quitted kindred and father-land for a spot where nothing was to be seen but the sea and the frightful cliffs of the promontory of Brabant; but the air of contentment and good-nature about the young mother of a family seemed to make everybody happy who came near her. She gave suck to her youngest child, while the other four stood around her playful and contented. Supper time having arrived, everything the house afforded was served up with the utmost propriety. This meal appeared a very agreeable

one to me. I could not help being struck with the sight of the pigeons fluttering about the table, the children at play with the kids of the goats, and such a variety of animals in perfect agreement with this amiable family, and with each other. Their peaceful sports, the solitude of the place, the murmurs of the sea, all combined to present to my imagination a picture of those times when the children of Noah descended upon a new earth, and began afresh to partake of the domestic enjoyments to which they had so long been strangers. After supper I was shown to my lodging room, which was a little hut, newly built of wood, about 200 paces from the house. The door was not yet put up, but I closed the opening with the boards of which it was made, and laid my arms in readiness, the Marons being very numerous in these parts. The next day I took leave of this hospitable house, and its amiable and excellent mistress. Her husband accompanied me part of the way. He was a very robust man, and his arms, legs, and face were exceedingly sun-burnt. He worked himself in the plantations, as well in cutting down as in clearing away trees. Nothing gave him concern, he said, but the ill health his wife brought upon herself by bringing up her children, and that she had lately added to the fatigue by taking upon her the charge of an orphan. He told me only his grievances ; for he could not but perceive how sensible I was of the happiness he enjoyed. Eight negroes were attached to the plantation."

The French revolution, by means of which every existing institution of society was uprooted in the metropolis, threatened for a brief period to produce similar results in the Mauritius, but its evils being providentially averted, it proved in the end to be highly beneficial by weeding the colony of the miscreants who had so long polluted its integrity. Many of the old noblesse of France, whose ruin, originating with the failure of the schemes of Law, had been nearly consummated by the proscriptions of the revolution, weary of the scenes exhibited in their native country, sought shelter and repose in this agreeable retreat. Previous to this, blood had been frequently shed in the streets of St. Louis, which had resounded night and day with the clashing of arms, while the solitudes of the country too often echoed the cry of murder. The children might then be seen whetting their knives to kill "the enemies of liberty," as they were taught to express themselves. Robbery was committed, houses entered and plundered, all under the name of liberty. The inhabitants have yet a vivid recollection of the injuries and excesses perpetrated by the French soldiery, which the peaceful and orderly deportment of the British troops has now happily effaced from the profession of arms. One of these is mentioned as having been accompanied by some peculiar circumstances of atrocity. A French officer, having attempted the seduction of a planter's wife, was rejected with scorn. Stung with resentment and the hatred that succeeded to a denial of his passion, he availed himself of the husband's absence to concoct

and execute a scheme for burning the house, together with its innocent inmates. The wretch he employed for the purpose was observed, convicted, and executed; but the colonel, from the dread which the military had inspired, succeeded in setting the laws of the island at defiance, and, to complete the tragedy, was challenged on his return by the husband, whom he also slew. The British officers, engaged in the capture of the island in 1811, speak with enthusiasm of the politeness and hospitality with which foreigners were received by the inhabitants, and of the cordiality and mutually unaffected kindness existing in their society. They describe the men as well made, and the number of elegant females as surprising. They were remarkably handsome, and had most engaging manners. The supposed reigning vice was gallantry. The affability and cheerfulness so prevalent amongst them, they attributed to the clear sky and fine scenery, rendered still more agreeable by the salubrity and softness of the air.

To obtain a correct view of the existing, or at least more recent state of society, it will be necessary to trace the course of events subsequent to the capture of the island by Great Britain, for on it hangs the key to those passions and prejudices by which the amicable intercourse between the higher classes, English and French, so mutually beneficial, has been till recently interrupted. During the wars of the revolution, intercourse with Europe was both dangerous and unfrequent: the exportation of its products had ceased, and commerce supported alone by the prizes snatched from the hands of its enemy too sensibly languished: yet the colony remained faithful to its engagements, for its wants were few, and it still retained its ancient simplicity. With the return of peace returned also prosperity; its coffee and sugar met with a brisk demand in Europe; and the price advanced in an equal proportion. Plantations were considerably extended, new ground was turned up, land rose immensely in value, and with it luxury, so fatal to the interests of young communities. At first its steps were silent, and it followed in the train of fortune, but it gradually outran the means by which it had been supported: numerous and brilliant equipages brought at a great expense from England and the Cape of Good Hope, whirled along the streets, or traversed in all directions the roads which now wound along the mountains where erst was seen the modest palanquin: vast houses luxuriously furnished, replaced in all parts of the isle the old and more humble habitations: and that passion for hazardous speculations, which had brought such catastrophes on the commercial cities of Europe, now crossed the seas and sought for new victims in the colonies, whose inhabitants were but too disposed to follow its dangerous illusions. A species of dizziness seemed to have seized on the inhabitants of Bourbon, and the Mauritius, to which a crowd of fortune-hunters, driven from Europe by the deranged state of their affairs, flocked and augmented the evil. A re-

action necessarily ensued, and a monetary crisis followed, which for a long time prostrated the colony and brought ruin on some of the oldest families, by causing a transfer of their estates already overburdened to their creditors. Time has, however, not only brought things back to their former level, but has witnessed yet greater improvements; and it is no exaggeration to state that society in the Mauritius approaches nearer to the European standard, than it does in the majority of the British colonies.

CHAPTER V.

EDUCATION.—RELIGION.—OFFENCES.—AMUSEMENTS.

Of all the important functions left to be discharged by the government of a country, perhaps the superintendence of education ranks second to none in the responsibility attached to its directors, or its influence on the morals and wellbeing of the whole community. If this position is held to be incontrovertible in reference to an old country, where its own limits have been fixed to each class of society, which it requires a superior intelligence to pass; where an identity of race produces in great measure an identity of feeling; and where the conduct or example of the parent acts as a warning or encouragement to his offspring; what must be its necessity, and how great the activity, prudence, and intelligence, required in its direction, in a country emerging from the grossest barbarism, so far as the larger proportion of its inhabitants is concerned, with an upper class still to be instructed in the refinement of European humanity with an intermediate class but lately formed, composed of the most heterogeneous materials, and too frequently disposed to dispense to those accidentally placed in its power a measure of the same cruelty it may have suffered in a similar position? Nor, harsh though the outlines of such a picture may appear, are they at all softened by the existence of a commixture of races; each possessing its own language, religion, habits, ideas; all adding their common share to the difficulties of an efficient system of instruction. These complexities which have sprung for the most part out of the confusion in which the Mauritius was involved by the abolition of slavery, and have been renewed more recently by an urgent demand for labour, had, it is true, no existence at an earlier period; but it was hardly to be expected that the generation of planters, anterior to the abolition of slavery, would be prepared to permit the education of the negro, or, if they had permitted it, would assist in an object so calculated to elevate him above the bestial form in which he appeared to his humane

master. It was hardly to be expected that the man who permitted a reckless ferocity to prevail over the certain gain which a greater degree of mercy in the bodily treatment of his slave would have secured, would be induced, by a conviction of the marked superiority education gave him in both a mental and physical point of view, to allow any part of his time to be devoted to so useful a purpose. We shall not wonder, then, that the slave remained without any alleviation of his mental darkness, save from the fragments of instruction to be picked up on the casual visits of the minister of religion. Here, however, ceased not the injustice. The animus with which the "ordonnance" on public instruction, passed by the colonial legislature in 1835, was framed, is far from placing its originators in the amiable light which reason and policy alike dictate as the guide of their conduct for the future.

Art. 1.—"Public Instruction is placed under the protection of Government; its direction and superintendence is confided to a committee to be called 'The General Committee of Public Instruction of thirteen members.'"

Art. 3.—"Requires teachers of private schools to obtain the previous sanction of Government, and to renew this permission, which may be withdrawn on report of the committee of instruction."

Art. 4.—"Punishes keeping school without permission with a fine not exceeding 20*l.* sterling, and with closing of the school."

Art. 5.—"Requires a prospectus or programme of the studies, discipline, terms, management to be communicated to the committee of instruction, and makes teachers liable to be examined by committee."

NOTE BY THE COMMITTEE ON NEGRO APPRENTICESHIP IN THE COLONIES.

"The provisions of this Act, however conformable they may be with the laws of France, are inconsistent with the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty, and may seriously interfere with missionary and other efforts for the education and religious instruction of the negro."

Such having been the disposition of those who from their station in the colony might have been expected to cherish any plan, which had for its object the amelioration of their humbler fellow-countrymen, the fact of the labouring population in the Mauritius having been far behind every other British colony, so far as the present and future means of education are concerned, will scarcely elicit surprise. The evil appears, however, in all its intensity in the examination of Sir G. Grey, the then under secretary for the colonies, before the select committee of the House of Commons on negro apprenticeship in the colonies.

Q. 5611. Mr. Buxton.—"Are you aware of the number of per-

sons amongst the 70,000 negro population in the Mauritius, who are capable of reading the scriptures?" "I have seen a statement of their number, which is, I believe, a correct one, but I do not recollect the particulars at this moment. A very large proportion are unable to read: I believe they are in an extremely ignorant state."

Q. 5612.—"Are you aware that the Bible Society offered to give a Bible to all those that could read, and that the West Indies supplied nearly 100,000 applicants for this gift, but that in the Mauritius there could be found only ten of the negro population who could read the Testament?" "I was aware of the fact of the Bible Society having offered a Bible or Testament to those who could read; but I was not aware that the number in the Mauritius who were able to avail themselves of it was so small. But I think the offer on the part of the Bible Society was not a present offer at the time it was made, but to those who might read at a future date."

Q. 5614.—"Are you aware of another letter from the same quarter, stating that there was in the Mauritius a district comprehending 30,000 negroes, in which there was no school, and no place of worship whatever?" "No; the statement I have seen was placed in my hand by a lady connected with the Mauritius, which she had received from Mr. Le Brun, the agent of the London Missionary Society in that colony. I have read the statement, but I have not got it by me now; but I know the general impression it left upon my mind is, that the means of instruction were extremely inadequate to the wants of the population in the Mauritius, and that the negro population there was in a state of great ignorance.

Q. 5615.—"Do you not consider, especially with reference to the extreme want of education in the Mauritius, that is a matter of first-rate importance at this time to provide means of education for the people?" "I certainly think it is; I do not know anything of greater importance with reference to the future condition of the negro population throughout our colonies. I think facilities exist for the promotion of education from the disposition generally shown on the part of the negroes to avail themselves of opportunities of education when offered them."

In a review of the means of education possessed by the Mauritius, the schools belonging to the white population will necessarily claim the largest share of our attention both from their number, date of foundation, and comparative efficiency. Up to the end of the eighteenth century, education was grievously neglected, and the larger proportion of the schools have been opened since 1830. St. Pierre, in his description of the state of Society contemporaneous with his visit to the island, states that the greater part of the women, though in the full possession of their national wit and vivacity, were deplorably deficient in more solid attainments, while others were so ignorant as to be unable to read. These imperfections are said to have remained up to a more recent period, and, though highly

finished in their manners, they are not considered well informed. Female education is far too superficial, and more attention is directed to a proficiency in the arts of personal attraction, than the more useful, because more durable, accomplishments of the mind. Long and tedious as is the voyage, the youth of both sexes, where their parents are in a state of affluence, have of late been sent either to England or France to finish their education; by this means a rapid improvement may be reasonably expected. There are ten private schools in Port Louis devoted to female education; three at Mahebourg. The former containing from six hundred to six hundred and fifty, the latter from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and eighty pupils. There are also five schools for infants of both sexes, in which the number of pupils ranges from two hundred and eighty to three hundred. Although the anomalous state of society before alluded to, for a long time forbade any attention to the educational requirements of the colony, yet the Royal College was founded by a decree of the Colonial Assembly so early as 1791, at the first outbreak of the French revolution, whose principles were soon extended to the island. In 1799 it was transferred to a larger structure at Vauxhall. A violent hurricane in 1824 blew from its foundation this apparently solid building, leaving it a complete wreck. The college has since been rebuilt on a plan better adapted to a country open to periodical returns of such dreadful visitations, and the superstructure, which was formerly of wood, has been exchanged for stone. The institution was for a long time unique among the European colonies in Asia and Africa, and such was the reputation of its professors that it numbered nearly four hundred pupils, and a constant influx of youth from the adjacent countries bore testimony to the excellence of its system. During this period it sent forth some men distinguished for their talents both in the colony and France. But the foundation of similar establishments in neighbouring countries, and the peace, which brought with it a desire for the more varied instruction of Europe, joined to the institution of a number of private or inferior schools, have had the effect of diminishing the number of pupils, and to some extent the efficiency of the school.[1]

[1] The causes of this diminution in the number of pupils would seem, according to the local press, to have arisen from the supposition that the English language had been made the medium of communicating instruction, while the French had been neglected; the kind of abandonment into which the Roman Catholic religion has been allowed to fall in that establishment, which is almost entirely composed of pupils professing that mode of worship, and the imperfect knowledge of French possessed by the rector. One means of giving an impulse to the propagation of the English language and manners recommended by the Committee of Public Instruction in their Annual Report, viz. the selection of one or two of the best pupils at the close of the year by the Governor with a view of sending him to England to finish his education, would doubtless be productive of the best results, and prove a far greater stimulus than any hot-bed system of compulsion.

The course of instruction and general management is subject to the approval of the Committee of Public Instruction of thirteen members, who possessed a general control over all the schools in the island, until the proposition, which has been adverted to in another part of this chapter, having been submitted to the Government at home for approval, had the effect of so completely convincing the Colonial Secretary of the unfitness of the committee; that their power[1] was limited for the future to the charge of this institution, in which their own and children of a similar rank are instructed. The departments of education are presided over by fifteen professors or masters, most of whom are from Europe, and are well qualified for their various duties. A general supervision over the whole is exercised by the principal, late of Trinity College, Dublin, who has been substituted for a French rector, and though he is distinguished by his general attainments, he has rendered himself extremely unpopular by his intolerance in religious matters, and is said have been in no small degree the cause of hastening a decline, which natural causes had already commenced. The number of pupils does not, according to the most recent information, exceed one hundred and eighty, while it is stated at two hundred and forty in 1843. The privileges of the institution are shared by three classes. "The Pensionnaires," "Demi-pensionnaires" and "Externes." The former pay twenty piastres per month, a sum far from excessive, when the high price of provisions is considered. The two latter pay in proportion. The college was endowed by General Decaen, and is otherwise maintained by a small annual grant from the colonial legislature with the sums received from the pupils. There is a preparatory school for youth intended for the college. Besides this institution, there are four other public schools. The "Mauritius Academy," the "College of St. Louis," the "Colonial Academy," and the "English and French Academy," which, if possessing inferior pretensions, are no less useful to the classes for which they were designed, than the former. These contain four hundred and eighty pupils under the care of thirty-six masters or lecturers.

There are also eight private schools, containing nearly four hun-

[1] The committee in their report for 1844, express their regret at the order in council of 1836, and the abolition of the monopoly of teaching. According to them, a man only commenced a school, when he has failed, perhaps deservedly, in every other pursuit. Formerly, it had been their duty to inquire into the fitness and character of persons making an application to open a school. As regards the substitution of English for French in the Royal College, the committee observe that the majority of the planters approve of it, as they are desirous that their children should by all possible means learn a language, which they know must be one of the first steps towards their advancement, but they disapprove of it in the case of the younger children, and think that in the present position of the community, where in not one family out of a hundred the English language is spoken, to teach exclusively this as the medium of language, would be to arrest instead of to promote it.

dred pupils. A school of mutual instruction, opened in 1833 by the colonial committee, numbered ninety pupils on its commencement; but, from the prejudices entertained by the parents of the white children against those of a different colour, it has since been reduced to fifty. There is also a night and Sunday school. The wants of the country districts are supplied by three or four professors, who give lessons in private families. It will be observed, by a reference to the statement annexed to this head, that the schools in connection with Lady Mico's charity are at present the chief instruments employed in the education of the labouring population of the island. This charity, as stated in a report made to the Secretary of State in 1838, has for its object the religious and moral instruction of the negro, and coloured population of the British colonies. It was established in 1835 to meet the destitution prevailing in the West Indies as regarded education, and was soon after extended to the Mauritius. The system adopted is founded on the catholic basis of the British and Foreign Schools, and the society has seen no reason as yet to doubt the efficacy of a principle which, while it recognises the Scripture as its foundation, steers clear of exclusive or party peculiarities. But the desire by which the trustees were influenced of combining religious instruction and moral training with the general enlightenment of the native mind, was encumbered with many and serious difficulties, arising from the difference of opinion prevailing on the subject of religion; and the perfect apathy of the parents as regards the inestimable advantages of education to their children, who, in most cases, thought they conferred a great favour on the teacher by permitting their children to attend school. These, however, by a mixture of prudence and good feeling, have been gradually overcome; and notwithstanding the distance of the colony from Europe, its language, the natural indisposition of the children to submit to the restraint of a school-room, and the great expense of residence, with other considerations, presented some formidable obstacles; they were at length surmounted, while the society has had reason to congratulate itself on a success reaped amid such untoward circumstances. They have also endeavoured to prosecute their labours in all cases in the more destitute localities, so as not to interfere with any of the educational bodies, unless when specially invited to such places by the friends of education. The children of the coloured population, who were formerly quarrelsome and disorderly, are now, wherever they have come within the scope of the society's efforts, reduced to a wholesome state of discipline and feeling, and are no longer the savages they were a few years ago, while the adult scholars have given evidence of a similar happy result by displaying a desire for the marriage-state. The principle of exemption from payment, introduced in the schools in connection with other bodies, has to some extent operated injuriously to the

interests of the society, for the trustees, from the very first, judiciously determined on a modified system of payment, which, while it should prevent the privileges it offered from becoming too cheap, might hold out a reasonable prospect of self-maintenance at no distant period. The result has fully justified these expectations; and the friends of education will have to look to this quarter principally for the support of schools which the society will be shortly compelled to abandon. The trustees were fortunate enough to obtain the assistance of the Rev. Mr. Le Brun, a long-tried friend of the coloured population, in their early labours, and the Rev. Mr. Le Joux was added, when they assumed a more comprehensive character.

The great expense necessarily attendant on the introduction of European teachers, and the sufferings to which they are often exposed from a tropical climate, early suggested the propriety of training native teachers as the most effectual means for the furtherance of education in the colonies. They have accordingly regarded this department of primary importance, devoting great care to the selection of efficient superintendents. To attain these ends the normal pupil is lodged and supported at the expense of the charity in an institution adapted for the purpose, and is provided with the means of acquiring a practical as well as theoretical acquaintance with the duties of a schoolmaster in all its details of moral, intellectual, and physical training. This department is not, however, limited to this object. The doors of the institution are thrown open to all, and numbers of the free-coloured population have benefited by the opportunity. The Rev. Mr. Le Joux is director. There are ten schools, three at Port Louis, and seven in the country, including Mahebourg, containing about seven hundred children. Success had thus far attended the labours of the society, and it had prepared to devise means to meet the influx of Indian, Chinese, and Mahomedan labourers, when its efforts were suddenly paralysed from an unexpected quarter. It will be remembered that, upon the cessation of slavery through the British colonies, Parliament voted two sums of 25,000*l.* each for the furtherance of education among the apprentices, and 5,000*l.* for the establishment of normal schools. The Mico charity, as one of the principal educating bodies, obtained a large share of this fund, by means of which they were enabled to extend the ramifications of the society to a considerable extent. In 1841 the trustees received a communication from the Secretary of State, announcing the gradual withdrawal of this grant, and the transference to the local legislature of the duty of raising the necessary funds for public education. They have been, therefore, compelled to abandon almost the whole of their schools in the West Indies (as the interest arising from the property of the Mico trust does not exceed 3,600*l.*), reserving to the latest possible period the relinquishment of the more destitute colony of Mauritius and the Seychelles. The manner in

which Government propose to effect the withdrawal of the above-mentioned grant, and the causes thereof, are fully detailed in the correspondence contained in the Appendix. The London Missionary Society has four educational establishments at Port Louis, superintended by two ministers and four native teachers, with four hundred scholars. They are also about to erect a school in the district of Moka, and give a cheering account of the aptitude for instruction manifested by the native youth, means being only wanted to establish schools to an indefinite extent. The Church of Rome has two girls' schools, one at Port Louis, the other at Mahebourg; the former averages fifty, the latter twenty-five scholars. The Bishop of Ruspa is now in England for the purpose of raising funds and teachers for the establishment of others. The Societies for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge and the Propagation of the Gospel have each contributed largely to the erection and outfit of schools; and the latter has two schools at Port Louis, and four in the country districts, with upwards of five hundred children on their books.

The Government has now five flourishing schools at Port Louis, one at Pamplemouse, one at Grand Rivière, containing three hundred and fifty-three boys and four hundred and ninety-two girls. A school has been established at Reduit, containing forty-three children, instructed at the expense of the Government. Thus, while ten years ago there were but four schools, viz. the two supported by Government and two by the London Missionary Society, there were at the close of 1845 thirty-two schools, most of them in active operation. Four thousand pounds are now also voted out of the colonial chest for educational purposes.

A proposition was made to Government some years ago by a portion of the free-coloured population, which had for its object the foundation, at their own expense, of a college for the instruction of their children in the various branches of learning, who are neither the associates of the white creoles, nor are admitted into the schools of the white population. Although such a concession appears at first sight highly reasonable, yet, on more mature consideration, it would seem to be a questionable policy, which, in place of cementing the connection gradually forming, if left to itself, would create a still broader line of demarcation. Perhaps the more prudent course would be to leave to time the accomplishment of an object which, however desirable, is at present surrounded by difficulties.

Gloomy, then, as were the prospects of education in the Mauritius a few short years ago, the clouds which hung over the island are on every side breaking, and create expectations of a brilliant future. But, great as has been the increase in the erection of schools and the number of scholars, it must still be recollected that the latter (allowing for the most recent additions) do not exceed

three thousand five hundred among a population of no less than one hundred and seventy-five thousand souls: much, therefore, remains to be done, especially among the labouring population lately introduced. Amidst the general improvement, the superior education now so eagerly sought after by the white population cannot rightly be overlooked. Many of these are constantly seeking the shores of England and France in quest of those finished attainments denied them in the limited sphere of a colony. They are generally held to possess good natural talents, and, though somewhat neglected, evince great aptitude for instruction. Here they will see the world on a larger scale, will arrive at a clearer notion of the relative duties of masters and servants, which cannot be abrogated by colour. They will view the progress of English agriculture perfect as compared with their own, will acquire a notion of economising labour—an object of paramount importance,—and with the English language will carry back English feelings, which, by their elevating the tone of society in the colony, will oppose the most effectual barrier to the formation of local and narrow-minded prejudices. The education of the *ci-devant* slave population will, by the cessation of the parliamentary grant, and the consequent withdrawal of the Mico schools, have to be provided for the future out of a grant of money from the colonial legislature. This, though an apparent evil, will most probably prove conducive to the best interests of education. Another parliamentary grant would have given a permanency to the insensibility hitherto manifested by the planter towards the improvement of the labourer; while a vote from the island legislature will have the effect of exciting his attention to a subject with which he will have a more intimate connection. Nor should a grant be otherwise than cheerfully conceded by those who, from the proceeds of taxes paid in part by the *ci-devant* slave, have imported no less than fifty-six thousand foreigners as his competitors in the labour market. The subject, however, is important in more views than one; there is danger of a collision between uneducated races, each ignorant of the customs and feelings of the other; there is impolicy in suffering a generation of freemen to remain in the same ignorance as their simple forefathers. Education, moreover, will enable the labourer to perceive and maintain his position and rights as a free British subject, while the sums devoted to its furtherance will most likely be but a transfer of those otherwise devoted to prosecutions or the punishment of crime.

Religion.—The progress of religion in the Mauritius, like that of education, has been so slow, as to be scarcely perceptible. The first French settlers, who came from the neighbouring island of Bourbon, were men possessed of simple habits, with a love of hospitality and an indifference to riches. Availing themselves of this simplicity, the missionaries of St. Lazarus, who arrived at an early period, exercised for some time an uncontrolled dominion over their minds, but when

the body of the people became augmented by a different class, who dispersed themselves over the island, the former were contented with an attendance to the more immediate functions of the pastoral office. The duties of religion were, with few exceptions, wholly neglected by the new settlers, nor were the wants of the negroes better cared for. These, though baptized by the priests and *instructed* that they had become the brethren of their white masters by the rite, with the prospect of a paradise to be more than compensatory for their tortures here, found some difficulty in believing that Europeans could ever be instrumental in such an object, seeing they were the cause of all their sufferings on earth. The misery of their condition led these men to have a firm belief in the doctrine of predestination, so that, whether braving the perils of the deep in the fragile pirogue, or exposed to the malignity of the white man on land, they were influenced by a tranquillity of mind to which the philosophy of the latter could never attain. As may be expected, the state of religion excited no attention during the commotions of the French revolution, but rather retrograded. Since the capture of the island by Great Britain, a general religious toleration has been observed. Previous, however, to the enfranchisement of the negro, and even during his apprenticeship, every possible hindrance was offered to his religious instruction by the planter. The latter set up as a pretext, the increasing dissatisfaction with his condition evinced by the negro under such instruction. But the zealous Protestant missionary, though proscribed and in danger of personal violence, was not to be deterred by these means. From him the slave received the consolations of religion, and by him alone was the apprentice prepared for the privileges of the freeman. The present aspect of religion, though far from satisfactory, presents some features of encouragement. All parties are now striving to outstrip each other, to make up for time hitherto lost, to meet an increased population, and an increased demand for instruction. Of the three religious parties in the Mauritius, the Church of Rome has at once the pre-eminence, in the antiquity of its foundation and its numerical superiority. The white and Creole population are, with few exceptions, nominal Romanists, though their claim to a connection with that creed will be found in most instances to depend solely on baptism by its ministers. The larger proportion of the ci-devant slaves are also members of that church, but without a deeper perception of its faith than consists in an appreciation of its gorgeous and magnificent ceremonies. So impressed is the bishop with a conviction of their possession of a mere external Christianity, that in a return made to the legislature he scrupled to name more than two who could be received as evidence on oath. The whole number of members of the church of Rome in the colony may be estimated at 75,000, though the average attendance of worshippers at its services cannot be said to exceed 2,500. There are two churches, one at St. Louis, a large and solid structure; the other, at

Pamplemousses, is capable of containing a large congregation, though seldom well frequented. Added to these are seven chapels. The services are conducted by seven priests (most of whom reside at St. Louis) presided over by Dr. Collier, with the title of "Bishop of Ruspa." This prelate is now on a visit to England for the purpose of procuring funds for the erection of schools, and the maintenance of an additional number of ministers. He is possessed of great intellectual energy, with an agreeable vivacity of manners, and appears fully sensible of the religious indifference and spiritual destitution of the colony. The services of his church, formerly conducted in Latin, and therefore unintelligible to the mass of the population, have latterly been commuted for French,—the language generally spoken. A "Conseil de Fabrique" and churchwarden have the care of the churches' repairs, as in other countries. The residence of the bishop is in Port Louis, and is a neat and commodious edifice. In some cases a small glebe is attached to the house of the priests, but this is far from universal. Their stipends are paid by the colony.

The remainder of the religious community may be divided into swo sections—the Church of England, and the Protestant dissenters. The former ranks among its adherents almost the whole of the officers of Government, a portion of the military, some Anglo-Indians or other resident strangers, and a few negroes. The whole number of members does not, however, exceed a thousand. There is but one church at St. Louis capable of containing five hundred persons, used by the French as a powder magazine, for which the thickness of its walls seemed to have given it a peculiar fitness. The service is here performed by a civil and military chaplain on the colonial establishment. There are also casual services at other places fitted up for the occasion. The Mauritius will form an archdeaconry in the proposed diocese of the Cape. The number of Protestant dissenters is extremely limited. Under this head may be included two or three Huguenot families, a body of Independents with chapels at Port Louis, Mapou, and Piton, and the Wesleyans with a chapel at Mahébourg. In conclusion, it may be observed that, amidst all the efforts employed for the evangelization of the negro and Indian labourer, care should be taken that education should serve in all cases as the handmaid of religion: without it, there is the constant danger of a usurpation of unmeaning forms over real piety on the one hand, or the fervour of religion lapsing into an excess of uncontrollable fanaticism on the other.

Offences.—Of all the offences committed in Mauritius, when in a state of transition, that of "marooning" was by far the most frequent and injurious. The parties, by whom these outrages were perpetrated, were the descendants of the Malagash, kidnapped by the Dutch on their first settlement of the island, who being joined during French occupation by a number of fugitive slaves, unable to

endure the cruelties of their white masters, engaged in continual depredations on the property of the planters, burning or destroying what could not be carried off. Their retreats were selected amongst the most intricate recesses of caverns, the outlets of which were known only to themselves, or the trackless forests, whence they sallied forth for the supply of their temporary wants, always reserving the confusion incidental to the recurrence of a hurricane, or a similar visitation, as the occasion on which the greatest quantity of plunder could be obtained, and the inhabitants found in the most defenceless condition. Hence (in addition to natural causes) grew up a rancorous hatred between the white and the Maron, by no means diminished by the disparity in their respective conditions. As neither party gave, so neither expected mercy. The planter seldom, therefore, ventured out in the districts most infested without a large body of his slaves for protectors. On some occasions, when stimulated like beasts of prey by hunger or revenge, the Marons carried their excesses so far as to compel the inhabitants of a district to abandon their dwellings and property. The sagacious mind of La Bourdonnais hit upon an expedient which succeeded for a time in breaking up their confederacy. Having sent to Madagascar for a number of young negroes, he had them brought up under his own inspection. Bound to him by the obligations of gratitude, they were by no means unwilling to embark on a mission, which, by its delicacy and dangers, would give the most certain proofs of their fidelity and devotion. Accordingly, from their being the fellow-countrymen of the Marons, and possessing a superiority in civilization, they obtained an ascendancy over the latter, which led to the betrayal of some of their number, and the dispersion of the remainder. Upon the departure of La Bourdonnais their outrages became a renewed source of annoyance. Without doubt the harsh measures adopted after their capture added virulence to the hostility of their feelings. The law called "code noir," or, as it should have been denominated, "code sanglant," inflicted a severe whipping with the loss of an ear for the first offence. For the second, the "Maron" was again whipped, the sinews of his hams cut across, and his person loaded with chains. For the third he was either hung or broken alive, but in either case was kept in ignorance of his sentence until the moment of its execution. The life of these men was a continued round of privation and solicitude. With the rejection of dress they cast off the feelings which mark the man even in the savage, and differed but little from the monkeys, often the tenants of the same mountain with themselves. Though secure enough in their mountain fastnesses, the calls of hunger or revenge constantly sent them forth to satisfy the one, or to wreak the other. This opportunity was seldom neglected by the planter, who, informed by one of his slaves of their appearance in the vicinity, or warned of their

proximity by the barking of his dogs (particularly keen in scenting a Maron), would march out in quest of the object of his hatred. The Maron, put up like a wild beast by the hunters, if he could not be run down for the purpose of suffering a lingering death, was shot, and his head, being fixed on the top of a pole, was brought home in triumph. These barbarous and impolitic regulations remained in force till the end of 1790, when they were abrogated by a decree of the Colonial Assembly. Since then "Marooning" has gradually decreased, and with the final abolition of slavery has altogether ceased, until its only relic is to be found in a tax called "marronage," levied upon the inhabitants up to the present day.

The laws by which the slaves had to be guided were exceedingly arbitrary and severe, and were enforced with the greatest exactitude. At eight o'clock in the evening a cannon was fired, after which no slave could appear in the street. The means by which one of the latter was recognised from among the free-coloured, was their going bare-footed, this being the distinctive mark imposed by the law. Such as were out of doors were arrested after this time, unless they could show a written certificate from their master that they were sent on some business by him. The practice of poisoning was very frequent among the slaves. This crime was much facilitated by the number and variety of poisonous plants, with the nature of which they were well acquainted. They have frequently taken off a master or a mistress in this way often without detection. Such were the rewards of slavery!!! Arson was continually committed by this class, since upon discovery it presented a ready method for the termination of a life rendered intolerable by the cruelties of their oppressors. In the punishment of trivial offences, the "code noir," which did not allow of the infliction of more than thirty lashes, was generally disregarded by the planter, double that number being frequently administered. Assassination, a crime of frequent occurrence during the troubles of the French Revolution, was in few, if in any cases, perpetrated by the slave, but generally arose from the licentious conduct of the military. While the labouring population were in a state of slavery, summary punishment was inflicted by the masters or overseers in many cases, which required the examination of a magistrate during the apprenticeship. This brought rather a large proportion of the coloured class for a time into the prisons. Fears were at first entertained that emancipation would be attended with an insecurity of life and property, but the result has been free from a fulfilment of the contemplated outrages. The principal cause of complaint appears to arise from the fact, that many of the women, who formerly resorted to the fields to labour, now remain at home to take care of their huts and families. Much stress has also been laid upon the increase of crime since the enfranchisement of the

negro; yet, if subjected to an analysis, it will be found, that, though offences may have increased in a large proportion during the apprenticeship, so far as their number is concerned, they have on the other hand undergone a marked modification in atrocity. They are now principally confined to cases of petty theft, such as the pilfering of eatables, &c., and the negroes are found to pause, ere they pass the rubicon of more systematic crime.

Drunkenness is, perhaps, on the increase. This may be accounted for by the facilities offered to drinking by the canteens, which are farmed from the Government by a private individual; and though subjected to some good regulations, such as being open to the street and burning lights inside, yet they present a source of irresistible attraction to the uneducated labourer. Smuggling is an offence practised to some extent by the creoles, and that part of the coloured race which was free previous to the abolition of slavery. When engaged in by the negro it is simply in the character of a subordinate. Coffee is the principal article thus introduced; and the illicit traffic has been stimulated by the absurd regulation which, forbidding the coffee of Bourbon, requires such as is imported into the island to be brought from England or one of its colonies. The increase of crime may, however, be traced to more causes than one; first, perhaps, to the liberty enjoyed by the negroes of remaining out as late as they may wish at night, denied them under the iron yoke of slavery—this freedom, while it affords an opportunity of committing thefts, renders detection a matter of chance. Next, to a diversion in the surveillance of the police, caused by the influx of Indian and Chinese labourers; but in proportion as this body regain their efficiency (probably already restored) a diminution in cases of petty theft may be reasonably expected.

The police, upon whose activity and energy so great a demand must have arisen by the simultaneous influx of so great an amount of labour, may be said to excel those of every other British colony in discipline and an acquaintance with the most perfect modes of espionage. The gaols, whose regulations are subject to the approval of a Committee of Prisons, consisting of seven members, are, according to Mr. Backhouse, as complete as might have been expected. The three principal ones in Port Louis are the Bagne, the Prison of the Court of Justice, and another recently erected. The latter is intended to remedy the defects of the two former, and contains eighty cells in two stories, arranged on the sides of two wide-arched passages. The prison of the Court of Justice is under good management. The building is, however, incommodious, not admitting of classification. The prisoners it generally contains are debtors, persons committed for trial, and those under sentence. The last are employed in picking oakum, breaking stones, making baskets and nets, tailoring, and shoemaking. All persons of this class are required to work, and, if not accustomed to any regular occupation,

they are desired to choose one, that they may not be turned out of prison without the means of earning a subsistence. The receipts from their labour amounted to 86*l.* 10*s.* in 1836. They had increased in 1837 to 205*l.* One half of this money is appropriated towards defraying the expenses of the prison; the rest is divided among such prisoners as shall, up to their discharge, have conducted themselves in conformity with the rules. The mortality in this prison was twenty-three in 1836, thirty-four in 1837. The prevalent diseases are dysentery, dropsy, and catarrhal affections. In the Bagne prison the negro population, sentenced by special justices, as well as Indian labourers, are confined. The deaths in this prison amounted to twenty in 1836; in 1837, to less than half that number. The building consists of several large rooms, in which the prisoners sleep on wooden platforms. In some respects it may be considered more as a depôt than a prison, inasmuch as parties preferring complaints against their masters are here confined until the latter may be summoned to answer their accusations. Among the plaintiffs are bands of Indian labourers, who quit the plantations on which they were engaged, considering themselves hardly used or deceived. Many of these on entering the prison are found to be affected with the itch. The period for which prisoners are sentenced to this place varies from a few days to a few weeks. Their food, which consists chiefly of rice, costs threepence per day each; their clothing one pound a year, making a total annual average cost, for each prisoner, of 5*l.* 11*s.* 3*d.* The prison at Mahébourg is an old and inadequate building, with but two rooms. When these are very full, the door and windows are scarcely approachable from the closeness of the atmosphere within. On going out in the morning, and on their return in the evening, the prisoners bathe in the river, which flows by. The men work on the roads, and their victuals are limited to one pound of rice a day. They are sentenced here by the special magistrate for a period not exceeding thirty days, and to receive not more than thirty-nine lashes. The Civil Commissioner has the power of awarding six months' imprisonment to free persons, but, in case his sentence exceeds thirty days, the prisoner is sent to Port Louis. With the labour and limited ration, the prisoners become much reduced in flesh and strength, so that sometimes the medical attendant is obliged to order the sentence to be relaxed; it is found that those who have previously lived best, suffer most from incarceration. The anomalous state of English law, in reference to the conduct of seamen engaged in the merchant service, is unfortunately too well known to require many observations here. Suffice it to say, that an almost incredible number of cases of insubordination and even mutiny constantly occurred east of the Cape, and scarcely a day passed without a complaint of this sort being brought for adjudication before the Court at Mauritius specially appointed for this purpose. The men generally succeeded in deserting the service,

and vessels would frequently have found themselves unable to prosecute their voyage, had it not been for the check imposed by the inflexible strictness of the police. This evil (a remedy for which was encompassed with numerous but far from insurmountable difficulties) has, from its universal application and the frightful extent of increase, forced itself upon the attention of the legislature.

Before I dismiss this branch of my subject, I cannot refrain from calling attention to the miserable fate of the Indian convicts engaged in the repair of the roads in the Mauritius. These wretched men were first introduced under the government of Sir R. T. Farquhar, and being dispersed over the country in parties, under the control of English soldiers, they contributed, with the military, towards the formation of the lines of road by which the island is on every side reticulated. A small ring is placed round their ankles, as a mark of their condition. They are lodged in huts like thatched roofs, or in other inferior dwellings near the road. There are about seven hundred of them in the island. The treatment of convicts in our penal settlements, in Australia, severe as it undoubtedly is, is nevertheless regulated by gradations of suffering commensurate with the past or present guilt of the criminal, and the felon, sentenced to eternal banishment, may, by a course of reformation, hope for a mitigation, if not an abbreviation, of his original sentence. Not so here. The impetuosity of youth (for many of them are still young), too violent to brook control, the probability of their having been the dupes of others older in crime, their general good conduct, and the long years (so many notches in their existence) they have already passed in this most hapless servitude, are all unheeded. The government of their country, too much occupied in schemes of aggrandisement, cares not for them. Philosophy at home, which hath adopted for its dictum the principle of a prevention, not a revenge, of crime, sees them not, and on the dusty roads and on a foreign soil the sun of the tropics darts its fierce rays on these victims of unrequited toil and ceaseless despair.

Amusements.—The wild and uncultivated state of the Mauritius, for a considerable time after its settlement by the French, served to augment the number of animals introduced by the Portuguese, consisting principally of deer of a smaller size and grayer colour than those of Europe. "Hunting," says Baron Grant, "which is pursued without difficulty, and with continued success, is one of our principal resources. We have three kinds of partridge, none of which are the same as those of France. Monkeys are also pursued by the sportsman. As the climate is very warm, I frequently remain for successive days and nights in the forests and mountains to enjoy the pleasures of the chase. The stag and the cabri, a kind of wild goat, are the most frequently hunted; the latter is very active, runs among the mountains, leaps from rock to rock, and delights in ascending those narrow ledges and sharp points of the rocks inacces-

sible to every other living creature. This mode of hunting was the most dangerous, from the narrow and difficult ways to be passed in pursuit of the game. The antelope or gazelle, brought by M. David from Senegal, soon became extinct under the shafts of the hunters. It was captured by means of a tame one, to whose horns a snare made of cords was curiously attached. When the herd was found, the tame animal was sent amongst them, when the wild males instantly advanced to oppose him, and in butting violently with their horns were entangled in the noose. In this struggle they both fell to the ground, when the hunter arrived to kill the one and disengage the other." There were also a small quantity of wild boars, called "Maroon hogs," descended from those left by the Portuguese on their discovery of the island. "When a stag was killed, an entertainment always followed, as the flesh would not keep for more than two days; the neighbours were accordingly invited to partake of the feast, and though the island did not produce wine, they contrived to enliven their festivals with the produce of Bourdeaux. M. David, the successor of La Bourdonnais, issued a general prohibition against hunting, to prevent the total destruction of the game, which might have proved an effectual resource in time of dearth, but unfortunately it was very difficult to compel a strict observance of the edict." The sports of the field were not confined to the male population. St. Pierre met in his tour round the island with a creole lady, who seemed to value herself much upon going to hunt the Marons in the woods, but she told me the governor had deprived her of her favourite sport, which was "stag hunting," and added, "I should have been better pleased had he stuck a dagger in my heart." The race of deer is not yet extinct: Trois Manguiers, the spot generally selected as the rendezvous of the "chasseurs au cerf," is still frequented by occasional parties, formed of the planters of the district, who assemble at this place provided with guns and a couple of hounds, and proceed to the adjoining woods, where a station at different openings in the forest is assigned to each sportsman, while others proceed with the hounds to beat the covers, all on foot, the nature of the ground precluding the use of horses. The venison is but of indifferent quality, lean and possessing little flavour. Races are held annually in June on the Champ de Mars, which is then seen to the greatest advantage, the whole colony being there concentrated. The ladies of French descent are seated in chairs ranged on one side the course; behind them, in several rows deep, are the coloured females attired in the gayest manner, their heads uncovered and displaying a profusion of glossy black hair arranged with the nicest care. Of this in common with the white creoles of the mountains, they are very proud. The races having commenced, the whole scene is one of the most picturesque that can be conceived. The fine horses galloping round, the mixture of European and Oriental costumes, the military uniforms, all these contrasted with the solemn stillness, which seems to

brood over the surrounding majestic mountains, make a lasting impression on the mind. "Some excellent horses, in part of English breed, have been imported at different times from the Cape, many good Arabs have also been introduced by visitors from India, and some few well-known English racers have appeared in the arena to the utter discomfiture of all Eastern opponents. Nor is there a deficiency of other means of amusement. A neat little theatre, an indispensable requisite in a French community, has been built at St. Louis, within the last few years; and a company from France played some time with success, but the attempt to establish a permanent corps has been unsuccessful. The present is a stone building, the original one, which was of wood, being removed from its foundation in a violent hurricane. When the theatre was first opened, the orchestra refused to play "God save the King," in consequence of which the military were forbidden to attend. This not having the desired effect, the proprietor was told he would not be allowed to continue, unless he gave way. He yielded at length, but the French still persisted in keeping on their hats. There is a spa in the Mauritius, discovered in 1810, after a severe hurricane, containing the same ingredients as the waters of Cheltenham. It has obtained considerable celebrity in India, where it is held efficacious in removing some of the diseases incidental to that climate. There are also public baths. The Mauritius boasts of two literary clubs irrespective of the society of natural history, founded in August 1829, for the purpose of making known the productions of the colony, the improvement of agriculture and horticulture, as well as the general propagation of science. The patron is the governor for the time being, and the society is supported by a large number of resident and foreign members. There are two libraries containing a large number of books, of which French form the larger proportion. The gay season commences about the end of June (when the Governor and his family leave Reduit their country residence, and occupy a house in town) and continues until October, when winter is over. During this interval, balls and dinners follow each other in rapid succession. The passion for dancing, an exercise in which both sexes excel, seems to be completely hereditary, for St. Pierre mentions "that the women scarcely ever came to town, but to a ball. No sooner was this announced, than they would flock in crowds, borne in their palanquins." The young girls make their "debût" so early as fifteen. Music is another accomplishment to which the inhabitants devote much of their attention, and in which they are generally considered to excel. The celebrated Fête de Dieu, in which the most beautiful young girls clad in white robes walk bareheaded in procession, strewing flowers before the Host, is an occasion of great rejoicing throughout the island. A great mass of people are then collected. Flags wave in every direction, and a blaze of bright colours shines around, while the streets and cathedral are lined with troops, and

the batteries fire salutes. Another scene of gaiety has been introduced with those of the Indian labourers who have come from the coast of Malabar. This ceremony or festival is kept eleven days, once in eleven months. At its commencement the people perform ablutions in a river, and it is said bring up anything they lay hold of in diving, which is retained as an object of veneration, if not of adoration, till the next yamsey. The crowds of people dressed in holiday attire present an imposing appearance. This dress is composed of white cotton drapery, varied with scarlet or other head-dresses. Mr. Backhouse describes their appearance thus: "A small group were dancing with gaily coloured things upon their heads, resembling meat-safes with quadrangular pyramidal tops, here called garde-mangers. Another group were carrying gay banners, accompanied by a sort of drumming. Some were painted red, and dappled with other colours: some of those, who begged, had on very little clothing. One man jumped at intervals amongst the crowd to a great height, having his hands erect, and accompanying the effort with a deep hissing noise. The painted men resembled in some respects the fool's attendant on the exhibitions of 'Ploughboys' and 'Morris-dancers' in England, to whose fooleries, indeed, the whole transaction bore a resemblance. Afterwards we saw them carrying about three splendid goons or pagodas of several stories high with balloon-like tops; they were made of coloured and gilt paper upon bamboo frames. The gayest was broken at the end of the ceremony and scattered upon the water at the place where the people had performed their ablutions at the commencement of this festival, or rather fast, for they practise considerable abstinence till the pagoda is broken, after which they have a feast. The fragments of this structure become playthings for the children. Representations of the sun and moon and some stars, were among the rude designs on its first story. Several banners were carried in the procession, one of which had a white flag, and was surmounted by the representation of a hand in tin. The crowd dispersed after this ceremony, and many of the people formed parties to eat curry, made with rice and cock fowls, hens being rejected—I know not for what cause. It is said that many nominal Christians in the island vow under affliction that, if they be delivered from the cause of their distress, they will devote a cock or some other offering, such as a tin hand or some tinsel, to the Malabar priest at the yamsey. There could not have been less than ten thousand persons present at this exhibition of heathenism.'

PART THE THIRD.

CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECT, RIVERS, LAKES, MOUNTAINS, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, ETC.

The aspect of the Mauritius is very bold and wild: its scenery is on every side romantic and picturesque, and its appearance from the sea is the more remarkable from the singular form[1] of the mountains, which in some parts astonish the stranger by their abruptness, and in others rise gradually from the coast into the interior, where they are intersected by ranges, or chains of diverging radii, running in a contrary direction. There are, however, three principal ranges, from 1,800 to 2,800 feet high above the level of the sea, which are covered with timber, except at their very summits. In the centre of the island there are plains of table-land several leagues in circumference, and of different elevations, called Plains Wilhems, Plains de St. Pierre, Plains de la Riviére Noire, Plain Magnan. Part of the district of Moka is also of this elevation. Though it possesses a circumference of only ninety miles, the Mauritius is watered by more than sixty rivers or streams, which rise in the mountains, of which the principal are Grande Riviére Ouest and Grande Riviére Est. The Port Louis, Latinier, Plains Wilhems, Moka, Rempart, Riviére Noire and Petite Riviére Noire, du Poste, des Creoles, de la Chaux, du Tamarin, de la Savane, Séche, du Poste Est, Françoise, des Pamplemousses, du Tombeau, de Séche Ouest, Seré. The others are small streams, some of which cease to run in the dry season. They generally flow through

[1] It sometimes happens (says Mr. Bradshaw) that at daybreak the whole of the lower part of the island is enveloped in a white wreath of mist, while the craggy summits of the mountains are seen above, standing out in sharp relief against the clear and brilliant sky. On approaching the island under these circumstances, the high peaks are sometimes perceptible at sea at an almost incredible distance, but as the day advances, and the exhalations are diffused by the power of the sun, the pleasing vision disappears.

deep ravines, which are open, however, to the influence of the sun and air, and, in relation to the country in general, may be considered as the rays of a circle. One of the natural curiosities of this island are its lakes, the most extensive of which is Grande Bassin, which is situated on the most elevated plain in the island, and surrounded by mountains clothed with wood, that serve to attract the clouds, and feed the streams which run from it. The depth is doubtless great, and is said by the inhabitants to be unfathomable. There is a large cavity, of a circular shape, on a mountain called "Le Tronc au Cerfs." The lake itself is called Mare des Vaconas or Vacques. It is also of great depth, and is much frequented by deer: the path leading down to the bottom of it is carpeted with verdure. The district of Grande Riviére, which is in the immediate vicinity of St. Louis, is the resort of the government officials and merchants, whose avocations require a daily attendance in the town. It is several hundred feet above the level of the sea. The river divides the cantons of Plains Wilhems and Moka, and falls into the sea on the west side of the bay of the same name. Though rising in the interior, it is only navigable a few hundred yards from its mouth, and there only for small vessels. Through the village (which is the station of the Indian convicts), and adjoining the mouth of the river, lies the high road to Mahébourg, passing through Plains Wilhems. The hollow of the ravine, through which the river runs, is deep, serpentine, and very beautiful, being thickly clothed with plantations and groves, from among which the rocks grotesquely emerge, and is lined on either side with charming white houses of basalt, which render the view as picturesque as can well be conceived. This ravine has several branches (through which the rivers Moka, Plains Wilhems, and Profonde flow, and finally join the larger stream), running in deep chasms with precipitous sides, presenting a fine mixture of wood and rock scenery, and several cascades in their course. The caves, which the Marons once frequented, are here to be seen. The beauty of the scene is enhanced by the proximity of a chain of mountains, lying to the S. E. of which the Morne de la Decouverte forms one termination. In the centre lies the Pouce, and at the other extreme the Pieter Both, the whole forming nearly a semicircle. At the stony bed of the river above the bridge (which is of five arches, and has been several times swept away by the rapidity of the mountain torrent), an animating spectacle may frequently be seen. For a quarter of a mile the banks of the river are covered with clothes (nearly the whole of those worn at St. Louis and the vicinity being washed here) spread out in the sun, while men and women, of swarthy or ebon skins, are up to the middle in the water washing. The clothes are soaked, then rubbed with soap or goats' dung, and beat upon flat parts of the rocks with a piece of wood. They are then worked backwards and forwards in the water: next exposed to the sun, and finally sprinkled with water. These operations make them very

white, but are very destructive to the clothes. Reduit, the country house of the governor, is in the district of Moka, at the confluence of that stream, and the Riviére Profonde with Grande Riviére. It is a delightful residence, in a highly picturesque situation, being built on an angle of land at the junction of the two deep and extensive ravines, through which the above-mentioned rivers flow, and is eight hundred feet above the level of the sea. The approach is through a long avenue of Filhaos or Madagascar fir and Mangoes. The house (which is of two stories and built of wood) has received large additions of late years, consists of a hall in the centre, with other rooms at the sides, in which, on account of the chilly nature of a situation so exposed, is to be seen an English grate—a rare appendage in tropical countries. The upper rooms contain sleeping apartments for visitors. The usual outbuildings, called pavillons, of one story high, surround the house, and verandahs or colonnades, which are as much occupied as any part of the house, line both the front and back. The furniture, which is a specimen of that found in all the houses of the planters, is by no means sumptuous, but is suitable for the climate, being almost entirely brought from China, and is formed from the bamboo and Indian reed. The furniture of Europe could not long resist the influence of the strong and constant winds by which the country is dried up from May to September, and still less the reeking humidity of the rainy season. That which luxury absolutely requires, becomes in a short time the covert of a swarm of disgusting and dangerous insects, while the walls of wood are the asylum of scorpions, centipedes, and serpents. The prospect from the back of the house is extremely beautiful, comprehending an extensive view of the gardens and shrubberies, which are tastefully laid out, as well as the rich and varied landscape beyond. To the front are extensive lawns, adorned with neat parterres of flowers. Numerous cool and shady walks, which are impervious to the rays of the sun, line the steep sides of the plateau, which renders the temperature comparatively cool, while the roads in the vicinity, which are in good repair, afford good equestrian exercise. At the end of the shrubberies is the "Bout du Monde," a majestic and almost perpendicular cliff, whose depths the eye is afraid to fathom. At its bottom is the Riviére Profonde, which, though a considerable stream, appears a mere rivulet, from the great depth of the ravine, the sides of which are covered by five or six stages of large trees, whose foliage, with its rich and varied tints, harmonises well with the red soil of the cliff, and the enormous grotesque masses of grey rock. The plain to the west of St. Louis is seen beyond the intersecting lines, which mark the windings of the ravine, and "Morne de la Decouverte," or signal station on the right. In the distance is a fine view of the ocean. The district of Moka, which, though seven miles from St. Louis by the road, is not more than three across the Pouce, is the residence of many of the officers of the Government, to whom (says Mr.

Bradshaw) it possesses a two-fold attraction, arising from its proximity to Reduit, and the comparative coolness of the atmosphere, the temperature being in general six or seven degrees cooler than that of St. Louis, arising perhaps from damp. Most of the houses have fireplaces in the sitting-rooms, for there are many evenings in the cool season when a fire is highly acceptable. The river rises in the heights of the district, and, after receiving many tributary streams, falls into the Grand Riviére, about a mile and a half from its mouth. The valley is well cultivated, and lined with numerous cottages: the bazaar of St. Louis is chiefly supplied with fruit and vegetables from it. In travelling through this district, the sound of water-falls frequently falls on the ear. The cascade of Moka is very beautiful, and the sides of the road are adorned with hedges of rose-bushes, and wild flowers, of every variety of tint, while the wild fram-broisier affords to the traveller a pleasing repast, and attracts admiration by the beauty of its crimson glow. The district of Plains Wilhems (so called by the Dutch) is an extensive plain elevated nine hundred feet above the level of the sea, and is the residence of many persons of opulence, on account of its coolness. It is seven miles distant from St. Louis, and is in general well cultivated, though there are parts covered with trees, shrubs, and stones. The cascade du Piston is in the ravine of Plains Wilhems: it is eighty feet high. The upper part of the fall is picturesquely broken by ledges and shelving projections, till it reaches the perpendicular part of the cliff; from whence the whole collected volume of water gushes impetuously into the gulf beneath. In these ravines the tropic bird, or paille en queue, (so called from the single long feather, of which its tail consists) builds her nest, and numbers of these birds, with their snowy plumage glittering in the sun, are seen, towards the close of day, returning to their nests, after a cruise over the blue and sparkling ocean. The western boundary of Plains Wilhems is formed by a range of mountains, the centre of which is the Montagne du Rempart. These mountains rise abruptly from the plain, assuming an endless variety of fantastic forms.

Adjoining Plains Wilhems is the maritime district of the Plains of St. Pierre. The whole coast is very steep from Petite Riviére to this district, and the soil is strong, but well calculated for the culture of sugar and coffee. The small rivers, Bellisle, Dragon, and Galet, which water this district, are fordable. These passed the coast ceases to be steep, and is succeeded by a large plain. The sea has considerably receded from this part of the coast. The Riviére du Tamarin, which is one of the most considerable and rapid of the mountain torrents in the Mauritius, is in this district. The bed of the river is composed of large stones and masses of rock, which have to be waded over by the traveller, as the floods would sweep away any bridge that could be erected. The cascade du Tamarin presents a splendid *coup d'œil*, which is much enhanced by the unexpected

manner in which it bursts upon the view. To the east of the river is the remarkable mountain of Trois Mammelles. Not far from the Riviére du Tamarin is a small district, which takes its name from the vacoua, a species of palm which abounds there. The district of the Riviére Noire, which is the south-west extreme of the isle, is eighteen miles south-west of St. Louis, and is remarkable for its romantic scenery. The soil is extremely fertile, and the sugar-cane flourishes here in great luxuriance. Date-trees grow here, as also tamarind-trees, which are in general very productive. The most elevated mountain in the island is the Piton de la Riviére Noire, being nearly thirty feet higher than the Pieter Both, or about two thousand nine hundred and fifty feet above the level of the sea. Riviére Noire is a rapid torrent of considerable breadth during the rainy season. Its takes its rise from behind a chain of mountains flowing through a deep ravine at the foot of the Piton, and between them and the Morne de la Riviére Noire it passes over a pebbly bed with a gentle current, and is barred at its entrance into the bay by a bank of sand and coral. Petite Riviére Noire is a small stream, taking its rise to the south of the same chain of mountains, and flows into the bay of the same name. Off this part of the coast are four small islands, the largest of which is Isle Morne. The others are Isle Tamarin, and des Benitiers. The lofty bluff or promontory, called the Morne du Brabant is remarkable for its peculiar form and singular position, rising, as it does, partly out of the sea, and partly from the flat sandy beach. It is nearly two thousand feet above the level of the sea. Isle des Fourneaux, off this coast, is used as a signal station. The interior of the district of La Savane is said by Mr. Bradshaw to be extremely picturesque, while the direct road in making the tour of the island, from its following the coast, is dreary and uninteresting. The beach, along the whole of the district, is covered with marine shrubs down to the water's edge. The Baie du Cap (so called from the lofty promontory at its entrance) is about a mile long. There is only a depth of water sufficient to float coasters which are engaged in conveying provisions and stores from Port Louis for the planters in the vicinity, and carry back timber, &c.

The post called Jacotè is a place, where the sea, having penetrated inland, forms a round bay, in the middle of which is a triangular islet. This cove is surrounded by a hill, which gives it the form of a basin, which is its only opening towards the sea. At the extremity several rivulets pass over a fine sand into it, springing from a lake of fresh water that abounds with fish. Round the lake are several small hills, which rise behind each other in the form of an amphitheatre, and are crowned with trees in pyramidal and other pleasing shapes. This verdure, which rises in the midst of the mossy ground, unites with the forest, and a branch of the chain of mountains that extend on to the Riviére Noire. Though this is

one of the finest parts of the island, yet it is only partially cultivated, as the communication with St. Louis is difficult on account of the mountains in the interior: so little indeed is the traffic, that the stranger may proceed for miles without finding any proof of the island being inhabited, with a vertical sun over his head, which is powerfully reflected by the sandy soil beneath. Arriving, however (says Mr. Bradshaw), after an abrupt ascent upon the summit of a cliff from three to four thousand feet above the level of the sea, he is amply repaid for his previous uninteresting march by a beautiful and diversified prospect, which opens suddenly upon him. The narrow bay beneath him, with its clear blue waters, the picturesque bank of blended wood and rock on the opposite side, with a fine view of the distant country bounded by a lengthened chain of lofty hills, form altogether a striking *coup d'œil.*

The falls of the Riviére du Cap are among the mountains of the Savane district. This cascade has an immense volume of water, and is three hundred feet in height. It is classed by this tourist with Terni and other continental cascades; but the fall, says he, is distinguished in a remarkable degree by vastness of design, and sublimity of effect, exciting those feelings of mingled awe and admiration inseparable from the contemplation of Nature's grandest works. The Riviére des Anguilles flows in a rapid current over a bed full of rocks: some springs of a ferruginous nature fall into it, which cover its water with a sort of oil of the colour of a pigeon's neck. The Riviére du Poste runs with great noise over rocks: its waters are transparent in the dry season, when it is fordable. All the coast from the arm of the sea near the Savannah is rugged and difficult of access. The rivers which fall into it are very much enclosed, so as to render it impossible to proceed on horseback. The march of an enemy might, therefore, be easily arrested, each river being of a frightful depth. The country now becomes very rocky, and is clothed with a fine sort of dry grass proper for pasturage. The canton of Grand Port contains the Riviéres de la Chaux (at the mouth of which purple oysters have been found) and des Creoles, whose borders are woody and very deeply embanked. The view of the woody country between them and the adjacent craggy mountains is striking and very picturesque, and is said to bear a striking resemblance to some parts of Madagascar. The environs of Grand Bay are covered with mango and orange trees, and clumps of the traveller's tree, "Urania speciosa," are scattered over the country in all directions, and form a striking feature in the prospect. The Riviére des Creoles rises in the adjacent mountains, and keeps its course to their right, till it falls into the Bay of Grand Port. The Montagne des Creoles and du Grand Port are the principal mountains in this district. From the singular form of the first it is denominated le Lion couchant: one is twelve hundred and fifty, the other two thousand and ninety-four feet above the level of the sea.

At the back of these mountains, which are themselves covered with wood, the forest still prevails. Plaine Magnan, which is twenty-five miles from St. Louis, is in this district. Beyond it the country again becomes open and cultivated, sugar-cane being the chief product. The central part of the island is elevated forest: near its highest point is a village called Cure Pipe, in which there are two hotels. On each side of the entrance of Grand Port is a small rocky isle called Isles de la Passe and Marianne; and at the east entrance is the Isle de la Sortie and Point du Diable, so called, because the first navigators perceived here a variation of the needle, for which they were unable to account. The Bamboo mountains, with the four remarkable peaks called by the soldiers at Mahébourg the Cat and Kittens, are a little to the north of Grand Port, and form the most prominent feature on the south-east coast: Mount Bamboo is nearly three thousand feet above the level of the sea. To the right of it runs the Grande Rivière Est, whose mouth is not navigable on account of a sand-bank that runs across it, and a cascade at some distance. It is one of the largest rivers in the island, and runs far inland, keeping to the right of the mountains throughout. The shore is intersected with coves, where the mango luxu iates. This stream empties itself into Grand Bay. Further north is the district of Trois Islets, in which is the Rivière Sèche. This passed, the shore again begins to be practicable; for the last district with all its beauty is fatiguing to the tourist. The country is now dry and barren, the woods low and thin, and stretching to the distant mountains of the Rivière Profonde and Fayence, to the west of which is the lofty range of Piton de Milieu. The district of Flacq, in which is stationed a small military post, is a populous and well-cultivated plain. It was once famous for the cultivation of rice, which has been superseded for other products. There is a passage between the reefs for coasting vessels. The principal streams are the Rivière du Poste, Rivière Françoise, Rivière Serè, and Coquard, which, taken together, form a kind of archipelago. The country rises gradually towards the interior, and is bounded by a chain of mountains, the largest of which is Montagne Blanche, eight miles distant. A great part of the road from Flacq to the Rivière du Rempart is formed on beds of rocks, which in some places appear to be hollow, resounding beneath the horses' feet. Some of the plantations in the high lands are absolutely horrible, from the quantity of rocks which they contain. Some plots consist of a single rock, some parts of which are more elevated than others, and resemble flag-stones. The plantations nearer the shore have fewer rocks and a better soil, which is maintained at the expense of the high lands, whose earth is washed down by the rains. The district of Rempart contains the river of the same name, whose source is in a mountain of more than twelve hundred feet high, near which is the village of Piton. The woods, which are beautiful towards the bot-

tom of it, diminish in its ascent, and at the top dwindle into young trees and shrub-wood. A fine cascade is here formed, which falls into a small basin.

This district is in general flat, but far from well-watered in all parts, especially about the quartier of Poudrê d'or, though the soil there is good. The river Poudrê d'or is fordable in the dry season. Isle d'Ambre, which lies off this coast, has been elsewhere noticed. There is a fine lake in this district. The country appears to be almost uninhabited for the twelve miles between it and Pointe des Cannoniers (which is in the district of Pamplemousses) with the exception of the village of Mapou. The coast between this place and Grand Baie (a small village near the Pointe) is either covered with grassy turf, or with copses of various shrubs. Little tranquil inlets, covered by the sea at high water are numerous in this neighbourhood; and are margined with mangroves. The district of Pamplemousses is perhaps the richest and best cultivated in the island, though it has been much exhausted by excessive cropping, while its restoration by fertilizing manures has been almost wholly neglected. Several clove plantations are to be found here, which thrive well, when they are not swept away by the hurricanes. Though it contains ranges of lofty mountains, as the Butte des Popayers, Montagne Longue, and Piton première decouverte, yet it is in general level and well wooded, having rather the appearance of an English landscape. The village, which is seven miles from St. Louis, is pretty and populous. (The botanical garden elsewhere noticed is in this district.) Near it is Mon Plaisir, the country seat of the chief judge. The powder mills, which were built under the French Government, are now used as a military quarter. They consist of barracks for a small detachment of troops, and a good residence for an officer of the staff. The tower was intended for an observatory. Eyhelapola, prime minister of the late king of Kandy, in Ceylon, was sent to reside in this district after the dethronement of that monarch, who had treated his family with the utmost barbarity.

Eyhelapola was much beloved by the Cingalese: his removal was therefore deemed politic. He was at full liberty to travel about in this island, where he lived in great comfort, and was treated with great kindness by the inhabitants, by whom he was called "the Prince." He was, however, devoid of all energy. The Baie des Tortues is a narrow and shallow bay, receiving the waters of the river of that name, which in its turn receives those of the rivière des Pamplemousses, which has its source near the mountains. The Baie du Tombeau in like manner receives those of the Rivière du Tombeau. The anchorage is here very good, having from four to twelve fathoms water. This river, whose banks on each side are richly clothed with wood, is said by Mr. Bradshaw to have derived its name from a number of bodies having drifted on shore on this point

from a ship wrecked in a hurricane[1] The tomb of Paul and Virginia lies at Pamplemousses in a garden well laid out and preserved. Here, amidst a copse of bamboos at the end of a broad walk bounded on each side by a tank of clear water, are seen two pedestals, each surmounted by an urn. They are without inscription, but this deficiency has been amply supplied by many of the visitors to the tombs, who have indulged themselves in momentary effusions both in prose and verse, and cropped the plants around to bear with them mementos of the spot. The authenticity of the *hero* of the tale is much doubted, though it is said that a young lady called Virginia was sent for her education from Mauritius to France, while La Bourdonnais was governor, and that she was wrecked in the *St. Geran*, and a young man is said to have been attached to her, and to have died of grief for her loss. This part of the tale has been doubtless greatly embellished, but the description of the island, its climate and scenery is inimitable for its force and veracity. A rather ludicrous circumstance is connected with this affecting scene. His English visitors always innocently expressed their surprise to the proprietor, that the tomb of Paul was not to be found with that of Virginia, and apparently careless of the reality, seemed mortified at its absence, on which he very good-humouredly complied with the general expectation by ordering the erection of a monument similar to that of Virginia. The country between St Louis and Pamplemousses is grassy, nearly flat, and but little cultivated up to the foot of the mountain ranges of Pouce and Pieter Both. North of the village the country is more undulating, and is covered with fragments of vesicular basalt, among which the sugar cane is cultivated. This district, near St. Louis is watered by the Rivière Sèche which is joined also to an arm of the Rivière du Tombeau, and the Rivière Latanier, which falls with the Sèche into the bay of Port Louis. They are both fordable in the dry season, but there is a running stream in the channels. The district of Calebasses is a little to the south-east of Pamplemousses. The Rivière des Calebasses flows through a part of it. It contains also the mountains and plain of Villebague which is considerably elevated.

Caverns.—There are numerous caverns in many parts of the Isle of France. The most remarkable is that explored by St. Pierre and the Marquis d'Albergati about a mile to the west of Grande Rivière. The mouth of this cavern is in the middle of a wood. On entering the plain, it resembles the hole of a cellar, whose vault has fallen in. Several roots of the mapou hang perpendicularly down, and close up a part of the entrance. Carrying flambeaux, the stranger descends into the abyss, and after a few steps finds himself in a vast subter-

[1] This statement would seem to refer to the shipwreck of the *St. Geran* which, though wrecked on the opposite coast, had many of the bodies of its passengers borne round to the north-west coast by the wind and currents, that generally set that way.

raneous place with vaults of black rock in an elliptical form. It is thirty feet wide, and twenty high: the bottom is close, and covered with a fine earth deposited by the rains. The second vault turns north-east quarter east, is seventeen feet high, and twenty-four broad, and four hundred and ten long. Ground dry, a kind of causeway about two feet and a half high. Third vault turns east-north-east: at one end it is only four feet high, but rises again to twelve feet; it is twenty-four feet broad, and two hundred and fifty feet long. Ground stony and damp, and contains small petrefactions. Fourth vault eighteen feet high, twenty-seven broad, three hundred and fifty long. Parapets on the sides: passage in a straight line. Fifth vault eight feet high, eighteen broad, and two hundred and thirty long: runs north-west. Sixth vault ten feet high, twenty-one broad, ninety long. Seventh vault runs west: ten feet high, sixteen broad, two hundred and twenty long. Eighth vault runs west south-west: sixteen feet high, eighteen broad, ninety long. Ninth vault runs north-west: seven feet high, thirty broad, one hundred and seventy long. Tenth vault twelve feet high, eighteen broad, ninety-six long: runs north-west. Part of this vault has to be crawled through. Eleventh vault two feet high, ten broad, thirty-six long. Ground moist, and the vault is in ruins. On each side of the upper part of this cavern is a kind of large bead, and mouldings formed, perhaps by the dripping of water in the rains. Some think it has been the aperture of a volcano, but it appears more like the bed of a subterraneous river. The vaults are covered with a shining and dry varnish formed by a sort of strong concretion spreading over the projections, and in some parts of the floor there are ferrugineous incrustations, which crackle beneath the feet like ice. Where the vaults lower, a stifling heat prevails. A curious plant, full of a milky juice is found here: the root is as thick as a finger, and ten feet long without branches or leaves, though it is entire at the two ends. This cavern, if walled in to prevent water from entering it, might form fine magazines. There are several other caverns in this district, as well as at Pleins Wilhems, and Flacq, which are of great depth. Those on Pleins Wilhems are situated on gentle declivities, and sustain themselves like vaults formed by human labour, originally resting upon earth, which has abandoned them. There is a tradition among the lower classes that these caverns have a submarine communication with Bourbon, arising probably from the distinctness, with which the roar of the ocean is heard in them. The cavern of Piton de la Decouverte is crowned by parapets as broad as high. Before the entrance there is a kind of cylindrical opening twelve feet deep, worked in the rock like the coating of a well. The stones are whole and entire, a proof that they have not been operated on by fire. The descent into this hole is by an easy declivity, consisting of a rude mass of rocks and earth, and faces the entrance of the cavern from whence the same declivity passes under a kind of arcade, and descends eight or ten feet.

A large cave seventy or eighty paces wide, and fifteen feet high succeeds, with a fine vault formed of free stones of enormous size, through which the water filters in every part: the ground is black and soft, and though firm enough to bear a man, a stick may easily be driven in six feet deep. In some places it is necessary to cling hold to the creeping plants growing in it to get on. This cavern has been probably formed by a sinking of the ground, and has once been still deeper, but the ruins have carried in soil, &c. with them.

MOUNTAINS.—Le Pouce, which is two thousand four hundred and ninety-six feet above the level of the sea is a part of the remarkable chain of mountains to the south-east of St. Louis, which are so conspicuous on entering the port. It derives its name from the top terminating in a singular point resembling a thumb. Mr. Bradshaw states that the ascent is not difficult, and frequent parties are formed for the purpose of enjoying the view from it, and dining afterwards in the woods. A commissariat of negroes with provisions having been previously dispatched, the party generally commence their march an hour or two before sun-rise, the men walking: the ladies being borne most of the way in palanquins. Those, who persevere in the fearful attempt to ascend the rocky precipice of which the thumb consists, proceed by a narrow spiral path, which has been hewn out of the rock: a false step here would infallibly prove fatal, there not being so much as a twig to protect them from falling down the precipice, which resembles the ascent of a church steeple on the outside without the protection of a railing. Many ladies have, however, accomplished this perilous undertaking. The exertion in a tropical climate is exhausting, which with the danger makes the stranger pause in his ascent. He is, however, irresistibly led on by the anticipation of the enchanting scene that awaits him at the completion of his labour, and he is abundantly repaid on reaching the summit of the rock, from whence through the purest atmosphere he commands a view of nearly the whole island, than which a more magnificent coup d'œil cannot possibly be conceived. The Pieter Both or Botte, so called from the celebrated Dutch Governor of Batavia, (and not an early Dutch settler) who has been "erroneously" supposed by both French and English writers to have completed the perilous and difficult task of climbing the highest peak of this mountain, but losing his hold in the descent to have fallen headlong down the precipice. Whether Pieter Both ever ascended this mountain or not, there are no means of ascertaining, but one thing is clear, that he did not perish as is supposed, as will be explained by the note.[1]

[1] In the "Voyages des Europeens dans les Indes Orientales" there is the following statement. "Pierre Both partit Jan. 1616 avec quatre vaisseaux richement charges, pour revenir en Holland; mais ayant mouillé à l'Ile Maurice pour s'y refraicher, deux de ces vaisseaux, dont il montoit l'un eurent le malheur dans une violente tempête, d'etre repousses en mer et ensuite jettés contre la côte, ou ils perirent avec la moitiè de leurs equipages et parmi eux le Governeur Both,

This mountain was ascended after great labour by Majors Lloyd and Taylor, and two other British officers[1] in 1832 (for an abridged account of which see Appendix.) It is two thousand five hundred and twenty feet high, and terminated by an obelisk of naked rock surrounded by a cubical rock larger than the point of the pyramidal cone on which it is balanced. To the left of it is the mountain called Les deux Mamelles. The Morne de la Decouverte, or signal mountain, at the most westerly of the chain has an elevation of one thousand and fifty feet. The other mountains have been already described. There is very little marshy or swampy ground in the Mauritius, and the little there is, is the soil from which the sea has retreated, but which is occasionally overflowed by the tide.

Geology and Mineralogy.—Opinions are very much divided as to the formation of this island. Some eminent French geologists, at the head of whom is M. de Cossigny state that the soil which is fertile and ferrugineous, has been formed from the ruins of a volcano at a very remote period: that he has met with lava almost everywhere, and had on his estate a bed of volcanic ashes. M. Brunel not only coincides in this opinion, but forms a theory of his own on it. "The Isle of France," says he, "is thought to have been exposed to the violent convulsions of nature. It abounds in caverns, precipices, waterfalls, subterraneous passages, iron mines, calcined stones, vitrification, burnt sand, pyrites, which are in general the indications of ancient volcanos; though the lapse of time has rendered it impossible to determine their situation. This isle and Bourbon were doubtless formerly united, but have been divided by some violent effort of nature; indeed, there is every reason to believe that they are still connected by some subterraneous passage, (which is still a current opinion among the lower orders at Mauritius) though the sea intervenes. This theory he endeavours to substantiate by giving the result of his observation on an earthquake which took place simultaneously at Bourbon and Mauritius in 1786. In the morning a calm succeeded to a strong east and east-south-east wind that had prevailed for four days, when a subterraneous noise that resulted in a sudden explosion, like the discharge of a cannon, was heard, and at the same moment two violent shocks were felt, one vertical, the other horizontal, but the barometer indicated no change in the atmosphere, and an east-south-east breeze commenced within a quarter of an hour, and lasted till the following night. This strange phe-

luimême. Telle fut la fin tragique de ce fondateur de l'empire Hollandois aux Indes à qui les sables de la mer ont ravi l'honneur du mausoleé, que les services lui auroient merité à de si justes titres. C'est vraisemblablement de cet accident qu'un des montagnes de l'Ile Maurice a retenu son nom."

[1] A Frenchman of the name of Claude Peuthée laid claim to a similar feat in the last century, but though the "amour propre" of his countrymen has been most zealously enlisted in his service, the fact is far from being satisfactorily attested, he having with a modesty rather peculiar under the circumstances neglected to avail himself of the testimony of eye-witnesses.

nomenon had no injurious effect in the Isle of France, whence he supposes the combustible matter there fermented, till it took fire, and meeting with a resistance superior to its own force caused the shock before mentioned, when being impelled in every direction it found its way by a subterraneous gallery to Bourbon, where being unresisted, it issued from the crater of the volcano, and at the same moment poured forth an unusual quantity of lava." M. Le Gentil, on the contrary, is of opinion, that the Isles of France and Bourbon have both proceeded from the bottom of the sea, like Isles Tonneliers and d'Ambre, which are a large mass of coral once cast up by the sea, and afterwards abandoned. He thinks also that the latter are but a prolongation of the Isle of France, and rest on a base of vitrifiable sand and rock of quartz. Madagascar, he conjectures, once formed a part of Africa; not so Bourbon and Mauritius. Captain Gray, on the other hand, considers it a remarkable circumstance, that St. Helena, Mauritius, and the north-west coast of New Holland are all of basaltic formation; and though so widely separated in longitude, all lie in nearly the same latitude. With respect to the presence of extinct volcanoes [1] M. le Gentil is very incredulous, "For if they had been," says he, "I should have seen them, but the part which I saw was preserved from them; besides, if it had been shattered by a force and explosion greater than a mine, by which enormous rocks would be lifted up from the bowels of the earth, and scattered on the surface, how could they remain in their horizontal positions a hundred feet deep, or upwards in the ravines and other parts? Volcanoes never fail to leave traces of their ravaging power, such as calcined and melted stones, pumice-stones, lava, cinders, &c., but I met with none in the Isle of France. In every part of the island there are found blocks of round stones, intermixed with the earth. These stones are not solid, and are very brittle. Their grain resembles that of the hard stones elsewhere found. They are enveloped in a kind of hard crust of the same colour as the ground from which they are extracted, and are of an enormous size. When the surface of the land has been cleared, fresh ones always appear after the rains, especially on the plains. These stones, which are formed in the ground, and harden there as in a quarry, cannot be broken or worked but by gunpowder and the hammer: they are porous, and covered with small holes of little depth, whose cavities are filled with a kind of crystallization. There is another sort of stone of the same nature or rather grain, as the earth at the top: it is pierced with holes, and full of black particles, from whence it may be concluded that these stones are formed in the bosom of the mountains, and that

[1] Distinguished as M. le Gentil may have been as a man of science, he could not in the course of a transient visit have the same opportunities for observation as M. de Cossigny, who was equally scientific, and had the advantage of having lived several years in the colony.

the substance was once as soft as the earth; but the rains and torrents having worn away one part of the mountain, these rocks have been carried down into the valley. They are seen also in a half-hardened state in the channels formed by the rain, being uncovered by the impetuosity of the torrent. They weigh two or three pounds, are easily broken, being cracked by exposure to the air, and are covered within and without with various sized blueish spots, doubtless the particles of iron ore. The same cause has formed and hardened the rocks, which are so numerous in the rivers of this island, whose course they continually interrupt, and appear as if they had been artificially heaped upon one another. Besides the rocks or stones formed in the bosom of the earth, large banks or ranges of them are very frequent, whose clefts are filled with a hard crust of earth, generally ferruginous, said to be a proof that the form of the island has not been effected by a violent concussion of the earth. The depth of these banks varies from eight to ten feet. The substance of the blocks of hard stones, of which the mountains near the town are composed, differs from that of the rocks of quartz which are found in the earth."

M. le Gentil threw a piece of this stone into a furnace, and withdrawing it in almost a liquefied state, it gave a grain of lead the size of a large pin's head: copper may also be extracted from others. In every other respect these mountains appear to be a kind of schisteuse stone, or slate, in horizontal, vertical, or shelving beds, in the interior of which are found small crystals, containing a fine white down. This rock is very hard, and its parts equally tenacious. The undermining it with gunpowder has but little effect, as it probably finds a vent through the clefts in the beds, which, though apparently well united, have many visible and invisible openings, which offer a sufficient passage for the air. Aquafortis poured on a piece of this stone will cause an effervescence. The pumice-stones found near Isle d'Ambre M. le Gentil accounts for by stating, that from their buoyancy they may be driven thither from the volcano at Bourbon by the winds and currents, in the same way as the Coco de Mer has been washed on the coasts of India. He denies that the caverns are the mouths of extinct volcanoes. The steps or parapets, which extend along the chain of mountains, as well as the interior of the caverns, he does not account for. "The mountains," says he, "are in general indented with points, like the comb of a cock. Those which are flat on the summits are like a pavement, and no signs of a funnel are to be seen in any part. These mountains have been covered with earth and trees, but their summits are almost entirely naked, having been frequently despoiled of their ground and trees by the ravages of the hurricanes. Iron is found in this island in certain spots by washing the earth. Mines were established in several parts of the island by La Bourdonnais and his successors; but the excessive cost of labour, and the want of roads,

rendered the proprietors unable to compete in the Indian market with the iron of Europe, and a prejudice arose against it in consequence, but its failure in that market was occasioned by many unavoidable difficulties, such as the mode of extracting it from the earth, and the process of purifying it and rendering it malleable. The works were at first successful from meeting with a favourable vein, but they were afterwards abandoned, though the plain was not completely raked. The mine at Pamplemousses was not rich, and seemed to be furnished with the mineral it contained by the force of the rains, which washed it down from the high lands into the plains. At Villebague it was more abundant, but was some distance from the forges in very elevated spots, and was intersected by ravines and precipices. Farther southward, the mines appeared equally productive, but there was no water available. It will be judged, however, with what eagerness the subject was at first taken up, by the fact, that the French East India Company set apart ten thousand acres of wood (called the Reserves) for the forges, which they thought would be replaced by young trees, or again shoot up if they were properly felled; but the result was that the surrounding district was transformed into a temporary desert. The strength of this iron compared with that of Europe, is decidedly in its favour: for example, the masts of European vessels being made of a light wood, the circles of iron, which are applied to strengthen and support them sink in it. At Mauritius the wood employed to splice masts is excessively hard, and not only resists, but from its elasticity breaks the circles of European iron. Those made of the iron of the Mauritius, and employed in the French vessels during the war, were the only hoops of the kind that resisted and remained firm—a fact which appears to be decisive in favour of this iron. The cast iron obtainable from this mineral was about twenty per cent., but of wrought iron not more than ten per cent.

A bank of coral surrounds the island, at the distance of about three quarters of a mile from the shore, except off the steep parts of it, where the rocks prevail. This bank is upwards of ten feet above the level of the sea, and eighty fathoms or more wide, and is of the same length to windward as to leeward of the island, being formed by the sea: it is full of polipieres. There are two kinds of these banks: one consists of rays or vermicular tubes, so fine and compact that they form a body as hard as stone, and is the immediate work of the polypieres. The second is composed of the first, but contains more lime in it. It is not the immediate work of the insects, as the parts that compose it are irregularly connected, like the grès (*lapis arenceus*), which they resemble in their arrangement; but as they are calcinable are of a different nature. These coral stones appear to be composed of nothing more than very fine calcinable sand and broken shells. They are doubtless formed by the waves of the sea, which by beating upon

the corals and madreporæ, which it nourishes, reduces them to a very fine sand, whose particles it then drives on shore, and having cemented them by means of a certain juice which it mixes with them, a hard stone is formed that is employed in building. These banks rest on a bottom of reddish sand, of the same nature as that of the island: over this are large rocks of quartz four or five feet high, on which the bed of coral, which is from four to five feet thick, rests. Isle Tonneliers is nothing more than a bank of coral and shells about a mile and a half long, and a quarter of a mile wide. Large plains of this kind are also found at Flacq, which are covered with a short grass; but when they are overflowed by the hurricanes several of these banks are perpendicularly cleft. Besides these plains of coral, which the sea has formed and abandoned, the island is almost entirely surrounded by reefs, which generally extend a mile and a half into the sea. At high water they are covered, but when it is low there is not more than one foot and a half of water over the whole space which they occupy, and a passage is practicable over many parts of them. Nothing can be more agreeable than a party of pleasure among them, when the sea is tranquil and the weather is fine; and no description can convey an adequate idea of the beauty and variety of hue of a submarine forest of living corals, branching in various ways, and with their stems above the water. At the same time the polypi are seen to come from their cells in the form of plumes, and various fish of the most beautiful colours also present themselves to the view. The bottom is likewise decorated with oursins (*echinus marinus*), of different kinds and hues, which are found still more numerous in the recesses of the coral. After gales of wind and hurricanes the shores are strewed with the remains of the madreporæ (*coralla stellata*), which are filled with oursins and an infinity of fragments of other kinds, and the sea rises in such a manner, and so suddenly on the edge of the reefs, that vessels may range along them to get into port. The blacks often collect the species forming a strong concave tuft, and bury it in the sand to destroy the animal matter. In this process it becomes coloured with concentric rings of dull red and slaty blue. The mushroom coral (*fungia agariciformis*), is the representative of bone in a single transparent polyp, reflecting irridescent colours: its mouth is a simple longitudinal opening, placed above the line, where the plates meet at the centre of the coral. When young, the animal is attached to other bodies by a short stem. When sufficiently large it is detached and independent, and the cicatrix becomes covered with papillæ, like the rest of the under surface. From this surface the animal protrudes numerous transparent tentaculæ, by which it secures itself from being turned over by the action of the sea. Those that lose their hold, and turn on their upper side, die, and become bleached. The branched corals are an ornamental superincumbent growth upon

the reefs, the more solid parts of which are composed of the massive madreporæ, possibly on a bed of limestone, deposited by some natural process. When alive most of the corals and other madreporæ are brown or olive. One is bright green; some have a reddish tinge, and a large branched species is light indigo with brighter blue tips. Some are foliaceous, the leaf-like portions rising one above another. They appear to be conglomerate polyps with a continuous membrane, covering the whole mass externally, and connecting the individual inhabitants of the numerous cells. This, however, is not the case with the mushroom coral, called here champignon, which is a single animal. The reefs themselves are nothing more than coral or madreporæ, worked in the sea by the polypi, and form a steep or perpendicular bank, which is continually augmenting, either by the labour of those animals or the power of the sea, which when boisterous covers it with fragments of the same substance, which it has broken off from their beds, or forced up out of its own depths. The particular spots, which the billows have reached during the gale, are visible from the beds of fragments left by the sea when it has calmed. It appears highly probable that in time a dry passage will be obtained to the very brink of the reefs, so that the space now under water will become plains like those we have already described.

To say that the soil of the Mauritius is rich, in the English acceptation of the term, would be incorrect; for though in some parts a black vegetable mould is found, yet this is rather an exception to the general nature of the soil. The soil of the Champ de Mars, and the parts at the extremity of the harbour, is composed of a bed of rich clay, containing talc and lenticular stones, mixed with flints, gravel, and pebbles, beneath which are probably the same kind of rock as on the plains. In some places it is without any mixture, and may be termed quaking earth, as stakes of eight or ten feet long may be thrust into it without meeting with any resistance. The same sort of clay may be seen at the bottom of the mountains Decouverte, Longue, Pieter Both, and Moka, from whence M. le Gentil infers that these rest on a bed of clay, and urges this as a proof that the Isle of France is not the immediate effect of a volcano. The soil is in general light and ferruginous, of a brick-red colour: sometimes arid and barren. In some parts in the drier seasons the ground is extremely hard, and resembles pipe-clay; and to make trenches of it, it has to be cut with axes like lead. After rain it becomes viscid and tenacious, yet it does not seem adapted for bricks, but is fertile when cultivated, and when manured is very productive. The sugar-cane loves the vesicular or decomposed basalt (called *rocailles*), which obtains in many parts of the island, and which contains many excellent chemical properties. In many of the fields the stones are collected into ridges about four feet apart, and in others into squares. The canes are planted in the

interstices between these rude walls. Some of the stones are small, and others as large as a man's head, but the soil among them is adapted for the cane, which thrives even in the fissures of the rocks, where the stones preserve it from drought. Maize also flourishes in this soil, which requires no manure, and has all the productiveness of the lava of Vesuvius. The sand found near the ravines is the sand of a mine by the shore, that is composed of calcined shells, of which glasses of crystal were once attempted to be made. In digging wells in the Champ de Mars to the level of the sea no coral has been found; nor has any in the more elevated parts of the island, nor the shells which are so abundant on the shore. This is said to be a proof that this isle has never been covered by the sea.

CHAPTER II.

CLIMATE.—HEALTH.—HURRICANES, ETC.

M. LE GENTIL, of the Royal Academy of France, in his "Voyage to the Indian seas," gives the following account of the result of his observations on the climate of this island. "There are here four seasons: the first begins in May, and is accompanied with south-east winds, with squalls and rain. The latter is in general beneficial to the green crops, though sometimes it is injurious. The second season begins in September or October, when the south-east winds are succeeded by those from the north-west. The sun now approaches the zenith of the island, warms the atmosphere, and causes rain and winds, which generally begin in December, when the third season commences, and extends to March. The fourth or dry season then follows, and lasts only six weeks. This division of the year relates rather to the general cultivation of the island, than to any other circumstance, for, in point of fact, there are but two seasons, where the winds range from south-east to south, or from north-east to north. The south-east winds are strong and violent, but are free from danger to shipping, as they never exceed a certain degree of force. On the contrary, the winds from the north-east to the north-west are weak and broken by calms. This is called the rainy, tempestuous, and hurricane season. It is considered, indeed, as the winter, though it is the hottest period in the year, and is so called, because, while it lasts, no ships venture out to sea, and the voyage to the Indies is long and circuitous. The two intermediate seasons are caused by the change in the air, which is a kind of monsoon, blowing from south-east to north-east. The south-east winds give a sort of fresh-

ness to the air, but while they blow, everything ceases to vegetate, more especially in the parts most exposed to it. Hence it is that trees and fruit seldom attain any great degree of growth and perfection in the district of Pamplemousses, which is much too cleared of wood. The orange and lemon trees in the plain are shrunk or mutilated by this wind, whilst those which have the shelter of the woods are flourishing and lofty. The tamarind, which has a hardier nature, braves the malignity of the wind, and would form a protection for the more tender fruit trees of the gardens, but its growth is here so slow, as to be thought undeserving of care or cultivation, so that the trees seldom bear fruit on the side exposed to this obnoxious wind, while those on the other yield a comparative abundance. The nights are in general very fine, particularly in the season of the north-east winds; at this period the sun rises with a serene aspect. At about ten o'clock, small clouds appear and continue to accumulate without any menacing appearance: they occupy but a small space, while their motion is almost imperceptible. A few drops of water then fall—a certain sign of the coming rain, for the sky is almost immediately overcast, and so insensibly that it is impossible to perceive whence the clouds have proceeded: at the same time the rain increases in such a manner, as to render it impracticable to see any object at the distance of one hundred yards. These rains continue about two hours, but fall only when the wind sets in from the sea. When these inundating showers cease, vapours rise from the sea, and are stopped by the mountains. While the south-east winds last, however, a small rain is seen to fall, particularly in the evening, though the sky appears without a cloud, and is adorned with stars in full lustre. Rainbows are here produced by the moon, as well as the sun, a phenomenon seldom, if ever, seen in Europe. The general state of the weather in each month of the year is as follows:—(January.) Rainy, warm, and gloomy. The sun in his journey towards the southern tropic passes and repasses, and appears to linger over the island through December, January, and February, his scorching rays and fervid heat being at times scarcely bearable. Storms, sometimes accompanied by thunder, though by no means violent, but as the tempestuous season now approaches, navigation is almost suspended till April, while the fields become green, and the whole landscape assumes a cheerful appearance, but the sky is still dismal.—(February.) Violent gales of wind, perchance hurricanes and thunder. Thunderbolts have been known to fall in great numbers, and have killed men and cattle. Hurricanes were constant in this month till 1789: since then less frequent, but the inhabitants prepare for them, in case they should renew their periodical ravages. —(March.) The torrents are now less strong and impetuous: rains less frequent; winds now begin to be fresh, but without dew. The thick fogs by degrees disappear from the high mountains, which have been cloud-covered for some months: winds always in the south-

east. Heat moderate.—(April.) The season is fine and dry, and the grass begins to wither on the mountains.—(May.) Wind north-west. All the summits are visible, and though the sky is often foggy in the morning, it becomes pure in the afternoons which are calm. The season is dry, but in the low grounds and the interior, the air is fresh and agreeable. The breezes at the bottom of the bay cause abundant squalls of rain, but they do not last long: the temperature is stifling, when they do.—(June.) Winds fixed in the south-east, from which they seldom vary. Rain falls in small drops. —(July.) Wind still south-east. Strong breezes during the day, which subside at night, when all is calm. Though it is the dry season, the rain falls often in slight dropping showers, with brief but sometimes violent squalls, and the air is cool enough to require warm clothing. It is now winter,[1] (though still warm) if such an expression can be used in a country, where the trees never lose their leaves. —(August.) It rains almost every day. Rainbows are formed on the sides of the mountains by the rain, but they are not the less black on that account. The summits of the mountains are clad in cloudy vapours, which descend into the valleys, accompanied with gales of wind.—(September.) The same weather and wind. This was the time of the corn-harvest.—(October.) The temperature of the air is warmer, though it is yet fresh in the interior. At the end of this month, corn used to be sown, and in four months it was reaped. Maize was sown again in May, and was ripe in September, so that there were two harvests a year.—(November.) The heat is now sensibly felt: the winds are variable, sometimes in the north-west. Rains accompanied by storms —(December.) The heats increase: the sun is vertical, but the heat of the air is moderated by the rains, which destroy the rats, grasshoppers, ants, &c. In short the winds and rains produce here the same beneficial effects, which other countries receive from the cold and frosts of winter. The prevailing winds throughout the year may be said to range from north-east to south-east. East winds are unfrequent, and generally accompanied by abundant rains; the south wind is cold and blows in winter. St. Louis is deprived of all cool breezes (except those which blow from the sea, or north-west which are rare) as it is enclosed on three sides by the mountains: yet it is far from being unhealthy for a tropical town. The temperature is sometimes, however, very oppressive, and even the wind from the north-west is highly injurious, and is as much dreaded as the malaria in Italy. It causes headache and colds, and is carefully excluded from the apartments in its visits. About Reduit, and the district of Moka, which is one thousand two

[1] The thermometer ranges even now from 72° to 77° on board ship. On shore it is two degrees higher. In the sun from 120° to 122°. Barometer steady at 30′ 10. The average height of the thermometer in the hot season, *i. e.* from November to May, is estimated by Bradshaw at 83° in the shade, that is, it ranges from 76° to 90°.

hundred feet above the level of the sea, the sun seems to lose much of its scorching power, and shines with paler beams, while the temperature is always 7° or 8° cooler than at St. Louis, and even in the district of Pamplemousses, which is level, it is 3° or 4° lower. Reduit is even a chilly situation, and is very humid in the rainy season, so that, though it is within the tropics, a great part of the island is in a temperate climate. At the Rivière Noire, the climate is in general warm and dry, as the rains do not often reach the shore, the clouds being arrested and attracted by the lofty mountains in the neighbourhood. According to Mr. Martin, September, October, and November are here dry and moderately warm; mean of thermometer 79°, and prevailing winds south-east; north north-east, and north-west. In the four following months, mean heat 86°; winds, north north-west; west and south-west. April, May, and June are cool and refreshing; mean 70°; winds south and south-east in strong breezes. At the Powder Mills the mean heat through the year is at sun-rise 70°; afternoon 86°; sun-set 72°.

The sky of the Mauritius is generally remarkably clear, and magnificent, of an indescribable purity of blue, and the mountains, instead of resting on it, as they appear to do in more northerly climes, stand out from it in bold relief, while the eye looks beyond their irregular outline to a depth of æther, kindling in the blaze of the southern sun, and excelling in colour the pure blue of Italy. The stars are more numerous and brilliant, and of greater magnitude, than those of Europe; many are as brilliant as the planet Venus. The spectacle presented by this magnificent illumination is beyond description." Thus Bourbon, though one hundred and twenty miles distant, is frequently visible. This perhaps, will hardly excite wonder, when it is remembered that Mount Ida in Crete is visible from Cythera, and the Maléan promontory. It is this purity of the atmosphere that (according to Mr. Martin) enabled an old man to see objects at a distance of three or four hundred miles. The time for observation is at morning dawn, when the observer proceeds to a gentle eminence, and looks into the sky, (not on the horizon) where he beholds (with the naked eye) inverted, the object within his peculiar vision, which is extended or contracted, according to the rarity of the atmosphere. The telescopic eye of this old man is said to have been verified by several instances of correctness; viz. when the British squadron was assembling at Rodriguez (three hundred miles east of Mauritius) in 1810 to attack the island, a prediction for which he is said to have been imprisoned by M. Decaen for raising false alarms. Several instances are also mentioned of his descrying ships at a distance of three or four hundred miles, and stating their appearance, number of masts, and other facts connected with them. The old man[1] pro-

[1] I am bound to state that the reader must take this anecdote for what it is worth. I have my doubts as to its veracity, though Mr. Martin's statement is

fessed to teach his art, and a lady was found as a pupil. He was latterly made a pensionnaire of the treasury, and was engaged in informing the port captain what vessels were in his sight. When asked, his answer would probably be. "A ship, two hundred miles east, nearly becalmed. A schooner west, will make the land tomorrow. Two brigs standing to the southward," and his report was invariably correct.

The want of method displayed in the clearance of the forests in the Mauritius has had in many respects, an injurious effect on the climate. The first settlers effected their purpose by fire, so that they opened large spaces of country without leaving any intervals of wood which might attract the clouds to the newformed fields. The rains are the best, and indeed the only manure in the island, and they too often confine their course to the forests, leaving unbedewed the tracts that are cleared. Added to this, the fields, when deprived of the adjoining woods, have no protection against the violence of the winds, which are often pernicious to the harvest. The water of the rivers appeared to the first settlers to be unwholesome, as it gave the cramp to the young ducks, and the bloody flux to persons drinking it—a quality natural to all waters shaded by wood from the influence of the sun; for though it is injudicious to strip a hot country of its wood, it is dangerous to inhabit it when entirely covered with forests, particularly in the vicinity of water. The banks of the rivers were here no sooner deprived of shade, than the water became wholesome, but several of the rivulets near St. Louis were dried up in consequence. The temperature of a country newly inhabited may be entirely changed by destroying its wood; such a measure should therefore be adopted with great caution, according to the heat of the climate, and the nature of the soil. The woods should be left on the mountains, and a certain proportion on the plains, so as to attract the clouds, and feed the sources of those streams, which, on quitting the shade, would be purified by the sun, before they come into those parts beneath the hills which new settlers locate themselves on, and would then refresh the pastures at the bottom of valleys. Meadows, as well as arable land, should be skirted with masses of trees, inclosing lines, and should be left in such a manner, that the air may freely circulate through them, while they may protect the crops from destructive winds and parching heat. As some counterbalance to the evils which have arisen, it is thought that the paucity of hurricanes may be attributed to the diminution of wood. To say that the vigor of an European constitution is fully preserved here would be erroneous, for though the air is very salubrious on the mountains, yet in

positive as far as it goes. Experience has shown that men are able to keep up such deceptions long without discovery. Witness the case of Cavanagh and a *ci-devant* weather prophet. What is very remarkable, is, that when taken to Bourbon, his power disappeared with the change of scene.

other parts the mind is deprived of most of its activity and energy, and even in winter, when the natives complain of cold, the climate has an enervating influence. Many, however, of the East India Company's servants recruit their health here. It is not merely the almost insupportable heat of the sun during eight months of the year which enervates the body, but the softness of the air has the same effect; there is no exciting impression or animating sensation; indeed, there is sometimes almost an unconsciousness of existence. The French inhabitants are, in general, very temperate, a rule which is far from being observed by the negroes. In some of the mountainous districts of the country, the climate is so cool as to allow of the inhabitants having healthy complexions, and the young girls in many families have cheeks as glowing red as those of more northern climes. No malady seems peculiar to this island, but those of Europe prevail, as apoplexy, smallpox, pleurisy, obstructions in the liver (which may arise from vexation, as much as from any other cause). Lock-jaw is a more common disease here than in Europe, but hardly a crooked or deformed person is to be found. The negroes are subject to the stone. St. Pierre saw one that was larger than an egg. Violent gouts and paralytic disorders attack those who do not pay proper attention to diet. The negroes and children are much subject to worms, and when the former have the venereal disease, they are subject to dreadful chaps or clefts in the soles of their feet. The air has little of medicinal virtue, and gouty persons are liable to keep their beds for months together. The change of the seasons has no little effect on the constitution of the inhabitants. They are then liable to bilious fevers, and the heat often occasions ruptures, but temperance and bathing will keep a man in health. The scurvy sometimes makes its appearance at St. Louis, but those affected with scorbutic complaints are soon cured on their removal into the country. The smallpox and cholera morbus have both proved severe scourges. The former has visited the island four or five times; in 1792 it is said to have carried off twenty thousand persons, and from the latter, in 1819—20, there perished twelve thousand persons. The mortality among the troops is very little greater than that of Europe, not exceeding 30·5 per thousand annually, and it would be still less were it not for the irresistible temptations offered by the use of arrack and other ardent spirits. In a tropical climate the issue is delirium tremens, from which many more die than from the climate. To those who are seasoned to the climate, a removal to Europe is rather injurious than otherwise, and the Bishop of Ruspa, when in England, assured me he never enjoyed such good health as in this island.

CHAPTER III.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE KINGDOM.

According to the Abbé de la Caille, monkeys were brought into the Isle of France by the Portuguese, who would appear to be the only civilized nation that considers them comestible. There are two species, both of a middling size, the largest of which has thick hair of a reddish-gray colour, with a long tail; they are both gregarious. These animals frequently venture in droves, sometimes of sixty or seventy, to plunder the houses of the inhabitants. They will climb the highest mountains and trees, and repose above the precipices on the smallest projections, where no other quadruped of their size could venture; and so nimble are they that it is seldom the sportsman can even catch a sight of them. One portion of their food consists of the eggs of birds.

No *ruse de guerre* is unpractised by these animals in escaping the vengeance of the exasperated proprietors. Thus, while the troop ravages the plantations of sugar-cane and bananier, its numerous sentinels, placed on the rocks and loftiest trees, look with care to the common safety: A cry announces the approach of the enemy; then the pillagers bearing their booty under each of their arms, and tripping away on their hind feet, promptly retake their route to the ravines; if in the retreat the less clever, or the too heavily charged, are unable to escape the fatal gun, but, though severely wounded, succeed in gaining some covert, their companions return to carry them off when the danger is removed; and such is the strong and vivacious constitution of these animals that they seldom fail to recover from their wounds. It has been remarked that on account of their experience the wounded become the chiefs of the band, unless indeed the bodies of their comrades, pierced through in the last expedition, and suspended to the neighbouring trees, suffice to intimidate and disgust them with these depredations. Very fortunately for the planter they seldom quit their retreats by night. Negro boys are often placed to make a noise about the woods to frighten them off; but these cunning animals will if possible discover an unguarded avenue, and carry off what they can find. Fowling-pieces and hounds are more effectual; but so great is their address and agility, that though they are as large as a common spaniel they contrive to hide themselves among the branches, and leap from tree to tree with such rapidity that it is very difficult to destroy them.

The white hare was formerly plentiful, but is now almost extinct.

The rats, which resemble the European animal, and may possibly have been introduced in the ships, are very large, and issue

from the woods during the night in prodigious numbers. They make large hoards of corn and fruit under ground, and climb up to the tops of the trees to eat the young birds, and will pierce the thickest rafters. In one night they will destroy an entire crop, and sometimes will leave a field of maize without an ear. To destroy them the negroes set traps along the borders of the woods, consisting of wooden balls cut in half, the flat side being placed towards the ground. These are supported by three small pieces of wood, and some grains of maize are placed upon them, so that when the rats seize the bait the semi-ball falls and crushes them.

Mice are very common here, and the havoc they make is incredible.

The dronte, dodo, or dodaer, denominated walg-vogel by the Dutch, and by the French "oiseau de degout," or "le géant," was found by Bontekoe, and the earlier navigators, on all the three islands of Mauritius, Bourbon, and Rodriguez, and affords an example of the extinction of an animal within a comparatively recent date.

It is supposed that the flamingo (*Phœnicopterus*), a large and beautiful sea-bird, in the plumage of which black and white and the colour of the rose are intermingled, was common in this island, but they are now seldom or never seen.

The corbigeaux is, perhaps, the best game in the island, but the most difficult to shoot.

There are two species of the *paille en queue* (the Phaeton æthereus of Linn.), called by the English "the tropic bird;" the one of a silver white, the other with a red beak, claws, and rump. Though a sea bird, it builds its nest in the woods. Its name is by no means expressive of its extraordinary beauty. Though keeping near the sea, it does not fear the sight of man.

There are several species of green parroquets, with a grey capuche. They are of the size of a sparrow, and fit for eating; but are almost untameable, and destructive to the crops.

Blackbirds are found in the woods, and considered as game. They are often so tame as to approach close to the sportsman, who may knock them down with his gun.

There is a species of pigeon called the Dutch pigeon, of most magnificent plumage; and another variety, which, though of a pleasant taste, is liable to throw those eating it into convulsions.

In the mountain districts there is a species of hawk, resembling the sparrow-hawk, called the chicken-eater, which is said to feed on grasshoppers. Its abode is on the sea-shore, and it discovers no alarm at the sight of man. It is the only bird of prey at the Mauritius.

Among the most formidable animals is that which M. de Buffon calls the great bat of Madagascar. It is about a foot in length from its posterior extremity to its head (being nearly the size of a

cat), and its wings stretch to about four feet. It has large canine teeth, consisting of four in the upper, and as many in the lower jaw. Its muzzle is black and sharp, its ears large and bare. Its talons are hooked, large, and compressed, but it has no tail. These bats are of different colours, some of a bright red, others brown, and some are almost black. They resemble the common bat in their interior conformation, the shape of their wings, and the manner of spreading them when they fly. When these animals repose they cling to the tops of the highest trees, and hang with their heads downwards. At other times they fix themselves upon animals, and even upon man himself. They feed indifferently on fruit, flesh, and insects, and are so fond of the juice of the palm-tree that they sometimes intoxicate themselves with it, so as to fall to the ground. Their horrid shrieks are heard during the night in the forests at two miles distance; but they retire at the approach of day. Nothing is safe from the ravages of these destructive creatures, they equally destroy the wild and domestic birds whenever they have an opportunity, and they will sometimes attack the human kind by seizing and tearing the face. "It is very probable," says M. de Buffon, "that the ancients borrowed the idea of the harpies from these terrible animals. The Indians consider them as a palateable article of food, particularly in that season of the year when they are the most fat; and even some of the French, both in Bourbon and Mauritius, though they had at first a great repugnance to them as an article of food, formerly followed the Indian example, and admitted them to their tables. The negroes, however, hold them in the greatest horror, and no consideration whatever could induce them to touch these noxious animals, but to destroy them, for which purpose they employ uncommon dexterity. It has often happened that persons have been attacked while asleep and bled to death by them, as they are powerful and subtle blood-suckers, so that it is really dangerous to sleep in the open air, or let them enter a house during the night. There is another species resembling the European bat."

Marine Productions.—The seas that surround the Mauritius produce a great variety of fish, many of which are unknown in Europe. The black whale is numerous on the windward coasts of the island and in the adjacent seas, and the sperm whale is successfully sought for to the northward; and in the neighbourhood of the Seychelles, especially about September, the time of their coupling, when they are frequently seen to poise themselves perpendicularly in the water. They are smaller than the northern whale. They are never caught by the inhabitants, though the negroes are not unacquainted with the art of harpooning them, because they are engaged in more useful and less perilous occupations. The flesh of these whales is like that of the ox. This mine of wealth and nursery for the most enterprising and daring class of seamen is most

unaccountably neglected by the British merchant. "It is a service," says an eminent naval writer, "from the very nature of it, best adapted for the training of sharp, hardy, adventurous men, wherewith to man a fleet. It is a subject of deep interest to a country like England, and to revive and foster it, it ought to be carefully set about." Premiums and the presence of men of war appear at first sight the readiest method, but we question whether such a violation of the maxims of political economy would not prove yet more detrimental when the temporary prop should be removed. At present these advantages are almost entirely in the hands of the Americans, who literally swarm the whole of these seas, and carry on a very thriving trade, and one much more lucrative than ships going with low freights. It is usual to meet three or four of them sailing in company, they fill up rapidly, take black whale or sperm, and when these fail the smaller sort, or anything that will yield oil. It is said also that they enter into the smuggling line. It appears that a few years since the French had also allowed this valuable source of prosperity to fall into neglect, and that by premiums and protection it has been recovered, and is now yearly improving. Occasionally an English whaler is met with at sea, but it is a rare sight.

The veille is a fish of a blackish colour, like a cod both in shape and taste. It is sometimes poisonous, as well as several other kinds, which however are easily known. Those who accidentally eat of them are seized with convulsions, which sometimes end in death. In such circumstances their skin falls off in scales. The fleet of Admiral Boscawen lost a large number of men by eating of this fish at the island of Rodriguez. It is supposed that these fish acquire their poisonous quality by eating the branches of the madrepores. The poisonous fish may be known by the blackness of their teeth, or by throwing a piece of silver into the kettle in which they are boiling, which becomes black if they are impregnated with deleterious juices. It is, however, a very singular circumstance that this fish is never unwholesome to the windward of the island. It would, therefore, seem to be an ill-founded opinion that the madrepores communicate this poison, because the island is surrounded with banks of coral. Others attribute it to the fruit of some poisonous tree which falls into the sea; but this opinion is even less likely to be correct than the other, since, among other reasons, the island does not produce any fruit that would have so pernicious an effect. There is also a kind of wood-pigeon whose flesh when eaten occasions convulsions; but as it is a bird of passage, while this fish is found in every part of these seas, this fatal quality may be acquired on the neighbouring coasts of Madagascar or the main land. In the number of these suspected fish are several of a whitish appearance, with a wide mouth and large head, such as the captain and carranque. The flesh of these fish is

not remarkably good, and those are not supposed to be dangerous which have a rough bone on the palate. Sharks are sometimes found, but they are never eaten. In general the smaller the fish are, the less danger there is in eating them.

The roach is much larger, though inferior in taste to that of Europe. Both it and the mullet, which is very common, are considered wholesome. The pilchard and mackerel differ little in appearance from those known to Europeans. The poule d'eau is a kind of turbot, and the best fish of these seas; its fat is green. There are white rays, whose long tails are covered with sharp-pointed bones, and others, whose skin and flesh are black; the sabre fish, so called from their shape; the moon fish, speckled with different colours; and the purse fish, whose skin is marked with the meshes of a net. There are other fish like our whiting, of red, yellow, and violet colours. There are also the parroquet fish, which is green, with a yellow head and white hooked beak; they swim in shoals, as the birds from whom they derive their name fly in flocks. The armed fish is small, and of a very whimsical shape; its head is like that of the pike, which bears on its back seven bony bristles as long as its body, the prick of which is poisonous, they are united by a pellicle that resembles the wing of a bat. It is marked from its mouth to its tail with brown and white stripes like a zebra. There is a fish which is square like a trunk, after whose name it is called, and is armed with two horns like a bull. Several kinds never attain to any considerable size, as the porcupine fish, bristled over with long prickles, and the polypus, which crawls in the swamps with its seven claws armed with air-holes; it changes its colour, spouts forth water, and endeavours to defend itself against any one who attempts to take it. These strange fish are found in the ledges and reefs of rocks, and are seldom if ever applied as food.

The fresh-water fish are better than ours, and appear to be of the same kind as those which are taken in the sea. Among these, the best are the lubin, grey mullet, and carp, the cabot, that lives in the torrents formed by rocks to which it adheres by means of a concave membrane; the cabeaux during the season of the heavy rains is taken in considerable numbers, its skin is black, but the flesh is delicately white; and very large and delicate shrimps. The eel is a kind of conger; there are some from seven to eight feet in length, and of the thickness of a man's leg; they retire into the holes of the rivers, and sometimes attack those who are so imprudent as to bathe there. The lobster or langoustes is of a prodigious size, though their claws are comparatively small; they are of a blue colour, marbled with white. There is a smaller species of a most beautiful form, and of a sky blue colour with two small claws divided into two joints, which are like a knife, whose blade turns back into the handle, it seizes its prey as if it were maimed. There is a great va-

riety of the crab. The following are the most remarkable:—A species rough with tubercles and prickles like a madrepore; another which has on its back the impression of five red seals; another, whose claws terminate in the form of a horse-shoe. There is a kind also, which is covered with hair, but is entirely unprovided with claws, and sticks to the sides of ships. Another species is of a gray colour with a smooth indented shell, on which appear several whimsical and irregular figures that are exactly similar to each crab. There is another, whose eyes are placed at the termination of two long tubes, like telescopes. When it does not employ them, it lays them in grooves along the side of its shell. The sea spider is a crab with red claws of unequal length. There is also a crab, whose shell is three times larger than itself; thus it appears to be covered with a large shield, and when in motion, its feet are not visible. In many places along the sea-shore, a few feet beneath the water are found great numbers of boudins de mer, red, and black. When they are dragged on shore, they emit a thick, white, and flimsy matter, which is transferred in a moment into a parcel of loose glutinous threads. This animal is supposed to be the enemy of the crabs, among whom it is found. Its slime is calculated to embarrass their claws, which are not able to lay hold of its elastic coat or cylindrical shape. The sailors give it a very gross name, which may be rendered into Latin by mentula monachi. The Chinese greatly esteem it, and consider it as a powerful stimulant. Among the shell-fish may be ranked a shapeless, soft, and membraneous mass, in the centre of which is a single flat bone somewhat bent. In this species, the common order of things seems reversed, as the animal is without, and the shell within.

There are several kinds of oursin—(Echinus marinus)—the blue oursin, with long prickles. In the water its two eyes shine like grains of lapis lazuli, and among many others, there is one which resembles the bottom of an artichoke.

Of the various snails, some remain fixed to the rocks with an incrusted shell, and others, whose shell is smooth and shining, wander about. Among the former is the bouche d'argent epineuse; the bouche d'or, whose shell is yellow; the river snail, whose black skin conceals a fine rose colour striped with points d'hongrie; the Persic or Panama conch, which affords a liquor yielding a purple dye; a long snail, whose mouth is marked with black spots, and several others.

Among the wandering snails are the fluted nerite (neritina corona), a black shell armed with long spines; the smooth nerite, with red, gray, and black streaks in all directions. Of these, there is a great variety. The harp snail, the most beautiful in shape and colour; another similar, but with the addition of prickles; a snail similar to one seen at the Azores, and yielding a purple juice, and many others including the Navicella elliptica, a smooth, oval, black shell, nearly

an inch long; the smooth and flat lepas; the star lepas, and the lepas fluviatilis, which like the other shells found in the rivers of this island is covered with a black skin. The oreille de mer, whose inside is empearled, and a kind of white shell, whose bourellet is still more rounded. The vermicular (the serpula of Linn.), which is nothing more than a white pipe, is supposed to be a fragment of the arrosoir (the Serpula penis) a large kind, which winds across the madrepores. The cornet of St. Hubert, a small white vermicular in a spiral form, and divided into separate partitions like the nautilus; the nautilus papyraceus, and the common nautilus, whose section forms such a fine volute. Among the rouleaux (conus Linn.) is a common olive. Voluta Linn., a beautiful olive, resembling the shades of a velvet of three colours; the black is most esteemed; there are some of five inches in length; a small olive more open; and the common rouleau with red spots. These three kinds have an upper skin covered with hair; the drap d'or, whose shell is very small, striped in zigzag; the poire; the rouleau covered with skin like the poire, whose mouth has a hollow slit, and is of a fine scarlet; the ear of Midas is incrusted, but it is of a beautiful lustre; the grand casque of a pale yellow colour; the white casque spotted with purple is very small; the scorpion is covered with skin, and has several fangs; and, lastly, the arraignée, a large and fine shell, whose lips are of a violet colour, and have a mouth decked with prickles.

Among the porcelaines (cypræa, Linn.) there is a common kind of a reddish brown, à dos d'âne; another, which is spotted like a tiger; and the carte de geographie, which is rare. There is also the œuf, or the egg of a milk white, whose mouth is red and yellow. The lievre (lepus) of a fine dark red colour; and the olive de roche (voluta), whose shell is very brittle and may be taken in the Baie de Tombeau by leaving a line with baits upon it in the deep water for a few hours.

Among the vis, the common speckled vis is very long; there is another equally beautiful, whose spiral form is accompanied with a moulding; the enfant en maillot, more swelled; another equally large, called culotte de Suisse, whose colours and lustre are very fine; a small vis, with a kind of beak with a hole pierced in it; another à dos d'âne that is also pierced; the fuseau blanc, which is rare; the fuseau with red spots; the maritime mitre, marked with the same spots; the mitre fluviatilis, covered with a black skin. It is a singular circumstance that all the univalves are turned from left to right, the shell being placed on its mouth, and the point towards the person who regards it. Exceptions from this general rule are very rare. If it were asked, by what law their volute always turns to the same side; it may be answered by the same law which makes the earth turn from the west to the east. In that case, the sun may be the effective cause, as it is of their colours, which increase in beauty,

as we approach nearer to the line. The scorpion, which has very long claws, increases its shell every year. Its old claws become useless, and it forms new ones. It may be asked, what has it done with the old ones? In the same manner the porcelaine has a thick mouth, which is formed in such a way, that it cannot augment its revolutions on itself, if it does not succeed in destroying the obstacles to its opening. It is not improbable that these animals possess a liquor capable of dissolving the walls of the roof, which they wish to enlarge, and if this dissolvent exists, it might be employed for the stone in the bladder, and to destroy those glutinous humours, which resemble the prima materia of shells. Among the bivalves are the common oyster, which adheres to the rocks, and is of so rude a shape that it is necessary to employ a hammer to open it; it is good to eat; a species called the leaf, on account of its form; a grey oyster, which sticks to the sides of ships, and whose shell is beautiful and elastic; this is very rare. The pearl oyster is white, flat, thick, and very large; it is found at a great distance from land, and is the same as that in which pearls are found; another pearly oyster, which is still flat, and of a deep violet colour, attaches itself by means of threads like the muscle. It is very common at the south-east port, and is found at the mouths of the rivers. Its pearls are of a violet colour. The oyster called la tuillée is by no means uncommon, it is of the same kind as those which serve for holy water pots in the church of St. Sulpice at Paris. It is, perhaps, the largest shell-fish in the sea. Some of them are found at the Maldives, that require two bullocks to drag them along. This oyster is found in a state of petrifaction on the coast of Normandy. There is a species of oyster very small, and of a grey colour, that resembles a Polish saddle in shape; the thorny oyster, which is found in the beds of coral, and the pelure d'oignon or onion-peel, of which some detached shells are generally found. There are three kinds of muscle, which are neither curious nor common. They resemble in shape the "dail" of the Mediterranean, and are found among the madreporæ; there is also a white muscle with an elastic shell, which incorporates itself with the sponge; it is an intermediate gradation between two kinds.

The hache d'armes is of the muscle kind, and is formed like a battle-axe with the hatchet on one side, and a point on the other; it is covered with asperities, and opens with a simple elastic plait. Among the cockles is the arche de noé, whose extremities rise like the poop of a vessel; the cœur de bœuf, one side of which is irregular; the corbeille, whose flutings bend with each other; the rape, whose stries or gutters are formed by arches, which cross one another; a common cockle with a slender shell, the inside of which is tinged with a deep blue; another sort, which is very beautiful and scarce, and marked like embroidery on the outside; the peigne, and the manteau ducal of a fine aurora colour. There is every ap-

pearance that the shell-fish have their hostilities, as well as other animals, as the shattered remains of them are continually found on the shore, and those which are taken in an entire state are always pierced in different parts. There is a snail armed with a sharp tooth, with which it wounds the shell of the muscle. It is found also in the Straits of Magellan, and is called the armed burgau. To obtain fine shell-fish, they must be taken alive. Those whose covering is clear, live on the sand, where they take refuge in stormy weather; others cling to the rocks. The muscles take abode among the branches of submarine plants, where they do not multiply in any great degree. If they were to spawn on the rocks, as in Europe, the hurricanes would destroy them. There is much variety in the hinges of the shells of these fish, which the artificer might imitate with advantage. The oyster has but little leather, which incorporates with the stony substance. The muscle has a strong elastic skin: the hache d'arme has but one fold; the cœur, if regular, has some small teeth at its hinge, which lock in one another, and if one of its sides extends, the hinge increases on the side where the weight preponderates, and the teeth, which form it, have a proportionate strength. An admirable principle of geometry is visible in their curb. Formerly there was great plenty of turtles on the coast, but they are now seldom or never seen; the flesh was like beef, the fat green, and well tasted. The sea-side is full of holes, which are inhabited by great numbers of tourlouroux, a kind of amphibious crab that burrows under the earth, like a mole. They run very fast, and when in danger of being taken, snap their claws, and present their points, with which they make a kind of ringing noise by way of menace. This animal is of no use to man. Another very singular amphibious animal is the bernard l'hermite (cancer bernhardus, Linn.), a kind of lobster, whose hinder part is without a shell, but instinct has taught it to lodge that part in any empty shell it can find upon the shore. They may be seen running about in great numbers, each of them carrying its borrowed house, which, when incommodious from its being too small, it changes, as opportunity serves, for one that is more capacious.

Insects.—The most destructive insects in the island are the locusts. They will light upon a field like a fall of snow, darkening the sky at their approach, and lie upon the ground several inches deep, eating up its verdure in the course of a night. They then lay their eggs, which are speedily hatched, and the ground is covered with them. They are the most dreaded enemy of the planter. Unless destroyed, they soon hop about, and would shortly rise upon the wing. The mode of attaining this important object is as follows. Small holes are made in the ground, about the size and depth of the crown of a hat, into which the negroes, with small brooms, sweep the young, and, having covered them with earth, press it down with their feet. As this practice is universal over the

island, this mischievous insect is at length destroyed. There are a large variety of caterpillars, some of which, as that of the Citronnier, are very large and beautiful, and a nocturnal butterfly, which bears on its corslet the figure of a death's head (the atropos or tête de mort). This is called "Har," and flies chiefly about rooms. The down of its wings is said to blind those whose eyes it touches. The houses abound with ants, which destroy provisions of every kind. The pantries are not safe from their ravages, unless they stand in water. Numbers of them are killed by an insect called Formicalao. The serpent and adder are said to have been discovered in Isles Rond and the Coin de mere, but have never been seen in the main island. The centipede (cent pieds, scolopendre) is frequently found in damp places. This insect seems to have been destined to warn man from unwholesome places. Its sting is very painful, and long in healing, and will bring an ulcer. Some of these insects attain the length of six inches, and ants have been seen to seize their legs and drag them along like a piece of timber. The yellow wasp, with black rings upon the body, whose larvæ or grubs, when roasted in the combs, are eaten by the Creoles, (who, in taking the nests, drive off the wasps by means of a burning rag, fastened to the end of a stick,) is not less formidable for its sting than the scorpion, which is very common here, and builds in trees, and even in houses. Its hive is of a substance like paper. Its bite is not mortal, but it produces a fever, which is cured by rubbing the affected part with oil. This insect is the only one in the island that is really noxious to man, and even it has become much less venomous than formerly. The wasp called the maconnel, builds itself a nest of earth like the work of a swallow. It lodges in unfrequented rooms. These wasps shape leaves with their teeth into circular pieces into the size of a sixpence, with great nicety. They carry them into their nests, and, having rolled them into the shape of a horn, deposit their eggs in them. There is another kind of insect, of a blackish colour, resembling the ant in appearance and industry, and is not less sagacious in the mode of forming its abode. It makes great havoc among the trees and timber, whose wood it pulverizes, and with the dust forms arches of about an inch in breadth, over which it passes and repasses. These arches are black, and will sometimes run over the timber of a whole house. These insects, called carias, will penetrate through trunks and furniture in one night: the most certain remedy against their depredations is to rub the places they frequent with garlic.

There are three kinds of cancrelas (Blatta Indica), a kind of beetle. The dirtiest of all is the scarabrea. One of them is flat and grey; the most common one is the size of a cockchafer, and is of a reddish brown. This cancrelas or kakerlaque, is a coleopterous insect, which soils and destroys everything. It attacks furniture, especially books and papers, and harbours constantly in offices and kitchens. It is called ravet in the Antilles, though the cancrelas of

the Mauritius is larger than the ravet of St. Domingo, yet it is equally troublesome by piercing the water-casks in ships, and making holes of two inches in circumference. It has for an antagonist a species of scarabræa or green fly, very gaudy and very nimble, whose touch alone renders it motionless. The fly then seeks for some crack or chink, to which it draws the cancrelas, and thrusts it in, deposits an egg on its body, and then leaves it. This touch, which some look upon as a charm, is the stroke of a sting, the effect of which must be instantaneous, as that insect is of a very hardy nature. In the trunks of trees there is found a large worm with claws, that knaws the wood: it is called moutouc. Not only the black but the white people consider it palatable food. Pliny observes, that it was a favourite dish at the first tables in Rome, where it was the custom to fatten it with flour. Those were most preferred which were found in the trunk of the oak. It was called cossus. Thus have wealth and poverty combined in the same taste, and, like most extremes, meet.

On the borders of rivulets are seen the insects called "demoiselles" (libellula), which are of a fine violet colour, with a head like a ruby. It is carnivorous, and feeds on butterflies, which it will carry through the air. The kind of flies which are common in Europe are also to be found here. The gnat called moustique or maringouin is very troublesome, as its loud hum is to be heard in every place it frequents. This gnat is black, spotted with white. Gauze curtains, called mousticiaires, are employed as preservatives against it during the night. The rooms are at certain seasons filled with moths or small butterflies, which flutter about the candles, and singe themselves. They are so numerous that the candles are often obliged to be put into cylinders of glass.

A small and beautiful lizard about four or five inches in length, with very lively eyes, is to be found in the houses. It makes a faint chattering noise, which is often heard at night. It crawls up the walls and ceiling, and even along the glass of the windows. It feeds on flies and insects, for which it lays in wait with extreme patience. It lays eggs that are small and round like a pea, whose shell is spotted white and yellow like pullets' eggs. Some of them become so tame as to take milk and sugar from the hand. Far from being noxious, they are very useful. Some very beautiful ones are to be found in the woods, being of an azure colour, inclining to green with crimson streaks on the back, resembling Arabic characters. But a still more formidable enemy to the insects is the spider. Some of them are as large as a nut, with long legs covered with hair. Their webs are so strong that even small birds are caught in them. They are useful in destroying wasps, scorpions, and centipedes. The white louse is very injurious to fruit-trees; and there is a bug whose bite is more dangerous than that of a scorpion, and is succeeded by a tumour as big as a pigeon's egg, which continues four or five days. The mild tempe-

rature of this climate, so much desired by the inhabitants of Europe, is favourable to the propagation of the insects which devour fruit. But the fruits of these southern countries are clothed with such thick rinds, hard skins, and aromatic barks, that there are very few in which the fly can deposit its worm. Many of these insects also are in a continual state of hostility, as the centipedes and scorpion. The formicalao lays its snare for the ants; the green fly stings the cancrelas; the lizard pursues the butterfly; the spider prepares its nets for every insect that flies; and the hurricanes, which were formerly looked for every year, destroy both the pursuer and pursued.

ANIMALS THAT HAVE BEEN INTRODUCED INTO THE ISLE OF FRANCE.—Among these are goats, wild or Maroon hogs, and deer, which last were at one time so plentiful that a squadron of ships was victualled with them. Their flesh is excellent, particularly in April, May, June, July and August. The flocks which have been domesticated have never multiplied. Among the domestic quadrupeds there are sheep who lose their wool, goats that on the contrary thrive, and cattle that come from Madagascar, and have a large wen on their necks. The cows give very little milk, and their calves degenerate. There was once but a partial supply of butchers' meat, but the inhabitants have a resource in pork which is better than that of Europe; it does not, however, make good salt meat, which proceeds from a defect in the salt, it being too acid. The female pig is very subject in this island to produce monsters. Horses used to be very dear; a common one would cost a hundred pistoles. They are now more reasonable, being procured from the Cape at an average of 30*l.* for each animal. On account of the ravine-like nature of the roads it is only lately that they have been shod. Mules are in common use, and are procured from South America. They are fast giving way to the camel, which has been lately introduced by a spirited landed proprietor. The ass is here rare and small. Cats degenerate, the greater part become thin and emaciated; nor do the rats discover any very great apprehension of them. Dogs are much more effectual in destroying these noxious animals; but even they in time lose their hair and scent. It is said they have never been known to go mad in this island.

The bird called "the gardener's friend" has been introduced from the Cape, as also a small and very melodious singing bird, which, being brought from curiosity, escaped into the woods, where it greatly multiplied, and is a source of great mischief. They subsist on the fruits of the harvest, and the government sets a price on their destruction. There is a very pretty tomtit, whose wings are dotted with white spots; and the cardinal has been brought from Bengal. There are three kinds of partridge, much smaller than ours, and their cry resembles that of a hoarse cock; they roost, as

in other hot countries, on the trees during the night. The fine pheasant of China and pintades have been let loose on the woods. Geese and wild ducks have also been introduced to the pools of water, as also tame ones; and among others the Manilla duck, which is very beautiful. There are our European fowls, a kind of African fowl, whose skin, flesh and bones are black; and another sort from China, the male of which is remarkable for its courage. Many of the inhabitants derive considerable advantage from their poultry, on account of the scarcity of meat. Pigeons succeed well, and they are the best fowl in the island. Two kinds of turtle-doves, as well as hares, have been brought here.

The martin has multiplied very much indeed in this island. It is a kind of Indian starling, with a yellow beak and claws. It scarcely differs from that of Europe, but in its plumage, which is less spotted. It has the same warble, the same aptitude to articulate words, and the same actions. It counterfeits other birds, and settles on animals to pluck their hair; but it is most remarkable for its greedy consumption of grasshoppers. They always go in pairs, and at sunset assemble in thousands on certain trees which they prefer. After a general warbling the whole flight goes to rest, and at break of day they disperse in pairs through different parts of the island: this bird is not eatable. The raven was let loose in the woods to destroy the rats and mice, but they soon became extinct; perhaps by the hand of some of the inhabitants, who accused them of devouring chickens.

Foreign fish have even been introduced into this island. The gourami, a large and broad flat fresh-water fish (the flesh of which is very firm and of delicate flavour, and is esteemed the best in the Indies) has been put into the rivers. It resembles the salmon in taste. The gold fish from China, which lose their beauty as they increase in size, have been brought hither. These two species multiply in the pools. Several ineffectual attempts have been made to transport frogs hither, which eat the eggs the moustique deposits on the stagnant waters.

Vegetable Kingdom.—For a description of the indigenous and exotic plants found at the Mauritius, I must refer the reader to the Appendix.

PART THE FOURTH.

CHAPTER I.

AGRICULTURE.—HORTICULTURE.

"THOUGH the Isle of France," says M. Poivre, in his report to the Duc de Choiseul, in 1766, "possesses a fertile soil, with brooks that are never dry in the hottest season, and water the island like a garden; nevertheless, the harvest often fails, and the place is always more or less in a state of want. This arises from the erratic character of the inhabitants, who pursue project after project, and endeavour to cultivate every kind of plant, but without the perseverance that will ensure success. Coffee, cotton, indigo, sugar canes, the pepper plant, cinnamon tree, tea plant, mulberry tree, cocoa, and roucou, have each had their turn; but the knowledge and attention necessary to establish an experiment has always been absent. If they had followed," he continues, "the simple plan of their founder, which was in the first instance to secure a plentiful supply of bread, the island would at this time have been in a flourishing state, abundance would have reigned, and the vessels that touched there would have found plenty of provisions and refreshments. The cultivation of corn, neglected and ill understood as it is, succeeds the best, and the land which is employed in tillage bears in the same year a crop of corn, and another of rice or Indian corn, without ever lying fallow or receiving manure, and with no great exertion of labour."

Large herds of cattle and flocks of sheep were originally brought from Madagascar to this island for the purpose of stocking it; but when it was discovered that more was to be gained by importing slaves than cattle, the latter were neglected, and continued to diminish by the consumption of the island and the supply of vessels. Besides, the ground, which had been prepared for pasture, was so injudiciously disposed and managed, that there was not sufficient herbage for the maintenance of the cattle. In some dis-

tricts there was a very fine grass, which shot up at the beginning of the rainy season, attained to the height of five or six feet, and arrived at its full growth in the space of three months, while that season lasted. At this time the colonists sent their herds to graze on it, by which they were soon fattened, and, unless checked, would have gorged themselves with it, and fatal results would have followed; but when the vegetation ceased, it became dry and hard, so that the cattle could not eat it. By a thousand accidents, the dried grass was frequently set on fire, which sometimes occasioned conflagrations in the adjoining woods. During the remainder of the year, the flocks and herds were left to wander about the forests in search of a precarious subsistence. The great error which had been committed in this island, which was once covered with forests, and had proved most prejudicial to its agriculture, was the injudicious manner in which the ground had been cleared. The first settlers effected their purpose by fire, so that they opened large spaces of country without leaving any intervals of wood, which could alone attract the clouds to the new-formed fields. The rains are the best and indeed the only manure in the island, and they generally confine their course to the forests, leaving unbedewed the tracts that are cleared. Moreover, deprived of the surrounding woods, these fields had no protection against the violence of the winds, which often destroyed an entire harvest. The lands of the Isle of France, according to M. Gentil, bore a larger proportion of annual produce than those of the mother country, though the soil appears dry, poor, and arid, especially in summer, and the vegetables draw all the nourishment from the water and the air. In size, too, the discrepancy was remarkable. Thus the manioc, which remained eighteen months in the ground before it was fit for use, was as thick as a man's leg. The maize which was sown during the warm rains, which gave such vigour to vegetation that the weeds frequently prevailed over the regular crops, was also very successful, though it required a considerable quantity of water and heat, so that the season of the north-east wind agreed with it the best. It was planted among the stones, with which large and small the greater part of the soil is covered, where it was found most to luxuriate, and grew to the height of from eight to ten feet. Such a soil was not adapted for other species of corn. Unpromising as this soil was, the inhabitants reaped two and sometimes three harvests in the course of the year, as the crops never failed, the rocks which kept the earth from becoming dry preserving the soil in the requisite state of humidity. The hogs and poultry were fed on this grain in common with the slaves, but the inhabitants generally do not value it as an article of food. Rice was also grown in the low grounds near the sea, in the quartier of Flacq; but its cultivation is now almost abandoned for the more profitable sugar crop. The maximum amount of corn produce would appear to have been

eighty-fold; the minimum thirty-fold. To insure a good harvest a concurrence of favourable circumstances was necessary. Thus the rats and birds had to be checked in their devastations, the rain should fall in such a manner as not to beat down the crop, and the ear should be preserved from mildew. Corn was sown in May and June, and generally reaped at the end of September. Beans were equally rapid in their progress to maturity. On account of the rocks, corn was here planted, as the plough could not be used, which rendered necessary the employment of a larger number of hands in spade-labour. The coffee tree was never permitted to attain its natural height in the Isle of France, being kept down to a thicket of seven or eight feet. This is attributed to the climate, and the necessity of preserving the trees from hurricanes, which would not have so much power over them in their mutilated state. This tree soon exhausted the soil in which it was planted, so that a plantation only lasted from ten to fifteen years, and when the trees ceased to bear fruit, and perished, they could not be renewed on the same spot, and fresh ground was required, which was conclusive against this branch of agriculture.

The nutmeg brought into this island by M. Veron, in 1770, was very inferior in quality to that of the Moluccas. This nut requires for perfection an arid, spongy soil, composed of cinders, lavas, and volcanic matter, with a very hot atmosphere and frequent rains, qualities which are possessed by the Moluccas, but are not to be found at the Mauritius. The nuts at first distributed among the inhabitants were of the bastard kind, being large and oblong, and the growth of the Philippines; hence it was that the Spaniards boasted of possessing the nutmeg in those islands, that is not to be compared with that of the Moluccas, which is small and round, few of which were brought to the Mauritius. M. le Gentil observes, however, that the inhabitants of the Isle of France spared no labour or expense in the cultivation of this valuable spice. He states also that the nutmeg, shown at the Academie Royale as the produce of the Isle of France, was judged by the persons employed to examine it as the true commercial nutmeg.

The cloves produced at the Academy from the Isle of France were smaller than those of the Moluccas.

The mangoustan (*Garcinia*, Linn.), the first of fruits in the opinions of all who have tasted it, was introduced in young plants into the Isle of France in 1754 and 1770, but in so bad a state that there was little chance of it succeeding in the colony. The soil in which it grows at Malacca is very rich and strong, as well as swampy during three parts of the year. It is also a very hot climate, with heavy falls of rain, so that the mangoustan grows very quick, and in a superior form. The soil of the Mauritius, on the contrary, is light and sandy, and it is neither so hot or so well watered as the peninsula of Malacca. This difference, then, in the

soil and climate sufficiently explains the cause of the failure of that tree in this island, notwithstanding the great attention paid to it.

The cocoa tree would appear to have been originally indigenous to the Isle of France; but from its great utility for fuel and other necessary purposes, soon disappeared, and another species was introduced, which, as M. le Gentil observes, did not seem adapted to the soil, not having arrived at its usual height, and soon bearing the symptoms of old age and of a premature decay. It yielded cones of a fine appearance, but they never became perfectly ripe, a proof that it did not flourish at the Isle of France. Such is the nature of this tree, and that of the jaca (the *tijaca marum* of the Hort. Malab.), that they both bear fruit along their thickest branches, and not at the end of them, and sometimes on their trunks and at their roots, which latter operation of nature is a sign of their approaching decay.

The soil of this island may be said to be very diversified. Although by its climate it is adapted for all colonial productions, it has not equally answered for all the different kinds of cultivation the inhabitants have endeavoured to introduce. Coffee plantations requiring the most simple culture and the least expense and establishment of labour, were the first to be adopted. Cotton appearing more profitable superseded it, but the latter, which had promised such advantageous returns, and was of an excellent quality, was neglected at its turn for indigo, the cultivation of which became most popular.

Finally, the great profit, which the first sugar plantations brought, induced the proprietors to establish them wherever they could procure a sufficiency of water above the level of the earth for working a sugar-mill. The quality of this sugar would appear to have been very indifferent at first, resembling Norman honey. It was employed to cover houses in the Italian manner, and being incorporated with chalk formed a kind of mastic, which, spread on planks, became as hard as a pavement.

The cultivation of tea on a small scale has been commenced by a planter on the east coast, and is superintended by Chinese emigrants, placed at his disposal by the Government. I extract from a minute of the Society of Natural History at Mauritius the following statement: — "The produce obtained from a small number of trees in three months may be estimated at one hundred and fifty pounds, an enormous yield, and one far surpassing all expectation, being two distinct harvests in the same number of months, independently of an almost constant cropping during more than three days of every week. The tempests cause no other damage than that of stopping the vegetation for a few days, and throwing down small quantities of the seed."

The culture of silk has also met with success at Vacoa, where the climate is unfavourable to the sugar-cane, but so suited to the

mulberry tree that it grows there without cultivation, and produces foliage the whole year, allowing of seven or eight harvests a year, and even more. The moderate temperature also agrees with the silkworm, which only requires a sufficient quantity of nourishment. It would seem that a "magnanerie" was first introduced into this island in 1812 and 1813 by M. de Chazal, who, having visited the "magnaneries" of the East India Company, was so convinced of the great advantages which would result from the culture of silk to the Mauritius, that he spared no requisite expense in obtaining eggs of the silkworm and slips of the mulberry tree, of which the Company were very jealous. He succeeded perfectly in acclimatising them at Vacoa, but he lost all of them in a hurricane the same year. He was equally unfortunate with others, which he procured with still greater expense and difficulty. Application having been made to the Government, eggs were again procured for him from India, when the mulberry trees having grown, the buildings being well established, and experience acquired, his perseverance was crowned with the most complete success. His nursery became in a few months so interesting as to draw the attention of the local Government, which, taking into consideration the advantages which would result to the country from the work, if it met with assistance, placed at the disposal of M. de Chazal a number of Indian convicts. By their assistance the plantations were extended, and seven hundred and fifty pounds of raw silk were produced in 1822. The death of the proprietor, however, gave an immediate check to this rising branch of industry, as he was the only colonist capable of undertaking it, which was increased by the withdrawal of the convicts at the time when the cultivation of the sugar cane was carried to such an extent that every other cultivation was neglected; while domestic labour was raised to so high a price that it was impossible to continue the "magnanerie" any longer. Since then, circumstances having compelled the daughter of the deceased proprietor to return to Vacoa, to the estate of Mendrain, she discovered with exultation that the mulberry trees had not all perished, and tried a little nursery of silkworms, which has met with great success. She has, therefore, called the attention of the Society of Natural History to the expediency of encouraging the culture of silk, with the view of benefiting her poorer neighbours, who are anxious to plant mulberry trees, and rear the silk worm. The "magnanerie," according to the Indian method, is not an expensive undertaking, but good workmen are required to build solid houses and make the stories. Labourers are necessary to plant and take care of the trees, to gather and carry the leaves. Wheels must be brought, and a steam filature established; and, lastly, there must be one or two good Indian drawers of the silk, who are easily to be found at Mauritius among the convicts.

The yam of the Mauritius is very inferior, being watery and insipid.

The sugar-cane of the Mauritius was originally brought from the Antilles and Tahiti, but, from the change of position and climate, it has in a great measure lost the extreme succulency of West India sugar, and forms a sort of medium between the excessive dryness of East India sugar and the excessive moisture of that of the Antilles. The season for planting in general commences with the month of October, and terminates in April. Reaping begins in the middle of July, and ends towards the close of January. Guano has been lately applied with great success as a manure, and the plough has been introduced wherever the nature of the soil would admit of it. Great improvements have also been made in the mode of extracting the juice from the cane, and more than one eminent French chemist has been engaged in making experiments, by which the colonists may be enabled to avail themselves of the saccharine matter that is left after the sugar has been expressed. The mills, all of which were formerly worked by water power, and were therefore obliged to be built on a corresponding level, are now, in many cases, worked by steam.

Horticulture.—The plants indigenous to the Isle of France, and those which have been introduced from Madagascar and naturalized, I have elsewhere described. I now proceed to describe and enumerate the plants, which have been introduced by the French inhabitants, and among others, Messrs. De Cossigny, Poivre, Hermans, &c. The pine-apple, water-melon, white pepper, and banana; the saffron of the Indies, the great cardamum, the ginger, the veronica, the vesicaria, the basil; the aster, the gentiliana, the bagnaudier, the veroche, and the papyrus of the ancients, called sanga-sanga, &c., have all met with a moderate degree of success.

The water-cress is found in the rivulets, where it was sown some years ago. The dandelion and wormwood grow freely among rubbish, and in earth that has been moved. But, above all, the molene (verbascum) spreads its large and downy leaves, and shoots up its cluster of yellow flowers to an extraordinary height. The squine (not the Chinese plant of the same name) is a grass that grows to the height of the finest rye, and chokes up the other herbs by the rapidity of its growth, but it must be eaten while it is green, as it is too tough when dry to be used as food for any animal. It is green only five months in the year, and was often set fire to by the Marons, in defiance of the ordinances published against such an offence.

There is a great variety of vegetables cooked and eaten, under the name of bredes or brettes, whose name, in the Indian language, signifies an eatable leaf. It is a species of morel. Some of them, when in a raw state, are considered acrid or decidedly poisonous, but by stewing they are rendered not only harmless but wholesome. The negroes moisten their manioc in the water in which they have been boiled. They are usually eaten with boiled rice and milk currie, which constitute the chief food of the Creole and native population, many of whom, in eating dry boiled rice, greatly prefer conveying it

to their mouths with their fingers to taking it with a spoon or fork, which they say spoils its flavour. The bréde-songe is the young leaf of caladium esculentum, or of some other plant of the arum tribe, and is boiled in water previously to being stewed. Most of the other kinds are simply stewed in a kind of broth, formed by boiling an onion that has previously been roasted, and a little lard, in some water. Among them may be enumerated bréde-martin, which is no other than the poisonous solanum nigrum; bréde-malgoche or solanum nodiflorum; bréde-girrammonde, the very young shoots of cucurbita pepo, the common pumpkin; and bréde gandolle (Basella indica).

The manioc and the camaignoc, another species of it, grow in the driest spots. It is a shrub, whose leaf resembles that of hemp; its root is as long and as large as a man's arm; and, when grated, is made into cakes. Three pounds were formerly given to each negro for his daily food. It is a most nutritious plant, and rapidly multiplies where it is sheltered from the hurricanes. The flour of wheat grown in this island is never very white, but its bread is preferable to that produced by the flour of Europe for long voyages. The small millet thrives well here, and oats succeeded well, but are little cultivated. Tobacco is grown for the consumption of the island. Attempts have been made to cultivate sainfoin, trefoil, flax, hemp, and hops, but they have not met with success.

The greater part of the vegetables degenerate, and those who are curious in them must frequently obtain their seeds from Europe, and the Cape of Good Hope. The peas are tough, and without sweetness; the kidney-beans are hard, but there is one kind larger and more tender, called the Cape pea. There is another species, with whose vines, arbours are formed. Horse-beans are successful. There is also a kind of bean, whose pod is a foot in length; its grains are large, but are never eaten; and its branches are so luxuriant, as to form verdant bowers. The artichokes put forth large leaves, but produce small heads, which are very tough, unless the root has been well manured. Hedges are formed of them, as they are very thorny, and rise to a considerable height. The giromon is a small pumpkin. The cucumber is also diminutive, and less productive here than in Europe. The melon is in great estimation, and the pasteque or water-melon is excellent; the climate is very favourable to it, as well as the soil, when improved by manure. Gourds grow here to an enormous size, and are of great use, as they form the utensils of the negroes. The bringelle or aubergine is of two kinds: the one, which is a native of Madagascar, has a very thick bark, and produces a round and yellow fruit; the other, which is known in Europe, yields a blue fruit, of the size of a large fig. There are two sorts of pimento; the one which is known in Europe, and the one natural to this island. It is a shrub, whose fruit is very small, and shines like grains of coral on a foliage of the finest green. The

Creoles use it in their ragouts; it is a very strong pepper, and burns the lips like a caustic: it is called the fiery pimento. The ananas, the finest of fruits, is known here, and the strawberry begins to multiply in cool situations: they are not, however, very productive, any more than the raspberry, whose fruit has degenerated. There is a very fine species from China, attaining the size of cherries, and is very abundant, but it is neither sweet nor fragrant. Spinach, cresses, sorrel, parsley, fennel, and celery, are difficult of cultivation. The beet, lettuce, endive, and cauliflower, are much smaller, and less tender than they are in Europe. The cabbage, which is among the most useful of vegetables, flourishes here. The pimpernel, purslain, and sage, increase here, but, above all, the cistercian, which is a long-lived plant. Asparagus, carrots, parsnips, sassafras, radishes, and turnip radishes require care, but as cattle are scarce, manure is proportionably rare. A species of Chinese radish succeeds well. The red beet flourishes, but is very woody. The pomme de terre (Solanum Americanum) is not larger than a walnut, from being badly cultivated; those of the Indies, called cambar, weigh often upwards of a pound: its skin is blue, like a violet, but it is white within, and its taste is very insipid: it affords a variety to the food of the negro, aud multiplies, as well as the potatoe, some kinds of which are preferable to the European chestnut. Saffron is used to give a colour to culinary or cari preparations, like the pistil in Europe. The ginger is not so hot as that of the Indies. The pistachio, which is not the fruit of the pistachio tree, is a small nut that grows in the ground in a rough shell: to be eaten, it must be roasted, but it is principally cultivated to extract a lamp oil. This plant is a phenomenon in botany, as it is very rare indeed that oily qualities are found in those fruits which grow beneath the surface of the earth. The mignionette, balsam, tuberose, larkspur, Chineaster, and small pinks, flourish, as in Europe. The large pinks and lilies put forth an abundance of leaves, but seldom bear flowers. Anemones, ranunculas, and the Indian rose, as well as the stocks and poppy, flourish in this island. Among the more common flowering plants of Africa, there is but one, which is the fine everlasting of the Cape, whose berries are large and red, like strawberries, and grow in bunches at the top of a stem, whose leaves resemble pieces of gray cloth. There is another everlasting, with purple flowers, which grows everywhere. A reed is to be found that does not exceed the size of a large hair, and bears a bunch of white and blue flowers, which, at some distance, appear to be floating in the air: it comes from the Cape, with a kind of tulip, that has but two leaves, which stick to the earth as if they grasped it: there is a plant also from China, that sows itself: it has small flowers like a rose, each stem producing six or seven of them at the same time, all of which are variegated from the deep red of bulls' blood to the colour of brick.

The aloe flourishes here; from whose leaves may be drawn a medicinal gum, while their fibres are capable of being manufactured into linen: it grows on the rocks, and in places scorched by the sun. Some are covered with a strong and thick leaf of the size of a man's hand, and armed with a long spike: the stem rises from the centre to the height of a tree that is covered with flowers, which drop down aloes in their perfect state. There are others, which are straight like large torches, with several sides, and covered with very sharp thorns; these are streaked, and have the appearance of serpents. The rose tree is so easily propagated, that hedges are formed of it; but its flower is not close, and fragrant, like that of Europe: there are many varieties of them, and, among others, a small kind from China, which bears flowers throughout the year. The jessamine, of Spain and France are naturalized here. There are pomegranates with a double flower, but they are not very fruitful. The myrtle does not flourish here as in Provence. The Asiatic, African, and American shrubs are the cassis, whose leaf is indented, but it does not resemble that of Europe. It is a large shrub, which is covered with yellow odoriferous flowers, in small tufts; they yield a bean, which gives a black dye. As it is thorny, it is useful in forming hedges. The foulsapatte, an Indian word, which signifies the shoemaker's flower, from its depositing a black dye when rubbed on leather. This shrub has a fine green foliage, larger than that of the horn-bean, in the midst of which appear flowers, like those of the pink, and of a deep red: they are used in forming close hedges, and there are many varieties of them. The poincillade, which is a native of America, is a kind of bramble, that bears clusters of yellow and red flowers; it is very beautiful, but fades in a short time. It yields a bean, and its leaf is divided, like the esculent vegetables. The jalap bears flowers in the shape of a funnel, and of a deep crimson, which only open at night: they smell like turpentine, and there are two kinds of them.

The vine of Madagascar is a creeper, of which bowers are formed, and bears a yellow flower; its leaves are downy, and appear to be covered with flour. There are several other kinds of flowering creepers in the gardens.

The mongris is a jessamine, whose leaf resembles that of the orange tree; there are both double and single ones, and they give forth an agreeable fragrance.

The franchipanier is a jessamine of another kind. This shrub grows in the shape of a stag's horn. From the extremities of the smaller horns there shoot out branches of long leaves, in the centre of which are large white flowers, in the shape of a funnel, and have a pleasant odour. The lilac of the Indies comes to perfection in a short time, and as quickly dies. It has an indented leaf of a very beautiful green; it bears sweet smelling flowers, which change into berries. This shrub attains the height of a tree, and is of an agreeable appearance; but, though its foliage is of a brighter green, its

flower is less beautiful than the lilacs of Europe, which do not grow here. That of Persia does not succeed here. There is also the laurel, the rose laurel, the galet lemon tree, which is formed into hedges; its fruit is round, small, and very acid. The palma Christi grows everywhere, and its oil is a vermifuge.

The pepper plant is a creeper, which twines, like ivy; it flourishes, but bears no fruit. The Indian reed is naturalized here, and is of the same use as the willow is in Europe.

The cotton tree grows, in the form of a shrub, in the driest situations; it bears a pretty yellow flower, to which a pod succeeds that contains the cotton. Its seed is given to promote milk in the breast.

The coffee tree was formerly the most useful shrub in the island. It is a kind of jessamine with white flowers; its leaves were a fine green placed in regular opposition to each other, and were like those of the laurel; its fruit was of a deep red, and separated into two beans. The trees were planted at the distance of seven feet from each other, and they were lopped at the height of six feet. They lasted only seven years; at three years they bore fruit, and the annual produce of each tree was estimated at a pound of berries. A negro could annually cultivate a thousand pounds weight of it, independent of the berries necessary to his own subsistence. The inhabitants pretended that the coffee of this island was inferior only to that of Moka. Among the European trees, the pine, the fir, and the oak, grow to a moderate height, when they decline. There are also cherry, apricot, apple, and mulberry trees, with the pear, medlar, and olive. The fig tree cannot boast of its fruit, nor does the vine succeed in this climate; it produces grapes, but they do not ripen at the same time, and yield nothing for the vintage. In Europe this fruit attains its ripeness at the same time; here, by ripening successively, an uncommon variety is occasioned in the taste of the fruit gathered at the same moment from the same tree; it would probably be otherwise, if it were left to its natural growth. The vine grows in hot countries in the midst of woods, where it twines itself round the trees, which serve to shade it; this circumstance proves that, if it were introduced into more shady places, it might succeed in this island. The peach tree produces fruit in a moderate abundance, and of an agreeable taste, but the stone does not separate.

The trees in this island are in a perpetual state of vegetation, and it might be a beneficial practice to plant them deeper in the earth, so as to check their growth; they should be preserved from the heat here, as they are protected from the cold in the northern parts of Germany. The European trees shed their leaves in the cold season, which here possesses the warmth, and is accompanied with as much humidity, as the spring in the moderate parts of Europe. The foreign ornamental trees are the laurel, which flourishes here, and the agathis, of which there are several kinds. Its leaf is indented, and intermixed with bunches of white, airy flowers, which are succeeded

by long leguminous pods. The Chinese frequently represent them in their landscapes.

The polché is a native of India; it has a tufted foliage, whose leaf is in the shape of a heart; it is useful only for the shade it affords. It produces an unprofitable fruit of a ligneous substance, and in the form of a medlar.

The bamboo appears at a distance, like our willows. It is a reed that shoots up to the height of the loftiest trees, and puts forth branches covered with leaves, like the olive, which are formed into avenues, and as the wind passes through them, it produces a ceaseless murmur. Their uses are various, and well known. The roots which spread to an extraordinary distance around it are very injurious to the trees in the vicinity. The attier, whose triangular flower is of a solid substance, has the taste of the pistachio. Its fruit resembles that of the pine tree; when ripe, it is filled with a white, sweet cream, has the fragrance of the orange flower, and is full of black kernels. It is a grateful fruit, but very heating. The manguier is a very fine tree, which the Indians represent on their painted silks; it is covered with flowery branches, like the Indian chestnut tree, to which succeeds a quantity of fruit in the shape of a very large flat plum, covered with a rind that smells like turpentine. The fruit has an agreeable and vinous taste, and if it were not for its smell might be said to equal the finest fruits of Europe: it is probable that a very pleasant drink might be extracted from it. It is generally loaded with fruit in the hurricane season, which occasions the loss of the greater part of it. It grows on the sands, and even in the sea.

The bananier grows everywhere, but has no wood; it is nothing but a tuft of leaves, which rise in columns, and expand at the top in broad bands of green, which have the appearance of satin. At the end of a year, there sprouts forth from the top a long cluster bristled over with fruit in the shape of a cucumber. The fruit, which is mucilaginous, has an agreeable taste, and the negroes are very fond of it; it was given them on festivals, and they reckoned their time by the course and number of banana feasts. Its leaves resemble silk girdles; its cluster falls down for several feet, and its violet coloured head resembles that of a serpent; this circumstance may have been the cause of its having been called the fig-tree of Adam. This fruit lasts all the year, and there are many kinds of it; some of the size of a plum, and others as long as a man's arm. Linen may also be made of the fibres of this plant. The gouyanier bears a strong resemblance to the medlar; its flower is white, and its fruit smells like bugs. It possesses an astringent quality, and is the only fruit which breeds maggots.

The jamrose is a tree, which affords a fine shade, though not of a lofty growth; its fruit emits the fragrance of a rose bud, and is of a sweetish taste.

The papayer is a kind of fig tree without branches; it grows fast and shoots up like a column, with a capital of large leaves; its fruit, which is like a small melon grows out of its trunk, which is of the substance of a turnip. Its seed has the taste of cresses. The female papayer only bears flowers; they are of a form and smell as agreeable as those of a honeysuckle.

The badamier seems to have been formed for the purpose of giving shade. It grows in the form of a pyramid ranged in several separate stories; its foliage is fine, and it yields a few almonds that have an agreeable taste.

The avocat is a handsome tree, and yields a pear, which encloses a large kernel, the substance of this fruit is like butter, which, when seasoned with sugar and lemon juice, is a pleasant eatable, though of a heating quality.

The jacq is a tree of a beautiful foliage, and bears a monstrous fruit, the size of a large pumpkin; the rind is of a fine verdant colour and entirely shagreened. It is full of grains, whose coats, consisting of a white glutinous and sweet skin, are alone eaten. It smells like rotten cheese, and is a powerful stimulant. The tamarind has a very fine top, and is of a hardy nature; its leaves are placed in regular opposition to each other, and close in the night. Its pod affords a mucilage, which makes a pleasant and cooling beverage. It has perpetuated itself in the woods. There are several kinds of orange trees, one of which bears an orange called, by distinction, the mandarin; a large kind of pamplemousse, an orange of a red colour, and an indifferent taste; and a lemon tree that bears a large fruit, which yields but little juice.

A species of the cocoa tree has, as we have before observed, been transplanted hither. It has been discovered that a crab took up its abode at the foot of the cocoa tree, which, being provided with a long claw terminated by a nail, draws out the substance of the fruit through the holes at its extremity. This animal is found on the Isle of Palms to the north of Madagascar, and was discovered in 1769 by the shipwreck of a vessel that foundered on its way to Bengal. This crab served the crew for food. The date seldom bears fruit here. The palm called the araque, as well as that which produces the sago are here to be found; the canificier and the acajou, both of which yield flowers, but without fruit; the cinnamon tree, of which avenues have been made, resembles a large pear tree both in size and foliage; its small clusters of flowers, and its cinnamon have an aromatic odour.

The ravinerara, a kind of nutmeg from Madagascar, has long been planted here, as also the varnish tree that yields an oil capable of preserving cabinet work; the tallow tree, whose seed is covered with a kind of wax; a tree from China, which yields small lemons in clusters like grapes; the silver tree of the Cape; and the teak so well known for its service in the construction of vessels.

CHAPTER II.

COMMERCE.

THE commerce of the Isle of France was very limited, until the exclusive and injurious privileges of the French East India Company were relaxed at the close of the eighteenth century, being almost wholly confined to the barter of turtle and provisions for European and Indian commodities with the Indiamen that put in thither; for the Company having reserved all commerce to itself, made advances to the inhabitants, which were reimbursed by the produce of the plantations. At that period, however, the colony was made an entrepôt of French commerce in the East, in which state it remained till the outbreak of the French Revolution. The plan of forming it into a general entrepôt was not, however, followed up—First, because it was found more advantageous to obtain articles of merchandize from the place which produced or manufactured them in the first instance;—Next, because, though the Lascar received less pay than the European sailor, this point alone did not render the navigation of vessels in India more economical or advantageous than those of Europe; for the crews of the latter continent were much more effective, and did not amount to one-third of the number required by the vessels of India.

We now proceed to describe the present commercial relations of the island. The Mauritius obtains its supplies of rice in part from Madagascar, but principally from the East Indies. Its flour is brought chiefly from the United States, but it derives occasional supplies of corn from South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and Valparaiso. It trades with the Cape in salt beef, fruit (in the first article large contracts are made), and live stock, including horses, for which it returns its own staple, sugar. Mules are procured from South America, and ponies from the Indian Archipelago. A limited trade is also carried on with Muscat and the other Arabian ports. Chinaware and silk, which were formerly supplied from China, are now as often procured from Europe, as also linens, cottons, and stuffs, which were formerly supplied by Bengal and the Coromandel coast. The colony imports its wines from France; its coffee is, in a great measure, smuggled from Bourbon. The trade with the dependencies is considerable, and consists in an exchange of French and English manufactures for the products of those islands.

A limited trade has been opened with Western Australia in sheep, horses, and milch cows, and with Batavia in rice, &c.; but its trade with Madagascar[1] is perhaps of the greatest importance in a

[1] Now that this trade, which has been thought indispensable to the prosperity, nay, the very existence of the Mauritius, has sustained an interruption

political point of view, and if made free, and placed under due protection, is capable of expansion to an almost indefinite extent. It is principally carried on at Tamatave, Feneriff, Foule Point, Antongil, &c., which are within the Hovan territory, and consists of timber, bullocks, sheep, tortoise shell, Indian corn, &c. The great advantage of this trade is at once evident from the fact, that no specie is required to be given in exchange, all its products being bartered for British and Indian produce and manufactures, and give employment to a large number of coasting vessels. Among the different qualifications of Madagascar for entering into an enlarged commercial intercourse with the Mauritius, it may be mentioned, that the sandy plains which skirt the eastern coast are highly adapted for the cultivation of cotton; indeed, some of the native plants produce fine white cotton of a rich silky texture, equal to the best Bourbon or Seychelles. The coffee plant may be largely cultivated on the rich soils on the banks of the extensive rivers that abound throughout the country. The Madagascar coffee is, moreover, considered of excellent flavour. The indigo plant is found throughout the country; it is of a fine quality, and might be cultivated to a great extent with much advantage, as well as the tobacco plant, which has a fine flavour. Pepper is abundant in the wild state in some of the forests. Timber for house and ship building would be an immediate source of employment for the capitalists of the Mauritius, and prove highly advantageous by quick returns from the colony. Bees' wax, gum copal, elastic, and many other valuable gums and resins, might be extensively collected under a better system, also ebony, and several other valuable hard woods. Iron is very abundant in the province of Antsianaka, and, it is not improbable, coal also.

Cattle and sheep can be had at St. Augustine's Bay, on the west coast,[1] at about a third of the price paid at Tamatave; and the

through the violent and overbearing conduct of the Malegash authorities, measures have been taken for a more perfect exploration of the dependency of Rodriguez, with a view to the rearing of cattle in a sufficient number to supply the wants of the colony. Thus does Providence turn what at first sight appears fraught with nothing but disaster to the higher purposes of civilization, and renders savage insolence the instrument in its hands for developing the resources of a neglected, and, in a great measure, an unknown island.

[1] In the Mosambique Channel there are islands frequented by turtle, particularly the kind known as *oxbill*, from which the best tortoise-shell is produced. A fishery was once established there by two Americans, and their exertions were crowned with success; but having no vessel at command, they were obliged to seek the main land, where one was massacred by the natives, and the other fell into the power of the wandering Arabs who frequent the coast in search of slaves. No one has since attempted to follow up the enterprise. But this article is not the only one deserving of attention in that quarter, there being a wide field open on both sides of the channel for commercial purposes, and visited up to this day only by a few small trading vessels from Mauritius, whose owners' ideas are too confined, and means too limited, to benefit largely from its local resources. Both coasts abound with valuable articles for the English market,

passage from Mauritius during three months in the year may be made in as short a time to that place as to the latter harbour.

The trade of the colony with Great Britain and France is elucidated by the Tables, which I have thought it best, for many reasons, to place in the Appendix. One striking political feature is, however, deserving of notice in a review of the commercial transactions of the Mauritius. Though its exports to Great Britain far surpass those to all the other nations of the world united, and though a restrictive duty is levied upon most articles of French produce and manufacture, yet the French inhabitants are so wedded to custom, or so reluctant to sever this last connecting tie with their father land, that they willingly seek the more costly, and, in many respects, less serviceable fabrics of France, to the cheaper and more durable articles of British manufacture.

CHAPTER III.

HARBOURS—PORTS—TOWNS—BUILDINGS, ETC.

THE two principal ports in the Mauritius are Grand Port, or Port Sud Est, and Port Louis, or Port Nord Ouest. The former, which is much the most extensive, being very capacious and secure, is the windward port, and is situate at the south-east end of the island. This port has the advantage of lying more directly in the track of vessels arriving from the Cape of Good Hope, and is entered with great ease, as the trade-wind blows right in, but the objection to it as a port of trade lies in the difficulty of egress by the same passage, as the winds are almost always in the south-east, and, when

procurable at extremely low rates, and obtainable by barter; among which may be enumerated hides, horns, bees' wax, tallow, ebony, betel, &c., which the natives freely exchange for rum, cotton goods, hardware arms, and powder, for which two latter articles they often pay high prices in specie. Another productive article of Madagascar is the orchilla weed, known in England as a beautiful purple dye, and commanding a sale in England at 80*l.* or 90*l.* per ton. A few months ago two or three small vessels were despatched from Mauritius in search of this weed, and the prices realised by its sale on that island fully remunerated the proprietors of the vessels.

The French are already alive to the commercial importance of this hitherto neglected part of the world, and are sending annually vessels laden with European goods. The Americans are also in possession of a very lucrative branch of the trade of the Indian Ocean. They whale off Madagascar, and, whenever an opportunity offers, carry on a barter with the natives; from thence passing on to St. Paul and Amsterdam, they refresh at Swan River, and proceed to trade in the Indian Archipelago. It is, however, beyond a doubt, that the natives of both coasts of the Mosambique Channel give a preference to English wares and manufactures.—*Colonial Gazette, April* 18*th*, 1846.

they change, are generally variable, with occasional breezes, in consequence of which it is little frequented, except by coasters and fishing vessels. There is, however, another entrance to the west (with greater facilities on account of its depth, though it is very narrow) out of which vessels might clear with a leading wind, if a certain point of the passage, where there is not more than three fathoms water, were cleansed and deepened—a practicable operation, and one which would render its other advantages of service, and constitute it the best in the island. On entering the port the channel may be distinguished by the colour of the water, and the dangers are plainly apparent. The eastern channel is of great length winding in various directions, narrow, and intricate. Ships can get out by this entrance only at the full and change of the moon, when there are breezes from the land. The western channel, though narrow and winding, is more safe; on entering it, Isle de la Passe, which is on the edge of the eastern bank, is passed close aboard. This doubled, vessels pass to the eastward to avoid the point of the reef to the west, and cast anchor in the basin, where there is from twenty to thirty fathoms of water, and where vessels of almost any size may be careened. This harbour is secured from all weather by a reef of rocks that renders the water tranquil within: but the perpetual roar of the surf breaking upon it continually benumbs the ear. The greater part of the reef is visible at low water. At its foot there are four and a half fathoms. Had buoys been placed on the several dangerous parts of these channels, Great Britain would not have had to deplore the loss of four frigates, an account of which is elsewhere given. Steam-tugs remove all the objections, which formerly existed against this noble harbour, whose advantages may sooner or later be duly appreciated. (Port Louis or Nord Ouest.) Though the Dutch had a small establishment at this port prior to their final departure, yet Frederic Henry in Warwick Haven was their central station,—an example, which was at first followed by the French, till La Bourdonnais discovered the superior position of Port Louis in reference to Madagascar, &c. The reckless manner in which, without any rule or measure, clearances had been undertaken, soon, however, operated injuriously to the depth and safety of the harbour. The high mornes, which surrounded the port, and defended it from the violence of the winds, had been cleared to their very summits, so that their crests became arid, and the vegetable earth was precipitated into the valleys, while the large trees, which had protected it from dissolution, when the isle was uninhabited, were cut down or burnt. From that time torrents were formed, and the port became choked up by accumulations, while the anchorage for vessels was unprotected from the rough sea and violent winds, so that the island was on the point of being deprived of its principal port through the absolute want of foresight, and the furtherance of the transient interests of a few of the principal colonists. To remedy this evil, which he held to be

practicable, M. Tromelin, a French naval officer, as fertile in resources as he was able and experienced in all the duties of the engineer, urgently proposed to M. Poivre, then Intendant, to undertake the task. That celebrated man at once perceived all the advantages of the project, and joined with M. Steinaur the military governor, par interim, himself a man of science, in requesting the Duc de Praslin in the name of the colony, to authorize its prompt execution, so that the Isle of France might again possess a port of safety, and vessels might be sheltered from the hurricanes. As soon as the authorization had been given, M. Tromelin commenced his labours by diverting the torrents in dykes, and canals, which concentrated the mass of water, &c., and conducted them into the sea behind Isle Tonnelliers (now called Cooper's Island) where the deposits could do no injury, and formed a causeway, connecting it with the mainland, called chaussée Tromelin. The clearance of the port, or rather of the channel (which was the most pressing operation), now proceeded without an obstacle, by means of cure molles, and gabarres à clapet, which brought up the mud. Having taken measures to prevent the channel from being again choked, he formed a new and enlarged project of deepening the basin called Trou fanfaron, which is completely protected from the violence of the winds, and communicates with the channel. The length of this basin is three hundred toises by sixty in breadth, but its mean depth did not exceed ten feet; it was necessary, therefore, to increase it to twenty-five feet to make it capable of receiving vessels of large burden. After it had been cleared of the accumulations there still remained a coral bank, which closed the entrance, the extirpation of which was difficult and costly. After taking soundings, he ordered excavations to be made, in which were laid trains of gunpowder, by which the obstruction was at once removed. As the ports of this noble island (more especially the leeward port, Port Louis) are one of its most important acquisitions, and as it is of the greatest value to Great Britain, to have a complete acquaintance with the resources of such secure and commanding havens which are important possessions in these seas, as well as of the coasting voyage by which they are reached, it appears essential to enter into a description of them in this place. (To reach Port Louis in the north-west part of the isle.) The circuit which was once made was very considerable, vessels being used to bear away nearly one hundred leagues, or as high as Rodriguez, as the wind and currents come from the east. The skill of later navigators has considerably contracted this detour, but it is still a hundred miles by the windward passage, whereas the short cut by Morne Brabant (which is a conspicuous landmark to vessels approaching the island on that side) is only a third of the distance. An officer of his Majesty's ship *Thunderer* states, that it is not only the shortest, but the safest course to adopt during the season of the

south-easters, which always vary to the southward. For men-of-war it is almost always the best, and a couple of tacks would carry a merchant vessel in during the greater part of the year. As the longer route still obtains we will content ourselves with a description of it.

The Mauritius is visible on the south-west side about fifty miles off, where the tops of the mountains appear like islands. On the windward side, and indeed on the greater part of the leeward, the island is fronted with extensive reefs, which stretch far out to seaward, and on these ramparts, which nature has given as a defence from the angry ocean, the sea breaks heavily. After steering large on the starboard tack, with the breakers in sight to leeward, Flacq will be reached in a few hours, when vessels prepare to thread the islands, which are five in number. In rounding from the weather-side the first reefs should be kept in till the ship is brought on the port-tack. When through, the breeze usually freshens with gusts off the high lands. The passage is the mid-channel between Flat Island and the Gunner's Quoin, the reefs on either side being avoided. The bearings of the other islands, and their opening out clear of each other being attended to, these serve as guides to clear the dangerous reef, stretching out from Cannonier's Pointe, which is low, and in no way remarkable of itself. It is known by a fort near the point, it being a military outpost. It may be rounded at three-quarters of a mile distance; but care should be taken, as the reefs on this side are not known by the sea breaking on them, as they are on the windward. When abreast of the Baie du Tombeau the bell-buoy may be distinguished, which is the outer anchorage, and has a depth of water varying from ten to twenty fathoms, in a mud bottom. It is capable of berthing many sail of vessels, and is used by those on a short stay, or those waiting to be towed up the harbour by the steamer. The bell-buoy is a fine beacon, and is moored on the fan-way just without the channel. The pole, which is well secured to the flat, is painted white, and is about nineteen feet high, with a flag or large vane at the top. It can be seen easily six miles off with a glass. The bells are fixed about two-thirds up the pole in such a way that the least motion of the water causes one or the other to strike with an increasing and monotonous tolling at minute intervals. Its position is west of the citadel, south-east of Peter Botte, north-east of the Gunner's Quoin, the apex of which may be seen over the land, and Grande Rivière south-south-west. The *coup d'œil*, which meets the stranger from this spot, weary with a long sea-voyage, is very magnificent. Within the harbour may be seen tiers of shipping, close and well-packed, lining either side of it. Ships under the various stages of repair. Ships-of-war are almost always here, and there is a life and bustle going forward that is astonishing. Boats of different

rigs, from the man-of-war boat to the light pinnace, manned by coolies, lascars, negroes, and men of every shade of colour, add to the busy scene.

The famous, towering, and grotesque Pieter Both and Pouce, with mountain ridges of lesser elevation; the variety of picturesque trees; the town and suburbs, with the commanding citadel, batteries, and sea-forts; a country on either side laid out with sugar-plantations; the country-seats of the planters, and the huts of the labourers; with other objects of interest, in the place of indicating the principal port of a small island, might more readily be taken as proofs of the capital of a great country. The channel of this harbour lies south-east and north-west between coral reefs, running out from Tonnelliers or Cooper's Isle on the north side, and beyond Fort Blanc on the south. They are marked by a line of black buoys on either side. By the old system a long line of hawsers was fastened to the buoys, which was a tedious method of warping in. An English navigator, who visited the Mauritius in the middle of the last century, states, that the French were so excessively jealous of any European intercourse with this port, that they had recourse to warping ships up at the harbour as a political stratagem, intending to impress strangers with a notion of its difficult access. He adds, that he found the passage for his ship clear and easy, and that there was generally a constant and brisk gale into the harbour in the afternoon. In this he was to a certain degree mistaken; for though the French exaggerated the difficulty of ingress, yet, from the prevailing winds being through the year from north-east to south-east, ships could rarely sail into it, but were obliged to anchor at the mouth till warped in. This difficulty of entrance (which is now obviated by steam-tugs) was amply compensated by the advantages hereby afforded in case of attack, and by the facility of egress, as ships were generally enabled to sail directly out of the harbour with a breeze, which carried them at once to sea. The harbour is nearly two miles long from the mouth to the principal quay, and from half a mile to a mile broad. At the extremity of the north side is the fine basin called Trou Fanfaron, where ships may generally ride as securely as in a dock. The force of the wind in the hurricanes has been sometimes, however, so overwhelming, that the ships in the harbour have broken from their moorings, and coming in collision, injured each other. His Majesty's ship *Magicienne* was driven ashore in the basin in a hurricane in 1818, though she had thirteen cables out. The water was formerly of sufficient depth to admit of large vessels coming close up to the quays; but the larger class of vessels are now obliged to leave the interior of the harbour, and anchor about half-way towards its mouth to complete their lading, it having become partially choked up again with mud. To remove this a ponderous machine was constructed by French engineers, which by no means answered, being too unwieldy

for use, and mud vessels for cleansing the harbour have been sent from England. Anchors are placed in various parts of the port, some of which serve as secure moorings to vessels of the largest size. Their situation is marked by large floating buoys. Upon the arrival of a ship in the harbour expert negro divers, kept by the boat establishment for the express purpose, are employed to secure the vessel to her moorings. To accomplish this they dive to a depth of several fathoms, and remain under water so long as to alarm for their safety those who have not before witnessed the process. The place for men-of-war of large size is a small bight of deep water, close to Cooper's Isle, where they moor head and stern. There is only room for two ships of the line. This scanty accommodation for men-of-war is a serious drawback, though a large fleet may anchor outside, and large ships might possibly anchor in line towards Grande Rivière. The quarantine regulations of the port, which were formerly excessively strict, have undergone some modification of late years. Previously vessels arriving at the island anchored outside till leave was granted to enter the harbour. They were then visited by the health officer; next by the port-officer, to whom the commander of each vessel declared his own name, that of the ship, her burthen, flag, arms, and equipments, the number of the crew, of what nation, the number of passengers, cargo, from what port she had sailed, and the reason of her visiting the Mauritius. The commander then delivered his log-book and muster-book, a list of his passengers, their passports, the bill of lading, despatches for Government, public papers and letters. The letters were sent to the post-office, and a fine of fifty dollars was payable for every letter otherwise delivered. The captain and passengers on landing had to report themselves to the general police-officer, the former presenting himself previously at the Government house. After these formalities vessels might enter the harbour and anchor within the ports. At their departure notice had to be given at the custom-house and post-office forty-eight hours before sailing, and a flag hoisted at the main-top-gallant mast. Before a ship could receive a port clearance a certificate had to be obtained from the collector of customs, that no claims were unsatisfied. The pilot was paid at the post-office, and commanders had to give the pilots a certificate specifying whether their vessels had been injured on entering or leaving port. No passengers were taken on board without regular passports, and no deserter or negro might be taken off the island under heavy penalties. Vessels under one hundred tons were moored in the berths pointed out by the port-captain, and had two anchors forward and one astern, with buoys on them. Ballast could not be taken out of a ship without leave from the port-captain, nor be thrown overboard, a boat being sent round as often as necessary to remove the filth from the vessels in the harbour. No goods could be shipped, trans-shipped or landed without a permit

from the customs, nor could boats land goods except at the wharf, and they must be taken away within twenty-four hours. No boats to remain at the wharf before gun-fire. Fires on board vessels to be put out at eight o'clock in the evening, and not lighted until day-break, and fires were expressly forbidden on board ships in the Trou Fanfaron. Vessels at anchor in the harbour might not scale their guns or fire salutes without leave of the port-captain. Vessels moored on the buoys were obliged to receive the tow-ropes from any vessel warping in, and to execute the pilot's orders. Boats were not allowed to be hauled up in the slips of the Government wharfs without leave. The quays of Port Louis are very commodious, and are constantly thronged. The officer I have before quoted, observes that Port Louis is unrivalled throughout the habitable globe for the various specimens of different nations and tribes that make up its population. In a trice may be seen Chinese, Cingalese, Bengalese, and other natives of India; Moors, Arabs, Malagash, Johannese, &c. &c.; African blacks of all sorts, people of every nation in Europe and the Americas. It is a wonderful sight for the psychologist to stand on the quays for a short time, and observe these different nations moving by, all apparently busily employed; while the din of voices talking and shouting makes a perfect Babel. The bargains and altercations frequently produce fierce contention; and then may be seen the scorn and hatred of creed and race burst forth from the fiery Moslem and the subtle Jew, the avaricious Hindoo, the cunning Chineseman, and the dauntless independent Malagash. Then to watch their curious manners, varied appearance, and strange costumes, is a peep into the great family of man!

TOWNS, BUILDINGS, &c.—St. Louis, the capital of the Mauritius, is beautifully situated at the extremity of Port Louis on the north-west side of the island, at the opening of a valley about three-quarters of a league in length, and eight hundred yards in breadth. It has some resemblance to an amphitheatre in form, having its face to the sea on one side, and being surrounded by a series of basaltic mountains on the other. The latter had been covered by nature with a beautiful verdure, until the Marons finding the grass became parched at the end of the dry season, selected it as an opportunity for annoying the settlers, and wantonly set it on fire: they consequently assumed an arid appearance, which led every visitor in succession to believe that the island generally was unproductive and desolate. The circle of mountains, which forms the valley of Port Louis, is broken into various parts, but that which rises to the highest degree of elevation is terminated by an insulated rock called "Le Pouce." This part is covered with wood, and contains the source of a rivulet, which runs through the town. St. Louis, was at first denominated "the camp," from the circumstance that the Dutch once formed a camp there. It was to the genius of La Bour-

donnais, however, that this place was indebted at an early period for its high position among the communities of the east. Up to the time of his arrival, Mahébourg had been selected as the seat of the local government, and the superior advantages of egress, which Port Louis possessed over Grand Port had been either overlooked or neglected. He commenced his administration by a transference of the government to St. Louis, and a series of public works on a scale unparalleled for a colony in so infantile a state, marked his brief but eventful career. He constructed an arsenal, magazines, fortifications, aqueducts, quays, canals, hospitals, mills, shops, barracks and timber yards, and in a spot where for ages had reigned a savage solitude, he left on his departure the busy hum and the flourishing mart of commerce. Though the public requirements of the new community were thus early provided for, the construction of private dwellings by no means kept pace with the beauty and utility of the public works. On its first foundation, and indeed for a considerable time afterwards, the town was composed of wooden houses covered (with some view to effect) with planks and the leaves of the palm tree. These had only a ground floor with garrets above on account of the winds and heat, and were in most cases removable upon rollers; a custom, which still prevails in the back settlements of the United States. They were separated from each other by gardens, surrounded with palisadoes, and formed a continuous street of a mile and a half in length. St. Pierre describes the streets and courts as neither paved nor planted with trees at the time of his visit to the island, and the houses as mere wooden cabins (the windows having neither glass nor curtains) with but little furniture, and that of the meanest description. He speaks of a sort of exchange, "where people met at noon and in the evening, and made their bargains, railed, and talked scandal of their neighbours." The Governor's house and the magazines of the French East India Company, which were situated at the entrance of the port, were built entirely of stone. The latter were placed in front on each side of the former, and the intermediate space, which was considerable, was used as a "Place des armes." These edifices were erected in the Italian style with flat roofs, which served as terraces. This small town was inhabited by all those who were employed in the service of the Government, by merchants, and others not possessed of plantations. An English navigator, who visited the island on a subsequent occasion, observes: "The town and the port on the north-west side of the island form a magazine for all kinds of maritime stores and provisions, so that this place may be considered of the same importance to the French in the East Indies, as Port Mahon is to the English in the Mediterranean, and may hereafter become a dangerous position for other nations engaged in the commerce of the east." Admiral Kempenfelt thus describes St. Louis in 1758:—"The town, which is the residence of the Governor and council, contains about five hundred

houses. They are built of wood, which was in great plenty, the island being originally covered with it. These dwellings are in general small, but nevertheless disposed with great convenience, their foundation consists of rough stone and lime about three feet above the surface of the earth, which serves as a platform for the upper part of the house; thus these dwellings are always dry, and, as the wood never touches the ground, it is free from those inconveniences to which buildings are subject that are constructed with similar materials. Wood, however, is now becoming rare, though there is still abundance in the interior. The environs, which were once covered with trees were destroyed for fuel, or have been broken up for culture, so that there is insufficient protection both from the fury of the winds and the intense heats. The forests too may be said to be removed to such a distance that it would require a great outlay and immense labour to bring the timber from thence, and in many places it is altogether impracticable. The inhabitants, therefore, are already beginning to build with stone, which is in great plenty throughout the island, though it is very dear, as it requires a great number of slaves to dig, carry, and shape it; besides, as there are no European masons except such as belong exclusively to the Company, who being free men, demand from one to three dollars a day, stone buildings are therefore very expensive. The town is irregular, as it was originally begun without any settled plan, and every one was permitted to build according to the suggestions of his own fancy. The quays are very commodious, both for the loading and unloading of small vessels. The soft water, which comes from a river about a league from the town is conducted thither by a canal to the foot of a high mountain at the western extremity of the place, where the boats come under a large reservoir, and fill their barrels with the greatest facility. Towards the middle of the town, there is a large space surrounded with a high stone wall, which contains the buildings appropriated to the slaves of the Company. The inhabitants are not permitted to encroach upon this spot, it being reserved for the future uses of the Company. The valley, in which the town is situated, is low and flat, covered with rocks and stones, which renders the streets and ways rough and uneven, but immediately round the buildings belonging to the Company the ground is made level. At the extremity of the valley and at the foot of the mountains, there is a considerable space of ground cleared of the stones, and covered with a grass plat; it is called the 'Field of Mars,' as it is the place where the troops perform their exercise; it also contains a rope-walk, and is the public promenade of the inhabitants."

Soon after the visit of Kempenfelt a series of improvements took place. Trees were planted in the principal thoroughfares, which rendered them cool and agreeable to the eye; the streets were gradually becoming more straight and regular; and a later visitor

describes St. Louis as having more resemblance to a European town than any other he had seen to the east of the Cape both for its bustling commerce and the amenity of its inhabitants.

Such was the capital of the Mauritius at the end of the eighteenth, let us now consider its state in the middle of the nineteenth century. St. Louis has three divisions, the principal town and two suburbs. The former is inhabited in its higher part by the functionaries of government and English residents. The merchants and tradespeople (principally French) occupy the lower. The eastern suburb called Malabar town (to which with the western the coloured races before the abolition of slavery were confined) is inhabited by emigrants from that coast and Indian labourers in general, while the western at the foot of signal mountain, is the abode of the mulattoes and enfranchised negroes of African origin. St. Louis itself does not appear to have increased so much in size, as the great and recent augmentation of its inhabitants would have led one to expect, but the suburbs where the coloured classes and emigrants principally reside have spread out to a great extent both to the south-west and north-west, like the horns of a crescent, and give the place an appearance of considerable magnitude. The ground on which the town stands approaches to a square: the principal part reaches from the plain in its rear (the "Champ de Mars") to the harbour, but the suburbs from east to west, make the whole length nearly three miles in a direct line, but without any corresponding breadth, the distance between the "Champ de Mars" and the harbour scarcely reaching half a mile. An open space lying behind the town, called the "Champ de Mars," was a spot frequently selected by duellists during the unsettled times of the colony, as the theatre of their sanguinary conflicts, and is now used as a race-course. This plain or park extends in a gradual slope to the mountains, and is bordered by a number of villas, built in a style of neatness and elegance inferior to few of those in the neighbourhood of cities on the continent of Europe. It is a favourite promenade of the inhabitants, and is often enlivened by the martial music of the military band; it is then covered with fashionably dressed ladies, the military, and civilians. The citadel, on which a number of prisoners are employed, stands on the top of a hill of moderate elevation, and situated just in the rear of the town; it has been but recently completed, having been commenced in 1832. It was constructed entirely by the military, to whom credit is due for the strength and durability of the building, and for its completeness as a fortress. It mounts sixteen heavy guns besides a mortar battery, is casemated and well provided with water and provisions sufficient for the support of the garrison. It appears singular that the site was not earlier taken advantage of, as it commands the town and its approaches, and is also cool and healthy for the troops. La Bourdonnais did project a sort of citadel, near Le Pouce, for the garrison to retire into at the

last extremity, but his premature departure hindered the construction of a fortress, which would have been so impregnable by nature. From the top of the citadel there is a fine view of Port Louis and the surrounding country, bordered on one side by the sea, and on the other by a lofty range of basaltic mountains, which in some places grassy, in others topped by the projecting rocks, appear nearly to encircle the plain of Port Louis, covered, with the exception of the "Champ de Mars," with the town, its environs, and villas. On the top of the mountain, opposite the citadel, is the signal station connected with the shipping. It commands also a fine view of the town, with a considerable extent of low country, several mountains, and a large expanse of ocean. The signal-house is firmly built of stone; the former one, of wood, was carried from this spot, with its occupants, in one of those dreadful hurricanes by which this island is sometimes visited, and some of its fragments were washed upon the island of Bourbon, one hundred and twenty miles distant.

The streets, which formerly derived their nomenclature from the principal French Governors, or the events connected with the wars of the Revolution, such as the "Rue Marengo," it changed in 1818, for the names they at present bear. They are straight, as in most French towns, are laid out at right angles, and have footpaths with basaltic curbstones. Since the Mauritius has been in the occupation of England, they have been much improved, and are now macadamized and kept in good order, whereas once a street was not passable for a carriage, and scarcely for a cart; in fact, there was only one carriage in the island at its capture. Many of the houses have little courts in front, well stocked with fine trees and shrubs, and beautiful date and cocoa-nut palms. There are magnificent acacias with large yellow flowers, as well as the tamarind, the mimosa, and other trees in some of the streets, which pour forth a delightful fragrance; and bananas, caladiums, marvels of Peru, and many other beautiful plants line the side of the river, which runs through the town from the mountains. The Madagascar fir, which grows in some parts of the town, when blown by the wind, sends forth a moaning sound, which, when joined to the murmur of the rivulet, which it borders, is far from unpleasant. The business quarter of St. Louis is very warm, for there the streets are more confined, and are neither so spacious, clean, and airy, as those of the upper part, where the houses have generally a small garden, or parterre, in front. The chief streets are the Rue de Rempart and the Rue Marengo. The principal street, which reached from one extremity of the town to the other was burnt after the war in 1816, and property was consumed with it to the amount of 1,200,000*l.* sterling: it has, however, been since rebuilt on a grander scale.

The military hospital is a fine institution, and kept in excellent order, but it is to be deplored that so large a building should be required for persons who have made themselves ill by intemperance.

The colonial hospital is some little distance from St. Louis, on the banks of Grande Rivière; it is not near so well attended to by the civil authorities, as the other hospital is by the military. The internal arrangements are also very inferior, but the wards are clean. The number of patients is considerable, consisting of Europeans, Asiatics, and Creoles, negroes, Indian labourers, and convicts. There are also a few lunatics, most of whom are lodged in large cells, opening into two day yards, in which such as are considered well enough are allowed to walk. The cells have large barred windows, with wooden shutters outside. There is an air of want of comfort about this part of the place, though the patients do not appear to be unduly confined. Coloured people, including Indian convicts, often feign illness to obtain in this institution a respite of a few days from unremitting toil. The churches, prisons, Royal College, and theatre have been elsewhere noticed, and the courts of justice have little claim to notice as public buildings. The Government house has not much claim to architectural beauty. This building, which forms three sides of a square, is large and lofty, with a verandah throughout each of its three stories. The ground-floor is of coral, and was built under the direction of La Bourdonnais. The superstructure was added afterwards; and was in an unfinished state when the island was captured. It contains some large, and rather handsome rooms, which are used almost exclusively for receptions on public occasions. St. Louis is well supplied with water by two aqueducts of considerable length; one on the east; another on the west side of the town. The former, called the Bathurst canal, conveys water from the Rivière du Tombeau. The latter, constructed under the French Government, brings water of crystalline purity from the Grande Rivière. All the water in the valley, where St. Louis is situated, is brackish. The military barracks are not large, but afford comfortable accommodation for nearly one thousand men. They are supposed to have been built for warehouses to the French East India Company, to whom the island once belonged. When the colony reverted to the Crown of France, upon the failure of the former, they were converted to their present use. Massey's hotel is the principal house of public entertainment in St. Louis. It is three stories high, and has the hall and lower rooms floored with marble. The walls are covered with paper exhibiting large landscapes. The stairs and floors of the upper rooms are painted red, as is common here, and rubbed bright. The beds are covered with muslin curtains, to keep off moschettos, these insects being numerous, and the heat rendering it necessary to have the windows open at night. Here, for four dollars (twelve shillings) a day each, the traveller may have a bed, with breakfast at nine o'clock and dinner at half-past five, at the table d'hote. The latter is in French style, consisting of a great variety of small dishes, and is succeeded immediately by coffee. Burgundy wine, diluted with water, is the common beverage at dinner, and it is considered (as perhaps it is)

the most adapted to the climate, of any fermented liquor. The Joss House is an extraordinary building, and worth a sight, if only for the ridiculous appearance of everything within. Joss sticks are to be seen in hundreds, and Chinese writing on the walls and altar-piece. A recent visitor found the Chinese priest flat on his back, and observes, that the idea of such a place having anything to do with religion was very amusing. The cemetery is a short distance from the town, and near the sea. It is approached by a long avenue of the filao (casuarina lateriflora), a leafless tree, from Madagascar, attaining a considerable height, with drooping branches, clothed with green, slender, pendent, jointed, rush-like spray, through which the wind whistles with a mournful sound. The place of sepulture is divided into several compartments, to accommodate the prejudices of the living; for these even separate the ashes of the dead. The main burial-ground is surrounded by a wall, and another separates the portion occupied by the whites from that in which the coloured people are interred. So strong are yet the prejudices that slavery has nursed. Both the burial-grounds of the whites and blacks contain a curious jumble of trees, gay shrubs, flowers, and tombs. Some of the trees harmonise well with the place; others, such as the cocoa and date palms, the badanier, banana, papau, and pomegranates, yield edible fruits. Roses, ipomeas, clitonias, poincianas, marvels of Peru, and other plants, of the gayest blossoms, are growing amongst the graves, many of which are also ornamented with nosegays, in jugs of various kinds, standing loose but unmolested, or let into the masonry. The graves are chiefly of masonry, but vary from the rudest heaps of earth, headed with little wooden crosses, with or without inscriptions, to gorgeous tombs with epitaphs of high panegyric. The coloured races are very particular in ornamenting the graves of departed relations. The Chinese have also a burial-ground here: it is hidden from public view, though only separated from the burial-grounds of the white and coloured population by a wall. The graves are of raised masonry, with stones about two feet high and fifteen inches wide, walled into the north ends. Most of these stones have three perpendicular rows of characters engraved on them and coloured with red paint; and upon their tops, confined by a rude stone, are laid a few folds of blank paper, or of paper forming three or more separate leaves, with several marks cut in them. Some of the tombstones have the engraving on marble tablets, let into the basalt. A sort of altar, with a marble tablet let into it, having many characters engraved upon it of much smaller size than those on the tombs, is fixed on the walls of the adjacent burial-ground, from which it forms a projection. Contiguous to this is a sort of double semi-circular wall, with copings having the space intervening between the walls nearly filled up to the coping of the inner wall. In this intervening space there are many pieces of paper deposited in the same manner as upon the

tombstones. On the centre of the coping of the inner wall, a round flat stone is placed, painted red, and about a foot across. Below it are portions of wax, showing that candles have been burnt here, where it is said their priest is stationed when a corpse is brought for interment, while he performs some sort of burial service. Hard by, there is also another semi-circular wall of smaller dimensions, which is used for the poorer people. The number of Chinese in St. Louis is considerable; they are said to be industrious, but much addicted to the reception of stolen goods. The burial ground of the Malays is fenced with Agave Americana, an aloe-like plant, and the Opuntia Ficus Indica, which is green, leafless, and grows with flat, spinous, oval joints. A burial-place for the lowest classes is open to the foot of the passenger, and, to complete this universal Golgotha underneath, the wall of one of the burial-grounds is the place where horses are shot. The bazaar, or market of St. Louis, is well supplied with meat, fish, and poultry, equal to that of Europe. European and tropical vegetables and fruits are also abundant, but fetch high prices in consequence of the attention of the owners of the soil being almost solely devoted to the growth of sugar. Most other kinds of agricultural produce are, therefore neglected. The finest fruit, uninviting as is its exterior, is the "litchi." This fruit is like a hard-boiled egg; its flavour is exquisite, and unlike that of any other fruit. The bazaar is also well supplied with flowers. The principal market is held on Sunday mornings. Public sales also take place on that day. The cafés of St. Louis, which are numerous and commodious, are much frequented by the loungers and retailers of news.

The private houses are daily giving evidence of the increased refinement of this flourishing community. Though the houses of wood are, upon being pulled down, almost universally superseded by stone, and are much larger and airy than those of the old French style, it must not be supposed that those immediately preceding bore any resemblance to the cabins mentioned by St. Pierre. Most of them, though little more than an assemblage of country houses at the beginning of the present century, were painted with the gayest colours. Each house had its parterre, its garden, or enclosure, and they were well built, and often richly ornamented. The windows, too, were matted with trellis-work of Indian reed, to which palms and other shrubs were trained, which rendered the *tout ensemble* highly picturesque. The great fire, which consumed so many wooden houses, had no slight tendency to the introduction of stone, and the adoption of an improved style of building. The island abounds with stone; the face of the country is covered with it. As may be supposed, the expense of working it, and the deficiency of labour, have together operated injuriously towards its universal use. Coral, which, when first taken out of the sea, is easily put into any shape, has been advantageously employed in building. The white coral is used as a substitute for lime. The dwellings of the planters,

where they have not been superseded by modern erections of stone, are divided in a curious and fanciful manner. They are built in detached pieces, so that a great deal of ground is covered by the buildings belonging to one residence. These consist generally of a principal dwelling-house, and a number of small buildings, which in India are called "bungalows;" here "pavillons." They have generally a verandah attached to them, and commonly contain two or three small rooms, which are used as apartments for visitors,—a mode of lodging them which possesses many recommendations, though they are somewhat counterbalanced by the fact of their frequently having to provide themselves, on retiring to rest, with cloaks, lanterns, and umbrellas, in order to make their way through a storm of thunder, lightning, rain, and wind, to their bed-rooms, situate perhaps at the very extremity of the establishment. The principal dwelling-house usually contains a "salle à manger" and a "salle de compagnie," or drawing-room, on the ground floor, over which are bed-rooms occupied exclusively by the planter and his family. The staircase is generally on the outside; the kitchen and store-rooms are all detached buildings. Such a mode of building in an island liable to violent hurricanes, where compactness and strength in the construction seem so indispensable, was, to say the least, very injudicious. The drawing-rooms are generally furnished in a showy manner, with a superabundance of looking-glasses. The dining-room is the worst apartment in the house. The floor is of a dark wood, which generally takes a fine polish, and, by being rubbed every morning with wax and a brush, rivals a mahogany table in brilliancy. This process is performed at an early hour, and the negroes are very expert at it. They fix one foot in a large flat brush, and, jumping alternately on the other foot with a bend of the body each time, pass the brush rapidly up and down the floor with a motion not unlike that of skating. This astonishes strangers very much, as they are awaked from their sleep by the operation. The floors are inlaid with woods of different shades of colour, in a variety of forms and squares, which have a pleasing effect. The lower portion of some of the houses is of hewn basalt, and the upper part of wood; others are entirely of wood, painted in the manner before described. The quarters inhabited by the coloured population contain cottages of the humblest description.

St. Louis presents a gay display of jewellers', cutlers', and milliners' shops, &c., which look more European than those of the generality of colonies. The close proximity of the ships to the busy town give also a continued life to the scene. Few of the English functionaries reside in the town during the hot months. They have their villas a few miles from the town, whence they drive in to attend their offices in the morning, and return in the cool of the evening.

Mahébourg, the town of the south-east port, is very beautifully situated on the south side of a picturesque, craggy range of woody

mountains of basalt, on the margin of the deep and wide bay of Grand Port, into which two rivers discharge themselves. On the opposite side of the bay, at the foot of the Montagne des Creoles, are the remains of some of the houses which formerly composed the establishment of the early Dutch settlers. These ruins are generally denominated "Old Grand Port." Their tombs are also still visible. The French, following the example of the Dutch, at first settled here, but La Bourdonnais, as has been before observed, transferred the seat of Government to St. Louis. By a singular anomaly, however, this place has derived its name from that celebrated man. The distance of Mahébourg from St. Louis is thirty miles across the country, over a good road, and amidst some highly interesting scenery.

Mahébourg is the second military station in the island, and one regiment is always stationed there. As the thermometer shows a considerable decrease of temperature over St. Louis, and it is a valuable recruiting station during the hot months, it is much coveted by the soldiers. The town consists of several streets of wooden houses, chiefly of one story, many of them shops with open fronts, and a large military barrack of stone, which forms three sides of a square, built during the French occupation of the island. A number of detached houses are also occupied by the officers of the regiment. The barracks are capable of containing five hundred men. The market, as in St. Louis, is held on the Sunday. People are also employed in their several avocations during the greater part of that day. In proportion as the port becomes improved, and its advantages are discovered, the town will augment in population, wealth, and importance.

CHAPTER IV.

GOVERNMENT—LAWS—COURTS—DEFENCE, NAVAL AND MILITARY.

THE Government of the colony is vested in a Governor, with a salary of 7,000*l.* per annum, an executive council of four members, and a colonial legislative council subordinate to the orders of the Queen in Council. This body consists of fifteen members, seven of whom are unconnected with the Government. A portion of the remainder act in an executive as well as a legislative capacity.

It will perhaps be remembered, that during the latter part of his administration, the Captain-General Decaen, with a view to the raising a supply of money, created a colonial council. The decree by which it was constituted premised that the colony was bound to contribute to the expense of providing for its own safety, and eleven

persons chosen from among the principal inhabitants and merchants of the island, viz., three from Port Napoleon, and one from each of the country districts, were accordingly summoned. The members of the council were to be elected by the captain-general, on the nomination of the colonial prefect and commissary of justice, from a list of eligible names. Any vacancy in the council was to be filled up from the first of the candidates whose names remained upon the list of election. Electoral colleges were to be formed for the selection of these candidates for the council, and members of these colleges were to be named by the captain-general on the presentation of the officers above mentioned. This apparent liberality of the Government, which bears a resemblance to the conduct of Napoleon under similar circumstances, was adopted solely with a view to the replenishment of the treasury, and as a cloak for the concealment of the despotism under which the colony suffered; as the captain-general effectually suppressed any attempts of the members to discuss the grievances, for the removal of which they were declared to have been summoned.

A council of the commune was established by Governor Farquhar in 1817, composed of fifteen notable inhabitants of St. Louis, and three planters from each quartier of the island. The qualifications were, an annual income of three thousand piastres, if resident at St. Louis, and five thousand, if resident in the country; thirty years of age, unless born in the colony, in that event from twenty-seven upwards; a residence of ten years in the island; a nomination by the governor from lists, containing three times the number of persons to be so nominated, and a continuance in office for five years. The council to elect a president, vice-president, and secretary, to discuss, with the aid of six other members, questions of commerce, the management of the roads, the direction of education, and internal affairs, as brought before their notice by the governor. This institution was suppressed by Earl Bathurst four years afterwards, at the instigation of General Darling, since which period the largest and most populous city in the whole of the tropical possessions of the Crown has been debarred from the exercise of the simplest municipal privileges.

Before the conquest of the island by Great Britain, the Mauritius was governed by four out of the five codes of law which had been promulgated by Napoleon, and which were administered by courts established in the island before the French Republic. The formation of the several courts, and their powers, have been altered from time to time by the authority of the governor, but were finally settled by the Mauritius Charter of Justice of April 1831, which authorized the establishment of a supreme court of civil and criminal justice, presided over by three judges; a tribunal de premiere instance; a special court for the trial of offences committed at sea, and a court of vice-admiralty. The governor has authority to establish petty

court in any of the dependencies of the Mauritius, and to extend or limit their power.

The law on divorces is identical with that which obtains in France. Various modifications of the old penal code have of late taken place, but the colonial statute-book is still disfigured by the presence of many of the antiquated and barbarous provisions of the old French law. Mortgages are required to be registered every ten years by Article 2154 of the Code of Napoleon. The authority to inter a corpse must be given by the civil commissary, upon a declaration, by two of the nearest relatives or neighbours of the deceased, of the cause of death.

Defence, Naval and Military.—The state of the defences of the Isle of France, during its possession by the French, having been more than once adverted to in the course of the history, further notice would appear to be unnecessary; we shall content ourselves, therefore, with a few observations on, and a description of, its existing means of defence and military strength. In respect of its position in relation to the countries washed by the Indian Ocean, it is unrivalled either as regards offensive or defensive warfare, being nearly mid-way between the Cape and Ceylon, and forming nearly the centre of a circle, comprising New Holland, Java, Ceylon, Madagascar, and the Cape, and being the only spot where the two-fold advantages of ports accessible at all seasons, and great military strength are combined. Though far inferior to Malta or Gibraltar in its defences, indeed, it will not bear comparison with them, as a landing might be effected on several parts of the coast; art and a moderate outlay of money would go far to diminish this deficiency, assisted as it would be by the natural resources for defence. The moral power which the Government of India has derived from its occupancy by Great Britain is incalculable, and the losses, chagrin, insubordination, and alarm, to which it was subject prior to such occupancy, will have been already collected from the statements of the Marquis of Wellesley thereon. Nor was that statesman the first to perceive its manifold advantages. No sooner had the East become the scene of conflict between England and France, than the superiority which the possession of this island gave them in the war was seen by English statesmen and enunciated by Earl Chatham; and though nothing could stay the eventual success of the British arms, yet the contest would neither have been so protracted, nor posterior intrigues have been concerted, had it not been for their possession of a spot long deemed unassailable. Intelligent Frenchmen (such as the Abbé Raynall), who had scrutinized its defences, ceased not to warn their country of this false idea of security, and foresaw its ultimate results, which fortunately for Great Britain have proved true. As my countrymen are peculiarly liable to the error of becoming indifferent to the advantages of possessions, whose cost to themselves is insignificant, I shall add Baron Dupin's

opinion as to the importance of the Mauritius to this country :— "The Cape of Good Hope was for the Dutch what the Isle of France was to us, a military and naval station, of the greatest possible importance. These two stations formed, as it were, the military chain of the great Indian navigation. Both these positions have been seized by England, and I doubt whether, if by a fortunate vengeance the fleets of their former possessors could carry their victorious flags into the Thames or the Medway, the cabinet of St. James's could be induced to consent to their restoration."

The military force stationed at the Mauritius generally consists of two complete, or the service companies of three regiments of the line with one company of sappers and miners, and half a company of artillery. The service companies of two corps, the artillery, the sappers and miners are stationed at St. Louis. The other corps is distributed between the different stations on the windward side of the island, with head-quarters at Mahébourg. There is no militia enrolled at the Mauritius, nor is there any law for its regulation, if embodied. The governor has the power, however, of calling out one by commission under the great seal in a case of emergency; and were an invasion to take place, a militia of fifty thousand blacks or Indians, officered by Englishmen, could be made immediately available. During the French revolution there was a national guard, consisting of French of the lower orders, but it was not always to be depended on. The same body was called out by Sir E. Colville to quell an anticipated outbreak among the slaves, but it was disbanded by his successor. The French inhabitants are in general, however, possessed of arms.

The naval station, under which the Mauritius is classed, has its centre at the Cape. It is, however, frequently visited by ships of war; and, in case of hostilities, the communication with India and the Cape would probably be kept up by a division from each of those squadrons. It is, indeed, within reach of the squadrons at the Cape, Bombay, Ceylon, and the one to be formed at Hobart Town. St. Louis is defended on the side of the sea by two powerful forts; one on Isle Tonnelliers, where there is a furnace for heating shot, and a mortar battery; and Fort Blanc, mounting thirty-five guns, on the other side of the entrance to the harbour; batteries are also placed elsewhere at intervals. The principal ones have ramparts, varying from twenty-five to sixty feet, and parapets eight feet high. The guns are worked, *en barbette*, on lofty traversing carriages. On account of the coral reefs, sailing vessels would find great difficulty in approaching the forts close enough to get under the fire of their guns, besides having to beat up for the narrow entrance against a constantly prevailing head-wind. Steamers would seem to get rid of this difficulty; but their superiority in motive power would be neutralised by their deficiency in other respects, and their greater liability to be disabled. As there

could be no approach within grape range, the tedious process of dismounting the guns off works, which could not be enfiladed, would have to be pursued under a fire of nearly two hundred pieces of artillery. Thus St. Louis is inaccessible by sea. The citadel, which was erected in consequence of the commotion caused by Mr. Jeremie, commands the town, and is a strong fortress. On the side of the interior it is defended by two lines, one on the eastern, and another on the western side. The former reaches from the hills to the sea. The ditch is twelve feet wide, and the parapets eight feet high; but they are thought by some military engineers to require more flanks, and to be deficient in connection with the hills. On the western side the line is far from perfect, though it is an important side, and easily defended. There is, however, a battery at Grande Rivière. The streets of St. Louis, in case an enemy should obtain access to them, could not be defended, since the majority of the houses being of wood could be set on fire.

There are also military posts at Rivière Noire, Flacq, Grande Baie, Baie des Tortues, &c. Mahébourg is defended by a fort and battery on Isle de la Passe, as well as by others on the shore; but the mountains in the neighbourhood would alone prove a sufficient obstacle to the advance of an enemy in that direction. If there be any external cause of alarm from any power in the world, as respects the tenure of our Indian empire (which may reasonably admit of doubt) it must arise from France alone. If she were in possession of this island, and her squadrons could escape from blockade in Europe, or from an intercepting fleet on the passage, and further elude the observation of the Cape squadron, or overpower it by its superior force and reach the Mauritius, the fleet might here be recruited, and be detached on predatory excursions (as before) against British commerce, or eluding the Indian squadrons, burst on some part of the extensive coasts of the peninsula, and landing troops unite with the disaffected Mussulman. But this hypothesis being reversed, and the obstacles we have mentioned being only in part removed, while the advantage to be derived from the possession of the Isle of France should be in the hands of a rival, such an attempt would be indeed hopeless; for granting that Bourbon might prove commodious enough (supposing the difficulties above mentioned to have been overcome) for the purpose of temporary refreshment, yet it possesses no port of refuge in tempestuous weather, and could afford no adequate protection to a fleet which would be soon attacked by the divisions of several squadrons. There is little difficulty, moreover, in perceiving that even these advantages would be denied it; for the British Government, from its possessing a monopoly of the earliest channels of intelligence, would immediately dispose of the question in the event of a war by assuming the offensive, for which they would be greatly favoured by their occupation of the Mauritius, and

direct an attack against the remaining possessions of France in these seas, and against such an attack the French have no effectual means of resistance. Under such circumstances the situation of a French fleet from Europe (again assuming that it would escape the dangers of the passage) would excite mingled contempt and pity rather than apprehension. Bereft of all means for refitment, where such means could be readily obtained, without a port, from which it could derive protection against the elements, or defend itself in case of an attack, after a steam or sailing voyage of several thousand miles, such a fleet, with its weary and despairing crews, would become the prey rather than the assailant of the first British squadron it might encounter.

It has been lately urged, that, in the event of an attack on this island by France, no dependence can be placed on the loyalty and fidelity of the French population; but, assuming this to be correct, that population, compared with the other inhabitants, is only as one-twelfth, and of that a considerable portion has been detached from any connexion with the chimerical views entertained by an insatiable clique of the prospect of this island ever reverting to France in the event of a war, by the judicious and conciliatory conduct of the Government. Of late years British-born subjects, both as planters and merchants, have been gradually increasing in wealth, numbers, and influence; while the negro and Indian population are to a man in favour of a government on whom alone they are dependent for protection; the slightest semblance, therefore, of treason, from what quarter soever originating, would meet with the most condign punishment. Perhaps in none of the British colonies can any class or section of a community be found more in the power of a government for good or evil than the French population of the Mauritius

Admitting, then, that many parts of the coast are assailable, yet the difficulties of a march in such a country, coupled with the impediments arising from the attacks of the vast irregular army that might be almost instantly assembled, would prove next to insuperable; while an effectual resistance could be offered by the capital, till such time as assistance could arrive. But further, assuming that by some fortuitous circumstance, at present out of the reach of probability, France could make herself master of this island, such mastery would in the very nature of things prove but temporary, from her inability (unless she continued to hold the maritime supremacy in this ocean) to subsist her troops, the island being dependent on Madagascar for the supply of the commonest necessaries.

With respect to recent French aggressions in these seas, it may be observed, that their aim would appear to be to secure a footing (which they do not at present possess) on the main island of Madagascar, and by creating divisions among the natives to acquire

a territory in the tropics, which may compensate them for those in which they have been supplanted. Their present possessions are Bourbon, Nossi Beh, and St. Mary's off the eastern coast of Madagascar, and Mayotta and some other islands of the Comoro group on the north-west coast. The last possession has not, however, as yet been recognised by Great Britain, and measures are said to have been resorted to in its acquisition which demand inquiry. Though Mayotta can be of little benefit to France for the purposes of aggressive or even defensive warfare, it is useful by its position in relation to Madagascar for the conduct of intrigues, and gives her the command of the Mosambique Channel.

INTERCOURSE.—The means of intercourse between Mauritius and Europe by merchant vessels, though they are frequent enough, are neither so regular nor so adapted for the convenience and comfort of passengers, as to render them preferable to the circuitous route at present adopted, viz., to Bombay or Madras, by ship, and from thence by steamer to Europe. In the latter case, however, there is the risk of missing the steamer, and the consequent alternative of waiting for the next, which together form a great impediment to passengers. The passage to England by the Cape is, in general, made in deeply laden sugar ships, and is therefore very protracted, ninety days being considered the average run out or home.[1] A branch steamer to Aden has already occupied the attention of the merchants, and would doubtless be productive of the most beneficial results, as far as the development of the resources of our colonies in this ocean is concerned. The intercourse with India, China, and Australia is constant, and mutually advantageous. Steam communication was established a few years since with Bourbon, but it failed to realize the hopes of its projectors. The communication with Madagascar is frequent, but that with Mozambique, the Comoros, Eastern Africa, and the possessions of the Imaum of Muscat, is precarious. The internal means of intercourse were very defective, until after the capture of the island by Great Britain: for, though roads had been constructed by La Bourdonnais and others, yet, as they were not kept in repair, they soon became little more than the beds of torrents. The negroes, however, partly made up for this defect by their dexterity in carrying burdens through passes and defiles, where the white man dared not venture,

[1] The route which nature would seem to point out would appear to be as follows:—Premising that Fort Elizabeth be made the steam station of the Cape colony—a step recommended by nautical men—there is the traffic of both provinces with Port Natal to commence with. Secondly, that of Bourbon, Mauritius, the French settlements at Nossi Beh, &c., and of Mayotta (supposing its recognition as a French colony by Great Britain), which would also be the meeting point for the traffic from the Portuguese settlements along the eastern coast of Africa. The Seychelles (if their great capabilities were but developed) would add to the stream, and at Aden the voyage would end, and the traffic fall into the great line. The extension of steam navigation between England and Australia, *viâ* Mauritius, would then appear within the compass of probabilities.

and their bare feet would grasp the projecting rocks like a hand. At the time of St. Pierre's visit, the communication between the north-west and south-east ports was kept up by sea, the roads being almost impassable even for palanquins, and, in 1810, there was hardly a road fit for a carriage of any kind. Horses were then scarce, mules and donkeys being more adapted than any other quadruped for journeys through intricate woods, and along the banks of ravines. Mr. Bradshaw states, that the road to Mahébourg was so extremely bad that, though the distance is only thirty miles, it formed an entire and very fatiguing day's journey, great part of the road lying through a thick wood, the trees of which so overshadowed it that it was impervious to the rays even of a tropical sun, and, though called a road, it was converted, in the wet season, into the bed of a rapid stream, containing large stones and masses of rock, forming, in many places, what resembled rugged steps, with intervals of several feet between each, the water flowing in cascades over them. During Sir L. Cole's administration, the disadvantages resulting from such a communication with the second military station were perceived, and though the construction of a good and durable road on the Mac-Adam principle through such a line of country was a task of no ordinary difficulty, it was accomplished, after seven years' labour, by the skill and perseverance of parties of the soldiery and the Indian convicts, and has been attended with inestimable advantages to individuals and the community. The journey from St. Louis to Mahébourg is now only a few hours' drive over an excellent road. These improvements have led to the disuse of palanquins, which were previously the only means of transit, and the substitution of wheel-carriages, and the wealthy planters of the plains all keep their carriage, most of which have been procured from England. A large importation of horses from the Cape and South America has consequently followed. Bullocks, procured from Madagascar, are here used in draught. The island is now perfectly reticulated by roads,[1] which are kept in

[1] A company was lately formed in England (but has since been abandoned) for the construction of a railway direct between St. Louis and Mahébourg, which met with the humble support of the author, though he was not blind to the physical difficulties of such a route. Experience, however, has led him to the conclusion that the directness of a route does not necessarily involve the speedier completion of a journey. He is inclined therefore to prefer the route proposed by another company, with comparatively easy gradients, from St. Louis to Flacq, and thence along the coast to Mahébourg, as being in reality the most expeditious. Of all countries in the world, tropical countries *must* derive the most signal advantage from the establishment of railway communication, and where, as is the case in Mauritius, a dense population and vast agricultural wealth are concentrated within a small compass, a certain and increasing amount of profit must be derivable by the subscribers. The failure of one company, so far from convincing the author of the impracticable nature of such an undertaking, has rather had a contrary tendency, since the shoals on which the first scheme foundered, in the event of another attempt, would be clearly foreseen by the promoters, more especially, if it should be joined by those in England, who represent the interests of the colony.

repair by a large number of Indian convicts, superintended by a petty officer of one of the regiments. The introduction of the omnibus into the island has also afforded increased facilities for locomotion on its great roads. One runs from St. Louis to Mahébourg; a second to Savana; a third to Poudre d'Or, and other lines are in use. Thus the stranger has an opportunity of seeing a little of the interior of this fine island, which, for richness and varied scenery, may vie with any in the world. The Creole ladies are not fond of riding, and sit by no means gracefully on horseback. Palanquins are still used for paying visits in the town. They are very comfortable and luxurious conveyances. The bearers are never less than four in number, and are sometimes six, eight, or twelve, according to the distance. They have a quick, running pace, like the trot of a horse: the motion is not unpleasant, and rather disposes a person to sleep, as he reclines on a soft mattress with a cushion for the head, while the sun is excluded by silk curtains. The bearers carry a long stick in one hand, and the pole of the palanquin rests on the opposite shoulder, while they move the stick so as to keep time with the movement of their feet, and beguile their journey by a discordant kind of song—a sort of recitative which is kept up all the way, and, though monotonous, cheers them. They are quite unclothed to the waist, and wear short full petticoats, confined by a broad sash above the hip, and bordered with coloured cloth or worsted: a cotton handkerchief, or Scottish cap, round the head, completes the costume.

Population.—The population of the Mauritius has received considerable accessions of late years, and now exceeds one hundred and eighty thousand in number. The tables contained in the Appendix will show its various components, the rate of increase or decrease, &c. We shall content ourselves here by observing, that the natural decrease which annually took place among the slave population, prior to its manumission, has now been succeeded by an increase of from two to three per cent. per annum.

Literature and the Press.—Though the severe restrictions on the liberty of the press, which existed during the first establishment of British authority have been in some degree modified, the Mauritius has even still some reason to complain of the impediments that remain to the full and unlimited exercise of a privilege that seems so essential to the due enjoyment of constitutional liberty.

The first ordinance for the subversion of the liberty of the press was promulgated by Major-General Darling, and consisted of the following articles:—

Art. 1. No person whatsoever can set up any printing press, or print any works, matters, or things of any description whatever, without having previously obtained the permission of the Government to do so.

Art. 2. No person obtaining such general license can be per-

mitted to print any matter or thing, the exclusive privilege of which shall have been granted by the Government to any particular individual by patent, contract, or any other agreement.

Art. 3. No article of general reasoning, news, or any other matter, save and except the decrees, orders, and notices of justice, sanctioned and signed by the proper authorities, shall be printed and published by any person, without the same having been previously submitted to, and approved of by, such persons, as shall be appointed by the Government to superintend the press of the colony.[1]

Art. 4. Any and every such infraction of the three preceding articles shall be punished by a fine of five hundred dollars.

Given at Port Louis,

R. DARLING.

These prohibitions were soon after withdrawn or considerably modified, but were again reimposed, as the Government deemed fit. Within late years no necessity has arisen for a step so harsh and repulsive. The principal journals of the colony are the *Cerneén* and *Mauricien*, which are both conducted in a manner in no way inferior to their cotemporaries in the other colonies of the empire.

CHAPTER V.

THE DEPENDENCIES.

The Seychelle group of islands, called by the Portuguese "les Isles de Mascarenhas," and by the French at first "des Isles Labourdonnais," and subsequently "des Isles de Mahé," is situated nearly in the centre of the Indian Ocean, being one thousand and fifty miles from the Mauritius, and about five hundred and seventy-six miles to the northward of Madagascar, and lies between the parallels of 3° 40′ and 5° 35′ south lat., and 55° 15′ and 56° 0′ east long. from Greenwich, and forms an archipelago consisting of more than thirty isles, resting on an extensive bank of sand and coral, which, though when united are inferior to Rodriguez (many of them being mere islets), in extent, are superior to all the dependencies of Mauritius, by their fertility, position, and

[1] Mr. Martin states, that in even 1830 the ridiculous height to which this prohibition was carried, was such as to prevent the republication of De Custance's work on the British Constitution, though it is a work generally held to be of a servile character.

natural advantages. Their names are as follows:—Mahé, Praslin, Silhouette, La Digne, Curieuse, St. Anne, Aux Cerfs, Frégate, Marianne, Conception, Felicité, L'Ile Nord, Denis, Vache, Aride, Les Mammelles, Longue, Du Sud Est, L'Ile Ronde, Aux Recifs, Therese, Au Vaches Marines, Anonyme, Moyenne, Les Cousin et Cousine, Les Trois Sœurs, L'Ile Plate, &c. Mahé, which is the most considerable and populous of the group, as well as the seat of the Government, is situated in 4° 35′ south lat., and 35° 32′ east long., and has a circumference, according to the almanach de l'Ile Maurice, of seventy-five to seventy-six miles; but, according to Sir E. Belcher, it incloses all its own islets in a sweep of forty-five miles. It is eighteen miles long from north-north-west to south-south-east, and varies from three to five miles in breadth, containing thirty thousand English acres; and, according to the authority before quoted, seventy-two thousand seven hundred and sixty-eight arpens or French acres are occupied, or have been granted, but no clue exists for discovering the quantity of waste or ungranted. The island is mountainous, and rises precipitous from the sea in almost every part; in some places to a height of more than two thousand feet, and huge blocks of granite, piled up in a confused mass, form their peaks, which are covered with verdure. A very large, rugged, jutting, and steep granite range, runs also through the centre of the island, which is generally intersected with ravines, and besprinkled with rocks. Its soil varies considerably, but is generally of a reddish colour; and, though it consists principally of a decomposed granite, is well adapted for vegetable productions, being moist and well watered by innumerable natural and artificial branches from the ravines, the results of perpetual condensation and showers. The island still possesses, in common with the others, a large quantity of timber fit for ship-building, and other useful purposes; and the summits of the mountains are crowned with wood (not having been cleared to the same extent as the valleys for cultivation), which helps to render them conspicuous objects for twelve or thirteen leagues distance, and on a clear day for upwards of twenty leagues. On the north-eastern side of the island is the town, situated at the mouth of a valley formed by a chain of high mountains, bristling with rugged rocks, and surmounted by large trees. The most elevated point of this range is called Mont Blanc, at the base of which several meandering streams traverse the town.

The houses, which are built irregularly, are entirely of wood, and consist generally of a ground-floor, which is surrounded by fruit-trees within a palisade. In consequence of the ravages of that formidable tropical enemy the white ant, and the want of paint to protect them from the weather, they are fast falling into decay, and are said to look as rusty as an English country barn. Some of the villas in the environs display, however, great taste and neatness,

and command the most romantic scenery. The port and town have lately had their name changed from Mahé to Victoria, at which the inhabitants are not a little dissatisfied. In the town of Victoria, or near it, reside the Government authorities, to whose offices a large public building is devoted. It boasts also of its public garden, which was laid out by the French (one of the redeeming points of their otherwise absurd colonial policy), who introduced a number of exotic plants thither. Adjoining it is the public cemetery. There are two prisons, and several schools, but no church has as yet been raised. Its population in 1825 was five thousand eight hundred and thirty inhabitants for the town; for the whole island six thousand nine hundred and three, of which five hundred and eighty-two were whites, and the remainder coloured. The population of Mahé had in 1840 decreased to four thousand three hundred and sixty. The population of the whole archipelago is stated by Mr. Harrison to have been eight thousand five hundred in 1830, since which it has considerably decreased, though births exceed deaths, in consequence of an emigration to the Mauritius, where labour, from being more in demand, is better remunerated. The population of the archipelago did not, therefore, exceed five thousand three hundred and sixty in 1840. Most of the planters live in the environs, or on the coast.

After Mahé ranks Praslin (named after the celebrated French minister the Duc de Praslin) as next in importance, though it has hardly the third of its soil in cultivation, and but two thousand five hundred and fourteen acres granted. It is situate in 4° 20′ south lat. and 55° 48′ east long. The anchorage is good and safe towards the north between it and Isle Curieuse, and the tide rises six or seven feet. The population amounted to four hundred and eight in 1825, of whom thirty families were French. The soil is excellent in the valleys, and even in elevated places, and well adapted for the growth of cotton. The hard wood, with which the hills are clothed proves excellent timber. Cocoa trees are plentiful in the valleys. Several dangerous rocks occur between Mahé and Praslin, the principal of which are the Brisans, about four miles northward of the anchorage at St. Anne's.

St. Anne is about a league from Mahé, in lat. 4° 35′ south, and long. 55° 26′ east, by Captain Moresby. The soil is tolerably good, and contains about one thousand two hundred arpens of cultivated land, the other parts being covered with cocoa-nut trees. The population amounts to two hundred and fifty.

Aux Cerfs is close to the south end of the above, is much smaller, and contains but thirty-five inhabitants.

Isles Anonyme and "Du Sud-Est" are three small islands near the preceding; but are not inhabited or capable of cultivation, though they are useful as a fishing station.

Longue Island, Isles Moyenne and Ronde, which lie between St.

Anne and Aux Cerfs, form together the property of an individual, who employs on them twenty-five persons.

Isles Therese, de la Conception, and des Vaches Marines, or Bird Island, are islets situated towards the west, very near Mahé, in lat. 3° 4′ south, long. 55° 8′ east. The soil is of a sandy nature, with a few shrubs on it. They are surrounded by a coral reef and bank a mile and a quarter long, and are uninhabited. Sea-lions, probably manutees, or large seals are said to have been seen here. *L'Hirondelle*, French privateer, with one hundred and eighty people on board, was lost on it, having sailed from Mahé the day before on a cruise in the Red Sea. They procured water by sinking a pit into the sand, and remained for twenty-two days, till they had constructed a raft, on which a part arrived at Mahé.

Isle aux Frégates is the most easterly of the Seychelle group, being in lat. 4° 32′ south, long. 56° 10′ east, and was the resort of pirates, the ruins of whose dwellings are still visible. Off its south-west end there is a reef and rocks, over which the sea breaks. It has an elevation of five hundred and fifty feet, and is about two miles and a half in length. Ships running for St. Anne's roads in hazy weather will pass this island before they see Mahé, and sometimes as far as Isle aux Recifs.

Isle aux Frégates is inhabited by a few persons, and has anchorage under its lee.

La Digne is a small island three miles long, and half a mile in width: it has not more than two thousand arpens in cultivation, of which one thousand four hundred and fifty-four are granted and inhabited by three hundred and fifty individuals. The island is surrounded by a reef, and landing is difficult.

Les Cousin et Cousine are two uninhabited islets.

Les Sœurs are three islands of small extent, inhabited by fifteen people.

L'Isle Ronde and l'Isle Aride are two islands near Praslin, with a few inhabitants. Aride is long.

Booby Island is a small conical rock near the latter.

L'Isle Felicité is of small extent, not having more than fifty acres cultivated, and fifty-two inhabitants.

Isle aux Recifs is in lat. 4° 34′ south, long. 55° 49′ east. It is about one mile and a quarter long, with an elevation of one hundred and fifty feet. It is the resort of millions of birds, and has a remarkable white rock like a building on its top, which takes its colour from the birds that nestle on it.

L'Isle Nord, or Fearn Island, has also a considerable elevation; but there is great difficulty in landing. Lieutenant Owen and a party scaled its summit in 1822 for scientific purposes as a hydrographical station. They were two hours and a half in ascending, and were perhaps the first human beings who ever visited this elevated spot.

Denis, or Orixa, the most northerly of the group, which is ten leagues east from Vache, is in lat. 3° 49′ south, and 55° 44′ east long., and is in all respects a similar island, being very low and covered with trees, and may be seen four leagues off. It is about three miles long and one and a half wide, and contains five hundred acres of land fit for cultivation, which have been granted to Captain Lesage for his use.

Curieuse is a small island of a moderate height, two miles long, and one wide, but has not more than one hundred and fifty acres of good ground, which have been granted to an inhabitant of the Mauritius.

The Mammelles are forty feet high; those in the neighbourhood of Praslin and La Digne are composed of granite similar to the larger islands.

Silhouette, north end, 4° 27′ lat. south, 55° 17′ east long., is the most elevated island of the group, as well as the most westerly, and is the third in size, being about nine miles in circumference, and is six or seven leagues north-west of Mahé. It contains one thousand five hundred and fifteen arpens, which are divided among six proprietors, and has one hundred and forty inhabitants. The island is woody. Landing is difficult, from the surf, which breaks over the coral reefs.

L'Isle Plate, the most southerly, is in lat. 5° 48′ 30″ south, long. 55° 27′ east. In some parts near it there is no bottom at one hundred fathoms; but off its south-west end a bank extends four or five leagues, with from five to twelve fathoms. From the north end, west-north-west, a reef extends four or five miles. Vessels anchor off an opening in the reefs on the south-west side. The island is a mile in length, is of coral, and was till lately used as a quarantine station for ships which had infectious diseases on board. The number of small islands and rocks which are scattered among this group is incredible; most of them rise abruptly from the sea, and are of the hardest granite. Coral reefs have grown round them, and project for some distance. The dangers are generally visible, except those we have given, or else the sea breaks on them. The soundings off the Grand Mahé banks, which extend far to the south, are irregular, varying from ten to forty-five fathoms. Some are said to be as low as four fathoms. The bank is in length north-west and south-west about thirty-four leagues, being of a triangular form, with the acute angle to the south-east. On many of the more distant of this group, water is only to be procured by making excavations in the sand, and is brackish, some being but a few feet above high-water mark, and the wood on them is only fit for burning.

History.—The uncertainty attending the relation of the ancient discovery of the Seychelles will not warrant us in dwelling on the question any further than to remind the reader that the islands in these seas, which are designated "columnæ" by Pliny, and in another

place "parvæ insulæ" are generally held to be indentical with this group, as we have shown in another place. Some are likewise of opinion that these islands were known to the Portuguese[1], soon after their discovery of the route to the Indies; inasmuch as they appear in the charts of that nation as "Isles Mascarenhas." It is highly probable also that they were frequented by the pirates, who so infested the Indian Ocean during the seventeenth century, but it was under the government of La Bourdonnais at Mauritius in 1743, that they were assigned a definite and intelligible position, and under one of his successors that they were erected into a dependency of the Isle of France. The inducement M. de la Bourdonnais had in despatching this expedition, was the report of some French officers, who had been previously sent to explore the Cargados Garayos, and the other dangers in that vicinity, but had by a remarkable error in the longitude, which was three hundred leagues more to the west than they had supposed (no uncommon occurrence in the early history of nautical discovery), discovered several new islands that had no place on their charts. Accordingly M. Lazarus Picault was ordered to set sail, and ascertain with precision the exact position of these islands, and for that purpose to take his course for the Malabar coast. Arriving in safety, he took possession of them in the name of the King of France, denominated them the Isles de la Bourdonnais, and to the principal gave the name of Mahé, but this appellation was subsequently changed to that of the Seychelles, in compliment to the Viscount Herault de Seychelles, an officer in the French East India Company's service. In 1756, M. Magon, then governor of the Isles of France and Bourbon, having been informed of the advantages that might be derived from these isles, sent thither the *Cerf* frigate, and another vessel under the command of M. de Morphy, an intelligent officer and able navigator. From that time the occupa-

[1] In his observations on this head, the writer of the voyage of his Majesty's ship *Leven* and *Barracouta*, says, "the Amirante islands were certainly known to the Portuguese, but as the islands at present bearing that name are low, sandy, and sterile, and altogether insignificant, it is not probable that the old Portuguese would have bestowed on them so high sounding a name (?) more especially as the lofty and beautiful archipelago of the Seychelles, only eighty miles distant, must have been seen by them on their way to India." But I would humbly ask this writer, if he can show that any practice exists of giving a nomenclature to places in exact proportion to their importance, or rather, whether the names given are not in almost every instance the result of accident, &c. He continues, "It is, however, evident that if the Seychelles were originally known to the Portuguese, they could not have critically examined them; otherwise they must have discovered, and would have mentioned the tree called the 'coco de mer.'" To this I would reply, that there is every reason to suppose, that the Portuguese would rest satisfied with their knowledge of Mahé, the principal island, and would have nothing to induce them to visit Praslin and Curieuse, the islands on which alone the coco de mer is found to grow. Then with respect to the confusion of the two groups, it may be stated that they were called Isles Mascarenhas by the Portuguese, the name also given them in the French charts of the seventeenth century.

tion of catching turtle, in which the few inhabitants had been previously engaged, was exchanged for more regular branches of industry, and the islands assumed some importance. M. St. Miel was appointed provisional governor for the King of France, and was succeeded by Messrs. Romanville, Berthelotte, Eilotte, Malavois Caradec, Nageon, and Enouf. The natural resources of the islands, most of which were now conceded and occupied, were further increased by the transplantation thither from the Isle of France of the cinnamon, clove, and nutmeg, under the directions of M. Poivre. The successive hurricanes at the Isle of France having partially defeated the hopes of the French as to their success there, though they had been under the care of able people, they were proportionably eager, by stimulating their growth at the Seychelles, to snatch from the hands of the Dutch the lucrative monopoly which they still possessed. The parallel of latitude in which the islands are situate being about the same as that of the Moluccas, and the serenity of the climate also being yet more favourable, in no slight degree encouraged their expectation. The greatest secrecy was, however, observed as to their existence, and a garden was established in the most retired spot, in order that vessels which touched on their voyage from the coast of Africa with slaves for refreshment might not discover the growing treasure. The plants continued to flourish beyond all expectation, and Mahé was looked upon as singly capable of eventually supplying France with the spices of the east. The rumours of the war that broke out between France and England in 1778, induced the Count de Souillac, then governor of the Isle of France, to issue peremptory orders, which prove with what jealousy he dreaded Mahé falling into the hands of the English, while her valleys possessed the harvests of so much trouble and care. Finding himself, however, unable to retain a sufficient force to protect the island, he preferred trusting to the insignificance with which the English viewed the Seychelles, and withdrew the small force that was usually kept there, leaving an officer and some negroes to watch the spice trees, with strict injunctions to surround every tree with dry wood, and if the English should attempt a landing on the island, to destroy the whole. Not long after a ship under English colours made her appearance. The officer did not hesitate. In a few hours the whole plantation was consumed, *not in sight of an enemy*, but of a *French* ship from Madagascar with slaves to take in wood and water, which had used the ruse to test the presence of a British force they supposed might be in possession. The consternation and chagrin of the inhabitants at this suicidal act, which at once blasted all their fondest hopes, will be readier imagined than described. The seeds of the cinnamon tree have, however, been carried by birds over most parts of the island, from which trees have sprung. In the war of the French revolution, Mahé was of great service to France as a port of refitment and refuge, and it was on this account that its

capture was resolved on by an officer in command of a division of the Indian squadron. Previous to this, the *Victor* sloop of war, Captain Collier, having fallen in with a French corvette off Diego Garcia, the latter managed to escape by damaging the rigging of her opponent. Judging that she would make for Mahé, Captain Collier followed her thither, and getting a sight of her as she lay in a secure and intricate anchorage, the officers of the *Victor* sounded the channel under the fire of the corvette, and having ascertained the depth of water, Captain Collier warped his ship under a raking fire, until he could anchor, and bring his broadside to bear, and in two hours and a half sank her at her anchor, without having one of his own men killed or wounded. At this time M. Quéau de Quincy was military commandant, and civil agent of the islands for the French republic. He was a knight of the order of St. Louis, and had been in his younger days a page to Louis XV. The population had of late received an increase by the arrival of a number of emigrants from Bourbon and the Mauritius, who lived very happy and almost as one family, being much attached to their governor, who reigned over them in a patriarchal manner. The turn of war, however, brought its change for the Seychelles.

In May, 1794, Captain Newcombe, of his Majesty's ship *Orpheus*, fell in with and captured *Le Duguay Trouin*, of thirty-four guns and four hundred men, after a very severe action. The prize being in a very disabled state, and his own crew sickly, and in want of water, Captain Newcombe put into Mahé, in company with his Majesty's ship *Centurion*, Captain Osborne, and the *Resistance*, Captain Pakenham. Supplies were refused, however, even to their own countrymen, though they had not the power of withholding them. This want of humanity met with its merited punishment, and Captain Newcombe demanded an instant surrender of the island of Mahé and its dependencies, in the name of his Britannic Majesty, giving but an hour from the delivery of the message for a decision, and warning them, that if any resistance was made, they must abide by the consequences. Within the given time, an assent was given to the terms of the capitulation, by which the island and its dependencies, the artillery and military stores, as well as batteries and magazines were ceded to Great Britain, whose flag was to float over them. Private property, whether moveable or immoveable, was to be protected, and the slaves unmolested. The Governor had to remain a prisoner of war during the stay of the division. The sick and the prisoners having been landed, and such supplies as the place afforded obtained, justice seemed satisfied with this wholesome correction, and the generous victor spared and restored to the infant colony the cargo of a French brig, consisting of implements of agriculture and carpenters' tools for the construction of houses, as well as a quantity of military stores, for making signals, in case of an insurrection among the slaves; and registers and other papers useful or

interesting to the inhabitants. Nevertheless, it was not without apprehension that the inhabitants returned to their pursuits, but, under the neutral line of conduct pursued by them, and the very politic and conciliatory address of the French Commandant, M. de Quincy, who was left in undisturbed possession of his authority, which he held for twenty years under the French, and subsequently for eighteen years, as "juge de paix," under the British Government, their flag was respected by British men-of-war. The capitulation was, however, renewed in 1806, by Captain Ferrier, of his Majesty's ship *Albion*, and, on the capture of the Mauritius, the Seychelles were formally taken possession of by the appointment of an agent, and incorporated as a dependency on that colony. Confidence was now re-established, and commercial relations revived.

Sir E. Belcher has made some pertinent and striking remarks on the value of this acquisition to Great Britain. "France," says he, "certainly lost here a very important position. But it was equally important to Great Britain that Mauritius should not have so formidable a position in the hands of strangers, commanding the commerce of the Mozambique Channel, the Portuguese and Imaum of Muscat's possessions; in short, nearly the whole of the eastern coast of Africa, and from the Red Sea, up to Ceylon; indeed they are the very key of our western trade. But they are still unfortified, and nearly as bare of defence as they were in 1742."

Since the government of these isles devolved upon Great Britain, the following persons have held the appointments of commandant and civil agent,—Messrs. Sullivan, Quincy,[1] Lesage, Madge, Harrison, (1826), Wilson (1837), C. A. Mylius, civil commissioner and present resident (1838).

Slave Trade and Slavery.—The atrocities of the slave trade were shared by Mahé equally with the Mauritius, and similar results attended its prosecution. Nor did it cease any sooner here than in the latter place, slaves having frequently been introduced, in defiance of the watchfulness of British cruisers. The negro, however, showed a no less eager desire to escape from servitude, wherever an opportunity presented itself, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the laws, by which an attempt to escape from slavery was regarded as a capital offence, desertions constantly took place, and to a formidable extent. An instance is given by Lieutenant Boteler, of the desperation to

[1] M. de Quincy, to whom the inhabitants were so much indebted for the lenity with which they were treated by the English during the war, was still living at Mahé, at the advanced age of eighty, at the time of Captain Owen's visit. At a party at his house, that officer, who had previously known him, paid him a handsome compliment on the benefits which he had conferred on his country, when the old man was so overcome by the unexpected and gratifying allusion to a subject on which he, with good reason, prided himself, that he burst into tears, and was for some time quite overcome by his feelings. His manners and carriage were those of the perfect Frenchman of the old school, wearing the little demi-military hat, and moving with the precise minuet step so peculiar to that generation.

which these men would resort. "We (*i. e.* his Majesty's ship *Barracouta*) picked up a frail canoe, made of a single tree, near the equator, and within about one hundred miles of the coast of Africa; it contained five runaway slaves,—one dying in the bottom of the canoe, and the other four nearly exhausted. They had fled from a harsh French master at the Seychelles, and committed themselves to the deep without compass or guide, with a small quantity of water and rice, trusting to their fishing lines for support. Steering by the stars, they had nearly reached the coast, from which they had been kidnapped, when nature sank exhausted, and we were just in time to save four of their lives. So long as the wanderers in search of home were able to do so, the days were numbered by notches on the side of the canoe, and twenty-one were thus marked, when met by our vessel." The same officer remarks on the extraordinary line of policy pursued by the planters, with reference to the moral conduct of their slaves, at a time when, from being once numerous and cheap, they had become difficult to obtain, it not being at all uncommon for twenty men to be placed on an island for its cultivation, with not more than two or three women as their companions.

It was this privation of female society that disgusted the negro, and more especially induced him to desert. For the trial of this and other offences, General Decaen issued an order, sanctioning the assemblage of a special court, of which the Commandant was president, and five of the principal inhabitants were members. The sentence of this court was carried into execution in less than twenty-four hours. Of the feeling displayed by the inhabitants towards the negroes, Lieutenant Boteler gives a curious instance. The subject of slave marriages being canvassed in his company, a lady present remarked, with many impatient tosses of the head, and angry looks, "A negro, a paltry negro, ever understand or conform to the social tie of wedlock! No, never, never!" and yet she was an Englishwoman. To the injustice of such a remark, perhaps the following statement will afford the best reply:—"The black population of the Seychelles," says Mr. Banks, the Government chaplain at Mauritius, who was deputed to visit and report on these islands, "is much more docile and respectful than that of the Mauritius. You seldom or never see one, even in the remotest parts of the country, that is not fully clothed, unless he may have removed part of his dress for some laborious work, and they are invariably civil and respectful, when you meet them. Perhaps this superiority may partly be attributed to the retired situation of the islands, and the consequent seclusion in which they live from that general intercourse which is so often a great source of contamination."

Society.—When a community is or has been till recently mixed up with a system so flagitious and immoral as that of slavery, it very often happens that the tone of its society will be prejudicially affected thereby, as if by a sort of moral retribution, inapparent as

such an influence may all the time be to itself. This may be said to be the case in all the tropical colonies, nor are the Seychelles an exception. Apart from the feeling they manifested in favour of the slave trade, which arose from interested motives, the inhabitants are represented to be mild in their manners, and exceedingly hospitable to strangers, all superfluous form and etiquette being as much banished as mirth and festivity are encouraged. Strong parental and filial affection are their foremost virtues. From a minister of religion having been unknown among them, they do not seem to entertain any thoughts respecting it, but their moral conduct is upon the whole good. Divorces, however, are according to Mr. Martin, of frequent occurrence, though the tie is performed with great ceremony, during which bets are often made as to the time it will remain unbroken. He was a guest at one table in the island, where two divorced wives were guests of the third consort of their former spouse, which created much harmony and glee at the entertainment. Wedlock is not always, therefore, a happy state at the Seychelles; for fidelity is not among their leading virtues; indeed, so little is thought of a breach of the marriage vow, that divorcées are admitted into the same society as the most prudent and exemplary of wives. The white proprietors are principally from Bourbon or the Mauritius, and on account of the frequent intercourse that exists between them, still retain their manners and dispositions, which are essentially French, but devoid of that restlessness and impatience, by which the European stock are distinguished. In society, there is little or no distinction of class beyond that of colour, but those, who are most wealthy or intelligent are regarded with most attention and respect. In so small a community, it will easily be conceived that many are connected by relationship, and nearly all the inhabitants of these islands have the same blood running in their veins. Large families are very general, and as many attain to a great age, it is not uncommon to see four generations sitting down at the same table, and forming a numerous party, which augurs well for the climate. The ladies of Mahé are stated to be in general graceful and pleasing in their manners, and possess many personal attractions. Dancing is their favourite amusement, cards and billiards being those of the men. With respect to the weaker points of their character, which have been described, as a want of all public spirit, indolence, and ignorance, Sir E. Belcher throws considerable light, considering them not as the result of their natural disposition, but as arising from the pressure of circumstances. He observes, "the old French residents complain bitterly of the emancipation of the slaves, and aver that their estates are fast falling into decay. Indeed the negro, lazy at all times, cannot be persuaded to work voluntarily, and the change from slavery to freedom renders it necessary to hold out allurements or high wages. These the planters either have not the means of paying, or they cannot make up their minds to swallow

the bitter pill of paying those to whose services they still maintain they are entitled. He is of opinion that this heavy cloud, which will be long before it is dispersed, will eventually blight the prospects of all the present holders of estates, but that the younger branches, from seeing the reality so clearly painted, may overcome their constitutional antipathy, and follow the example of the better informed, provided the march of intellect be not checked. Capital, they assert, they have not; labour they certainly have not, nor the means of hiring it; and unless some capitalists arrive with their spare wealth, it is too evident that this beautiful and very capable group will fall into insignificance. He does not, however, think that this state of things results either from want of energy in the governor or themselves. They have formed useful and scientific associations, and publish an annual almanack creditably got up. A requisition has been recently made to the secretary of state for the colonies by the principal inhabitants, urging that he would permit the introduction of Indian labourers, for the services of six or seven hundred of whom there is an immediate call, while double or treble that number would be eventually required. The petition sets forth that the islands, though favoured by nature above all others, are not only now unable to offer anything for commerce (their transactions having been once considerable), but that they are in want of objects of the first necessity; that this deplorable state arises from no alteration in the character of the soil, which has ever been extremely fertile; that the isles possess an element (but one out of many) of the greatest prosperity, since the cocoa plantations created in former years in a full yield are now able to produce an annual revenue of 100,000 velts of oil, but for the indolence of the ci-devant slaves, who are content to vegetate at home, rather than engage in regular work for the Proprietors.

In reply to this, Lord Stanley refused to consent to the proposed immigration, on the ground that there was no guarantee against abuses, as at Mauritius, where an officer had been appointed by the Indian Government to prevent them. The result is that the Seychelles' planter has all the evils to contend with that the West India planter has so courageously grappled with, while he is unsustained by the capital which has enabled the latter to hold on.

Religion.—The inhabitants profess the Roman Catholic religion, but their conformity to this or any other faith is rare, there being no establishment, so that they are born, married, die, and are buried, without any Christian rite being performed over them. The coloured population are of no particular creed. The condition of the lower orders may therefore be easily conjectured. In 1832, a resident clergyman of the Church of England was appointed to Seychelles by the Government, but he quitted the colony in the next year, since which there has been none resident. Of the entire population of the island, not a hundred have ever met with any religious instruction.

The inhabitants are not, however, insensible to the benefits to be derived from having a stationary minister among them, if it is only for the beneficial influence he would have on society, and when the Government chaplain at Mauritius visited them, not only was the public worship, which he solemnized, thronged on every occasion, but he was called on to baptize and marry great numbers, though marriages are usually performed by the civil commissary, conformably to the French code. He was also empowered by upwards of four thousand of the population of Mahé, to press their claims upon the Government for a resident minister of the Church of England.

EDUCATION.—In this respect these islands are sadly deficient, having only two private schools, and one school recently established by the Mico charity, which numbers one hundred and five day scholars, including adults, and one hundred and ten Sunday scholars. Previous to this, there was no opportunity of acquiring even the rudiments of instruction under five dollars per month, which it was difficult to raise in a country where so little money is in circulation. This school has proved of great benefit to the scholars, by whom great progress has been made. There is also an improvement observable in their conduct and personal appearance. Habits of cleanliness and neatness have succeeded to the negligent and squalid exterior that betokened a debased and indifferent character. The progress of the adults has also been uncommonly rapid.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, TAXES, POLICE, FINANCE, ETC.—The Civil Commissioner is the acting Governor, and receives his instructions from the Mauritius. He receives a salary of 888*l.* per annum. There is also an assistant agent, with a salary of 620*l.* per annum, whose time is taken up with the duties of special justice, as that of the commissioner is with the duties of the Customs, and the department of internal revenues. The other public officers in the receipt of salaries from Government are, the "juge de paix," 276*l.*; the health officer, who visits vessels on their arrival; a police officer; a huissier or bailiff; and a gaoler. The officers not in receipt of salaries are as follows:—a notary public; a land surveyor; a surveyor of vessels; a greffier or registrar of the Peace Court (which was organized by the Governor-General Decaen, in 1806); two assistant justices of the peace, styled suppleants, who act as the substitute of the juge de paix, when he cannot attend; a civil commissary, and a Délégue du curateur aux biens vacans. The police force consists of seven special guards, including the sergeant, and twelve police guards, who wear the British uniform. Sir E. Belcher pays a high compliment to the smart and military appearance of these men with an ebony countenance, and their capability for enduring an amount of fatigue under the broiling sun of the tropics, which their English cotemporaries would shrink from with horror. From 1827 to 1836 a small military detachment, under the command of a subaltern from one of the regiments at Mauritius, was stationed here, but it has

since been removed. Mahé is without fortifications, but it is easy to defend, from its precipitous hills and deep ravines, nor could ships approach sufficiently near the town, to fire effectually, without entering the port, which is narrow and intricate. In case of war, however, it is highly probable that a few troops and a squadron of observation would be stationed here, on account of the admirable position of Mahé, in reference to the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf, &c. The administration of the laws differs little from the mode adopted at the Mauritius. French is the language of the inhabitants. The taxes are exceedingly light. The only direct tax paid till lately by the inhabitants was one shilling and sixpence per annum on apprentices from seven to sixty years of age. The indirect taxes consist of customs and anchorage dues. By the latter fivepence per ton is paid on English, and one shilling per ton on foreign vessels. The confusion in which the financial returns from the colonies have been till recently involved, renders it difficult to obtain a correct statement of the income and expenditure of these isles, which is merged with that of the parent colony, a source of great dissatisfaction to the Mauritians, who complain, and not without reason, of the large sums they have to pay out of their own revenue to make up the deficient income of this dependency.

Income of the Seychelles, in 1832 and 1833.—1832, customs and port dues, 124*l.* 4*s.* 11*d.*; 1833, 477*l.* 1*s.* 7*d.* Internal revenue—Direct taxes, viz. stamp and registration fees, 684*l.* 9*s.* 8*d.*; 1833, 333*l.* 18*s.* Expenditure, 1832, 418*l.* 3*s.*; 1833, 1,368*l.* Income in 1841—customs and port dues, 115*l.* 15*s.* Internal revenues, 136*l.* 16*s.* Expenditure arrears of civil pay, &c., 572*l.* 13*s.* Supplementary salaries, 314*l.* 10*s.* Ordinary expenditure, 248*l* 19*s.* Civil pay and salaries, 2,955*l.* Supplementary, 398*l.* 17*s.* Fixed allowances, 324*l.* 10*s.* Ordinary contingencies, 738*l.* 15*s.* Income in 1842—customs and port dues, 106*l.* 6*s.* Internal revenue, such as stamps and registration fees, 170*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.* Expenditure, arrears, civil pay, and salaries, 195*l.* 6*s.* Supplementary, 129*l.* 4*s.* Ordinary contingencies, 177*l.* 6*s.* Civil pay and salaries, 2,246*l.* 5*s.* Supplementary, 365*l.* 16*s.* Fixed allowances, 479*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.* Ordinary contingencies, 346*l.* 14*s.* 4*d.*

Commerce.—The commerce of the Seychelles is as yet very limited, being almost wholly confined to the Mauritius, Bourbon, and the Indian Peninsula, though it is capable of being profitably extended to Aden, the ports of Eastern Africa, the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, and with Europe *via* Suez. The inhabitants loudly complain of the hardship they incur from not being allowed to trade but through the custom-house at Mauritius, which they affirm is not in the spirit of the order in council, by which the Mauritius and its dependencies were declared free ports. Their intercourse with Mauritius is conducted in small vessels belonging to the islands, to the equipment of which they pay great attention,

and which afford employment for many of their youthful navigators. The exports consist of cotton (the value of which is much depressed from that of Georgia superseding it in the European market), cloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs, coffee (which thrives well), tobacco, maize, rice, cocoa-nut oil, fish oil, salt fish, coco de mer, cocoa nuts, wood, wax, anatto, sugar, tortoiseshell—a new product, the result of private enterprise, to obtain which parks or square inclosures have been formed, into which the tide flows, and on a sandy bank in the rear the eggs are deposited. No account of the extent of either exports or imports is to be found, as they are merged into those of the Mauritius. In the days of their prosperity the Seychelles produced from one thousand five hundred to two thousand bales of fine cotton, and from three thousand to four thousand pounds of the finest ecaille, a large quantity of wood and grain. The imports, which are principally from the Mauritius, are French wines, marine stores, rice, flour, calico, soap, rum, brandy, beer, and even sugar, though there are sugar estates at Mahé, which are, however, so badly managed as to produce little or nothing. Within late years a large number of whalers, French and American, have touched at the Seychelles, and obtained sperm oil in the neighbourhood; many have also obtained the latter, while they have avoided the islands in consequence of the anchorage dues. Though the islands possess excellent harbours, and are never visited by tornadoes, yet many ships are afraid to fish off the bank in consequence of the violence of the whale when wounded. Supplies, though not so cheap as at Madagascar, or the Comoros, are reasonable compared with their price at the Mauritius. The difficulty lies, however, in procuring them with regularity, from the stagnation so prevalent both in trade and agriculture; but they would soon become abundant if more vessels touched there. Thus, during 1837, but twenty-two vessels touched at St. Anne's, Mahé, eight of which were whalers.

Another difficulty lies in the scarcity of money, and the unnegotiableness of bills. Beef sells at 4½*d.* per lb., pigs 3*d.* per lb; of sheep there are none to be obtained. A supply of cattle may generally be had, and refreshment for the sick in any quantity, and, except wine, at a moderate price, and a large quantity of rice. Fowls when small, five for a dollar, but generally 1*s.* each. Turkeys from 6*s.* to 8*s.* Water and wood may always be procured. On the eastern side of the island, which is bordered by extensive coral reefs, lies the port, which reaches opposite and in front within the semicircle formed by the isles St. Anne, Longue, Moyenne, Ronde, and Aux Cerfs, its name is now changed to Port Victoria. With the inner harbour it can accommodate eight or nine men-of-war, which, during the hurricane months at Mauritius and Bourbon, are sent hither. Owing to the transparency of the water all absolute dangers are visible, and where vessels intend remaining

any time the inner harbour is safest, as the water is smoother, and without that heavy ground swell which renders the outer anchorage often unpleasant. The anchorage near St. Anne's is rocky, but the pipe-clay between the rocks holds well. The stream anchor (says Sir E. Belcher) should here be let out astern in the direction of the swell, lest upon a sudden flow offshore during the night the vessel be subjected to a sudden fit of rolling before it can be remedied. In the south-east monsoon the wind never blows hard, and seldom strong. In the north-west monsoon heavy gusts blow from the land in which the wind varies. During the south-east monsoon there is good anchorage on the western side of Mahé; but heavy gusts blow over the high land when the winds are moderate and steady on the eastern side. The tide sets about south-south-west, and rises six feet, high water at three hours and three quarters on full and change of moon. The depth of water varies from eight to fifteen fathoms in a sandy bottom; a large ship has been known to come between Isle Cerf and the main, but the passage is very intricate and dangerous. To the northward of the island is a reef, with a safe channel within it, and from eighteen to twenty feet of water. Since 1810, with a reduced number of shipwrights, and but one establishment, they have launched no less than fifty vessels, ranging from thirty to four hundred tons, and amounting altogether to five thousand one hundred and ten tons; foreign vessels are also frequently brought to repair here. With but slight expense (says Sir E. Belcher) a jetty for heaving and a convenient depôt for stores might be constructed. The reefs within the port afford every facility, rising suddenly within a foot of the sea-level, and having a depth of three or four fathoms at the distance of thirty feet, which would be about the position of the keel of a line-of-battle ship. The communication between the islands is kept up by large schooner-rigged boats. They have also numerous canoes built and fitted up with much skill and neatness, in which they pay their visits from island to island, and from the country to the town. Lieutenant Boteler facetiously remarks that "the remind" there at the close of an entertainment is Madame ——'s canoe is in waiting, instead of carriage as with us, which has a singular sound to the stranger. Torches are at hand, lights follow the guests to the water, where some stout negroes await to transport them home. The reason why canoes are used instead of carriages is the steepness of the roads occasioned by the deep ravines that descend from the mountains to the water's edge, and on account of the vicinity of the houses to the sea.

Climate.—By the testimony of those who have long resided here, it is reported as being particularly good, equable, and salubrious, especially for children, though so near to the equator: the thermometer ranging from 64° to 84°, with a mean of 70° to 72°, yet the heat of the day is seldom felt to be oppressive in the shade,

as it is tempered by the sea-breeze, and the evenings are particularly pleasant and cool. The only atmospheric changes remarkable are the north-west monsoons or gales, which are accompanied by lightning and heavy rains. The hurricanes of a more southerly latitude, which frequently destroy all agricultural efforts, and bring universal misery and distress, do not reach this island. The two monsoons of south-east and north-west observe nearly the same periods, and are of a similar character to those of Hindostan. The former or rainy season commences in November, and terminates in March. Sometimes, however, the breezes from the south-east die away, and are succeeded by variable winds, and accompanied by rain, but never of long duration. The *Sulphur* experienced near the Seychelles very strong south-easterly currents and winds from south-east, east-south-east, north-east, north, north-west, and south-west, and calms and rain tediously frequent: this was during the early part of February. During the prevalence of the south-east trade-wind vessels make their passage from hence to the Mauritius in about twenty days on an average, and back again in seven days. While the winds are variable, that is from the south-west or north-west, fourteen days is a common run from Mauritius to Mahé. From December to April the inhabitants do not like sending their vessels to the Mauritius on account of the hurricanes there. The most rain falls in October, November, December, and January. Though exempt from many of the diseases common to other tropical countres from their not being liable to abrupt changes of atmosphere, yet those who have long resided in the colony are often subject to swollen legs, erysipelas, hydrocele, and other diseases. Isle Plate is reserved by Government for the use of vessels infected with contagious diseases. In 1829 an establishment was formed on Curieuse for persons afflicted with leprosy; and in 1838 there were one hundred individuals on the isle, who were under the care of a medical man, assisted by an overseer and dresser. They have, with few exceptions, been originally sent from Mauritius, over whose other dependencies they were previously scattered. "In recommending our cruisers in these seas to resort to Mahé for refitment," Sir E. Belcher observes, "that such visits are for many strong reasons of the utmost importance to the authorities. In point of medical aid also it would be of the highest benefit, as there are many casualties and common diseases which frequently defy ordinary treatment in unskilful hands, and there is no medical officer acting at Victoria, so that a ship's surgeon is always a welcome visitor." Besides the products we have named under the head of exports, and the coco de mer (elsewhere noticed), these isles produce the following:—

The only fruits very common are the plantain pine-apple papaw, and among vegetables the pumpkin and sweet potato; but all the species of fruits and vegetables grown or found within the tropics

flourish here. It is indeed a garden, in which anything would thrive. "Any species of habit, soil, or climate," says Sir E. Belcher, "may be selected, from the close damp heat of the forcing-house to the open exposed sun and air, moist and dry. The timber is well adapted for ship-building, and a large quantity of the *Hibiscus tiliaceus*, or purau of the Polynese, may be found here. The hard wood used for the ships' timbers of the island resembles the tumanu (*Calophyllum inophyllum*) of the Pacific, or mahogany, but is more easily worked, and is therefore most useful. The finer woods for cabinet purposes are also abundant, and many pieces of furniture, especially those made of the bois de natte are very beautiful. Bullocks and goats are to be found almost wild in some parts of the island. Fish is plentiful, and only one kind poisonous, viz. the sardine, or sprat. The flesh of the hawk's bill turtle (the species whose scales are tortoiseshell) is never eaten at Seychelles. They are generally taken from May to the end of October, and are extremely valuable, being the only source of subsistence to many families. Green turtle are common from November to April, and may be purchased for 12*s*. or 14*s*. each. The land tortoise, or turpen, which is brought from Aldabra, is a favourite article of food with the inhabitants, but it has become scarce. Turtle were formerly much more plentiful than they are now; indeed the lower orders at La Digne were the object of the sarcasm of the other islanders, who, says Lieutenant Boteler, "would hold their noses in passing them, and exclaim, 'Quel odeur de tortue de mer.'" In the interstices of the rocks and old trees are numerous millipedes, which sometimes attain eight inches in length, by one and a half in breadth. There are no venomous snakes, nor indeed any kind of wild beasts, and scarcely any game in the island. Sharks are very abundant on the outer edge of all the coral banks, and are exceedingly voracious. In the seas around the Seychelles are the redsnapper flying fish, circular radiated medusæ, and crustaceæ, as well as fuscus natans, and a peculiar flag-weed not before noticed. The fusci appear to be here very healthy, and in full fruit.

In concluding our description of this interesting group, we may be allowed to observe that there are means which might, I trust will, be used for the rescue of this people from a state, to which is attached the only consolation that they cannot, perhaps, sink much lower in the scale of decay. We shall content ourselves with naming the most feasible and obvious. First, the introduction of Indian labourers, whose good treatment will at least be as well looked to here, as in the West Indies. Secondly, the benefits of a direct, regular, and rapid communication with Europe by means of the branch steamer projected between the eastern province of the Cape colony, including Port Natal, and Aden *viâ* Mauritius, Bourbon, the French settlements on the north-east coast of Madagascar,

and Mahé. Thirdly, the extension in some degree of the powers of the superintendent, and rendering him to a greater degree, if not entirely, independent[1] of the Governor of Mauritius. Fourthly, the encouragement of the introduction and growth of the precious spices, for the cultivation of which these isles are so naturally and singularly favoured, by means of a bounty on the increase of plants rather than of their produce, or by a yet more enlightened stimulant, if such were likely to prove more efficacious. Legislation might have the effect of inducing capitalists to embark in a cultivation, than which, where rightly conducted, none can be more profitable; while the facilities which the islands possess in ports of supply and refitment would, by the help of an extended cultivation, concentrate a population more than eight times as large as its present occupants.

Coetivi, or St. Francois, which was named after M. de Coetivi, a French naval officer, is in 7° 9′ south lat., and 56° 19′ east long., and about eight hundred and seventy-five miles to the north of Mauritius. This isle is about eight miles in length, south-west by south, and north-east by north, and eleven in circumference. At the north-west, it possesses an anchorage on a bank of sand half a mile from the shore in the south-east monsoon for small boats of thirty tons, but is not secure for large vessels. The island is low, and its sandy and coral soil is interspersed with five or six hundred acres of cultivated land, on which maize succeeds tolerably well. The water, which is procured by digging wells in the sand, is brackish. An inhabitant of the Mauritius, who is in possession, derives from it maize, turtle, and cocoa-nut oil, and employs upwards of one hundred men. A reef extends far to the southward.

Agalega or Galega. This island lies in 10° 26′ south lat., 56° 32′ east long., about six hundred and twenty-three English miles north quarter north-west from Mauritius, is divided in two by a canal of about five hundred fathoms in breadth, which though the sea breaks through at high tides, is fordable at low water. The landing is difficult from the heavy surf, the island being surrounded by a reef. Its length from north to south is about eleven miles, and it is one mile and a half in breadth from east to west. It is covered with cocoa-nut trees in the centre. There is but little or no vegetable soil, and the water, which is brackish, is obtained alone by digging wells into the sand. Its elevation is low, and its only anchorage is under the lee of the north-west point. The true position of this and the adjacent isles has only been determined on within a recent period. M, D'Apres de Manevilette was the first who had anything like a correct knowledge of them, but he speaks of them as the Isles Agalega lying south-east and north-west from each other, and joined by

[1] We are perfectly aware that the colony would become an additional expense to Great Britain for the year or two that might be requisite to restore things to their pristine, if not yet greater prosperity, but there can be little doubt that she would be soon repaid by the surplus revenue that would accrue from such ameliorations.

a bank of sand or a reef. In consequence of the wood with which they are sprinkled, they are visible five leagues off. A person who had formerly commanded a French privateer, occupied this island in 1811, having under him a colony of negroes, who cultivated a part of the soil with maize, &c. Two manufactories of oil have since been formed, which employ upwards of two hundred individuals.

St. George and Rocquepiz.—These islands are said to extend between 6° 26′ and 7° 10′, 7° 15′ of south lat., and 60° 4′, 60° 43′, and 63° 8′ of east long., but their existence at all is problematical. Some are of opinion that they have been confounded with some parts of the bank of Saya de Malha, whose position is equally uncertain. The only statement as to their existence, which we have been able to find, seems to be that of Lancaster in 1602, who, on leaving the bay of Antongil, and traversing this archipelago, found himself in sight of Rocquepiz, of the beauty and appearance of which he gives an animated description. The boats sent to discover an anchorage near this island found the depth so great, that the ships did not attempt to anchor off it. Lancaster confines himself to stating its latitude, which he places at 10° 30′.

Legour.—This island was discovered in 1820 by the proprietor, M. Legour of Port Louis, from whom it has taken its name, by order of his excellency the governor of Mauritius. It is situate in 5° 59′ south lat., and 72° 37′ east long., about one thousand one hundred and thirty miles north-east quarter east of the Mauritius. It is about two miles in length by two-thirds of a mile in breadth, is difficult of access, without an anchorage, and does not offer any resources.

Peros Banhos, or Isles Bourdé, so called from M. de Bourdé, their supposed discoverer, are a cluster of twenty-two small islands, which form the largest group of the Chagos Archipelago, and are situated in 5° 23′ 30″ south lat., and 72° 3′ of east long., about one thousand one hundred and forty-seven miles north-east of Port Louis. These isles, the largest of which is scarcely two miles long, form a basin of eighteen miles in length, from north to south, and twelve in breadth from east to west. They are composed of several chains of islands and banks, having two passages, one to the north-west, the other to the north-east; the first is narrow, the other dangerous, and there is a third tolerably good towards the south. The north-west chain consists of seven islands and several sands; the other of eight islands with sands and rocks. An inhabitant of Mauritius is in possession of them, and has formed a flourishing establishment for manufacturing oil, and a fishery which employs one hundred and twenty-five individuals. They export about 45,000 gallons of cocoa-nut oil.

The Salomon Isles, so called from the ship *Salomon*, are eleven in number, and were therefore called "Les onze Isles" by the French; they are in lat. 5° 23′ south; long. 72° 55′, extend north-east and south-west, and are about one thousand one hundred and sixty-four

miles from the Mauritius. The soil is in general superior to, and deeper than that of the other islands in this archipelago; it produces a great abundance of cocoa-nut trees, and other trees, from taking firmer root, grow to a large size. One species is very rare, called the "faux gaiac:" it grows to the height of one hundred and thirty feet, and from the trunk to the branches measures forty feet, is good timber, and grows straight. The young timber is white, but the old trees are of a deep chocolate colour, and the wood is sound. The first of these islands is seven and a half miles in circumference. The next four miles; the two smaller three miles each; the other six two miles, and the last one and a half. They are arranged circularly, and form a basin, with a safe anchorage for vessels of small draught of water, but the bar at the entrance, on which there is not more than four fathoms at high water spring tides, prevents large ships from anchoring. There are a number of shoals within, which may be easily avoided by a good look-out, as the clearness of the water makes them easily distinguished. The tide rises six feet. Water is procured by digging wells; it is clear, abundant, and well tasted. Turtle are found here, as well as a large quantity of fish, but the latter are not so plentiful as at Diego Garcia, owing to the presence of a large number of seals. The southern parts of these islands are joined by rocks and sands with breakers; the other islands are also connected by reefs, except at the north-west part. Inside the harbour, the depth of water is from ten to eighteen fathoms. Two inhabitants of Mauritius are in possession of them; the one of four, the other of seven islands, and give employment to twelve or fourteen individuals.

Trois Frères are three small islands, which derive their name from their number, and are situate in 6° 10′ south lat., and 71° 28′ east long., and are about one thousand one hundred and eighteen miles from Mauritius. They are connected by shoals, and by a fourth island, which has small bushes on it, and cannot be seen, unless when very close in. Cocoa-nut trees are found on two of the islands, and fish and turtle on all. Water is procured in a similar manner to that at Diego Garcia. These islands are occupied by a planter of the Mauritius, who employs forty-three people on them. In the channel between these isles, and Eagle and Danger islands, there is a channel with from five to seven fathoms. North-east, about five leagues, there is a steep coral bank. Eagle islands are two isles between Trois Frères and Six islands, the southernmost is inconsiderable, but is covered with bushes. The other in 6° 10′ south lat., is about two miles in length, covered with cocoa-nut trees, and others common to these islands, and exports 10,000 gallons of oil, salt fish, &c. About a mile eastward of the small island, there is an anchorage in nine or ten fathoms, and soundings may be obtained close to the west side.

Danger island, distant eleven miles from the Eagle islands, and 16° north north-west of the Six islands, is in lat. 6° 21′ south, and is covered with wood and cocoa-nut trees in its centre. It is incon-

siderable, with a reef projecting from it, three or four miles to the southward, and a coral bank to the east and south-east of the reef. Between Six and Danger islands there is a coral bank with seven fathoms of water on it.

Six islands, so called from their number, are situate in 6° 35′ south lat., and long. 71° 23′, and extend about six miles north-west and south-east. They are sixty-eight miles distant from Diego Garcia, and one thousand one hundred and five from Mauritius. These islands are arranged in the form of a horse-shoe, are all very low, three of them abound in cocoa-nuts, the oil of which they export to a large extent, as well as pigs, poultry, and the fat-tailed land crabs, and the rest are covered with wood. They are connected by shoals, which appear fordable, and a small harbour seems to be formed on the north-east side of them by reefs and breakers, which project from the two extreme islands, but it is difficult of access and dangerous within, from the proximity of numerous shoals. Nor is there a safe anchorage near these islands, the sounding extending so little without the breakers.

The Chagos islands and banks were very imperfectly known, till surveyed in 1786 by Captain Blair of the Bombay Marine. The general name, by which they were formerly known was Bassas de Chagos, from the Chagos island, the largest and most southern island of the whole. The extent of the archipelago, and its banks is from the south end of Diego Garcia to the north end of the Speakers bank, and is from 4° 4′ south lat., to 7° 29′ south lat. The latter is a few leagues more to the eastward than the former, the islands between them forming a large curve to the westward.

Diego Garcia,[1] Gratiosa, or Chagos, which were once erroneously considered different islands, are one and the same, extending, according

[1] A curious circumstance (if it be true) is related by Mr. Harrison respecting the inhabitants of this island. While the French held the Mauritius, they sent their leprous slaves to Diego Garcia to prevent the spread of the disease, and afford them the means of living entirely upon turtle, a diet thought to be efficacious in restoring such persons to health. In 1792, an English merchant ship being driven by strong gales close to Diego Garcia, came to an anchor within a small distance of it. She was manned chiefly with Lascars, and when the weather had moderated, she sent a boat on shore for water, and two of them were despatched into the interior of the island in search of a spring. In the course of their ramble, they fell in with a small party of lepers of eight or ten persons, male and female, and spent a short time among them, and returning to the boat, related their adventure. No sooner was the master of the brig informed of it, than, apprehensive of leprous contagion, he positively refused to take the Lascars on board, who, being carried back to the island by force, were left there, while he pursued his voyage, and never saw or heard more of them. Few Europeans have since visited the island, which is out of the usual track of ships. The progeny arising from the intercourse of the Madagascar and Mosambique slaves and the Lascars would doubtless present some singularities in feature and form, but when it is also considered that leprosy renders white the skin of the black, and that this peculiarity is communicated in a modified degree to their children, it is easy to conceive that the present population of Diego Garcia must wear a singular physical aspect, and differ materially from those of the other islands in the Indian Ocean.

to Captain Blair, from 7° 14′ south lat., to 7° 29′ south lat. and 72° 32′ east long., and is one thousand one hundred and five miles from the Mauritius. This island, which is in the form of a serpent bent double, is one of the most wonderful phenomena of the globe, being a steep coral wall standing in the ocean; for the whole interior of the island is a lagoon or natural harbour, nearly of the same length and breadth as the island itself, as there is no part of the circumjacent wall above half a mile broad, and the greater part of the eastern side is only about one-tenth of a mile in breadth. This island or contour of an island is low, being elevated about eight or ten feet above the sea at high tides, but as it is covered with tall cocoa-nut trees, it is visible sixteen or seventeen miles at sea. In some places, inundations of the sea appear to have pervaded the wall, and added its waters to those in the harbour. A steep coral reef fronts the sea all round, on which it breaks very high, rendering a landing on the exterior impracticable, except at the entrance of the harbour at the north-west end. The points which form the entrance are called East and West by Captain Blair; between them are three isles called East, Middle, and West. The latter lies near the west point of the main island; the others nearest the east point. West point and island are joined by a reef, dry at low water, and Middle and East islands lie on the edge of an extensive bank of coral, which projects from them about two miles to the southward into the harbour. Several parts of it are dry at low water with dangerous patches of coral in other places. The same coral bank stretches to the east point, which renders the passage between it and either of these islands unsafe, except for very small craft; for, though some have succeeded, others have been wrecked in the attempt. The only safe channel into the harbour is one about a mile wide between West island and a sand projecting from Middle island, which is approachable on the north-west, and north-east sides. An earthquake in 1812 is said to have torn asunder one of the small islands at the entrance of the harbour. There are no soundings until a ship is close to the entrance, the water then shoals from more than one hundred fathoms to twenty, ten, and seven. The south-east winds prevail here from April to November, but blow hardest in June, July, and August, during which the current generally sets in from twelve to twenty miles daily between west and north-west. In March and April the winds are often light and variable. October and November are also changeable months, but more unsettled and squally than the former. In December and January the north-west winds constantly prevail, and the current flows to the south-east, of both of which ships should beware. As the shore is free from projecting shoals, ships may run for it in the day time, if the weather is not so thick as to prevent land from being seen at the distance of two or three miles, but the isle being low, and often enveloped by a cloud in the night, caution should be used at such times. In clear weather, she may be

more bold, as the dangers are all visible. The winds determine the proper ground for anchorage in the harbour, but care should be taken of the shoal in the bight. The side of this capacious harbour, which lies nearest to the sea is the most preferable, from the facility with which ships can be brought in or carried out, and ships may be warped between the shoal patches within five hundred yards from the shore. The anchorage at this part is generally sandy clay, with bits of coral in some places, but in the channels between the coral banks which are interspersed through the harbour, the bottom is generally fine, white sand mixed in many places with coral, so that ships should anchor with a chain. Farther up, the harbour becomes more intricate, but there is safe anchorage in from five to ten fathoms, and at the entrance and middle from seven to eighteen fathoms.

It is difficult to estimate the number of vessels the harbour will hold, but it is capable of containing a very large number. The island is fourteen or fifteen miles long from north to south, and six miles is its greatest width, three or four being the average, with a circumference of thirty-six miles according to the Abbé Rochon. The water, which is brackish, is procured from wells dug in the sand, but fresh may be found in the north-west abreast of the anchorage. A variety of fish abound in the harbour, and excellent green turtle are found on the shores outside the island. The land crabs, which feed on the cocoa nuts as they fall from the trees, are also wholesome food. The French used to keep a small settlement of slaves and a few Europeans on this island, who prepared cocoa-nut oil and salt fish for small vessels, which came annually from Mauritius. Its possession has since been conceded to three planters of that island, who employ nearly three hundred persons.

Cocos, Borneo, or Keeling islands, in lat. 12° 0′ 6″ south long. 96° 56′ east, are situate about six hundred miles south-west of the straits of Sunda, and midway in the ocean between our Indian and Australian possessions. Though they can hardly be said to be dependencies of the Mauritius, being upwards of two thousand four hundred and fifty miles from that island, yet they are virtually so, being peopled from thence, and their commerce being almost exclusively confined to that colony. This most interesting group of coral islands, including within them a spacious bay, are twenty-two in number, and fourteen or fifteen miles long from north to south, and nine or ten from east to west, are lined wth reefs and a sounding from twelve to twenty fathoms, which have been formed entirely by the incessant and accumulated labours of myriads of coral insects, many of them so small as hardly to be perceptible to the human eye, and consist of nothing but a prodigious accumulation of white coral, emerging from the fall of this ocean, and constituting the casements in which they live. What is singular in the labour of these minute architects is, that these mansions, as soon as they rise above high-water mark (and they are always

building upwards) become the tombs of their tenants, for then they die. The intervals between this circular chain of islands and keys are in general filled with coral reefs, which form a connection of narrow causeways fordable at low water. There is, however, one exception to this rule, viz. where between the two islands the passage runs, which leads into the basin, a circular space about twelve miles wide, shallow in all parts except the centre, where the anchorage is in four or five fathoms water. The sea here is as clear as a mirror, and according as the formation of the bottom varies from coral to sand or clay, so the tints of the water assume every imaginable variety of blue and green. Occasionally it is of the very palest hue; sometimes it is blended into yellow; while the dark and waving foliage of the all-graceful palm, varied by the occasional snow-white beach of coral sand, tend, by the contrast they afford, to complete the effect of this charming landscape. The islands are visible five leagues off at sea. Over the coral reefs the surf breaks with great violence, being heaped upon the shores of the island from twelve to twenty feet above the level of high water; while the other parts of the island are not more than from three feet to six feet above the same level. At low water a person may wade to the edge of the margin of this coral bank, and look down into a sea out of soundings, so small is the base of the group compared with its upper surface, and so little do the sides diverge from the perpendicular line. The entrance to the anchorage, which is three miles wide (straggling rocks and a reef project a mile and a half from the west side), is on the leeward side of the group at Port Refuge, between the islands Horsburgh and Direction: the surface of the water in this basin is never disturbed by the swells of the ocean. This interesting settlement (before uninhabited) was at first taken possession of by Mr. Hare, at one time consul at Borneo, Captain Ross, master of a merchant-ship, Messrs. Leisk and Ogilvie, all three Shetlanders, and not Americans, as has been stated. The Europeans are twelve in number, consisting of the men above-mentioned, their wives and children. The Malays and negroes are one hundred and seventy-five in number. Mr. Hare quitted the colony some time ago, intending to return speedily, but has not since been heard of. The place of residence is Southenstein Island, about twelve miles from Port Refuge or Albion. Captain Ross and family reside in a spacious house built close to the beach at the head of the bay, and the Malays occupy huts built in their own style. In the village called New Selma nearly every house has its well of fresh water, found by merely digging a hole a few feet deep into the coral. The exuberance of the vegetation may be ascribed to this abundant supply of water. The climate is temperate and uniform, there being no perceptible difference of season or temperature throughout the year. One shock of an earthquake has been felt since the inhabitants settled there. The general

range of the thermometer is from 76° to 84°. The islands are every where covered with a variety of trees to the water's edge, but chiefly with cocoas, to make a way through which is a work of considerable labour. There are also palms; but trees form only a very small part of the verdure of the islands. It has been ascertained that the seeds of every tree or shrub that grows in the island will bear the action of the sea water without losing their germinating properties; so that no sooner have the coral masons completed their labour, than Providence performs the rest, and there is little doubt that the innumerable productions of this hemisphere have been transplanted by insects and wind from one sea to another. The live stock and fruits, which have been introduced from Mauritius, are in a thriving condition. Sugar is extracted in great abundance from the cocoa nuts, consequently the cane, though thriving well, is not cultivated as a staple. Maize is grown on one of the islands in a quantity sufficient for the wants of the settlers. Tobacco of good quality is also reared. The plantain, papaw, betel-nut, and a small fruit said to be peculiar to these islands are abundant. They have a large quantity of pigs, ducks, and fowls, which, with every other bird and animal are fed chiefly on the scraped cocoa-nut, and increase rapidly. So prolific are the cocoa-trees that a tree of moderate size will produce one hundred at a crop, bearing all the year round, so that myriads of these nuts are wasted. A great variety of sea fowl swarm in the trees, and roost on them at night, notwithstanding their web feet: this is owing to the absence of cliffs, the islands not being above fifteen or twenty feet above the level of the sea. The birds are so tame that they may be taken off the branches with the hand. One beautiful variety of gull, resembling a swallow in shape, lays its eggs on the branches of the cocoa tree; and so ingeniously do these birds contrive to secure their nestful of eggs, that, though the winds are frequently high, and the trees constantly waving about, the eggs are never dislodged, but are hatched in perfect safety. Fish are plentiful, including mullet, which are cured with salt, obtained by boiling the sea water. The basin is plentifully stocked with turtle; but instead of turning them, as at Ascension, they are pursued by a few men with poles in a punt, who literally worry these unwieldy monsters, till they effect their capture, their attention never being diverted by another. The clearness and shallowness of the water enable them to keep in sight of their prey. The whole of the islands swarm with land crabs, and a very large crawfish, resembling a lobster, nearly three feet long, good eating, and the tail is filled with a fat substance as useful for cooking as the tails of the Cape sheep. The land kail is the only land bird found on the islands. Locusts have been met with, but are not numerous. No serpents or venomous reptiles have been found, nor any wild beasts in any of the islands. The people are moral and well behaved, the result of their

sober habits, as Captain Ross has not allowed them to make spirituous or fermented liquors. Necessity, the mother of invention, has taught them the art of ship-building, and they have launched a brigantine, with which they trade to the Mauritius in cocoa-nut oil. Such is the happy commencement of a colony, the geographical position of which would render it a desirable place of resort during war, and promises for it a high degree of commercial importance. All these islands are narrow, averaging half a mile across. The springs on the island rise and fall with the tide, the difference between high and low water in the basin being five feet. The northernmost is a single island, five or six miles long, and three and a half broad; while the southernmost are a circular group. Both Captain Vancouver, who put in here on his way to the Galapagos, and Krusenstein, have formed an incorrect estimate of the size of these islands.

Les Amirantes are an archipelago consisting of twelve small islands, joined together by a bank of sand.

The first of these is Eagle, or Remire Island, which is in lat. 5° 8′ south long. 53° 22½′ east. It is a low, sandy isle, about three miles round, covered with shrubs, but without fresh water. It is surrounded by a chain of reefs to the northward and eastward two or three miles from the shore, on which the sea breaks very high. Between these, there is a channel, with soundings of from nine to fourteen fathoms.

Isles Africaine are two small and low islands, situate about eighteen miles northward of the bank that surrounds the other Amirantes. South Africaine is in lat. 4° 53′ south, and long. 53° 27′ 30″; North Africaine 4° 50′ 30″ south lat. These islands are not inhabited, nor conceded to individuals, as they are almost overflowed at high spring tides, but are sometimes resorted to for the purpose of catching turtle and salting fish. The southern isle, which is joined to the other by a sandy bank, dry at low water in spring tides, is the largest; but their length from north to south is not more than two miles. A few shrubs are their only vegetation; but they are much resorted to by aquatic birds. On the east side a reef of breakers surrounds them, but on the west side there is safe and good anchorage in the south-east monsoon in a bay formed by the extremes of the isles and the reef. The tide rises here eight feet. Other reefs surround the south parts, but there is a channel between them.

L'ile d'Arros, in lat. 5° 24′ south, is five or six miles distant from Isle Joseph, between which the channel is narrow and dangerous from the sand banks and coral reefs. North-north-west of it there is also a dangerous bank.

St. Joseph is in lat. 5° 26′ south, long. 53° 29′ east.

Isles Poivre, in lat. 5° 43′ south, long. 53° 20′ east, are two small isles a mile from each other east and west. Reefs extend nearly round them.

L'ile des Roches, in lat. 5° 41′ 30″ south, long. 53° 42′ east, is nearly surrounded by banks.

Isle de l'Etoile, in lat. 5° 57′ south, is about a mile and a half in length, low, and covered with bushes of the Mapou and other shrubs, of a spongy nature.

Isles Lamperaire, de la Boudeuse, Marie Louise, and Neuf, are all small, crowned with wood, and environed by reefs, with the exception of a few narrow openings. The latitude of Boudeuse is 6° 11′ south, long. 52° 55′ east, and it is the most westerly. Lamperaire is the most easterly, and Neuf the most southerly, being in 6° 13′ 15″ south lat., and 52° 12′ 15″ east long. There is anchorage in some places amid these islands, but a chain cable is necessary. Seals of a large size resort to them. Being without water, or at least without digging for it twelve feet deep, these isles are only fit for a temporary residence for turtle-catching, planting cocoa and cotton, and the fishery, for which they are used by the Seychellians, to whom they have been conceded by the Government of Mauritius. Calms and uncertain currents, with the want of good anchorage, make it advisable not to approach them except by necessity. The seasons resemble those of the Seychelles.

Alphonse.—This island is thirty-six miles south of the Amirantes, in lat. 7° 7¾′ south, long. 52° 49′ east, is low, of some extent, woody, and about 896 miles from Mauritius. It affords abundance of fish and turtle, and has been granted for the use of an inhabitant of Mauritius, but is not yet permanently occupied. Southward of this isle, a reef has risen up into an island greater than Alphonse proper, and threatens to unite itself to the latter; but there is still a passage, though it is dangerous and intricate, and the currents are strong and uncertain. A reef of breakers surrounds South Alphonse.

Providence, in lat. 9° 10′ 30″ south, and long. 51° 4¾′ east, is upwards of eight hundred miles north-north-east and a half west of Mauritius. It is two miles long by one broad, is low, and water is procured by digging in the sand. There is an anchorage on the west side, but it is on uneven ground, sand, and coral. The north part of the island is covered with cocoa-nut trees, and the south with a spongy tree, like the fig, and growing forty or fifty feet high. Turtle are plentiful, and a species of lobster called the "seapoy," as well as land crabs of large size, which are considered palatable and wholesome food. The reef which surrounds the island nearly joins the Providence reef, which extends six or seven leagues to the southward. The tide rises and falls here eight feet. This island has been granted to an inhabitant of the Mauritius, who has established a fishery and planted cocoa-nut trees, and makes a large profit from the sale of tortoiseshell, &c. He employs about forty persons. Lepers are no longer sent here. A species of small blue pigeon is found here and at St. Pierre in great abundance, and were at first

so little disturbed at the sight of man, that they remained fixed on the trees, and were knocked down with sticks. They were excessively fat, and good eating. These birds build and roost in the mapou tree and other shrubs which cover the surface of the islands, and whose decayed leaves, with the assistance of their inhabitants, have spread a loose but rich covering. These islands will bear a few years cultivation, but beyond the cocoa-nut tree little will remain of further promise. Those, however, who are shipwrecked on these isles, will find water and sufficient means of existence till chance or their own resources may relieve them.

St. Pierre is in lat. 9° 20′ south, long. 50° 54′ east, and 826 miles from Mauritius north-east and a quarter west. It is a low island, about a mile and a quarter long, bearing west-south-west from Providence, between which the channel is safe. The anchorage for small vessels is close to the reef on the north-east, where there is a little flat, sandy shore. This isle is peculiar from being cavernous, through which the sea is thrown to a great height, appearing like whales blowing near it. It has a different formation from the adjacent isles, having a thin bed of soil resting on rock, which is neither granite nor limestone.

St. Lawrence, or Twelve Isles, is in lat. 9° 37′ south, and long. 50° 20′ east, being west-north-west of Jean de Nova. The Twelve Isles have no existence independent of St. Lawrence, for, though many have declared they have seen them, they have always proved to be St. Lawrence. The only cause of such a report was the fancied view of breakers, an appearance which arises in these seas from the meeting of currents, &c.

Jean, John, or Juan de Nove, Novo, or Nueva Islands, called after their Portuguese discoverer, extend from lat. 10° 5′ 30″ to 10° 26′ south, long. 51° 2′ east, in the centre, and are 698 miles north-north-west and a half west of Port Louis, and are the southernmost of the group of islands north-east of Cape Ambre. They are an elliptical chain of low islets and reefs, extending from twenty to twenty-four miles north-east and south-west, with a basin in the centre, having seven or eight feet of water on the bar leading to it on the north part of the chain, where there is good anchorage ground for vessels drawing ten feet of water, and outside as well. The soil of these isles is mostly coral, some cocoa trees are scattered about, and would succeed with care. Water is to be procured by digging pits. A fishing establishment has been formed here. Turtle are also found. These isles were at first granted to a planter of the Mauritius, who died before making a settlement. They have since been granted to a proprietor at Providence, who employs on them seven persons, by reason of the shelter they afford to vessels sailing between Mauritius and that isle. The tide rises here but four or five feet. These islands are the resort of millions of birds, of which the frigate bird, the fou a beautiful small white gull, a species of

various coloured gannet, and the tropic bird, are the principal. In the neighbourhood of this group, the currents set generally to the west, their velocity being accelerated by the winds. Strong ripplings frequently occur owing to a change in the currents. In light winds the surface of the ocean is much agitated, as if by uneven ground, but as soundings are not always obtainable at the time, it must arise from a surface current. A stranger to this phenomenon would think them undefined dangers. The winds here are affected by the change in the monsoons. In January, February, and the beginning of March, they are light from south-south-east to north-east, and will sometimes veer to south-west, with squalls and rain. At the close of March and in April the wind is often east-north-east. During May and June, the winds are light or moderate from south-south-east to south-east, but gradually veer to the east, and freshen in July and August, and blow a stiff breeze all day, moderating towards night. This continues till the end of September when they again become variable with squalls and intervening calms.

Astove or Astova, in 10° 10′ south lat.; 48° 5′ east long., north-north-west of Mauritius, is used by two planters of the Mauritius, who are not, however, proprietors.

Cosmoledo Islands in 9° 40′ 55″ south lat., long. 47° 36¼′ east, consist of a ring of coral about thirty miles in circumference, and a quarter of a mile broad in some places; in others interspersed with islets and banks, enclosing a magnificent lagoon, into which no opening has yet been found.

Menai, the south-west isle is more elevated than the others, and is crowned with cocoa-nut and other trees. They have been granted for the use of a Mauritian, who has no establishment there, but a few blacks are left to fish, and provide a cargo for the vessels, which anchor on a small patch of sand on the south side. The islands have been sailed round within a mile of the reefs.

Isles Gloriosæ in lat. 11° 33′ south; long. 47° 30′ east, are low and situated on a reef forty leagues west-north-west of Cape Ambre. They are covered with brushwood and trees twenty-five feet high, and are fifteen feet above the sea level, joined by a coral bank about three miles in breadth, which space is filled with small isles, sand banks, and lagoons, through which there is no passage, nor are there soundings, and the sea breaks violently. The west island is one and a quarter mile long, and one mile broad. The east island is a mile long, and has a very extensive reef stretching off it in a north-east direction. A small basin is formed of the eastern end of the first island with seven fathoms water, but the bottom being uneven, it is only fit for small vessels. The approach to the isles is dangerous, from the strength and uncertainty of the currents. Turtle and birds are plentiful; but there is no fresh water.

Assomption, in lat. 9° 43′ south; long. 46° 32′ east, is low, with sandy downs covered with shrubs, and is seven miles in length. It

is surrounded by reefs except on the north-east side, where it is accessible.

Natal is a small isle in about lat. 8° 25′ south; and 54° 32′ east long.

Aldabra Aro, Arco, Atques or Albadra are in 9° 24′ 30″ south lat.; and 46° 25′ east long., with a probable extent of thirty-three miles from east to west. They consist of three islands, which, from being joined by islets and rocks, appear one, called East, Middle, and West islands. The first is of a moderate height with a few trees, and a hummock near its east point. The gap between East and Middle islands is about half a mile wide, with breakers stretching across, and some isles covered with bushes extend far to the southward. Middle is the highest, the east part being elevated and covered with high trees, which may be seen more than twenty miles at sea. The other parts of this island are well covered with verdure and trees. The channel between Middle and West islands appears perfectly clear, about a quarter of a mile wide, no dangers are apparent, and there is smooth water inside, where a boat may land, as there is no surf. West island is level, and though clothed with verdure, has few trees or shrubs on it of large size like the others, but has, like them, several white patches. The coast of this island is free from danger, the north-west end being fronted by a white beach of half a mile in extent. Water would appear to be plentiful here, and timber fit for the repair of ships. East island lies in a south-east and north-west direction. Middle and West islands nearly true east and west. A reef projects from the east end of East island, and there are other dangers on the north side.

Isle Sable, Tromelin, or Sandy is a flat, sandy island, very sterile, about three-quarters of a mile in length with a reef extending from its south point. Its lat. is in 15° 51¾′ south; and long. 54° 38′ east, and it is three hundred and forty-five miles from Port Louis. It is dangerous for strangers to pass. Its northern point is a steep sand-bank. At its eastern is a hut for the accommodation of ship-wrecked mariners.[1]

Cargados Garayos, which is identical with the St. Brandon of the old charts, consists of a chain of low islets or sand-banks from eight to twelve feet above water. The bank extends from lat. 16° 9′ to 16° 53′ south, and from long. 59° 25′ to 59° 50′ east. Its south extreme bears from the Canoniers Point at Mauritius, north-east by north about two hundred and twenty-five miles. The south or

[1] In 1761, a French vessel was lost here. The whites constructed a boat, and reached Madagascar in safety. The blacks to the number of eighty were left on the island with a promise of speedy relief, but all died except seven women, who remained here fifteen years, living on the shell-fish they could pick up, with now and then a turtle, and having nothing but brackish water to drink. M. Tromelin at length had the courage and good luck to land on this dangerous island, and brought them back to Mauritius.—*Abbé Rochon.*

main island is of sand, very low, and almost destitute of verdure, nearly nine leagues in length in a north-east by north direction, and is intersected by several boat channels, which are dry at low water. The isle on the windward side called St. Pierre is fronted by a broad coral reef, over which the sea breaks with great force. Like most of these reefs, it is remarkably steep, and a vessel once within the influence of this terrific danger is without hope. Between the reef and the island is a lagoon of shoal water about three miles in length.

Frigate, Pearl, and Albatross isles, which are low, bound the main to the north-west and north, the whole being at the south end of an extensive bank. Many vessels have been lost by crossing this latitude in the night, which proves the necessity of caution when approaching them at that time.

North island has on it some shrubs, wild salad, and water. A great variety of fine fish are caught at the side of the reef, and several negroes used to be employed in this object.

At South isle there is no water, but it is procured at Ile de l'Eau, seven miles distant. From its being in the track of ships to India, this isle was used as a station, during the late war, for frigates, who made several captures in the vicinity. The currents run to the north-west at the rate of two miles an hour, so that if night should come on while a vessel was to the southward, the passage to windward would not be safe.

The island of Roderigue[1] derives its name from Don Diego Rodriguez or Rodrigos, a Portuguese commander, by whom it was first discovered, at the commencement of the sixteenth century, and not long after Cerné and Mascarenhas. According to Horsburgh's East Indian Directory, last edition, the island is situated in 19° 4′ south latitude, and 63° 20′ east longitude by chronometers. The middle of the island is placed, however, by Captain Raper, in 63° 30′ east longitude, in which he is probably correct. Its extent, from east to west is, according to the late report of Mr. Anderson, twenty-six miles in length by twelve in breadth, and its distance eastward of Mauritius three hundred miles. Though it is far from being so productive as Mahé, it is the most extensive of all the dependencies of the Mauritius, containing, at an approximate estimate, an area of 120,000 acres, of which not more than 12,000 are capable of cultivation, though the larger part is well adapted for pastoral purposes. The land, which is high and uneven, and consists of steep hills and narrow valleys, may be seen twelve or fourteen leagues off in clear

[1] This island must not be confounded with Diego Garcia, which is situated between the 7th and 8th degree of south latitude, and 87 longitude east, or with the mythical island of Diego Rayis, which is laid down by M. D'Apres de Manevilette, at one degree north of the equator, and 88 degrees longitude east from Ferro. Roderigue varies in its orthography more than any other place with which we are acquainted. We have seen it spelt in the following manner—Diego Rodriguez or Rodrigos, Diego Rois, Ruys, Rais, or Rayes.

weather. No traces exist of any occupation of this island by the Portuguese; it may, therefore, be concluded that they contented themselves with an occasional visit, in search of shelter, or to procure water, &c. Sir Edward Michelburne was probably the first Englishman who endeavoured to put in at this island, on his passage to India; but the winds being contrary, he changed his design. The crew, however, had a view of an abundance of white birds about this island, which excited their attention from the singular circumstance that they had but two long feathers in their tails. They were accompanied also by a variety of other birds for some distance from the island. Their sails being split by the violence of the wind, they made Cerné for shelter, from whence, returning on their passage, they again descried Roderigue, where they would have waited for a favourable wind, but finding it to be a dangerous place, on account of the rocks and shoals that surrounded it, they dared not come to an anchor, but pursued their course for India.

In 1690, M. du Quesne, who had been induced to believe that the French had at that time abandoned the Isle of Bourbon, prevailed on the Dutch Government to send a number of the Huguenot or refugee Protestants of France, who had sought safety in Holland, on board a frigate, for the purpose of forming an establishment on that island. Upon their arrival, however, they found, to their surprise, that the French were still in possession, so that, without landing, they were compelled by circumstances to proceed to the Isle of Rodriguez, which affected them with a disappointment proportionate to the delight with which they had beheld the former island. They found here, indeed, advantages greater than they had any reason to expect; but these were not to be unaccompanied with sufferings and misfortunes. One of these adventurers, M. le Guat, has left a narrative of their sojourn on the island, which, after relieving of its excessive prolixity, I purpose publishing under a separate form.

It would seem that Roderigue was subsequently visited on different occasions by British and foreign navigators, including Admirals Boscawen, Cornish, and Kempenfelt, the latter of whom made a plan of the port, by order of Admiral Cornish, in 1761, who was then cruising off the island. A superintendent was also placed by the French, during their occupation of the Mauritius, on Roderigue, to protect the land turtle, which were conveyed by thousands in small vessels to the former island for the service of the hospital, &c.

Roderigue was taken possession of by a British force in 1810, and a small fort was erected by the soldiery, to protect the anchorage, off which the whole British fleet rendezvoused prior to the expedition against the Isle of France. At that time the social principle, which binds man to man, was but ill exemplified by the French inhabitants found on the island, who, though consisting of three families, and being in the possession of domains sufficiently ample to prevent the

cause of disputes, were as distinct and as alienated from each other as any belligerent potentates whatever.

In 1826, an officer was despatched by the Governor of Mauritius to make a report on the island, who pronounced the eastern side as little adapted for cultivation, and the water bad, but considered the western side more fertile.

The Government land at Roderigue had hitherto been reserved, under instructions from the Secretary of State, it having been intended to allow the Government slaves to occupy it; but none of them having evinced a disposition to proceed thither, the expediency of encouraging others to settle there was at length canvassed, and with that view, whether it would not be advisable that the Government property should be sold or leased; for, without some such measure, there could be little room for any people to settle, as the land chiefly belongs to the Crown.

Mr. Anderson, who was despatched in 1838 on a tour through all the dependencies of Mauritius to inquire into the condition of the apprenticed labourers, was therefore requested to furnish a report on the capabilities of the island. He states that the island contains abundance of pasturage, but that whenever the grass was removed on the high lands by turning up the soil for cultivation, the soil was liable to be carried away by the heavy rains to which it was exposed. The population consisted of a few whites, 127 apprentices, and 42 children. Grain was not abundant, and the people chiefly subsisted on Indian corn and salt fish. The exports consisted of a quantity of salt fish, not exceeding 90,000 lbs., with 200 or 300 pigs, and some poultry. Of cattle, there were not more than 150 on the island left to run wild, and never exported. There were also considerable herds of goats and some sheep, but the latter did not thrive, and the goats seemed to be as useless as the cattle, though both of them were in fine condition.

Mr. Anderson's conclusion was, that the attempt to cultivate Rodriguez ought to be entirely relinquished, and the whole of it, with the exception of its shores, be devoted to rearing cattle for Mauritius, so as to render it independent of Madagascar in that particular: an opinion in which the Government of Mauritius coincided, and reported that such a branch of industry could not be undertaken with any prospect of success, except by some enterprising persons fully acquainted with the European method of rearing cattle, and who could command a considerable sum of money in the first instance.

The threatening posture of affairs at Madagascar, and the interruption of the trade between that island and Mauritius, has again directed the attention of the Mauritian Government to a development of the resources of an island that has so long remained useless to humanity, and an ordinance has been lately passed at Mauritius for forming a judicial and police establishment in the island, a measure

which would of itself attract settlers, if the tenure of lands were put on a different footing.

Vessels may enter the road or harbour called Mathurin Bay, situate in the northern part of the island, from the beginning of April to the end of September. The other months are subject to very dangerous hurricanes, in some years to two, but generally one, and sometimes none. They blow with great violence, commencing from the southward, and veering round to east, north-east, and north-west, where they gradually decrease, after continuing about thirty-six hours. When at anchor in the harbour, the approach of these hurricanes may be known, without the assistance of a barometer, by the darkness of the atmosphere, rising of the water above its usual level, and the hollow roaring of the breakers on the reef and shoals, and they generally give about twenty-four hours warning. This island is much more subject to them than the Mauritius. There are two channels for entering or leaving the harbour; the eastern one is about two hundred and fifty yards in breadth, and is therefore intricate for large ships. The western or leeward channel is free from danger, being about a quarter of a mile in breadth, formed by a small shoal on the edge of the middle ground and rocky patch to the westward; but this channel being far to leeward should only be used by ships going out of the harbour. There are several guides to navigators, and the one most plain is a remarkable peak near the middle of the island, and to the south from the road. Vessels may stand in shore in the harbour to sixteen or eighteen fathoms; but the bottom in general is coral rocks, though in some spots it is sand and mud. The settlement is a small level spot of land between two hills. The only inducement a ship can have to touch at Roderigue is the want of fresh water, there being plenty of this article in the harbour, and wood for fuel. Fish may be caught in abundance; but some of them are poisonous. It is said this noxious quality is confined to those caught in deep water, those obtained by the net or seine being good and wholesome. The trade-wind blows more constant here than at Mauritius, prevailing between east and south-east for the greater part of the year. The weather is sometimes cloudy, with showers of rain, when the wind is strong, but more frequently hazy and dry. The climate is, on the whole, mild and equable; the dews, which are abundant, supplying the place of showers. The heat of the summer is moderated nearly every morning by a north-east or north-west wind, which gives an agreeable freshness to the air.

Though the country is mountainous, and in many places full of rocks and large stones, which cover the surface, yet there are others in which the soil is excellent, and calculated to produce fruits and vegetables of every kind. The valleys that serpentine between the hills possess the finest soil in the world, it being entirely composed of decayed trees and leaves, which are reduced to a kind of com-

post which is washed down from the hills. This soil being very light requires no culture. In the bottom of these valleys there are streams of limpid water, which are plentifully supplied from perennial springs in the middle of the island, which are often broken by cascades. These valleys gradually widen as they approach the sea.

For a description of the animal and vegetable productions of this island, see Appendix.

Amsterdam,[1] in 37° 52′ south lat., and 77° 52′ east long., is forty-one miles north of St. Paul's. It is about twelve miles in circumference, and very high, so that in clear weather it may be seen leagues off. It has the crater of an active volcano at its south-west end, and has sometimes at a distance, and in the night, the appearance of a ship on fire. Nearer, it appears to extend to the north-west, in a bright chain of fire three miles long. The sublime grandeur of this great beacon-fire of nature, even at forty miles distance, cannot be adequately described. D'Entrecasteux, in passing this island in 1792, and observing the blaze we have described, thought that the smoke indicated the combustion of vegetables; so that he was ignorant of the real cause. This island is covered with high grass and shrubs, but is badly off for water, though there are some little rivulets on the south-east side. The mountains slope towards the shore. The anchorage is on the south side of the island, in sixteen fathoms.

St. Paulo, or Paul's, the southernmost of the two islands, is in

[1] These isles have always been considered the natural dependencies of Mauritius. Recently, however, some merchants of Bourbon, sensible of their value as fishing stations, and knowing that the surrounding seas abounded in cod of the best quality (they having caught, with a limited supply of labour, 1,200 fish daily, and expecting, with their present means, to increase their catch to 2,000, and thus supply the Bourbon market with salt cod, the principal food of the negroes in that colony), induced the Governor of Bourbon to declare these isles dependencies of that island, and have occupied them with a number of negroes, who are superintended by Europeans, that are, in their turn, directed by a Pole. This person has had the effrontery to forbid British and American vessels from fishing in the neighbourhood, and assumed the protection of French colours. The conduct of the Governor of Bourbon has, it is true, been censured by the Minister of Marine, and the permission to use the national flag has been withdrawn, the style being changed, and a blue edging been substituted; but those who are familiar with the history of French aggression, from the time of their intrigues in Acadia to the present day, will not fail to remember that they ever make the acts of individuals the cloak of national aggrandisement, for the quasi claim of the former being permitted to become prescriptive by lapse of time, is presently superseded by that of the nation, which cannot so well be resisted. The design of the Governor of Bourbon, in seizing on an island of so little importance, would be incomprehensible, did not the recent movements of France to recover her lost ground in this ocean furnish a key to the mystery. I apprehend also that the honour of Great Britain is as much compromised by this intrusion, trivial as it may appear, as it would be in a case where the stake was greater, nor is it a mark of foresight to permit any other than her own people to occupy islands which will become yearly of greater importance, as the trade with our Australian possessions is augmented.

38° 41′ south lat., 77° 25′ east long., and was first examined by Vlaming, the Dutch navigator, in 1697, who gave both isles the names they at present bear. St. Paul's extends ten miles north-west and south-east by five in breadth, has a level aspect, but slopes down at each end towards the north-east. It may be seen twenty leagues off in clear weather, and is better known and more accessible than Amsterdam. On the east side of the isle, there is an inlet to a circular bason three miles in extent (which has been the crater of a volcano), through which the sea ebbs and flows over a causeway at an entrance of twenty-five yards wide, on each side of which there is a headland about 750 feet high, and a rock eighty or ninety feet high, like a ninepin or sugar-loaf, stands near the shore at the north end. Abreast of the bason, there is good anchorage in twenty-one or twenty-three fathoms black sand, like wet gunpowder, about a mile from the shore, where ships are sheltered from the westerly winds; but it is dangerous when they are easterly. This is the only safe anchorage; in other parts, the bottom is rocky, with deep water near the shore, and from the west end of the island a reef, on which the sea breaks, projects out. Though fresh water is found, yet the ascent to it is so steep, that ships cannot take it in, so that it can only be used for present purposes. Vlaming describes smoke as issuing from several places among the stones close to the bason, and a thermometer, which stood at 62° in the open air, rose to 190° when immersed in the water, but soon fell to 185°. In the other springs the same variations were shown. The stones in the vicinity are of a dark blue colour, very hard, and bear the marks of fusion, some of them being burnt to cinders. The sealers of his party boiled their fish in one of these springs, which mix with the waters of the bason in some places, and heat them considerably. As the bason abounds with fish, no art is required to catch them; a boy could catch in five minutes enough for a whole party to eat, and the fish, fastened on the hook, may be thrown from the cold water into the hot, and there boiled. These springs sometimes dry up. A recent traveller found some young birds in one of them six feet deep. The fish found in the bason are a sort of bream (striped like a mackerel), red perch, and a fish like a tench. South of the entrance of the bason a mile and a half are a species of cod, tons of which might be caught in a few hours. The instant they are caught, however, they should be gutted and salted; if not, they will perish on exposure to rain. Vlaming speaks of a salt-water pond, to which the seals, which were then plentiful, went over the rock that separated it from the sea. It was then of small extent, but is now a large bason two miles and three quarters in circuit, forming almost a complete circle; the sea has, therefore, formed its present channel, and enlarged it to its present size. American and English sealers who have lived on the island state that the weather is fine in summer, but stormy in winter, with thick hazy weather, whirlwinds sometimes tearing the

water from the surface of the crater. Torrents of rain, which burst over the hills, pour down, and form ravines in them. The spermacetti whale formerly used to frequent the coasts of these isles. Fire is continually seen to issue from various crevices of the island in the night, and smoke in the day. Breakers project into the sea from its north and west points. The tide rises here three feet.

The position of this island is important from its lying directly in the track of ships proceeding to New Holland and Van Diemen's Land, and its vicinity to the route sometimes chosen by outward-bound Indiamen. Formerly, a Frenchman employed a few slaves in growing vegetables and curing fish for the market of Mauritius, from which St. Paul's is 1730 miles distant east-south-east. The note will describe its present occupants.

The isles adjacent to Mauritius are Iles Plate, Coin de Mire, or Gunner's Quoin, Ronde, d'Ambre, Grande Ile au Cerfs, Ile du Morne.

Ronde island, in lat. 19° 50′ 30″ south, long. 57° 50′ east, and the most remarkable of these islands, is a mile in length, high, appearing like a haycock, and can be seen at ten or twelve leagues distance, and some time before Mauritius is discernible, from which it is four leagues distant.

Serpent isle, or Isle Parasol, is a large barren rock or islet, which lies north-north-east, about a mile from the former.

Seven miles to the west of Ronde isle is Isle Longue or Plate. The greater part is very low, and is cut in two by a small arm of the sea. On the north side there is a large rock, like a tower, called Le Colombier, or the Pigeon-house, which, though seeming distinct from Isle Plate, is joined to it by a ridge of rocks, even with the water's edge. The west end is high.

Coin de Mire, or Gunner's Quoin, from which the isle derives its name, is five miles from the north point of Mauritius. The quoin is on the west side of the island, which is high and steep, close to the sea, and resembles a bastion in the midst of the waves. The currents are sometimes strong between these isles. Adders and serpents are said to have been found here, though they do not exist in the Isle of France.

Grande Ile au Cerfs is a small isle off the east coast of Mauritius.

Ile d'Ambre, which is situated on the north-east, or windward side of the Isle of France, was the scene of the shipwreck of the *St. Geran*. It is a considerable mass of coral, which the sea formerly cast up and afterwards abandoned, as at Ile de Tonnelliers. There are breakers around it, but there is a narrow channel between it and the Isle of France. Its base is thought to be a prolongation of vitrifiable sand and quartz from the Mauritius.

Ile de Morne is on the south-west side of the island, and was used by the French as a quarantine station.

APPENDIX.

(A.)

The author had purposed to give a comprehensive view of the theories of ancient and modern geographers with reference to the circumnavigation of Africa by the ancients, as well as a general notion of the knowledge of its form and proportions possessed by the ancient writers, but, as he has already considerably exceeded the limits he had originally marked out for the first volume, he is compelled to postpone to the volume on the Cape of Good Hope (to which, perhaps, it more naturally belongs) the sketch in question, though it would doubtless have elucidated some points, on which the reader will be for the present left in doubt. He may just mention, however, that the Arabians had extended their commerce to Sofala and the islands, long before the time of Abulpheda. "When the Portuguese first entered the Indian Ocean (says an eminent French writer), they not only found a surprising amount of shipping, but a great intercourse of trade between the inhabitants all along the east coast of Africa, Arabia, Persia, India, and the islands, but what seemed most to be wondered at, and doubtless contributed much to that flourishing state of trade, was, that their pilots had the use both of the compass and of charts, of which, though they were not inventors, they received their knowledge of from Europeans before the Portuguese found their way to India by sea."

(B.)

[The following document was found in the bureau of the archives of the Court of Appeal, and was in so worn a state, and the ink had become so pale when discovered, that it would doubtless have, ere long, become illegible. The orthography and punctuation of the original are here preserved. The illegible portions are indicated by points at proportionate distances. Another copy is known to exist at Bourbon.]

Acte de Prise de Possession de L'Ile de Francr, du 20 Septembre, 1715.

De par le Roy.

Nous écuyer Guillaume Dufresne capitaine commandant le vaisseau le Chasseur et officiers en vertu de la copie de la lettre de Monseigneur le Comte de Pontchartrain, ministre et secrétaire d'Etat à Versailles le

31 Octobre 1714 qui m'a été fournie à Moka golfe de la mer rouge par le S. de la Boissière commandant le vaisseau l'Auguste armé par Mrs. nos armateurs de St. Malo subrogés dans les droits et priuilèges de la Royalle compagnie de France du commerce des Indes Orientales collationnée à l'original audit Moka le 27 Juin 1715 portant ordre de prendre possession de l'isle nommée Mauritius, située par 20 degrés de latitude sud ; et par septante huit degrés trente minutes de longitude suivant la carte de Pitre Goovs, laquelle d^e^ carte prend son premier méridien au milieu de l'isle de Ténérif dont je me sers, en cas que la d^e^ isle ne fust point occupée par aucune puissance, et comme nous sommes pleinement informés tant la part du Sieur G*** mont capitaine du vaisseau le *Succez* et de ses officiers *** à cette isle le septième may dernier et mouillé dans la baye nommée par les Anglois Browsbay, autrement nommée par nous baye de la Maison-blanche distante du port ou baye où nous sommes mouillés actuellement d'enuiron une à deux lieues, nommée par la ditte carte des Anglois, No. Wt. harbour, que cette ditte isle et islots estaient inhabités, et pour estre encore plus informé du fait j'ay dispersé partie de mon équipage dans tous les endroits qui pourraient estre habités, en outre et afin qu'au cas qu'il y eut quelques habitans sur la d^e^ isle j'ay fait tirer plusieurs coups de canons par distances et différens jours, et apres auoir fait toutes les diligences conuenables à ce sujet, estant pleinement informé qu'il n'y a personne dans la de isle, nous déclarons pour en vertu et exécution de l'ordre de sa Majestié à tous qu'il appartiendra prendre possession de la d^e^ isle Mauritius et islots, et luy donnons suiuant l'intention de sa Majesté le nom de l'isle de France et y auons arboré le pauillon de Sa Majesté avec copie du présent acte que nous auons fait septuple à l'isle de France ce 20 Septembre 1715 et au *** sceau de nos armes fait contresigner par le sr *** écriuain les jours et au susd. Signé D— R— Grangemont, de Chapdelaine, Garnier, Litant.

Abstract of the Constitution, published by Royal Ordinance in 1767.

His Majesty wishing to regulate all that concerns the general and particular administration of the Isles of France and Bourbon, both as respects their government and the distribution of justice, ordains as follows :—

Art. 1. Appoints a governor, who shall be lieutenant-general for the king, and shall have the command over all other officers employed in his government, the military and naval departments, and over the inhabitants in general.

Art. 2. After enjoining on him to keep the said forces in good order and discipline, and the inhabitants in due fidelity and obedience to the Crown, forbids him from encroaching, under any pretext, on the functions assigned by this ordinance to the officers of justice, nor to cite before him any of the inhabitants by reason of their disputes, whether in civil or criminal matters ; but to give himself vigorously to the execution of all sentences, ordinances, judgments, and executions, at the instant a requisition be made to him to that effect, without in any case hindering or retarding it, as well as to have an eye to the dispensation of justice

in the sphere of his government, and to the observance of the ordinances on the general police, and to render account of all negligence or abuses that have crept in, so that the Crown on knowledge thereof may act as seems best.

Art. 3. It shall be in the power nevertheless of the said governor, or his representatives, to send in an exigency for the inhabitants, for the good of the service, and the peace of the colony. He shall not, however, oblige them to mount guard at his house, nor at that of individual commanders, nor compel them to bear orders at a distance from their quarters, nor be able to arrest any one, unless they are found conspiring with the enemy or are rebellious, in that case the necessary measures are to be circumspectly taken for the good of the colony.

Art. 4. The governor, or his representative, is to give the officers or inhabitants permission to depart from the colony, only after the ordinary publication for the safety of creditors shall have been made, and after the superior council shall have determined on the grounds of such opposition when made.

Art. 5. Forbids the captains of vessels to take any passengers on board, wherever they may be bound for, without permission of the governor, on pain of answering themselves for the debts due to the creditors, and receiving further punishment.

Art. 6. In case of the decease, or other casualty, of the governor, or his representative, the command shall pass into the hand of the senior officer in rank, in conformity with the ordinance of 1767, who shall fill his functions until he is in a state to resume them, or it has been otherwise provided for by the Crown. The said officer shall reside in the said case at the capital, in order to concert with the intendant in matters to which a cognisance is assigned them in common. He shall not, however, aspire to the appointment attached to the office of governor, but shall have such consideration as shall be judged proper by the Crown.

Art. 7. All that is mentioned in the preceding Articles shall be observed by the said governor, or his representative, under pain of recall, &c.

Art. 8. Every thing relating to the excise, the administration, management, and distribution of the Crown revenues, shall be directed by the intendant or his representative.

Art. 9. The intendant, or his representative, shall likewise order the maintenance of the courts of justice, of the hospitals, and other places designed for the public service.

Art. 10. The intendant shall take care that the judges are not interrupted in their duty, and the subjects of the Crown hampered or obstructed in obtaining justice, and that it is administered conformably to the laws; to the observance of the ordinances on the general police; and he shall render an account to the Crown of every thing pertaining to the administration of justice.

Art. 11. The intendant, or his representative, shall hear complaints made by the inhabitants of the colony on any subject that may arise, and shall instantly acquaint the governor, or his representative, therewith; or the procureur-general, with the view of providing a suitable remedy, and he shall render an account to the Crown of those complaints, and of what has been done to remedy them.

Art. 12. In case the intendant, or his representative, shall be absent from the colony, or be deceased, the senior officer in the administration

shall take his place, but shall not claim the appointments attached to the intendancy.

Art. 13. The officers of the administration, storekeepers, &c., are responsible to the intendant, or his representative, with the exception of the storekeeper of the artillery, who is responsible to the commander of the artillery likewise.

Art. 14. As respects the royal and merchant navy, he shall have the same powers as are granted to the intendants of the ports of France by the ordinances of 1689 and 1765.

Art. 15. The governor and intendant shall annually form an estimate of the wants of the said isles for the following year, and of the demands which they consider it is their duty to make on the Crown on the subject of the general administration, which they shall sign in common, but separately make an estimate of that which concerns the department with which they are individually charged.

Art. 16. In case the governor, or his representative, shall judge it necessary to construct works for the defence of the isle that cannot be executed but by an impost on the inhabitants, or by an extraordinary duty, he shall deliberate in a council of war with the intendant or his representative, the engineer, the two senior officers of the troops, and two senior officers of militia, and the said work shall be suspended or executed, according to the majority of votes in the said council.

Art. 17. A minute of the opinion of the council, and of their reasons, shall be prepared. Those opinions shall be, as much as possible, confined to the acceptance or rejection of the proposition. The Crown, nevertheless, permits them to develope an opinion of the constitution. The votes for each opinion shall be taken and counted by the intendant, who shall report on it without designating the authors of that opinion. The minute shall be recorded in the same act, and signed by all the council, to whom his Majesty wishes to give all latitude of opinion; and a depôt of these memoirs, plans, and estimates, and of the deliberation, shall be formed at the office of the superior council, as also in that of the intendancy.

Art. 18. The memorandum of the governor and intendant, the plans and conjectural estimates of expense, and the minutes of deliberation, shall be despatched to the Secretary of State of the Marine Department, to await his Majesty's pleasure.

Art. 19. Grants of land and sites shall be made conjointly by the governor and intendant.

Art. 20. Permission to enfranchise slaves shall be likewise given by them conjointly, (in accordance with the rules prescribed,) and gratuitously, without the said enfranchisements precede the permissions that have been given; and they shall observe in that respect the dispositions of the ordinance of 1764, except where provision has been made by the ordinary law, in case of opposition on the part of the persons interested.

Art. 21. The governor, or intendant, shall alone have the right of ordaining necessary duties for maintaining the roads, and of regulating the distribution of them; and the intendant shall have cognizance of all disputes that may happen on the subject.

Art. 22. The governor and intendant shall look to the safety of the king's roads and of others, the streets and crossways of the towns, and shall give the necessary orders for the due execution of the police regulations made for that end.

Art. 23. The officers in command shall look, under the authority of

the governor, to all that concerns the safety and tranquillity of their command, executing his orders, and rendering account to him of every thing; and for the rest, shall conform themselves to the dispositions established by this ordinance.

Administration of the Police.

Art. 24. The governor and intendant shall make such regulations as they shall judge necessary for the prevention of meetings that may trouble the tranquillity and safety of the colony; and the former shall arrest offenders, on condition of delivering them over in twenty-four hours to ordinary justice, to be punished according to the exigency of the case.

Art. 25. In that which concerns the supplies of the colonies, fishing in the rivers, the chase over unenclosed lands and woods, concessions of land and sites, their reunion to the Crown, the execution or use of concessions of land not yet settled on, the cutting of rivers, the distribution of waters, the police of the ports, the governor and intendants shall conjointly legislate on.

Art. 26. All that concerns enfranchisement; the opening of the king's highway and communication; the introduction of foreign vessels, whether vessels of parley, or bearers of passports, or those obliged to put into the ports of the said isle, shall be equally regulated by the governor and intendant to the exclusion of all others.

Art. 27. In case the governor and intendant differ in opinion on the objects comprised in the two preceding articles, they shall forthwith give their advice to the Crown with the reasons on which it is founded; to be by it provided for as appertaining to it; nevertheless the regulation shall be addressed in the name of the said governor and intendant in conformity to the opinion propounded by the former, and executed as it may be otherwise ordained by the Crown.

Art. 28. The governor and intendant shall not have power to make any police regulation on account of the objects on which it has been determined by the edicts, declarations, and rules registered by the superior council, except to propose to the Crown the regulations which may appear necessary, to be provided by his Majesty.

Art. 29. All the regulations made by the governor and intendant in execution of the preceding articles, shall be presented to the superior council to be by them registered and executed until the Crown has otherwise determined; they shall have the power however of making representation on them, as they may think best.

Art. 30. The superior council shall set its hand to the execution of all the aforesaid police regulations, and shall have cognizance of any contraventions that may arise.

Art. 31. Justice shall be administered "en première instance" and "en dernier resort" by the officers of the superior council created in 1766.

Art. 32. The superior council shall not mix themselves directly or indirectly in the affairs of government; but shall confine themselves to dispensing justice to the subjects of the Crown.

Art. 33. The superior council shall have cognizance of all civil and criminal matters with the exception of those named in article 44, 46, and 48; the Crown forbids every one to sue before others than them, on pain

of a fine of two thousand livres, a moiety being applicable to the profit of the Crown, and the surplus to the hospital of the residence of the party contravening it.

Art. 34. The cognizances of crimes or offences committed by the military, shall belong to the superior council.

Art. 35. In case an accused should have recourse to the governor or his representative to obtain pardon from the Crown, it shall be deliberated between the governor, intendant, and the procureur-general, and if decided by them by a plurality of votes, that the accused is in a position to ask for pardon, there shall be a respite to the reading and execution of the decree, until that, in their opinion, put in writing and transmitted to the Crown with a copy of the charges and informations, the Crown shall have resolved thereon.

Art. 36. The governor or his representative shall have the right of "entree," sitting, and a deliberative voice alone in the superior council, and shall take the first place.

Art. 37. The intendant or his representative shall have precedence over the superior council, and a deliberative voice alone: he shall have the power of calling an extraordinary assembly, when the good of the service requires it, after he shall have given notice to the governor, and communicated to him his reasons.

Art. 38. When the governor or his representative shall be absent, the senior officer in command shall have the right to take his place in the superior council, and enjoy a deliberative voice, and shall occupy the first place by the side of the governor, which shall remain vacant.

Art. 39. The senior officer of the administration shall take the place of the intendant or his representative in their absence, have a deliberative voice, and in his position as first councillor shall have the functions of president in the absence of the intendant.

Art. 40. The governor and intendant shall nominate to the offices of assessors, of substitutes to the procureur-general, and registrars to the superior council: the officers named by them shall be received in the accustomed manner by the provisional commission given them, and shall enjoy the functions of their office till they have received patents from the Crown.

Art. 41. The selection of huissiers and notaries shall belong to the intendant, and they shall be received into the superior council in the ordinary form.

Art. 42. The superior council shall not have power to take cognizance of concessions of reunions to the demesne; distributions of water for irrigation, of servitude, roads, bridges, aqueducts, the chace, the fishery on the coasts and in the rivers, cognizance of these shall belong to the tribunal "terrier," before which it shall be brought forward in the form marked out in the ordinance, fixing the composition of that tribunal.

Of the Finances.

Art. 43. All that concerns the excise, and the management of the revenues belonging to the Crown by failure of lawful heirs, confiscation, fines, &c. shall be regulated by the intendant or his representative.

Art. 44. The receivers of the said sums desirable from escheats, bastardy, failure of lawful heirs, confiscations, &c. shall be chosen by the intendant or his representative.

Art. 45. The revenues accruing from the said taxes cannot be yielded, but by virtue of an ordinance which shall be given by the intendant in conformity with the conditions prescribed by the Crown.

Art. 46. The undertakings and contracts for the public works shall be made under the authority of the intendant or his representative, in accordance with the ordinary form, by adjudication to the lowest bidder, and the minutes of adjudication shall be constantly sent to the minister of marine.

Art. 47. The governor or his representative shall not meddle in any manner with the administration of the finances, but shall have power only where he judges fit to demand of the intendant or his representative an account of the state of the Colonial chest, and the intendant shall be bound to give it him.

Art. 48. The intendant shall have cognizance of excesses, abuses, and malversations that may be committed in the recovery of moneys pertaining to the Crown, and if he judges it proper to proceed against the perpetrators of them, an action shall be brought and judged "en dernier ressort" by the intendant, and the said action shall be brought at the request of the procureur-general who shall be named by the intendant, and who shall likewise appoint a registrar.

Art. 49. The intendant shall have cognizance also of all levies of revenue that the inhabitants of each quartier, burgh or town, have been authorized to make among themselves for the common business.

Art. 50. In case it is necessary to make among the inhabitants a levy of taxes to meet the annual expenses of the said quartiers, &c. or for repairs or other public works, as for the payment of the debts to which they may have been condemned, the intendant has the power to order the said levy, and he shall have jurisdiction over all disputes that may arise therefrom, save when an appeal shall be made to the Crown in council.

Art. 51. The intendant shall alone have cognizance of the management of the churches, their construction, repair, ornaments, and necessary fittings, and any disputes that may arise therefrom.

His Majesty commands the governor, intendant, and superior council, to conform, each in his own sphere, to the present regulations which shall be registered by the superior council.

(Signed) Louis.
Choiseul.

A Compeigne le 25th Sept. 1766.

Constitution of the 21st of April 1791.

This Constitution, the provisions of which are detailed at too great length to admit of our giving even an abstract of them here, define the powers of the different bodies by whom the affairs of the colony were directed at the outset of the French Revolution.

"The provisional legislative power shall be exercised by the colonial assembly; the supreme executive power shall be provisionally exercised by the representative of the king; the judicial power by the tribunals, which shall be organized for the colony, consisting of two tribunals of justice, viz. the Tribunal d'Appel, and Tribunal de Première Instance; a tribunal of commerce, and the courts of the juges de

paix. The administrative power shall devolve upon an administrative body. The municipalities shall administer the interests of their commune under the inspection of the said administrative body."

Then follows a detailed statement of the composition and functions of the primary assemblies, and a definition of the term "citoyen actif," who was alone eligible for membership. The "corps électoral" was nominated by the primary assembly, and elected the deputies of the colony to the National Assembly of France, and the members of the Colonial Assembly.

The "corps administratif" shall be nominated by the "corps électoral. The "corps municipaux" shall be elected by the primary assemblies. The judges shall be chosen by the "corps électoral," the ancient tribunals being suppressed.

The word "colony" shall be substituted for "department" as the appellation of the Isle of France; as also "municipality" for "district."

For further and more detailed information of the provisions of this Constitution the author must refer the reader to the "Almanach de l'Ile Maurice" for 1837.

Abstract of the Decree of the Colonial Assembly respecting the admission of free born citizens of colour to the rights of citizenship, 8th September 1791.

The Colonial Assembly being advised of the decree of the 15th of May 1791, the second article of which declares the admission of coloured persons of free birth into the colonial and parochial assemblies, if they otherwise possess the requisite qualifications, without interfering with the state of the coloured classes not so born, except at the free and spontaneous wish of the colonies expressed to that effect; and wishing to lose no occasion of manifesting its entire adhesion to the principles of the French constitution, and to exercise equally with the national assembly a great act of justice; considering also, that it is necessary to render public the confirmation given by it in the same decree to the powers of the Colonial assemblies actually existing by the words "Les assemblées coloniales actuellement existantes subsisteront;" it decrees that the said article shall have full and entire effect, and that each municipality shall inscribe on a civic tablet the citizens of colour born of free parents who unite in themselves all the qualities required by the constitution for all active citizens without distinction.

By consequence of the character of eligible citizens, accorded them by the said decree, they shall be admitted into the primary assemblies, where they shall have a free voice, and be eligible to all posts, if they unite all the qualities required as aforesaid. All citizens are equal in the eye of the law, and equally eligible to all dignities and public employments according to their capacity, and without any other distinction than those of their virtues and talents. In conformity with the said decree, it has resolved that the present assembly shall continue its functions as at present existing; and defers the admission of free coloured persons as representatives, until the formation of a future Colonial Assembly.

And it decrees further that the present shall be carried for the acceptance and sanction of the governor, as prescribed by the constitution, and then published and enforced according to its form and tenor.

Constitution promulgated under the Consulship, 13th Pluviose, An XI.

This constitution restored to the Isle of France under *other names*, the magistrates it possessed under the old régime, viz.: the captain-general, colonial prefect, and the commissary of justice.

As the functions assigned to the captain-general were similar to those attributed to the ancient governors, and the duties attached to the colonial prefect resembled those attributed to the intendants, we shall simply content ourselves with describing any points in which they may be found to differ.

The captain-general had the power of communicating on behalf of the two islands with neutral governments, allies, and enemies to the east of the Cape. The governor of Bourbon also was subject to his orders. His privileges on account of the critical state of affairs were greater than those accorded to the governor under the Crown. He had the nomination of all the vacant places in the civil and judicial administration, on the presentation of the prefect, and commissary of justice. In case of his death or absence, his place was to be filled by the prefect, or he failing, the commander of the troops.

The colonial prefect was not permitted to assign the proportion of contributions to be paid by the inhabitants, till he had summoned three of the principal inhabitants and three of the merchants of the island, who however merely possessed a deliberate voice, but he was obliged to record a minute of their opinions for transmission to the minister of marine.

The prefect could also demand the assistance of the troops to enforce obedience to his commands. The regulations agreed upon conjointly by the captain-general and prefect were forwarded for registration to the commissary of justice. The prefect of the Isle of Réunion or Bourbon was subject *to the instructions of the prefect* of the Isle of France.

The commissary of justice had under his surveillance the tribunals of the two isles, and their officers. On receiving the complaints of the "justiciables" he gave the necessary orders.

He had to remit monthly for reference by the captain-general and the home government estimates signed by the president of each tribunal, and counter-signed by the greffier, as well of actions adjudicated on in the preceding month, as of those that still remained undecided.

He had the control over the police charged with the prevention and care of persons not having any employment or profession, disturbers of the peace, against whom he could issue warrants of arrest at his pleasure, and could make a requisition for the military to carry out his orders. He had the exclusive right of making provisional regulations on matters of procedure at law without swerving from those established, but the previous assent of the captain-general was necessary. The agents of the Government could not be prosecuted for offences committed in the exercise of their functions, without the previous authorization of the commissary of justice. He could prepare the laws that it might appear expedient to form, both as respects the civil and criminal code, but his projects had to be communicated to the captain-general and prefect.

(Signed) BONAPARTE, First Consul.

CHARTER OF JUSTICE.

At the court of St. James's, the 13th of April 1831; present the king's most excellent Majesty in council. Whereas it is necessary to make provision for the better administration of justice in his Majesty's island of Mauritius and its dependencies, his Majesty doth therefore, by and with the advice of his privy council, order, and it is hereby ordered, that his Majesty's supreme court of civil and criminal justice within the

said colony, called the Cour d'Appel, shall henceforth be holden by and before three judges only, and no more; and that the chief or senior judge of the said court shall henceforth bear the title of chief judge and first president; and that the second of the said judges shall henceforth be called and bear the title of vice-president; and that the third of the said judges shall henceforth be called and bear the title of assistant judge of the said court: And it is further ordered, that his Majesty's court in the said island, called the Tribunal de Première Instance, shall henceforth be holden by and before, and shall consist of, one judge, to be called the president of the said tribunal, and one other judge, to be called a judge suppléant: And it is further ordered, that in case any judge of either of the said courts should, by reason of any such lawful recusation as hereinafter mentioned, or by sickness, absence, suspension, resignation, or any other cause, be unable to perform the duties of such his office, it shall be lawful for the governor of the said colony to complete the number of judges of such court, by appointing, in his Majesty's name, and on his behalf, some proper person to act as judge of such court during such vacancy, or until his Majesty's pleasure shall be known: And it is hereby further ordered, that if in any criminal case the law which is now, or hereafter shall be, in force within the said island and its dependencies, shall require the presence in either of the said tribunals of a greater number of judges than are hereinbefore mentioned, then and in every such case it shall be lawful for the governor of the said colony, in his Majesty's name, and on his behalf, to appoint such an additional number of judges for any such special occasion as may be necessary to complete the whole number of judges so required by law; but all appointments which may be so made shall endure so long only as may be necessary to provide for any such emergency, and shall be renewed from time to time as occasion may require: And whereas on the 17th day of February 1830, the governor of the said island of Mauritius, with the advice of the council of government thereof, made an ordinance, bearing date on the day and year last aforesaid, intituled "An Ordinance for the Establishment of a Court composed of his Excellency, to judge certain prizes à partie et recusations directed against the court of appeal" in this colony: Now, it is further ordered that the said ordinance shall be, and the same is hereby, confirmed and allowed, and that any recusation which may hereafter be made of any judge of either tribunals, shall be heard, tried, adjudged, and determined in the manner provided by the said ordinance, and not otherwise: And it is hereby further ordered, that all and every the powers, authorities, and jurisdictions, heretofore vested in the judges of the said tribunals respectively, or in a majority of them, shall continue and be vested in the judges hereinbefore mentioned, or in the majority of them: Provided nevertheless, and it is further ordered, that in all cases in which the court of vice-admiralty of the said colony hath jurisdiction, whether by virtue of any act of Parliament, or by virtue of the commission of the judge of the said court, such jurisdiction shall be exclusive, and that it shall not be competent for the said Cour d'Appel, or Tribunal de Première Instance, to hear, decide, or take cognizance of any such case, and that if, in any suit or action, or other proceeding depending in the said courts, it shall be made to appear that the question arising therein is within the jurisdiction and competency of the said court of vice-admiralty, then the said Tribunal de Première Instance or the Cour d'Appel, as the case may be, shall declare itself incompetent: And it is further ordered that the office of grand judge, commissaire de

justice of the said island of Mauritius is and shall be abolished: And it is further ordered that in all civil cases depending before the said courts, the procureur-general or his substitutes are and shall be relieved from the duty heretofore incumbent on them, of making their conclusions for the assistance of the said tribunals: And it is further ordered no judge of the Cour d'Appel or Tribunal de Première Instance, nor the suppléant of the said tribunal, nor the procureur-general, nor advocate-general, nor judge of the court of vice-admiralty, nor any surrogate of such judge, shall be the owner of any slave, nor be the proprietor of, nor have any share or interest in any land cultivated by the labour of slaves either directly or by trustees for him; and each of the said several officers is hereby declared incompetent to be or act as the manager, overseer, agent, or attorney of, for, or upon any plantation or estate within the said island, and its dependencies: Provided nevertheless, that nothing herein contained shall prevent any such officer as aforesaid from having part and employing in the domestic service of himself, or any members of his family, any number of slaves, if it shall be first made to appear, to the satisfaction of the governor, that it is not in his power to hire free persons to perform such domestic services; and it is further ordered, that there shall be in the town of Port Louis, a petit court, to be holden by a single judge, called the juge de paix of the said town, for the decision of all civil causes of small amount arising within the said island, and for the trials of all crimes and offences of a low degree committed therein, and that from the judgments, sentences, and orders of the said petit court, no appeal shall lie to any other tribunal in the said island or elsewhere: and that there shall also be in any one or more of the dependencies of the said island which the governor with the advice of the council of government may select, a petit court, to be holden in like manner by a single judge, to be called the juge de paix of such dependency, for the decision of all civil cases of small amount, and for the trials of misdemeanours; and that the governor of Mauritius, with the consent of the said council of Government, shall, by any ordinances to be from time to time for that purpose made, define the extent of the jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, of any such petit court, and fix and regulate the forms of proceeding, the rules of practice, and the nature of the process to be observed therein respectively: And it is hereby further ordered, that it shall be lawful for any person being a party to any civil suit or action depending in the Cour d'Appel of the Mauritius, to appeal to his Majesty in council, his heirs and successors, in his or their privy council, against any final judgment, or sentence of the said court, or against any rule or order made in any such civil suit or action having the effect of a definitive sentence, and which appeals shall be made subject to the rules and limitations following; that is to say, in case any such judgment, order, or sentence shall be given or pronounced for any sum or matter at issue, above the value of 1,000*l.* sterling, or in case it shall involve, directly or indirectly, any claim or question to propriety, or any civil right, amounting to the value of 1,000*l.* sterling, or in case the same shall affect the right or alleged right of any person to freedom, the parties feeling aggrieved by any such judgment or order of the said Cour d'Appel may, within fourteen days next after the same shall have been given, apply to the said court by petition, for leave to appeal therefrom to his Majesty or successors in council; and in case such leave to appeal shall be prayed by the parties who are directed to pay any sum of money, or perform any duty, the said court shall be empowered either

to direct that the judgment or order appealed from shall be carried into execution, or to direct that the execution thereof shall be suspended pending the said appeal, as may in each case appear most consistent with real and substantial justice, and in case the Cour d'Appel shall direct such judgment or order to be carried into execution, the parties in whose favour the same shall be given, shall, before the execution thereof, enter into sufficient security, to be approved by the said court, for the due performance of such judgment or order, as his Majesty or his successors shall think fit to make thereupon, or in case the Cour d'Appel shall direct the suspension of the execution of any such judgment or order, pending such appeal, the parties against whom it shall have been given, shall in like manner, and before any order for suspension is made, enter into sufficient security for the due performance of such judgment or order, as his Majesty or successors shall think fit to make, and security shall also be given by the appellant to the satisfaction of the said court, for the prosecution of the appeal and the payment of such costs, as may be awarded to the respondent, and if such security shall be entered into within three months from the date of such petition for leave to appeal, then, and not otherwise, the Cour d'Appel shall allow the appeal, and the appellant shall be at liberty to prosecute his appeal to his Majesty, or successors in his or their privy council in such manner and under such rules as are observed in appeals made to his Majesty in council from his plantations and colonies: Provided nevertheless, and it is further ordered, that nothing herein contained shall extend, or be construed to extend to take away or derogate from the undoubted power and authority of his Majesty in his privy council; and upon the humble petition at any time of any person aggrieved by any judgment or determination of the said Cour d'Appel, to admit his appeal therefrom upon such other terms, and upon and subject to such other limitations and regulations as his Majesty or successors shall in such special case prescribe: And it is further ordered that in all cases of appeal allowed by the Cour d'Appel, or by his Majesty or successors, the said court shall certify and transmit to his Majesty or his successors, in his or their privy council, a true copy of all proceedings, judgments, and orders, made, and of all evidence given in such causes, so far as the same relates to the matter of appeal, such copies to be certified under the seal of the said court: And it is further ordered that the said Cour d'Appel shall in all cases of appeal to his Majesty or successors conform to and execute such judgments and orders as his Majesty or successors shall think fit to make, in such and the same manner as the same might have been executed by the said Cour d'Appel. And the right honourable Lord Viscount Goderich, one of his Majesty's principal secretaries of state, is to give the necessary directions herein accordingly.

Royal Instructions of the 20th July, 1831.

Instructions to our trusty and well-beloved Sir Charles Colville, chevalier grand cross of the most honourable military Order of the Bath; lieutenant-general of our army; governor and commander-in-chief of the Mauritius and its dependencies. Given at our court at St. James's, this 20th day of July 1831, the second year of our reign.

1. Notifies the transmission of the present instructions, and the commission under the great seal of the United Kingdom by which Sir C.

Colville is nominated and appointed governor of the Mauritius and its dependencies.

2. Enjoins on him with due solemnity to read and publish the said commission in presence of the president of the court of appeal, and the members of the council of government. Next to take the usual oath prescribed by the act of the first year of the reign of George I., for the due execution of the functions of governor and commander-in-chief, and the exact and impartial administration of justice, the observance of the laws relative to commerce and the colonies, which oaths the president of the court of appeal is required to adminster: after which the governor is enjoined to administer the oath to the president himself and to the members of the said council, as it is applicable to each, and the said oath shall be administered to all who shall hereafter be nominated members of the said council, before they enter respectively on the exercise of their functions.

3. Enjoins on the governor, or those authorized by him, to administer the oath to all whom he may employ in offices of trust, and to those sojourning on the island such oaths as may be applicable to their case.

4. Authorizes the establishment of a council of government, composed of fourteen persons, seven of whom should be removeable at pleasure, and the seven others permanent members *ex officio*.

5. Declares the president of the court of appeal; the officer second in command of the forces; the colonial secretary; the collector of customs; the advocate-general; the procureur-general;[1] the protector of slaves; the official members of the council; and ordains that in the event of their absence or death their substitutes should discharge the functions pertaining to them thereby.

6. Ordains that seven persons, chosen by the governor from among the principal inhabitants and merchants, should be the non-official members, who should retain their seats at the will of the Government, and should be named by commissions under the public seal of the colony.

7. Permits the governor in case of death, incapacity, absence, or suspension of inofficial members, to nominate, till the pleasure of the Crown be known, other members qualified for the same, by commission under the said seal.

8. Orders the immediate notification to the Home Government of every original or subsequent nomination, for its confirmation or disapproval as may to it seem best.

9. Declares the council incompetent to deliberate on any matter unless eight of its members (excluding the governor, or in his absence the president) are present at the sitting, and during the whole of the deliberations.

10. Gives to official the precedence over non-official members, and to official members among themselves according to the order in which they have been named as aforesaid, and to non-official members according to the priority of their respective nominations.

11. Requires the governor to preside over the deliberations of the council, unless prevented by some insurmountable obstacle, and in his absence the senior member; ordains that all questions submitted for discussion be decided by the majority of voices; that the governor, or, in

[1] The functions of the procureur and advocate general having been united, and those of the protector of slaves having ceased, the auditor-general and colonial treasurer were substituted.

his absence, the member presiding have a voice, and likewise a casting vote if the voices are equally divided.

12. Ordains that the governor form and propose to the council, for its adoption, the orders and regulations necessary for the punctual attendance of its members, (and with that view requires that a previous notice be duly given to the different members,) and regularity in the direction of all discussions, which, if not contrary to the governor's commission, and these general instructions, or future ones, shall be always observed, and be obligatory, unless disapproved by the Crown in whole or in part.

13. Gives the governor authority, with the consent of the council, to make, decree, and establish laws for the order and right administration of the colony, in conformity with the general instructions to that effect.

14. Declares that no law or ordinance be made or decreed, and no question be discussed by the council, unless proposed by the governor.

15. Permits, however, any member judging it proper to present a question for discussion, or to propose a law, to notify in writing the motives of his opinion, and to place on the register of deliberations his opinion, and the reasons on which it is based.

16. Ordains that the colonial secretary shall regularly record a minute of the council's deliberations, and that the deliberations of a new sitting should not commence before the minutes of the last had been read and approved.

17. Requires the transmission twice a year, through the secretary of state, of an exact copy of the minutes of the council, as recorded during the six months preceding.

18. Ordains that the governor neither propose nor approve of any ordinance relative to the constitution, deliberations, number, or manner of nominating members of the council, or any one of the matters mentioned in his commission, which may be in any way incompatible with that commission and these instructions, or contrary to any act of Parliament, or any Order in Council that is or shall be in force in the Mauritius, and ordains that any ordinance of such sort should be in all respects null and void.

19. Explicitly forbids the proposal or approval of any ordinance by the governor, by which any person may be obstructed in Divine worship that is not according to the rites of the Church of England.

20. Forbids the governor proposing or approving any ordinance by which the revenues of the Crown should be diminished or impaired, the prerogatives injured, or an augmentation or diminution in the number, salary, or appointments of public functionaries should be made (where they have been previously sanctioned), without the special permission of the Crown.

21. Forbids the proposal or approval of any ordinance for the issue of letters of credit, or other bills negotiable on the credit of the colony, or any thing being recognised as fit to be given or received in payment (the money of the realm alone excepted), without the special permission of the Crown.

22. Forbids the proposal or approval of any ordinance, by which persons of African or Indian origin might be subjected to any exclusions or restrictions different from Europeans.

23. Forbids the raising revenue by public or private lotteries.

24. Forbids the governor proposing or approving any ordinance for naturalising strangers; for the divorce of married persons; or for esta-

blishing the right of any stranger on land, or other immoveable property, before his naturalisation.

25. Forbids the governor proposing or approving any ordinance for levying a tax or impost on the commerce or vessels of the United Kingdom, or of foreign countries, or on persons residing or trading for the moment in the colony, from which other persons following like occupations are exempt.

26. Forbids any ordinance for granting money, land, or any other gift to the council, governor, or any of the members.

27. Forbids any particular ordinance whatever affecting the interest of an individual, unless the rights of the Crown be reserved.

28. Forbids any ordinance whatever to which the approbation of the Crown has been once refused, without permission expressly and previously obtained from it.

29. Requires the governor to propose to the council such regulations and forms of deliberation as may be best adapted for the despatch of business, and the prevention of undue precipitation in making ordinances; and requires that, before any ordinance be passed affecting or benefiting individuals, all parties interested should be duly warned, and that a complete and impartial examination may be made of the motives from which such dispositions may be proposed or combated. Gives the governor power also to revoke, with the consent of the council, modify, or renew from time to time, these regulations, and forms, and orders, that immediately on their adoption they should be duly observed in all deliberations.

30. Ordains that all laws made by the council should for the future bear the title of "Ordinances made by the Governor of Mauritius, by and with the advice of the council of Government of the same," and bear no other title or form, and be properly and concisely recorded.

31. Ordains that, when an ordinance shall have passed, it shall be forwarded home for the definite approbation or disapprobation of the Crown. Two copies of each ordinance, duly certified by the public seal of the colony and the signature of the governor, are required to this end to be immediately transmitted through the secretary of state to the Crown. No ordinance shall have effect until the pleasure of the Crown be notified by the governor, and by him transmitted to the inhabitants of the colony, with the single exception of ordinances for raising annual contributions for the service of the colony, or in a case in which the necessary delay for previously communicating with the Crown should produce serious and embarrassing consequences, in which case the governor is authorized with the advice of the council to fix the time on which the ordinance shall have effect, and the secretary of state is instructed to furnish the governor with the details of the decision taken in that respect, and the motive on which it is based. Reserves to the Crown and its successors full power to definitively confirm or disapprove every ordinance made by the governor and council, whether in whole or in part, and such confirmation or disapproval is to be notified to the governor from time to time by the secretary of state. Reserves for the King and his successors, in privy council, full power to amend every ordinance as may be necessary and proper; and every ordinance on which the pleasure of the Crown shall not have been made known three years after its enactment, shall be considered as disapproved, and shall cease to have effect in the colony.

32. Requires the governor to transmit to the president of the court of appeal, for registration in that court, a duly certified copy of every ordinance passed by the governor and council. At the same time a certificate under the privy seal, and stamped with the seal of the governor of every order received by him from the Crown to confirm or disapprove in whole or part, or to amend the clauses of the said ordinance; and the said certificates shall be equally registered in the said court, and shall remain on the registers, that the judges of the said court may take cognizance without other proof of all the ordinances made and promulgated for the good order and government of the colony. The judges of the said court shall have no authority to hinder or delay the registration of ordinances, and their validity shall not depend on their registration.

33. Orders that a complete collection of all ordinances registered in the preceding year be published for general information at the commencement of each year. Requires the regular transmission every six months of a copy of all the minutes of the deliberations of the council through the secretary of state for the information of the Crown.

34. Orders that all ordinances passed by the governor and council should be distinguished by titles; and, moreover, that those of each year be classed numerically, commencing with number one each year, and continuing successively up to the total number of ordinances passed therein, and requires that every ordinance be equally divided in successive articles or paragraphs equally distinguished by numerical figures, and that the margin should contain a summary of its contents; and gives directions for the prevention of errors therein, whether of omission or commission.

35. Gives the governor power under his commission, where necessary, to consult certain members of his council to aid him in cases having reference to the executive government of the colony, and names the officer second in command of the forces, the colonial secretary, the advocate-general, as such executive council.

36. Requires the said members of the said executive council to join in obeying every summons to assemble made by the governor, and to confer with and counsel him on all questions respecting the executive government of the colony that may be submitted to them, provided always two members at least are present at the same time; and requires that the colonial secretary record a distinct minute of their proceedings, two copies of which shall be transmitted twice a year through the secretary of state to the Crown.

37. Authorizes the governor, at his discretion, to act in the exercise of the power entrusted to him by the commission, in opposition to the advice of the executive council; provided, nevertheless, he shall render a detailed account on the first opportunity of every measure of that kind, and the reasons and motives on which it was founded.

38. Authorizes the governor by the said commission to grant, in the name of the Crown, and under the seal of the colony, subject to the reservation of the dispositions contained in the present general instructions to that effect, uncultivated land belonging to the Crown, either to individuals, or to the public in general, and requires the necessary surveys from time to time of wild and uncultivated land belonging to the Crown, and to make a report relative to the land that ought to be reserved for the highways, or for other internal communications by land or water, or as sites for towns, villages, churches, schools or cemeteries,

or to make future enlargements of towns or villages already existing, or to set apart for the recreation or health of the inhabitants of any town or village, or as sites for quays, wharfs, or towing paths that it may be right for the future to construct or re-establish on the banks of navigable rivers, or as places to reserve for some other object of utility, health, and public enjoyment, and specially requires the governor to order the persons making such measurement to particularise in their reports, and to distinguish in charts and plans, which shall be annexed, the sites and portions of land that may appear the most proper for such ends. Strictly requires also that, under no pretext, land that should be reserved as aforesaid shall be occupied by any private individual.

39. Enjoins on the governor not to concede to any private individual, nor to his agents, by any act, more than one hundred acres in all, without the special permission of the Crown previously obtained.

40. Ordains that in every concession of waste land made by the governor in the name of the Crown, in the colony and its dependencies, a condition be introduced to the effect that no part of the land so granted should be cultivated by slave labour, but by free only; and another condition be added, declaring the confiscation of the said lands, and their immediate forfeiture to the Crown, if any slave be employed in the culture, whether by the concessionaire, or by his heirs.

41. Requires a reservation in behalf of the Crown and its successors, of a reasonable and moderate quit rent, unless the Crown otherwise determines by instructions transmitted by the Secretary of State to that effect to the governor.

42. Gives the governor power by this commission, in the name of the Crown, to grant to every person convicted of a crime before the tribunals of the colony, an absolute or conditional pardon; and enjoins in all cases in which the governor shall be addressed for the bestowal of such pardon; and in all cases whatever in which sentence of death shall have been pronounced, that he shall demand of the judge presiding at the process of condemnation a written report of the process, and of the instruction of the said judge, whether the condemnation has been pronounced in a manner conformable to justice, and if a cause exists for the total or partial remission or commutation of the penalty. Strictly enjoins also, that no punishment shall be inflicted that is not authorized by the laws of England, and that the governor shall not remit any fine or confiscation, exceeding the value of fifty livres sterling, without first advising the Crown of the nature of the offence, and of the amount of the proposed remission, but in the interval he is permitted to suspend the payment of the fine or confiscation.

43. Enjoins that all the inhabitants of the colony have full liberty of conscience, and the free exercise of all modes of religion that are not prohibited by the laws, provided that they content themselves with a tranquil and peaceable enjoyment of that liberty, and cause no trouble or scandal.

44. Require all proper measures to be taken for building and maintaining schools, with a view to the instruction of the youth in moral and religious learning. Enjoins the adoption of better means for the propagation of the Christian religion among the negroes, and forbids the governor from proposing or approving any ordinance relative to religion, without its first having had the sanction of the Crown.

45. Gives the governor power by the said commission, under sufficient

cause, to suspend from his functions any officer exercising his employment by virtue of any commission accorded by the Crown, requiring him in such suspension strictly to follow the orders given on the subject in the general instructions, and ordering him to make known by writing to the person whom it is his intention to suspend of his determination, and to invite the said person to communicate to him the reasons and proofs by which he may desire to disculpate himself, and to transmit to the Crown through the Secretary of State, on the first opportunity, both documents.

46. Ordains that all appointments made by the governor shall be only temporary, and until the pleasure of the Crown be known; and requires him to notify to every person who has not been specially and previously indicated by the Crown that his nomination must be considered as provisional until the approbation of the Crown be known.

47. Forbids the governor from returning to Europe under any pretext, without having first obtained the permission of the Crown, under its seal and sign manual, or through the Secretary of State for the Colonies.

(C.)

The most remarkable of the pirates were Avery, Condon, Bowen, Kyd, Halsey, Misson, Caraccioli, White, England, Tew, Williams, North, Pattison, &c. The first of these was a native of Devonshire, and went early to sea. He was appointed previous to the peace of Ryswick mate of a vessel, which with others the Spaniards hired to protect their trade in South America. Avery, having insinuated himself into the confidence of the boldest of the crew, ran off with the ship from the Bay of Corunna, while the captain was intoxicated, and made for Madagascar, first putting the captain, who awoke to find himself deposed and out at sea, on shore. At Madagascar he was joined by two sloops, the crews of which had escaped with them from the East Indies, and were at first alarmed on descrying him, thinking he was in pursuit of them, but were soon undeceived, and sailed in his company for the Arabian and Persian coasts. Near the river Indus they espied a sail, to which they gave chase. The vessel pursued now hoisted Mogul colours, and stood on her defence. Avery contented himself with a distant cannonade, which led his crews to doubt his courage; but the sloops attacking her, the one on her bow, and the other on the quarter, succeeded in boarding her. She then struck her colours, and proved to be one of the Great Mogul's ships, on board of which was one of his daughters, going on a pilgrimage to Mecca, and several of the great personages of the court carrying rich offerings to present at the shrine of Mahomet. From the magnificence with which travelling is conducted in the East, they had all their slaves and attendants with them, and a large number of vessels of gold and silver, with immense sums of money to defray their expenses overland, so that the spoil of the pirates was almost incalculable. They allowed their prize to depart after she had been plundered of every thing valuable. As soon as the Great Mogul received intelligence of this daring action, he threatened to send a large army to extirpate the English from all their settlements in India. The East India Company were greatly alarmed; but pacified him by promising to search for the pirates, and deliver them into his hands. Exaggerated rumours of the

power of the pirates hence also arose in Europe. Meanwhile the latter made the best of their way back to Madagascar, intending to build a fort there, and leave a few of their number to protect the treasure there deposited. The plan was, however, disconcerted by Avery, who sent a boat to each of the sloops, requesting that the chiefs would come on board his ship and confer on the mode of securing the booty; adding, that if either of the sloops should be singly attacked she might not be able to hold out, and might thus be sunk or taken with all the property on board. That, for his part, his ship was strong, well manned, and so swift a sailer that he did not think it possible that any vessel could come near her. Accordingly he proposed that all the treasure should be sealed up in three chests, which should then be put on board his ship, and that each of the captains should have keys, and that the chests should not be opened till all were present, and afterwards lodged in some safe place on land. The proposal appearing reasonable was accepted, and the treasure being deposited in the chests was carried to Avery's ship. The weather being favourable they remained all three in company till the next day, when Avery, tampering with his men, suggested that they had now on board wealth enough to make them all happy, and what should hinder them from making for some country where they were not known, and living all the rest of their days in plenty? The hint being understood, they stole from their companions, and, after selling their own and purchasing another vessel, arrived in America, where Avery, being afraid to dispose of his property, set sail for Ireland. Being induced to entrust his treasure to a merchant, he was in his turn defrauded, and died prematurely from extreme penury, his crew having been dispersed in different directions. In the mean time the sloops, thinking that Avery had outsailed them, held on their course to the place of rendezvous, where, on their arrival, they found out the deception. Their condition was now critical, their provisions were nearly exhausted; and though fish and fowl were to be found upon the coasts, yet they had no salt to cure them. As they could not subsist at sea without salt provisions, they resolved to form an establishment on land, and made tents of the sails. Fortunately they had plenty of ammunition and small arms. Here they were joined by Captains Dew and Tew, who had received a commission from the governor of Bermuda to seize on a French factory at Senegal; but having been disabled by a storm they parted, and Tew, doubling the Cape of Good Hope, met with a large ship richly laden coming from the Indies, and bound for Arabia. Though she had three hundred soldiers on board, besides seamen, yet Tew had the courage to attack her, and soon made her his prize. From this capture each of the crew received 3,000*l*. Informed by the prisoners that five other ships were to pass that way Tew would have attacked them, but was prevented by the remonstrances of his quarter-master, which led to their abandonment of the sea, and their settlement at Madagascar.

Of all the pirates, however, Misson and Caraccioli were the most successful. These men, of whose adventures in the seas around Madagascar and Mauritius we are about to give a brief outline, after having captured a number of rich vessels in the seas of Europe and America, set sail for the southern coast of Madagascar; but having learnt that the European ships bound for Surat touched at the Comoro islands, they agreed to cruise off them, and captured an East Indiaman. Landing at Johanna they entered into an alliance with the natives, from whom they selected

wives, and lent the most effectual aid in the war with Mohilla, another island of the group, which was at length overcome, though not before several of the pirates had fallen victims to the treachery of the Mohillians. Leaving Johanna they set sail for Mozambique, off which they captured a Portuguese ship of sixty guns, after a stout resistance, with 25,000*l.* on board This engagement cost them twenty men, besides twenty-seven wounded. The pirates now made for the north coast of Madagascar, in a capacious bay of which they determined to raise and fortify a small town, construct docks for shipping, and create an asylum, where they might live in peace, and enjoy the fruits of their labours. To assist them in these objects they made a requisition on the queen of Johanna for a number of her subjects, who were granted after much demur, on condition that they should be sent back at a stipulated period. The new settlement was called Libertatia, and the people Liberti, in order that the distinctions of French, English, Dutch, and Africans might be effaced. One of their first aims was to raise a fort on each side of the harbour, which they mounted with the guns taken in their prizes, and raised houses and magazines under their protection. They could now explore a part of the interior, and bring about an amicable intercourse with the natives, which they at last accomplished. When the forts were completed, a part sailed on a cruise off the coast of Zanguebar, where they captured another Portuguese man-of-war, with 200,000*l.* on board, after a fierce and at one time critical engagement. On their return to Madagascar they were joined by Captain Tew, who with a small sloop hoisting a black flag had actually given them chase, despite of their superior force. The new colony was now greatly augmented in number by the prisoners, many of whom joined the pirates, (the rest being sent away in the prizes) by the new reinforcement, as well as by a number of slaves captured in an English slaver by Captain Tew on a cruise off the coast of Guinea. A Dutch East Indiaman was also captured in this voyage. Returning to Libertatia they constructed two vessels of war for examining the neighbouring islands and shoals, visited Mauritius and Bourbon, off the former of which they captured another Dutchman. Misson himself set out with another party for the coast of Arabia Felix, where he captured a Mogul ship of one hundred and ten guns, crowded with pilgrims for Mecca, which with the crew made up one thousand six hundred men, but made a poor defence from its crowded state, and the pirates did not lose a man. They were near being wrecked, however, on their return, but reached Libertatia at length in safety with their prize, which had on board a vast quantity of diamonds, besides rich silks, spices, gold, &c. &c. They had not remained quiet for many days before five Portuguese men-of-war appeared in the bay, and proceeded to the attack of the settlement. As soon as they had recovered from the alarm they made a hasty disposition for resistance, and opened so warm a fire on the Portuguese from the forts that two of their ships were soon sunk, and the others fleeing in confusion were pursued by the pirate, who captured two after a smart engagement. Nor was the new colony free from internal differences, arising from a national quarrel; but these were at length appeased by Caraccioli, and a form of government was drawn up by a council, to which every ten of the inhabitants sent a representative, which was to meet every year, and without which nothing of moment could be conducted. Tew, who was now styled admiral, proposed to this body the building of an arsenal, and the augmentation of their

naval force, which were referred to a future convention. Meanwhile he proposed to take a cruise after East Indiamen, so as to increase their number by volunteers, who would be of more service to them than money. Arriving at the settlement formed by his late crew, he made a signal of his approach, which remained unnoticed; and on his requesting that they would join the colony of Misson, they refused to "put themselves under the power, mild though it might be, of greater rogues than themselves; but if he would proceed to America or Europe, and show the advantage which would accrue to the English by fixing a colony there, out of the love they bore to their country, and to wipe away the odious appellation of pirates, they would submit to any who came with a commission from a lawful government." On returning to his ship, Tew found the sea too high to venture in a boat, and many hours had not elapsed before his vessel parting her cables, was driven ashore on the rocks, and perished in his sight with all his men. At the end of three months, Misson himself arrived, bearing intelligence of an attack on the settlement by the natives, who had come in the dead of night, and made a great slaughter, before they could put themselves in a posture of defence; that Caraccioli (who had died in the action), and he had collected some men, so as to make a stand, and had got off a quantity of diamonds and rough gold with which they had reached the sloop in safety. Tew and Misson having equally shared this wealth, each took the command of a sloop. Misson perished with all his crew in a storm. Tew retired to Rhode Island, desirous of living in quiet, but, urged by his former comrades to take another cruise, he sailed for the Red Sea, and attacked a Moorish ship; in the engagement a shot carried away part of his belly, on which he held his bowels in his hands for some small space. When he dropped, his crew were so terror-struck that they were taken without any resistance.

Another leader of the pirates, Captain England, after a series of adventures in the Atlantic, &c., set sail for Madagascar, where having victualled, he made for the coast of Malabar. Soon after he captured two Indiamen and a Dutchman, who exchanging the latter for one of his own, he again directed his course to Madagascar. As soon as they had landed, one party was sent to hunt for venison, &c., and another in search of Avery's crew, which they thought had settled in that part of the island, but to no purpose. In steering their course for Johanna, they fell in with two Indiamen and an Ostender, which they captured after a desperate action. Captain Mackra, the commander of one of these vessels had agreed with his companions to attack the pirates, if they would assist him, but as soon as the action commenced both basely stood aloof, and left him engaged with these barbarous and inhuman enemies, with their black flag hanging over him, and in danger of being cut to pieces. The vessels on both sides were reduced to mere hulks. Captain Mackra succeeded in escaping into the interior of the island, but finding himself destitute of everything, he gave himself up to the pirates under a promise of safety, and was generously treated by England, whom he knew; his ship with part of its cargo was restored, and he was suffered to depart, though not without the murmurs of the crew, who were eager for his death in revenge for the slaughter he had made of their companions, nearly one hundred of whom had fallen, while Mackra had only thirteen killed and twenty-four wounded. The generosity of Captain England, however, proved fatal to his authority, for the crew deeming such kindness inconsistent with the

piratical life, circulated a report that Mackra was coming against them with the Company's force. The result was that England was deprived of the command, and put on shore with three others at the Mauritius. Here they might have lived in comfort and plenty on the deer and hogs with which the island abounded, but being dissatisfied with their solitude, they formed a small boat, and sailed to Madagascar, where they subsisted on the generosity of some more fortunate piratical companions. Captain Taylor being now commander in the room of England, detained some of Mackra's officers, and after repairing his vessel, set sail for India. The day before he made land, he espied two ships to the eastward, and supposing that they were English, ordered one of these officers to communicate to him the private signals between the Company's ships, swearing that he would cut him to pieces, if he refused, but the poor man was compelled to endure these threats, being unable to give the information. Arriving at the vessels, they found them to be two Moorish ships laden with horses. The pirates brought the merchants and captains on board, and tortured them in a most barbarous manner to make them tell where the treasure was hid. They were, however, disappointed, and the next morning discovering land, saw a fleet on shore plying to windward, so that they knew not how to dispose of their prizes. To let them go would lead to their discovery, and defeat the design of their voyage, and it was grievous to sink men and horses, so they brought to an anchor, threw all the sails overboard, and cut one of the masts half through. While they lay at anchor, and were taking in water, one of this fleet moved towards them with English colours, and was answered by the pirate with a red ensign, but they did not hail each other. At night, leaving the Muscat ships, they sailed after the fleet in the midst of which they soon were, but finding its great superiority, were at a loss what to adopt, for their ship being leaky and their hands reduced, it obliged them to elude the squadron, they therefore burnt one galley, and seized on a ship laden with cotton, whose crew they put to the rack to extort a confession concerning the fleet, and afterwards put in an open boat without provisions to shift for themselves. The fleet they had seen the day before was the Bombay fleet returning from an attack on Angria the pirate, but as the orders of the commander did not extend beyond, he had refrained from attacking them, at which the Government of Bombay was greatly indignant, and superseding him, gave the command to Captain Mackra to pursue them, wherever they should be found. The pirates now cruised off the coast of Goa, and were engaged in several daring and cruel adventures, after which they resolved to visit the Dutch at Cochin, off which they took a vessel, whose captain being intoxicated, informed them of the expedition of Captain Mackra, at which news they displayed the utmost fury, saying he deserved hanging for his ingratitude, and were near murdering his officers, who were still their prisoners. Proceeding to Calicut, they attempted to cut a ship out of the harbour, but were prevented by some guns, which were placed on the shore. One of the captive officers being on deck at this time, was ordered by the captain to bend the braces on the booms, so that a shot might carry him off, and when he excused himself, he was unmercifully beat by the quarter-master. The pirates met with a hearty welcome from the infamous Dutch governor at Cochin, with whom they exchanged presents. Steering to the south, they were, chased by five large ships, which on their first alarm they took for the English squadron, but having greatly outsailed them, they gave up several days to feasting and re-

joicing, in consequence of which their provisions ran short, and they were nearly starved before they reached the Mauritius, where having refitted their ships, they left for Madagascar. Calling at Bourbon on their way, they captured a Portuguese vessel of seventy guns, after which receiving intelligence that a vessel had been seen to the leeward of the island, they pursued and captured her, after this they sent her with some of their own men on board to Madagascar to inform their friends there of their success, and to prepare masts for the prize, &c., while they followed in the other with two thousand negroes they had captured. The Ostender, however, taking advantage of the intoxication of the crew, rose up against them, and carried the ship into Mosambique. The remaining pirates now shared the plunder, receiving forty-two diamonds a man. Content with their lot, and unwilling again to risk their lives, some remained at Madagascar, it having been agreed that the longest livers should enjoy the booty. One ship was now burnt, and another, Taylor took the command of, and with the Portuguese prize, sailed to the Indies, where hearing that four men-of-war had been sent after them, they sailed for the east coast of Africa, wishing to be quiet for a time. They had not landed, however, before they were attacked by a Dutch fort, which they destroyed, and enlisted some of the men into their service. Here they continued for four months, refitting their vessels, and amusing themselves, and then returned to Madagascar, when the greater number abandoned piracy, and the rest sailed elsewhere.

Perhaps the most notorious of all the pirates was Captain Kyd, who highly distinguished himself in the command of a privateer in the West Indies, and was recommended to the Government of William III., as a proper person to be employed against the pirates, and received a royal commission which authorized him to bring them to justice wherever he should meet them, but that he should not molest the friends or allies of the king. After a cruise in the Atlantic, he bent his course for Madagascar, then the known rendezvous of pirates, and acquainted Commodore Warren, whom he met with three men-of-war, of his design. The pirates happening to be in search of prey, were absent from the island, so that after victualling his ship he sailed for the coast of Malabar, between which and the Comoro Islands he sailed two or three times. His provisions wasting every day, and his ship wanting repairs, he borrowed money of a Frenchman at Johanna, who had lost his ship, and effected that object. Having as yet no idea of turning pirate, he suffered several Indiamen richly laden to pass him without hurt, but in a cruise in the Red Sea, he took some corn from the natives by force, soon after which he opened himself to his crew, and gave them to understand that he intended to change his measures, and attack the Mocha fleet, which would make their fortunes, and sent a boat to reconnoitre, which brought back news of fourteen or fifteen ships of different nations. Thus did this man, who at first meant well, when he had hopes of making his fortune by the capture of pirates, growing weary of ill success, and fearing dismissal by his owners, turn pirate at last. The approach of the Moorish fleet being announced by the man at the mast head as convoyed by an English and Dutch man-of-war, Kyd ran in the midst of it, but the latter bearing down upon him, he was obliged to sheer off. He next cruised off the coasts of India, and took a Moorish vessel, detaining the master and another as his pilot and interpreter, and beat the crew to force them to discover hidden treasure, which not having, he took other spoil. When he

arrived in India, his ship was boarded by officers, who had suspicion of his proceedings, but by concealing his "détenus" he passed muster. Soon after he had a spirited action with a Portuguese man-of-war, from which he escaped. Coming up afterwards with a Moorish ship, he was hailed by a Frenchman on board, on which he seized the ship and cargo as that of a French ship, against which he had a commission. He seemed, however, to be subject to some fears for his proceedings, for meeting with a Dutch ship shortly after, he would not attack it, which greatly displeased the crew, whom he could scarcely restrain from mutiny, and killed one of them in his passion. His penitence did not last long, for he plundered all he met on the Malabar coast, and when he reached one of the islands to victual, one of his men being murdered by the natives, he landed, and burnt, and pillaged every thing he came near; then putting to sea, he captured a Moorish ship of four hundred tons, richly laden, and received 8,000*l.* as his own share, giving 200*l.* to each of the crew. The Indians along the coast came on board, and entering into traffic, Kyd behaved fairly at first, but when he had no further need of them, he took their goods without payment, which they the less expected, as other pirates had acted fairly, and scorned to rob, but in their own way. Kyd now sailed for Madagascar, where he was met by several of the pirates, who, thinking he was sent to hang them, were greatly alarmed, but Kyd soon dissipated their fears, and fraternised with their commander. He now changed his ship for the prize, and with a diminished crew, sailed to Amboyna, where he was informed that intelligence of his acts had reached England, and that he had been declared a pirate. Hearing, however, that an amnesty had been declared to all pirates, who should surrender themselves before the end of April, 1699, he sailed for New York, where he was seized, and sent to England, and being found guilty, was executed (Avery and Kyd being excepted from the amnesty) with a number of his men.

Some were compelled by the force of circumstances to turn pirates, as White, who was taken in a merchant vessel in the Caribbean Sea by a French pirate, who killed several of the crew, and would have murdered him, but killed one of his own crew by mistake, he being asleep in the place where White (whom he had previously warned) had lain. After a cruise on the coast of Guinea this pirate bent his course for Madagascar, where, being mad with liquor, the crew knocked their ship on the head at the south end of the island. When the ship struck, Captain White got into the long boat and contrived to paddle to St. Augustin's Bay, where they were kindly received by the king, at whose expense they staid a year and a half, as he was accustomed to act thus towards all white men who were driven on the coast, not knowing the difference between merchants and pirates. He obliged them, however, to embark on board a piratical vessel which put in, and they steered for the coast of Persia (the Frenchmen being left on the island on account of their cruelty were afterwards set upon by the natives, and some were killed, and the rest enslaved), where they took a vessel full of bale-goods, which they threw overboard in the search for gold that they did not succeed in finding, the gold having been concealed in the bales. Leaving for Mayotta they there refitted, and returned to Madagascar, where they came up with a vessel laden with liquors for sale to the pirate. The captain of the vessel was on his guard against them; but, by a boldly concerted stratagem, they made themselves masters of his ship after

some resistance. After they had augmented their numbers they sailed to St. Mary's, and proceeded to Mathelage, where they repaired their vessels. Here having made attempts on a slaver they were driven by it ashore, and having decoyed its captain on shore (who being young and inconsiderate had felicitated himself on being mentioned at "Change" as having run the pirates aground), and having bribed one of the crew to wet the powder, they took the ship with their two boats, and the captain, to whom they gave one of their own ships to convey himself to Johanna, died of chagrin on his arrival. The pirates now sailed for St. Augustin's Bay, where they again increased their numbers, and touched at Zanguebar for fresh provisions, where an ambush being laid for them by the Arabs, the captain and twenty of the men were killed, the rest escaping through the fire of the fort. Sailing to the mouth of the Red Sea they fell in with thirteen sail of Moorish ships, which they for a time followed, but at last boarded the sternmost ship, and shared 500*l.* per man. They now sailed for the Malabar coast, leaving White at Mathelage, where he lived on shore with the king, not being able to get off the island till another pirate ship arrived, in which he entered as quarter-master, rather than be left with the natives. While he went on shore, however, to fetch some of the crew, the ship was blown out to sea, and he sought her in vain for several months, passing through a variety of adventures. Being averse to settling in Madagascar he bought a boat of his comrades, and with it shortly after seized a French ship of fifty tons, which he thought would not be considered piracy, as the French and English were then engaged in war. He next touched at Bourbon on his way to Madagascar, where he added to his crew. From thence he shaped his course for Mayotta, repaired his ship there, and steered for the Red Sea. While waiting for the Mocha fleet they captured two grabs laden with provisions, &c. Afterwards spying a lofty ship, which proved a Dutchman, they gave chase; but finding her too strong for them they sheered off. A few days after they took a large Mocha ship of one thousand tons and six hundred men, from which they received 2,000*l.* per man, but damaged their own so much that they could no longer use her, and filling her with their prisoners sent her adrift. Some days after they met a Portuguese man-of-war, which they chased, but could not take; afterwards falling in with a Portuguese merchantman they chased her under English colours, and surprized her, as the captain took them for an Indiaman, and did not sail away, but sent his boats' crew with a present, whom they detained, while a party rushed on the vessel and fired on the Portuguese, who asking if war had broken out between Great Britain and Portugal, they answered in the affirmative. Two days after they took another Moorish ship and a large sum of money, and the day after fell in with a ketch, which they also plundered, and then returned to Madagascar. They next proceeded to Bourbon, where they went ashore with their booty, and took in fresh provisions. Returning to Madagascar they settled there, and White had under his command one hundred whites and one thousand negroes; but being seized with a flux he made his will, leaving several legacies, and named three men of different nations as guardians to a son he had by a native woman, requiring that he should be sent to England to be brought up in the Christian religion, in the hope that he might live a better life than his father, which was faithfully performed.

We now come to Bowen, who, having captured several vessels, and

gained great booty on the coast of Malabar, was driven on St. Thomas's reef at Mauritius, by an adverse wind in his passage to Madagascar, where the ship was lost, but the crew got safe on shore. They met here with a joyful welcome. Bowen was complimented in a particular manner by the Dutch governor, and splendidly entertained at his house. The sick were carried into the fort with great care, and cured by his doctor. They spent three months here; then buying a sloop, converted it into a brigantine, and left for Madagascar, taking a formal leave of the governor, to whom they gave two thousand five hundred pieces of eight, with the wreck of the ship and its guns, stores, &c. The governor in return supplied them with every sort of necessaries, invited them to make that isle a place of refreshment again, promising that they should want for nothing he could afford. Arriving at Madagascar they put in at Maritan on the east coast, and settled themselves on a fruitful plain by the side of a river, where they built two forts—one to protect them from the natives, the other from a surprise by sea—and a little town, which they finished, by the help of the natives in a year. At length, becoming dissatisfied with their situation, and having a hankering after their old pursuits, they fitted up the brigantine; but a vessel of the Scotch African Company putting in at Maritan with a brigantine engaged for carrying negroes to Bourbon from St. Mary's, they surprised her when the officers had gone on shore, and sailed for Bourbon, where revictualling the ship they sailed for Mauritius. Though they espied four or five vessels in the north-west harbour, they did not attempt to cut them out, but returned to Port Dauphin. Here they were informed by the negroes of the vicinity of another gang, to whom they went, and concluded an alliance, after which they steered for Johanna, and captured the *Pembroke* East Indiaman, and subsequently a rich Moorish ship bound from Mocha to Surat. From thence they sailed back to the Mauritius, where they remained for some time, living in their usual extravagant manner.

Captain Halsey was an American pirate, who, after several adventures in the Atlantic, sailed for Madagascar, where he refreshed his crew. This pirate failed in an attack upon a Dutch man-of-war of sixty guns, but captured an East Indiaman off the Nicobar Isles. A dispute here arose, which separated them; one of the ships steering for Madagascar, the other for the Straits of Malacca. The first failed in several conflicts, and was chased by the *Albemarle* East Indiaman. Returning to Madagascar to refresh, they set out on new adventures, put in at Bourbon on their way, and making a present to the governor were supplied with provisions. They then sailed for Johanna and the Red Sea, where they were nearly captured by the Mocha fleet. Soon after they had a warm engagement with four English vessels, one of which they captured, though it was sent out to look after pirates. They next took the *Essex*, and with it 40,000*l* in money, and returning to Madagascar shared the booty. The whole of the ships being lost in a huricane, they took a slaver that had put in by stratagem. Soon after, Halsey died of a fever, and was buried with great solemnity, the prayers of the Church of England being read over him, and colours displayed. His sword and pistols were also laid on his coffin. He was brave, courteous to his prisoners, and regretted by his men.

Captain Condent, after a number of adventures in the Atlantic, made for Madagascar, and took the *Cassandra* East Indiaman at Johanna, and

a Portuguese vessel off Bourbon, afterwards settled at Madagascar, from whence he sent to solicit an amnesty from the governor of Bourbon, which the latter promised to grant if the pirates would burn their ships; which agreeing to do, Condent proceeded to Bourbon, and at length married the sister-in-law of the governor.

St. Pierre relates a singular instance of the anomalous position of the pirates in reference to the governments of the French islands in the seventeenth century. "The governor of Bourbon," says he, "was very circumspect in his conduct towards the pirates. It so happened that the viceroy of Goa came to an anchor in the road of St. Denis, and was invited to dinner by the governor; but he had no sooner landed than a piratical vessel of fifty guns moored alongside, and took possession of it. The captain then came on shore, invited himself to dine with the governor, placed himself at table between him and the viceroy, and informed the latter that he was his prisoner. When the wine and good cheer had put the pirate in good humour, M. Desforges, the governor, demanded at what sum he would fix the ransom of the viceroy. "I must have," replied the pirate, "a thousand piastres." "That is too little," replied M. Desforges, "for a brave man like you, and a man of rank like him; demand more, or nothing." "Well, then," said the generous corsair, "I give him his liberty!" The viceroy immediately re-embarked, and set sail, equally grateful for the address of the governor and the liberality of the pirate. This adventurer afterwards settled on the island; but having failed to get himself included in an amnesty which had been published in favour of his companions, he was hung. This was done through the agency of one of the colonial council, who was desirous of appropriating his property to his own use; but this informer came to as wretched an end shortly after.

In 1722 Commodore Matthews was sent in search of the pirates, and found they had deserted St. Mary's and the adjacent parts, leaving behind the marks of their spoil, pepper being in some places a foot deep on the ground. The commodore proceeded with his squadron to the main island; but the pirates had carried their ships into rivers and creeks out of the reach of men-of-war, and to burn them with the boats would have been impracticable, since they could have harassed their crews from the woods. The commodore conferred with some of their number, but they stood on their guard, ready to defend themselves in case of an attack. The squadron then returned to Bombay, while the pirates had now eleven sail and more than one thousand five hundred men, and had fortified themselves at Mauritius, Madagascar, and Johanna. Their final overthrow has been elsewhere recorded; we shall, therefore, content ourselves with observing, that a large part of their number settled at Madagascar, where their alliance was much courted by the native powers, as the party they joined was always successful; for the natives being ignorant of the use of fire-arms, the presence of a few pirates would put a whole opposing army to flight. By this means they soon became very formidable, as the prisoners taken in war they employed in cultivating the ground, and married the most beautiful women. After a time they separated from one another, each choosing a convenient place, where they lived in a semi-princely style with their wives, slaves, and dependants. Nor was it long before quarrels arose, in which they attacked each other, and many perished. Their barbarous treatment of the negroes whom they tied to a tree and shot for the least

offence had near brought destruction on them, had not a negress, who was partial to them, ran twenty miles to warn them of the danger; when the negroes therefore approached, they were prepared for resistance. Their escape, however, made them more cautious, and led them to adopt a different policy. When there was no war they fomented private discord, and taught the natives to wreak their vengeance against each other and surprise their opponents, furnishing them with fire-arms that they might more expeditiously despatch them. The murderers then flew to them for protection, with their wives and children, and they became their true friends, from interest, as their safety depended on them, which rendered the pirates so formidable that none of the negro princes dared to attack them in open war. In a short time each chief had his party greatly increased, and they divided like so many tribes, in order to find ground to cultivate, and proper sites for building places of safety, and used every precaution to prevent the possibility of danger, either from the negroes or one another. As a proof of the fears of these tyrants, they selected a spot overgrown with wood near a river, and raised a rampart and ditch round it so strait and steep that it was impossible to climb it but by scaling ladders. Over the ditch there was a passage into the wood. The dwelling was built in that part of the wood the pirates thought most secure, but so covered that it could not be seen till one came near it. The greatest ingenuity was, however, displayed in the construction of the passage that led to the hut, which was so narrow that but one person could traverse it at a time, and so intricate as to be a perfect labyrinth, the way going round and round, with several small crossways. Along the side of these paths large thorns were stuck into the ground with their points outwards; and the path itself being serpentine, if an attempt had been made to approach the hut at night, the person would have fallen on this fence. Thus, dreading and dreaded by all, they were found by an Englishman several years after piracy had ceased, and twenty-five years after their first settlement. At this time only eleven of the original stock were alive, but there was a numerous offspring of children and grandchildren. Others settled at Bourbon and Mauritius, having obtained pardon of the king of France, whither they brought considerable fortunes, and some were alive at the former in 1763. Their descendants were numerous in Bourbon. No men, however, suffered to a greater extent the punishment of their crimes, the majority perished long before they had reached the meridian of life, either by excesses with the native women, or with the liquors to which they had unlimited access, and few died a natural death. It must not be concluded, however, that the dispositions of all were equally cruel with that of Captain North's, who having taken the king of Johanna prisoner, on the false pretence that he had poisoned some of his crew, made him pay a large ransom, and slew an immense number of natives who had come to rescue him. Some were even ashamed of their past conduct, and sent their children home to be properly brought up. It is certain that there would have been fewer pirates had there been fewer receivers of stolen property, and still less had the British Government of those days proved as zealous as they were in duty bound to be. The fact was, the ships of other nations faring worse with the pirates than British ships, it had the effect of increasing the carrying trade of England, which rendered the nation indifferent to occasional piracy.

D.

We have deemed it in keeping with that impartiality, from which we trust we shall on no occasion be found to have deviated, to present to the reader the statements of both parties with respect to the felonious importation of slaves into the Mauritius, by which so unusual an interest was awakened in Great Britain at the time it was agitated, and which eventuated in fixing a stigma on the colony, which is not yet completely effaced; but we should be shrinking from a duty, which, painful as it may be, is nevertheless plainly ours, did we fail to state it as our firm conviction, that the apology set forth by the advocate of the planter, formidable as its arguments may numerically appear in their bearing upon the fact sought to be established (and that they are to a certain extent satisfactory is beyond question) are, nevertheless, insufficient to render his statements conclusive, that the whole, or even the greater part of the increased production could be in that manner accounted for. With respect to the degree, in which the planters in general were involved in these proceedings, it may be stated that few Europeans were found to have been actually engaged therein, though they were, perhaps, open to the charge of having purchased and turned to account the slaves thus illegally imported. The mulattos, who were supposed to have been most actively engaged in this traffic, were incensed beyond measure when accused of it; but suspicions had long existed that they would manifest few scruples, provided they could escape detection by British men-of-war. After the emancipation of the negro, the demand for compensation much exceeded any thing like the sum supposed to be possible. This fact confirmed the suspicion that had lately arisen, and led to an investigation, over which commissioners were specially appointed to preside, who succeeded in gaining information of the crime by means of parties who had been themselves agents in the importation of slaves; but their evidence was clearly offered as a blind to the number actually introduced, and the most superficial observer felt assured that it had been stated at less than one-fifth of the real number, while the period to which the cessation of the trade had been assigned was totally inconsistent with the truth. The objects of the commission being in this manner frustrated by the secrecy and pertinacity of the parties implicated, the planters succeeded in obtaining compensation on claims found too complex for disentanglement. The subject was, however, brought before the attention of both Houses of the Imperial Parliament. Lord Brougham in the Upper House prefaced a motion for papers with a speech, which, from the view it gives of the felonious importation in question, I shall offer no apology for inserting in this place.

"Lord Brougham asked if it were true that there were thirty thousand slaves in the Mauritius, a greater part of whom had been imported thither subsequently to the enactment of a law prohibiting the horrid traffic? Now he wished to know what steps had been taken to ascertain the number of slaves thus illegally imported? and whether any measures had been adopted to render it impossible that any one of these slaves should be taken into account in awarding the share of compensation payable to the proprietors under the late act?"

"Lord Glenelg admitted that the question was very important. He thought he should be able to prove that the greatest difficulties were opposed to the adoption of any measure such as that to which his noble friend had pointed. The difficulties which surrounded the allegation of any particular individual, and the time of his having become a slave, were next to insurmountable. It was true there had been illegal importations into the Mauritius, and no doubt it was a proper subject for inquiry.[1] His noble friend said this illegal system had been pursued to an immense extent. He had no certain means by which he could judge of the number of slaves imported; but there was no question it was a great number, whether exceeding thirty thousand, or not. Now the difficulty lay here, that no illegal importation could be brought home for the last fifteen years, whatever might have before occurred. In 1817, 18, 19, Major-General Hall, and afterwards General Darling, exerted themselves to enforce obedience to the laws, and effectually succeeded in putting an end to the trade; and in 1820 it was found, by those appointed to make investigations, that it had ceased. The treaty with the king of the Ovahs, from whose territories the slaves had been chiefly supplied, was at that time renewed, and yet further obstacles were opposed to a renewal of the traffic. The governor, who succeeded in 1823, took every means to prevent a renewal, and measures equally strong were resorted to in 1826: they must then go back from fifteen to twenty years to prove the crime in question. He spoke under the correction of those more able to give an opinion on the subject; but he might state that a slave in the Mauritius claiming to be free, on the ground of illegal importation, would find it extremely difficult to make out his case. He might go to the Court of Admiralty, and tender his own evidence, which would be received with that suspicion which must always accompany an individual in his own case. With respect to the slave population it was proverbial that there was a confusion and indistinctness in their evidence nowhere else to be found, so that it was scarcely possible to arrive at a just conclusion therefrom. A predecessor of his had commissioned a gentleman to go to the Isle of France and lay open these practices, which was effected at a great expense, and was by no means an agreeable duty to perform.

"By the assistance of individuals, themselves stigmatized for participation in the traffic, it was proved that slaves had been lately imported. These were cases of course most prominent and easy of proof, which it would now be impossible to trace. This was the reason why efforts were not made before to remove the injustice. If Lord Brougham would point out any practicable mode by which this object might be arrived at, he should feel glad. It was not with a view to lessen the interest of the subject, nor from a feeling of indifference that he would observe that those individuals though illegally imported, were not in so miserable a condition as was supposed in this country. If the former act had remained in force, those individuals would not have been in so good a situa-

[1] The risks to be feared in the illicit introduction of slaves appear to have been estimated at the Mauritius at a very low rate; for, notwithstanding the numerous and notorious infractions of the abolition laws in that colony since its capture, not one offender was convicted and punished for slave-trading. A few individuals who were sent over to England for trial were convicted and punished; but none brought to trial for slave-dealing in the colonial courts ever met with the reward of his crimes.

tion as they now were. They worked for seven hours and a half, provisions, lodging, clothing being found by the master, and they remained with him as apprentices till the time the Legislature had pronounced it was proper for the slave to continue so. The specific rules directed to the commissioner would have reached Mauritius in January or February, having been issued last summer, and must have been enforced since that period, thus preventing subsequent interference; though it was much to be regretted that any of those who had been engaged in this traffic should be sharers of the compensation."

"Lord Brougham must say that if we were to pay 500,000*l.* or 600,000*l.* in respect of illegally imported slaves, or in other words for felony and piracy, it would be one of the most hateful operations ever perpetrated in the financial concerns of this country. He had received suggestions, by which means might be found of narrowing the compensation by instituting an inquiry on the spot. These were from persons acquainted with the colony, which he should refer to the Colonial Office in the hope that they would not be discarded, till they were found incapable of producing the effect which their originators anticipated."

"Lord Ripon said that when he was in the Colonial Office he had given his attention to the subject, and the result had been more efficacious than Lord Glenelg supposed, for before his instructions were sent out, upwards of one thousand two hundred individuals were released, how many after he could not tell."

Lord Glenelg.—"I believe five hundred."

Lord Ripon.—"With regard to compensation, if it could be proved that any one had been introduced illegally, he could not be claimed as a slave, never having been one."

In August 1816, Captain Curran of H. M. S. *Tyne*, was sent by Governor Farquhar to visit the coasts of Madagascar, and detect any attempt which might be made to carry on the slade trade. He fell in and captured the day after his departure the English schooner *Gustave*, bound from Madagascar to Mauritius with sixty-four slaves on board. In his visit to the ports of Manivoul, Foule Point, and Tamatave, the three principal resorts of the slave-dealers, he seized and carried into Port Louis three schooners under English colours, on board of which were found powers of attorney to procure slaves through the agency of a great slave-dealer at Tamatave. He next seized a slaver under French colours bound for the Isle of France from the same place with one hundred and thirty-seven slaves on board. He states in his report that it was surprising that such a number could have existed so long, respiring a most suffocating and impure atmosphere in the hold of a small vessel. As soon as daylight rendered objects discernible, a considerable number of the wretched beings were observed thronged together in a compact mass on the centre of the vessel's deck from the impossibility of cramming more below. On their removal many were in a state of extreme debility and emaciation. The same vessel had made a previous attempt to take a cargo of slaves to the Isle of France, but was driven back to Madagascar by stress of weather. The sufferings of the slaves even in this short voyage may be inferred from the following extract of her log:—"Fresh breezes and squally at four; the sea rising, put on the hatches. A.M. more moderate, took off the hatches, found four of the slaves dead, being

suffocated for want of air." The log was full of marks denoting the death of slaves.

ARTICLES 13, 27, 28, 32, 38, 39 OF THE CODE NOIR OF MARCH 1724.

Art. 27. L'esclave qui aura frappé son maître, sa mâitresse, ou leurs enfans, avec contusion ou effusion de sang, ou au visage, sera puni de mort.

Art. 28. Et quant au excès et voies de fait qui seront commis par les esclaves contre les personnes libres, voulons qu'ils soient sévèrement punis même de mort, s'il y échoit.

Art 32. L'esclave fugitive qui aura été en fuite pendant un mois; à compter du jour qui son maître l'aura denoncé à justice, aura les oreilles coupés, et sera marqué d'une fleur de lys sur une épaule, et s'il récedive pendant un autre mois a compter pareillement du jour de la denunciation, il aura la jarret coupé, et il sera marqué d'une fleur de lys sur l'autre épaule, et la troisieme fois il sera puni de mort.

Art. 38. Defendons aussi à tous nos sujets des dits pays de quelque qualité et condition qu'ils soient, de donner ou faire donner de leur autorité privée la question ou torture sous quelque pretexte que ce soit, ni de leur faire ou faire faire aucun mutilation de membre, à peine de confiscation d' esclaves, et d'etre procedé contr'eux extraordinairement; leur permettons seulement lorsqu'ils croiront que leurs esclaves l'auront merité de les faire enchaîner et battre de verge ou de cordes.

Art. 39. Enjoignons aux officiers de justice etablis dans le dit pays de procéder criminellement contre les maîtres et les commandeurs qui auront tué leurs esclaves, ou leur auront mutilé les membres, etant sous leur puissance, ou sous leur direction, et de punir le meurtre selon l'atrocité des circonstances, et au cas qu'il ait lieu à l'absolution leur permettons de renvoyer tant les maîtres que les commandeurs sans qu'ils ayent besoin d'obtenir de nous des lettres de grace.

De par le Roi,
Ordonnances de Monseigneur le Duc de Penthieve, Amiral de France.
Code Noir.

La chaleur de ces climates, la temperature du notre ne permettont pas aux Francois un travail aussi pénible que le defrichement des terres incultes de ces pays brulans, il falloit y suppliér par des hommes accoutumes à l'ardeur du soleil, et à la fatigue la plus extraordinaire. De là l'importation des nêgres de l'Afrique dans nos colonies. De là la necessité de l'esclavage pour soumettre une multitude d'hommes robustes à une petite quantité de Francois transplantes dans ces isles. Et on ne peut disconvenir que l'esclavage dans ce cas n'ait été dicté par la prudence et par la politique la plus sage. Uniquement destinées à la culture de nos colonies, la necessité les y à introduits, cette même necessité les y conserve, et on n'avoit jamais pensé qu'ils venissent trainer leurs chaines jusqu'au sein du royaume.

Code Noir, page 290.

Defendons aux esclaves appartenans à differens maîtres de s'attrouper le jour ou la nuit à peine de punition corporelle, que ne pourra être moins que du fouet et de la fleur de lys, et en cas de frequentes récedives et autres circonstances aggravantes, pourront être punis de mort; ce que nous laissons à l'arbitrage des juges.

E.

M. Laplace, in his "Voyage au Tour du Monde," thus describes the female creoles of the Mauritius, between the ladies of European origin and whom there existed feelings of the intensest hatred and jealousy. "They have in general a slender, graceful, and voluptuous figure, beautiful eyes, delicate features; in fine, a piquant physiognomy, which assured them an empire over the men, and this success very often excited with reason the complaints of their European rivals, whose husbands they frequently ruined, or whose suitors they enticed away. The injury was not unattended by punishment, and the pretty mulatto accused of an insolent look or gesture by her irritated enemy often suffered an ignominious chastisement, and the creole slave, in despite of the law in her favour, was rarely able to obtain her liberty at any price. The change of masters brought a very different order of things; the creole, favoured by the new government, profited thereby to revenge themselves on their old mistresses, whose costume and habits they lost no time in assuming. To the modest robe of Indian cotton, so gracefully folded round the head, now succeeded the rich stuffs and hats of Paris; their pretty feet, yesterday bare, were now imprisoned in European shoes, and the new 'elegantes,' descending into the 'salle de spectacle,' from which custom had formerly banished them, came, and impudently placed themselves in the first seats, and rivalled in luxury and the toilette the first women in the colony.

"The latter, humiliated by an equality so wounding to their prejudices, no longer appeared at the promenades or public places, &c. but abandoned them entirely to the mulattoes.

"The men, who had relations with both parties, for a long time kept up a neutrality, but alarmed at last by the spirit of independence and insolence which had of late made great progress among the slaves, and at the laws carried into force by the Government, were anxious to defend their privileges. Physical resistance was impossible; a moral opposition was therefore determined on. The English and their partizans were expelled from French society, whose animosity was kindled, politics and recrimination becoming the only subjects of conversation, and though a few were disobedient to this cordon of caste, the number of deserters was extremely rare."

Of the white ladies M. Laplace thus speaks.—"The ladies of the Isle of France enjoy a just reputation for beauty both in Europe and the Indies, they are pretty, graceful, with a charming figure, their disposition is lively, and gay, which is in some cases joined to a careful education. Without doubt they owe these advantages to the European blood that runs in their veins, and it is partly from the same source that the creoles derive their gift of pleasing."

The following is a specimen of the creole version of Le Martin and Le Singe, by M. Crétien.

Moussié Martin ein 'zour la haut di-bois
Dans son la-bousse eté gard' ein bibasse;
Comper Zaco par là rodé quélqu' fois
Ca zour là même eté vini là-sasse,
'Li trous' Martin; "Salam donc mon Zami.
Comment vous—là zoli zourdi,
Qui c' ella frotté vou—l'habit

Moi parié vous va fair 'mariaze
Ou bien vous va dansé dans petit badinaze;
Ma foi si vou la-voix bell' comment vou-faro
Zaut 'n 'a pas largué vous sitôt!"
Martin avalé ça comment dir' confitire
Li vir son li-zié, li dréss son figuire
Ein coup là li voulé çauté,
La bousse—ouvert bibass' tombé
Comper' Zaco li remassé;
Merci, coco ça-mêm' moi té voulé:
Tendé pourtant encore ein' mon parole
Vous vié-mais vous besoin l'école!
"Ca qui son la bouss', li trop doux
Ein' zour li capabl' trompé vous."
Bon zour, papa, bibass' li gôut!

F.

The erection of the Mauritius into a bishop's see is, while I am writing, in agitation by the committee, on whom has devolved the consideration of the subject. Though the number of members of the church of England is very small, yet I apprehend, as such a sphere would be almost entirely of a missionary character, that in no part of the British dominions is an episcopate more urgently called for.

G.

Ascent of the Peter Botte Mountain.

The attempt was first made in 1831 by Captain Lloyd, who succeeded in reaching the shoulder of the mountain. It is reported that some daring Frenchman once reached the summit; but this is only believed by his own countrymen, who say that he even made a hole for a flag-staff on the rock. The Peter Botte is situated on the north-west part of the island, and rises over the town of St. Louis in a remarkable peak to the height of more than one thousand eight hundred feet from the principal group of mountains in the island. It appears from the anchorage ready to precipitate itself on the town, the sides of the cone, which forms the summit, being nearly perpendicular. A party, consisting of Captain Lloyd the surveyor-general, Lieutenant Phillpotts of the 29th regiment, Lieutenant Taylor, Mr. Keppel, and some sepoys and negroes employed in carrying the baggage, bent on achieving the project of climbing its summit, made preparation in the way of provisions sufficient to last for two or three days, and procuring a carriage, a tent, scaling-ladder, crow-bar, ropes, &c., set out from St. Louis, determined, if it could be done, to plant the British flag on the lofty peak of Peter Botte. The house of a Frenchman, situated on the plain beneath the mountain, received them for the night, and gave them the opportunity of mustering their whole force. Whether from the attacks of those abominable disturbers of repose so prevalent in the houses of the colony, or whether from the thoughts of their expedition, few of them got much rest in the night, and all gladly sallied forth the next morning on their enterprise. The track they were obliged to follow lay through a ravine, which had formed the bed of an impetuous torrent in the rainy season, and its steep ascent, added to the loose fragments of rocks that gave way under their feet, rendered it a difficult and dangerous part of their road. The

dislodged fragments of stones, which rolled down as they were displaced, threatened destruction to those beneath them, and one or two of the party narrowly escaped. Having scrambled up this ravine as well as they could, they had next to keep in a narrow ridge along the face of the mountain, holding on by the brushwood, the rock on one side rising above their heads as steep as a wall, and on the other a precipice of nearly one thousand feet, with the tops of the trees ready to receive them if they fell. They soon gained the shoulder of the mountain, where they found the ladder that had been left the preceding year by Captain Lloyd, and enjoyed a view which no language can describe. The part on which they stood was a narrow neck of the mountain, not more than a few yards in length, and about two paces across; behind was the deep ravine, up which they had passed, and before them a precipice of one thousand five hundred feet, terminated by the plain. On one hand, the neck ended in another precipice nearly as abrupt as that before them; and on the other, a narrow ridge of rock, terminating in a wedge-like form, extended some three or four hundred feet over their heads, on the top of which rested the huge pinnacle of the Peter Botte, and there lay their road. They had pretty good proof before them that their task was only begun, and that the most difficult had yet to be achieved. It was a grand and awful sight to look down on the pigmy objects beneath them, and no less so to contemplate the Peter Botte towering majestically above them. To have mounted this summit without the aid of ropes would have been impossible, accordingly they were now put into requisition. One of the negroes immediately mounted the ladder, which rested on a narrow ledge not twice its width; and, having previously fastened a line round his middle, commenced his dangerous climb over it, for the ladder was not more than twelve feet high, as it rested against the ridge. Had he trusted to a loose stone, or taken one false hold, he would in all probability have been dashed to atoms in the fall down the precipice. However, the dexterity belonging to his class carried him safely on, and after a short time they heard the welcome sound of "all right" from under the pinnacle. His duty was to make fast the line to a part of the rock which he had attained, and by means of it they scrambled up to him one after the other. This was really an awful operation. The steep ridge, up which they were thus climbing, was in some places not a foot across; and as they held on by the rope it would have been easy to have pitched a biscuit on to the plain on one side, and down into the ravine on the other, both at a frightful depth below them. They had now arrived under the mass of rock which forms the pinnacle of the mountain, and a curious one it was. In the first place, it is in itself about thirty-five feet high, overhanging its base on every side. It is merely surrounded by a sort of platform rock, a few feet in width, which is terminated on all sides by the precipice, except where it is joined to the ridge up which they climbed. They had yet to gain the summit of the pinnacle rock, the object of all their trouble, and they proceeded to concert measures for effecting this by means of the ladder and ropes, which were speedily got up the ridge. On surveying the pinnacle they found that, though it overhung its base so considerably, yet in one part opposite to the ridge it did not overreach the precipice, and here was their only chance of scaling it. But to fix their ladder puzzled them not a little. Captain Lloyd had prepared, however, for this difficulty, and had recourse to an experiment.

Having provided himself with some arrows, with thongs fastened to them, his plan was to fire one from a gun over the pinnacle, and its flight being arrested by the thong it would fall on the opposite side. Having made fast then a line round his own body as they held on the line, he leaned backwards from the precipice, and fired the arrow over the last projecting part of the pinnacle. This was nervous work, for had the line broken he would have had a clear fall of one thousand eight hundred feet. The experiment failed twice, and was given over, and he endeavoured to throw a large stone over the pinnacle, fastened to the end of a line, on the principle of heaving the lead, which seemed to promise success. His dexterity succeeded after several trials, and the stone with the line fastened to it hung down on the opposite side of the pinnacle. The joy which this occasioned was quite laughable. "One would have imagined," says one of them, "that our very lives depended on it, instead of the discredit of returning from a failure." But their point was gained, and they had now only to proceed with caution. A stronger line was fastened to the one lying over the pinnacle, and carefully drawn up it, and to the end of this a good stout rope was hauled across, by means of which a rope-ladder was hung securely from the top ready for them to mount, which was done by Captain Lloyd, followed by the rest of the party. No schoolboy ever yet succeeded in gaining the dangerous top of a tree in search of a bird's nest with greater glee than theirs on arriving at the top of the pinnacle, and the reward they had from it in the splendid view around was well worth all the risk and trouble they had undergone. The British flag soon fluttered on the breeze from a boat-hook fixed in the rock. No sooner was it unfurled than it was saluted by the guns of the *Undaunted* frigate lying in the bay. They returned the salute as well as their limited number of fire-arms permitted, and having got up a bottle of wine christened the rock "King William's Peak," drinking his majesty's health, and giving three hearty cheers for their success, which were responded to by the negroes on the shoulder or platform beneath the pinnacle. As they determined on passing the night on the peak, great coats, blankets, and a stock of brandy and cigars were carefully conveyed to the top, when they bethought themselves of dinner, which was preparing for them on the platform below. Having finished their repast, and the dusk of the evening gradually coming over them, they again mounted to their nest on the peak, taking with them a little wood to make a fire. This done they began to nestle down into their places for the night, waiting for the appointed hour when they were to make the signal of their success to the town and ships. The prospect beneath them, as they lay enjoying cigars and brandy and water, was of the most magnificent description. The sky was clear, and the moon shone brightly, lighting up the scene around, except where the mountains intercepted her silvery rays, and contrasted their broad dark shadows with her pale light reflected from the objects beneath them. It was a scene on which a romantic mind would dwell with ecstasy.

They were thus enjoying the still and beautiful night on their lofty and isolated perch, when on a sudden a bright flash was observed, followed after an interval by the solemn sound of the evening gun. No sooner was this heard, than up went a rocket from their crow's nest, and soon after they burnt a blue light, the effect of which was beyond description. Then, indeed, did they see in reality by its powerful glare, their truly awful situation. The pinnacle was lit up, and themselves discovered

on its narrow top, a motley group, at which the very birds, frightened from their nests by the uncommon appearance, came screeching around them! and again all was darkness. Again they burnt a blue light, and sent up two more rockets, which expended their store, and they were fain to relapse into the peaceful moonlight. Having completed all their wishes, they were now satisfied, and began to wrap themselves up for the night. But one of the party was a determined sleep walker, an accomplishment, which on this occasion, might have easily proved fatal. To secure him from walking off the pinnacle, they lashed him to the leg of another person, and consigned themselves to rest. Vain attempt! after continually tucking their clothes about them the whole night, daybreak found them awake, cold and stiff, and ready to eat anything that might be set before them. The feat, however, was accomplished, and their care now was to leave visible signs of their success, and to get safe down again. They contrived, after no little labour, to make a hole in the rock in which they slipped a flag-staff with a union jack fastened to it, besides leaving their ladder there with a water barrel lashed to it, as a land-mark for ships to render the Peter Botte still more conspicuous than before!!!

H.

Hurricanes.

The Mauritius is liable to periodical visits of this awful scourge. It is absolutely necessary, says the Abbé Roçhon, to have been an eye-witness of an hurricane, to form a just idea of so formidable a phenomenon. It is generally accompanied by rain, thunder, and earthquakes: the atmosphere is on fire; and the wind blows with equal violence from every part of the horizon. A hurricane is a kind of water-spout, which seems to threaten the spot it hangs over with an entire subversion, while vessels are perhaps becalmed at a small distance from its explosion. If the swiftness of the wind exceeds one hundred and fifty feet in a second, nothing can resist its force: the largest trees are torn up by the roots; the most solid buildings are thrown down; nor can anchors, cables, or the strongest holding-ground secure a vessel, which is in most cases sure to be dashed in pieces on the shore, unless thrown on a bed of mud. An extraordinary variation of the barometer, is the only sign of an approaching hurricane in the seas of the tropics.

Speaking of the hurricane of 1771, he says: "Previous to this, the sudden descent of the mercury filled me with alarm, as well as M. Poivre, who requested a conference with the port captain. That officer, who had been an eye-witness of the hurricane of 1761, was not equally surprised with us at the variation of the barometer, and informed us that there were more certain indications. 'Twenty-four hours,' he said, 'before the hurricane, you will see the black clouds descend from the mountain, and declare the approaching storm; besides the setting of the sun will decide the measures I shall employ on the occasion. But neither the entreaties of M. Poivre nor my observations were capable of changing his opinions; and though the mercury continued to descend as the sun set in great beauty and serenity, the port captain left us perfectly satisfied and free from alarm as to any threatening danger. He had long served on board the company's ships, and seemed to pity us for giving so much importance to the predictions of the barometer. It is very difficult to

soften the obstinacy of the self-styled 'practical man,' who is generally the most impracticable creature under heaven, and knowing but a part of his business, treats with disregard the instructions of theory. The hurricane in this case commenced at seven in the evening, an hour after sunset; before nine, all the ships were driven on shore, with two exceptions, but in a violent gust of wind the former was driven out to sea, and the latter was sunk."

The *Ambulante*, without sails, helm, or provisions, and with a detachment of the Irish regiment of Clare on board, was driven about for upwards of twelve hours at the mercy of the winds; and after being carried by their variation round the island, was miraculously thrown up on the only place where, in such a violent tempest, it would have been possible for those on board to have saved themselves. The horror of these hurricanes is greatly aggravated by the total impossibility of giving or receiving assistance, as the violence of the winds and the force of the torrents render it impracticable for any one to quit the shelter he has sought or the spot where he happens to be at the commencement of the storm. This hurricane lasted eighteen hours without interruption, and with undeviating violence. Neither the heavy rain, thunder, nor lightning were in the least degree interrupted by the violence of the wind. But at three in the afternoon, the mercury, which had descended twenty-five lines, remained some minutes stationary, and then began to reascend: then the tornadoes ceased, the wind became more regular, and at six in the evening it was possible to give some assistance to those who were shipwrecked. From the ravages of this hurricane, the communications between the different parts of the island were altogether interrupted by the fall of trees and the abundance of rain. Three weeks elapsed before any news was heard of the *Ambulante*, which had been wrecked about six leagues from Port Louis. All the harvests were destroyed, and the vessels were in such a state, as to require the utmost exertions to repair them, and when equipped were despatched to Madagascar to fetch provisions and necessaries of every kind. M. Poivre had, with his superior foresight, ordered several vessels to winter at the Cape, which were sent off with abundance of supplies as soon as the disastrous state of the Isle of France had reached that government. This relief saved the colony, as it arrived immediately after the second hurricane, whose fresh devastations had sunk the hope, and conquered the resolution, of the unfortunate inhabitants. The damages sustained by the vessels in the port, from the violence of the waves and the force of the winds, were much less in the second than the first hurricane. The variation of the barometer announced the danger, and every one employed means for security and preservation.

Description by M. Brunel of the Hurricane of April 1773.

"The storm made its appearance about nine at night, just as the moon began to appear on the horizon; but its greatest violence was between eleven and one in the morning, when the blended noise of the wind and thunder was terrible; while the lightnings, which gave a fiery appearance to the atmosphere, heightened the horror of the scene. The terror of the inhabitants did not begin to subside till five o'clock in the morning. They had all passed the night in an impatient state of alarm, but when the day began to appear, the spectacle was most horrible: upwards of

three hundred houses in St. Louis were destroyed, the roofs of all of them were carried away, and the principal church was reduced to a heap of ruins. Many of the inhabitants were buried in the rubbish; others with bruised and broken limbs, solicited the help of their neighbours, who were not in a condition to succour them; while the streets were strewed with nails, timbers, and fragments of houses and furniture. All the vessels in the port, to the number of thirty-two, had been thrown on shore, and more or less injured; of many small boats nothing was seen but the keel; dead bodies were floating among the wrecks; while the seamen who were not yet exhausted were exerting their remaining strength in useless efforts to gain the land. In short, all that presented itself to the view was consternation, disaster, and misery. The interior desolation was equally great; the maize, rice, and corn, were blown about and dispersed; the coffee and cotton plants, the sugar canes and cinnamon trees, were all torn up by the roots; the old timber trees were laid low by the violence of the wind; the shops and manufactories were destroyed; and the grass was parched and dried up, as if it had been burnt by fire. In one of the districts of the island, to the windward, the sea was driven to forty feet beyond its ordinary limits, and compelled the inhabitants to seek for refuge on the neighbouring heights; while it left every kind of fish on the land. This disaster occasioned so great a dearth of provisions, that bread was sold at eighteen pence a pound; in a short time, however, assistance of every kind arrived from the coast of Coromandel, the Cape, Madagascar, and the Persian Gulf."

In the hurricane of February 1818, the signs by which the approach of a great tempest is announced at the Mauritius were invisible. On the day preceding, the mercury of the barometers in St. Louis had twice descended below 28 French inches (29·8 English), but had regained its ordinary level on the 28th; and it was only in the afternoon that the wind set to blowing in land squalls, varying from east-south-east to south-east and south-south-east. The force of the squalls augmented progressively till night; nevertheless few of the inhabitants manifested disquietude. On many occasions at this time of the year the characteristic menaces of tempests had produced a harmless result. The sailors and country people in like manner neglected the precautions usually adopted when they are apprehensive of a hurricane; few vessels strengthened their cables, and none of the planters thought of cutting the stem of the maniocs to save their roots. Night came on, and with it the ravages of the hurricane. The ever increasing force of the wind, and the rapid descent of the mercury in the barometers, left no longer a doubt on the plague, whose terrible effects all were soon to feel. Up to midnight the wind blew from south-south-east to south with extreme violence; about an hour after it blew to the east; early in the morning from north-east to north: the mercury had descended to 26·4 inches (28·00 English), the altitude of the barometers being reduced to that of the sea-level. Never had it been seen so low. Many persons thought their barometers were deranged; others, unable to mistake the cause of the depression, expected some great catastrophe. Happily for the colony that state of the atmosphere was only of short duration. In truth it may be judged by the calamities that happened, what the effect of such a hurricane would have been had it been prolonged for some hours. In passing to the north-west the wind calmed immediately, the mercury ascended with great rapidity, and on the same

day it was possible to communicate with the majority of the vessels anchored in the road, and to afford other relief to those in distress. The "salle de spectacle" is one of the largest edifices in St. Louis: its form is that of a T, whose top is a considerable front building, since the hinder-part, forming the tail of the T, is alone fifty-three feet broad by eighty-two in length. If this edifice had been shattered by the tempest, that result might have been attributed to the manner in which it was constructed; but that which is hardly credible is, that that immense building in the rear, of thirty-four feet, and surmounted by a wooden roof, united besides with the front building, which forms the façade, was nevertheless driven almost five feet on its base. What must, then, have been the prodigious force which could produce the horizontal displacement of such a mass? its overthrow would have been no ordinary phenomena; its translation, if we may employ that term, cannot be accounted for. All the houses with shingle roofs (and that includes the large majority of those in the colony) were inundated within by the rain. It is scarcely possible to imagine the violence and abundance with which it is darted forth horizontally during these tempests. If the hurricane had continued till mid-day, only with the same force, the town would have been a heap of ruins. From the first, to the moment when it had ceased, very many beautiful mansions, intact in appearance, were broken by the roof. Those not overthrown had been carried away piecemeal. Houses covered with platforms, or "argamasses," after the Indian manner, resisted the tempest, and were sheltered from the rain. But no sort of roof sustained this decisive trial better than that constructed according to the process of M. Chaix, viz. bricks joined by a resinous cement. Roofings of slate, copper, and tin, were all in most cases blown off; but the tin has this great advantage over wooden roofs, that it does not cause gutters, and is easy of repair. Formerly the wealthy inhabitants constructed a small building, which served habitually as a place of dependence, but destined, above all, as a refuge in hurricanes. Though it is probable that a similar plague to this may not reappear for some time, it is better to return to that sage precaution—a small, low, pavillon, carefully built of stone, and covered with a flat roof closely bound to the brickwork costs little more than the ordinary ones, and has the double advantage of permanency and security.

I shall add one or two remarks from Reid's "Law of Storms," illustrative of the partial character of these visitations:—

"Storms," says he, "in a southern latitude will be found to revolve in a precisely contrary direction to that in a northern latitude."

"It is well known to seamen that the storms near Madagascar and Mauritius generally begin at south-east and end at north-west."

"The rain that falls during these hurricanes is generally salt, and the rivers run for a day or two after with brackish water."

"In the hurricane of 1824, at the Mauritius," he infers that, "there were local whirlwinds, as it was remarked, that tall, narrow, and decayed buildings, ready to tumble into ruin, escaped at but little distance from new houses that were overturned, or torn to pieces."

Colonel Reid suggests the propriety of having regular meteorological observations made at the three islands of Bourbon, Mauritius, and Rodriguez.

An observatory was formed in 1832 at St. Louis, by Captain Lloyd, the surveyor-general. Since then astronomical, meteorological, and magnetic observations have been made by day and night. For the use of vessels in the road a signal has been established in order to give the true hour twice a week for the regulation of chronometers. Sextants and other nautical instruments are received without charge, and rectified when necessary. Some of the observations have been communicated to the Royal Astronomical Society and the Admiralty, who have enjoined that great care should be devoted to the subject, as the Mauritius, by reason of its isolated situation in the regions of the equator, and its central position in a vast ocean, is one of the most important points in the globe for every sort of observations of this kind. It should be stated, that Captain Lloyd's services are the more praiseworthy from their being gratuitous.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS OF CAPTAIN LLOYD IN 1833—34, AND 1835.

Years.	Barometer.			Thermometer.			Hygrometer.			Pluvio-meter.
	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.	Max.	Min.	Mean.	Max.	Min.	
1833	30·1590	30·3049	30·0239	79·33	81·73	76·87	8·88	17·80	3·65	46 9 5
1834	30·1150	39·3515	29·9869	78·39	81·06	76·21	8·79	16·53	4·16	43 3 6
1835	30·1751	30·2225	30·0215	78·36	80·81	76·32	9·04	16·41	3·84	51 4 4
	90·4491	90·9389	90·0323	26·08	3·60	·140	26·71	49·74	11·65	141 7 5
Mean of 3 years...	30·1497	30·3129	30·0107	78·69	81·20	76·03	8·90	16·58	3·88	47 2 5

The following Table will give the result of observations made in 1831 at St. Louis:—

Months	Thermometer		Barometer.		Prevailing Winds.	Weather.		
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.		Days of Rain.	Rain.	Thun-der.
							Inches.	
January	87	77	30	29	S.E. & N.W.	7, 10, 11, 17, 18	8·47	1
Feb.....	87	79	30	29	do.	7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16	10·19	—
March ..	85	78	30	29	N.W. & S.E.	do.	10·4	3
April ..	85	76	29	29	S.E. & N.W.	Rain and tempests	4·91	6
May....	79	71	30	29	do.	Do. and cloudy	—·85	—
June ..	79	73	30	30	S.E.	Cloudy	·57	—
July....	75	71	30	30	do.	Do., 18, 19, thunder	—·56	—
August	77	72	30	29	do.	1, 2, 5, 6, 15, rain	1·59	—
Sept. ..	79	70	30	29	S.E. & N.W.	2, 3, 6, 9, 20	—·86	—
October	93	73	30	29	S.E. brisk	None	—·86	—
Nov. ..	84	72	30	29	do.	8, 9, 11, 22, 23, rain	—·40	—
Dec.....	96	77	30	29	E. & S.E.	Showery	——	1

The observations with the pendulum made by MM. Freycinet, Duperré, and Lloyd, prove, says the latter, that the oscillations of the pendulum at Mauritius present a singular, and at present an inexplicable anomaly, which it is not possible to reconcile with the received theory on the form of the earth.

VARIATION of the MAGNETIC NEEDLE in different parts of the ISLAND, as observed by Captain LLOYD in 1833, 1835, and 1836.

Date.	Place.	Variation.	Inclination.
1835.			
June 5	Grand Basin	11° 17′ 10·0″	61° 44′ 0″
1836			
May 26.....	Cascard de Chamarel.....	10 15 38·0	55 10 37
June 30.....	Mahébourg, Hurricane Hall	.....	54 2 0
August 26.....	Montagne des Signaux ; the same close by a group of magnetic rocks	.....	46 56 0 58 15 0
September 5	Camisard, at an elevation of 772 feet ..	.....	53 22 0
7	Garden of the Commandant at Mahébourg	11 44 14.0	
9	Pointe du Diable	.....	55 1 0
1833.			
February 12, 14 ..	Variation from the Observatory.....	12 6 58·2	
1835.			
March 3	.....	12 13 44·33	
June 21	.....	.....	
September 21	.....	12 9 37·0	
December 21	.....	11 47 47·0	
1835.			
August 6	Inclination from the Observatory	11 57 15·0	53 58 0
September 21	.....	.....	58 56 0
November 21	.....	.....	56 2 0
December 19	.....	.....	59 2 0
	Mean variation at St. Louis	12 3 4 0	
	Mean inclination	57 21 0 0	

I.

The author had collated a rather detailed account of the plants indigenous to the Isle of France from the German and French botanical works of the last century. The amount of space, however, which would be required, if each branch of science were to be dilated upon in a work of this description, forbids him from carrying out his original design on this occasion at least. He may be allowed perhaps to remark that no English botanical work (and he has searched the most eminent) contains a correct list of the indigenous plants of the Mauritius. The cause is doubtless to be found in the circumstance that a vast number and variety of exotic plants were annually introduced into the island by the French Government or the principal colonists from all parts of the world, whose naturalization becoming in most cases immediate, led subsequently to their being confused with those originally found in the colony. He flatters himself, therefore, that the labour he has devoted to this investigation may be found useful even to the naturalist. In the arrangement of the genera, the author has preferred the Jussiæan to the Linnean system as being less complex, and therefore better understood.

Euphorbiaceæ are a genus of evergreen shrubs, named after Euphorbus, physician to Juba, king of Mauritania, who first used this plant in medicine: it has a number of species, which are natives of Mauritius, and were discovered there by Commerson, viz. Euphorbia à feuilles de Poirier, (pyrifolia), peduncle subumbelled; à feuilles de thym (thymifolia), Tithymalus humilis of Commerson. This noxious plant (which is dichotomous) renders almost sterile the fields it infests; à feuilles d'estragon (dracunlöides), umbell trifid. Splendens, the finest of the genus, grows to the height of four feet, and flowers in June and September, branchlets covered

with straight spines; hypericifolia, found near St. Louis, leaves subvillose underneath: hirta, this species has some resemblance to the preceding. Thesé (Securinega nitida or durissima), is the Otaheite myrtle, so called by Commerson—from *securis*, a hatchet—because the wood was so hard as to be capable of being manufactured into cutting instruments: an evergreen timber tree, flowers in June or July; this species, which grows at Mauritius to the height of forty feet, is one of such varied appearance that it is scarcely possible to assign them a character in common; in cold countries their vegetation is mostly herbaceous; in hot, fruticose. La ricinelle (Acalypha[1] integrifolia), an evergreen shrub, flowers diœcious, of a green colour, and appear in June and September, grows to the height of five feet; à epis filiformis, Acalypha filiformis. Kirganelia[2] virginea, or Phyllanthus casticus, vulgo bois de demoiselle), is a pretty little tree, six or seven feet high, a genus of the chilotydones, but of the family of the Euphorbias: fruit an oval red berry, which finally becomes black. Another species is found: the Croton Mauritanum and aromaticum are both indigenous to the Mauritius. Gluttier à feuilles obtuses (Sapium obtusifolium), leaves cuneiform; discovered by Commerson. To these may be added, Phyllanthe en buisson (dumetosa); found by Commerson at Rodriguez.

To the Meliaceæ belong Turrée à rameaux roides (stricta); Quivi à dix etamines (Quivisia decandria); vulg. bois de quivi; fruit a reddish capsule; à feuilles opposées (oppositifolia); wood of a yellow colour. There is also Quivisia heterophylla, an evergreen shrub with white flowers.

Of the Myrtaceæ are Jambosier à feuilles noirates (Eugenia[3] nigrescens), with coriaceous leaves; en ovale renversée (Eugenia obovata), fruit an oval berry; à feuilles doreés (chrysophyllum), fruit an oval berry; Paniculée (paniculata) vulg. le bois à ecorce blanche, violet (violacea) leaves coriaceous; luisant (lucida), vulg. le bois de cloux, because the wood is solid and at the same time pliant, is used for making palisades; à feuilles de Tin (tinifolia), peduncles uniflowered; elliptique (elliptica), peduncles lateral. The whole of this genus was discovered at the Isle of France by Commerson. To the Myrtaceæ also belongs the Fœtidia Mauritiana, vulg. le bois puant, from the fetid odour of the wood. It grows to the height of twenty-five feet; flowers white; fruit a ligneous nut. The wood is much used in the manufacture of furniture, being excellent timber.

To the Malvaceæ belong the Ketmies,[4] viz. the Hibiscus hybridus, an evergreen shrub ten feet high with scarlet flowers, altogether a splendid plant, blooms in July; genevii, a splendid evergreen shrub, fifteen feet high, with rosy coloured flowers, which appear in June and July; scaber, leaves quinquifid; populneus, leaves cordate; tiliaceus, vulg. baru or daru, (the Malegash give it also this name), it grows by the sea-side, and its bark is employed in making cordage; (this genus are for the most part showy plants, and easy of cultivation; they abound in mucilage); Urene tricuspis, fruit a capsule with five cells; lobata flowers solitary; multifida, leaves quinquilobed; Pavonia urens, called after Don José Pavon, an uninteresting evergreen shrub, which grows freely and

[1] A Greek name for the nettle, which this genus much resembles. Th. καλος and αφη touch.

[2] Kirganelia is its Malabar name, where it is also found.

[3] So called from Prince Eugene.

[4] The Greek name for mallow.

seeds readily, and is about two feet high; flowers of a white colour; Abutilon de l'île Maurice. Sida Mauritiana, an uninteresting looking annual, grows to the height of three feet, flowers yellow in colour and appear in July and September; unilocularis, fruit composed of five membraneous capsules; murifolia, flowers solitary; glutinosa, fruit composed of five capsules; stipulata, grows to the height of one foot; planiflora; flowers of a yellow colour, the whole of this genus was discovered by Commerson; la Mauve or Malva Borbonica, is a pretty evergreen shrub four feet high, and its flowers which are yellow appear in July and August; it is of the easiest culture and propagation.

To the Leguminosæ belong Cylista[1] albiflora, an ornamental evergreen twiner, six feet high; flowers white, and appear in April and May, corymb larger than calyx. The Crotalarias[2] are a numerous genus: Crotalaria verrucosa is found near St. Louis; sericea exists in the same locality, and flowers in March; striata, an ornamental evergreen, three feet high, flowers yellow; angulosa, leaves hastato-lanceolate; arborescens, an ornamental shrub, resembling the cytisus, and rises to the height of the common bagne-nandier (four or five feet), whose name it bears at the Mauritius, and is charged for many months of the year with numerous bouquets of flowers very agreeable to the eye; it is especially remarkable by its stipules, which fall off as soon as the flower withers; it is distinguished by many shades of difference from the preceding; the flowers are beautiful, but it bears no fruit; purpurascens, is from one to three feet high; pentaphylloides; this flower has entirely the aspect of a lutin, flowers of a yellow colour, and disposed in clusters. Acacia à fruit aîle, or Mimosa pterocarpa: the wood of this tree is of a yellowish-white, fruit is in a shell, and is remarkable by a longitudinal wing. Aspalat soyeux (Aspalathus sericea), leaves silky; this flower resembles an Absinthe; it grows several feet high.

Courbrail verruqueux (Hymenæa verrucosa), found at the Isle of France by M. Smeathman. Indigotier des Indes (Indigofera Indica), the pendules of this plant are subteretal. There is another species with shorter legumes.

To the Piperaceæ — Poivrier elliptique (Piper ellipticum); it resembles Poivrier à feuilles de pourpier (or Piper portulacöides;) Commerson found this plant in the woods on the trunks of trees that had fallen, and on mossy rocks. Poivrier sauvage (Piper sylvestre) is a climber, and differs from Poivrier aromatique. Poivrier long (Piper longum), one of the Aristolochöioides. Poivrier lâche (Piper laxum), resembles Piper sylvestre, being small and globular. Poivrier radicant (Piper radicans); found by Commerson. Poivrier pediculé (Piper cubatum); vulg. cubebes; its fruit has long been known to commerce under this name; its berries have an acid taste, but an aromatic odour; they occasion a great flow of the saliva, but correct an unpleasant breath, as well as strengthen the stomach; it is in constant use among the creoles, who bruise it in their wine; latifolium, vulg. baume; nummularium, found by Commerson; obtusifolium, found on Le Pouce; flowers in March.

[1] Th. κυλιξ, a calyx.

[2] κροταλον was the name of a noisy Greek instrument similar to the cymbals of the present day: the pods of this genus are inflated and rattle when shaken in a similar manner.

The family of the Polypodaceæ is very numerous (Th. πολυς et πους, the foot), viz. Doradille unilaterale, or Asplenium[1] unilaterale; the leaves of this plant are nearly a foot long; pellucidum, this fern is larger than the preceding; falcatum, an intermediate species; adiantöides, fronds bipinnate; daucifolium, leaves oval; macrophyllum, pinnæ subpetiolate; obliquum, pinnæ cuneate on both sides; lineatum, pinnæ linear; plumosum, discovered by Bory St. Vincent; affine, this fern is three feet high. Polypodum phyllitides, vulg. langue du bœuf, cooked with honey it is applied in complaints of the breast, this fern is found in the woods; quercifolium is found near St. Louis; pulchellum, found near Le Pouce; acutum grows at the bottom of Signal Mountain; microcarpum, this fern, as well as "capense," grows in the woods; pediculare, pinnæ semipinnated, there is another species for which there is no name; ammifolium, pinnæ crenated; politum, frond coriaceous, there is another species with narrower pinnæ; umbilicatum; pinnæ crenulated; crinitum, lobes linear, this species is remarkable by a thick tuft of hair, or rather setaceous scales; phymatöides, there is another species with larger pinnatified leaves, and a third called trophyllum; articulatum, root covered with reddish scales; iriöides, fronds ensiform; lanceolatum, fronds narrow; mauritianum, this fern grows on the rocks; excavatum, found on trees; polycarpum, fronds attenuated at both sides; neriifolium; pinnæ terminal; aspidium biserratum, this fern is two feet high; arbusculum, grows by the side of streams; nitidum is found in the forests; cruciatum, fronds cuneated at base; odoratum, fronds ternate, this plant is found among the rocks; strigosum, pinnæ glabrous; pteris[2] Mauritiana is found in the woods; graminea is remarkable for the fineness and delicacy of its leaves; striata, nerves loosely reticulated; elliptica is found at the Seychelles; linearis, fronds tripinnate, this, with the major part of the others, was discovered by Commerson; costata is found in moist places; scabra, laciniæ, toothed at apex; angusta, laciniæ linear-acute; adianthöides, this plant resembles Pteris hastata: repens (or Davallia pedata, from Davall, a fellow of the Linnean Society) is an elegant plant, frond quinquangular; rhizoforum resembles adiantum caudatum, was discovered by Bory St. Vincent; pallens, capsules like those of the Dicksonia; ensifolium is about two feet high; caudatum and capillus veneris are also found; the whole genus is of a strong habit.

Acrostichum[3] aureum is found in most places near the sea; siliquosum is found in the woods; australe, fronds with a dichotomous apex; hybridum, fronds barren; spicatum, fruit a reddish ear, three inches long; viviparum, leaves about a foot long; hermionitis obtusa, fronds spathulate; boryana is found on the roots of trees, and was discovered by Bory St. Vincent.

Trichomane à feuilles de fenouil (fœniculaceum); pinnules capillaceous; achillæfolium, laciniæ linear-obtuse; hymenophyllum elasticum is found on the larger trees; fumariöides is another variety. There are also gracile, filicula, peltatum, and decurrens; all these plants are found in the forests.

Diplazie des fôrets (diplazium sylvaticum) is found in the recesses of the forests.

[1] Th. α et σπλην, the spleen.
[2] Th. πτέρυξ, a plume.
[3] Th. ακρος et στιχος, the commencement of a verse.

Cyathée[1] à haut tige (cyathea excelsa), fronds trifid; this plant grows to the height of twenty-five feet, and was discovered by Bory St Vincent.

Onoclea attenuata, this fern is three or four feet high; fraxinea is found on trees; there is another species whose fronds are sterile.

To the family of the Lycopodiæ[2] belong Lycopode des ombres (Lycopodum umbrosum), leaves semi-cordate; viridulum is found in the forests; concinnum, leaves bifarious; apiculatum, leaves toothed at base; teretricaulon resembles Lycopodum flabellatum; carinatum, found at the Seychelles; acutifolium, capsules subspiculated; epiceæfolium, stem bisbifid; phlegmaria, spikes dichotomous; ophioglossoides, leaves sparse; pectinatum is the most beautiful of all the Lycopodes, both as to foliage and form. There are also Lycopodum cernuum, flabellatum, and bovista, found near the sea.

Of the Convolvulaceæ are liseron nerveux (convolvulus nervosus), leaves cordate, this is a very beautiful species, and grows to a considerable height, the branches are covered with a cottonous down; aceto sellæfolius bears two flowers on axillary peduncles; venosus, this species is of a considerable height, and the flowers are disposed in a corymb, on axillary peduncles; there is another variety of this species with narrower folioles; auriculatus, leaves linear; denticulatus is found at the Seychelles; tiliæfolius, fruticose, the flower and fruit of this species is large; maritimus, leaves cuneiform at base, the flowers are from three to six in number; this plant grows by the sea-side, and in marshy spots: besides these are Convolvulus pentaphyllus found in the forest; bicolor, an ornamental deciduous twiner, bearing white flowers, which appear in June and August: it is six feet high.

Quamoclit à stipules palmées (Ipomea[3] stipulacea), leaves palmated; Mauritiana, fruit a glabrous capsule; angulata, peduncles larger than leaves; this species is distinguished from the Ipomea coccinea by its angular leaves and the length of its peduncles.

To the Solaneæ belong Morelle fistuleuse, or Solanum fistulosum, flowers subumbelled; annulatum, leaves tomentose, stipules auriculate. Mauritianum is also frutescent, upper boughs downy, flowers of a violet colour, and produces a round berry as thick as the kernel of the grape; nodiflorum, leaves oval, boughs dichotomous, this species is ten feet high, and abounds in cultivated soils, the flowers are a yellowish-white, and appear in June and July, fruit a round black berry, they are vulgarly called brette, and were once cultivated for the sake of the oil; Chenopodioides, its leaves resemble those of the anserine, flowers are white, and placed on lateral umbels; indicum, whose flowers are found in clusters, fruit a bitter berry, larger than a pea, of a scarlet colour—found by M. Sonnerat; undatum, flowers found in a little lateral corymb, peduncles prickly, fruit a thick oval berry, of an orange colour; integrifolium, calyces unarmed, hairy, fruit a round yellow berry; verbascifolium, with a sub-terminal corymb; solandre à feuilles lobées (solandria lobata), leaves cordate, fruit an oval pointed capsule.

To the Pandaneæ[4] belong Baquois, à semences purpurines (Pandanus purpurascens); nuts dispermal, grows to the height of twenty feet.

[1] Th. κναθος, a cup.
[2] Th. λευκος, a wolf, et πεδ, the foot.
[3] Th. ιψ, ίπος, a bindweed.
[4] The Malay name of this genus is Padang, which signifies something to be regarded, and was so called on account of the beauty of the tree and its exquisite odour.

Baquois marron (drupaceus), nuts polyspermal, of a moderate height, leaves large; maritimus, nuts polyspermal, this tree is found by the seaside, is of a pyramidal form; fruit oblong, of a moderate height; spheröideus, nuts monospermal, leaves large, flowers yellow, grows in the marshy districts of the interior; conöiedeus, nuts monospermal, height of tree twenty feet; globulosus resembles Pandanus humilis, fruit globular, and in clusters, an evergreen tree, eight feet high, nut monospermal, the stem either grows to a considerable height, or is weak and trails on the ground; palustris, nuts polyspermal, trunk from ten to twelve feet high, leaves large, fruit very thick, this tree is found in the marshes of the interior. This genus was discovered by M. Petit Thouars. With the habit of palms and the inflorescence of Aroideæ, this fine order stands distinct from all others. The fruit of some is eaten; all are tropical.

To the Palmæ belong the Latania Borbonica, or Corypha umbraculifera, which grows fifteen feet high, and is an ornamental tree, with green flowers; rubra, a much smaller plant, is remarkable for its red leaves, fruit a globular berry.

Arec, or Areca, vulg. chou palmiste, or cabbage-tree, is a genus resembling the petit dattier, and the trunk is full of pith. Many species were discovered at Mauritius by St. Vincent, among them Areca jaunatre (lutescens), an ornamental tree twenty feet high, bearing white flowers; though this palm has been considered poisonous by naturalists, it is not really so, the bitterness of its yellow cabbage is doubtless the cause of this opinion. "The creole women," says a French writer, "who have in general *gouts assez bizarres*, eat the species of glutinous pulp which envelopes its fruits." Alba grows on the mountains; rubra, this species is remarkable for its great elevation, and is found in the forests of the mountains; crinita, a variety of the preceding, is twenty feet high, with white flowers.

To the Cyperaceæ belong Souchet papyröide, or Cyperus papyröides, this rush is found in marshy places, and by the side of streams; melicöides is found in moist places; there are also marinus, Mauritianus, inæqualis, obtusus, which grows by the Rivière des Calebasses; laxus, which is found by streams; cymalosus; pumilus, which, in common with the whole genus, flowers in March.

To the Sapindaceæ belong Thouinia[1] nutans, with a terminal panicle; Cossignia[2] pinnata, an ornamental evergreen shrub, ten feet high, and a fine plant, flowers white, petioles and peduncles covered with a sort of red cotton, the flowers are found in little axillary and terminal panicles; Knepier apetale (Melicocca apetala); flowers without petals; Stadmane à feuilles opposées (Stadmania[3] oppositifolia), flowers terminal, vulg. bois de fer, this is a large, high, and beautiful tree, the wood of which is very straight, hard, and compact, it is between the family of the Savonniers and the Euphorbias, fruit a dry berry with a single seed, the wood is usefully employed in carpentering; usube (Ornitropha integrifolia), vulg. bois de merle, flowers axillary, fruit a black berry.

To the Rosaceæ pertain Ronce sans corolle, or Rubus apetala, flowers

[1] From Thouin, a celebrated botanist.

[2] So called by Commerson in compliment to M. de Cossigny, the French naturalist.

[3] Called after Stadman, a French botanist.

racemose without petals, peduncles white; rosæfolius, flowers solitary, of a white colour, and appear in April and October; plant three feet high; fruit oval; coronarius, raceme terminal, flowers white, and appear in April and October; sanguinolentus, four feet high, stem densely prickled, peduncles axillary, few flowers; Rubus parvifolius, vulg. Framboisier, its fruit is eaten at desserts, this genus are ornamental evergreens.

Spirée lanceolée (Spiræa lanceolata); stem fruticose, umbels terminal, like the Spiræa alpinia.

To the Verbenaceæ belong Verbena nodiflora, which flowers in March; it is a creeper in dry places, but more vigorous and upright in moist. Verbena Bonariensis is also found here. Clerodendrum[1] ligrustinum, vulg. "herbe à cabri," an ornamental evergreen shrub, three feet high, calyx hairy, flowers white, and appear in August and November; heterophyllum, three feet high, corymbs axillary, vulg. le Fortuné, white flowers, which appear in April and September; Volkhamia heterophylla, vulg. bois de chenille, because the leaves are liable to be eaten by the larva of the caterpillar, fruit globular, flowers scentless, is found in dry spots; ligustrina, petioles, peduncles, and calyces hairy. To these may be added, le premma or Andarese, with toothed leaves, vulg. bois de bouc, or cabri, fruit a white berry.

Of the Rubiaceæ are mussende arqué (mussænda arcuata), the flowers lie at the extremity of the boughs, fruit an oval berry, as thick as that of the olive; landia, the flowers, which are terminal, lie like those of the preceding, fruit a dry oval berry; lanceolata, flowers racemose; Myonyme à feuilles de Myrthe (Myonimia myrtifolia), berry red, spherical; Fernel[2] ovöide (Fernelia obovata), grows high, leaves small, fruit an oval berry, an evergreen shrub, vulg. bois de ronde; buxifolia, vulg. le faux buis, discovered by Commerson; Oldenlande verticillée (Oldenlandia verticillata), fruit a round capsule; Spermacocée en fouet (Spermacocia flagelliformis), flowers verticillated, branches flagelliform; Ixoria à petites fleurs (Ixoria parvifolia), vulg. bois à Balai; there is another variety, with larger leaves, which are oval and coriaceous, and the fruit is globular.

Of the Terebinthaceæ are Colophonia, or Colophane Mauritiana, one of the largest trees in the island, bearing purple flowers, and yielding a resinous juice like Colophon; Faganier heterophylle, leaves unequally pinnated; minor, or bois de poivrier; balsamier de la Guiane (Amyris Guianensis), fruit an oval berry, grows to a great height, flowers of a reddish brown, on axillary clusters; by an incision of its bark it gives a balsamic juice, which when dry becomes a reddish resin, smelling like the citron, and serves instead of pitch for caulking a ship; Toddali paniculée (Toddalia paniculata), flowers quadrifidal, fruit a small berry, vulg. bois de ronce, or pied de poule; lanceolata, with lanceolate leaves, fruit a dry berry; Gomart paniculé (Burseria paniculata), flowers purple, the timber of this tree is used for making pirogues; obtusifolia, folioles obtuse, flowers racemose, resembles the Pistachier, fruit a drupaceous berry; this tree, like the last, is very resinous.

To the Sapoteæ belong Argan à ecorce grise, or Sideroxylon cinereum,

[1] Th. κληρος an accident, and δενδρον a tree, in allusion to the various effects in medicine of its several species.

[2] So called from Fernel, physician to Henry II. of France.

flowers white, the branches give a sort of milk when cut, bark ash-coloured, tree from six to ten feet high; Sapotillier à fleurs sessiles (sessilifolia), flowers subsessile.

To Compositæ belong Conyzöides eupatoria, flowers small, calyces reddish and hairy, grow in axillary clusters on a terminal panicle, leaves cottonous underneath; populifolia, calyces hemispherical, branches cottonous like leaves, flowers six or seven on each bough; glutinosa, a shrub four or five feet high, flowers yellow, small, numerous, and grow in a corymb; silicifolia fruticose, leaves tomentose below, there is another variety, resembling the preceding by its port and the position of the flowers, flowers numerous, and growing on a terminal corymb, vulg. bois de senil, of the family of the Corymbiferes; corne de cerf, fruticose, viscous, flowers globose, corymb terminal, this plant was found at Rodriguez by Commerson; lithospermifolia, the smallest of the genus being only four inches high, peduncles hairy, flowers lie in a corymb, this shrub is found on the summits of the highest mountains; eupatorium en zig-zag, flexuose, suffruticose, calyx multiflowered, flowers white, and grow on the summit of branches on a short panicle; acmella[1] Mauritiana, an uninteresting shrub, a foot and a half high, stem procumbent, downy, flowers yellow, and appear in July and August. Psiadia[2] glutinosa, an uninteresting shrub, two feet high, with yellow flowers, which blow in June and August; cacaille reticulée (Cacalia reticulata), leaves reticulated, flowers corymbose; clematitis, found by Labillardiere; Lavenie droite (Lavenia erecta), flowers white; Lactuc de l'île Maurice (Lactuca Mauritiana), found in the woods; Epervière filiforme (Hieracium[3] filiforme), stem filiform, leaves spathulated . . . Grammite naine (Grammitis pumila) resembles the Pteris; cheilanthoides, fronds subbipinnate, resembles the cheilanthus; Gnaphale feuillè (Gnaphalium foliosum), fruticose, found by Labillardiere; proteöides, flowers subglobular, found on the summits of the most arid mountains and the clefts of perpendicular rocks; yuccæfolium, fruticose, leaves ensiform, corymb umbel-formed; cespitosum, suffruticose, leaves turfy, calyces hemispherical, found on the mountains; pallidum, herbaceous, flowers conglomerate; there is another species, but no distinctive epithet is applied to it, perhaps similar to Proteriöides; multicaule, suffruticose, corymbs glomerate.

To the Urticeæ[4] belong Ortie acuminée (Urtica acuminata), leaves mucronate, flowers agglomerate, fruit a berry; parietaria, leaves coriaceous; trilobata, leaves subtrilobed; cuneiformis, leaves cuneiform; verbascifolia, panicles subverticillate, flowers axillary; lucens, racemes paniculate; Figuier à fuilles striées (Ficus benjamina), leaves striated across with a smooth margin, fruit small and globular; punctatus, leaves pointed on top, fruit globular, aggregate; pertusa, calyces bifidal, berries globular, found by Aublet at the Isle of France—the land-turtles which were brought from Rodriguez were fed on it—vulg. Fouche; terebrata, leaves obovate, resembles the preceding; macrocarpa in like manner resembles Ficus pertusa, found on the plains of St.

[1] Th. *ακμη*, a point, from the prickly touch of the foliage.

[2] Th. *ψιας*, a drop of dew, in allusion to the dew bespangled foliage of the plants.

[3] Th. *ιερυξ*, a hawk.

[4] Th. uro, to burn.

Pierre; Murier de l'île Maurice (Morus Mauritianus), this tree is high and strong, peduncles axillary.

To the Osmundaceæ belongs Osmunda[1] pollicina, which grows in the forests of the mountains.

To the Bixaceæ belong Ludia[2] heterophylla, an ornamental evergreen shrub, with yellow flowers, which blow in July and August, four feet high, shrubs with lateral almost sessile flowers, vulg. bois sans ecorce, three or four feet high; sessiliflora, this shrub is much larger than the preceding, from which it is distinguished by its foliage.

To the Bythenariaceæ belong Pentapete coleur de rouille (Pentapetes ferruginea), petioles, peduncles, and calyces tomentose, an ornamental tree with white flowers, fifteen feet high, fruit tomentose, and nearly round; called also Dombeya after a French botanist.

To the Bixineæ belong Prockia deltöides, called bois de pigeon, because those birds are so fond of its fruits, leaves crenated, flowers lateral, peduncle filiform; ovata, leaves ovate, flowers subumbelled; serrata, leaves serrated, peduncles lateral.

To the Onagraneæ, Ludwigia[3] Jussiæöides, a frutescent plant, flowers axillary, from one and a half to two feet high; is found in marshy places.

Among the Campanulaceæ are Lobelia filiformis, with a filiform stem; flowers of a violet colour; serpens, stem prostrate.

Among the Rhamni are Rhamnus mauritianus growing near Le Pouce, vulg. piquant; leaves sometimes emarginate, at others micronate; petals white, fruit a black berry; Celastre[4] trigyne (Celastrus trigynus), umbels axillary, vulg. bois Jacot, because the monkeys called Jacot eat its fruits; undulatus, leaves undulated at margin, capsules bilocular, vulg. bois de merle, is one of the family of the Maponniers, this shrub is from eight to twelve feet high, with white flowers; pyrius, vulg. bois à poudre, capsule quadrilocular, found in the woods; mauritianus, leaves tomentose underneath; gouane de Bourbon (Gouania[5] mauritiana), a tree in the island remarkable by the cottonous down that covers its leaves. Aublet has probably confounded this species with the one of St. Domingo, which he professes to have found in the forests of the Isle of France. Besides these are found Nerprun des Indes (Rhamnus circumscissus), vulg. bois de sente and Asiaticus, but I strongly suspect these have been introduced and naturalised, fruit of the first a round capsule.

To the Vagumlati Olocarpi belong Orthotric plissé (Orthotricum plicatum), flowers axillary, leaves imbricated, angulosum, stem short, flowers axillary; pallidum, leaves a pale green; there are several varieties of this species, which with the others, was discovered by Thouars; Hypnum intortum, stem creeping.

To the Annonaceæ, Corossol amplexicaule (Annona amplexicaulis), leaves cordate, corossol, with simple acuated peduncles; the flower is large, fruit oval, found by Sonnerat; Unone maniguette (Unone[6] concolor); vulg. Maniguette, the pepper of the negroes, the wood of this tree which is thirty feet high, is white, not compact, fruit of a red colour.

[1] From Osmunda, one of the names of Thor, a Celtic divinity.
[2] Th. Ludo, to sport.
[3] From Ludwig, a professor of botany.
[4] Th. κηλας, the latter season.
[5] From Gouan, a botanist.
[6] Th. uno, to unite.

Of the Aristolochieæ[1] are Aristoloche bracteolée (Aristolochia bracteolata), flowers axillary; acuminata, ten feet high; leaves acuminate; an evergreen ornamental twiner with purple flowers; the species are herbaceous or half shrubby plants with simple, often reniform leaves and grotesque flowers; the root is bitter and possessed of tonic properties.

To the Asphodeleæ belong Asperge crêpue (Asparagus crispus), stem herbaceous, branches crooked; Le Dragonnier or Dracæna umbraculifera, an ornamental evergreen tree with white flowers, ten feet high, vulg. bois de chandelle, a name given to this genus and the Agave from their being straight and sessile, corymb terminal; cernua with white flowers, ten feet high; reflexa, leaves ensiform, fruit an orange coloured berry—there is another variety, perhaps, Dracæna ferrea or ensifolia—Dianelle des bois (Dianella nemorosa), berries polyspermal, it is distinguished from the dragonniers by the character of its fruits, its foliage resembles that of the iris, flowers blue, fruit an oval oblong berry of the colour of the amethyste in its maturity.

To the Labieteæ belong Basilic à longs petioles (Ocymum petiolare), flowers white, and grow in terminal clusters; Phlomis zeylandica or indica is found at Mauritius.

To the Homelineæ belong Blacouella à feuilles entieres (Blackwellia integrifolia), flowers paniculated; glauca, racemes paniculated.

To the Capparideræ Caprier panduriforme (Capparis panduriformis), this is a beautiful species.

To the Acanthaceæ, Justicia falcata, fruticose, flowers on short peduncles; Barleria[2] lapulea, an ornamental evergreen shrub with yellow flowers, which appear in August, two feet high; this genus is known by the elastic dehiscence of their capsules, and the hooked processes of the seeds; the flowers are in imbricated heads or open racemes.

To the Orchideæ belong Angree or Herba supplex, a small plant; Pesomeria[3] tetragona, a perennial two feet high; the flowers, which are of a brown colour, appear in December; this plant is parasitical; Arethuse en cœur (Arethusa cordata); flowers distinct. Liparis[4] foliosa, a parasite six inches high; flowers in August, and they are of a green colour.

To the Asclepiadeæ, Cynanque vomitive (Cynanchum vomitivum), stem villous, corymbs lateral, called also Ipecacuanha; the root is a vomitive, and when bruised is given as a dose.

To the Ulmaceæ, Micocoulier de l'Inde (Celtis[5] orientalis), a moderately sized tree, is found by the side of rivers.

To the Caryophylleæ belong Mollugene verticellée (Mollugo verticillata), leaves verticillated, peduncles uniflowered; nudicalis, stem diffuse, subdichotomously panicled, flowers small, fruit an oval capsule.

To the Aroideæ, Typha[6] angustifolia, found in pools and marshes; Gouet trilobé (Arum trilobatum), leaves trilobed; another variety with leaves cordate-arrowed.

To the Laurineæ belong Hernandiere ovigere (Hernandia ovigera), leaves petiolated at base, flowers ternate, with an involucrum in common.

To the Sarmentaceæ, Achet mappou (Cissus mappia), fruit oval,

[1] Th. αριστος, excellent, and λοχος, a female in childbirth. This plant was formerly considered to possess considerable power in aiding the expulsion of the placenta, and exciting the ischial discharges.

[2] In honour of Barellier a Dominican. [3] Th. πιπτω to fall, and μερος, a part.

[4] Th. λιπαρος unctuous, in allusion to the surface of the leaves.

[5] One of the names anciently given to the lotus. [6] The τυφος, a marsh.

pyriform; palmata, leaves palmated, quinnate. Sælanthus crassus was discovered at the Isle of France by Du Petit Thouars.

Of the Smilaceæ[1] are Salseperille à deux angles (Smilax anceps), leaves acuminate.

Of the Superflua are Senecon à feuilles de pin (Senecio pinifolius, or Mauritianus), stem fruticose, flowers corymbose, appear in April, and are of a white colour.

To the Iridoeæ belong Glayent à larges feuilles (Gladiolus latifolius), leaves hairy; Dufoure à trois rangs (Dufouria trifaria), leaves trifarious, this plant lies between the mosses and Lycopodes, is found in the waters.

To the Passifloreæ, Grenadille de l'île Maurice (Passiflora Mauritiana), fruit pyriform, petioles biglandular.

To the Tiliaceæ, Lappulier velonté (Triumfetta[2] velutina), flowers complete; bactriana is another variety; Greivier glanduleux (Greivia glandulosa), leaves glandular at base, flowers solitary.

To the Musaceæ, Musa rosacea, or bananier, an ornamental plant with rose-coloured flowers, which blow in February and May, two feet in height, male flowers deciduous, fruit oblong, scarcely to be distinguished from Musa paradisaiaca.

To the Amaryllydeæ belong, Crinum bracteatum; an ornamental bulbous plant, with white flowers, which appear in June and August, two feet high, vulg. la crinole; angustum, an ornamental bulb, four feet high, flowers, which are pink, appear in June and August; careyanum, two feet high, white flowers, which appear in July, bulb round; Mauritianum, flowers, which blow in March, are of a pink colour, four feet high.

To the Epidendreæ, Cynorchis[3] fastigata, quarter of a foot high, raceme corymbose.

To the Scitamineæ belong Alpinia magnifica, an evergreen herbaceous plant of a splendid character, it is ten feet high, and flowers in August, the colour is red, leaves broad. Sir W. Hooker says of this species, "It is one of the noblest plants that has ever graced the pages of the botanist." This plant is stemless, and very fragrant.

To the Oxalideæ, Oxalis Mauritiana, an ornamental bulbous plant, of a pale rosy colour, this plant is stemless, and is thought to be the Oxis of Pliny, the whole genus has an acid taste, blooms in September and October; Repens, found in the woods near Le Pouce, stem creeping, capsule villous.

To the Melastomaceæ, Melastomas osbecköides, a pretty evergreen shrub, two feet high, flowers, which are purple, bloom in September and October, calyx setose at end.

To the Hemerocallideæ belong Aloe macra, an evergreen under shrub of a grotesque habit, three feet high, flowers, which are of an orange colour, appear in June.

To the Connaraceæ belong Gratelier glabre (Cnestis[3] glabra), ten feet high, racemes fascicled, the capsules, covered with hairs, excite a troublesome itching, it is an ornamental evergreen shrub with white flowers, vulg. bois à grattier.

[1] Th. σμιλη, a chisel.
[2] From Triumfetta, a botanist.
[3] Th. κυων, a dog; and ορχις.
[4] The κνηθω, to scratch.

To the Combretaceæ, Poivrea[1] coccinea; Combretaceæ is a name employed by Pliny. The plant of the ancients could not, however, have any relation (says Mr. Loudon) to the plants now called by that name, which are a genus of splendid climbing shrubs, with beautiful branches of flowers, which are often crimson and purple, but sometimes white.

To the Plantagineæ, Plaintain à feuilles sinuées (plantago sinuata), leaves sinuate, capsules retuse.

To the Oleineæ, Leniocera flavicans, panicles axillary, petals ovate.

To the Cucurbitaceæ, Luffa fœtida, a dicotyledone, male flowers racemose; this is a species of gourd.

To the Borragineæ, Pittone sarmenteuse (Tournefortia[2] sarmentosa), stem climbing; argentea, vulg. le veloutier, an evergreen shrub, fruit a green berry with two black seeds, branches hairy, leaves silky, grows by the sea-side; bifida, peduncles bifid, spikes divaricated.

To the Sterculiaceæ belong Sterculia grandiflora; nitida, leaves subsessile.

To the Apocyneæ, Taberne à feuilles de renouée (Taberna montana persicarifolia), flowers racemose, subdichotomous; Mauritiana, leaves membranaceous, racemes axillary.

Of the Commelineæ are Commeline barbue (Commelina barbata), corollæ subequal, stem creeping.

To the Æsculiaceæ, Bruyere à feuilles de gaillet (Erica galiöides), flowers subterminal.

To the Fucoideæ, Varec à larges feuilles (Fucus latifolius), stem teretal, found on the sea-coast by Thouars; geniculatus, stem and branches geniculated, frond dichotomous, pellucid; pepricarpus, frond subcompressed, found on the sea-coasts; spinæformis, frond subteretal, found on the coasts; amansii, the substance of this plant is cartilaginous, its colour of a clear yellow and green, found on the coast by Thouars; Mesembryantheniöides, found on top of the mountains among shrubs where trees cease to grow, stem suffruticose, fruit subaxillary.

To the Menispermeæ, Lampourde commune (Xanthium strumarium), stem unarmed, fruit terminal; there is another variety, with more angular leaves and more acute lobes, which flowers in July.

To the Aurantiaceæ belong Limonedier de l'île de France (Limonia Mauritiana), leaves subternate, panicles axillary.

To the Rhizophoreæ, Rhizophora mucronata, leaves mucronate, racemes nodding, dichotomous at base.

To the Cordiaceæ, Terestier en cœur (Cordia subcordata), leaves subcordate, calyx cylindrical, the fruit is oval; found at Isle Praslin by Commerson.

Of the Arialaceæ are Gaston à ecorce spongeuse (Gastonia cuti-spongia); found in the woods, flowers in January.

To the Gentianeæ, Menianthe des Indes (Menyanthus Indica), petioles flower-bearing, corollæ pilose.

To the Santalaceæ, Memecylon[3] à feuilles en cœur (Memecylon cordatum), leaves cordate, umbells pedunculated.

To the Hymenomycetes, Merule lacinié (Merulius laciniatus), stemless.

[1] From Poivre, Intendant of the Isle of France in 1766.
[2] From Tournefort, a celebrated physician.
[3] Th. μεμαι κυλον, the fruit of the wild cherry-tree.

To the Umbelliferæ, Hydrocotle[1] à feuilles de Sibtorp (Hydrocotylus Sibthorpöides), petioles long; Ficariöides, leaves very angular.

To the Chlenaceæ, Hugone dentée (Hugonia serrata), leaves serrated, vulg. le Liane à crochets; tomentosa, leaves tomentose on both sides.

To the Nymphiaceæ, Numphar de Malabar (Nymphæa Malabarica,) flowers purple.

To the Ebenaceæ belong Plaqueminier mellanide (Dyospyros melanide), berries subglobular, of the same height as the Diospyros tessicaria, but the bark is less black, wood white, being black only towards the centre, is found in the mountainous forests; leucomeles, the trunk of this tree is clothed with an ashy-coloured bark, white except at the heart, is found by the sea-side, and in the forests, there are said to be three varieties of this tree, but they are scarcely distinguishable; nodosa, fruit subglobular; chrysophyllus, flowers solitary, fruit a berry full of seeds; angulata, fruit angular.

To the Gramineæ, Barbon ondulé (Andropogon[2] undatum), flowers pedicellated, calyces valvular; aristatum, flowers germinate, Paspale[3] à courtes feuilles (Paspalum brevifolium), spikes two, culm creeping, is found by the side of the roads, there is another species with bearded spikes, which flowers in March; Holcus sacchatus is found near St. Louis; Andropogon contortum, and schænanthus, vulg. la squine, and barbatum, are all found at Mauritius; Diechanthus nodosus is found in the meadows, though called an andropogon it has essentially different features, spicæ quinqueterminal, pedicellated, this species has yet been found nowhere but in Egypt and Mauritius; Panic granulaire (Panicum granulare), culm branching, this plant is glabrous; Brizöides, perhaps the same as Panicum sanguinale, spikes alternate, resembles the paspalum, the knots are of a reddish-brown; barbatum, spikes subdivided, leaves level, with fine hair underneath, flowers glabrous; plicatum, the flowers have a green calyx; dubium, panicle capillary, found in the woods; multinode, leaves pilose; glutinosa, flowers glutinous; Paspalum Commersonii, spikes ternate, pedunculated; Poa tenella and Poa Boryana[4] are found here, panicle glomerate, root fibrous; ciliaris, panicle contracted, leaves ensiform, this species is remarkable for its height; Manisurus[5] granularis, spikes lateral fasciculated; the flowers grow on granular and axillary ears; Houque à epi (Holcus[6] spicatus), spike thick, flowers fasciculated.

SUPPLEMENTAL.

To the Leguminosæ may be added, Sainfoin à gousse cylindrique (Hedysarum cylindricum), perhaps identical with Hedysarum triflorum, legumens cylindrical, flowers axillary, resembles Hedysarum vaginale; cespitosum, stem creeping, peduncles capillary, it is found in agreeable-looking tufts in the woods, and affords excellent pasturage; mauritianum adheres to the clothes of those walking in the woods, and is very troublesome, raceme terminal, this plant has creeping roots; Melitte etalie (Œschinomene patula), stem suffruticose, legumens gla-

[1] Th. *υδωρ* and *κοτολη*. [2] Th. *ανηρ* et *πωγων*, a beard.
[3] Th. *Ρασπαλος*, one of the Greek names for millet.
[4] From Bory St. Vincent, the celebrated naturalist.
[5] Th. *μανις*, a scaly lizard, and *ουρα*, a tail. [6] Th. *ελκω*, to draw.

brous; Courbail verruqueux (Hymenœa verrucosa), legumen verrucose; found by Smeathman.

To the Myrtaceæ, Calyptranthe à larges feuilles (Calyptranthus latifolia), leaves emarginate at apex, flowers lateral, fasciculated; pollicina, found on the summit of Le Pouce, where other trees cease to grow; this plant is said to belong to a new genus called by Brown, Zuzygium, it is also termed Eucalypton, petioles gibbous, corolla monopetalous; Melaluque à feuilles ovales (Melaluca ovatifolia), leaves oval, racemes axillary; there is another variety with leaves obversely oval, capsules green, globular, both species were found by Labillardiere; Myrte vernissé (Myrtus nitens), peduncles terminal, corymbose, subdichotomous at apex.

To the Erythroxyleæ[1] belong Erythroxylon à feuilles de laurier (laurifolium), grows to the height often of twenty feet, and its trunk is of a considerable thickness, flowers white; longifolium, its leaves are longer and straighter than the preceding; hypericifolium, peduncles capillaceous, uniflowered, vulg. le bois de huile, resembles the Spiræa hypericifolia, flowers white, and of an agreeable odour; this genus was discovered by Sonnerat; it makes useful timber.

To the Sapoteæ, Mimusope[2] à feuilles obtuses (Mimusops obtusifolia), vulg. bois de natte, leaves obtuse.

To the Acanthaceæ, Carmantine rampant (Justicia serpens), stem creeping, flowers axillary; longifolia, leaves elongated, spikes axillary, found at Mahé by Commerson.

To the Passifloreæ, Grenadille quadrangulaire (Passiflora quadrangularis), petioles sexglandular, stem quadrangular, there is another variety with biglandular petioles.

To the Hippoxideæ[3] belong Hypoxis à feuilles etroites (Hypoxis angustifolia), leaves narrow.

To the Compositæ may be added, Parthenium hysterophorum.

To the Orchideæ, Orchis de l'île Maurice (Orchis Mauritiana); obcordata; triplicata; parasitica, bulbs fasciculated; epidendröide, flowers axillary.

To the Ochnadiæ,[4] Ochna Mauritiana, bois de jasmin, this tree is remarkable by its thick bouquets of yellow flowers, fruit a round berry, it is used for making palisades.

To the Oleineæ belong Olivier elancé (Olea lancea), panicle terminal, resembles the common olive in the form of its leaves.

To the Asclepiadieæ, Periploque de l'île Maurice (Periploca Mauritiana), flowers racemose, fruit horizontally open, it is a variety of the Cynanchum, vulg. scammonée de Bourbon.

To the Urticeæ, Parætaria levigata, flower axillary.

To the Tiliaceæ, Triumfetta lapula, a shrub of six feet in height, glandulose, transversely, veiny.

To the Fucoideæ, Lichen orangé noir (lichen aurantia crater), filamentose, scutellæ black above, aurantiaceous below, this elegant plant is remarkable by its colour.

To the Polygaleæ, Monimia rotundifolia, leaves rounded, flowers

[1] Th. ερυθρος, red, and ξυλον, wood.
[2] Th. μιμος and οψις, a figure.
[3] Th. υπο and οξυς.
[4] The Greek name for the wild pear.

dicœcious, the fruit is a plump berry, is found on the summit of the mountains.

To the Apocyneæ, Rauvolfe striée (Rauvolfia[1] striata), flowers corymbose, vulg. bois jaune, a pretty shrub.

To the Rhamni, Jujubier de l'île Maurice (Zizyphus Mauritianus); fruit oblong.

To the Laurineæ, Laurus malabratus, leaves veinous transversely; cupularis, found in the forests, is a large tree, and its wood is used for wainscotting, joinery, and planking.

To the Cyperaceæ, Choin sans feuilles (Schœnus aphyllus).

To the Pittosporeæ, Senacion de joli cœur, from its elegance and sweet odour.

To the Lycopodeæ, Lycopodum pusillum, found in the forests.

To the Calpideæ belong Calpidia à feuilles lanceolées (Calpidia lanceolata), fruit a capsule formed by the calyx, is nine feet high, belongs to the dicotyledones, flowers panicled and of a red colour; found in the mountains by Thouars. To these M. Boger has added Calpidia ovatifolia, dicœcious, leaves oval, fruit viscous, is found in shady woods and the mountains; costata, dicœcious, peduncles terminal, corymbose, found in low grounds; macrophylla, dicœcious, fruit black, this plant has been found at Isle Galega in sandy and arid places.

MISCELLANEA.

Tenelier à longues feuilles (Linguillaria barthesia), panicles axillary, vulg. bois de pintade, flowers lateral, fruit a small dry berry. Tristeme de l'île Maurice (Tristemma Mauritiana), flowers axillary, stem tetragonal, resembling a melastome, fruit an oval berry, which is edible and favourable for the cure of the venereal disease. Pædene[2] à fleurs sessiles (Pædena sessiliflora) resembles Pædena fœtida, flowers sessile. Danaide silloncé (Danais sulcata), capsules sulcated. Melochie de Bourbon (Melochia Borbonica), according to Forskh, this is the Arabic name *Melochieh*, flowers of a yellow colour, axillary, glomerate. Malarica verticillata or antirrhæa, peduncles axillary, bifurcated at apex, vulg. bois de losteau, the wood is black, and susceptible of a good polish; fruit oval. Ixia[3] pyramidalis, stem subramose, leaves striated. Roussea[4] simplicifolia, peduncles uniflowered. Germanea rotundifolia, leaves rotundate at bottom. Erythrospermum macrophyllum, leaves coriaceous, submucronate racemes axillary, vulg. le collier de Senegal; paniculatum, panicle terminal, fruit a capsule; ellipticum, leaves elliptical, fruit globular; verticillatum, leaves verticillated, flowers subumbelled, terminal; pyrifolium, vulg. bois de Brede, this genus was discovered by Stadman.

Schlothermia quadrifida; stem erect. Mogorum trifoliatum, leaves ternate, flowers white. Mollari à petits fruits (Hentiera minor), fruit almost yellow. Brexia[5] Madagascariensis, an ornamental evergreen tree, thirty feet high; the flowers, which are green, appear in June. Gagnebina axillaris or Mimosa pterocarpa, an evergreen shrub. Bremontiera animoylon, a shrub called after M. Bremontier, a planter. Cabrillet subria, vulg. arbre a serpent, a shrub about six feet high, resembling a Rhamnus, flowers small, white, corymbose,

[1] From Rauvolfe.
[2] Th. παεδον, a stalk.
[3] Th. ιχω to fix.
[4] Named after Rousseau.
[5] So named by Noronha from Βρεξις, rain, in allusion to the protection afforded by the fine large leaves of this genus against rain.

there is another variety, the Bombax pentandria, vulg. le houattier, found at Plains Wilhems. Lagansa rubra and alba are found by the road-side. Boerhauvia insularis, a bulbous herb, fruit elliptical, flowers white, found at Galega, Diego Garcia, and Seychelles, and has been seen at the Mauritius. Badamier de l'île Maurice (Terminalia Mauritiana); this, says Commerson, is the thickest and longest tree either in Bourbon or Mauritius. It is much used for building pirogues The flowers grow in clusters. It produces an odorous resin known by the name of faux benjoint of use in joinery. Its foliage is a greenish yellow, and contrasts in a remarkable manner with the sombre green by which the trees of the tropics are generally coloured. This genus is of the family of the Myrlobans, and is a beautiful tree. It was found in the forests by Thouars. Tragica colorata; there is another variety with smaller leaves. Trongum agreste spinosum, calyces spiked. Ehretia Mauritiana is found in the woods, fruticose, calyx quinquefid. Catscha Catscha, with leaves sometimes in the form of a cataplasm. Elatina, with leaves verticillated. Polygonum barbatum is found at Mauritius, as also Dodonia viscosa. Erica grows on the summit of Le Pouce. Camyris, capsule triangular, trilocular. Plumena nova, Celosia nodiflora, Semicarpus monogyna are likewise to be met with. Psidium is found in the woods near Le Pouce. Bois de violon, a small tree of the forests of the interior. Bois tambour is the Mithriadatica of Commerson. Batracosperme du bambou (Batracospermum bambusinum) is found among the pebbles in the brooks. Barralderia is a genus of plants discovered by Du Petit Thouars, and belongs to the family of the Nerpruns. Ethalia divaricata is found about the rivulets. Bocconides is found on the top of Le Pouce. Lythrum triflorum is found in low ground, petals six in number. Le cadouk is found in the woods. Copaifera disperma has its flower copaiferous. Bignoniöides, found in the woods of the mountains, stem arborescent, corolla monopetalous. Clitoria heterophylla, leaves pinnated; ternata is also found. The Cynosurus Egypticus and Indicus are both Mauritian plants. Rothoella dimidiata is also found. Scirpus dichotomous, Spadiceus, Culmo pentagoni, Antarcticus and two other species have been discovered in the marshes or low grounds. Kyllinga monocephala is also found there. Scævola lobelia is found at Flacq.

PLANTS, TREES, ETC., INTRODUCED BY M. ROÇHON FROM MADAGASCAR IN 1768.

The Malao-manghit, Rarabe, Bachi-Bachi, Rharha horac, Founingomena-rubou, Ravend-sara, Harame, Laben, Fouraha, Tevartna, Huitchy, Fotersbé, Tanguem, Antafara, Assy, Tafoumonna, Hounits, Zavin-raven, Lingo, Harongan, Tancarson, Taco, Voua-lomba, Anakuey, Aresou, Tougnounan, Tafoumounam, Racoudrit, Uvangbiri, Tevarte, Azambou, Una-hetaitchou, Sampan-leva, Tchinghit, Lacca, Voguindosong, Fanpechourou, Voua-hintchi, Fila, Voantlisan, Tchusi-ovi, Jacuan, Timbalave, Ampalt, Anghivi, Azou-ranou, Farafer, Vongo, Vua-mitsa-voi, Tougouna-lein-tein, Sanoang-matan-nahaurou, Rangazaa, Tchilotou, Fifoutche, Shira, Raven-tongharts, Tanroujou, Afatraha, Vaing-bare, Talate, Jang, Vua-tani, Vua-montueung, Vua-toutouc, Moultonrongou, Vouang-titirang, Voua-malim, Voua-rougui, Voua-tourindi, Ampali, Joudi-fafal, Voua-severantou, Vouang-taé, Voua-futre, Enghi-panza, Enghibé, Vua-macaliong, Sacaviro-ambon, Vua-fao, Ouvi-rombé, Chifontsui, Vuahorda, Sanguamou-batou, Vaint-sombou, Sanga Sanga, Vua-toudinga, Vuacarabo, Vua-nantoula, Vouang-pin-lela, Vua-tingui lé-pas, Anja-oidy, Vuatehirie, Vua-khicason, Tehouti-morou, Vua-hia-vave, Vua-nambouavon, Vuarhe, Vua-he-taitson, Varou, Lindern, Angnan-rambon-lahe, Tongou-hintchi, Harame, Chingolpont, Christala, Alut-mandrout, Vangoni-nangbona, Bakrang, Ardouranga, Vaguinang-boua, Cani-prouti, Chipoulou-pouli, Adabou, Ouoirandra, Tottlas, Voua-houda, Mounou-founace, Azou-minti, Azou-minti-bé, Toucam-boudi, Fourangdra, Vua mandroucou, Voua-mena, Mang, Angue-malou, Voulang-boudi-pouni, Tsimamasoo, Manouquibonga, Maan, Sonmouterang,

Lalong, Via-foutchi, Diti-azou, Tavoutala, Chetchia, Agnan-rambou, Cutoubanda, Nanton, Ampelangthi-fouhe, Campoudi, Oubave, Bontou, Voai-morang, Vuendrang, Afé, Tabouronangat, Voua-rozan, Voua-assim, Ampelant-ghi, Sondi-fa-fat, Voguin-d'oseng, Azimena, Toulon-gouala, Voua-azigné, Tougmonnam, Vohan-silan, Toulou, Voua-sévérantou, Chifont-fui, Finguere, Bagnets, Ravendras, Intchy, Antafara, Filao, Vua-tchirie, Fataque.

Comparative Table of the Relative Weight and Strength of the following Woods of the Mauritius, as ascertained by M. Geoffry, Capitaine du Genie Militaire, and a Correspondent of the Academy of Science.

Vulgar Names.	Botanical Names.	Weight of Cubit Feet. lbs.	oz.	Specific Strength.
Iron Wood	Stadtmania	87	12	3872
Stinking Wood	Fœtidia	75	2	3141
Small-leaved Natte	Imbricaria	74	1	3100
White Olive	Olea	63	2	2917
Red Tacamahaca Teak	Tectona grandis	53	2	2720
Large-leaved Natte	Imbricaria	72	1	2660
Red Iron Wood	———	84	10	2367
White Cinnamon	Laurus	56	8	2317
Black Cinnamon	Elœocarpus	41	14	2290
Red Olive	Rubentia	56	6	2037
Red Colophonia	Colophonia Burseria	59	2	2087
White Apple	Eugenia	61	4	2015
Benzoin	Terminalia Benzoin	57	4	2005
Monkey Apple Natte	Sideroxylon	58	4	1900
Marbled Cinnamon	Elœocarpus	58	14	1880
White Iron Wood	Sideroxylon	58	4	1783
Red Apple	Eugenia	60	0	1750
Lousteau	Antirrhœa	56	8	1750
Oak	Quercus robor	56	1	1702
Red Tacamahaca Fir	Calophyllum Caloba	52	5	1618
Bigaignon	Eugenia	44	3	1500
White Colophonia	Morignia	49	3	1350
Bassen	Blackwellia	47	11	1000

The relative strength of these woods was determined by M. Geoffry, by preparing prisms of equal dimensions every way, as near as possible, of the different woods, laying them on two supporters firmly fixed in the ground, and suspending from the middle of the prisms the weight requisite to break them. The weight required determined the relative strength of the woods in the Table.

The Botanical Garden formed by Poivre.

This garden is situated in the district of Pamplemousses, and was originally divided into four parts, representing the quarters of the world, in which the trees, shrubs, herbs, plants, flowers, roots of each were respectively found, descriptions being affixed to each of its name, native country, and qualities. It was placed by M. Poivre under the care of M. Ceré, to whom he had afforded instruction in the management of Asiatic plants; and Ceré successfully carried out the designs of his patron by naturalising here the spices of the Moluccas, which the malevolence of Aublet had on a former occasion destroyed. The celebrated Melon thus speaks of this garden:—"Le jardin du roi à l'île de France me parait une des merveilles du monde. Le climat de cette île lui

permet de multiplier en pleine terre les productions de toutes les parties de l'univers. Le voyageur trouve rassembles dans ce jardin plus de six cents especes d'arbres ou d'arbustes precieux transportes des divers continens."

This garden cannot be said to be preserved as in its original state under the French Government.

Lithophites.

"Among the lithophites," says St. Pierre, "there is a plant resembling a long straw, which has neither foliage, knots, nor blossoms. There is also a vegetation like a small forest of trees, whose roots are very much interwoven, and each of them has a small bunch of leaves. The substance of this lithophite partakes of the nature of wood, and burns like it in the fire; it is, however, in the class of the madreporæ. There are also three kinds of marine stars belonging to the same class."

Rats.

It would seem that the rats that infested the island were in no slight degree the cause of the expulsion of the first settlers; and even now those who visit Mauritius are never long in discovering that the Dutch settlers did not succeed in totally eradicating the breed of this destructive animal. By an official return in 1826, eight hundred and thirty thousand were caught in that year, and an equal number are destroyed annually.

COMPARATIVE TABLE of IMPORTS and EXPORTS from the Island of MAURITIUS during the years 1833 and 1842.[1]

Imported from

Years.	Great Britain.	France.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Cape of Good Hope.	Australia.	Bourbon.	British India.	French India.	Portuguese India.	Seychelles and Madagascar.	All other places.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1833	148,512	36,247	6,226	4,332	26,332	19,860	29,476	227,000	35,401	..	30,865	13,138	577,420
1834	196,257	75,540	3,768	2,138	36,813	6,095	56,724	235,046	61,375	..	31,963	16,318	720,020
1835	221,375	100,038	6,012	862	51,458	4,014	27,548	168,691	32,811	..	34,667	23,284	670,760
1836	361,098	127,513	1,434	4,136	51,472	4,512	40,475	193,709	44,448	..	55,919	29,764	916,520
1837	344,739	122,651	5,486	809	70,790	11,755	35,890	281,235	79,872	..	58,633	17,052	1,034,212
1838	606,290	199,724	..	..	52,465	2,979	21,229	292,464	51,635	..	75,901	20,181	1,322,868
1839	309,771	108,536	7,773	8,089	42,659	1,034	31,705	226,383	38,892	..	60,513	39,450	864,885
1840	344,862	163,058	4,575	6,800	55,671	2,404	34,204	250,653	55,655	2,160	59,098	13,126	994,213
1841	435,845	182,320	5,322	326	41,062	9,265	13,925	387,838	50,238	..	74,156	27,490	1,227,787
1842	314,267	135,925	6,637	3,338	36,487	7,459	22,239	196,021	29,432	..	75,144	33,018	859,967

Exported to

Years.	Great Britain.	France.	North American Colonies.	United States.	Cape of Good Hope.	Australia.	Bourbon.	British India.	French India.	Portuguese India.	Seychelles and Madagascar.	All other places.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£		£	£	£
1833	517,269	6,872	..	7,000	9,679	35,122	17,018	5,547	9,612	..	20,360	7,342	633,910
1834	473,000	18,882	186	..	25,018	78,790	46,972	10,015	4,579	..	16,165	6,575	673,202
1835	552,721	30,032	..	..	24,862	51,722	10,472	7,540	4,418	..	10,463	7,083	699,015
1836	697,091	28,434	..	16,908	34,517	65,735	10,014	11,039	9,893	..	16,569	13,189	993,437
1837	637,870	6,355	..	..	44,767	79,940	20,155	13,965	7,581	..	15,716	4,783	831,132
1838	642,837	4,005	..	..	35,857	77,549	10,745	4,973	4,316	..	21,857	755	802,895
1839	601,003	3,037	..	..	36,257	87,650	9,352	12,031	4,066	..	25,163	1,480	780,842
1840	806,593	1,340	165	..	41,627	25,210	5,406	3,859	4,442	..	25,988	9,035	923,666
1841	801,308	..	..	..	24,246	13,973	3,888	7,231	5,792	..	28,619	1,245	886,302
1842	721,996	915	..	..	30,712	46,809	11,224	8,506	2,456	..	34,497	2,657	853,772

[1] The returns at the Board of Trade are now *three* years in arrears.

IMPORTS of the MAURITIUS.

Years.	£	Years.	£	Years.	£
1833	577,420	1837	1,034,242	1840	994,213
1834	720,020	1838	1,322,868	1841	1,227,833
1835	651,745	1839	864,885	1842	859,967
1836	916,520				

EXPORTS of the MAURITIUS.

Years.	£	Years.	£	Years.	£
1833	633,910	1837	831,132	1840	923,666
1834	673,202	1838	802,895	1841	886,302
1835	699,015	1839	780,042	1842	853,772
1836	993,437				

DECLARED VALUE of BRITISH and IRISH PRODUCE and MANUFACTURES exported from the UNITED KINGDOM to MAURITIUS in each year from 1827 to 1844.

Years.	£	Years.	£	Years.	£
1827	195,713	1833	83,424	1839	211,731
1828	185,972	1834	149,319	1840	325,812
1829	205,558	1835	196,559	1841	340,140
1830	161,029	1836	260,855	1842	244,922
1831	148,475	1837	349,488	1843	258,014
1832	163,191	1838	467,342	1844	285,050

SUGAR exported from MAURITIUS to all the WORLD in each year from 1812 to 1846.[1]

Years.	Quintals, or 100 lbs. (French.)	Years.	Quintals, or 100 lbs. (French.)	Years.	Quintals, or 100 lbs. (French.)
1812	9,692	1824	243,345	1836	633,357
1813	5,494	1825	217,397	1837	738,126
1814	10,342	1826	424,894	1838	777,602
1815	25,049	1827	406,192	1839	740,588
1816	82,963	1828	483,501	1840	893,327
1817	65,834	1829	584,315	1841	865,058
1818	79,083	1830	679,266	1842	829,335
1819	56,788	1831	702,036	1843	678,923
1820	155,247	1832	735,948	1844	803,620
1821	204,100	1833	674,835	1845	963,000
1822	234,046	1834	711,438		
1823	274,008	1835	648,545		

[1] I have heard it stated on excellent authority, that the late Mr. Huskisson predicted that the Mauritius could never produce more than 8,000 tons of sugar. M'Culloch also stated some years ago that it had attained to the acme of production. I may be allowed, therefore, to observe, that the island is capable, under a proper system of culture, of doubling, if not trebling its present crop.

STATEMENT of the IMPORTS into the MAURITIUS in 1840, specifying the principal Articles.

COUNTRIES.	Apparel and Slops.	Bacon and Hams.				Bags.	Beef and Pork.				Beer and Ale.		Books.	Bran.		Bread and Biscuit.		Butter and Ghee.		Cabinet and Upholstery.	Candles.	
		British or Colonial.		Foreign.			British or Colonial.		Foreign.													
	Value.	Quantity	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Quan.	Value.	Value.	Quan.	Value.
	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	Barrels	£	Barrels	£	Galls.	£	£	Cwts.	£	Barrels	£	lbs.	£	£	lbs.	£
Great Britain	12,109	82,000	2,378	11,262	282	..	1,711	5,852	110	330	89,070	13,916	1,623	10	4	174	204	3,324	110	1,112	5,700	348
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12	..	..
France	114	..	..	2,552	63	..	..	..	56	140	100	10	1,221	259	63	..	..	944	10	2,086	467	24
Cape of Good Hope	172	6,916	186	..	..	..	975	2,364	..	..	178	27	3	1,595	638	5	41	136,542	4,599	47	2,800	175
Bourbon	..	..	..	672	14	4,657	..	..	90	294	..	..	302	10	5	1	7	19,007	597	139	2,424	176
Madagascar	5	..	..	..	..	46	..	..	9,250	15,425	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Seychelles	4	..	..	..	..	11	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	1	4	9	4	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
British India	549	..	..	..	..	352	21	53	..	..	..	..	..	1,957	394	73	108	244,552	4,823	617	11,374	888
Foreign do.	1,577	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	131,248	2,219	117	13,304	852
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	53	16	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	1,904	48	..	..	..	120	363	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	16	2,576	59	..	1,204	70
United States	..	..	..	3,920	91	..	..	..	74	321	..	..	..	..	..	39	47	..	..	193	2,240	180
The Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	14	52	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	14,530	90,820	2,612	18,406	450	5,066	2,827	8,632	9,600	16,562	89,352	13,954	3,157	3,893	1,124	303	423	538,193	12,417	4,325	39,513	2,713

COUNTRIES.	Carriages and Carts.	Cheese.		Coffee.		Copper, Sheet and Old.		Cordage.		Corn and Meal.										Total of Corn and Meal.
										Wheat.		Oats.		Other Grain.		Wheat Flour.		Other Meal.		
	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	cwts.	£	Bushels.	£	Bushels.	£	Bushels.	£	Barrels	£	Barrels	£	£
Great Britain	5,673	137,774	3,108	10,710	261	124,665	5,833	1,369	2,835	5,664	2,000	26,304	4,675	153	84	8,914	12,282	10	15	19,056
Sweden	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,096	274	..	..	..	..	..	..	274
France	..	16,575	459	..	..	4,760	195	7	25	36	10	761	170	2,145	725	2,283	2,955	..	..	3,860
Cape of Good Hope	40	4,312	128	..	..	4,846	252	83	186	10,372	4,159	20,931	6,301	8,024	2,659	3,911	5,143	..	..	18,262
Bourbon	..	..	..	..	..	17,807	685	400	362	..	..	376	100	4,071	1,464	300	419	..	..	1,983
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	983	197	..	..	..	..	197
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	309	37	..	..	..	..	37
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	542	94	..	..	..	..	94
British India	406	..	..	203,555	5,806	6,876	303	3,069	2,262	137,192	31,089	30,816	4,348	114,012	20,532	204	205	..	..	56,174
Foreign do.	30	1,344	30	..	..	..	..	9	9	..	..	..	..	1,613	262	..	..	..	..	262
——— Portuguese	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	245	220	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Java	..	..	..	14,224	222	15,639	574	16	8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	691	29	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,474	1,828	..	..	1,828
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	18	..	..	1,864	220	..	..	1,300	1,496	..	..	1,716
The Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50	134	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	6,149	160,005	3,725	228,489	6,289	175,284	7,871	5,253	6,059	153,264	37,258	82,148	16,088	131,852	26,054	18,386	24,328	10	15	103,743

IMPORTS,—*continued.*

COUNTRIES.	Cotton Manufactures. Entered by the yard. British. Yards.	£	Foreign. Yards.	£	Entered at value. British £	For. £	Piece Goods of India. Yards.	£	Total of Cotton Manufactures. £	Earthenware and Chinaware. British £	For. £	Cod. Cwts.	£	Herrings. Boxes.	Barrels	£	Other sorts. £	Total of Fish. £	Fruit of all sorts. £	Glass Manufactures of all sorts. British £	For. £
Great Britain	5,094,199	114,596	17,000	350	6,800	217	..	..	121,963	3,474	..	1,081	1,087	194	3,558	3,860	352	5,299	398	2,964	864
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	32
France	..	..	39,002	2,253	..	377	..	..	2,630	..	761	..	..	..	..	..	236	236	688	..	2,632
Cape of Good Hope	500,691	9,524	..	..	570	..	..	..	10,094	38	..	8,537	7,255	..	..	..	13	7,268	106	187	10
Bourbon	..	..	32,180	1,069	..	14	..	..	1,083	..	76	..	..	..	..	..	83	83	875	..	366
Madagascar	..	..	3,220	105	..	..	..	..	105	..	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23	..	1
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	476	..	20
British India	..	..	..	..	..	162	33,908	918	1,080	..	44	96	53	..	..	..	..	53	709	..	2
Foreign do. viz. French	..	..	..	..	..	173	1,190,042	29,112	29,285	..	111	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50	..	..
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	905	450	..	256	250	135	815	79	..	..
United States	..	..	6,211	104	..	..	..	..	104	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5
Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	15	15	..	..	..	..	15	..	..	..
Total	5,594,890	124,120	97,613	3,881	7,370	943	1,223,950	30,030	166,344	3,512	1,002	10,634	8,860	194	3,814	4,090	819	13,769	3,405	3,147	3,932

COUNTRIES.	Guns. No.	£	Gunpowder. lbs.	£	Haberdashery. British £	Foreign. £	Hardware and Cutlery. British £	For. £	Hats of all sorts. British £	For. £	Hides. No.	£	Iron. Unwrought. lbs.	£	Wrought. £	Jewellery. £	Lard. lbs.	£	Lead. lbs.	£
Great Britain	35	132	13,800	408	6,700	478	8,384	..	3,898	..	..	..	1,161,165	5,169	10,692	110	396,240	10,592	339,866	2,996
Sweden	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	114,240	545	..	..	..	..	..	..
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	61	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
France	2	9	..	..	..	5,607	..	3,705	..	2,003	..	..	..	..	204	731	34,160	699	..	..
Cape of Good Hope	..	..	..	..	362	..	165	..	68	..	..	..	132,160	531	389	10	..	..	224	2
Bourbon	..	..	..	..	..	830	..	577	..	361	..	..	..	..	25	1	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	87	3,389	644	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
British India	8	9	..	..	907	..	770	..	884	..	..	..	..	..	..	17	210,700	4,181	..	..
Foreign do. viz. French	..	..	..	..	..	623	..	32	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	87	1,252	27	..	..
—— Portuguese	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,241	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Java	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	..	48	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	353	1
Australia	..	..	..	..	8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	270	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	17,360	269	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	..	16,240	392	..	..
Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	587	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	26	..	..	..	..	..
Total	45	150	13,800	408	7,977	7,599	9,906	5,564	4,850	2,589	3,389	644	1,407,565	6,245	11,676	956	675,952	16,160	340,443	2,999

IMPORTS,—*continued.*

COUNTRIES.	Leather.		Leather Manufactures.	Linen Manufactures.						Total of Linens.	Live Stock.								Total of Live Stock.	Machinery and Smith Work.
				Entered by the yard.				At value.			Horses.		Mules and Asses.		Neat Cattle.		Live Sheep and Goats.			
				British.		Foreign.		Brit.	For.											
	lbs.	£	£	Yards.	£	Yards.	£	£	£	£	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£	£	£
Great Britain	370	50	801	202,013	7,202	3,000	100	354	..	7,656	..	..	1	20	16	306	29	17	343	9,463
France	2,469	179	2,573	..	..	6,471	307	..	76	383	90	2,230	573	13,682	259	3,893	18	18	19,823	..
Cape of Good Hope	..	..	76	22,338	796	..	..	..	..	796	80	2,785	30	1,020	8	130	885	895	4,830	..
Bourbon	32,616	897	254	..	..	362	25	..	6	31	1	40	..	..	..	..	..	..	40	..
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	27	280	..	..	6,184	29,652	179	307	30,239	..
Seychelles	..	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	160	209	1,726	..	..	12	14	1,900	..
British India	13,610	127	276	5,480	185	..	..	320	..	505	58	740	67	1,010	..	..	108	108	1,858	..
Foreign do. viz. French	147,746	2,325	1,372	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	40	..	..	..	..	2	2	42	..
——— Portuguese	..	..	..	..	..	1,240	60	..	120	180	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Java	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Timor	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	20	..	..	..	..	..	..	20	..
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5	50	30	30	80	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	168	..	168	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	196,811	3,578	5,359	229,831	8,183	11,073	492	842	212	9,729	269	6,295	880	17,458	6,472	34,031	1,263	1,391	59,175	9,463

COUNTRIES.	Medicines.	Musical Instruments.	Oil.						Paper Hangings.	Perfumery.	Pickles.	Pitch and Tar.		Plate and Plated Ware.	Rice.		Saddlery and Harness.	Salt.	
			Linseed.		Olive.		Train and Spermaceti.		Painters' Colours.										
	£	£	Gallons.	£	Galls.	£	Galls.	£	£	£	£	£	lbs.	£	£	lbs.	£	£	Bush.	£
Great Britain	1,339	1,079	11,344	1,167	48	10	..	..	3,073	55	789	23	3,307	1,552	1,841	..	..	1,418	59	20
Sweden	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	126	125	..	..	..	..	..	..
France	1,874	564	..	..	8,561	2,082	..	..	176	756	1,500	275	..	..	174	..	..	22	1,334	33
Cape of Good Hope	7	1	..	..	495	87	..	..	89	..	..	12	51	43	..	..	..	26	..	..
Bourbon	474	12	..	..	1,169	342	..	..	2	..	212	51	..	..	..	684,320	3,391	..	3,383	263
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,927,548	9,245	..	..	..
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	67,760	222	..	..	..
British India	61	..	479	71	..	..	120	12	..	..	9	9	5	4	..	40,374,346	137,401	46	69	5
Foreign do. viz. French	15	42	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4	..	..	..	1,647,912	6,888	10	..	..
——— Portuguese	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	145,600	500	..	..	..
Java	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	360,752	1,266	..	68	9
Timor	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	432,320	1,930	..	..	..
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	914,816	1,990	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	37,910	1,871	..	..	..	..	100	43	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	34,000	3,400	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	3,770	1,698	11,823	1,238	10,273	2,521	72,030	5,283	3,340	811	2,514	374	3,589	1,767	2,015	46,555,374	162,833	1,522	4,913	330

COUNTRIES.	Silk Manufactures.			Total of Silk Manufactures.	Soap.				Spirits: Brandy, Geneva, and Foreign Cordials.		Stationery.	Sugar.				Tea.		Tin Plates.	Tobacco.		
	British.	Foreign European.	East India.		British or Colonial.		Foreign.					Raw.		Refined.					Unmanufactured.		Manufactured.
	£	£	£	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	Gallons.	£	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	lbs.	£	£
Great Britain	4,670	301	..	4,971	4,626	126	..	..	144,141	14,401	1,349	..	..	209,875	3,244	237	57	2,097	50,971	1,060	560
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,708	275	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
France	..	2,817	..	2,817	..	..	69,272	451	82,698	10,785	1,205	..	..	11,200	170	..	..	..	..	..	28
Cape of Good Hope	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,575	190	32	..	..	..	..	..	..	492	..	..	26
Bourbon	..	294	..	294	..	..	25,984	390	7,154	1,062	433	621,721	6,949	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4
Madagascar	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,166	251	25
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	56	5	..
British India	..	..	670	670	160,621	1,416	..	..	10	2	50	51,223	498	..	..	37,820	2,212	..	40,572	259	6,556
Foreign do. viz. French	..	..	8	8	..	..	800,702	7,841	..	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53,772	487	41
Java and Timor	..	..	6	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	44,184	398	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	86
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18,704	297	657
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	24,416	370	734
Total	4,670	3,412	684	8,766	165,247	1,542	895,958	8,689	238,293	26,724	3,076	717,128	7,845	221,075	3,414	38,057	2,269	2,589	212,657	2,729	8,717

COUNTRIES.	Toys.	Umbrellas and Parasols.	Vegetables of all sorts.	Vinegar.		Wines of all sorts.		Woods, Boards, and Planks.		Woollen Manufactures.						Total of Woollens.	Miscellaneous Articles.	Summary of Imports.
										Entered by the yard.				Entered at value.				
										British.		Foreign.		British.	Foreign.			
	£	£	£	Galls.	£	Galls.	£	Feet.	£	Yards.	£	Yards.	£	£	£	£	£	£
Great Britain	284	4,216	45	..	..	5,839	1,556	373,004	2,839	82,707	10,163	960	120	936	..	11,219	6,608	344,862
Sweden	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	159,274	1,384	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,328
Holland	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,920	8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	392
France	352	321	..	26,840	864	1,926,132	80,052	9,000	92	..	..	14,109	2,189	..	184	2,373	4,869	163,058
Madeira	..	..	..	..	..	1,188	416	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	416
Cape of Good Hope	..	5	29	..	..	372	133	73,105	662	5,031	583	..	..	103	28	686	1,099	55,671
Bourbon	1	37	1,467	2,214	101	62,318	2,821	8,051	110	..	..	1,511	267	..	..	295	773	34,204
Madagascar	..	5	..	..	..	63	3	64,201	875	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,325	58,488
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,957	207	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	95	610
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	62	35	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,958	36	2,557
British India	37	..	4,679	..	..	294	144	521,710	3,280	3,312	211	..	..	1,747	..	..	7,057	250,653
Foreign do. viz. French	21	..	236	..	..	190	28	920	5	..	..	590	46	..	2	48	910	55,655
——— Portuguese	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	2,160
Java	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,000	17	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	180	2,736
Timor	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,036
Australia	..	..	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,404
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	11,500	30	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35	4,575
United States	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	31,192	112	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	564	6,890
Fisheries	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	226	4,608
Total	695	4,584	6,466	29,054	965	1,996,458	85,188	1,265,834	9,621	91,050	10,957	17,170	2,622	2,786	214	16,579	23,800	994,213

EXPORTS from MAURITIUS to all parts of the WORLD, specifying the principal Articles, and distinguishing the proportions exported to each Country, in 1840.

Countries to which Exported.	Beef & Pork.		Beer & Ale.		Cloves.		Coffee, East Indian.		Copper.		Corn and Meal.						Total of Corn and Meal.	Cotton Manufactures.	
											Wheat.		Other Grain.		Wheat Flour.			British.	
	Barrels	£	Galls.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	Bush.	£	Bush.	£	Bush.	£	£	Yards.	£
Great Britain	29	110	54	3	900	27	3,195	110	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4	4	9,200	260
France	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
St. Helena	..	..	..	..	206	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cape of Good Hope	15	54	..	..	..	..	14,224	225	..	..	7,048	1,416	346	88	803	1,250	2,754	11,600	290
Bourbon	..	..	287	252	..	..	..	..	5,880	205	..	..	2	1	..	..	1	23,532	534
Madagascar	6	14	344	40	..	..	..	..	80	8	4	1	..	..	16	28	29	704,942	19,737
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,024	480	806	150	452	713	1,343	..	..
British India	6	10	..	..	..	..	280	7	9,856	389	..	..	..	..	300	360	360	4,365	86
Pondicherry	5	7	..	..	..	..	..	..	76,514	2,282	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	48,005	1,274
Java, &c.	275	1,019	..	..	350	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	350	525	525	..	..
North American Colonies	17	48	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,864	670	..	..	29	58	728	11,300	513
Australia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	353	1,262	685	295	1,456	47	17,699	342	92,330	2,884	11,940	2,567	1,154	239	1,954	2,938	5,744	812,944	22,694

Countries to which Exported.	Ebony.		Fruit of all sorts.	Guns.		Gunpowder.		Haberdashery & Millinery.	Hardware and Cutlery.	Hay.		Hides.		Wrought Iron.	Molasses.		Oil.			
																	Cocoa Nut.		Train and Sperm.	
	Tons.	£	£	No.	£	lbs.	£	£	£	Bales.	£	No.	£	£	Galls.	£	Galls.	£	Galls.	£
Great Britain	15	124	..	..	..	..	..	210	49	..	..	970	194	132	37,524	1,999	..	..	60,881	4,167
France	32	416	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,613	699	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
St. Helena	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Cape of Good Hope	..	..	1,285	..	..	..	..	42	..	3	1	..	..	..	2,769	144	6,662	325	..	..
Bourbon	..	..	12	..	..	..	..	..	..	23	5	2,141	444	28	..	..	6,292	346	4	1
Madagascar	..	..	..	12	4	23,875	533	277	119	4,215	843	..	..	205	..	..	96	11	..	..
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	500	50	..	..	600	120	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
British India	2	20	..	25	19	..	..	7	278	..	..	..	..	386	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pondicherry	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	51	53	..	..	2,312	323	56	..	..	..	..	..	..
Java and the Indian Isles	..	..	230	..	..	..	..	56	..	120	24	..	..	20	..	..	..	..	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	200	150	200	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Australia	..	..	8	..	..	..	..	173	27	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
China	..	..	18	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	49	560	1,553	237	173	24,575	588	616	526	4,961	993	9,036	1,660	829	40,293	2,143	13,050	682	60,885	4,168

STATEMENT of the EXPORTS from the MAURITIUS,—*continued.*

Statement of the Exports from the Mauritius,—*continued.*

Countries to which Exported.	Pepper.		Rice.		Salt.		Silk Manufactures.	Spirits. Rum.		Spirits. Brandy, Geneva, and Cordials.		Sugar, Raw. Colonial.	
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	Bush.	£	£	Galls.	£	Galls.	£	lbs.	£
Great Britain	12,432	116	328,384	1,108	..	..	80	56,043	7,071	206	85	83,511,995	789,143
France	..	..	448	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal	11,200	100	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
St Helena	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	847	85	..	..	19,816	183
Cape	17,024	160	656,544	2,577	..	..	..	200	10	140	45	3,441,361	32,123
Bourbon	..	..	208,880	1,000	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madagascar	112	3	34,160	104	6,506	1,031	77	367	48	820	211	..	..
Arabia	..	..	10,416	47	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	179,576	1,893
British India	..	..	336	2	..	..	81	340	17	1,890	314	43,507	404
Pondicherry	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	100	40	..	..
Java	..	..	21,952	150	..	..	..	9,000	450	2,259	293	..	..
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Australia	..	..	34,832	120	..	..	617	11,235	650	372	135	2,136,534	20,140
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	40,768	379	1,295,952	5,011	6,506	1,031	855	78,032	8,331	5,787	1,123	89,332,789	843,886

Countries to which Exported.	Tea.		Tobacco. Unmanufactured.		Tobacco. Manufactured.	Tortoise-Shell.		Wine.		Woollen Manufactures.		Miscellaneous Articles.
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	lbs.	£	Galls.	£	Yards.	£	£
Great Britain	188	19	..	..	..	740	45	1,847	652	..	..	930
France	..	..	..	..	..	130	10	41	17	..	..	158
Portugal	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	18
St. Helena	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	791
Cape	2,688	48	..	..	654	..	..	15	9	840	90	2,142
Bourbon	1,008	54	2,240	48	439	3,149	95	..	..	..	..	2,298
Madagascar	..	..	112	1	..	..	..	5,517	378	191	17	138
Arabia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,159
British India	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,042	185	1,300	135	134
Pondicherry	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,892	194	132	28	608
Java and the Isles	5,404	335	..	..	..	..	..	2,772	230	..	..	107
North American Colonies	..	..	..	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	10
Australia	1,035	55	..	..	..	..	..	2,136	368	2,000	437	1,185
China	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	959
Total	11,323	511	2,352	49	1,104	4,019	150	17,262	2,033	4,463	707	10,637

Summary of the Collective Exports to each Country.

	£
Great Britain	806,593
France	1,348
Portugal	110
St. Helena	301
Cape	41,627
Bourbon	5,406
Madagascar	25,988
Arabia	3,591
British India	3,859
Pondicherry	4,442
Java and the Indian Isles	3,700
North American Colonies	165
Australia	25,210
China	977
Total	923,317

STATEMENT of the Number of SHIPS that have entered PORT LOUIS from 1812 to 1844.

Years.	English.	French.	American.	All others.	Total.
1812	292	..	13	4	309
1813	263	..	..	1	264
1814	269	..	..	8	277
1815	258	25	6	13	302
1816	237	84	24	1	346
1817	272	101	25	22	420
1818	214	105	21	13	353
1819	234	105	17	6	362
1820	232	56	4	5	297
1821	238	50	2	11	301
1822	267	112	8	9	396
1823	274	86	6	5	371
1824	244	75	10	11	341
1825	282	108	17	11	418
1826	306	113	6	13	438
1827	341	48	6	8	403
1828	394	51	3	6	454
1829	457	91	4	8	560
1830	327	117	2	8	454
1831	315	81	6	5	407
1832	319	96	4	..	419
1833	366	107	8	2	483
1834	359	110	11	3	483
1835	329	114	10	4	457
1836	398	123	12	4	537
1837	433	..	..	65	498
1838	..	..	..	..	..
1839	..	..	..	..	..
1840	..	..	..	..	410
1841	..	..	..	..	481
1842	..	..	..	..	483
1843	..	..	..	..	..
1844	..	..	..	..	..

SHIPPING employed in the TRADE of the UNITED KINGDOM with MAURITIUS in each year from 1831 to 1844.

	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.		
Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1831	69	19,315	..	28	8,067	..
1832	64	17,287	..	55	16,246	..
1833	70	19,722	..	58	16,339	..
1834	75	20,909	..	33	9,192	..
1835	80	21,158	..	40	10,719	..
1836	68	17,690	926	66	18,576	1,024
1837	74	20,310	1,087	53	14,850	770
1838	73	21,736	..	59	16,476	..
1839	83	23,523	..	46	13,567	..
1840	105	29,940	1,157	63	17,011	854
1841	80	22,827	1,165	104	30,126	1,334
1842	115	31,917	..	66	18,593	..
1843	86	25,480	..	59	17,837	..
1844	82	23,593	1,115	73	21,266	1,106

SHIPPING.—1840 to 1842.

COUNTRIES.	1840.					
	INWARDS.			OUTWARDS.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	62	18,340	..	105	29,932	..
British Colonies	143	41,334	..	118	35,970	..
United States	1	414	..	..	..	..
Foreign	204	38,830	..	171	25,992	..
Total.....	410	98,918	6,856	394	91,894	6,426
	1841.					
Great Britain	79	22,827	..	104	30,117	..
British Colonies	175	50,997	..	155	47,579	..
United States	1	414	..	1	285	..
Foreign	226	43,096	..	183	28,323	..
Total.....	481	117,334	8,105	443	106,304	7,569
	1842.					
Great Britain	66	18,594	..	115	31,893	..
British Colonies	165	47,197	..	148	44,884	..
United States	..	..	..	1	422	..
Foreign	252	47,815	..	185	31,624	..
Total.....	483	113,606	7,558	449	108,823	7,216

SHIPS BUILT IN THE COLONY.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.
1825	8	724	1832	4	192	1839		
1826	3	334	1833	3	390	1840		
1827	4	209	1834	2	38	1841		
1828	5	519	1835	5	645	1842		
1829	3	293	1836	7	359	1843		
1830	22	1,066	1837	8	572	1844		
1831	6	439	1838					

SHIPS BELONGING TO THE ISLAND.

Years.	No.	Tons.	Men.	Years.	No.	Tons.	Men.
1838	94	8,114	936	1842	122	11,834	..
1839	102	9,008	1,075	1843	..	..	..
1840	112	9,170	1,116	1844	124	12,079	1,413
1841	118	11,287	1,328				

Course of Exchange.—1841 to 1842.

Months.	On England.					On France.	On Calcutta.		On Madras.
	Government bills in sterling at 30 days' sight.	Mauritius Bank bills in sterling at 90 days' sight.	Commercial Bank bills in sterling at 90 days' sight.	Private bills in sterling at 90 days' sight.	Private bills at 6 months.	Private bills at 90 days' sight.	Private bills in rupees at 30 days' sight.	Company's bills in rupees at 60 days' sight.	Private bills in rupees at 60 days' sight.
1841.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.	Rate per Cent.
November	2½ to 3	Par	Par	Par to 1 disc.	Par to 2 disc.	Par	3½ prem.	2 1/12 to 3 6/12	3 1/12
December	,,	None	None	Par	2 disc.	,,	2¼ to 3½	2 1/12 to 2 6/12	..
1842.									
January ..	,,	,,	,,	Par to 1 prem.	2 to 3 disc.	,,	..	..	..
February ..	3½ to 5	,,	,,	1 to 2 ,,	1 disc. to par.	,,	3½ to 4½	3 to 4	3 to 5
March	4½ to 5	,,	,,	2 to 4 ,,	,,	,,	4½ to 5½	4 to 5	5 to 6
April	,,	,,	,,	3 to 4 ,,	Par	..	..	..	6
May.....	5½ to 6	,,	,,	3½ to 4 ,,	2½ prem.	5 prem.	..	4 to 6	6
June.....	,,	,,	,,	3½ to 5 ,,	4 ,,	,,	5½	5	6 to 8
July.....	None	,,	,,	4 to 5 ,,	3 ,,	,,	5½ to 7½	6	8
August....	,,	,,	,,	4 to 6 ,,	..	,,	7½	6	8
September	,,	,,	,,	4 to 7 ,,	..	..	,,	6	6

Estimated Amount of Coin in Circulation.—1840 to 1842.

Years.	Imported during the year.	Exported during the year.	Difference.		Amount in Circulation to 30th September.					
			Increase.	Decrease.	In Military Chest.	In Mauritius Bank.	In Commercial Bank.	In the Treasury.	In the hands of the public.	Total amount in circulation.
	£	£	£		£	£	£	£	£	£
1840	121,736	54,267	67,469	..	..	..	..	127,820	1,272,988	1,400,808
1841	189,788	58,148	131,640	..	..	..	..	148,430	1,384,017	1,532,447
1842	37,063	26,022	11,041	..	35,003	48,219	49,966	70,452	200,668	404,308

Estimated Amount of Paper in Circulation (30th September, 1842).

Treasury Notes outstanding of 1830 and previous years	.....	£2,147	14 0
Mauritius Bank ,,	,, ...	111,081	0 0
Commercial ,,	,, ...	153,933	0 0
Total	.....	£267,161	14 0

BANK SHARES.

	Established.	No. of Shares.	Nominal Value.	Amount paid up.	Present price.	Last half-year's dividend.	Reserved Fund.
			drs.	drs.	drs.		drs.
MAURITIUS BANK.	Jan. 17, 1832.	1000	500	300	300	4 pr. 0/0	121,966,36
COMMERCIAL BANK.	Sept. 1, 1838.	1000	500	300	300	4 „	97,537,76

Rate of discount on commercial bills, nine to twelve per cent. per annum. Their principal business is the discounting merchants' bills.

PRICES OF BULLION IN JAN. 1845.

Doubloons, 17 drs. 33 to 17.50.
Sovereigns, 6 pr. 0/0 prem.
British silver, 1 to 2 pr. 0/0.
Spanish drs., 1 dr. 3 cents to 1 dr. 11 cents.
Company's rupees, 50 c. per rupee.
Francs, 4 to 5 pr. 0/0 prem.

COURSE OF EXCHANGE, &c. IN JAN. 1845.

On London treasury bills,		30 days' sight,	4 to 5 pr. 0/0.
Mauritius bank	do.	90	do.
Mauritius bank	do.	6 months	none.
Private bills		90	at par.

MONETARY AND PAPER CIRCULATION.—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

St. Pierre, in speaking of the paper in circulation on his visit to the island, describes the want of confidence placed in it. Baron Grant states that the money of France was not current there, except pieces of 2 sous, which did not pass for more than 18 deniers, by which valuation they were considerable losers. Of these they had adequate supplies; but the seafaring people, who sold certain contraband articles, insisted on being paid in currency, on every piece of which they gained one-fourth in France, hence their coin was carried away. They had Spanish piastres, which passed for 4 livres 10 sous, and in France were taken for 5 livres 2 sous, and sometimes more. If they, *i. e.* the colonists, had been permitted to engage in commerce, the profit would have been certain, for the exchange was in their favour. The paper currency, which was confined to the island, consisted of parchment bills from 10 to 100 livres. In 1779 all the business of the colony was solely carried on in commodities, or in Spanish piastres. There was still in circulation the paper currency, issued in the name of the French Republic, which the Colonial Assembly, deprived of every pecuniary resource in the midst of a terrible crisis, was compelled to create after the example of that of France; but, as it was constantly diminishing in value, the Colonial Assembly settled it irrevocably in 1798 by a depôt of merchandise (after having in vain solicited a supply of bullion from France) destined for the payment of the paper currency then in circulation, the value of which to money was only in proportion of one to a thousand, so that a note for 1,000 francs was then only worth 10 francs in commerce. On this basis its redemption was ultimately fixed. This paper money as stated in the Mauritius almanac of 1836, represented a value of 1,500,000,000 livres.

The paper money in circulation in 1844 is elsewhere shown, as also the amount of coin.

The following are the rates in sterling money (by an order of the Lords' Commissioner of the Treasury in 1843), at which the undermentioned foreign coins are to be computed at Mauritius (when British coin cannot be procured), for necessary money and every other payment, the amount of which may be stated in sterling money.

FOREIGN COIN.

Gold.—Doubloon (Spanish and South American), 3*l.* 4*s.*; half doubloon, 1*l.* 12*s.*; quarter doubloon, 16*s.*; eighth doubloon, 8*s.*; sixteenth doubloon, 4*s.*; piece twenty-two francs French, 15*s.* 10*d.*; mohur (East Ind. Co.) 1*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.*

Silver.—Dollar (Spanish and South American), 4*s.* 2*d.*; dollar (United States), 4*s.* 2*d.*; dollar (Sicilian), 4*s.* 2*d.*; five franc piece (French), 4*s.* 10½*d.*; crusado novo (Portuguese), 3*s.* 10½*d.*; rupee (East. Ind. Co.) 1*s.* 10*d.*

N. B.—The smaller French coins are not a legal tender in sums of less than five francs.

The Government accounts have been kept in sterling money since 1826; merchants and tradesmen, however, keep their accounts in dollars and centiemes. Two sous = 1 centieme; 20 sous = 10 centiemes, or 1 colonial livre; 200 sous = 100 centiemes; 10 colonial livres, or 1 dollar; 2 colonial livres are = to 1 French franc. The commissariat draws bills for British sterling money at the rate of 101*l.* 10*s.* for every 100*l.* bill.

In consequence of the bullion which the major part of the emigrants take with them on their return to India, and the fortunes taken to Europe, there is a great premium on gold and silver. The current value of a sovereign is twenty-three shillings, and in silver six per cent. It was found in 1836 that the issue of 1825 was very much torn and defaced; it was, therefore, deemed advisable that a new issue should take place, and that the old one should be called in. The new issue is composed as follows:—1,000 notes of 20*l.* each; 1,500 notes of 10*l.* each; 1,000 notes of 5*l.* each. Total 40,000*l.* = 200,000 dollars. The notes thus issued bear the following inscription:—"The Government of Mauritius and Dependencies promises to pay the Bearer on demand the sum of pounds sterling, in specie at the rate established by law." The 10 livre pieces struck in the colony under the French government, the 5 franc pieces of France, and the German crown pieces have the same value in exchange as the Spanish dollar. Besides these the Indian coins, viz. Sicca rupee = 5 colonial livres, or 2*s.* 1*d.*; Bombay and Arcot rupee = 4½ colonial livres; coast rupee = 3½ colonial livres; half silver pagoda = 8 colonial livres; double panam = 1¼ colonial livres; panam = 12½ sols; Indian copper pice are circulated at the rate of 100 per dollar, or 2 sols, or 1 cent. each pice.

WEIGHTS.—In the transactions with the commissariat, as well as with respect to the import duties at the custom-house, imperial weights are used. In other cases the weights in use are the same as they were in France before the Revolution, viz. 100 lbs. French poids de marc = 108 lbs. English, and the same proportions in the subdivisions, which are the ounce, gros, and grains; 16 ounces make 1 lb., 8 gros make 1 ounce, 72 grains make 1 gros. The quintal is 100 lbs. French; the ton is 20 quintals. Sugar is computed per lb. or per quintal; coffee per bag of 100 lbs. (net French); cotton per bale of 250 lbs.; rice is sold per bag of 150 lb.

MEASURES.—With the exceptions before stated French measures are in general used. The French foot is to the English in proportion of 100 to 92, 89, or in common practice of 16 to 15; 12 lines make 1 inch, 12 inches 1 foot, 6 feet 1 toise, 5 feet 1 fathom, 7 French ells = 9 English yards. The aune is 44 inches. Every kind of cloth in the island is measured and sold by the aune or ell. The velt is equal to 1 gallon, 7 pints, 4-5ths English; but it is always taken as 2 gallons English, old measure, in commercial transactions; it is by the velt that every liquid is measured here. 3 gills make 1 pint, 2 pints 1 quart, 4 quarts 1 gallon, 2 gallons 1 velt, 9 English quart bottles are generally considered = to a velt, and 40 drachms to 1 gallon; a cask

measures 30 velts. The ton of sugar is 2,000 lbs. French ; ebony wood, 2,000 lbs. ; coffee, 1,400 lbs. ; cotton, 750 lbs ; cloves, 1,000 lbs. ; grain, 1,400 lbs. ; liquids, 120 velts ; square-cut timber, 32 cubic feet; boards, 306 feet ; shingles, 3,300. The arpent or acre is 100 square perches ; the perch is 20 feet French ; the tonnage of cases 42 cubic feet measurement.

Import Duties as in April 1844.

Meat salted or cured (except hams, tongues, and bacon), flour, ploughs, and harrows, steam and water engines, and other machinery calculated to diminish manual labour, and being of British produce or manufacture, coin and bullion, horses, mules, asses, neat cattle, and all other live stock ; hay and straw, rice, corn and grain unground, fresh meat, fresh fish, fruits and vegetables fresh, manures of all kinds, provisions and stores of every description imported or supplied for the use of her Majesty's land and sea forces whether of British or foreign produce or manufacture, free of both statute and colonial duty. Government stores of every description ; fish, dried, salted, and pickled ; books and school materials for the use of free schools and for religious instruction ; objects of natural history, ice, kitchen garden seeds ; wearing apparel and baggage ; instruments and books (except such as are prohibited to be imported) intended for professional use, the property of and accompanying persons arriving in the colony, and leeches, whether British or foreign, free of colonial duty. Sugar of foreign production refined in bond in the United Kingdom is admissible for consumption upon payment of a statute duty of 10 per cent. and a colonial duty of 6 per cent. ad valorem. Other articles being of the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or any of its possessions are free of statute duty, but subject to a colonial duty of 6 per cent. ad valorem, except rum, which is liable to a colonial duty of 4*s*. per gallon.

Tallow and raw hides, salt, biscuit or bread, meal, flour, except wheat flour, carriages of travellers, wood and lumber, cotton, wool, hemp, flax, and tow ; drugs, gums, resins, tortoise-shell, being of foreign produce or manufacture, are free of statute duty, but are liable to a colonial duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem, except salt, upon which a colonial duty of 1*s*. per cent. is charged. Goods, the produce or manufacture of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, when imported from such islands, to be admitted to entry upon payment of the same duties as are payable upon the like goods, the produce of the United Kingdom or its colonies. Foreign wheat flour admitted on payment of 2*s*. the barrel of 196 lbs. statute duty, and 10 per cent. ad valorem, colonial duty.

Fish of foreign taking or curing, free of colonial duty, but subject to statute duty of 2*s*. the cwt., if dried or salted, and 4*s*. statute duty, per barrel, if pickled. Foreign salted or cured meat, a statute duty of 3*s*. per cwt., and a colonial duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem is charged, except on salt meat the produce of Madagascar which is free of colonial duty, but pays 3*s*. per cwt. statute duty. Foreign butter 8*s*. per cwt., statute duty, 10 per cent. ad valorem colonial duty.

Foreign cheese, 5*s*. per cwt. of statute duty, and 10 per cent. ad valorem colonial duty. Foreign spirits, except rum, statute duty 1*s*. per gallon, and 10 per cent. ad valorem colonial duty. If bottled, an additional duty of 15 per cent. statute, and 10 per cent. colonial duty on the value of the bottles. Foreign glass, silk manufactures, spermaceti may be imported on payment of 15 per cent. ad valorem of statute, and 10 per cent. of colonial duty. Foreign cotton, linen, woollen, leather, and paper manufactures, hardware, clocks and watches, manufactured tobacco, soap, candles, (other than spermaceti) corks, cordage and oakum are subject to a statute duty of 7 per cent. ad valorem, and to a colonial duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem. Foreign wine in cask pays a statute duty of 7 per cent. ad valorem, and a colonial duty of 6 per cent. ad valorem. Bottled wine is charged with a statute duty of 7 per cent. and a colonial duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem, besides 15 per cent. statute, and 10 per cent. colonial duty on the bottles. Articles of foreign produce or manufacture not enumerated above,

may be introduced at a statute duty of 4 per cent. ad valorem, and colonial duty of 10 per cent. ad valorum. Foreign goods imported through the United Kingdom having been warehoused and being exported from the warehouse, are only charged with three-fourths of the statute duty at Mauritius.

Gunpowder, ammunition, arms, or utensils of war prohibited to be imported except from the United Kingdom or some British possession. Base and counterfeit coin, books, such as are prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, and gunjah are also prohibited to be imported into the Mauritius. Coffee, sugar not being refined in bond in the United Kingdom. Molasses and rum of foreign produce or the produce of any possession within the East India Company's charter into which the importation of foreign coffee, sugar and rum is prohibited, can only be admitted into the Mauritius to be warehoused for exportation. Any articles of foreign manufacture, and any packages of such articles imported into the United Kingdom, or into British possessions abroad, bearing anonymous brands or marks purporting to be the names, brands or marks of manufacturers resident in the United Kingdom are liable to forfeiture.

Additional duties levied at the Custom-house on account of Emigration Fund: spirituous liquors of every description, 4*s*. per gallon; cordials, 2*s*. per gallon; wine bottled, 2*s*. per dozen; not bottled, 12s. per hogshead, less 6 per cent. ad valorem.

Export Duties, April 1844.

On sugar, 1*s*. per 100 lbs.; ebony, 1*s*. per 100 lbs.; coffee, 4*s*. per 100 lbs.; tortoise-shell, 6*s*. per 100 lbs.; cotton, 7*s*. per 100 lbs.; cloves, 10*s*. per 100 lbs.; clove stalks, 3s. per 100 lbs.; indigo, 16*s*. per 100 lbs.; net French weight. Gums, six per cent. ad valorem. Ploughs, harrows, steam and water engines and other articles of machinery, calculated to diminish manual labour, and being of British manufacture, are also liable to an export duty of six per cent. ad valorem. All other goods, British or foreign, may be exported free of duty. Foreign ships of any nation at amity with Great Britain may export from Mauritius any description of goods or produce (whether British, colonial, or foreign), upon the same conditions as British vessels to be carried either to their own or any foreign country.

Prices in 1844-45 of the various descriptions of Sugar exported from Mauritius.

		Drs. Cts.		Drs. Cts.
Sugar, White	per quintal	6 83	to	7 19
Fine Yellow	,,	6 70	to	7 5
Good do.	,,	6 35	to	6 50
Middle do.	,,	6 —	to	6 25
Low do.	,,	5 50	to	5 75
Fine Grey	,,	6 60	to	6 80
Good do.	,,	6 10	to	6 40
Middle Grey	,,	5 60	to	6 —
Low do.	,,	4 75	to	5 35
Fine Brown	,,	6 15	to	6 35
Good Brown	,,	5 75	to	6 —
Middle	,,	5 40	to	5 65
Low do.	,,	4 75	to	5 25

Molasses exported to Great Britain from Mauritius.

Year.	Gallons.	Year.	Gallons.	Year.	Gallons.
1838	84,437	1840	40,293	1841	36,177

RATES OF FREIGHT.

To London, Liverpool, and Bristol, 4*l.* 10*s.* per ton of 20 cwt. net.
Cape of Good Hope, 1*l.* to 2*l.* on 2000 lbs. gross French.
Bourbon and Madagascar, 5 drs. on do.

MINOR STAPLES.

Cloves.	Hides.
Clove Stalks.	Horns.
Coffee.	Molasses.
Cotton.	Rum.
Ebony.	Syrups, &c.

THE REVENUE, which now averages 300,000*l.* per annum, is principally derived from custom duties, and three branches of internal revenue, viz. licenses, canteens, and registration fees. Under the system of slavery a tax of 6*s.* was levied upon each slave above seven years of age and under sixty, in St. Louis, and 2*s.* 6*d.* in the country, independently of vaccine, marronage, corvée, and other slave taxes, which have now been abolished. Upon all immoveable property there is an annual tax on the computed value. The bazaar and every thing sold in it, is also heavily taxed. Stamps are a burdensome item of taxation, as also the registration fees, which include the acts of sales and the transcribing them, &c. Licenses are heavy; an inn or café at St. Louis is assessed at 10*l.* per month, and in the country at 7*l.* per month; pedlars pay 1*l.* for their licenses; carriages pay from 1*l.* 12*s.* to 2*l.* 10*s.*, according to their size and construction; boats, canteens, distilleries, printing-offices are farmed out by the government. To every concession of wild land is attached a heavy fine. The privilege of fishing in the sea is in like manner taxed, and the duty varies according to the size of the net. The police taxes are numerous and vexatious. Thus a ship in the harbour cannot be visited but a tax is demanded, a certificate of life and of enregisterment are also required, for which a claim is made, and there is a sort of poor-rate.

The following is an abstract of the Revenue and Expenditure of Mauritius for the year 1842:—Arrears of former years, 6,332*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.* Customs, including import duties, 53,968*l.* 16*s.*; export duties, 37,902*l.* 7*s.*; port collections, 14,312*l.* 16*s.*; wharfage dues, 7,832*l.* 19*s.* 9*d.*; tonnage dues, 5,461*l.* 12*s.*; coasting dues, 959*l.* 14*s.*; boat licenses, 575*l.* 4*s.* Seychelles: import, export, and port collection, 106*l.* 6*s.*; total customs, 121,119*l.* 17*s.* Internal revenues, including direct taxes, 5,269*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*; licenses, 35, 136*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*; bazaar, 4,064*l.* 2*s.*; canteens, 9,070*l.* 4*s.*; distillery duties, 1,440*l.*; stamps, 5,240*l.* 4*s.*; registration fees, 33,162*l.* 6*s.*; mortgages, including conservator's fees, 4398*l.* 8*s.*; post-office, 1,305*l.*; Seychelles direct taxes, &c., 170*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*; total, 99,256*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*; other taxes, 2,020*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.* Incidental revenues, 7,744*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.* Incidental receipts, 17,568*l.*; total revenue and receipts, 247,710*l.* 4*s.* Expenditure, 1842. Arrears of former years, 3,076*l.* 3*s.* Pay and Salaries, including civil, with Seychelles, 25,455*l.* 18*s.*; revenue, 7,465*l.* 16*s.*; judicial, 32,050*l.* 16*s.*; medical, 3,298*l.* 2*s.*; ecclesiastical 3,273*l.* 12*s.*; agent in England, 312*l.* 1*s.*; 71,856*l.* 7*s.* Supplementary salaries, 5,360*l.* 11*s.*; fixed allowances belonging to the foregoing heads, 13,794*l.* 8*s.*; provisional allowance, 1,149*s.* 4*s.*; ordinary contingencies, including buildings, and repairs of roads and bridges, law charges, provisions and stores, revenue and medical departments, &c. &c., 63,687*l.* 2*s.*; allowances to staff and regimental officers, 8,874*l.* 18*s.*; refunded from colonial revenues, 2,987*l.* 12*s.*; loss and imprests at custom-house, &c., 14,471*l.* 1*s.* 8*d.*; total expenditure, 185,744*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.*; surplus revenue, 52,103*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.*

CUSTOM DUTIES ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.		TOTAL.		YEARS.	Revenue derived in England from the Duties on Mauritius sugar.
	£	s.	£	s.	£	s.		£
1812	48,498	17	5,810	3	54,309	1	1825	106,205
1813	38,473	5	7,757	4	46,230	9	1826	150,356
1814	25,791	15	5,004	4	30,795	19	1827	230,005
1815	28,514	19	4,811	16	33,326	15	1828	326,448
1816	41,264	3	14,534	13	55,798	16	1829	324,752
1817	43,024	19	10,603	4	53,628	3	1830	558,207
1818	33,845	18	9,615	0	43,460	19	1831	547,855
1819	29,381	6	6,501	4	35,882	11	1832	631,600
1820	23,101	18	12,995	16	36,097	15	1833	609,352
1821	26,169	2	15,968	2	42,137	4	1834	....
1822	22,539	4	18,894	4	41,433	8	1835	....
1823	24,602	1	18,016	4	42,618	6	1836	....
1824	21,339	8	15,960	3	37,299	12	1837	....
1825	20,796	13	14,279	15	35,076	9	1838	....
1826	19,958	12	27,629	13	47,588	5	1839	....
1827	34,026	15	22,373	0	56,399	15	1840	707,356
1828	35,329	14	25,530	8	60,858	2	1841	744,404
1829	46,928	16	29,795	12	76,724	9	1842	913,228
1830	37,990	13	34,061	12	72,052	5	1843	
1831	29,875	5	35,034	4	64,909	10	1844	
1832	26,072	2	36,681	18	62,754	0		
1833	19,093	9	34,135	8	53,228	18		
1834	36,246	2	36,095	15	72,341	18		
1835	35,647	8	32,904	4	68,551	12		
1836	50,752	6	32,701	12	83,453	19		
1837	48,447	0	31,019	0	79,466	0		
1838	80,551	0	37,189	0	117,740	0		
1839	50,393	0	35,970	0	86,363	0		
1840	60,834	0	39,189	0	100,023	0		
1841	71,567	19	39,560	11	111,128[1]	10		
1842	53,968	16	37,902	7	91,871	3		
1843	47,606	0	28,421	0	76,027	0		
1844	44,752	0	36,302	0	81,054	0		
1845	53,169	0	42,928	0	96,097	0		

PORT CHARGES, MAURITIUS, 1843—44.

Pilotage of vessels of all nations to the Bell buoy, or into the harbour of Port Louis, 6*s.* per foot according to draft of water. Boats and warps, 3*l.*; port clearance, 1*l.* 4*s.* Anchorage on vessel receiving cargo or breaking bulk, 9¾*d.* per ton; anchorage on coasting vessels receiving cargo or breaking bulk, 5*d.* per ton; anchorage on vessels after eight days not breaking bulk or receiving cargo, 5*d.* per ton Moving at Pointe aux Forges or Trou Fanfaron, viz. vessels under 100 tons, 1*s.* per diem; vessels under 200, 2*s.* per diem; upwards of 200 tons, 4*s.* per diem; moving a vessel by pilot to the hulk, 4*l.*; winding alongside of

[1] The whole amount collected under the head of Customs, under which Port collections and other dues are included in the Colonial Balance Sheet, but *not* in this Table, were, for 1841, 145,777*l.*; for 1842, 121,119*l.*; 1843, 108,358*l.*; 1844, 114,487*l.* The expense of the collection of Custom dues averages 6,000*l.* per annum.

[2] The Custom duties on exports accrues principally from a duty of 1*s.* a quintal on all the sugar imported—a most impolitic tax.

the hulk, 2*l*. For an anchor from 4000 to 3500, 16*s*.; from 3500 to 2500, 12*s*.; from 2500 to 2000, 8*s*.; from 2000 to 1500, 4*s*. For a cable from fourteen to sixteen inches, 1*l*. 12*s*. per diem; from eleven to thirteen inches, 1*l*. 4*s*. per diem; from eight to ten inches, 1*l*. per diem; from six to seven inches, 12*s*. per diem; from four to five, 8*s*. per diem.

A tax of ten per cent. is levied on the amount of port office dues for vessels under 350 tons register, and fifteen per cent. for vessels above 350 tons to cover the expense of a dredging vessel.

Statement of the Receipts and Expenditure of the Mauritius, commencing December, 1811.

YEARS.	REVENUE.	EXPENDITURE.	EXCESS OF REVENUE.	EXCESS OF EXPENDITURE.
	£	£	£	£
1811	61,562	534,157	....	472,595
1812	113,508	408,757	....	295,249
1813	128,600	237,299	....	108,698
1814	110,035	236,777	....	126,742
1815	111,701	243,402	....	131,611
1816	137,014	214,005	....	76,991
1817	156,623	297,386	....	140,762
1818	108,928	123,858	....	14,930
1819	100,631	128,245	....	27,614
1820	101,916	127,994	....	26,078
1821	88,188	178,867	....	90,678
1822	90,228	160,766	....	70,538
1823	103,821	166,987	.. .	63,166
1824	110,529	175,100	....	64,570
1825	107,989	146,552	....	38,564
1826	126,334	151,406	....	25,073
1827	139,235	141,170	....	1,935
1828	164,372	157,848	6,523	....
1829	174,473	160,458	14,015	....
1830	166,249	140,807	25,442	....
1831	155,581	192,687	....	37,106
1832	136,033	178,331	....	42,298
1833	147,622	161,407	....	13,785
1834	176,142	174,529	1,613	....
1835	174,570	169,321	5,240	....
1836	211,909	162,724	49,185	....
1837	201,725	188,164	13,561	....
1838	251,796	182,095	69,701	....
1839	214,932	189,637	25,295	....
1840	243,955	181,058	62,897	....
1841	267,781	218,162	49,619	....
1842	254,042	188,820	65,222	....
1843	245,335	436,454	....	191,076
1844	268,255	351,353	....	83,297
1845	296,828	280,011	16,817	....

Expenses of Immigration for 1842, 1843, and 1844.

	Receipts.	Expenditure.
1842.....	£157	£1,480
1843.....	10,903	196,827
1844.....	29,511	123,814

Military Expenditure for 1844.

Pay of general staff officers, 985*l.* 10*s.*; pay of troops, say 32,000*l.*; pay of medical staff, 1,222*l.* 15*s.*; pay of non-commissioned officers, 380*l.* 16*s.*; contingencies, 405*l.* 1*s.*; pay of officers or clerks of the commissariat, 2,094*l.* 3*s.* 9*d.*; contingencies, 3,021*l.* 10*s.*; cost of provisions, forage, fuel and light, including money allowances in lieu thereof issued to the army, ordnance, and commissariat, and the amount of deduction on account of rations from the pay of officers and men, viz. provision, 16,584*l.*; stoppages, 15,778*l.*; net cost of provision, 806*l.*; cost of forage, 143*l.*; cost of fuel and light, 1,487*l.*; total net charge, 2,436*l.* Deduct 1,720*l.* 6*s.* allowed out of the colonial fund for contingencies.

The expenditure incurred by the colony comprises military posts and works, allowances to British troops, including staff and departmental officers, &c.

The officers of her Majesty's forces serving in Mauritius receive pecuniary allowances from the colonial treasury in lieu of the ordinary allowances which at other stations they receive from the British treasury in money or kind, such as rations of provision, forage, fuel, light, lodgings, servants' wages, marching allowance, carriage of baggage, expenses of attending on courts' martial, and other contingencies provided for in her Majesty's several warrants. The monthly sums received by the officers of the several ranks are as follows, house-rent being deducted from such officers as occupy public quarters. These allowances were settled on the capture of the colony in 1811, but have repeatedly undergone modification:—His Excellency the commander-in-chief, 80*l.* per month; colonel when commanding, 67*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.*; colonel not commanding, 40*l.* 8*s.* 10*d.*; lieutenant-colonel, 34*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*; major, 26*l.*; captain, 14*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*; lieutenant, 8*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.*; ensign, 6*l.* 15*s.* 9*d.*; paymaster, 14*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*; quartermaster, 8*l.* 19*s.* 1*d.*; adjutant, 10*l.* 19*s.* 6*d.*; surgeon, 14*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*; assistant-surgeon, 9*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.* Officers commanding corps, lieutenant-colonel, 5*l.* 12*s.* 8*d.*; major, 8*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*; captain, 11*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*; lieutenant, 5*l.* 18*s.* 5*d.*; ensign, 2*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* Officers commanding posts, lieutenant-colonel, 11*l.* 14*s.*; major, 8*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.*; captain, 3*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*; lieutenant, 2*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.*; ensign, 1*l.* 14*s.* 8*d.*

Population from 1767 to 1846.

	YEARS.	WHITES.	FREE. COLOURED.	SLAVE.	TOTAL.
	1767	3163	587	15,027	18,777
	1777	3434	1,173	25,154	29,761
	1787	4372	2,235	33,832	40,439
	1797	6237	3,703	49,080	59,020
	1807	6489	5,919	65,367	77,768
	1817	7375	10,979	79,493	97,847
	1827	8111	15,444	69,076	92,631
	1832	8658	17,902	63,506	89,616
	1842	..	..	..	174,699
Estimated Population	1846	..	..	..	196,550

POPULATION.—1842.

COUNTRY OR DISTRICT.	Area in Square Miles.	Whites and former Slave Population.		Labourers, natives of India.	Natives of China and the Malay Coast.	Natives of Madagascar and adjacent Islands.	Aliens and resident Strangers not included in the preceding columns.	Population to the Square Mile.	Persons employed in		
									Agriculture.	Manufactures.	Commerce.
		Males.	Females.	M. & Fem.	Males.	Males.					
Port Louis	17	20,288	18,210	332	585	1,299	317	2,264	None	716	1,073
Pamplemousses	320	17,000	8,000	3,500	100	224	75	280	1,100	6,500	313
Rivière du Rempart	58	7,941	5,489	5,043	322	305	31	232	10,419	815	96
Flacq	200	8,940	4,795	2,269	203	437	34	70	3,934	..	61
Grand Port	112	6,649	4,312	2,283	..	122	48	98	2,860	541	127
Savanne	88	3,429	2,027	1,461	49	78	34	62	2,723	314	85
Rivière Noire	95	2,769	1,403	423	..	..	8	44	126	15	66
Plains Wilhems	71	3,265	2,446	1,488	104	64	2	80	444	638	47
Moka	68	1,550	1,214	370	3	..	9	41	650	31	33
Seychelles	80	3,243	2,210	..	..	..	133	..	..	..	..
Total		75,074	50,106	17,169	1,366	2,609	691	3,171	22,256	9,570	1,901

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, and DEATHS.

DISTRICTS.	BIRTHS.			MARRIAGES.			DEATHS.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Port Louis	1,547	1,367	1,546	231	179	194	1,672	1,980	2,211
Pamplemousses	492	492	398	52	59	42	472	765	562
Rivière du Rempart	350	229	257	34	18	23	316	281	312
Flacq	390	331	399	26	25	19	248	364	421
Grand Port	409	407	396	20	19	27	289	253	265
Savanne	178	128	172	13	4	4	119	172	145
Rivière Noire	136	134	140	16	21	15	97	111	122
Plains Wilhems	262	224	246	11	13	15	180	223	224
Moka	108	89	115	8	7	10	71	95	75
Seychelles	..	..	43	..	..	..	..	..	23
Total	3,872	3,401	3,712	411	345	349	3,464	4,244	4,350

Schools and Scholars.—1840 to 1842.

Description of Schools.	Districts.	Number of Scholars.								
		1840.			1841.			1842.		
		Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Royal College	Port Louis	181	..	181	275	..	275	..	..	..
Government Schools	Port Louis	193	187	380	188	177	365	221	180	401
	Pamplemousses	52	20	72	62	27	89	61	28	89
Mico Charity Schools	Port Louis	..	..	318	302	169	471	325	194	519
	Pamplemousses	35	23	58	60	46	106	68	42	110
	Rivière du Rempart	74	50	124	131	77	208	141	80	221
	Flacq	30	20	50	29	21	50	37	24	61
	Grand Port	149	76	225	123	66	189	118	73	191
	Savanne	48	50	98	20	15	35	89	86	175
	Plains Wilhems	48	61	109	52	80	132	59	26	85
	Seychelles	..	..	90	60	40	100	..	..	..
Private Schools	Port Louis	681	586	1,267	587	508	1,095	790	597	1,387
	Pamplemousses	24	36	60	10	18	28	..	..	..
	Rivière du Rempart	37	44	81	38	32	70	15	16	31
	Savanne	7	5	12	..	..	..	..	..	..
	Moka	13	12	25	15	18	33	20	10	30
	Grand Port	..	..	..	26	8	34	30	7	37
London Missionary Society	Port Louis	..	..	..	..	..	..	163	120	283
Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge	Port Louis	..	..	..	70	25	95	114	40	154
	Pamplemousses	63	24	87	74	40	114	67	37	104
	Rivière du Rempart	..	..	..	56	51	106	63	37	106
	Grand Port	..	..	..	98	61	159	55	23	78
	Savanne	..	..	..	..	..	..	54	25	79
	Plains Wilhems	17	8	25	35	17	52	..	..	..
	Rivière Noire	..	..	..	24	20	44	..	..	..
Schools established by the Vicar Apostolic at Mauritius	Port Louis	..	..	..	..	..	..	60	50	110
	Rivière du Rempart	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	..	30
	Grand Port	..	..	..	..	..	..	11	..	11

Districts.	Sugar Cane.	Maize.	Manioc.	Potatoes.	Coffee.	Cloves.	Nutmegs.	Miscellaneous.	Forest	Pasture.	Total in Crop.	Total Uncultivated.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
1840.												
Port Louis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	30	49	3,600	..	2,597
Pamplemousses	23,000	1,000	1,106	600	10	50	5	1,130	1,200	9,000	29,096	10,200
Rivière du Rempart	16,712	400	700	500	..	..	..	300	1,000	3,000	22,612	13,108
Flacq	8,000	900	3,000	..	30	10	..	2,000	..	..	13,940	55,060
Grand Port	6,310	170	514	125	175	..	..	600	14,138	14,552	7,894	28,690
Savanne	5,948	250	347	78	103	16	..	122	8,806	7,204	6,864	17,026
Rivière Noire	1,790	50	200	20	30	..	..	400	241	400	2,490	9,700
Plains Wilhems	7,000	48	437	24	..	..	..	500	7,503	3,087	8,009	10,101
Moka	678	150	80	25	10	..	..	520	4,742	6,220	1,443	10,962
Total	69,438	2,968	6,384	1,372	358	76	5	5,602	..	..	92,348	157,444
1841.												
Port Louis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pamplemousses	5,845	..	700	227	5¼	20	12	645	10,350	1,500	30,192¼	25,370
Rivière du Rempart	15,000	..	600	..	10	..	..	15	800	3,010	19,035	18,685
Flacq	8,000	750	3,000	300	30	10	..	1,000	20,000	3,000	16,000	33,000
Grand Port	6,310	160	501	134	185	..	..	200	14,131	29	165	9,500
Savanne	4,798	899	189	50	126	60	..	129	7,060	4,445	10,706	5,852
Rivière Noir	1,369	150	120	16	30	..	..	366	4,500	22,400	24,451	2,500
Plains Wilhems	3,759	150	100	100	..	..	..	500	7,014	Not received	4,609	6,487
Moka	777	69	75	7	10	..	..	89	1,925	4,360	5,388	5,583
Total	58,548	2,178	5,285	834	396¼	90	12	2,944	75,780	38,744	110,546	106,977
1842.												
Port Louis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	50	800	..	100
Pamplemousses	15,500	50	300	12	..	12	10	400	15,000	1,700	16,284	25,000
Rivière du Rempart	12,000	..	400	20	10	..	..	120	800	3,000	15,550	21,370
Flacq	8,000	970	3,400	500	..	..	..	1,000	20,000	3,000	16,000	33,000
Grand Port	7,540	160	506	134	185	..	..	223	13,130	..	8,748	9,000
Savanne	5,275	298	127	14	126	..	..	29	16,700	4,548	10,417	5,800
Rivière Noire	1,230	200	60	16	30	..	..	366	7,500	22,400	24,296	2,665
Plains Wilhems	3,683	127	55	17	..	..	..	798	27,510	4,080	4,680	9,170
Moka	765	127	48	27	11	..	..	92	3,427	4,887	5,957	5,010
Total	53,993	1,932	4,896	740	362	12	10	3,028	104,117	44,415	101,932	110,815

AVERAGE PRICE of PRODUCE, PROVISIONS, &c., RATES of WAGES.—1840 to 1842.

DESCRIPTION.	1840.			1841.			1842.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Horned cattle ..... each	6	0	0	6	3	9	5	3	6
Horses ..... „	23	0	0	40	0	0	27	17	0
Sheep ..... „	1	10	0	1	7	6	1	12	0
Goats..... „	1	2	0	0	15	6	1	4	0
Mules ..... „		..		44	9	0		..	
Swine (alive) .....per 100 lbs.	2	10	0	2	10	0	per lb.		6
Milk.....per bottle	0	0	7½	0	0	6	0	0	6
Butter, Fresh .....per lb.	0	4	0	0	4	0	0	4	0
——— Salt..... „	0	2	2½	0	1	1¼	0	3	6¼
Cheese ..... „	0	2	5	0	0	8¾	0	2	9½
Wheat .....per 100 lbs.		..		0	8	11		..	
Wheaten bread ....per 14 oz.	0	0	3	per 16 oz.		4	0	0	3
Beef .....per lb.	0	1	7½	0	2	6	0	0	6
Mutton ..... „	0	3	1½		..		0	1	5
Pork ..... „	0	0	11	0	0	9	0	0	10

DESCRIPTION.	1840.			1841.			1842.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Rice ..... per lb.	0	0	2	0	8	7*	0	*6	6¾
Coffee ..... „	0	1	10	per doz.	6	2	0	0	0
Tea ..... „	0	6	0	0	3	0	15*	0	0
Sugar[1] ..... „	0	0	7½	1	10*	0	1	4	8*
Salt ..... „	0	0	1½	0	7	6*	0	3	7*
Wine ..... per cask	5	0	0	4	1	0	3	9	0
Brandy ..... per velt	0	11	0	0	9	6	0	4†	0¾
Beer..... per dozen	0	11	0	0	11	6	0	10	6¾
Tobacco ..... per 100 lbs.	4	8	0	3	6	0	2	4	0
Rum and arrack .. per gallon		..			..		0	1	4¼
WAGES FOR LABOUR.									
Domestic.....per month	1	12	0	1	10	0	1	4	0
Prædial ..... „	1	8	0	2	0	0	1	6	0
Trade ..... „	3	12	0	2	8	0		..	

* Per 100 lbs. † Per gallon.

STOCK.—1840 to 1842.

DISTRICTS.	HORSES, MULES, & ASSES.			HORNED CATTLE.			SWINE.			GOATS and SHEEP.		
	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1840.	1841.	1842.
Port Louis	945	..	..	166	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pamplemousses	500	1,962	1,850	3,200	4,540	5,000	3,000	26,369	25,000	700	1,514	1,200
Rivière du Rempart	7,000	6,380	6,380	8,600	7,500	7,500	1,700	1,800	19,000	2,700	3,000	3,000
Flacq	500	1,576	640	2,500	3,000	3,000	2,000	3,000	2,600	600	600	700
Grand Port	1,853	651	872	2,177	2,470	2,539	1,000	2,360	3,000	400	359	435
Savanne	261	336	273	658	782	916	676	1,125	265	83	54	05
Rivière Noire	162	299	371	7,360	6,436	4,590	1,800	1,500	1,500	500	109	320
Plain Wilhems	400	..	596	844	..	1,369	1,800	..	566	..	..	120
Moka	149	175	195	1,355	1,037	937	150	65	55	12	19	8
Total.....	11,770	10,379	11,177	26,860	25,765	25,801	12,126	36,219	51,986	4,955	5,655	5,868

[1] It is a singular fact, that though sugar is double the price at Mauritius that it is at Bourbon, yet provisions are much dearer at the latter island.

Manufactories, Mills, Works, &c.—1840 to 1842.

Districts.	Description of Establishments.	No. of Establishments. 1840.	1841.	1842.
St. Louis	Water mills for corn	1	2	2
	Steam mills for corn	2	1	..
	Tan houses	1	2	1
	Salt pans	1	1	2
	Lime kilns	2	2	..
	Fisheries	2	2	2
	Distilleries for rectifying spirits	5	8	8
	Marine establishments	6	6	6
	Mechanics steam mill	2	2	..
	Quarries	..	4	3
Pamplemousses	Water mills for sugar	8	8	8
	Steam mills for sugar	38	37	35
	Horse mills for sugar	4	1	0
	Corn mills	4	..	5
	Brick kilns	1	1	2
	Lime kilns	5	4	6
	Fisheries	10	14	25
	Distilleries	15	20	17
	Stone quarries	3	3	4
	Marine establishment for small craft	1	1	0
Rivière du Rempart	Steam mills for sugar	44	43	43
	Water mills for sugar	9	9	9
	Wind mills for sugar	2	2	2
	Distilleries	10	15	17
	Fisheries	9	11	11
	Marine establishment	1	1	2
	Lime kilns	..	20	30
Flacq	Steam mills for sugar	20	29	29
	Water mills for sugar	15	13	11
	Distilleries	14	19	14
	Fisheries	7	7	69
	Marine establishment	1	1	1
Grand Port	Steam mills for sugar	14	19	20
	Water mills for corn	..	1	1
	Water mills for sugar	4	4	3
	Horse mills for sugar	1	19	16
	Distilleries	13	8	10
	Fisheries	8	2	2
	Marine establishment	2	7	5
	Lime kilns	11		

Districts.	Description of Establishments.	No. of Establishments. 1840.	1841.	1842.
Savanne	Steam mills for sugar	5	8	8
	Water mills for sugar	15	13	7
	Distilleries	15	16	16
	Fisheries	2	..	5
	Lime kilns	1	1	2
	Marine establishment	1	1	1
Rivière Noire	Steam mills for sugar	5	5	5
	Water mills for sugar	4	3	2
	Water mills for corn	2	2	2
	Distilleries	4	2	1
	Fisheries	4	7	55
	Salt pits	2	2	2
	Lime kilns	0	3	3
Plains Wilhems	Steam mills for sugar	14	14	16
	Water mills for sugar	9	12	12
	Horse mills for sugar	1	..	..
	Distilleries	10	10	11
	Lime kilns	1	..	..
Moka	Steam mills for sugar	1	2	2
	Water mills for sugar	4	5	4
	Distilleries	1	5	5
Seychelles	Water mills for sugar	..	..	2
	Marine establishments	..	1	1
Total	Water mills for corn	7	9	10
	Steam mills for corn	2	2	2
	Steam mills for sugar	141	137	158
	Tan houses	1	2	1
	Salt pans	3	3	1
	Lime kilns	9	35	47
	Brick kilns	..	..	2
	Fisheries	42	38	177
	Distilleries	77	114	90
	Stone quarries	3	4	7
	Mechanical works	2	2	..
	Water mills for sugar	68	67	65
	Horse mills for sugar	8	1	..
	Wind mills for sugar	2	2	2
	Tan houses	1	13	13
	Marine establishments	13	..	2
	Saw mills	..		

A new machine for manufacturing sugar, called Machine Pecqueur, has lately been invented. It can turn into sugar 25 barrels of cane juice every hour, each of which is estimated at 100 lbs. The machine, though complicated, combines great simplicity and order.

L.

Lodöice des Maldives or Seychelles (Coco de mer), of the genus monoclytedones, and the family of the palms, is one of the most extraordinary and valuable productions in nature, and may be classed among the Lataniers, though it resembles the cocoa-nut in many respects. It is unarmed; the fronds bipinnate, folioles bifidal, flowers diœcious, and grows to the height of from fifty to eighty feet. It is perfectly straight, but its circumference is small. Every tree bears about twenty or thirty cocoa-nuts, weighing from twenty to twenty-five pounds, each of which are borne on a peduncle of six feet in length. The head is covered with from ten to twelve palms, of nearly twenty feet in length. The pedicle is sloping in its contour. The leaf is in the shape of a fan, and has a fuller appearance than that of the cocoa. The wood of this tree is very hard at the surface, but the interior is filled with soft fibres. After being cleared and deprived of its interior fibres, the trunk, which differs little in form from that of the ordinary cocoa, but is harder and thicker, is of use for making tanks to receive water, and palisades for dwellings and gardens. The common name is coco de mer, which was given by the Portuguese, the first discoverers; because, in their early voyages to the East Indies, they discovered several of these nuts cast up by the sea on the coasts of Malabar and the Maldives; and as they could never find any at all resembling them elsewhere, they were led to believe it a marine production. The husk, from which rope is manufactured, resembles, in colour and fibrous consistency, that of the cocoa-nut. The form of the nut is bizarre. The shell is thick, large, and fibrous, and divided into two compartments, containing a light-coloured and transparent gelatinous substance, which, though brought to table and good to eat,[1] is without any flavour, and as a fruit valueless. The shell of the nut is employed in the construction of pitchers of different forms; those designed to bear water are formed of the whole nut, bored at the top, the contents of the interior being scooped out. The negroes carry them suspended from the top of a stick. They will contain from six to eight pints of water. They are an object of commerce for this reason, and highly prized by sailors from their not being subject to breakage. They can be graved, and will take a most excellent polish. When sawn in two, these shells serve as dishes and plates for the negroes. Brooms and baskets are made of the ribs of the leaves, and mattresses and pillows are stuffed with the down attached to the leaves. The pistil of the flowers gives, when ripe, a spherical fruit of from eight to ten inches in diameter. The seed-vessel is about two feet long, and three inches in diameter, studded with small yellow flowers, issuing from the angular projections, which resemble those of a pine apple. When stripped of its hair, this fruit, mulieris corporis bifurcationem cum naturâ et pilis representat. Another fact connected with this singular production is, that the smell arising from it after some days is so offensive (resembling human excrement, which arises from an aperture in the fundament), that its vicinity is hardly bearable, which increases the longer it is kept. In proportion as the fruit dies, the jelly is changed into a hard kernel like a horn. The stem of the leaves proves highly serviceable in constructing the negro huts and the cottages of the lower order of farmers, while from

[1] The Abbé Roçhon, on the other hand, describes it as bitter and disagreeable.

the young leaves, when dry and cut into twists and lashes, hats are manufactured of a superior quality, which are universally worn in the islands by all classes male and female. The old leaves serve to cover the roofs. With one hundred leaves a commodious cottage may be erected, covered in, doors made, with windows and partitions to chambers. At Praslin most of the cottages of the labourers are thus built. Besides these purposes, there are many more to which this extraordinary fruit is applied. So important is this tree to the Seychelles that its loss would be more severely felt than that of any other production of which they can boast, yet its cultivation appears to be totally neglected. It is an extraordinary fact that the tree which bears the nut is *known only* at the Seychelles, and even there is confined to two islands alone, all efforts to transplant them to others having proved fruitless, though the whole group apparently possess the same soil and climate. Praslin and Curieuse are the two upon which they flourish, growing in the interstices of the rocks. Immediately at the junction of the leaves with the trunk of the tree, hang the nuts and seed; the former about a foot long and eight inches thick. The Indians held these nuts in high estimation, attributing to them many curious and salutary properties, and, indeed, the value set upon them throughout Asia was once so enormous that, previous to the discovery of these islands, a single nut has been known to sell for between 300*l.* and 400*l.*, and the Indian princes had cups made of them, ornamented with gold and precious stones; but since the French traders furnished the Indian market with them more plentifully,[1] they have lost much of their estimation and with it their rarity. Among the different properties which have been attributed to this tree, some are fabulous, and the others are not sufficiently consistent. The physicians of Asia pretended that this nut was an anti-scorbutic, would effect a radical cure of the venereal disease, and was an antidote against poison. It was also believed that the kernel had an astringent quality, and might be used to remove dysentery. It is known to botanists as the nux medica. The discovery of this nut on the coasts of the Maldives and Malabar, more than four hundred leagues from the place of growth, is useful for making known the direction of the currents.

Additional Particulars respecting the Chagos Archipelago.

The structure of an *Atoll* or circular group of islands, extending round a basin of deep water, tends to strengthen the notion of its volcanic origin. The islands indicated the rim, and the basin the hollow of the crater; as the Peros Banhos Atoll. In the centre of the circle of the Chagos group, the depth of water is forty-two fathoms soft, sand and mud, decreasing

[1] Le Guet, in the description of his exile at Roderigue, states that the sea brought cocoa-nuts, weighing five or six pounds, and cast them on the shores of that isle without injury, and that the germ of one beginning to appear, they planted it soon after their arrival, and when they left the island, it had grown to a tree of four feet in height. He opines that they came from St. Brandon (which does not exist, he, therefore, means the Cargados Garayos) sixty or eighty leagues to the north, and windward of Roderigue. "The sea never," says he, "brings anything but on that side, which leads me to believe that the currents joined with the wind and tide in their conveyance. The whirlwind in the hurricane season may have blown these fruits from St. Brandon out to sea, when they would become subject to the course of the waves." The Cargados do not, however, produce this plant, it must therefore have come from the Seychelles.

gradually towards the contour: small coral knolls, with precipitous sides, are numerous in the basin, which, at low water, have two, three, or four fathoms on them. As many atolls then, so many volcanic cones exist below. Each island, with its reefs, rests on the summit of a slender coral pillar, so that any great convulsion which should disturb the base in the depths of the ocean would, in a moment, overthrow the island all round; the bank which supports the Archipelago slopes away at an angle of forty-five degrees into the immeasurable depths of the ocean, so that the little verdant flats, forming as it were the outworks of the group, stand tottering perpetually on the edge of an abyss. At a short distance from the shore, no bottom is to be found with any length of line. Some few of these coral nests are inhabited only by sea birds, and Danger Island has only recently been visited by the foot of man. From afar it presents a prospect of great beauty, being covered at intervals with tufted groves, and matted all over with an undergrowth of bright green, contrasting beautifully with the snow-white surf, which beats everlastingly with a deafening noise around it. There is no creek or opening on any side. The low cliffs rise perpendicularly out of the waves, a landing is therefore impracticable. There exists, however, on Eagle Island, a tradition that several years ago, during an extraordinary calm, the surf and breakers subsided, which tempted a man to paddle over in a canoe. He climbed up the coral rocks, and, with eager curiosity, traversed the whole surface of the isle, which he found to be of surpassing beauty, covered with soft grass and wild flowers, and copses, and overhanging trees, peopled with aquatic fowl, and strewed in places as thickly with beautiful birds' eggs as the sea shore is with pebbles. His ear eagerly watched for the least indication of a breath of wind, which would at once have put the surge in motion, and rendered a return in his frail bark impossible. After snatching then a short and fearful pleasure, he made his way beneath a canopy of sea-birds, which almost deafened him by their screams, to the place where he had landed, and paddled back safely to Eagle Island, since which no one has ever beheld the interior of the foam-girt rock. The Portuguese are supposed to have been the first discoverers of this Archipelago. It has been visited at intervals ever since 1598 by English vessels, and the French had explored and surveyed it in the middle of the tenth century. The whole group lie in a space of 135 miles north and south, and 80 miles east and west. The produce of the cocoa-nut oil is now probably 160,000 gallons a year, worth 180,000 rupees. They are capable of producing much more. The oil is made in the common mill, such as is used in India, and worked by the negroes, assisted by asses, which thrive well, and breed fast on the island. The proprietors of the estates contribute nothing to the revenue for their produce, but are under a contract to supply the Mauritian government with oil at a certain price, and, in fact, they monopolize the sale, as, on the arrival of a vessel at the Mauritius from India, laden with that commodity, the contractors lower the price, and offer to buy what has been imported by others. As little or no profit is allowed, the importers must either sell it at a loss, or take it to another port. Brigs of 150 tons are sent from the Mauritius by the proprietors of the group, which generally make two trips during the fair season, bringing with them rice and provisions for the settlement, and return full of oil, cocoa-nuts, and their refuse, which sells well at the Mauritius for feeding cattle and poultry.

The vegetable productions of the isles are similar to those of the Maldive; but the Salomon Isles produce the hard and durable tattamaca.

The bois mapou grows to an immense size in these islands, and can be seen at a great distance from land: the sea-birds generally roost on it; the wood is soft, fibrous, and spongy. Sometimes in the most barren places these trees shoot up, decay, and are blown down equally rapidly. In a few months they rot into fine black mould, and serve to furnish rich vegetable soil for the growth of what is more useful to man. The banyan tree is common here, but does not attain the same size as in India. Indian corn grows most luxuriantly, but is not carefully cultivated. Tobacco also flourishes, and a small garden, occasionally looked after, produces, all the year round, cabbages, greens, sweet potatoes, onions, carrots, turnips, leeks, garlic. Limes, and citrons thrive well, but few are planted. Pompions and plantains grow wild, and are of a good flavour. Captain Moresby introduced the bread-fruit tree from Ceylon, and the Malabar yam, which have succeeded. The cotton plant grows on any part of the group, and, when carefully cultivated, produces fine and long fibred cotton. There are several grasses on which sheep and cows will thrive. Fresh water is generally on these islands of a good flavour, and wholesome, and is found at the depth of four or five feet. Some wells dug near the beach, from fifty to one hundred yards distant, produce good water, and are subject to a rise and fall, according to the tide. These sources are the immediate offspring of the sea, whose waters deposit their saline particles in percolating through the sand and coral rocks, and spring to life, fresh and sweet, at a very short distance from their great parent. Pigs and poultry, the only stock to be obtained, exist in abundance, but are not very cheap, because large quantities are sent to the Mauritius. The coarse cloth, known by the name of *punjane* in India, is prized by the negroes, who barter their fowls at the price of one yard for a cock or hen. The colour they prefer is blue. Pigs are generally sold by weight, at six dollars or twelve rupees per hundred-weight. Fowls and pigs are fed on the refuse of the cocoa-nuts, after the oil is extracted: this they call punach. Fish are very plentiful, and at all times easily procured. Green turtles are frequently found, as also the hawks'-bill turtle; the flesh of the latter is sometimes deadly poisonous. They are, however, easily distinguished from the other turtle by the crooked bill, and the tortoise-shell lying in scales on the back. The negroes have a curious method of finding out when its flesh is poisonous; they sprinkle a little of the blood on the back of their hands or the skin of their legs; if it cause an itching sensation the flesh is considered poisonous, and thrown away. The shell is detached by burying the body in the sand for a few days. A good turtle produces about three pounds of tortoise-shell, value from twelve to fifteen Spanish dollars. The commanders are allowed ten per cent. on all tortoise-shell; and every negro who finds a valuable turtle is presented with a piece of blue cloth, with five or six rupees. The season when hawks'-bill turtles visit the islands for the purpose of depositing their eggs, is from December to March; they land in the middle of the day as well as night: after which they are seldom or never seen. The common turtle is to be found at all seasons; sharks are great enemies to these animals. The fish caught among the islands are never poisonous. Seals and walruses used to frequent the neighbouring seas, but of late they have been seldom found. There are no snakes; but rats are numerous, as also cats, which have become wild and exceedingly troublesome. There is a species of land lobster on the islands, called by the French "sepile;" it is very fine eating, but a

totally different animal from the ordinary land crab. Bees (the common brown sort) are very numerous on the southern islands, and in some cases are domesticated; many, however, are still wild, and produce good honey and wax. Wasps are very annoying in the jungle. Both these animals were brought originally from the Mauritius; the wasps for the purpose of destroying the insects which injure the cocoa-nut trees. Of birds the aquatic are the most numerous; the black frigate birds with a red pouch, the booby, noddy, puffin, white gannet, common gull, several kinds of heron, the white tropical bird, called by sailors the boatswain, all breed on these islands, and are considered good eating, the feathers too, make excellent bedding. Some few migratory birds are occasionally found, such as snipes, the grey curlew, and the teal, but they are by no means common. Flying foxes, crows, and sparrows, do not exist here, which is remarkable, as these islands are not far distant (two hundred and sixty miles) from the Maldives, where they abound, and are regarded as a nuisance. Of birds of prey, such as hawks, kites, and vultures there are none, so that seabirds are left in unmolested possession of the whole archipelago. In the Chagos group the thermometer ranges between 76° and 82° in June; but when the trade winds commence, the weather is cold, and the atmosphere more clear. Passing clouds or a few light showers are at times observed while the thermometer stands at about 78°. There is almost continually a delightful freshness and softness in the atmosphere about these islands; and though very hot in the sun, the air, where there exists any shade, is cool, and the nights are invariably very pleasant. With a climate so agreeable, it is not surprising to find that the Chagos Islands are extremely healthy. The treatment of the negroes, when slaves, is described by Captain Moresby as upon the whole praiseworthy. Occasionally they were hard worked, and badly fed, but the contrary was the rule. All the provision supplied them by the proprietors consisted of a pound and a quarter or a pound and a half of rice per day, with a small quantity of spirits from time to time; the rest, such as fowls, pigs, fish, vegetables, and fruit, the negroes found for themselves. They worked from sunrise to sunset for six days in the week, the Sunday was their own; yet tasks were frequently completed on this day, which had remained unfinished on the Saturday. Turning the cocoa-mills in the heat of the burning sun appears to have been the hardest labour they had to perform. Two men were tasked to grind sufficient cocoa-nuts to make twenty-six or thirty gallons of oil, which they could accomplish between sunrise and noon. Four hours sufficed sometimes for the task, when the sun's rays, being very powerful, caused the oil to flow more freely from the nuts. The negro slaves might easily have been spared this labour, since asses, as we have seen, thrive well on the islands. When not working at the mills, the negroes and negresses were usually engaged in seeking cocoa-nuts in the woods as they fell from the trees; to collect five hundred cleaned from the husk being the daily task of each man, and for a woman three hundred; others were employed in breaking and exposing them to the sun. There was but a small proportion of women to men. The laws of marriage were unknown, which may account for the scanty number of children, many of whom died young for want of care. Indeed the women were suspected of causing their children's death by neglect, where they were not compelled to perform their maternal duties. There existed no means of instruction among these poor people, either religious or secular; they had

scarcely an idea of a Supreme Being, and the overseers did not trouble themselves about them. Here then is a field, however small or obscure, for some missionary, who, without danger or difficulty, might confer very great benefit on humanity. He would probably have to begin with instructing the overseers themselves; Frenchmen, when removed from the public eye, having a strong tendency to degenerate into savages, as M. de Tocqueville frequently admits. The negroes on the Chagos group are now free, that is to say nominally, though perhaps very little change would be found in their condition. Among the occupations of these negroes was the feeding of swine, with which the dwellers on many of the islands lived on terms of considerable intimacy. On one isle of moderate dimensions the droves were exceedingly numerous, amounting, it was reported, to six hundred head. The utmost carelessness was exhibited towards these brutes. Nominally they were said to be fed twice a day; that is, a small quantity of punach was thrown into troughs before some two hundred or three hundred half-famished animals, when a scramble took place, and the strongest of course got the lion's share. The remainder continued constantly scattered about the island, and subsisted on windfall cocoa-nuts, and such herbs or roots as they could find. Although left in that state, however, they never exhibited signs of ferocity. A few of a very superior quality were kept in sties, otherwise these filthy animals were admitted even amongst the dwellings of the inhabitants. Several large sows, with their litters, had taken up their quarters under the floors, which were raised about three feet above the ground, whence any thing but sweet odours were emitted. The effluvia, combined with those issuing from a hundred other pigsties scattered in all directions, produced an intolerable atmosphere. On the same island there was a colony of bees, brought from Diego Garcia; they had exceedingly increased. In addition to those in hives, the island swarmed with them in all directions; they formed their combs on the cocoa-nut trees. The honey was occasionally sent to the Isle of France, rather as presents to friends than as an article of commerce. The hives, if they might be called so, were merely pieces of cocoa-nut trees, about four feet long, roughly hollowed out. The remains of a garden completely burrowed up by pigs seemed to confirm the opinion of the extreme sloth and want of management prevailing. A breed of very fine pointers, amounting, with pups, to about forty, were scattered about, and contributed, in conjunction with about half a dozen starved cats and kittens, to the effluvia before mentioned. They had on this island a species of wild cat, descendants of some tame ones, which had strayed and forgotten their domestic habits; but from constant warfare being made against them, they were not at all numerous. Tattamacca Island being infested with rats, as indeed all the others are, a number of fine dogs had been placed there to kill them. These poor creatures were allowed no other subsistence than cocoa-nuts, a negro being kept there to feed them; they, however, managed to prey upon the rats, and were all in capital condition. Occasionally at low water, during spring tides, some of these forlorn animals find their way over the reef that separates the two islands; but, on being discovered, are immediately sent back to their place of banishment.

Roderigue.

The palms of this island are in general about thirty or forty feet in height; their trunk is straight and without leaves, but covered with a

kind of sharp scales, which are somewhat raised at the point; others have a smooth bark. At the upper part of the trunk grow the branches of palm-leaves, which hang around like so many plumes of feathers; beneath these branches grow long clusters of the fruit, which is green, and of the size as well as the shape of an egg, called the date. In the centre of this large, leafy plumage, and on the summit of the trunk, grows what is called the cabbage; it is not visible, as the branches rise all around, and overtop it. It is composed of tender leaves, which adhere closely to each other, and form a mass. It is about two feet high, and as thick as the trunk. The large outward leaves of this mass are white, sweet, supple, and strong: they may be used as goatskins when skilfully dressed, or linen, satin, napkins, and towels. The membranes or leaves of the heart are tender and crisp, like that of a lettuce: it may be eaten raw, and tastes like a nut, and forms an admirable ragout when dressed with the fat and liver of the land turtle. The palm wine is a nectar well known in the Indies. There are two modes of obtaining it; one by making a hole about five inches diameter in the trunk of the tree, under which a vessel being suspended it is soon filled with the pleasant liquor; at other times the cabbage is scooped out of the tree, by which a cistern is formed on the top, from whence two or three times a day the juice may be drawn. Either way the liquor is equally good, but to spare the trees the first method is the best, as after the reservoir formed by the removal of the cabbage has furnished its liquor for about a month, the tree becomes exhausted and declines. But the incision, if not made too deep, is not destructive; the liquor will not, however, flow from one aperture more than four days, when the tree must be left to recover its strength: a large wound would also weaken the trunk for a resistance against the hurricanes. The latanier (Corypha umbraculifera), is placed by botanists in the class of palms. This tree has here a straight trunk, formed of a succession of large rings of equal thickness, with a smooth bark. At the top there is a cabbage, like the other; at the bottom several large leaves shoot forth, whose stalks are six or seven feet in length. These leaves are strong and thick, and resemble an open fan; some of them are eight feet in diameter, so that they form an excellent covering for houses; they may also be shaped into hats and umbrellas. The stalk, which is hollow, is four fingers broad, and more than an inch thick round the sides: its extremity, which springs from the tree, and nearly embraces it, has a large and concave shape, about a foot in diameter, and is used for plates and dishes. The exterior rind of this stalk is employed for ropes, and the fibres of the interior serve as sewing thread, and might be woven into linen if the filaments were properly prepared. Its wine does not differ either in taste or other qualities from that of the palm; but it should be immediately used, as on the third or fourth day it begins to be sour, and on the seventh or eighth acquires as sharp an acid as the strongest vinegar, without any change in its colour. The dates of the latanier are larger than those of the palm-tree. Around the lower part of the cabbage there grows a kind of cotton of a light lemon colour, known in the Indies by the name of capoe, of which excellent mattresses, &c., may be made. The island produces several other kinds of wholesome fruit trees, one, bearing a species of pepper and about the size of a plum tree, has a leaf like a jessamine; the fruit grows in small bunches. The ficus indica, whose branches extend in a circular form, and are so thick as to be impenetrable to the rays of the

sun, is found here. Some are so large that two or three hundred persons may take shelter under them, which arises from the peculiarity of the branches that bend down to the earth, take root there, and form a progeny of stems by shooting forth new branches. It has a leaf the size of a hand, which resembles a heart in shape, and is soft to the touch. The flower is white, and has a pleasant odour; the fruit round, of a red colour, and of the size of a plum. The skin is hard, and contains small seeds; it is not unwholesome, but is insipid. It is the daily food of the bats, who roost in flocks in the tufted branches of the tree. The wood of the trees in the island is in general very hard, yet is often full of worms a few weeks after being cut down, but when left to soak a month in the sea the worm cannot enter it. The fœtidia is found here. Purslane, which is found in the valleys, is the only plant found in Europe. The island produces a very odorous flower, as white as the lily, in shape like the jessamine; it grows on the decayed trunks of trees. There are no fourfooted animals at Roderigue, but rats, lizards, and land-turtles. Of the latter there are three kinds, and some weigh one hundred pounds. Their flesh is wholesome, like mutton, but more delicate. The fat, which is white, does not congeal, nor cause indigestion; it is superior to the finest butter of Europe, and a remedy for rheumatism, &c. The liver is good eating, and large in proportion to the animal, being equal to one-third of the whole weight of the flesh. The bones are solid, and without marrow. These turtles lay their eggs and cover them in the sand, and leave them to be hatched in the sun. They are perfectly round, and of the size of those of a fowl. The shell is soft, and its contents excellent food. They were once in such abundance as to be seen in flocks of two or three thousand, who collected together in the evening in cool places and in such close array, that the ground seemed to be paved with their shells. It has been observed that some constantly took their post at a small distance from the others as sentinels, but this was useless, as the turtle could neither defend itself nor flee. The sea-turtles were once abundant, and some were of immense weight. They too lay their eggs and cover them in the sand, and always in the night, depositing them in a hole about three feet deep, and one broad. The large ones can lay about two hundred in the short space of two hours, and leave them to be hatched by the heat, which is done at the end of six weeks. When born the young ones are not larger than chickens, and on coming out of the shell instantly hurry to the sea. At this period they walk or crawl faster than when of a larger size. The frigates and many other birds destroy them in great numbers; but as the turtle annually lays from one thousand to twelve hundred eggs, they quickly multiply. The eggs, though of the same shape, are not so well tasted as those of the land-turtles, nor is the flesh as delicate. The white, too, so soon dessicates that the egg soon contains nothing but the yolk. The liver is almost tasteless, but the smell is rancid, and creates an unpleasant sensation in the stomach long after it has been eaten. This animal feeds on the herbs that grow at the bottom of the sea, and never comes on shore but to lay its eggs, previous to which it remains nine days in a state of coition. Its fat once melted, remains in a liquid state. Its taste is grateful to the palate, and is well adapted for culinary purposes; it will live more than a month without food, if it has discharged its eggs, and is dashed from time to time with sea water; its blood is coldish. The lamentin or sea-cow (trichechus manatus) is also found in great abundance in the

surrounding seas, and appears in large herds. Its head resembles that of a hog, with a less pointed snout. It has no fins, but in their place two paws. The body is thick, as far as the navel, and the tail has its breadth horizontal, when the animal is laid on its belly; its blood is warm, and its skin is rough, hard, and of a blackish hue; a small quantity of hair is scattered over it, though it is scarcely perceptible. Its eyes are small, and two holes, which it opens and shuts at pleasure, may be called its gills and ears. As it seldom shows its tongue which is not large, many think it has none; it has grinders and tusks like a wild boar, but has no fore teeth; the gums are very hard, and with them it tears up and browses upon the grass at the bottom of the sea; its flesh is excellent, and resembles that of the best veal. The largest are twenty feet in length; the females have breasts like a woman; some say it has two young ones at a time, and that it suckles them both together, supporting them at its bosom with its paws, but this is doubted. This fish is easily taken. It feeds in flocks not more than three or four feet from the surface of the water, and is so tame that their breasts may be handled in order to select the fattest; they can be taken either by shooting them or dragging them on shore by main force, which requires four or five men, and is done by tying a rope round the tail. The flesh of the smaller ones is the most delicate; the fat is firm, and well flavoured, and neither in taste nor appearance can the flesh be distinguished from butcher's meat. The animal immediately dies after losing a little blood. It is not, perhaps, amphibious, as it would be difficult for it to drag along its unwieldy shape on land. A large number of other kinds of fish are found, all of which, save oysters and eels, differ from those of Europe. Sea-eels are easily caught with a line, as well as those of the fresh water.

Birds.—The most remarkable bird in this island is the solitaire, so called because it has never been seen in flocks. The plumage of the males is gray, blended with brown, the feet and beak resemble those of the turkey, though the latter is rather more crooked. They have scarcely any tail, and their hinder part is covered with feathers in such a manner as to give it a round appearance. They are taller than the turkey, and have a straight neck, somewhat longer in proportion than that bird, when it erects its head. They have a black and lively eye, but are without a crest and never fly, as their wings are not sufficiently strong to sustain the weight of their bodies; they use them therefore as a means of attack or defence, or to call to one another. For this latter purpose they whirl round twenty or thirty times, when their wings being outspread, the motion produces a noise resembling that of a kestril, and may be heard one hundred yards off. The bone of the pinion enlarges at the extremity, and forms under its feathers a small round lump, like a musket ball, which with the beak forms its principal defence. It is difficult to catch it in the woods, but it may be overtaken in an open space. From March to September these birds are very fat, and when young, yield a well flavoured meat. The males often weigh forty pounds; the hen is a most beautiful bird: some are white, others brown; they have a kind of band, resembling what is called a widow's peak at the top of the bill, which is of a tan colour. They keep their feathers nicely arranged, and clean themselves with their beak; the feathers that cover the thighs are curled at the end, so as to have the appearance of shells, and being thick, have an agreeable effect. They have too projections on the crop, formed of whiter feathers than the rest, representing a woman's bosom; these birds

walk so stately and gracefully that their lives have often been spared, owing to their pleasing appearance: though of a familiar disposition when left to themselves, yet it is impossible to domesticate them. Whenever taken, they shed tears, without making the least noise, and obstinately refusing all kinds of food, soon die. Their gizzard contains a rough brown stone, the size of a hen's egg, flat on one side, and round on the other, and is very heavy and hard. This stone is born with them, as the channel passing from the stomach to the gizzard is too narrow to leave a passage for it. This bird builds its nest upon a heap of palm leaves, which, to that end, it raises about a foot and a half from the ground. It lays but one egg, which is larger than that of a goose. The cock and hen both sit on it in turn, and the hatching takes seven weeks. During the whole time of incubation, and supporting the nestling, which is not capable of supporting itself for several months, the parent birds do not suffer any of their kind to approach them, the hen driving away her own sex, and the cock, male intruders. When the young bird can maintain itself, the parents continue their union. Le Guet says: "We often remarked, (fabulous as it may appear,) that a few days after the young one had quitted the nest, a troop of thirty or forty old ones brought another of the same age to the spot, where the former with its parents joined the troop, and they all proceeded to some retired place; when the elder birds retired in pairs, and left the two young ones to themselves."

The dodo was formerly found at Roderigue; it was a very stupid animal, with a size and figure between that of the turkey and ostrich; the head was long, large, and shapeless, its feathers rose to a point on the forehead, and grew around the beak and on the face in the form of a hood, whence it was called the hooded swan, its eyes were black and large, its beak, which was strong, and of a considerable size and length, was both pointed and hooked, of a pale blue colour, the neck was long, fat, and curved, the body was large and round, and covered with gray feathers that were as soft as an ostrich, its wings were short, legs thick, long, and yellow; it had four claws, three before and one behind, it did not fly, and walked slow: the flesh was covered with fat, and so nutritious, that three or four of these birds would satisfy a hundred people; stones were generally found in the stomach of this animal. Lightness and activity are attributes common to birds, but to these the dodo had no claim, but appears to have been formed to give an idea of the heaviest of organized beings. Size, which in animals indicates strength, in this case produces nothing but weight. The ostrich, &c., cannot fly better than the dodo, but they are swift of foot, whereas it appears to be borne down by its own weight; it answers among the birds to the sloth among the quadrupeds, and is composed of inactive matter, in which the vivifying particles have been omitted; it has wings, but they are too weak and too short to lift it into the air; it has a tail, but out of proportion and place. It might be taken for a tortoise covered with feathers; and nature, by giving it these useless ornaments, seems as if she wished to add the embarrassment, to its natural weight, the awkwardness of its motions to the inactivity of the mass, and render its lumpishness more disgusting by forcing upon the observation that it is a bird. This bird is no longer found at Roderigue; it must be placed, therefore, among those species which have been destroyed by the facility with which they were taken.

The gellinottes (Gallina rustica) are fat during the whole year, and are of a delicate taste, they are of a light gray colour, and the plumage of

the two sexes is nearly alike; they secrete their nests; round the eye is a red border, and the beak, which is straight and sharp, is also red, and about two inches long; they are so fat, as to be seldom able to fly. If anything red is placed before them; they instantly attack it, and are taken in their fury. The bittern is here as fat and palatable as a well fed capon, and more easily caught than the gellinottes. The pigeons are smaller than those of Europe, are of a slate colour, and always fit for the table, they build their nests in the trees. They never build their nests on the main island, but in the trees in the small islets near it, perhaps to avoid the rats, which abound in the former, but never pass over to the latter. The fous, frégates, paille en queue, and some other sea birds who live solely upon fish, make their nests on trees, but the ferrets and some others lay and hatch their eggs on the sand in the islets, where they are so numerous that, when they take their flight, the air is darkened by them. They hatch so near to each other that they are in contact, and so tame are they that they will not move till compelled to do so. They lay three times in the course of the year, but never produce more than one egg at a time. The flesh of these birds has a rank taste, but their eggs are excellent. The fous come in the night to roost in the island, and the frégates, who are stronger on the wing, watch for their arrival on the tops of the trees, when they rise up aloft and pounce on them like a hawk, not with a view to kill them, but to make them disgorge the contents of their stomach. The fou, when it is struck, seldom fails to cast up the fish it has in its craw, which the frégate catches: there is sometimes a contest, but the frégate, being bolder and stronger, seldom fails of obtaining its object; it is of a blackish colour, the size of a duck with very long wings; being a bird of prey, it has formidable talons, and a beak six inches long, crooked at the point. The old males have a piece of red flesh resembling a cock's comb under the neck. The fou is so called, because it lights upon ships, and suffers itself to be taken: its back is of a chestnut colour, and its belly white; the beak is pointed thick towards the head, its legs are short, like those of the duck, and of a pale yellow. The paille en queue is about the size of a pigeon, quite white, and has a short and strong beak and a feather in its tail a foot and a half long, from whence it takes its name. These birds are very audacious, and will seize a cap from a man's head, and carry it off. There is a small bird like the canary, which is very tame. Green and blue parroquets abound, they are of a moderate size: when young, the flesh is delicate. There are also sea-larks and snipes. The great bat elsewhere described is also found here. The palms and lataniers are covered with beautiful lizards about a foot long; they are black, gray, blue, green, and red, and have the most brilliant tints. Their common food is the fruit of the palm tree. They are not injurious, and are very tame; they are the prey of the bitterns, who swallow them with voracity. The nocturnal lizard is of a grayish colour, and an unpleasant shape; it is as thick and long as a man's arm, and its flesh is not unpalateable; it is fond of the latanier. The lice, fleas, stinging flies, and other small insects so troublesome at Mauritius, are not found here.

There is a small fly which occasions a troublesome itching. At sunset they retire to the trees, and reappear at sunrise: as they love shelter, no sooner is a tract of land cleared than they disappear. There is a larger fly, which cares less for the wind, and is extremely troublesome, and it is difficult to preserve food from its pollution, except by a covering of the

latanier leaf. Rats are very numerous and destructive. The land crabs are also very numerous and destructive. They inhabit the lower parts of the island, where they dig in the earth, till they come to water; their den is spacious, with many outlets, and they do not wander far from them. The beak or shell is round, about four inches in diameter, and of a dingy red. This animal moves upon eight claws, which rise about three inches from the ground, and has two large indented claws of unequal size: when in motion its mouth cannot be seen, as it is beneath its body, but its eyes are like those found in Europe; it retires on being approached, but as it pursues the stones thrown at it, there is a chance of striking it; it is dangerous, however, to be pinched by it; it frequently cleans its hole, and having heaped up its dung, removes the whole by pressing it with its claws to its belly: previous to the full moons in July and August, these crabs proceed by thousands from all parts of the island to the sea, laden with eggs, when numbers might be destroyed. The sea-crabs are much larger and a more wholesome food, and their flesh is more digestible. The tourlouroux is also found. The hurricanes, which are here very destructive, bring the green caterpillar. Scorpions are found in some parts of the island, but they are not dangerous. Sharks are equally innoxious, from what cause it is not known.

Salt may be collected from the holes of the high rocks on the coast sufficient to supply the island, the sea water being driven into these cavities by the force of the waves. On the shore is often found yellow amber and ambergris, bitumen is also found.

GENERAL APPENDIX.

The harbour of Port Louis has been gradually, but very perceptibly filling up every year with the sand and earth which are washed out of the town from the small creeks that empty themselves into the basin in different parts during heavy rains, as well as from the river Latanier, which enters the harbour near Cooper's island in many streamlets; so that where there were twenty-four feet of water a few years ago, and a line of battle ship could moor and lay clear of the ground at low water, a merchant ship with eighteen feet water cannot now float at ebb tide. The coral reefs are also growing up the bank on the south side.

The other papers published at Mauritius are the *Government Gazette* and the *Watchman*, and another recently established. These papers contain little to interest the English reader, any vacant space, after matters connected with the colony have been discussed, being principally devoted to extracts from the French journals.

An order in council has lately been promulgated, which enacts that the English language alone shall be used in all the public courts after 1847. This ordinance is declared premature by the island press, but it should be remembered that a warning was given the colony fifteen years ago. Abundance of time has therefore been conceded prior to the adoption of the change.

By a Parl. Paper published in 1842, it appears that 1,015 acres were sold at Mauritius in 1839 for the sum of 1,132*l.*, and about twenty-five acres granted: in 1840, thirty acres were sold. In 1841 the proceeds of sales were, 1,393*l.*, and about twenty acres were granted. The total quantity of land remaining ungranted cannot, says the return, be ascertained.

A statement of the number of slaves for whom compensation has been claimed, and of the number of claims preferred for such compensation, and of the amount of compensation awarded in each of the classes of prædial attached, prædial unattached, and non-prædial.—*Parl. Paper*, 1838.

Classes.	No. of Slaves in each Class.	Compensation for each Class.	Total.
		£	
PRÆDIAL ATTACHED.			
Head People.....	853	48,025	
Tradesmen	965	52 464	No. of Slaves
Inferior ditto	1395	52,460	26,830
Field Labourers	16590	613,847	Amount
Inferior ditto.....	7027	145,261	£912,059.
PRÆDIAL UNATTACHED			
Head People.....	224	12,757	
Tradesmen	353	17,898	No. of Slaves
Inferior ditto.....	584	21,995	7594.
Field Labourers	4677	172,576	Amount
Inferior ditto	1756	37,503	£262,732.
NON-PRÆDIAL.			
Head Tradesmen	1374	77,233	
Inferior ditto	2347	88,997	
Head People employed on wharfs, shipping, &c.	411	18,818	No. of Slaves 22,275. Amount
Inferior ditto.....	945	34,539	£811,307.
Head Domestics	7132	335,129	
Inferior ditto.....	10,066	256,588	
Children under 6 years of age in 1835	7612	88,132	
Aged, diseased, &c...	2032	25,751	

Number of claims.—Prædial attached, 1,404; prædial unattached, 1,077; non-prædial, 4,905.

	£	s.
Average value of a slave from 1822 to 1830 ..	69	14
Relative value of slaves.....	4,783,103	15
Share of the 20,000,000*l.* to Mauritius	2,112,632	10

COSTUMES.—A young French creole: bearded and mustachoed, hair smooth and very long: light-green cravat, puce-coloured coat, and bright buttons of the last Parisian cast, figured vest, and sky-blue trousers, a profusion of gold ornaments. A young Chinaman: face smooth, the tail reaching to the calf of the leg, with a straw hat, and loose cotton frock and trousers. A Malagash: bare-headed, the hair twisted and worked into snake-looking points, which stick out and leave a very Medusa-like appearance; his only garment a white cotton sheet, worn as a flowing robe, similar to the Roman toga. They are a fine-looking race, and with this simple dress there is yet a noble look about them. A Bengal cooley: a Scotch cap and a soldier's coat, otherwise perfectly naked, except a cloth round the middle. The language used is French creole with the Bengalese, nega, and some odd words belonging to no nation, all intermixed, requiring but a graft of Chinese to make it a most unique tongue.

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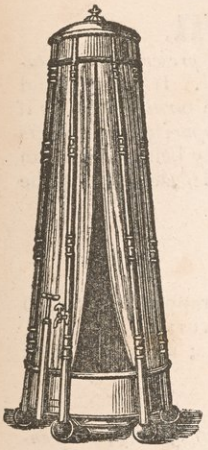

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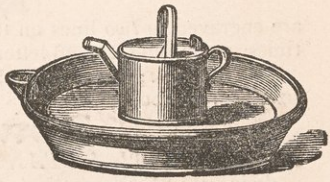

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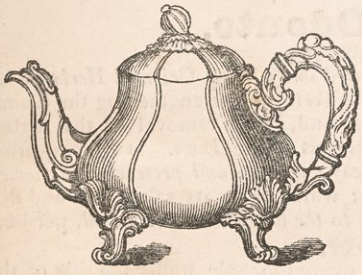

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