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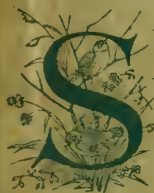


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"IÈRE" 

The Land of the Humming Bird

BEING A



SKETCH ^{OF} _{THE} ISLAND



OF TRINIDAD.

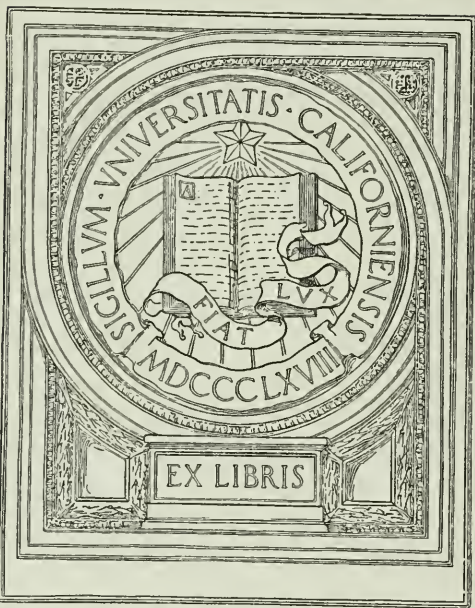
Specially written for the Trinidad Court

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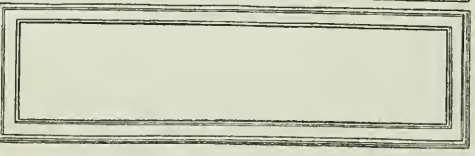
World's * Fair, * Chicago,

By HENRY JAMES CLARK, F.S.S.



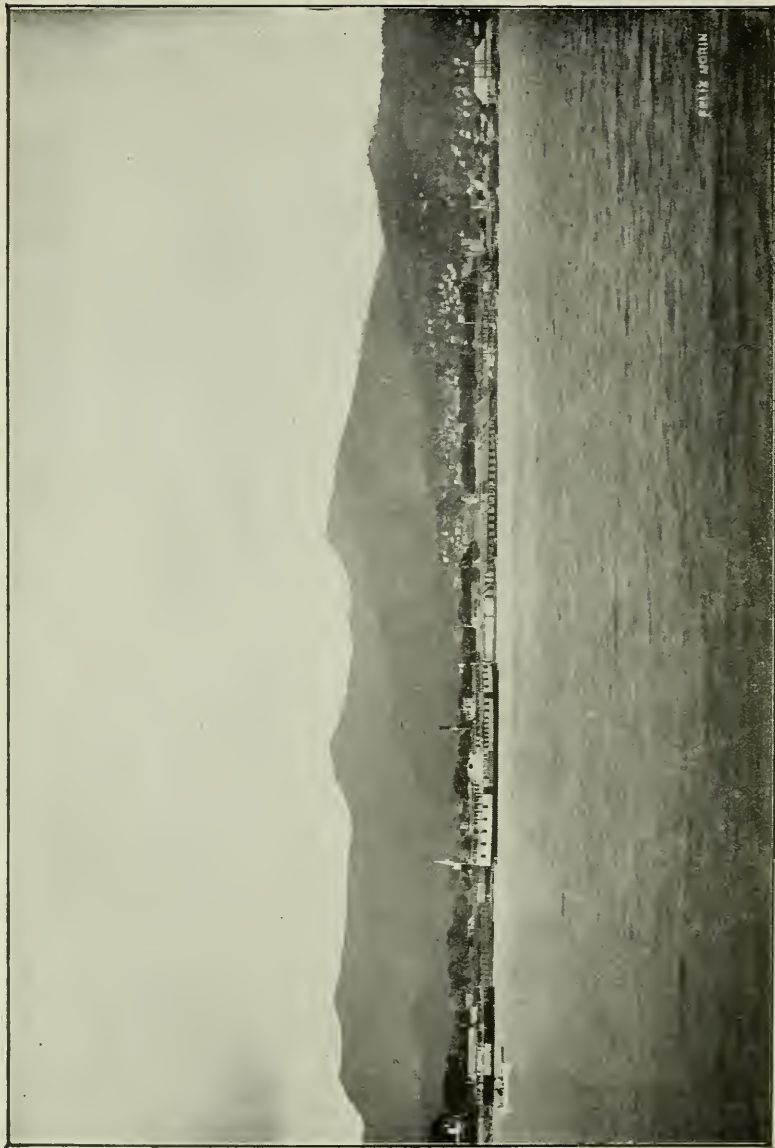


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VIEW OF
CANTON



PORT-OF-SPAIN FROM THE HARBOUR.

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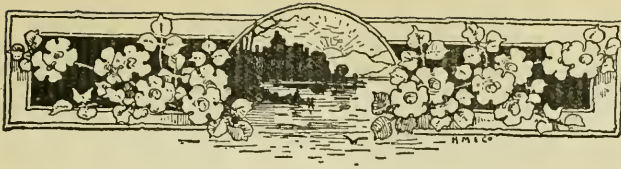
TO THE
ADVISOR

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INTRODUCTORY.



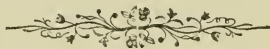
READER: Have you ever seen a humming-bird?

No! not a stuffed specimen, even were it the peerless trophy of the taxidermist's art: No! nor even one of those wonderful art-productions that adorn the more recent monographs of the *Trochilide*; but one of these lovely feathered gems as they are to be seen in the bright warm sunlight of a tropic clime; now darting with lightning speed from flower to flower, anon poised in mid air under some favourite *Bignonia*, the bill buried in the recesses of the flower, the vibrations of the wings so rapid as to make them almost invisible, while the sheen from the plumage of the diminutive body and crested head makes it appear like some natural pendent, studded with a thousand gems all set with the matchless skill of Nature's lapidary.

If it has been your good fortune so to view these tiny-feathered gems in all their natural life and loveliness, you will be able to form some idea of the beauty and brilliancy of the scene that met the view of THE GREAT DISCOVERER, when,

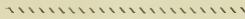
instead of the parched and sterile land he had expected to find as he approached the equator, he gazed for the first time on the mass of gem-studded foliage and flower that clad with perpetual verdure the hills and vales in the new found land which he called "LA TRINIDAD," but to which the natives had given the name "Iëre" or "The Land of the Humming-bird," from the number and variety of these tiny creatures that had made their home in the island.

It is to this beautiful island—"the gem of the Caribbean Sea," the "Iëre" of the Indians, the "Trinidad" of to-day—that the writer invites your attention, in the hope that in the following sketch, brief and imperfect though it be, you may find something to interest you—something that will awaken a desire for a more extended knowledge of, if not a personal acquaintance with, the vast resources and almost unlimited capabilities of a colony which can justly claim to be one of the most beautiful, most healthy, and most highly fertile of the many tropical possessions of the British Crown.





GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, AREA, &c.



TRINIDAD, the most southern of the chain of islands separating the Atlantic Ocean from the Caribbean Sea, is situated to the eastward of Venezuela, between $10^{\circ} 3'$ and $10^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude and $61^{\circ} 39'$ and 62° west longitude. It was discovered by Columbus, then on his third voyage, on the 31st July, 1498, and was so named by him in pursuance of a vow taken some time previously. In shape, it was not inappropriately described by the Spaniards as resembling an ox hide, but more recent and correct observations prove it to be almost rectangular in shape, with however two arms or horns which stretch out respectively from its north-western and south-western points towards the neighbouring continent of South America. These arms and the western side of the island enclose the Gulf of Paria on its eastern side, whilst it is similarly enclosed to the westward by the South American continent, into which it runs for a depth of fifty or sixty miles. The greatest length of the island from North to South is fifty miles; the average length, 48 miles; its greatest breadth is sixty-five miles, but its average breadth only thirty-five miles. No topo-

graphical survey of the island has as yet been made, but the superficial area is estimated at $1,754\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, or 1,122,880 acres.

The general, physical aspect of Trinidad is that of a comparatively level country, none of its mountains possessing the towering grandeur of the lofty peaks which distinguish the smaller Antilles. In the three ranges of hills which, running parallel with one another, divide the northern portion of the island into two principal valleys or basins, there are however one or two peaks of considerable elevation, such as TUCUTCHE (3,012 feet) in the west, and the CERRO DE ARIPO (2,740 feet) in the east. The central and southern ranges of hills are much less elevated, the highest peak in the former, TAMANA, being only a little over 1,000 feet, whilst the highest elevation in the southern range does not much exceed 700 feet. The valleys and plains are watered and drained by several large rivers supplied by innumerable smaller tributary streams, and the mountain ranges are everywhere deeply indented with ravines and deep gorges, through most of which flow more or less abundant streams of water. There cannot be a doubt but that the island owes much of its richness and fertility to these numerous streams, which, flowing through its valleys, cover them with never-fading verdure and beauty.

Without entering into scientific details, it may be said that the geological formation of Trinidad, although volcanic rocks are entirely wanting, displays great variety, and that its soil is equally diversified, ranging from the rich dark chocolate-colour soil that covers the marl formations down to the poorer sandy soils found

in connection with the arenaceous series chiefly in the southern portion of the island ; and yet even *there* the soil is, in many parts, highly fertile, as is proved by the large and thriving cocoa cultivations lately established in recent years, at Erin and Cap-de-Ville. Although thus possessing a soil of such singular fertility and of so diversified a nature as to render it capable of producing almost every vegetable product of tropical or inter-tropical countries, as well as not a few of those of more temperate regions,* yet it is only of late years that cultivation has been much extended, and there are still vast tracts of virgin forest in which the ring of the woodman's axe has never been heard.

The geographical position of Trinidad promises to the colony a commercial development in the future as great, if not even greater, than its agricultural. Standing, as has been aptly said, "like a geographical sentinel" at the entrance to one of the great waterways of the world, it must sooner or later become a great commercial centre. Sir Thomas Picton, the first British Governor of the island—a man of great shrewdness and foresight, and a military commander of no mean reputation—was so convinced of its importance both from a strategic and commercial point of view that, during the period between the capitulation and the final cession of the island to Britain by the treaty of Amiens, he repeatedly urged its retention—stating that "it would be

* "The great diversity of soil seems to indicate that the country, limited in extent as it may be, is calculated to become the home of a highly varied agriculture."—*Geology of Trinidad: Wall & Sawkins.*

extremely impolitic to restore it to Spain *on any terms or for any equivalent.*”

Of the importance of Trinidad from a commercial point of view, Picton thus writes :—

“ The island possesses the most extensive and, perhaps, one of the best and finest harbours in all America, wholly free from hurricanes (the effects of which are so dreadful in all the other West India Ports). It is so situated as to command the commerce of an immense Continent, extending from the banks of the Rio de las Amazonas to those of La Magdalena, including the rich Provinces of Guayana, Varinas, Santa Fé, Venezuela, Caracas and Cumana, with which there are navigable communications by means of the different rivers which traversing those extensive countries, at length lose themselves in the great River Orinoco, which discharges into the Gulf of Paria opposite the south-east point of Trinidad.”

But Picton was not the only one who thus early realized the full value and importance of Trinidad. The great Napoleon, then First Consul, has left on record a document that shows how well he understood the advantageous position of the island and its value to the British Crown. In a letter written in August, 1801, to the French Plenipotentiary in London, after instructing him firmly to oppose any proposal for the cession of the island to Great Britain, he adds :—“ Trinidad from its position would not only afford a means of defence for the English colonies, but also of attack on the Spanish mainland. Its acquisition would in other respects be of immeasurable importance and value to the British Government.”

Nor does Napoleon stand alone among the great men of the period, in his estimate of the value of the colony. That calm, thoughtful and most practical of statesmen, Mr. Canning,

in introducing his well-known motion in regard to Trinidad,* spoke eloquently in favour of making the island a strong naval and military station and a sanatorium for the British troops in the West Indies—instead of handing it over to those who could see nothing in a West Indian colony but a field for the production of sugar—while at the same time he pointed out with much force and clearness that from its geographical position it ought to be the emporium of the trade with South America.

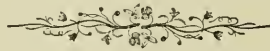
So impressed was Trinidad's first British Governor with the idea of making the island the great entrepot for the trade of the Orinoco and its tributaries, that he did not hesitate to propose a plan of armed interference in the affairs of the neighbouring Spanish Provinces, in which there were already signs of that growing spirit of resistance to the Spanish yoke, which was to culminate in the protracted but ultimately successful struggle for independence.

Picton's proposals were not acted upon, and in the ever-shifting current of events we find him, a few years later, bravely fighting side by side with the troops of the very nation against whose South American Provinces those hostile proposals were made. "There is, however," to use the eloquent words of Trinidad's latest historian : † "a force more powerful even than that of armed battalions—a force which has rendered easy and commodious what to the greatest heroes of ancient and modern times was difficult

* "That no grants should be made of unclaimed lands in the newly ceded island of Trinidad, except on the express condition that no newly imported slaves be employed thereon."—(27th May, 1802.)

† L. M. Fraser—History of Trinidad—Vol. I.

“ and irksome—which has overcome both natural obstructions,
“ and the all but impassable barriers of ignorance and prejudice.
“ That spirit of commercial enterprise which has pierced the Alps,
“ opened the Suez Canal, and is now bringing into close connexion
“ the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by means of that Isthmus which
“ has hitherto separated them, will at last effect peaceably and
“ without any armaments what Picton would have brought about
“ by conquest. That which he desired and the great Napoleon
“ feared will, it is to be hoped, before long come to pass, and then,
“ when the whole trade of New Grenada and of the rich and fertile
“ countries lying between the Andes and the Atlantic finds its way
“ by the Meta, the Rio Negro, the Casanare, the Apure, and a
“ hundred other streams down the broad bosom of the Orinoco
“ into the Gulf of Paria, Trinidad will become a second St.
“ Thomas, and Port-of-Spain a West Indian Liverpool.”

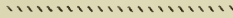




PORT-OF-SPAIN FROM THE LAVENTILLE HILLS.



EARLIER HISTORY.



FOR more than thirty years after the discovery of the island no formal attempt to take possession of it by force of arms was made by Spain. About the end of that period Don Antonio Sedeño, then holding the office of Royal Treasurer of Porto Rico, proceeded to Spain and obtained a license for the conquest of Trinidad, the King at the same time appointing him, by Letters Patent, Governor and Captain-General of the island. Returning to Porto Rico he completed his preparations and sailed for Trinidad early in the year 1530. On their arrival Sedeño and his followers were well received by the native Indians, whom he at first treated with consideration and justice, and so for a time all went well. Sedeño improved this short period of peace by building a fort and otherwise preparing to defend himself and his followers against any treachery on the part of the Indians. From various causes, into which it is unnecessary to enter in a sketch like the present, the Spaniards soon began to be harsh and exacting. This treatment the Indians resented, and on the Spaniards attempting to use force, they became

exasperated and fighting began—fighting which lasted all through the period of Sedeño's rule and continued intermittingly for many years after. Before long his own followers also became discontented and rebellious, their insubordination amounting sometimes to open rebellion against his authority. After a precarious occupation of the island for a period of about ten years, during which he experienced many vicissitudes of fortune, being often reduced to great straits and exposed to imminent danger, Sedeño died—poisoned, it is alleged, by a female slave—while on a visit to the neighbouring mainland. From the death of Sedeño in 1540 little or nothing of an authentic nature is known of the history of Trinidad until the arrival, *circa* 1584 of Don Antonio de Berrío y Oruña, an honest and upright man of great energy and firmness of character. Don Antonio de Berrío, although holding no direct appointment from the Spanish Crown, appears to have considered that as he had been specially appointed by the Captain-General of New Grenada (the famous Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada) to prosecute the search for, and conquest of, the fabled El Dorado which was believed to be situated in the province of Guiana, he had ample authority to select Trinidad as the base of his operations. With this object in view he obtained reinforcements from Margarita and Cumana, and with their aid succeeded in subduing many of the Indian tribes who had resisted his predecessor, and so secured a tolerably strong footing in the island. Finding that, from its situation on the shore of the Gulf of Paria, the town of Puerto de los Hispañoles (Port-of Spain) was constantly exposed to attacks from the corsairs who infested

the Gulf, he decided on building another town some six miles inland. The site chosen, on rising ground two miles above the junction of the St. Joseph and Caroni rivers, was well adapted for the purpose. To this town de Berrío gave the name of San José de Oruña,* making it at the same time the capital, a position which it continued to hold till within a few years of the capture of the island by the British.

For some years previous to this date and for many years afterwards, owing to the wide-spread opinion that El Dorado, with its golden city of Manoa, was to be found somewhere in the near vicinity of the great river Orinoco, many expeditions in search of this grand prize touched at Trinidad, and it was during the occupation of the island by de Berrío that one of these, commanded by Sir Walter Raleigh, entered the Gulf of Paria. Sir Walter had, in the previous year, sent out Captain Widdhon with the object of obtaining information respecting El Dorado. During his stay in the island, eight of his crew who had been induced by the Indians to accompany them on a deer hunt, were never again heard of, the Indians alleging that they had been killed by a party of Spanish soldiers posted in ambush. Whatever representations Widdhon may have made to de Berrío, he does not appear to have taken any steps either to discover the murderers of his men or to bring them to punishment. But the sequel will show how soon the avenger appeared on the scene and how savage and merciless was his retaliation.

Sir Walter Raleigh entered the Gulf on the 22nd March,

* Now St. Joseph.

1595, and soon after came to anchor off Puerto de los Españoles. De Berrío, who had received Captain Widdhon with every show of friendliness and granted him permission to obtain the water and other supplies he stated he was in need of, extended to Sir Walter a most favourable reception. At the same time it is evident that he suspected the intentions of the English, for he sent to Margarita and Cumana asking for immediate reinforcements. Notwithstanding his favourable reception and his apparent good faith with the Spaniards, Sir Walter entered into secret communication with the Indians, and after obtaining full information as to the route to San José (where de Berrío was then staying), the small number of soldiers in the island and other matters, he decided to attack de Berrío and his town. Taking advantage of a favourable opportunity, he surprised the guard of Port-of-Spain in the evening, and having put the soldiers to the sword he sent forward Captain Colfield with sixty men to attack San José, following himself soon after with forty more. The town was taken at daybreak and set on fire at the request of the Indians, de Berrío being made prisoner while fighting bravely at the head of his men. Sir Walter then returned to Port-of-Spain, bringing with him de Berrío and one of his lieutenants as prisoners. In view of the plea that this otherwise totally unjustifiable attack was made in order to punish the Spaniards for the alleged murder, in the previous year, of the eight men of Widdhon's crew, it is only fair to state that Sir Walter himself admits that the only evidence he had against the Spaniards was that of an Indian Cacique who was one of their bitterest enemies, and who at

the risk of his life, went on board Raleigh's vessel in order to incite him to attack them. Raleigh doubtless felt the weakness of any plea resting on such evidence, and he therefore fell back on the necessities of his position. He says: "To depart 400
"or 500 miles from my ships, and leave a garrison in my back,
"interested in the same enterprize, which daily expected supplies
"from Spain, I should have savoured very much of an ass." Having, as we have seen, summarily disposed of the "garrison in
"his back," Raleigh now set out on what was the real object of the expedition, namely the search for the famed El Dorado. He took de Berrío with him, doubtless in the hope of obtaining from him valuable information in regard to the wonderful land of gold, in the existence of which they both seem to have had implicit faith. This expedition, like all the others, ended in failure, and Sir Walter and his prisoner returned to Trinidad.

When Sir Walter left the island to return to Europe, de Berrío was released, and again resumed the governorship. Being, however, still firmly bent on the discovery and conquest of El Dorado, he decided to place one of his Lieutenants in command of Trinidad, and to take up his residence at San Tome, on the mainland, as being a better position from which to prosecute his life-long purpose, after many failures and misfortunes, and there he died—disappointed, if not broken-hearted.

The belief in El Dorado, with its golden city of Manoa, does not seem to have been much affected by the failure of Raleigh or the death of the brave but unfortunate de Berrío. Other expeditions followed, and towards the end of 1617 Sir Walter Raleigh again

returned to Trinidad. Entering the Gulf by the Serpent's Mouth (Boca de la Sierpe) or southern passage, he brought his ships to anchor under Punta de los Gallos at the south-western extremity of the island, from whence an expedition under the command of Sir Lawrence Keymis was despatched to attack the Spanish town of San Tome. The town was taken by storm after a stubborn resistance, and the expedition ascended the Orinoco in the hope of finding provisions and discovering gold. Finding neither they rowed down the river and returned to Trinidad, where Sir Lawrence Keymis was so scornfully received by Raleigh that he committed suicide. With the failure of this expedition and its tragic sequel the long-continued search for El Dorado may be said to have come to an end, and the whole story of its existence was in a few years relegated to the realm of myths and fables. Strange though it may appear, this phantom land of golden promise that had been the day-dream of Sir Walter Raleigh and the many other adventurous spirits of the sixteenth century—and that, like a golden "will-o'-the-wisp," had allured so many to endure hardship, danger and often cruel death in its pursuit, has in our days proved to be a reality. The Indians' stories of the lake with the golden sands, on whose banks stood the fabled city of Manoa with its untold stores of gold, and which the Spaniards located in the province of Guiana, have received singular confirmation by the discovery some thirty years ago of the rich and valuable gold mines of Caratal in Venezuelan Guiana, by the subsequent discovery of gold in both Dutch and French Guiana,

and again quite recently by the discovery in British Guiana of a gold district that promises to equal, if not exceed, the famous Caratal district in its wealth of precious metal.

The history of Trinidad, during the two hundred years that elapsed between the death of de Berrío and its capture by the British, presents few features likely to prove interesting to general readers. In addition to being successively attacked by the Dutch in 1640, the British under Sir Tobias Bridges in 1672, and the French under the Marquis de Maintenon in 1677, the island suffered severely from the frequent raids of roving adventurers who, although described as Buccaneers, were in reality little better than pirates. Altogether, Trinidad as a Spanish colony was most unfortunate, and its population had so dwindled that in 1773 there were in the whole island only 162 male adults exclusive of slaves and Indians, the total revenue being \$221 or less than £48 sterling.

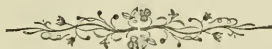
In 1778 a French colonist resident in Grenada, M. Roume de Saint Laurent, paid a visit to Trinidad and was so struck by its many and great natural resources and the extraordinary fertility of its soil, that he decided not only to settle in the island himself, of which he gave an earnest by the immediate purchase of land at Diego Martin, but to do all he could to induce his countrymen and others to follow his example. He drew up a liberal scheme of colonization which, after many difficulties and delays, was approved by the Court of Spain, and a new Cedula of Colonization was signed at Madrid on the 24th November, 1783.

This Cedula was brought to Trinidad by one who was destined to be the last of its long line of Spanish Governors. Don José Maria Chacon, appointed some time previously Governor and Captain General of the island, arrived in September, 1784. He was, to use the words of another, "a man of ability and education, honourable, philanthropic and intelligent, but wanting in decision and strength of mind." He spoke both French and English and was in all respects specially well qualified to carry into execution the scheme of St. Laurent—and he lost no time in doing so. The Cedula translated into French and English was published soon after his arrival, and copies circulated in the neighbouring English and French colonies.

The real colonization of the island dates from the promulgation of this Cedula, the success of which is shown by the fact that during the five years 1784—1789, the population had increased from 1,000 to 10,422. The large majority of these immigrants were of French descent, so much so that the island, although still a Spanish possession, soon became virtually French in population. A further increase to the French element in the population took place in 1793, due to a considerable immigration from San Domingo, caused by the terrible events that occurred there in June of that year. These new comers, if not all Royalists *pur sang* were all staunch upholders of Monarchical government. A year or two later, on the capture of the French islands by the British forces, another addition to the French element was caused by the arrival of a large number of immigrants from those islands, nearly

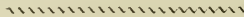
all of whom were Republicans of the most pronounced character. And thus it happened that a colony which had never belonged to France became largely peopled by persons of French descent, many of them holding diametrically opposite political views and opinions. To this hostility of opinions may be traced much of the turbulence and excitement, and many of the actual disturbances which marked the closing years of the Spanish and the opening years of British rule in the island.

Governor Chacon reorganized the whole administration of the colony. Royal decrees were issued reducing the duties on various kinds of goods, and making permanent privileges which had been granted for a limited time only. Encouraged by the success of the Cedula, and anxious to promote in every way the welfare and prosperity of the largely increased numbers over whom he now ruled, Governor Chacon was busily engaged in schemes of further advancement and improvement, when he learned of the somewhat sudden, but not *unexpected* approach of that expedition which was to result in the transfer of the island from the Spanish to the British Crown.





LATER HISTORY.



THE expedition to which reference is made at the close of last chapter, consisted of a British fleet of seven ships of the line and thirteen smaller vessels under command of Admiral Harvey, and having on board General Sir Ralph Abercromby with a land force of nearly 8,000 men. While it must be admitted that Governor Chacon had made no defensive preparations, yet it is not easy to see what defence was possible. To meet the powerful armament of the British, Chacon had under his command barely 500 regular Spanish troops. It is true that a Spanish squadron of four ships of the line and a frigate under command of Admiral Ruiz de Apodaca was anchored in Chaguaramas Bay, but the crews of these vessels had been greatly reduced by sickness and death. The British fleet entered the Gulf of Paria in the afternoon of the 16th February, 1797, and took up a position so as to prevent the escape of the Spanish squadron. Admiral Apodaca immediately assembled a Council of War of the captains of the vessels under his command, and it was unanimously agreed that as escape was impossible in face of so vastly superior a force, the ships should

be burned rather than allowed to fall into the hands of the enemy. The crews were landed during the evening, and shortly after midnight the ships were set on fire and burned fiercely until near daylight. One line of battle-ship, the San Damaso, was captured, the flames having been extinguished by the crews of two of the British ships.

During the forenoon the British troops were landed and advanced upon Port-of-Spain. The only show of resistance was at a point about two miles outside the town, where a few shots were exchanged with a party of Spanish troops sent out to reconoitre. The British troops continued their march, and passing to the north of the town, took up a commanding position on the Laventille hills. At eight o'clock in the evening Sir Ralph Abercromby sent an officer with a flag of truce to the Spanish head-quarters. This officer was instructed to point out the superiority of the British forces and the impossibility of resistance and to offer Governor Chacon an honourable capitulation. A conference was held next morning when the terms of surrender were agreed upon, and before the close of the day, 18th February, 1797, the capitulation was signed, the Spanish troops laid down their arms, and the island became a British possession.*

About two months after the capitulation Sir Ralph Abercromby left the colony, leaving as Governor and Captain-General thereof his *aide-de-camp*, Lieut.-Colonel Picton. The responsibilities and difficulties of the position to which Colonel

* Trinidad was finally ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Amiens—25th March, 1802.

Picton was thus appointed were such as would have deterred any man of less firmness of character from accepting it. Not only was the island a conquered country with a population almost entirely alien, but that population was composed of a motley aggregation of different races and nationalities, divided into hostile sections—all more or less dominated by the strong national antipathies and violent political animosities of the period. Such were the people over whom Picton was called to rule, and among whom he was instructed “to execute *Spanish* law as well as he could, and do justice according to his conscience.” But Picton was one of those men whom no dangers daunt and whose energy and determination overcome all difficulties, and, with all that firmness which was so marked a feature of his character, he set to work to bring order out of chaos, and to compel respect for, and obedience to, the existing law—such as it was. Although, like all the military men of the time, a strict and stern disciplinarian, he was nevertheless an energetic and able administrator, and his government of the colony, under most trying and difficult circumstances, during six of the stormiest years of its history, if marked by acts of stern but needed repression and punishment, was also distinguished by great administrative ability. The population of the colony, when he assumed the government in 1797, was 17,643, when he left in 1803 it had increased to 29,154, while the exports of sugar, then as now, the staple product of the island, had increased from 75,177 cwts. to 142,982 cwts.

To attempt a description, however brief, of the troubles that occurred just before Picton left Trinidad, of his subsequent trial,

of his ultimate acquittal, of his heroic bravery during the Peninsular campaign, and of his death on the field of Waterloo "while gloriously leading his division to a charge with bayonets," would be to go far beyond the scope of the present sketch. Nor is it possible to do more than notice very briefly the leading events that have marked the administration of the more prominent of Picton's successors.

During the ten years immediately following Picton's administration the colony continued to be governed by military men. At the end of that period, however, the whole aspect of international affairs in Europe had so changed as to permit of, if indeed it did not suggest, some deviation from the strictly military system of government hitherto existing in the West Indian colonies; while the condition and circumstances of Trinidad were such as to call for an able and progressive civil administration rather than a strong military one. Under these circumstances the selection of Sir Ralph James Woodford, Baronet, to be the first civilian Governor of the colony was alike fortunate for it and creditable to the Home Government. Sir Ralph arrived on the 14th June, 1813, and at once took over the government from his predecessor, General Munroe. He belonged to a good old English family, was graceful and dignified in person, and although somewhat haughty in manner, was always accessible and ready to receive all who wished to see him. Young,* active, and energetic, he accepted nothing at second hand, but went

* He was only in his twenty-ninth year when he assumed the government.

everywhere, saw everything, and made his own enquiries. In this way he not only obtained a personal knowledge of the different districts of the island and their various wants, but also made himself acquainted with the views and feelings of all classes of the inhabitants. Under his administration the colony underwent a complete transformation. By his own exemplary life and character, as well as by precept and counsel, he did much to raise the social and moral tone of the community.* He brought all schools under Government supervision and control, and issued a code of "Rules for Schools," which, for conciseness and

* The following Proclamation, dated 16th November, 1823, affords so striking a proof of the earnest Christian character of the man, as well as of his extraordinary powers as Governor, as to justify its being given *in extenso* :—

WHEREAS it is a Duty incumbent upon every Christian Government, to recommend, in the most earnest manner to the Subjects of it, a punctual observance of the Sabbath, and a regular and devout attendance at the places consecrated to the Service of Almighty God.

AND WHEREAS a Church has been lately consecrated to the Service of the Blessed Trinity, according to the Forms and Usages of the Church of England, and an Edifice more capacious than the present has been commenced, and is gradually approaching to completion for those who profess the Tenets of the Church of Rome; and there are other Churches already in the Island, and it is in contemplation to augment the number of them.

It therefore becomes desirable that the propriety of duly attending the Service of the Church should be impressed in an especial manner upon the minds of all Classes.

WE DO HEREBY, acting in virtue of the Powers confided to Us, exhort all His Majesty's Subjects, to take into their most serious consideration the obligation on each Member of the Church of Christ, to an attentive observance of the Solemn Worship of the Divine Majesty, as well as of the moral obligation which he has contracted, whether as a Parent or as a Head of a Family, to cause the same to be duly had by those whom he has reared, or whose services he has retained for his use or benefit; taking care that sufficient time and opportunity be afforded to them for that duty, by which they can alone publicly testify their adherence to the Church of Christ, and their belief in the merits of our Blessed Redeemer,

WE DO THEREFORE HEREBY REQUIRE AND COMMAND all Persons, decently and reverently, with their Families and Servants, to attend the Worship of God, where convenient opportunity is afforded to them: And we do especially require and expect all Persons in place of authority, to give good example, by a virtuous life, to the end that all ill habits and practices may be reformed, and that Religion, Piety, and Morality may flourish and increase, to the Honour of God, and the prosperity of the Land.

brevity, as well as in several other particulars, might well serve as a model for the educationists of the present day. He encouraged agriculture, stimulated commerce, and greatly improved both the internal and external means of communication. It is to his taste and foresight that Port-of-Spain owes the width and regularity of its streets as well as its two beautiful squares. He laid the foundation stones of the Roman Catholic Cathedral, the Anglican (Trinity) Cathedral, and the Roman Catholic Church of St. Joseph, all of which he had the satisfaction of seeing completed during his term of government. It is to him also that the colony is indebted for the formation of the Botanic Gardens at St. Ann's—now considered one of the sights of the colony.

There is one fact connected with the period of Sir Ralph Woodford's government that, perhaps more than any other, shows the progressive spirit that animated him: viz., the formation in 1817 of "THE TRINIDAD STEAM-BOAT COMPANY." The company was stated to be "under the patronage of His Excellency the Governor and the Illustrious Board of Cabildo," and both the Board and His Excellency became shareholders. Although to a large extent a commercial venture—all the principal mercantile firms being shareholders—yet to the encouragement and support of Sir Ralph is due in great measure the ultimate success of the undertaking, resulting as it did in the building of the steamer *Woodford* which began to ply between Port-of-Spain and San Fernando on the 20th December, 1818. This fact is all the more noteworthy seeing that not only was the *Woodford* the first steamer to ply in West Indian

waters, but that her first trip in the Gulf of Paria was made only six years after Henry Bell's *Comet* had begun to ply on the Clyde and within three years of the first appearance of a steamer on the Thames.

Sir Ralph Woodford left for England, on sick leave, in April, 1828, but did not reach his destination, having died at sea on the 16th May. Eighteen years afterwards—on the 22nd May, 1846—Lord Harris arrived as Governor of the colony. During these eighteen years the emancipation of the slaves throughout the British West Indian Colonies had taken place, an event which, as is well known, was followed by an immediate scarcity of labour and a consequent depression in the sugar industry throughout these colonies. Trinidad, owing to the comparatively small number of its labouring population, and to the almost unlimited field for squatting afforded by its thousands of acres of virgin soil, suffered more severely than any of the neighbouring islands from the effects of this want of labour. Some idea of the gloom and depression that prevailed in the colony at the time of Lord Harris's assumption of the Government may be formed from the following quotation from one of his earlier despatches:—

“It is sad and painful to see men expecting ruin quickly to overcome them; it is, perhaps, sadder and more painful to see them struggling and toiling against adversity, but with their energies dulled and their arms palsied from their knowledge that their labours must be unremunerative, and that failure can be the sole result: it is most distressing to witness this, and, at the same time, to be aware that much of the misery from which they are suffering and which awaits them, is of a nature which they are unable to avoid by any acts of their own.”

Lord Harris will always be remembered as one of Trinidad's best and ablest Governors. He left many other mementos of the deep interest he took in the material and moral welfare of the colony, and of the marked ability and success of his administration of its affairs during seven years of great depression, commercial as well as agricultural. He was the first to introduce an organized system of primary education. It was a purely secular system under Government supervision and control, but it was certainly not a "Godless" system; for although no religious instruction whatever was allowed to be given in the schools or by the schoolmasters, yet special provision was made for such instruction being given elsewhere; one of the seven "fundamental principles" of the system being—according to Mr. Keenan*—"That the religious instruction of the children was to be committed to their respective pastors, who, upon a day set apart for the purpose in each week, the schools being closed on that day, were to impart such instruction in the churches or elsewhere."—The new system was favourably received and cordially approved by all denominations, and might have become all that its distinguished founder fondly hoped, had it not been for the entire absence of any hearty co-operation on the part of the clergy, the great majority of whom, made but little effort to take advantage of the facilities given them for the religious instruction of the children. Under such circumstances it is not surprising to find that, in this latter respect, the system proved a failure.

* Report upon the state of education in Trinidad by P. J. Keenan, Esq. (1869.)

It is to Lord Harris that the colony owes the introduction of municipal institutions similar to those existing in the mother country, as well as the division of the island into Counties, Ward Unions and Wards, and the inauguration of the Ward system of local government, under which each Ward raised its own revenue by levying rates, &c., while the expenditure was controlled by a Board of Auditors elected annually by the rate-payers. The Ward system has since undergone many and sweeping changes, and, as at present existing, can scarcely be said to be more than the shadow of its former self, or of local government, properly so called.

Thirteen years after Lord Harris had left the colony, Sir Arthur Hamilton Gordon, then Governor of New Brunswick, was appointed to the governorship of Trinidad. Sir Arthur arrived in the colony on the 9th November, 1866, and although his administration was a short one, lasting only till June, 1870, it was one of great activity and marked progress. Of the many important measures introduced during his administration, the one by which, more than by any other, his name is inseparably linked with the history of Trinidad is the Crown Lands Ordinance passed in October, 1868. By this enactment he threw open the Crown lands of the colony, the natural result of which was an increase both of revenue and cultivation—an increase which, with all its other benefits both to the Government and the people, has been more or less steadily maintained ever since. Although this measure was strongly opposed at the time, still such have been the wonderful results accruing from it, that even its bitterest

opponents now readily admit the greater wisdom and clearer foresight that induced Sir Arthur to carry it through in the face of much opposition.

Of Sir Arthur Gordon's numerous successors, the majority held office for short periods only, the two longest administrations having been those of Sir Henry Turner Irving (1874—1880) and Sir William Robinson (1885—1891). The former remodelled and improved several branches of the Public Service, established the Volunteer Force, and further amended the system of primary education, first introduced by Lord Harris, and subsequently amended by Sir Arthur Gordon. The latter took a marked interest in the development of the agricultural resources of the colony, established District Agricultural Boards with a Central Board meeting in Port-of-Spain, and by exhibitions, prizes and other means endeavoured to stimulate agriculture generally, and to encourage the cultivation of a greater variety of products. He established a fortnightly steam service round the island, thereby greatly facilitating communication with the outlying districts. Sir William must also be credited with having largely increased the revenue, and that without any addition to the burdens of the taxpayers; for, notwithstanding the wide differences of opinion that exist as to his policy in regard to the Pitch Lake, the fact remains that when he assumed the government in 1885, the total annual revenue derived from that valuable Crown property was only £1,574, whereas when he left the colony in 1891 it was no less than £31,988; while in the past year (1892) it amounted to £37,232, or

within £434 of the total charge on account of the PUBLIC DEBT. The granting of "The Concession," under which this large revenue has accrued, was as bitterly opposed as Sir Arthur Gordon's Crown Lands Ordinance, but it is more than probable that, in this case also, the results will, before long, bring home conviction even to the fiercest of the anti-monopolists.

The present Governor of the island, Sir Frederick Napier Broome, assumed the government on the 19th August, 1891. While the writer is fully aware that any remarks on the existing administration would be highly unbecoming on his part, he considers it only fair—especially in view of the context—to state, that within a few months of his arrival, His Excellency, in the course of an address to the Central Agricultural Board, showed that on the question most intimately connected with the future development of the colony, his views and opinions were quite as liberal as those of any of his predecessors. Speaking in regard to the most effective mode of securing the best occupation of unalienated Crown lands, His Excellency said:—

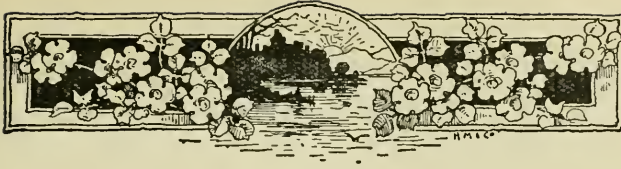
It was evident to him that both in that Board and outside there was a considerable concensus of opinion that something could be done and ought to be done. From what he had learned, his predecessors had from time to time dealt ably with this question, but perhaps the alienation and settlement of Crown lands could still be placed on a further improved basis. We could always improve as we went along.

* * * * *

Only a small portion of our total land was settled, and a large extent of rich soil, which might grow valuable products, was not yet occupied. Riches and progress should come to the colony by its increasing occupation, and they should try in every way to increase the number of *bonâ fide* agricultural occupiers, for if the small holder thrived and prospered he would become in time the backbone of the community.

That a longer residence in the colony has in no way altered His Excellency's opinion as to the necessity of endeavouring in every way to induce an "increasing occupation," with all its resulting advantages, is shown by the fact that, in a Despatch to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, dated 5th January of the present year, His Excellency asks His Lordship to sanction a further loan of £500,000—"to be issued as works are finally decided upon, and to be chiefly employed for opening up the island by railways." In support of this request, His Excellency, very justly states that the proposals he makes are of the first importance to Trinidad, and adds "The additional burden, which would be something under £25,000 a year, for interest and sinking fund on the new loan, would be easily borne, for it would, I feel confident, be soon far exceeded by the additional revenue which would accrue in consequence of the thorough opening up of the island which would be the result of the new railways."

His Excellency is now in England, and will no doubt endeavour to obtain the necessary sanction for the loan above referred to, or for such portion of it as may be required for the gradual extension of the existing Railway system. That His Excellency's efforts may be crowned with success should be the earnest wish of every one who has at heart the best interest of the colony—for in the improved means of communication that will be afforded by these railway extensions, supplemented, as it is to be hoped they may be, by a more liberal land policy, the colony will, in a few years, possess an incentive to colonization more powerful than even the famous Cedula of 1784.



THE CLIMATE.

COLUMBUS in relating the discovery of Trinidad to Ferdinand and Isabella, dwells on "the stately groves of palm trees and luxuriant forests which swept down to the seaside with fountains and running streams beneath the shade;" and on "the softness and purity of the climate, and the verdure, freshness and sweetness of the country which appeared to him to equal the delights of early spring in the beautiful province of Valencia in Spain." The climate of Trinidad has, however, been sadly maligned since the days of THE GREAT DISCOVERER. It is undoubtedly true that, in years gone by, some districts of the island were at certain seasons more or less unhealthy, especially for natives of northern climates; but this was chiefly due to a total want of all sanitary precautions, to an imperfect knowledge of the causes of disease, and of the proper modes of treatment, and to a still more imperfect acquaintance with the natural causes which render certain localities less healthy than others. Of late years all this has been changed: the recognition of the absolute necessity of proper sanitary arrangements has led to the enact-

ment and enforcement of stringent regulations in regard to such matters, while a better knowledge of the nature and causes of disease, combined with improved modes of treatment, and a more perfect acquaintance with the hygienic conditions of the various parts of the island, have resulted in more general healthfulness and a greatly reduced mortality-rate. The death-rate of the colony in 1892 was only 25·86 per 1,000.* This rate, although in excess of the death-rate of the United Kingdom, was considerably less than that of some European countries, notably Austria, Italy and Spain, and was but little, if at all, in excess of the normal death-rate in the larger cities of Europe and America. Of the deaths recorded in 1892, 474 or 8·4 per cent. were of persons over 70 years of age.

The climate of Trinidad while inter-tropical is at the same time insular, and is therefore much cooler and more uniform than that of a continental country under the same conditions as to altitude and latitude. The natural physical formation of the island, divided as it is into two great parallel valleys running almost due east and west, tends also to modify its climatic condition. The mean temperature varies from 76° during the cool season to 79° in the hot season.† In the evenings and mornings of the cooler seasons the temperature seldom exceeds from 66° to 68°. The transition from daylight to darkness, although, as in all tropical countries, a rapid one, is not so sudden as is generally supposed. There is a perceptible, though very short twilight, darkening into

* See Appendix, Table V. † See Appendix, Tables XXIII. to XXV.

night as the last rays of the setting sun fade away on the western horizon. With the close of day there is a marked change in the temperature, the heat and glare of the day give place to a delicious coolness, often made more refreshing by the soft blowing of the evening breeze. Then comes what Kingsley calls "the long balmy night," to be in turn succeeded by daybreak and sunrise. These latter have been thus graphically described by a well-known traveller: "A little before five o'clock the first glimmer of light becomes perceptible it slowly becomes lighter, and then increases so rapidly that in about an hour it seems full daylight. For a short time this changes very little in character; when suddenly, the sun's rim appears above the horizon, decking the dew-laden foliage with glittering gems, sending gleams of golden light far into the woods, and waking up all nature into life and activity. The early morning possesses a charm and a beauty that can never be forgotten, all nature seems refreshed and strengthened by the coolness and moisture of the past night. The temperature is the most delicious conceivable. The slight chill of early dawn, which was itself agreeable, is succeeded by an invigorating warmth; and the intense sunshine lights up the glorious vegetation of the tropics, and realizes all that the magic art of the painter or the glowing words of the poet have pictured as their ideas of terrestrial beauty."

The climate of Trinidad has often been recommended as being particularly favourable to persons suffering from the milder forms of pulmonary affections, and that it is so is clearly shown by the number of well-authenticated instances in which young persons

who had left their homes in colder climates, with more or less marked symptoms of one or other of that numerous class of ailments, popularly called "chest complaints," have not only recovered their health in Trinidad, but continued in the full enjoyment of it during many years' residence, and in not a few instances until, at a ripe old age, they have been laid to rest beneath the palms in the land of their adoption.

Although in some of the instances referred to above, there undoubtedly were symptoms of incipient consumption, and although there are many equally well-known cases in which persons (especially young persons) suffering from consumption in its *earlier* stages have derived marked benefit and prolonged their lives by a temporary sojourn in Trinidad, yet it must not be inferred that the climate is likely to prove favourable in cases of *confirmed* pulmonary disease; on the contrary, the general opinion among local medical men is that *confirmed* "consumptives" should avoid Trinidad.

On the other hand, to the thousands both in Europe and America, who, from constitutional delicacy, are compelled year after year to flee from the rigours of a northern winter, Trinidad, with its genial climate and its entire freedom from hurricanes or extreme seasons of drought, offers the beau ideal of a winter resort; while to the almost equally numerous class who are daily "borne down" on the great battle fields of modern life—worn out and completely run down—and who long for rest and quiet in some sunnier clime, it offers advantages that, if equalled, are certainly not surpassed by those of any of the numerous health

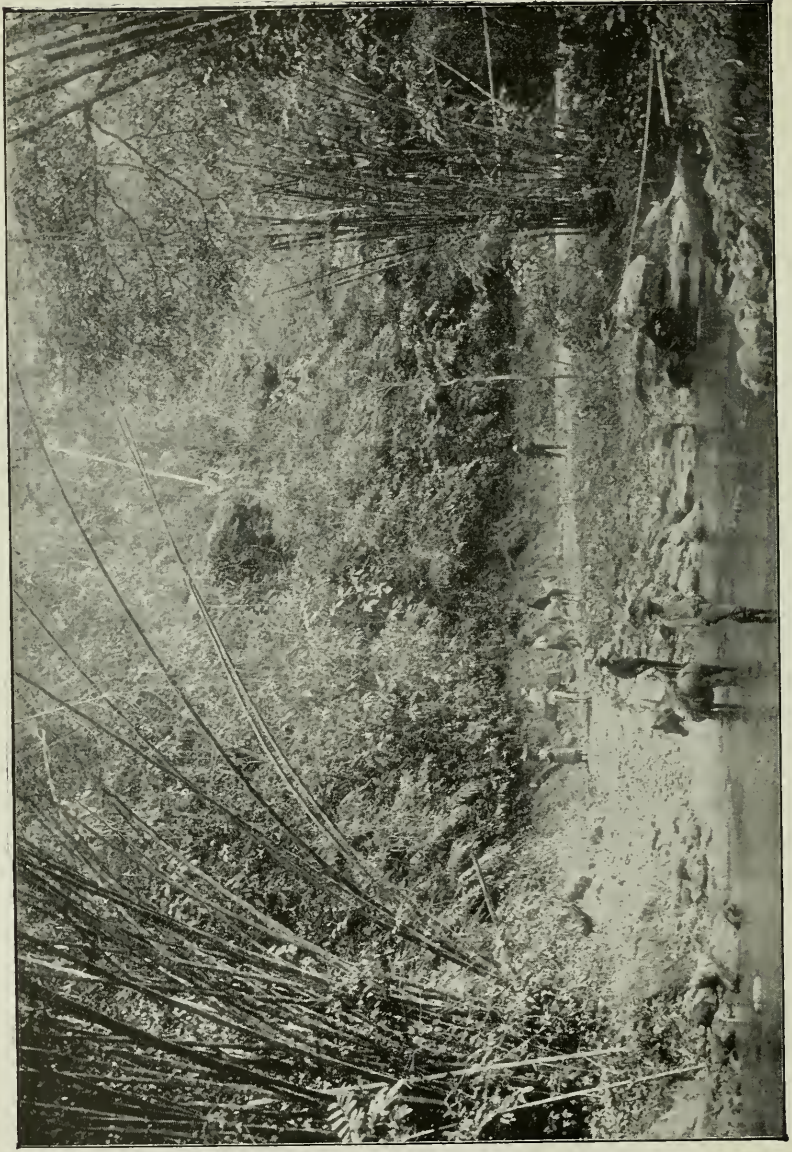
resorts in either the old or the new world. In mildness and geniality the climate closely resembles that of Southern Europe, and is certainly quite as healthy for Americans or Europeans, provided they avoid unnecessary exposure or excess, and live as regularly and prudently as they would do in Italy or the South of France. These latter countries are not, as tourists and travellers have good reason to know, by any means free from malaria and other dangers; and while both the South of France and the more frequented parts of Italy have in recent years been, from time to time, most unhealthy, Trinidad has, for several years past, been entirely exempt from epidemic disease of any severity.

In the matter of hotel accommodation it must be frankly admitted that this colony has been a sad laggard. While, for many years past, other West Indian colonies, with not a tithe of its advantages or attractions, have been subsidizing steam lines of communication, erecting palatial hotels, and doing all in their power to attract a larger number of visitors, it is only within recent years that Trinidad has made any effort to provide really comfortable accommodation for the yearly increasing number of its visitors. The first forward movement in this direction—and a very successful one—was the establishment a few years ago of the “Family Hotel,” by Messrs. C. L. Haley & Co. Within the past month another advance, and it is to be hoped an equally successful one has been made. A new local company has been formed and registered as the Queen’s Park Hotel Company, Limited. An admirable site has been secured for the new hotel, which, it is expected, will be ready to receive visitors early in

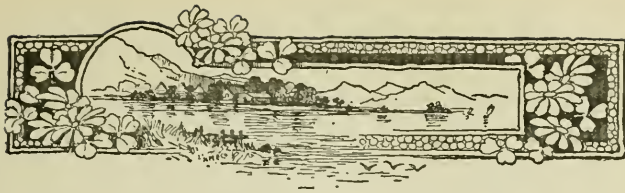
December next. With ample and suitable hotel accommodation and the additional facilities afforded by the fine new steamers of "The Trinidad Line of Steamships,"* Trinidad only requires to be better known in order to become a far more popular winter resort for our American cousins than either the Bahamas or Jamaica.

* The Steamers of the above Line sail regularly every ten days between New York and Trinidad. For details as to this and other steam-lines, see subsequent chapter—"Ports and Communication."

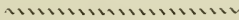




A VIEW IN THE CAURA VALLEY.



THE SCENERY.



ALTHOUGH the scenery of Trinidad presents none of that imposing grandeur which is derived from altitude or vastness, it possesses a natural charm and sylvan beauty that is all its own. Foliage and flowers of unrivalled beauty and in endless variety everywhere adorn the landscape in such rich and rare profusion as almost to baffle description. So much so indeed, that even Kingsley was forced to confess that:—"In the presence of such forms and such colouring, one becomes painfully sensible of the poverty of words, and of the futility, therefore, of all word-painting"

The mountains, or rather hills of Trinidad—for as has been already stated, with the exception of a few isolated peaks, none of the ranges rise much above 700 to 1,000 feet—although neither "rugged" nor "grand" are singularly picturesque. Their slopes, covered to the very summit with luxuriant forest growth, appear when seen from a distance, like one vast sea of wavy woodland, presenting in the clear atmosphere and bright sunlight, an ever-changing diversity of shade and colouring, varying from the lightest of greens to the deepest of russet

browns, lit up every here and there by dense clusters of bright yellow or blazing crimson tree-flowers, making the whole prospect look more like a scene in fairyland than a natural landscape—even in the tropics. It is, however, in the valleys that lie between those mountain-spurs and ranges that the real gems of Trinidad scenery are to be found. Through these valleys meander the crystal-clear streams described by Columbus as “fountains and running streams beneath the shade.” These streams, rising high up in the mountains, flow through the valleys with all the wanton waywardness so characteristic of mountain streams everywhere; twisting and turning hither and thither at their own sweet will, now rushing with tumultuous din through some narrow gorge, anon widening out until, “with scarce a depth at all, they gently ripple o’er their pebbly bed.” In their general characteristics they so closely resemble the “burns” so dear to all Scottish hearts as at once to recall the well-known lines;—

“ Here, foaming down the shelvy rocks,
In twisting strength I rin ;
There, high my boiling torrent smokes,
Wild-roaring o’er a linn.

Nor does the similarity end here: “the bonny bowers,” the “shady nooks” are all reproduced with striking exactness—only with tropical surroundings and under a tropical sun, the latter, however, only making all the more refreshing the delicious coolness of their shade. Such a bamboo-embowered scene is shown in our illustration of a view in Caura Valley. This view brings out with great clearness and minuteness the sylvan beauty of the spot, and gives an excellent idea of the valley scenery of the

island generally, but the real charm and chief attraction of all tropical scenery—the ever changing light and shade, the rich colouring and endless variety of leaf and flower—cannot be portrayed by pen or pencil: to be fully appreciated they must be seen, but once seen, they can never be forgotten.

But the Caura valley while undoubtedly one of the loveliest in the island, has many compeers in beauty and diversity of scenery. Of these the St. Ann's and Maraval valleys are within walking distance of Port-of-Spain. Both possess many natural beauties, and the latter in addition to the rich adornments of nature, has in the reservoir and its beautiful site, "a sweet quiet spot" that has become a regular Mecca for visitors to the island. It is indeed a lovely spot, with the densely wooded hills in the back ground, the large expanse of clear bright water, shaded by an environment of gracefully arched bamboos, and surrounded by quite a unique collection of ferns, crotons, oleanders and other ornamental shrubs. At the head of this valley is the *Silla* or *Saddle*, a depression in the ridge of hills dividing it from the Santa Cruz valley, over which the road passes at a height of 628 feet, both the ascent and descent being somewhat steep. On the other side of the Saddle lies the Santa Cruz valley, watered by a stream of the same name and one of the oldest and most noted of the Cocoa* districts of the island, containing among many other splendid properties, the well known estates, *San Antonio*, *La Pastora* and *Soconusco*. Only two other of the many and all equally beautiful valleys

* More properly, "Cacao"—it being the *Cucuo Theobroma* of Linnaeus.

that nestle among the mountain ranges of Trinidad can be noticed within the limits of this sketch—the Diego Martin and the Maracas valleys. In the former, at a distance of about nine miles from Port-of-Spain, is situated the Cascade and Blue Basin. The cascade is one of the most picturesque waterfalls in the island. It is formed by the junction, high up in the mountains, of several small streamlets whose united waters, after several intermediate descents, here fall into the valley below, the basin at the foot of the fall being known as the *blue* basin. The water of the fall is highly translucent,* and this may perhaps account for the bluish tint it presents in the basin, especially on a bright and cloudless day.

The Maraccas Valley, like that of Santa Cruz, is one of the great Cocoa districts; and as the visitor rides or drives along the winding road, he will see

Cocoa estates to right of him,
Cocoa estates to left of him,

and splendid estates too, for the soil of these “vega lands” is of unsurpassed fertility. Before reaching the head of the valley the river has to be crossed some six or seven times. At most of these “crossings” or fords the stream is but a rippling brook, but at others though neither deep nor dangerous (except when “down,” *i.e.* in flood) it asserts its right to a passage—

* This translucency is probably due to filtration. Joseph states that at one of the intermediate levels above referred to, the water “falls into a large basin of above 60 feet in extent, and 10 feet deep, this basin is composed of micaceous schistus (mica slate), and concretions of lime and earthy matter, through different parts of this basin, which is called the drip-stone, the water exudes and falls into another in the hills below.” *History of Trinidad* page 23.



MARACAS WATERFALL.

huge boulders notwithstanding—and rushes onward fuming and foaming around these obstructions in true mountain torrent style.

In ascending the valley the scenery on every side is equally attractive and varied. In front towers Tucutche, the highest peak in the island, while every turn of the winding road brings into view fresh natural beauties and more picturesque scenes; here the eye is charmed by the light and shade playing fitfully over the wooded hillside; there it catches a glimpse of some lovely bower, shaded by forest giants, their forms reflected in the clear stream that flowing on its way “murmurs sweet tales of love and joy and constancy.” The great sight of the valley is, however, the *Chorro* or Cascade. This fall, 340 feet in height, and distant about thirteen miles from Port-of-Spain, forms the subject of the illustration facing this page. The view here reproduced is from a photograph of great technical and artistic merit, the work—as are also all the others reproduced in this sketch—of Felix Morin of Port-of-Spain, whose beautiful and carefully-finished views of the sights and scenery of the colony are so justly prized and so widely known.

To attempt to describe the Cascade, admittedly the most picturesque of all West Indian waterfalls, would be more than presumption on the part of the writer, seeing that even so great a master of word-painting as Kingsley preferred to fall back on the description written many years before by that ripe scholar and enthusiastic botanist, Herman Cruger. Before reproducing that glowing word-picture, the writer ventures to lay before his readers the following extract from a description of

another fall* :—"The rocks of the rift, close to the heart of the fall, are bare and lifeless; but at the entrance they are bespread with moss and flowers, while whole reaches are covered with the film fern, the *hymenophyllum Wilsoni*, which no one can get at, and only the clear-sighted can distinguish from moss. The water here is absolutely colourless—pure, limpid, unstained world, which splashes merrily at your feet and flies daintily, all refined to spray, into your face as you scramble up the wet rocks and front the whispering Naiad shrouded behind her long white veil." This description, especially the latter part of it, cannot fail vividly to recall to the mind of any one who has visited the Maracas cascade the whole scene as it comes into view from the valley below.

Cruger, with all that intense love of nature born of close communion and deep study, thus describes the approach to the fall: "To reach the *Chorro*, or Cascade, you strike to the right into a 'path' that brings you first to a Cacao plantation, through a few rice or maize fields, and then you enter the shade of the virgin forest. Thousands of interesting objects now attract your attention: here, the wonderful *Norantea* or the resplendent *Calycophyllum*, a *Tabernæmontana* or a *Faramea* filling the air afar off with the fragrance of their blossoms; there, a graceful *Heliconia* winking at you from out some dark ravine. That shrubbery above is composed of a species of *Bœhmeria* or *Ardisia*, and that scarlet flower belongs to our native *Aphelandra*. Nearer to us, and low down

* Scale Force in Cumberland, *vide* The Lake Country by E. Lynn Linton.

below our feet, that rich panicle of flowers belongs to *Begonia*; and here also is an assemblage of ferns of the genera *Asplenium*, *Hymenophyllum*, and *Trichomanes*, as well as of *Hepaticæ* and Mosses. But what are these yellow and purple flowers hanging over our heads? They are *Bignonia* and *Mucunas*—creepers straying from afar which have selected this spot, where they may, under the influence of the sun's beams, propagate their race."

Of the fall he says:—

"Here it is, opposite to you, a grand spectacle indeed! From a perpendicular wall of solid rock, of more than three hundred feet, down rushes a stream of water, splitting in the air and producing a constant shower, which renders this lovely spot singularly and deliciously cool. Nearly the whole extent of this natural wall is covered with plants, among which you can easily discern numbers of ferns and mosses, two species of *Pitcairnia* with beautiful red flowers, some Aroids, various nettles, and here and there a *Begonia*. How different such a spot would look in cold Europe! Below, in the midst of a never-failing drizzle, grow luxuriant *Ardisias*, Aroids, Ferns, *Costas*, *Heliconias*, *Centropogons*, *Hydrocotyles*, *Cyperoids*, and Grasses of various genera, *Tradescantias* and *Commelynas*, *Billbergias*, and, occasionally, a few small *Rubiaceæ* and *Melastomaceæ*."

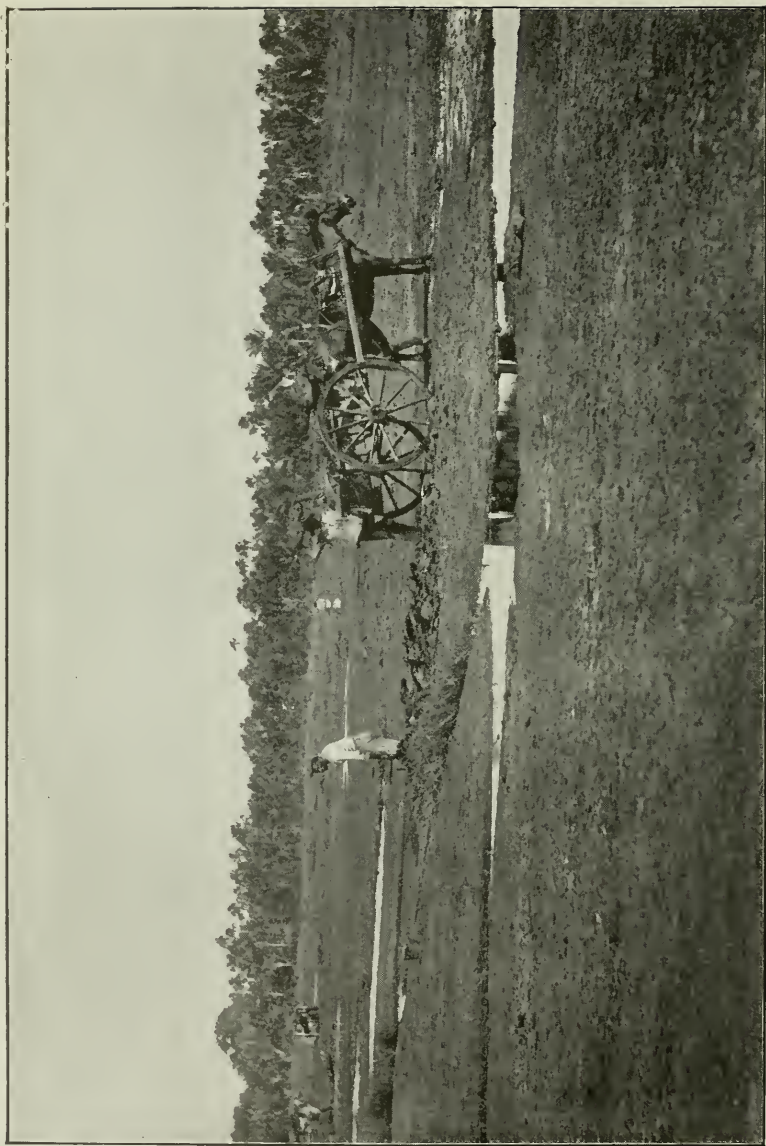
There is one other spot—a dark spot amid all the surrounding brightness, and yet one of deep interest to all visitors to the Island, which cannot be left unnoticed, namely, the Pitch Lake. Before coming to that, however, the writer would briefly note a few of the many other scenes and sights of this beautiful Island.

The Cocal, with its long stretch of fourteen miles of Coco palms and the surge of the Atlantic ever thundering on the shore; Montserrat, which has been called the Switzerland of Trinidad, with its beautiful mountain slopes, their wavy seas of green studded thickly with the bright scarlet flowers of the Immortelles; that weird spot 'The Devil's Woodyard,' where are to be seen those wonderful salses the Mud Volcanoes; the beautiful Islands of the Bocas, and the charming Diego Islands, better known as 'The Five Islands.'

The Pitch Lake is so singular in every respect as to be almost indescribable. Speaking of the first view of it Joseph says:—"Before you a most extraordinary spectacle presents itself, which words cannot describe and which the pencil has failed to delineate." In proof of which latter statement he appends the following footnote:—

"A slight and but very slight idea may be formed of this lake of asphaltum by looking at a lithographic print designed by R. Bridgens and published by Jennings & Co. The lagoon is a subject that defies the painter's skill."

The above was written in 1836, before Daguerre's and Niepce's long years of patient research and experiment had resulted in that great discovery, which was the first glimmer in the dawn of a new era in the art of reproduction. What wonderful progress has been made since then! Little did Joseph—scholar and scientist as he evidently was—dream of the advent of a painter greater than any of the Masters old or new—of a discovery by which nature has become her own delineator, and which promises, as science advances, to place in the hands of old Sol a brush greater than that of Titian or Rembrandt and to touch the magic pictures



THE PITCH LAKE—LA BREA.

of the camera with every tint and shade of nature's own colouring. To the wonderful progress of photographic art just referred to, readers of this sketch are indebted for the illustration that faces this page and of which the writer can say—There is the Pitch Lake! Not a slight idea of it, but an exact reproduction, true to nature in every detail, and from which the reader can form a more correct idea of this wonderful natural phenomenon than from any written description, however clear or minute.* Indeed, it is scarcely possible to give any description of the Pitch Lake that would convey a correct idea of its actual appearance. There is nothing with which it can be compared, for nothing at all resembling it is to be seen elsewhere; while the misnomer of "lake" as applied to it, has so confirmed the popular idea of a lake of liquid pitch as to greatly interfere with a correct conception of its true condition and appearance. The reader may, however, obtain a very good idea of this very peculiar spot as it appears to unscientific eyes, if, having dispelled from his mind all idea of "a lake," he suppose that there is stretched out before him a plateau, more or less circular, having an area of from 90 to 100 acres, "laid" with asphalt paving of a somewhat darker shade than usual and over which some mighty giant of Mythology had driven his war-chariot hither and thither, leaving

* The illustration, as will at once be seen, does not show the *whole* Lake—no single view could do so. It, however, embraces about one-half of the total area. The water filled chasms or channels that extend in different directions over the entire surface are clearly shown in the illustration, while in the back-ground appear that forest of Moriche fan-palms and high woods, which Kingsley describes as "a paradise on the other side the Stygean pool."

the whole surface seamed and scarred by deep ruts, which had since filled up with water. The general surface of the Lake is not even during the heat of the day, softer or more yielding than an ordinary asphalt pavement under a mid-summer sun. In certain places, however, it is much softer. Kingsley says: "No doubt there are spots where, if a man stayed long enough he would be slowly and horribly engulfed." No such catastrophe has ever occurred, probably, because no one has as yet been seized with any strong desire to be turned into asphaltum—"a metamorphosis" as Joseph remarks, "not mentioned by Ovid." Joseph, however, narrates a singular personal adventure on the Lake, in the course of which he seems to have had serious apprehensions of some such terrible fate. The narrative is inserted here on account of the vivid description it gives of the Lake under two widely different aspects:—

"The night was fine and clear when I set out, but scarcely had I entered on the lagoon ere the weather turned so cloudy that no star was to be seen; the natural blackness of the scene so added to the darkness of the night, that I was in a state of the deepest gloom; the forests around were black, so were the clouds, one could not be discerned from the other; the bushes beside the lagoon, those on it, the lagoon itself, and the waters in its chasms, were all one deep sable colour. My eyes for the first time were worse than useless: they not only did not serve me but they completely deceived me, inasmuch as I continually mistook the water for asphaltum. The first notice I had of this mistake was a tumble into one of the chasms of the depth of four or five feet; scrambling out of this, I crept cautiously, feeling my way with my feet, until I came to what I took to be another crack; I made a leap over this supposed aperture, cleared it, but alighted just as the asphaltum commenced to slope into another chasm; the fact is I leaped over solid matter and alighted on the edge of a slant of pitch; the result may be guessed—my heels were tripped, and I had a second involuntary bath. I floundered on thus for a few minutes, and found that

vision was no use in the present scene; repeated submergings so confused me, that I had no idea of the points of the compass; such utter and intense darkness as I was surrounded by, can scarcely be imagined, save by those who have been in a coal mine without light.

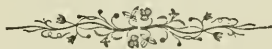
"I now began to have serious apprehensions. I might, by proceeding, blunder into where the pitch is liquid, and thus miserably lose my life, by being turned into bitumen, asphaltum, petroleum, or even, for aught I knew, in the regions below, I might be converted into Naphtha. All these chemical transitions I by no means wished to experience in my own person.

"I knew the moon would soon rise over the forest, and was therefore constrained to await her friendly light, to avoid sinking into the asphaltum, I lay down where the water was shallow. * * * * *

"I had not lain long when a few flashes of lightning illumined the deep black scene, and shewed me that I had wandered about fifty yards from the border of the lagoon where the road lay; the thunder sounded awfully over the silent lake of darkness.

"The atmosphere now cleared almost as rapidly as it grew obscure; the sky became as brilliant and bland as it usually is in Trinidad, and in no part of the earth are the nights more delightful; the moon shone on the lake with splendour, and never shall I forget the scene that presented itself to my now-useful eyes: the Luna rays falling on the solid pitch and watery chasms, gave the whole the appearance of an immense silver net spread over a great plain of ebony, but no words that present themselves to my memory can describe the extraordinary appearance of the lagoon at La Brea seen by moonlight."

In recent years the Pitch Lake has become almost as remarkable for its revenue-giving powers, as for its natural peculiarities, but this phase of its history will be dealt with in a subsequent chapter.





INHABITANTS.

WHEN discovered by Columbus, Trinidad was peopled by a race of Indians with fairer complexions than any he had hitherto seen, people all of good stature, well made, and a very graceful bearing, with much and smooth hair." In their subsequent conflicts with the Spaniards, the aboriginal Indians of Trinidad proved themselves to be a much more warlike race than the natives of Porto Rico and San Domingo. In common, however, with all the Indian races of the New World, they suffered ruthlessly at the hands of the invaders. Many were kidnapped and carried as slaves to the other Spanish possessions, numbers fell in the incessant conflicts with the Spaniards, and still greater numbers were at different times carried off by small-pox and other epidemics, until in 1783, the total Indian population numbered only 2,032. At the date of the capitulation that number had declined to 1,082, and thirty years later to barely 700. At the present time, the only representatives of those original possessors of the soil are a few scattered families of more or less mixed descent.

According to the Census of 1891, the total population of the

colony amounted to 200,028, being an increase of 46,900, or 30·6 per cent. on the number shown by the previous Census. During the three decades, 1861 to 1891, the population more than doubled itself, the increase having been 115,590, or 136·8 per cent. This rapid increase was, however, mainly due to immigration—principally from India and the neighbouring British West Indian colonies. In the decennium, 1881 to 1891, the increase of population by natural increment, or excess of births over deaths, was only 10,892, or 7·11 per cent., while the increase by immigration was no less than 36,008, or 23·52 per cent. To the latter total, Indian immigration contributed 19,848, and immigration from other countries, 16,160. In a population so largely recruited by immigration, diversities of race and nationality would naturally be expected, but, in no other part of the globe of equal size is such diversity more marked than in this colony, of which a recent writer pithily remarks:—"Ethnologically Trinidad may be viewed as a microcosm, having among its people representatives of almost every nation under Heaven."

Of the total population as ascertained by the Census, 111,582 were native-born and 88,446 foreign-born. Of the former, 24,641 were of almost pure East Indian descent, being the children and grandchildren of Indian immigrants,* the remaining 86,941 being chiefly persons of mixed African descent with a comparatively small minority of persons of pure European or American blood, and a still smaller number of mixed Indian or Chinese descent.

* Very few East Indians have intermarried except with their own country-women—including in that term females born in the colony of Indian parents.

Of the foreign-born population, 45,577 were natives of the East Indies ; 33,071, natives of British West Indies ; 1,259, natives of Foreign West Indies ; 2,143, natives of Europe ; 265, natives of the United States and Canada ; 2,955, natives of Venezuela ; 2,055, natives of Africa ; 1,006, natives of China ; and 115, natives of other countries.*

As will be seen from the foregoing figures, the East Indian or "Coolie" element in the population is a very important one, numbering no less than 70,218 and forming more than one-third of the total population of the colony. The origin of this section of the population dates back to 1845, in which year the first "Coolie Ship" arrived from India. The system of Coolie immigration was, as has already been stated, entirely remodelled during the administration of Lord Harris, and has since, from time to time, undergone many and important changes. According to the system as it now stands, the immigrants are given a free passage to Trinidad, under an agreement which provides for five years industrial service at the current rate of wages, on the completion of which, and a further residence of five years, they are entitled to a free passage back to India. The interests of the immigrants are fully safeguarded by the Immigration Laws and Regulations which provide for a minimum rate of wages, for gratuitous medical attendance, for hospital accommodation and for numerous other minor matters. The benefits that have accrued from Indian immigration

* For further details, see Appendix, Table III.



GROUP OF VEGETABLE-SELLERS.

have been twofold; it has benefited the colony both directly and indirectly, while the immigrants have also derived many and solid advantages from it. The nature and extent of these advantages may be judged from the fact that at the end of 1892 agricultural holdings aggregating over 40,000 acres were owned by Indian labourers or their descendants; while of the total of £157,769 deposited in the Government Savings Banks, £66,716 were "Coolie" deposits—and this, be it remembered, is in addition to "savings," amounting to £124,290, carried back to India by the immigrants who returned during the ten years 1883 to 1892, as well as a further sum of £19,817 remitted during the same period by the immigrants to their friends in India, making a total of no less than £144,107!*

Natives of the British West Indies (33,071) form the next largest section of the population. With the exception of a small minority, this section is composed of black and coloured immigrants from the neighbouring colonies, chiefly mechanics, domestic servants and labourers from Barbados, Grenada and St. Vincent.

The African section of the population is fast dying out. Of 8,010 natives of Africa returned in the Census of 1851 only 2,055 remained in 1891, more than half of whom were over 60 years of age, so that in a few more decades this once all

*The writer is well aware that there are other sides to this "Coolie question," on which, as on all questions affecting labour—wherever they arise—opinions are widely divided. Into these he does not deem it necessary to enter in a sketch like the present. He may, however, state that the question is—especially at the present time—one that deserves the most serious consideration both of the Government and the people of the colony, involving as it does, not only economic, but ethnological, social and moral issues as important as they are far-reaching.

important section of the population will become a thing of the past.

The Chinese section of the population may be said to be of comparatively recent origin, for although an unsuccessful attempt to introduce free labourers from China was made as far back as 1806, it was only in 1853 that the first Chinese immigrants under a regular Government system arrived in the colony. The results were not encouraging and for ten years no further immigration took place. At the end of that time immigration from China was recommenced, and during the next four years 1,657 immigrants were introduced. The number of Chinese enumerated in the Census of 1871 was 1,400, but in 1891 that number had declined to 1,006. The Chinese, unlike the East Indians, have intermarried freely with the native women, and their descendants are thus being gradually merged in the general population. Originally introduced as agricultural labourers, they have, in Trinidad as elsewhere, shown their well-known predilection for trade, and have, with very few exceptions, taken to shop-keeping or "trafficking." Most of them appear to do well and many have amassed considerable wealth. As a class they are well behaved, hardworking and thrifty—but not penurious. Whatever he may be in other lands, John Chinaman in Trinidad is quite as fond of a good dinner or a good supper as any John Bull real or typical.



THE CAPITAL.

PORT-OF-SPAIN, the capital, is pleasantly situated on a semi-circular and almost level plain, at the north-east corner of the Gulf of Paria. It is admittedly one of the finest cities in the West Indies, but the level nature of its site prevents it being seen to advantage from the harbour,* while, owing to the large number of trees in the various squares and around the houses, the view from the neighbouring hills shows more of the foliage by which it is everywhere shaded than of the city itself.

On the 24th of March, 1808, the then existing town, said to have been the second in point of size in the British West Indies, was almost completely destroyed by fire. With the exception of a few stone buildings covered with tiles, all the houses were built of wood and covered with shingles or thatch. Under such circumstances, and occurring as it did in the middle of the dry season, it is not surprising that the conflagration was as rapid as it was widespread. All the Public Buildings, nearly all the

* See Frontispiece.

stores, and four hundred and thirty-five dwelling-houses were, in a few hours, reduced to smoking ruins. Thousands were utterly ruined, and hundreds reduced to absolute beggary. Nearly five thousand persons were rendered homeless, and, to add to the misery of the situation, a second and still more appalling calamity threatened to follow on the heels of the first. The entire stock of American and other provisions, on which the people mainly depended for food, having been consumed in the general conflagration—famine stared them in the face. This terrible sequel to the burning of the town was, however, prevented by the prompt, if somewhat high-handed action of the Admiral* on the station, who, in obedience to the dictates of humanity—which he evidently considered a higher authority than that of “My Lords”—gave orders to the captains of his cruisers to board all vessels arriving in West Indian waters and oblige those loaded with provisions to proceed to Trinidad, without regard to their original port of destination. Other and immediate assistance came from many different quarters. Vessels had been despatched to the neighbouring colonies to purchase provisions, and these soon returned bringing not only the much needed supplies of food, but also liberal gifts both of money and provisions for the relief of the poorer sufferers. Parliament voted £50,000, the Governor, Brigadier-General Hislop, gave £1,000, and General Picton nobly contributed £4,000—a sum which had been presented to him by the colonists in token of their appreciation and approval of

* Sir Alexander Cochrane.

his administration—this latter sum was declined. One result of this dire calamity was the enactment of a law forbidding the erection or covering of buildings with inflammable material.*

To the enactment above referred to, and to the good taste, energy and personal care and attention of Sir Ralph Woodford, the Port-of-Spain of to-day is indebted for its proud position among West Indian cities. Arriving in the colony when the new town was just beginning to rise on the ruins of the old, Sir Ralph threw his whole heart into the work of laying out streets, regulating buildings, reserving open spaces,—in a word, doing all he possibly could to ensure not only the safety and symmetry of the new town, but also the comfort and health of its inhabitants. To him, as has already been stated, Port-of-Spain owes not only the width and regularity of its streets—most of them being from thirty to forty-five feet wide and all running either due north and south or due east and west, thus intersecting each other at right angles—but also its two great “lungs” or “breathing spaces,” Marine Square and Brunswick Square. The former, an avenue or walk rather than a square, is situated in the southern part of the city, extending across its entire breadth from the St. Vincent’s wharf to the Dry River. This beautiful avenue is about a hundred feet wide, and is shaded by rows of noble forest trees planted on either side. The latter, a “true” square but smaller in size, is a cool and shady spot near the centre of the city. It was

* In course of time, however, this law became virtually a dead letter until partially re-enacted by the Building Ordinance of 1868.

formerly known as the "Place d'Armes," but this it is said was a popular corruption of a still older designation—"Place des Ames," a name it received from having been the scene of a sanguinary encounter between two tribes of Indians. In the middle of this square is a handsome bronze fountain, the gift of the late Gregor Turnbull, a well-known merchant and estate proprietor, long connected with the colony. These old established squares are not, however, the only "lungs" of the city, there are several other squares of more recent formation, while to the north the beautiful park known as "The Savana" or "Queen's Park," and containing over two hundred acres of almost level pasture or meadow-land, encircled by a belt of large umbrageous trees—a home-park which royalty itself might envy, and which Kingsley describes as "a public park and race ground such as neither London nor Paris can boast." On the other side of this beautiful park, and only separated from it by the road or drive that encircles it, are the Governor's residence (St. Anne's) and the Botanical Gardens. The residence—a palace on a small scale—was erected in 1875, on the Indian model, from designs by Mr. Ferguson. It is built of dressed native limestone, and cost between £40,000 and £50,000. It has a fine entrance with a lofty hall, from which the grand staircase leads to the upper storey, occupied by the Governor's private apartments. On the lower floor are the large and splendid reception-room and drawing-room, as also dining-room, billiard-room, &c. The Botanical Gardens, which have justly become one of the sights of Trinidad, were established during the administration of Sir

Ralph Woodford, *circa* 1818–1820, under the direction of Mr. D. Lockhart.* In 1846 Mr. Lockhart was succeeded by Mr. Purdie, under whose direction, and with the ever ready aid and encouragement of Lord Harris, the Gardens were greatly improved and their area considerably extended. Mr. Purdie died in 1857, and was buried in the lovely “God’s aere” within the grounds, now known as “The Cemetery.” His successors were Dr. Herman Cruger, (previously mentioned in this sketch), 1857 to 1864, and Mr. Henry Prestoe, 1864 to 1886, both of whom did much to increase the reputation of the Gardens. The present Superintendent, Mr. J. H. Hart, F.L.S., formerly of Jamaica, was appointed in March, 1887.

While it is quite true that none but a Botanist can fully realize all the riches of the world of plant-life represented in these Gardens, yet, to every lover of nature, whether versed or unversed in botanical science, they present an endless succession of new and beautiful forms, ranging from the most delicate mosses and tiny film-ferns to the stately palms and giant forest trees—a field for contemplation and study as wide as it is wonderful. Even the visitor, blind to all the charms of nature—and “if such there be, go mark him well”—cannot fail to derive pleasure from an early morning ramble through these Gardens, their shady walks and groves being, especially

* Mr. Lockhart was assistant Botanist attached to the ill-fated expedition of Capt. J. K. Tuckey, R.N., sent out from England in 1816 to examine the Upper Congo.

at that time, deliciously cool, while the air is made fragrant by the perfume of flower and blossom, and the morning breeze is laden with the aroma from the nutmeg and other spice trees.

Among some of the more striking features of the Gardens may be noticed several splendid specimens of the *Amherstia nobilis*, the tallest, nearly fifty feet high, being annually covered with numbers of its peculiar and beautiful flowers; the Poui Trees, *Tecoma serratifolia*, and *Tecoma spectabilis*, perhaps the most striking of the forest giants, their towering stems carrying, when in flower, what looks like one huge bouquet of golden yellow flowers; the Traveller's Tree,* *Urania speciosa*—known also as the *Ravenala Madagascarensis*—with its graceful crown of plantain-like leaves growing in a fan shape at the top of a lofty trunk 35 to 40 feet high; the Brazil-nut Tree, *Bertholetia excelsa*, which fruits prolifically every year, each shell or larger nut containing ten to twenty seeds—the Brazil nuts of commerce; the Leopard-wood Tree, *Brosimum Guianensis*, from the heart-wood of which are made the pretty walking sticks of that name; the Cannon ball Tree, *Couroupita Guianensis*, so graphically described by Kingsley; † the tall smooth white-barked *Pithecolobium filicijum* and many splendid Samans, ‡ *Pithecolobium saman*, the latter

* This name is said to be derived from the large quantity of water which it collects in the axils of its leaves and which, growing as it does in dry and arid wastes, often proves of great service to travellers.

† Kingsley's "At Last," p.p. 274, 275.

‡ The seeds from which these noble trees have sprung are said to have been brought from Caracas by Mr. Lockhart in his waistcoat pocket.

producing extremely sweet pods, much relished by cattle. Among the palms may be noted the Palmyra Palm, *Borassus Flabelliformis*; a noble specimen of the *Corypha Elata*; the Talipot Palm, *Corypha umbracilifera*, and several fine specimens of Date Palms.

Some of what may be familiarly described as the "climbers and twiners" are both interesting and beautiful; one of them, known by the children visiting the Gardens, as "the swing" is deserving of special notice. It is thus described by Mr. Hart in his report for 1888:—"A special feature in the Pleasure Grounds, and one much admired by visitors, is the large plant of *Anodendron paniculatum*, A.D.C., one of the *Apocynaceae*, one part of which forms a natural swing, and the other produces numerous strands, twisted in the same manner and quite as large as a ship's cable. The plant rests upon a large Mora tree, *Mora excelsa*, some 40 feet in height, among the topmost branches of which it produces annually its panicles of greenish flowers."

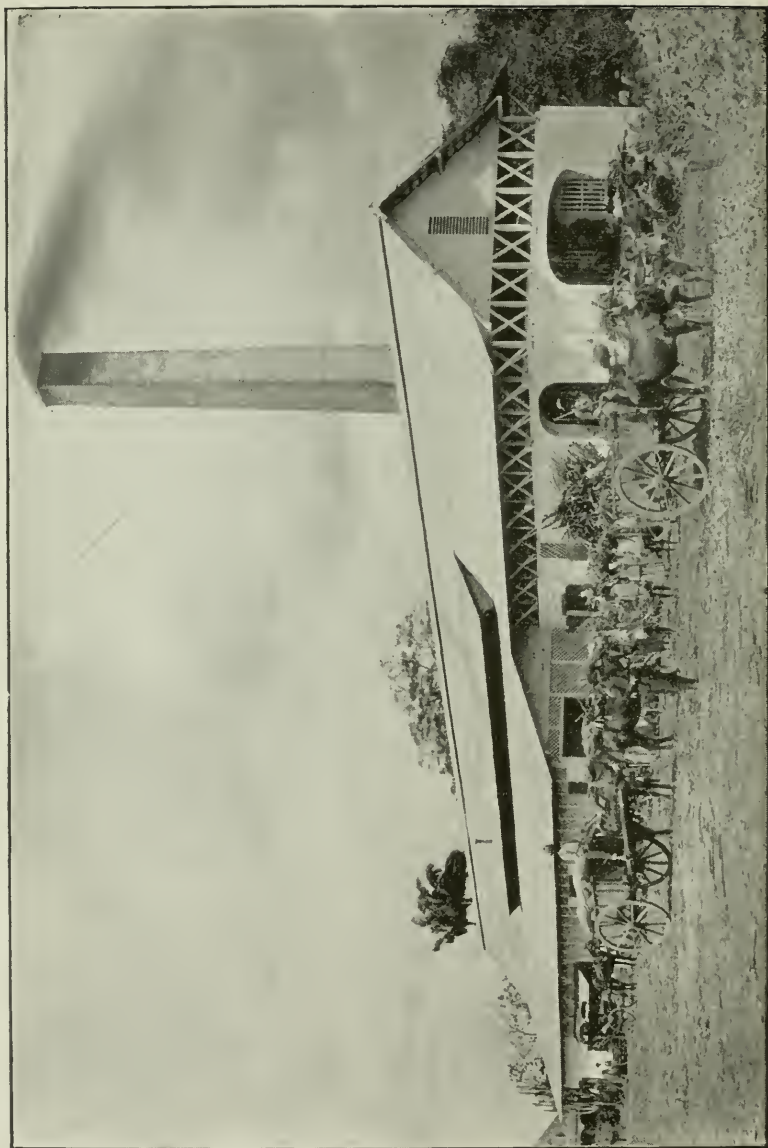
There is one view in the Gardens which no visitor should miss. Near the centre of the grounds is an eminence about 300 feet in height, on the top of which is a cosy Kiosk or Summer-house—if such a term may be used in this land of never-ending summer—and although the hill is a little steep, yet the view from this quiet and beautiful spot amply repays the climb. Behind, tower the densely wooded hills, 1,000 feet high; below, lie the beautiful Gardens, or rather such glimpses of them as can be seen through the dense mass of green foliage formed by the tree-tops, while

directly in front, the beautiful savannah, with its wide extent of green sward and its many noble trees, stretches away till it meets the outlines of the city in the distance—the outlines only—for little else save the church spires and the house tops stand out clear among the mass of foliage; to the east the view is closed by another spur of the northern hills, its slopes wooded to the very peak, while to the west the eye rests on a scene that is as picturesque as it is impressive. In the foreground is the St. Clair pasture and Rifle range, another green strip of meadow-land, while beyond are seen the deep blue waters of the ever placid Gulf of Paria, with the beautiful “Five Islands” looking like green specks on the blue expanse, and far away mid the mist on the western horizon the shadowy outlines of the Venezuelan mountains. The view is indeed a lovely one, and while the eye is now and then attracted for a moment to the white wings of some passing vessel, or the smoke curls of some steamer swiftly gliding across the bit of blue, yet it quickly returns to scan, with ever increasing delight, the beautiful landscape in all its peaceful glory, and those lovely islets that form so charming a feature in the picture.

Rocklets of ocean, so bright in your green,
Bosom'd on Paria's stormless breast,
How many mem'ries of times that have been,
Linger around ye, sweet Isles of the west.

Although the city possesses a large number of Public Buildings, yet only a few of them have any pretensions to architectural style or beauty. Pre-eminent among those few are the Roman Catholic

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OUTSIDE A SUGAR FACTORY—CROP TIME.

Cathedral, situated at the eastern end of Marine Square, and the Anglican Cathedral (formerly Trinity Church) to the south of Brunswick Square, both of which are really fine buildings and reflect great credit on the architect, Mr. P. Reinagle,* from whose designs and under whose personal superintendence they were both built. The Colonial Hospital, designed by Mr. Samuel, a native of the island, although of quite a different style of architecture, is an equally fine building. The Police Barracks, a more recent erection in the Italian Gothic style and built of native limestone, is a massive and imposing structure. Among the other Public Buildings of more or less elegant design, there is one deserving of particular mention—the beautiful Roman Catholic church known as “The Church of the Sacred Heart.” It is built in the early English Gothic style, and the most perfect symmetry and harmony are preserved in every detail of the structure, as well as in all the internal fittings and decorations. It is undoubtedly one of the most elegant and artistic of the churches of Port-of-Spain—of which, it may perhaps be well to add, there are quite a number.†

The city proper, that is, within the municipal metes and bounds as laid down some forty years ago, contains about 35,000 inhabitants, but taking in the eastern and western suburbs,

* One of Sir Ralph Woodford's secretaries, and son of the artist Reinagle.—*Joseph's History of Trinidad.*

† In the city and suburbs, there are besides the Cathedral and the church just mentioned six other Roman Catholic churches; the Anglican Cathedral already referred to and three other Anglican churches, three Wesleyan churches, two Presbyterian kirks, a Baptist and a Moravian church.

which lie just outside the city limits and are included within its bounds as defined by the new Municipal Ordinance, soon to become law, the population is between 45,000 and 50,000. The city is well supplied with water of excellent quality from two reservoirs, the larger one situated in the Maraval valley as already mentioned, and the smaller in the St. Ann's valley. The principal places of business, the bank, the stores, and all the larger shops, as well as the Government Offices, the Law Courts, the Post Office, Town Hall, Public Library, etc., are situated in the southern part of the city. The merchants, officials and leading citizens generally, reside in the northern part of the city or in the suburbs, so that on Sundays, and after business hours on week days, the southern part of the city is almost as quiet and deserted as the "city" part of London. Many of the villa residences in the town and suburbs are models of tasteful architecture, and are made still more attractive by the trees, shrubs and flowers amidst which they are all but hidden from view.

For municipal purposes the town is divided into five wards, each electing three Councillors who form the Council, formerly called the *Town Council*, but since 1853, the *Borough Council*. The Mayor is elected by the Councillors, one-third of whom retire annually. The qualification for electors is the occupancy of a house rated at a rental of not less than £20, while that of a councillor is ownership of real property assessed on an annual value of £50, or tenancy of property assessed on an annual rental of £75 sterling. The annual

rental value of the house property within the Borough bounds, according to the assessment of 1892, was £161,985, but this is exclusive of all Public Buildings, Churches, and Schools. The municipal revenue for 1892 amounted to £17,039, while the expenditure—including that from loans—was £28,331. The Debenture debt of the city on 31st December, 1892, amounted to £40,933. The upkeep of the streets, of which there are over thirty miles within the Borough bounds, is one of the heaviest items of municipal expenditure, especially in the wet season, when the heavy rains wash away the road metal to an enormous extent. The streets are, however, well looked after and kept in excellent order, any damage being quickly repaired.

There are three public markets—the eastern, western and southern markets—all the property of the municipality, which, in addition to other city property, is also the owner of “The Cocal” at Mayaro—the finest coconut estate in the island—and of the small islands of Monos, Huevos, Chacachacare and Patos.

Among the local Institutions of Port-of-Spain are the Public Library and the Victoria Institute and Museum. The former was founded in 1851, under the administration of Lord Harris, and contains about 20,000 volumes. It is under the management of a committee of fifteen members, of whom six are nominated by His Excellency the Governor and two by the Borough Council of Port-of-Spain, the other members being elected annually by the subscribers. It is supported by an annual grant of £400 from the Colonial Government, one

of £100 from the Borough Council of Port-of-Spain, and the subscriptions of members, which in 1892 amounted to £152 17. The subscription is 12/- per annum, payable in advance, yearly, quarterly or monthly. There is a free reading room connected with the institution, well supplied with journals and periodicals—English, American, French and West Indian. The library is opened daily from 8 a.m. to 9 p.m., and strangers visiting the colony will meet with every attention from the courteous Secretary and Librarian, Miss M. L. Woodlock.

The Victoria Institute and Museum founded in commemoration of Her Majesty's Jubilee, was opened on 17th September, 1892. It contains the nucleus of what will no doubt in time become a Museum worthy of the colony. Among some of its more interesting contents are a fine collection of stuffed birds, representative of the ornithology of the island, presented to the colony by the late Dr. Leotaud;* a very fine and valuable collection of shells, the gift of the widow of the late Robert William Keate, who was Governor of the colony from 1857 to 1864; an interesting collection of reptiles and insects presented by the late Dr. Court; and many minor collections and specimens. The Institute is the headquarters of the Central Agricultural Board, and also the meeting place of the Medical Council, the Scientific Association, the Field Naturalists' Club, and the Literary Association.

* Author of a standard work on the Ornithology of the island—"Oiseaux de L'île de la Trinidad, 1866."

In former years Trinidad possessed one of the best Militia Forces in the West Indies. It consisted of a troop of light dragoons, a troop of hussars, a brigade of artillery, three regiments of foot and three corps of mounted chasseurs, eight district companies and two battalions; the whole kept up with strict military discipline. This fine body of citizen soldiers, numbering about 3,000 of all ranks, was disbanded in 1839. At the present time, although the colony has not as large a body of men under arms, it can still boast of a well-drilled and efficient Volunteer Force, consisting of three troops of cavalry, two batteries of field artillery and six companies of infantry, the total strength of the Force being about 550 of all ranks. The several corps with the names of the Commanding Officers are as follows:—

Naparima Mounted Rifles—Captain H. H. PASEA.

Couva Mounted Rifles—Captain J. S. WILSON.

Burnley Carabiniers—Lieut. T. H. WARNER.

Port-of-Spain Field Artillery Volunteers—Capt. W. V. M. KOCH.

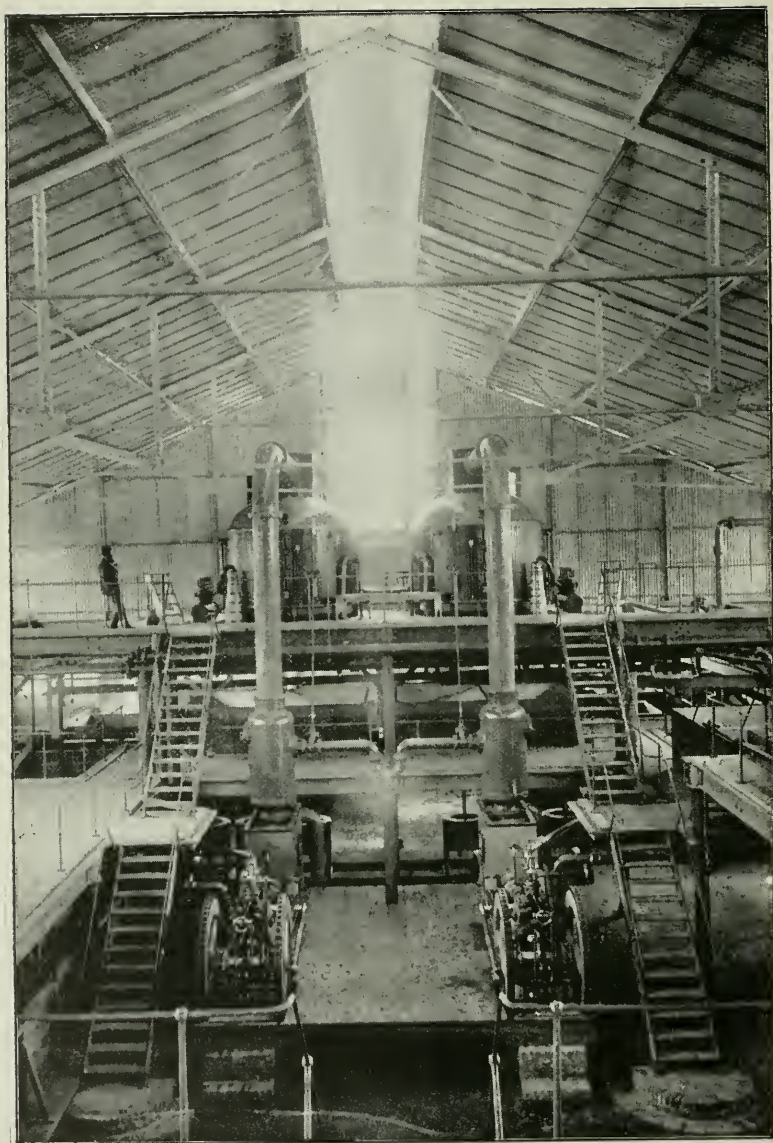
Trinidad Light Infantry Volunteers—Lieut.-Col. D. WILSON, C.M.G.

The present Commandant of the Local Forces is Col. J. A. Man, 3rd Battalion Gordon Highlanders.

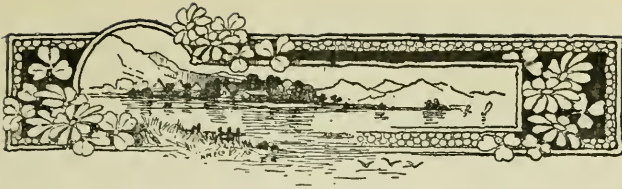
Among local corporate companies and enterprises are the Tramway Company, the Telephone Company, the Building and Loan Association, the Crop Advance and Discount Company, an Ice Factory, (The West Indian Ice and Refrigerating Company, Limited), a Soap Factory and a Tannery. Local journalistic enterprise has of late made rapid strides, and the old-fashioned weekly or bi-weekly has at length given place

to the modern "daily," of which no less than three are now published in Port-of-Spain, as also one bi-weekly and two weeklies—one of the latter being the Official or Royal Gazette. An Official Almanack and Register, containing much valuable local information, is published annually.

There are two lines of Tram cars, both starting from opposite the Railway Station on the wharf, one proceeding in a north-westerly direction, passing up St. Vincent Street and along Tragarete Road, and stopping at the top of Tranquillity Boulevard near the south-west corner of the savannah; the other proceeding in a north-easterly direction, passing up Frederick Street along Park Street into St. Ann's Road and stopping at the north-east corner of the savannah, in the near vicinity of Government House and the Botanical Gardens. The cars run regularly every twenty minutes, with occasional extra ones at shorter intervals. The town is also well supplied with cabs, and hackney carriages can be hired by the hour or day. Communication by telephone is general throughout the city, all the principal places of business, the public offices as well as numbers of private residences, being connected with the Telephone Exchange.



INSIDE A SUGAR FACTORY.



OTHER TOWNS.

SAN FERNANDO, the second town of the colony and the port of the largest sugar district, is situated at the foot of the Naparima hill on the western shore of the Gulf of Paria. It was founded by Governor Chacon in 1786, and originally named San Fernando de Naparima, after Ferdinand, the eldest son of Carlos IV. The present town only dates back to 1818, in which year the original town was completely destroyed by fire. The commercial part of the town was again almost entirely burned down in 1883, but has since been rebuilt and greatly improved. San Fernando has been in possession of municipal privileges since 1846, the original Town Council having been replaced, in 1853, by the Borough Council as now constituted. According to the Census of 1891, the population of the Borough was only 6,570, but here, as in Port-of-Spain, there has been a considerable overflow of population beyond the metes and bounds as fixed in 1853. San Fernando is about thirty-five miles distant from Port-of-Spain, with which it is connected

both by rail and road. Three trains run daily from and to the capital on week-days, and two on Sundays. It has a fine broad wharf 300 feet in length, and is a bustling little town, especially in the crop and shipping season. Strange though it may seem, the good folk of San Fernando have, as a rule, in dealing with matters of general or local importance, shown far more public spirit, as well as far greater unanimity, than those of the capital.

Arima, the only other town enjoying municipal government (granted by Royal Charter dated 1st August, 1888), is situated on the right bank of the Arima river, sixteen miles from Port-of-Spain, and can be reached by the eastern main road or by railway. It is the centre of one of the largest cocoa districts of the colony, and is gradually rising in importance. It occupies a picturesque site at the foot of the northern range of mountains, and is well laid out, its streets being wide and like those of Port-of-Spain, intersecting each other at right angles, with a plaza or square in the centre. The population in 1891 was only 3,653, but is likely to increase. The village of Arima was one of the Indian missions or settlements originally established by the Capuchin monks, and which continued to be under the charge of a priest or *padre* and *Corregidor* until under British rule they were placed under a *Corregidor* alone. The Indians were treated as minors, and the settlements were placed under a code of rules which would, at the present day, be considered more suited for the government of overgrown and

thoughtless children, than for the regulation of an able-bodied community, owning and cultivating their own lands. These settlements do not, however, seem to have thriven notwithstanding all this paternal care, and the aboriginal Indian race gradually dwindled away, and has now ceased to exist.* The festival of Santa Rosa,† the patron saint of the mission, was in olden times, a gala day with the Indians, and retained some of its ancient splendour, even down to a comparatively recent period. Now all is changed, although the day is still observed as a holiday, yet how different is the celebration! The Indians, with their newly-elected king or queen, their dances and their sports, have long since passed away, and the principal and only public amusement of the day are the annual races, which have of recent years become quite an important event in the local sporting calendar.

St. Joseph, the ancient capital, while it retains all its original beauty of situation, cannot now be ranked as more than a township or village, its population being but 2,003. The only really fine building in the town is the Roman Catholic Church, the foundation stone of which was, as already noted, laid by Sir Ralph Woodford in 1815.

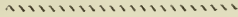
* Joseph attributes the gradual extinction, or rather absorption of the Indian race to the following cause:—"The Indian men, since they are obliged to live in society, choose mates of other races, and the women do the same, hence out of every seven children born of an Indian mother during the last thirty years, there are scarcely two of pure blood."—*Joseph's History of Trinidad*, page 102.

† 30th August

Princes Town, formerly known as the mission of Savana Grande—another of the Indian missions—is a pretty and thriving township, situated about eight miles east of San Fernando, with which there is communication both by the railway and by the Cipro tramway. Its change of name was made in 1880, in honour of the visit of the two sons of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales—the late Prince Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence and Avondale, and Prince George, Duke of York. With these names are now associated the nation's latest sorrow and its most recent joy. The sudden death of the elder Prince in January 1892, while in the very heyday of his opening manhood and on the eve of his marriage, sent a thrill of the deepest regret throughout the length and breadth of Her Majesty's dominions, while the marriage of the younger has just been celebrated amid general enthusiasm and rejoicing—the people's deep sympathy on those two widely different occasions affording a striking proof of how truly the pulse of the nation beats in unison with every joy and sorrow of our august and beloved Sovereign, Her Majesty the Queen. The Princes planted two young poui trees in commemoration of their visit; these have since grown well and have been enclosed by a neat iron railing. Princes Town is the centre of a large district, in which cultivation is being yearly extended, and is a prosperous and busy place. The population in 1891 was 4,197.



PRODUCTS AND MANUFACTURES.



IN TRINIDAD, as in all the other West Indian colonies, Sugar has been, and still continues to be the principal product. Here, however, it is not as in most of these colonies, the one great staple, nor was it even the first in the field, for Cocoa had been cultivated for a century or more before the first sugar estate was established. Although most of the leading authorities are agreed that the sugar cane (*Saccharum officinarum*) is not indigenous to the New World, Joseph* considers it probable that a species of it *was* indigenous to this as well as to other West Indian islands, and in support of this theory, he brings forward a considerable body of evidence, and adds that, in the uncultivated parts of the island, three species of the genus *Saccharum* are to be found growing wild.† The sugar cane generally cultivated here is, however, an exotic, known as the

* History of Trinidad—page 89.

† In considering such questions the probabilities of fortuitous introduction at some remote period, as has been clearly shown to have been the case with some plants, must not be lost sight of.

Otaheite or Tahitee cane, and was introduced from Martinique by M. St. H. Begorrat in 1782. The first sugar estate was established by M. Picot de Lapeyrouse in 1787, and from that time, up to the date of the capture of the island by the British, the cultivation of the sugar cane increased slowly but steadily. The British occupation gave a great impetus to the sugar industry, and cultivation was so rapidly extended, that within the next few years the exports of sugar were more than doubled. From that time down to emancipation, the sugar industry continued to advance and prosper. But then came a crisis; the industry was temporarily paralysed owing to the great scarcity of labour, and the exports declined. With the advent of coolie immigration the industry began to revive, and in a few years, not only regained its former position but advanced far beyond it, the exports rising from 11,000 tons in 1840, to 32,000 tons in 1860, and 54,000 tons in 1880. In the meantime, however, another and darker cloud than any that had as yet overshadowed our great staple was gathering on the horizon. The production of Beet sugar, stimulated by an iniquitous system of bounties, had increased enormously, and both the English and American markets were being flooded with it. The result, long foreseen, turned out to be far more disastrous than could have possibly been anticipated. Every one knew that a fall in prices was inevitable, and that the fall was likely to be a heavy one, but few if any anticipated that the decline in price would reach a figure at which neither Beet nor Cane sugar could be produced. In consequence of this



CUTTING CANES.

unprecedented fall in the value of their chief product, a wave of commercial and agricultural depression passed over the West Indian colonies, bringing many of them to the verge of ruin. That Trinidad, although by no means exempt from the general effects of the crisis, was yet able not only to weather it, but to make steady progress all the time, is due to two causes. First and chiefly, to the fact that in its second staple cocoa, the colony possessed a sheet-anchor—if I may use the word most expressive of my meaning—of which no other West Indian colony could boast; and secondly, to the fact that, for some time previously, many estate proprietors had been gradually introducing improved machinery, and were already making or preparing to make a higher grade of sugar. The advance then begun in the direction of improved modes of manufacture has been steadily continued, the result being that Vacuum Pan sugar formed more than two-thirds of the crop of the present year, 1893. In this colony the results of the low prices ruling in recent years may be summed up as follows:—the exercise of the most rigid economy in every detail, the introduction of improved machinery resulting in the production of higher grades of sugar, and a considerable reduction in the total area under cane cultivation. Under all the circumstances, it is alike creditable to the owners of sugar estates, and to those directly in charge of them, that the sugar industry of the colony has been so far able to hold its own, and to be now, apparently, in a fair way to do better still. There is yet, however, much to be done before the position of the

industry can be considered a "secured" one. In the effort to achieve this, it is to be hoped that the narrow spirit of "egotistical individualism," so pointedly referred to by Dr. de Verteuil,* may give place to a larger minded treatment of the question of how best to maintain and improve the leading industry of the colony, so that everyone connected therewith may not only consider it a duty, but a privilege, to contribute his quota to the general stock of information.

The cultivation of the sugar cane is almost entirely carried on by Coolie labour. Very few Trinidadians work as labourers on the sugar estates, the labourers, other than coolies, being chiefly natives of the neighbouring West Indian islands, many of whom, like the Irish reapers in England and Scotland, come here only for the crop season, returning to their homes at its close. The illustration facing page 25 shows a group of sugar estate labourers, in their working costume and with their hoes and other implements; the others facing pages 61, 67 and 72, represent respectively, the scene outside a sugar factory during the bustle of crop; the interior of a (Vacuum Pan) sugar factory, and the sugar cane "in the arrow," or "arrowing," *i.e.*, flowering.† A field of cane at such a time presents a singularly beautiful appearance. Strange to say, although the sugar cane flowers and seeds prolifically, it is only within recent years that anything like a systematic attempt

* Dr. de Verteuil—Trinidad: its Geography, Natural Resources, &c., page 224.

† This illustration has by an oversight been described as "Cutting Canes."

has been made to reproduce it from seed. These attempts although successful in so far as producing a larger and better variety of cane, cannot as yet be said to have demonstrated that canes so raised will prove of greater value as sugar-producers.

Of the average annual quantity of sugar exported during the past ten years, 66·37 per cent. have been shipped to the United States, and 32·46 per cent. to the United Kingdom.

Cocoa, or more properly "cacao" (*Theobroma cacao*) the second staple product of the island, bids fair soon to equal if not exceed, in importance its rival sugar, for while, as already stated, the former only holds its own, the latter has in recent years advanced by giant strides. This is clearly shown by the exports which have risen from 28,900 cwts. in 1840, to 43,590 cwts. in 1860, and 98,210 cwts. in 1880, while the average annual exports of the past five years, 1888 to 1892, have been no less than 177,625 cwts. The exports of last year, 1892, were exceptionally large, reaching a total of 223,586 cwts.*

It is not easy to determine, with any certainty, the origin of the variety or rather varieties of cocoa now cultivated in the island. There is reason to believe that at least one variety of cocoa is indigenous to the northern part of the neighbouring continent as well as to Trinidad, and amid the many theories and speculations that have from time to time been advanced

* See Appendix, Tables XIII., XIV. & XVI.

on the subject, the most probable, and certainly the most logical, seems to be that of our former Botanist, Mr. Henry Prestoe—viz.: that in the course of the very long period during which cocoa has been cultivated in the island, “so many different species have been brought together that an interminable intermarriage has been set up”—thus rendering it impossible to determine the original parent stock. Whatever may have been the stock from which it sprung, Trinidad cocoa has been exported from a very early period of the Spanish occupation, and has always been held in high repute.*

A proof that the quantity of cocoa exported must have been considerable even as far back as 1716, is afforded by an account of a raid made on the island in that year by the pirate Captain Tench, better known as “Blackbeard,” who among other depredations “plundered a brig loaded with cocoa, bound for Cadiz, and then set fire to her, in sight of the town or rather village of Port-of-Spain.”†

In 1725, the entire cocoa cultivation was destroyed by some species of disease or blight. What was the exact nature of this disease it is impossible, at this distance of time, to determine, the writers of the period having been apparently more anxious to discover some cause real or imaginary to which to ascribe the calamity than to describe either the nature or the peculiarities

* Father Gunilla, in his “*Oronoco Illustrado*,” states that Trinidad cocoa was so esteemed for its delicious aroma that it was bought and paid for before it was gathered.

† Joseph’s History of Trinidad, page 143.

of the disease that had caused it.* There is, however, ample testimony to the general ruin that was occasioned by it. The colonists of the period, like those of many other West Indian colonies at a later date, had only one product to depend upon, and its virtual extinction reduced them to such straits that they were barely able to find the means of sustenance for themselves and their families. In Joseph's History of Trinidad, one of the events of the year 1740, is thus recorded:—"In consequence of the war between Spain and England, the colonists of Trinidad petition their Sovereign, that he would be pleased to commiserate their situation, because the failure of the cocoa crop reduced them to a state of destitution, insomuch, that they cannot go to mass, save once a year, to fulfil their 'annual precepts,' when they appear in clothes borrowed from each other." In a foot note to this paragraph the author adds: "From an old paper we learn that the Cabildo had but one pair of small clothes between the whole of the members." Kingsley, in mentioning this latter fact, assumes that "the small clothes desiderated would have been of black satin, probably embroidered; and fit, though somewhat threadbare, for the thigh of a magistrate and gentleman of Spain." Be that as it may, the situation must have been as amusing as it was pitiable, for it is scarcely possible to conceive that the members composing the Illustrious Board of Cabildo of the period, had been all so formed by nature as to meet the peculiar necessities

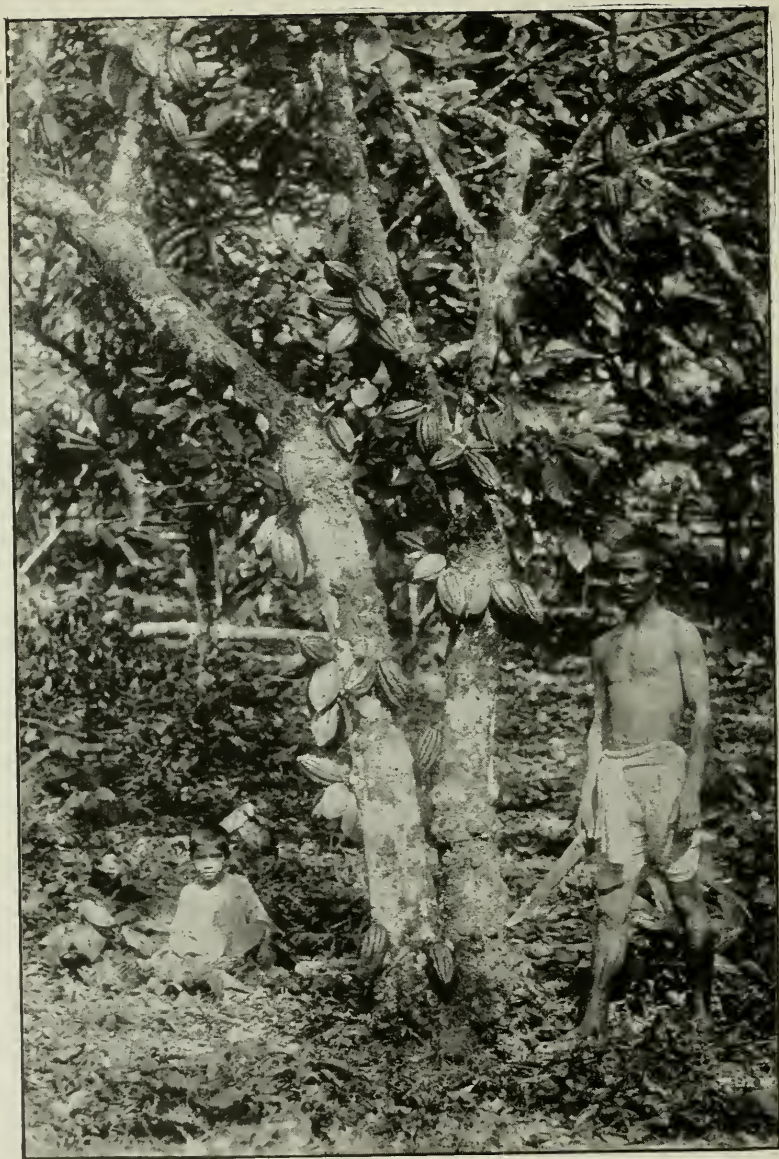
* Father Gumilla attributes it to the planters not paying their tithes.

of exactly fitting the same pair of "breeks," even although they were embroidered from waistband to hem.

In the first decade of the British occupation of the island, the exports of cocoa rose from 2,250 cwts. to 5,000 cwts.; at the end of the next decade they had reached 10,000 cwts.; and in 1827 amounted to 33,000 cwts. In that year, however, there occurred a sudden and heavy fall in the value of cocoa in the European markets, and the exports rapidly declined, until in 1832 they were only 13,670 cwts. From that date onwards, the exports have steadily increased, and they are now a hundred fold greater than they were at the date of the British occupation. In other words, for every pound of cocoa that the colony exported in 1797, it now exports 100 lbs.; but what is still more noteworthy is that of this wonderful increase, more than one-half has taken place during the past ten years. Notwithstanding this enormous increase in *quantity*, there has been no falling off in *quality*, on the contrary, at no time in the history of the colony has so much zeal been shown in connection with improved modes of cultivation and preparation. The result being, that not only have a number of the best known "marks" improved their position in the London market, but the general standard of quality has also been improved. Another marked feature of the cocoa industry in recent years, is the large increase that has taken place in the exports to the United States, which have risen from 11,765 cwts. in 1883, to 64,213 cwts. in 1892. As yet, however, our American cousins have had no opportunity of judging of the excellence of the finer qualities

1870
1871
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1880



COCOA TREE IN FULL BEARING.

of Trinidad cocoa. Such an opportunity is now being afforded them at the great World's Show, and there is little doubt that the result will be a still more marked increase in our exports of cocoa to that country, which is not only our nearest market for it, but one large enough to absorb all that the colony can produce for years to come.

Of all West Indian cultivation, cocoa is undoubtedly the one best suited for natives of colder climates. To quote the words of another:—"The cacao tree itself of some twenty feet in height, and affording a grateful shade from the blaze of the sun, is again shaded in its turn by the *Bois immortel*, whose protecting services have justly obtained for it among the South Americans the appellation *La Madre del Cacao*. The weeding of the soil, picking of the pods, husking them, and carrying the produce to the drying-house, in short, the whole of the agricultural operations and all but the last stage of the manufacturing process, is carried on under this impervious and ever verdant canopy; the air is gently agitated and refreshed by the river or mountain stream, upon whose *vegas* or banks these plantations are invariably established. Here, under the double shade of the cacao tree and the *Madre del Cacao*, the European feels himself as in his native climate." On a cocoa estate the European or American can do something more than merely superintend and give directions; he can take an active part in all the operations, aiding with hands as well as with head in the general working of the property, and if he be active and

intelligent he will find that his own exertions, whether he be working for himself or another, in addition to the direct benefit they may produce, will indirectly do immense good, by infusing energy and activity into all those employed under him.

In view of the fact, that enquiries are often made as to whether there is any opening in the colony for active young men, possessed of only a limited amount of capital, and anxious to find an occupation as well as an investment, it may not be out of place to mention that there are three ways in which intending settlers can become cocoa proprietors. First, by the purchase of Crown land, and the clearing and planting up of the same under their own supervision. Second, by the purchase of Crown land and the employment of "Contractors," who clear the land and *plant it up with cocoa*, receiving as payment all the wood cut down, and the free use of the land to plant provisions for their own use and benefit for a fixed term—generally five years—at the end of which time they give up the land, receiving *one shilling* for each bearing cocoa tree. Third, by the purchase either of several small estates, or of one such bordering on Crown lands, so that it can be gradually extended according to the means of the purchaser. The first method entails the immediate outlay of further capital for the erection of at least a temporary dwelling, and the payment of the wood-cutters and other labourers employed, and the capital so invested must remain

dormant for some time, as the cocoa tree, although beginning to bear in the fourth or fifth year, does not come into full bearing till some years later. Some return is however obtained from the land during that time: plantain shoots and corn (maize) are planted in order to shade the young cocoa trees, and the returns from these two crops help to defray the expenses of the first two or three years. The timber cut on the land is also more or less valuable, either as firewood, or for building and other purposes. The second method is only to be recommended where the purchaser can find some profitable means of employing his time during the five years of the contractor's occupation. A combination of these two methods has been found to work well, part of the estate only being given out to contractors. The third plan is by far the simplest and the best, where suitable properties can be obtained. In this way, many of the smaller properties which were purchased from the Crown, from ten to twenty years ago, and gradually cleared and planted up in cocoa, have of late years, been bought up by larger capitalists, at very remunerative prices to the original purchasers, and have either been formed into larger estates, or increased by the purchase of adjoining Crown lands.

The Coco-palm grows luxuriantly all along the sandy shore of the southern and eastern coasts of the island, and its cultivation, although the simplest of the agricultural industries of the colony, is far from being the least profitable. For persons of small capital there are few, if any, investments less troublesome

or more profitable than a coconut estate. That the industry is a profitable one is abundantly proved by the large increase in the cultivation, as shown by the quantity of coconuts exported. The average number of "nuts" annually exported in the decade, 1863 to 1872, was 1,283,523; in the next decade, 1873 to 1882, the number rose to 4,502,525; while in the past decade, 1883 to 1892, it was no less than 11,098,523.

Before proceeding to notice some of the minor agricultural products, it may be well to refer to a non-agricultural product that has, of late years, taken up a conspicuous place among the exports of the colony. There are no mines in Trinidad, nor does the colony, so far as is yet known, possess any considerable mineral wealth, but in the great asphaltum deposit at La Brea, known as the Pitch Lake, it has what may justly be termed "a mine of wealth." The many uses to which this inexhaustible supply of asphaltum or pitch *might* be applied, and the enormous commercial value it *might* attain when so applied, have been written of and talked of for the last fifty years and more, and theorists and dreamers, not a few, have wasted their time and lost their money, and some of them their lives, in vain attempts to evolve a money-making product out of it.

Sir Walter Raleigh, who entered the gulf by the southern Bocas, states that in coasting along the western shores of the island he anchored in a place called *Piché* by the natives, where he found large quantities of pitch of superior quality with which he caused his vessels to be newly payed.

Subsequent experiments prove that Sir Walter must have mixed the pitch with a large quantity of grease or other unctuous matter before using it for such a purpose. In any case he appears to have succeeded, and thus to have been the first to turn the product of the lake to a profitable use. In this he was more fortunate than any of the many subsequent experimenters—at least until within recent years.

Early in the century Admiral Sir Alexander Cochrane conveyed to England two ship loads of pitch from the Lake, with the view of endeavouring to introduce it as a material for pitching or “paying” the ships of the Navy; but on examination it was found to require the admixture of too large a quantity of oil in order to render it applicable to such a purpose. Sir Ralph Woodford being anxious to have a beacon placed on the tower of Trinity Church, gas made from native pitch was used in the experiment, and burnt brightly and steadily, and no doubt the beacon would have become a permanent institution, but the idea had to be given up owing to the intolerable stench given off by the gas. Many years after an able and enthusiastic American scientist succeeded in making excellent illuminating gas from the pitch, but unfortunately the cost of production was too great to permit of its becoming a commercial success. Lubricating oils of good quality have also from time to time been made from the pitch, but none of them proved successful from a business point of view. Nor do the first attempts to export the crude asphalt to Europe and America, for paving purposes,

appear to have been more fortunate; indeed, it is only within the past fifteen or twenty years that Trinidad asphalt can be said to have obtained its long-talked-of commercial value in the markets of the world.

No sooner had Trinidad asphalt become a regular marketable product with a recognized market value, than the Pitch Lake, hitherto neglected, and even despised on account of the repeated failures already referred to, became the cynosure of all eyes. It would, however, be entirely beyond the scope of the present sketch to attempt to describe the different events and circumstances that led up to the granting of the existing concession. Suffice it to say that the Government have granted to the Trinidad Asphalt Company, Limited, the exclusive right to dig, work, search for, and win pitch, asphaltum, &c., from the Pitch Lake for a term of forty-two years, from the 1st of February, 1888. The terms on which this concession is held are shortly as follows:—A minimum annual export of 46,000 tons of asphaltum for the first twenty-one years, thus securing to the colony an annual minimum revenue of £15,333; an annual minimum export for the second twenty-one years of 30,000 tons, securing an annual minimum revenue to the colony of £10,000, or a total minimum revenue of £532,000 for the forty-two years.

As has been already stated, the granting of the concession was bitterly opposed at the time, and opinions on the subject are still widely divided. The concession was, however, brought

before the Legislative Council, in the usual way, sanctioned by a majority of that body, and approved by the Secretary of State, and has since been "signed, sealed and delivered," so that all that can now be done is to judge it by the results. So far these have been far more satisfactory than was anticipated when the concession was granted. In the past five years (1888-1892), the minimum amount that the concessionaires were bound to pay to the colony was, as stated above, $\text{£}15,333 \times 5 = \text{£}76,665$; the amount actually paid by them has been $\text{£}119,451$.

The increased revenue from asphalt, that has accrued to the colony since the granting of the concession, has been very large. In the five years previous to the granting of the concession, 1883 to 1887, the total revenue accruing to the colony from asphalt was only $\text{£}14,196$; in the five years subsequent to the concession, 1888 to 1892, it has been $\text{£}141,268$; of this latter sum $\text{£}119,451$ was paid by the concessionaires as royalty and export duty on asphalt dug from the Lake, and $\text{£}21,817$ was paid by other parties as export duty on asphalt dug from private lands. The revenue derived from asphalt in the past years, 1892 was within a few hundred pounds of the total charge on account of the whole Public Debt of the colony.

Another non-agricultural product that has, in recent years, come well to the front among the exports of the colony is "Bitters." Although this generic description naturally includes every kind and description of bitters made in the

colony, yet practically it is limited to the world-wide known Angostura Bitters manufactured by Messrs. Dr. J. G. B. Siegert and Sons—no other bitters being manufactured in the colony. This article was originally manufactured by the inventor and founder of the firm, Dr. J. G. B. Siegert, at Angostura (Venezuela), from which it derives its name. Dr. Siegert died in 1870, and the manufacture was carried on at Angostura by his two eldest sons until 1875, when they removed to Trinidad and established their factory in Port-of-Spain, where it has been carried on ever since. Messrs. Siegert have gradually extended their factory until it now occupies a large block of buildings with a frontage on both George Street and Nelson Street. The exports of Angostura Bitters which for the first five years after the transfer of the manufacture to this colony, only averaged 19,000 gallons per annum, have for the past five years, averaged 41,622 gallons—a striking proof, were any needed, of the purity and excellence of these celebrated Bitters, which have now become one of the manufactures of Trinidad.

Of the minor agricultural products of the colony, Coffee is perhaps the most important. The coffee plant thrives well and bears abundantly in every part of the colony, yet the quantity produced is not even sufficient to meet the home consumption. Of late years, however, coffee has been receiving more attention, and the area under cultivation has been considerably enlarged. The fact that the beans can now be profitably shipped “in the parchment” is likely to give a further

stimulus to this industry. The quality of Trinidad coffee is equal to any produced either in the East or West Indies.

The soil of certain districts of the colony is admirably adapted to the growth of tobacco, and samples grown in the district of Siparia have been pronounced by competent judges to be second only to the finest Havana. As yet, however, the cultivation is confined to a few patches scattered here and there throughout the colony, but principally in the above-named district. During the administration of Sir William Robinson the services of an expert from Cuba were engaged, and an experimental cultivation established by the Government at Siparia. Although the experiment has not proved a financial success, and has consequently been brought to a close, it has, in other respects, been both useful and profitable, as will be seen from the following extract from the Report of the Superintendent of the Botanic Gardens for 1892:—

“The experiment of growing Tobacco at Siparia has been terminated. The officer imported as specialist and employed temporarily by the Government to superintend the culture decided at the conclusion of his engagement to remain in the district and has purchased land on his own account. This, I take it, is an encouraging feature, as in his hands I believe the industry is likely to increase, the more so, as he has identified himself with the people, and is prepared to settle for good in the district. The last crop, like the former ones, was small, but being of the nature of an experiment I could not advise the Government to expend large sums in cultivating a sufficient area to become a remunerative culture. The first question to be decided was: Can a Tobacco of a suitable character for making good cigars be grown in Trinidad? The second question: Can it be grown to pay? is a question which the industry of the people themselves should solve. The first ques-

tion having been resolved in the affirmative, on the Report of London brokers and manufacturers, on Reports of samples of cigars sent to England, and on numerous Reports of local smokers, the second question may safely be left to the hands of enterprising planters to whom it properly belongs. In the meantime it may be said that the quality of the produce of the district in which operations were conducted (always a tobacco-producing one) has much improved. The native cultivators having seen and partially adopted the methods employed by the skilled cultivator, and it may be confidently anticipated that the industry will continue to make progress during future years."

Cotton was, in former times, extensively cultivated and formed a considerable item of export, and Trinidad cotton is said to have been of superior quality and to have commanded high prices. The cotton plantations were, however, subsequently abandoned for the more profitable cultivation of the sugar cane. Indigo was also at one time an article of export; but now, although the plant grows wild throughout the colony, all the indigo used locally is imported.*

Indian corn or maize thrives well in even the poorer lands, while in the richer soils the yield is higher than in Europe or America. It is, however, only cultivated to a limited extent, the large local consumption being principally supplied by imports from the United States. Rice grows well

* Joseph states that in 1783 several plantations and manufactories of indigo were established in Trinidad, but were subsequently abandoned on account of their being unhealthy; and also that prior to 1783 the people had a simple process by which they extracted sufficient colouring matter from the plant for their domestic purposes; but that even at the time he wrote (1837) all knowledge of the process had been lost.

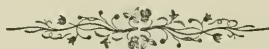
in almost every part of the colony, the average yield being from six to seven barrels per acre. The area planted in rice has been gradually increasing, and the annual crop is now considerable and affects to some extent the sale of East Indian rice of which, however, the quantity imported is still very large. There is a sufficient quantity of land, well adapted to this cultivation, and almost useless for any other purpose, to produce all the rice required for home consumption, but this desirable result is not likely to be attained for very many years to come.

The soil of Trinidad is so highly fertile and so diversified in its nature as to render the island capable of growing successfully not only every vegetable product of the tropics, but also many of those of more temperate regions. In addition to sugar, cocoa, and the other products already mentioned, tropical fruit trees of every kind grow luxuriantly and fruit abundantly,* and all tropical vegetables or roots, whether exotic or indigenous, such as plantains, yams, cush-cush, sweet potatoes, taniais, ochroes, &c., grow readily, require little care, and are generally highly productive; while many non-tropical vegetables such as cabbage, turnips,

* Among the many delicious fruits of the island may be mentioned Bananas, five or six varieties; Mangoes, of both the common and finer descriptions; Oranges, five or six varieties; Malacca Apples; Pine Apples; Mummee Apples; Sapodillas, four or five varieties; Plums, *Chili* and *Governor*; Grana-dillas and Water-melons; Sugar Apples, Custurd Apples, Star Apples, three varieties; Musk-melons, Water-lemons, Pomegranates, Papaws, Cashews, Golden Apples, &c., &c.

carrot, beet root, &c., can with a little care and attention be brought to almost as great perfection as in Europe or America.

The forests of the colony abound in valuable timber, but up to now, little or no effort has been made to develop this source of wealth. At present the exports of timber, other than firewood, are confined to occasional small shipments of cedar or locust boards, chiefly to the other West Indian colonies. It is to be hoped that the specimens of the woods of the colony, now being exhibited at the World's Fair at Chicago, may lead to an enquiry for some of the more valuable hard woods, many of which are almost indestructible, and most of them beautifully grained and variegated and susceptible of the highest polish. Among many others may be mentioned Balata or Bullet-wood, Pouis, Acoma or Mastic, Yoke, Roble, Carapa, Cedar, Fiddlewood, Guatacare, Zapatero or Purple-heart, Olivier, Black and White Cyp, Laurel Cyp, Sandbox, &c, &c.







DIACRIUM (EPIDENDRUM) BICORNUTUM.



THE ILLUSTRATIONS.



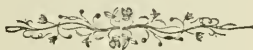
REFERENCE has already been made to all the illustrations in this sketch, except the two facing respectively, pages 91 and 95.* The first of these represents one of the commonest of the many beautiful orchids indigenous to Trinidad, the *Diacrium* (*Epidendrum*) *bicornutum*, known locally as the Virgin or Virgin Mary. It grows wild in the richest profusion on Gasparilla and the Bocas islands, and in the early months of the year, when it is in full flower, adds greatly to the beauty of the wooded hillsides of these picturesque islands. The plant shown in the illustration, when in full flower, in January last, carried fifty flowering branches upon which were four hundred expanded flowers, and five hundred unexpanded ones

* These illustrations were intended to form part of a chapter descriptive of the Flora and Fauna of the island, but which the writer regrets he has been compelled to omit, owing to the limited time at his disposal. In connection with this subject he begs to tender his best thanks to Mr. W. E. Broadway, acting Superintendent of the Botanic Gardens, who kindly placed at his disposal some very interesting notes on the flora of the island, and to apologize to him for their unavoidable omission. He is also indebted to Mr. B. for ready and valuable information in regard to the Botanic Gardens.

—a total of nine hundred flowers including those not quite open.

The other illustration represents one of the native rodents—the Lapa or Lape (*Cavia Paca*). The habits and peculiarities of this little animal have been thus ably described by Dr. de Verteuil:—“The Lape is not so common as the Agouti, and seems to prefer the high woods in the vicinity of plantations. It lives upon seeds and fruits, is particularly fond of corn, and, in order to get to the ear, brings down the stalk by gnawing it near the roots. Besides its burrow, which it prepares amongst the roots of some large tree or in hollows under ground, the Lape may be said to have also a place of refuge on the margin of a neighbouring ravine or river; this shelter is, commonly, under the roots of trees forming a sort of vault. When pressed by the dogs the Lape resorts to this stronghold, and, in extremity, to the water itself, from either of which retreats it is sometimes difficult to dislodge it. It has been said that the Lape is amphibious: this is not the case; for, when apparently under water, though the body is completely hidden, the snout is held above the surface for the purpose of breathing. Though capable of being domesticated, the Lape nevertheless seems always to preserve a strong predilection for the haunts and freedom of the wild forest, to which it soon returns if left at liberty. It may be regarded as one of the richest and most delicate dishes in the shape of game, its flesh partaking of the qualities of veal and pork.”

In reference to the latter statement Mr. Lamont, in his "Seasons with the Sea-horses," says: "I think the flesh of the reindeer is the richest and most delicious meat, wild or tame, which I ever tasted, with the exception of a fat Eland, and a diminutive West Indian animal called by the negroes the Lapp;" and in a foot-note to this statement he adds: "After a somewhat extensive experience in that line, I am inclined to award to the Lapp the palm of being the best culinary animal in the world."





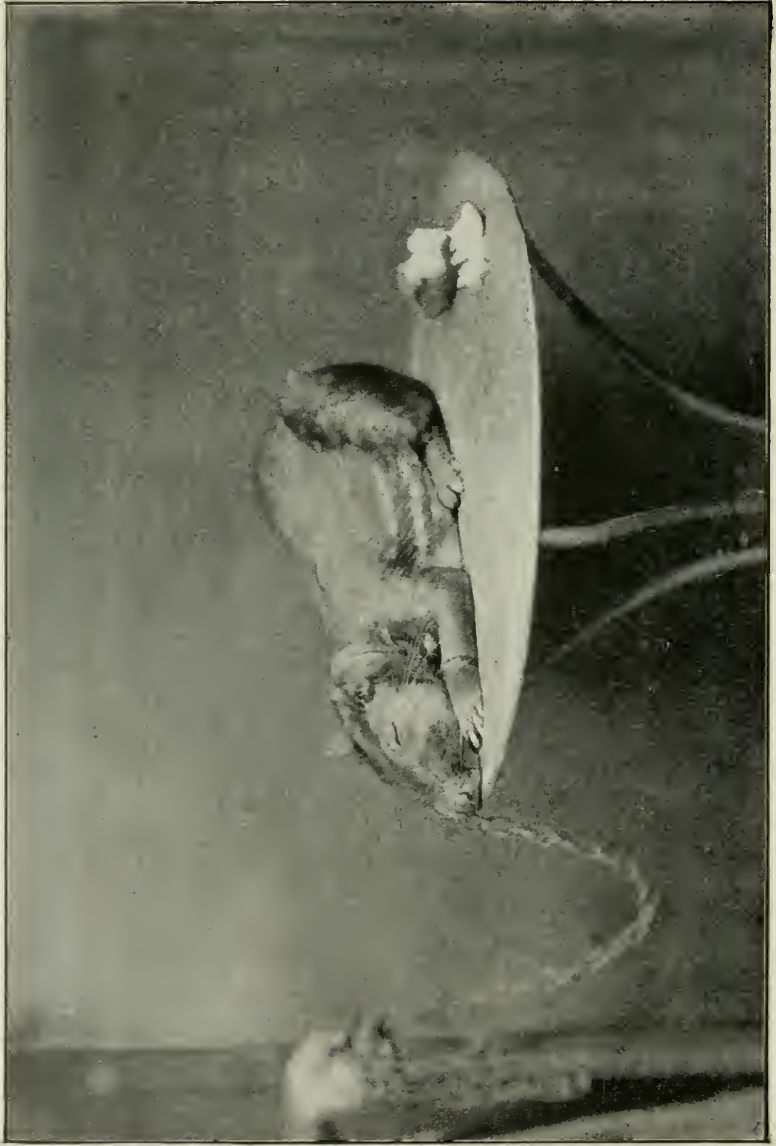
PORTS AND COMMUNICATION.



OF the three Ports of the colony, two, Port-of-Spain and San Fernando, have already been referred to; the third, Mayaro, is on the eastern coast of the island. The principal harbours of the colony, Port-of-Spain and San Fernando, while they may, owing to their situation on the shores of the ever placid Gulf of Paria, be ranked among the safest in the world, do not, however, afford shipping facilities at all commensurate with the importance of the colony. Vessels have, owing to the shallowness of the water inshore, to lie from one to two miles off the wharves, and cargoes have to be landed and loaded by means of lighters or flats.

The "silting up," that is constantly going on all along the eastern shores of the gulf has of late years so reduced the depth of water alongside the wharves of Port-of-Spain as to interfere considerably with the unloading and lading of flats; but steps are now being taken to remedy this by dredging. There is also another scheme that has for some time been under the consideration of the Government, viz.,





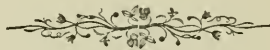
LAPPA OF LAPPE-CAVIA PACA.

the Chaguaramas Harbour Scheme. Under this scheme it is proposed to establish a Coaling Station and other works at Chaguaramas Bay, which is undoubtedly the natural harbour of the colony. The project includes a railway connecting the new Port with Port-of-Spain and the existing railway system of the colony, and when the works are completed the largest vessels will be able to lie alongside the wharves at Chaguaramas, and be discharged or loaded as quickly as in Europe or America. It is a purely private undertaking, the promoter being Mr. Carlos D. Siegert, senior partner in the well-known firm of Messrs. Dr. J. G. B. Siegert and Sons. The carrying out of this scheme, while certain to benefit the colony both directly and indirectly, involves no risk or liability on the part of the local Government.

Mayaro Harbour, on the east coast of the island, comprises that part of the bay of the same name, not at a greater distance than two miles from the shore, and lying between a line drawn east from the most northerly beacon, and a line drawn east from the most southerly beacon. It was declared a Port of entry on 30th March of the present year, the object being to facilitate the shipment of coconuts and to afford seeking vessels an opportunity of learning the state of the local freight market, without having to sail round the island, enter the Gulf and come up to Port-of-Spain. Mayaro is now in telegraphic communication with Port-of-Spain and San Fernando.

There is now direct steam communication between New

York and the colony by the fine vessels of "The Trinidad Line of Steamships" which leave New York regularly every ten days. The round trip occupies about twenty-five days, including a stay of from five to seven days in Trinidad; but passengers can prolong their stay and return by any of the succeeding steamers. There is also a Canadian Line of Steamers sailing monthly between St. Johns, N. B., Halifax, N. S., and Demerara, touching at Barbados and Trinidad, as well as several intermediate ports. These steamers proceed from Trinidad to Demerara, returning on the homeward voyage in about a week. There is no lack of steam communication with Europe. In addition to the Royal Mail Steamers leaving Southampton every fortnight, there are the French Line of Steamers from Havre and Marseilles; the Dutch Line of Steamers from Amsterdam; the London Direct Line of Steamers; two Liverpool Lines; a Glasgow Line, and others. The colony is in telegraphic communication (West India and Panama Telegraph Company) with America, Europe and all the other West Indian Colonies.





APPENDIX.



STATISTICS OF TRINIDAD.



C O N T E N T S .

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POPULATION.

Table I.—Showing Sex-Distribution of Population, 1851—91.

SEX.	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.	1891.
Males	35,631	46,074	60,405	83,716	108,420
Females	32,969	38,364	49,233	69,412	91,608
Total	68,600	84,438	109,638	153,128	200,028

Table II.—Showing Age-Distribution of Population, 1851—91.

AGE.	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.	1891.
Under 1 year	—	—	—	—	4,808
1—	—	—	—	—	4,226
2—	—	—	—	—	4,569
3—	—	—	—	—	4,872
4—	—	—	—	—	4,740
Under 5	—	—	—	—	23,215
5—	—	—	—	—	22,418
Under 10	16,403	—	—	32,724	45,633
10—	—	—	—	—	18,522
15—	—	—	—	—	15,838
Under 20	26,900	33,536	41,374	60,441	79,993
20—	29,178	33,984	43,739	59,994	75,345
40—	9,753	12,809	17,928	25,673	34,673
60—	2,769	3,671	3,727	5,577	9,965
Not described	438	2,870	1,443	52
Total	68,600	84,438	109,638	153,128	200,028

POPULATION.

Table III.—Showing Birth-places of the Population, 1851–91.

BIRTH-PLACES.	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.	1891.
Trinidad	39,913	46,936	56,692	69,307	86,941
„ —Indian Parents	—	—	4,545	12,800	24,641
India	3,993	13,488	22,880	36,020	45,577
British West Indies ...	10,800	11,716	13,707	24,047	33,071
British North America..					93
Other British Colonies and Possessions					16
United Kingdom	727	1,040	954	1,062	943
Portugal	5,157	4,301	605	709	701
Austria-Hungary			39	24	
Italy			42	37	
France			182		
Spain			55		
Germany			78		
Denmark			16		
Norway and Sweden			77		
Russia			1,979	7	
Holland and Belgium			2,083	9	
Switzerland			8		
Greece			4		
Turkey			2		
United States of America			172		
Foreign West Indies	1,259				
Venezuela	2,195	2,277	2,955		
China	461	1,400	1,266	1,006	
Africa	8,010	6,035	4,256	3,035	2,055
All other Countries	—	—	—	—	69
Not described	—	461	425	441	30
Total	68,600	84,438	109,638	153,128	200,028

Table IV.—Showing number of Indian Immigrants added to the Population, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	COOLIES LANDED.					COOLIES RETURNED.					ADDED TO POPULATION.							
	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Infants.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Infants.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Infants.	Total.
1883	...	522	77	50	74	2,053	301	108	37	43	12	501	1,029	414	40	7	62	1,552
1884	...	802	192	152	127	3,147	412	121	66	56	22	677	1,462	681	126	96	105	2,470
1885	...	437	107	78	108	1,708	332	138	79	47	18	614	646	299	28	31	90	1,094
1886	...	556	137	105	87	2,179	299	127	40	58	22	546	995	429	97	47	65	1,633
1887	...	505	132	116	51	2,185	391	155	67	65	—	678	990	350	65	51	51	1,507
1888	...	438	158	127	88	1,860	228	106	55	46	—	435	821	332	103	81	88	1,425
1889	...	800	223	149	160	3,253	390	135	64	70	9	668	1,531	665	159	79	151	2,585
1890	...	713	187	195	145	2,936	355	119	64	50	9	597	1,341	594	123	145	136	2,339
1891	...	1,037	263	223	211	3,781	452	129	59	36	9	685	1,595	908	204	187	202	3,096
1892	...	939	202	130	157	3,253	399	167	56	62	13	697	1,426	772	146	68	144	2,556
Average	..	675	168	133	120	2,636	356	131	59	53	11	610	1,184	544	109	80	109	2,026

VITAL STATISTICS.

Table V.—Showing the number of Marriages, Births and Deaths in each of the ten years, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	MARRIAGES.		BIRTHS.			DEATHS.				DEATH-RATE* per 1,000 living at 5 Age-periods.				
	Number.	Rate per 1,000.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Rate per 1,000.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Under 10.	10—	20—	45—	65 & upwards.
1883	712	4.35	2,971	2,945	5,916	36.14	2,627	2,038	4,665	—	—	—	—	—
1884	692	4.11	2,866	2,830	5,696	33.83	2,594	1,991	4,585	—	—	—	—	—
1885	580	3.35	3,166	2,926	6,092	35.20	2,836	2,014	4,850	—	—	—	—	—
1886	574	3.23	3,280	3,126	6,406	36.04	2,885	2,008	4,893	—	—	—	—	—
1887	649	3.56	3,067	3,097	6,164	33.78	2,800	2,143	4,943	—	—	—	—	—
1888	772	4.13	3,483	3,269	6,752	36.08	3,249	2,529	5,778	56.12	11.97	18.60	33.47	84.43
1889	766	4.00	3,447	3,358	6,805	35.48	3,308	2,491	5,799	54.17	11.20	19.35	35.41	75.59
1890	986	5.02	3,378	3,279	6,657	33.88	3,196	2,416	5,612	49.40	7.94	17.83	39.16	93.64
1891	981	4.85	3,623	3,572	7,195	35.60	3,119	2,505	5,624	51.70	7.29	16.80	33.29	99.29
1892	885	4.27	3,632	3,619	7,251	34.95	3,073	2,292	5,365	43.81	7.00	16.24	35.65	95.34
Average	760	4.15	3,291	3,202	6,493	35.48	2,968	2,243	5,211	—	—	—	—	—

* The number of deaths at different ages were not tabulated previous to 1888.

Table VI.—Showing the number of Depositors, the Deposits, Withdrawals and Amounts remaining on Deposit at end of each year, 1883—1892.

SAVINGS BANKS.

YEAR.	NO. OF DEPOSITORS.		DEPOSITS.		WITHDRAWALS.		Amount remaining on Deposit at end of each year.		Average to each Depositor.		Average per head of Population.	
	Total.	Per 100 of Population	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.	£	s. d.
1883	3,020	1·82	80,305	7 7½	59,794	7 10	75,351	12 6	24 19	04	0 9	0 9 0½
1884	3,361	1·97	75,468	6 8	65,264	1 0½	85,555	18 1½	25 9	14	0 10	0 10 04
1885	3,490	1·93	70,354	13 6½	68,398	17 11	87,511	13 9	25 1	6	0 9	0 9 11½
1886	3,757	2·09	84,484	6 5½	74,537	9 2½	97,458	11 0	25 18	9½	0 10	0 10 9½
1887	4,409	2·39	95,199	14 9	83,142	16 8	109,515	9 1	24 16	94	0 11	0 11 104
1888	5,366	2·83	96,739	12 11	84,328	12 8½	121,926	9 3½	22 14	5½	0 12	0 12 10½
1889	5,606	2·89	110,098	11 8	103,796	2 5½	128,228	18 6	22 17	5½	0 13	0 13 2½
1890	6,769	3·44	120,094	9 6	103,768	13 2	144,554	14 10	21 7	14	0 14	0 14 6½
1891	6,919	3·38	114,815	19 11½	115,419	9 10	143,951	4 11½	20 16	14	0 14	0 14 1
1892	7,784	3·70	129,287	5 1½	115,469	13 0½	157,768	17 04	20 5	4½	0 14	0 14 11½
Average	5,048	2·69	97,684	16 9½	87,392	0 4½	115,182	6 11	22 16	4½	0 12	0 12 3½

FINANCE.

Table VII.—Showing the Revenue derived from all sources in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	REVENUE DERIVED FROM							Total Revenue Proper.	Recoups from Loans.	Refunds.	Grand Total Receipts.
	Taxation.	Crown Lands.	Postage.	Railways, Telegraphs.	Fees, Fines and Reimbursements in Aid.	Other Sources.	Total Revenue Proper.				
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1883	333,242	9,423	4,897	51,431	27,950	6,853	433,796	3,316	9,325	446,437	
1884	342,952	10,201	5,534	54,238	28,702	8,345	449,972	3,695	9,258	462,925	
1885	302,811	10,778	5,729	49,429	26,543	6,116	401,406	3,065	13,613	418,084	
1886	329,883	13,457	5,833	50,092	22,338	6,597	428,200	2,476	12,696	443,372	
1887	350,893	14,440	6,717	54,557	31,866	6,746	465,219	3,566	10,293	479,078	
1888	348,844	25,735	6,723	55,293	23,712	8,882	469,189	3,293	8,042	480,524	
1889	347,779	30,140	6,823	51,359	24,886	8,600	469,587	2,430	8,734	480,751	
1890	365,179	29,603	7,732	52,239	24,377	9,618	488,748	2,111	9,220	500,079	
1891	360,963	35,195	7,461	52,330	38,898	11,080	505,927	1,000	13,911	520,838	
1892	379,456	39,649	6,997	53,165	39,361	15,333	533,961	1,000	16,073	551,034	
Average.	346,200	21,862	6,445	52,413	28,863	8,817	464,600	2,595	11,117	478,312	

FINANCE.
Table VIII.—Showing the Revenue, Expenditure, Public Debt and Taxation in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.		PUBLIC DEBT.			TAXATION.		
	Total Revenue. £	Revenue per head. £ s. d.	Total Expenditure. £	Expenditure per head. £ s. d.	Total Public Debt. £	Public Debt per head. £ s. d.	Annual Charge on account of Public Debt. £	Annual Charge per head. £ s. d.	Percentage of Revenue raised by Taxation. £	Taxation per head. £ s. d.
1883	433,796	2 13 0	447,240	2 14 8	598,630	3 12 1	33,668	0 4 1	76·82	2 0 9
1884	449,972	2 13 6	435,160	2 11 8	590,640	3 9 2	35,667	0 4 2	76·22	2 0 9
1885	401,406	2 6 5	417,091	2 8 3	580,920	3 6 3	34,895	0 4 0	75·44	1 15 0
1886	428,200	2 8 2	414,471	2 6 8	571,880	3 3 6	35,026	0 3 11	77·04	1 17 2
1887	465,219	2 11 0	433,646	2 7 7	562,440	3 0 11	34,858	0 3 9	75·43	1 18 6
1888	469,189	2 10 2	452,011	2 8 4	552,680	2 18 4	34,813	0 3 8	74·35	1 17 4
1889	469,587	2 9 0	479,533	2 10 0	542,420	2 15 11	35,160	0 3 8	74·06	1 16 3
1890	488,748	2 9 9	495,432	2 10 5	532,320	2 13 7	34,841	0 3 6	74·72	1 17 2
1891	505,927	2 10 1	515,026	2 11 0	520,420	2 10 11	35,387	0 3 6	71·35	1 15 9
1892	533,961	2 11 6	522,727	2 10 5	608,820	2 17 11	37,666	0 3 7	71·06	1 16 7
Average	464,600	2 10 3	461,234	2 9 10	566,117	3 0 5	35,198	0 3 9	74·52	1 17 5

TRADE.
Table IX.—Showing the Value of the Imports, Exports and Total Trade, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Imports exclusive of Bullion and Specie.	Imports of Bullion and Specie.	Total Imports.	Exports of Native Produce and Manufactures.	Exports of Foreign Products and Manufactures.	Exports exclusive of Bullion and Specie.	Exports of Bullion and Specie.	Total Exports.	Total Trade exclusive of Bullion and Specie.	Total Trade inclusive of Bullion and Specie.
1883 ...	1,693,264	969,758	2,663,022	1,517,696	241,680	1,759,376	927,294	2,686,670	3,452,640	5,349,692
1884 ...	1,831,903	1,251,967	3,083,870	1,274,785	306,307	1,581,092	1,188,635	2,769,727	3,412,995	5,853,597
1885 ...	1,512,314	729,164	2,241,478	1,306,863	232,380	1,539,243	707,421	2,246,664	3,051,557	4,488,142
1886 ...	1,544,247	959,267	2,503,514	1,291,962	268,374	1,560,336	948,804	2,509,140	3,104,583	5,012,654
1887 ...	1,647,029	271,641	1,918,670	1,398,610	255,659	1,654,269	216,343	1,870,612	3,301,298	3,789,282
1888 ...	1,678,972	264,317	1,943,789	1,557,710	346,482	1,904,192	228,569	2,132,761	5,583,164	4,076,550
1889 ...	1,679,944	413,988	2,093,932	1,527,438	329,213	1,856,651	452,181	2,308,832	3,536,595	4,402,764
1890 ...	1,831,803	417,090	2,248,893	1,413,128	352,803	1,765,931	413,501	2,179,432	3,597,734	4,428,325
1891 ...	1,793,535	303,262	2,096,797	1,357,127	359,724	1,716,851	341,910	2,058,761	3,510,386	4,155,558
1892 ...	1,861,027	228,353	2,089,380	1,589,108	416,169	2,005,277	252,786	2,258,063	3,866,304	4,347,443
Average.	1,707,404	580,931	2,288,335	1,423,443	310,879	1,734,322	567,744	2,302,066	3,441,726	4,590,401

TRADE.

Table X.—Showing Total Value* of Imports from and Exports to Principal Countries, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	United Kingdom.		British Colonies.		U. S. America.		Venezuela.		France.		All other Countries.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1883	877,916	813,574	269,554	101,799	438,271	716,513	914,278	355,121	104,599	635,104	58,494	64,559
1884	887,011	863,290	254,339	91,795	425,572	608,194	1,265,538	305,798	157,695	803,783	93,715	96,867
1885	654,704	1,186,420	240,523	53,286	394,496	564,458	788,454	175,812	85,288	185,072	78,013	81,616
1886	666,499	949,622	271,004	54,809	351,951	634,368	1,053,327	168,585	105,371	606,001	55,362	95,755
1887	751,510	748,551	276,281	44,796	360,537	722,813	359,918	141,863	101,386	136,191	69,038	76,398
1888	794,427	861,634	212,547	60,338	349,863	668,518	416,157	244,890	103,723	234,200	67,072	63,181
1889	763,891	972,473	207,849	56,960	382,520	763,426	585,585	337,666	88,876	119,610	65,211	58,697
1890	822,280	857,024	228,087	111,012	428,563	725,000	566,202	186,215	119,528	189,108	84,233	111,073
1891	777,658	728,998	235,804	70,088	422,190	736,345	381,225	233,279	118,781	184,666	161,079	105,385
1892	759,539	793,482	239,550	48,329	456,982	811,032	398,892	198,650	92,175	277,318	142,242	129,252
Average ...	775,544	877,507	243,560	69,321	401,094	695,067	672,958	234,788	107,742	337,105	87,437	88,278

* Inclusive of value of Bullion and Specie.

TRADE.
Table XI.—Showing Quantities & Value of Principal Articles imported in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Cocoa.		Fish—All kinds.		Flour.		Goods Manf'd*	Hard-ware.†	Leather.	Live Stock.	Lumber.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.					
1883	Cwts.	£	Cwts.	£	Brls.	£	£	£	£	£	£
...	11,171	37,893	52,189	56,353	92,496	137,639	108,469	129,602	50,803	81,032	66,378
1884	...	14,602	43,889	64,526	98,862	136,017	139,853	173,880	51,498	86,578	63,384
1885	...	10,779	33,478	74,194	59,189	107,211	144,869	116,894	37,558	76,145	45,075
1886	...	14,909	58,103	83,040	55,215	113,359	130,920	94,275	42,753	98,450	38,873
1887	...	15,657	54,608	63,079	52,440	104,147	108,340	112,990	51,215	106,040	58,770
1888	...	25,431	79,385	59,593	65,291	111,805	116,650	107,569	50,402	85,433	38,451
1889	...	19,779	58,406	61,960	60,329	117,135	117,340	105,882	43,693	79,220	39,266
1890	...	25,626	75,677	58,304	61,743	121,167	122,024	127,180	56,107	83,645	57,062
1891	...	21,939	69,392	55,082	55,661	115,876	121,726	118,482	47,292	81,071	37,861
1892	...	40,491	111,320	57,872	60,288	135,162	140,088	128,436	54,744	59,386	38,276
Average	..	20,038	62,215	63,866	59,104	111,722	127,561	121,519	48,610	83,700	48,340

* Unenumerated.

† Including Machinery.

TRADE.
Table XI.—Showing Quantities and Value of Principal Articles imported, &c.—Continued.

YEAR.	Malt Liquor.	Manure.	Meat—All kinds.		Rice.		Spirits.	Textiles.	Vegetable Products.	Wine.	Bullion & Specie.
	Value.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Value.	Value.	Value.	Value.	Value.
1883	£ 34,286	£ 27,808	Cwts. 24,657	£ 52,841	Cwts. 192,763	£ 112,802	£ 27,776	£ 317,878	£ 54,711	£ 36,717	£ 969,758
1884	.. 39,359	.. 24,490	.. 27,045	.. 45,557	.. 176,274	.. 102,599	.. 22,397	.. 323,202	.. 72,008	.. 45,495	.. 1,251,967
1885	.. 28,785	.. 27,940	.. 48,426	.. 59,471	.. 195,464	.. 113,940	.. 17,164	.. 239,358	.. 47,487	.. 32,392	.. 729,164
1886	.. 33,438	.. 35,096	.. 32,787	.. 50,980	.. 164,867	.. 94,056	.. 16,926	.. 267,675	.. 49,584	.. 41,106	.. 959,267
1887	.. 37,480	.. 18,915	.. 30,794	.. 51,100	.. 186,282	.. 116,156	.. 16,730	.. 314,510	.. 48,432	.. 50,547	.. 271,641
1888	.. 34,449	.. 27,687	.. 32,822	.. 52,722	.. 179,322	.. 114,472	.. 16,772	.. 333,278	.. 40,836	.. 44,724	.. 264,817
1889	.. 28,540	.. 40,931	.. 40,336	.. 62,168	.. 193,724	.. 131,117	.. 17,760	.. 312,004	.. 43,092	.. 50,234	.. 413,988
1890	.. 32,432	.. 40,892	.. 44,363	.. 64,555	.. 178,796	.. 125,222	.. 18,348	.. 346,517	.. 69,158	.. 52,817	.. 417,090
1891	.. 29,032	.. 19,867	.. 46,748	.. 59,283	.. 211,026	.. 154,443	.. 26,467	.. 356,852	.. 42,626	.. 59,438	.. 303,262
1892	.. 35,794	.. 25,438	.. 52,554	.. 69,249	.. 199,566	.. 140,432	.. 24,088	.. 318,379	.. 62,537	.. 39,873	.. 228,353
Average	.. 33,360	.. 28,906	.. 38,051	.. 56,793	.. 187,808	.. 120,524	.. 20,443	.. 312,965	.. 53,047	.. 45,343	.. 580,931

TRADE.
Table XII.—Showing Quantities and Value of Principal Articles re-exported, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Cocoa.		Coffee.		Fish— All kinds.	Flour.		Goods Manuf'd*	Hard- ware.†	Live Stock.	Malt Liquor.
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.				
	Cwts.	£	Cwts.	£	Brels.	£	£	£	£	£	
1883	10,541	36,993	4,261	8,981	3,335	5,941	8,319	14,994	33,647	2,353	1,683
1884	15,720	52,014	2,379	5,077	5,039	5,117	7,177	26,154	29,087	4,199	2,170
1885	10,494	36,073	1,508	3,551	7,717	11,286	14,825	19,755	15,366	2,317	1,843
1886	16,837	64,517	1,447	3,273	5,500	13,139	15,254	19,002	15,334	1,411	6,733
1887	15,581	58,759	2,722	8,274	4,760	4,125	4,812	29,781	19,084	570	2,826
1888	28,704	101,631	6,314	19,031	3,787	4,763	5,537	27,702	19,762	3,246	4,434
1889	18,507	67,097	1,801	4,968	3,190	5,082	6,255	23,270	20,296	3,031	3,235
1890	21,339	72,481	1,056	4,080	3,053	3,714	4,057	49,098	16,898	10,070	5,036
1891	21,275	69,694	1,897	8,499	4,716	5,542	7,177	35,184	23,058	6,182	5,082
1892	34,639	113,061	3,740	13,630	6,305	7,962	8,962	29,275	18,644	4,507	5,020
Average	19,364	67,232	2,712	7,936	4,740	6,667	8,237	27,421	21,118	3,789	3,806

* Unenumerated.

† Includes Machinery.

TRADE.

Table XII.—Showing Quantities and Value of Principal Articles re-exported, 1883—1892.—Contd.

YEAR.	Meat—All kinds.		Oil—All kinds.		Rice.	Spirits.	Sugar.	Textiles.	Vegetable Products.	Wine.	Bullion & Specie.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.								
	Cwts.	£	Cwts.	£								
1883	...	872	2,004	3,395	7,522	3,657	7,949	4,782	53,041	17,094	3,672	947,292
1884	...	1,965	3,336	2,978	4,597	3,307	6,842	3,817	83,730	28,401	2,761	1,188,635
1885	...	2,244	4,470	3,255	16,965	14,172	2,671	2,511	44,140	29,199	1,530	707,421
1886	...	2,474	4,248	4,128	10,375	7,620	4,682	3,107	47,774	34,621	2,686	948,804
1887	...	1,674	2,640	3,519	3,179	2,075	1,340	658	91,921	6,598	1,912	216,343
1888	...	1,016	2,244	4,226	8,299	5,177	3,096	1,287	93,550	7,604	2,723	228,569
1889	...	1,666	2,929	4,592	4,775	3,242	4,883	3,072	106,659	6,726	2,140	452,181
1890	...	837	1,113	4,074	4,501	3,311	5,694	1,992	105,974	24,681	4,291	413,501
1891	...	1,115	1,870	4,231	15,284	10,943	7,361	2,648	121,989	6,709	7,578	341,910
1892	...	1,638	2,386	5,186	5,889	4,599	9,466	6,537	89,967	35,345	7,082	252,786
Average	...	1,550	2,724	3,958	8,139	5,801	5,398	3,041	83,874	19,698	3,637	567,744

TRADE.
Table XIII.—Showing Quantities of Native Produce exported in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Sugar.		Molasses.		Rum.		Bitters.		Cocoa.		Coffee.		Coconuts.		Asphalt.	
	Lbs.		Galls.		Galls.		Galls.		Lbs.		Lbs.		No.	Raw. Tons.	Boiled. Tons.	Total. Tons.
1883 ...	122,070,784		1,982,176		2,394		32,925		11,649,785		40,822		8,826,500	34,277	4,868	39,145
1884 ...	136,552,804		2,245,650		43,581		32,381		12,908,770		14,960		11,276,339	33,383	6,562	39,945
1885 ...	142,641,411		2,416,761		72,525		32,240		13,729,565		20,270		9,645,700	28,505	6,731	35,236
1886 ...	108,523,940		2,220,288		16,181		35,355		17,913,037		20,052		9,013,200	30,255	5,416	35,671
1887 ...	149,800,919		2,542,225		35,571		35,143		11,927,067		8,380		7,365,295	35,072	8,027	43,099
1888 ...	122,491,220		1,948,569		97,974		42,830		21,352,312		4,480		12,366,592	40,792	11,236	52,028
1889 ...	112,368,762		2,234,724		20,015		43,692		15,335,228		29,774		11,495,471	66,565	11,559	78,124
1890 ...	115,239,227		2,024,884		20,469		43,266		21,552,593		12,597		12,739,904	68,201	10,640	78,841
1891 ...	101,601,371		1,538,415		15,386		35,764		16,188,493		8,325		14,334,054	85,958	10,032	95,990
1892 ...	110,583,154		1,895,773		3,820		42,557		25,041,635		20,842		13,922,171	102,815	9,409	112,224
Average ...	122,187,359		2,104,946		32,792		37,615		16,759,848		18,050		11,098,523	52,582	8,448	61,030

TRADE.

Table XIV.—Showing Value of Native Products exported in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Sugar.	Molasses.	Rum.	Bitters.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Coconuts.	Asphalt.		
								Raw.	Boiled.	Total.
1883	£ 886,172	£ 74,066	£ 39	£ 39,925	£ 372,629	£ 1,024	£ 35,500	£ 34,277	£ 9,737	£ 44,014
1884	642,255	54,953	4,658	32,381	380,878	396	42,748	33,383	13,124	46,507
1885	684,675	45,385	7,257	32,240	385,901	430	28,624	28,505	13,456	41,961
1886	546,196	47,235	1,415	35,355	521,278	500	30,396	30,255	10,833	41,088
1887	800,595	56,155	3,339	35,143	354,420	228	27,102	35,072	16,055	51,127
1888	724,163	42,169	9,081	42,830	611,876	119	38,530	41,874	24,701	66,575
1889	874,729	49,314	1,854	43,692	411,243	824	37,282	66,885	23,118	90,003
1890	630,815	62,929	1,958	43,266	531,025	439	42,603	68,201	21,280	89,481
1891	662,789	53,492	1,724	35,764	439,786	292	46,663	85,958	20,003	105,961
1892	675,342	57,599	382	42,554	648,103	678	34,424	102,813	18,818	121,631
Average ...	712,773	54,330	3,171	38,315	465,714	493	36,387	52,722	17,113	69,835

TRADE.

Table XV.—Showing the Quantity and Value of Sugar exported to each Country, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	UNITED KINGDOM.		UNITED STATES.		BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.		OTHER COUNTRIES.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£
1883	39,641,980	306,980	79,905,049	559,376	2,470,648	19,436	53,107	380
1884	35,771,800	181,096	93,808,812	430,978	6,847,460	29,881	64,732	300
1885	52,969,863	281,783	89,384,753	401,451	267,400	1,335	19,395	106
1886	24,143,962	147,030	84,345,508	398,997	1,844	6	32,626	163
1887	46,548,922	263,047	103,114,294	536,709	124,108	768	13,595	71
1888	49,551,336	304,935	72,712,162	417,834	182,390	1,146	45,332	248
1889	44,152,199	359,334	67,639,207	510,919	193,968	1,745	383,388	2,731
1890	32,216,300	205,397	80,428,547	410,749	958,521	4,006	1,635,859	10,663
1891	28,974,936	210,499	72,491,588	450,462	84,481	1,501	50,366	327
1892	42,651,148	283,841	67,051,254	386,905	815,067	4,225	65,685	371
Average	39,662,245	254,394	81,094,117	450,438	1,194,590	6,405	236,407	1,536

TRADE.

Table XVI.—Showing the Quantity of Cocoa exported to each Country, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	United Kingdom.	France.	United States.	British N. America.	Germany.	Holland.	Spain.	All other Countries.
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1883	7,640,595	2,640,645	1,318,145	41,200	—	—	—	9,200
1884	8,700,978	2,075,312	2,064,940	52,990	8,500	4,800	—	1,250
1885	6,978,920	2,167,190	4,447,865	12,875	30,455	59,400	4,660	28,200
1886	8,015,382	6,391,110	3,373,970	51,050	4,650	54,965	17,245	4,665
1887	6,129,804	3,926,272	1,662,513	82,500	123,050	—	1,689	1,239
1888	10,947,628	6,891,012	3,407,856	49,088	1,872	44,372	—	10,484
1889	8,236,817	3,770,002	3,222,384	66,828	8,160	7,831	—	23,206
1890	9,160,761	6,435,092	5,440,743	70,725	55,614	347,036	—	42,622
1891	6,435,798	5,197,437	4,115,853	42,187	75,660	287,960	22,400	11,198
1892	7,294,622	9,748,199	7,191,835	150,500	46,843	551,386	35,610	22,640
Average ...	7,954,130	4,924,227	3,624,610	61,994	35,480	135,775	8,160	15,470

TRADE.

Table XVII.—Showing Value of Imports from Venezuela in each year, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	Cocoa.	Coffee.	Goods Man'd	Goods Unman'd	Hides.	Live Stock.	Vegetable Products.	Other Articles.	Total Imports exclusive of Bullion and Specie.	Bullion and Specie.	Total Imports inclusive of Specie.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1883	37,893	9,967	2,475	2,057	—	58,472	16,394	25,948	153,206	761,072	914,278
1884	43,889	7,140	2,680	3,567	—	69,439	22,346	27,030	176,091	1,089,447	1,265,538
1885	33,478	6,611	1,076	3,319	—	48,706	3,458	10,558	107,206	681,248	788,454
1886	58,103	7,710	2,574	18,100	3,050	59,361	20,109	10,267	179,274	874,053	1,053,327
1887	54,608	14,653	5,411	225	13,849	71,556	5,227	3,499	169,028	190,890	359,918
1888	79,385	23,683	5,109	3,599	19,425	58,716	4,289	7,044	201,250	214,907	416,157
1889	58,406	10,206	4,996	2,079	28,588	52,767	8,121	29,658	194,821	390,764	585,585
1890	75,677	9,286	1,509	401	6,295	53,798	35,020	8,809	190,795	375,406	566,201
1891	69,392	10,217	4,234	65	1,754	56,974	4,459	5,996	153,091	228,134	381,225
1892	111,320	11,203	9,035	10,684	8,179	42,257	28,810	6,540	228,028	170,864	398,892
Average ...	62,215	11,067	3,910	4,410	8,114	57,205	14,823	13,535	175,279	497,678	672,957

SHIPPING.
Table XIX.—Showing Tonnage of British and Foreign Sailing Vessels entered and cleared, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	ENTERED.				CLEARED.				TOTAL.			
	With Cargoes.		In Ballast.		With Cargoes.		In Ballast.		With Cargoes.		In Ballast.	
	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.	British.	Foreign.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1883	44,924	70,655	9,245	13,546	44,865	54,797	10,909	22,132	89,789	125,452	20,154	35,678
1884	49,634	81,691	13,408	15,275	52,249	56,433	8,835	30,915	101,883	138,124	22,303	46,190
1885	49,806	61,635	14,417	24,361	53,123	62,654	10,501	18,417	102,929	124,289	24,918	42,778
1886	51,157	57,517	10,969	19,720	49,149	61,386	9,430	21,087	100,306	118,903	20,399	40,807
1887	49,969	62,482	12,403	15,971	53,990	54,492	4,929	19,491	103,959	116,974	17,329	35,462
1888	46,776	58,540	12,687	19,740	48,755	60,104	6,726	23,215	95,531	118,644	19,413	42,955
1889	39,474	62,946	8,652	29,964	42,386	72,795	5,255	20,094	81,860	135,741	13,907	50,058
1890	35,887	68,051	14,756	22,661	45,851	60,880	5,727	30,540	81,738	128,931	20,483	53,201
1891	39,716	62,736	15,606	29,504	34,614	77,857	5,118	18,515	73,330	140,593	20,724	48,019
1892	36,556	67,063	10,713	31,855	32,893	88,383	7,937	16,628	69,449	155,446	18,650	48,483
Average	44,390	65,332	12,292	22,260	45,787	64,978	7,536	22,103	90,177	130,310	19,828	44,363

SHIPPING.
Table XX.—Showing Tonnage of British and Foreign Steam Vessels entered and cleared, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	ENTERED.						CLEARED.						TOTAL.							
	With Cargoes.			In Ballast.			With Cargoes.			In Ballast.			With Cargoes.		In Ballast.					
	British.		Foreign.	British.		Foreign.	British.		Foreign.	British.		Foreign.	British.		Foreign.	British.		Foreign.		
	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.		Tons.		
1883	280,540	45,224	3,387	1,360	243,528	44,797	38,990	2,199	524,068	89,991	42,377	3,559	524,068	89,991	42,377	3,559	524,068	89,991	42,377	3,559
1884	276,617	72,910	16,685	5,490	257,042	73,329	32,766	5,620	533,659	146,239	49,451	11,110	533,659	146,239	49,451	11,110	533,659	146,239	49,451	11,110
1885	283,466	85,951	15,240	1,293	277,032	87,587	21,665	1,973	560,498	173,538	36,905	3,266	560,498	173,538	36,905	3,266	560,498	173,538	36,905	3,266
1886	270,533	102,789	52,001	26,884	266,803	88,826	64,874	42,951	537,336	191,615	116,875	69,835	537,336	191,615	116,875	69,835	537,336	191,615	116,875	69,835
1887	331,519	136,103	6,429	15,984	330,525	119,885	6,959	32,471	662,044	255,988	13,388	48,455	662,044	255,988	13,388	48,455	662,044	255,988	13,388	48,455
1888	332,881	153,096	5,687	4,845	334,003	140,524	6,770	17,034	666,884	293,620	12,457	21,879	666,884	293,620	12,457	21,879	666,884	293,620	12,457	21,879
1889	289,072	131,573	13,242	6,451	284,572	155,026	10,668	6,608	573,644	306,599	23,910	13,059	573,644	306,599	23,910	13,059	573,644	306,599	23,910	13,059
1890	297,994	188,517	9,278	3,079	287,057	183,174	17,374	6,044	585,051	371,691	26,652	9,123	585,051	371,691	26,652	9,123	585,051	371,691	26,652	9,123
1891	294,177	152,307	13,434	762	309,136	152,455	5,037	953	603,313	304,762	18,471	1,715	603,313	304,762	18,471	1,715	603,313	304,762	18,471	1,715
1892	315,133	139,177	1,930	587	308,557	139,013	5,296	70	623,690	278,190	7,226	657	623,690	278,190	7,226	657	623,690	278,190	7,226	657
Average ..	297,193	122,765	13,731	6,674	289,826	118,458	21,040	11,592	587,019	241,223	34,771	18,266	587,019	241,223	34,771	18,266	587,019	241,223	34,771	18,266

SHIPPING.
Table XXI.—Showing Tonnage of Sailing Vessels of each Nation entered and cleared, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	BRITISH.		FRENCH.		U. S. OF AMERICA.		VENEZUELAN.		DUTCH.		OTHER COUNTRIES.	
	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1883	54,169	55,774	5,151	4,580	44,485	38,975	7,700	7,508	1,906	1,085	24,959	24,781
1884	63,102	61,084	5,778	5,817	39,679	31,768	10,783	7,984	870	608	39,856	41,171
1885	64,223	63,624	7,598	7,562	39,459	34,363	7,969	6,834	664	336	30,306	31,976
1886	62,126	58,579	3,426	5,214	39,019	41,532	6,974	7,033	1,311	1,589	26,507	27,105
1887	62,372	58,916	4,179	4,017	34,315	32,582	5,460	5,729	1,606	1,685	32,893	29,970
1888	59,463	55,481	6,217	3,845	36,708	38,418	7,451	8,887	1,230	2,245	26,674	29,924
1889	48,126	47,641	7,265	7,480	49,307	50,351	8,237	8,601	2,784	2,744	25,984	24,380
1890	50,643	51,578	4,818	5,302	35,921	37,794	12,152	12,647	1,235	1,575	36,586	34,102
1891	55,322	39,732	9,300	7,609	37,575	40,132	10,840	11,252	465	2,329	34,060	35,050
1892	47,269	40,830	6,483	8,563	43,833	47,491	12,483	12,089	1,830	1,798	34,289	35,070
Average ..	56,682	53,324	6,022	5,999	40,030	39,341	9,005	8,856	1,390	1,599	31,211	31,353

SHIPPING.
Table XXII.—Showing Tonnage of Steam Vessels of each Nation entered and cleared, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	BRITISH.		FRENCH.		U. S. OF AMERICA.		VENEZUELAN.		DUTCH.		OTHER COUNTRIES.	
	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.	Entered.	Cleared.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1883	283,927	282,518	28,033	28,216	16,692	16,891	1,859	1,859
1884	293,302	289,808	43,899	41,413	140	140	19,585	22,620	14,776	14,776
1885	298,706	298,697	48,804	47,879	260	240	16,914	17,972	21,266	23,469
1886	322,534	331,677	79,981	82,111	454	445	25,772	25,755	22,201	22,201	1,265	1,265
1887	337,948	337,484	105,773	104,237	351	310	23,258	24,179	21,275	22,200	1,430	1,430
1888	338,568	340,773	110,812	110,832	25	25	23,458	23,750	22,951	22,951	695	...
1889	302,314	295,240	113,215	111,752	15	60	21,032	26,075	23,106	23,091	656	656
1890	307,272	304,431	104,942	105,980	20,874	19,812	19,473	19,720	38,411	36,143	7,896	7,563
1891	307,611	314,173	98,085	97,604	20,672	20,044	33,979	34,601	333	1,159
1892	317,063	313,853	87,364	87,668	428	428	16,241	15,168	35,731	35,819
Average	310,925	310,865	82,091	81,769	2,255	2,146	20,310	21,217	23,370	23,525	1,413	1,393

METEOROLOGY.
Table XXIII.—Showing Maximum and Minimum Temperature of each month, 1883—1892.

YEAR.	JANUARY.		FEBRUARY.		MARCH.		APRIL.		MAY.		JUNE.	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
1883	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...
1884	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...
1885	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...	°Fah. ...
1886	85·7	67·3	85·1	67·4	87·6	67·1	86·3	69·8	86·2	69·6	85·1	71·0
1887	81·8	66·3	82·2	66·6	83·3	66·2	85·0	66·3	87·3	70·3	86·7	70·4
1888	84·4	68·1	85·6	66·9	86·9	67·8	87·8	69·8	89·2	69·8	87·4	71·1
1889	88·6	65·2	89·1	68·2	90·6	70·1	91·0	70·4	91·8	72·0	88·7	70·9
1890	83·4	71·3	81·8	69·6	85·3	70·2	83·9	71·8	85·2	73·2	85·5	73·4
1891	85·4	67·4	85·3	67·4	87·9	68·6	90·1	69·3	90·8	70·0	85·9	72·0
1892	87·9	68·8	82·2	69·2	88·7	69·0	87·0	69·7	87·8	70·7	86·0	70·0
Average	83·5	67·8	85·4	67·9	87·2	68·4	87·3	69·6	88·3	70·8	86·5	71·3
Average Mean.	75·6		76·6		77·8		78·4		79·5		78·9	

METEOROLOGY.
Table XXIII.—Showing Maximum and Minimum Temperature of each month, 1883—1892.—Contd.

YEAR.	JULY.		AUGUST.		SEPTEMBER.		OCTOBER.		NOVEMBER.		DECEMBER.	
	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.
1883	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.	° Fah.
1884
1885
1886	83·5	70·0	84·3	70·3	83·3	71·0	86·0	70·1	83·3	69·8	82·7	68·2
1887	86·7	70·2	87·7	70·9	88·0	71·2	88·6	70·1	87·9	69·9	85·4	69·8
1888	88·3	71·3	87·5	71·5	91·0	70·0	88·0	70·0	87·5	70·1	87·3	70·1
1889	86·6	72·6	87·8	71·3	88·0	70·0	89·0	70·4	87·5	69·8	84·8	70·5
1890	83·2	72·9	86·9	72·3	86·8	72·3	85·8	72·4	86·6	71·3	85·8	70·6
1891	87·5	71·1	89·3	71·3	89·1	71·5	89·0	71·1	88·3	71·5	85·5	70·3
1892	86·3	73·8	81·9	70·4	88·7	70·5	88·5	70·3	86·5	70·9	86·8	67·0
Average	86·0	71·7	86·5	71·1	87·8	70·9	87·8	70·6	86·8	70·5	85·5	69·5
Average Mean.	78·8		78·8		79·3		79·2		78·6		77·5	

Table XXV.—Showing Meteorological Observations taken at the Royal Botanic Gardens, 1892.

MONTH.	BAROMETER.		THERMOMETERS.								WIND.		Tension of Aqueous Vapour.	Rainfall.	Dew Point, 7 A.M.	Dew Point, 3 P.M.
	REDUCED READINGS.		DRY AND WET BULBS.				Maximum.	Minimum.	Mean Temp. Black'd Bulb in Vaeuo.	Mean Temp. Thermometer on Grass.	Direction.	Humidity.				
	7 A.M.	3 P.M.	7 A.M.		3 P.M.											
			Bar.	Bar.	D.	W.	D.	W.								
January ...	29.975	29.921	71.6	69.9	83.6	76.0	87.9	68.8	144.9	62.5	E.	77.	.733	1.93	68.6	70.9
February ...	29.978	29.926	72.8	70.1	84.0	75.1	88.2	69.2	146.7	60.7	E.&N.	72.	.696	2.19	68.1	69.2
March ...	29.967	29.911	72.3	70.5	84.1	75.7	88.7	69.0	142.6	60.4	E.	74.	.708	1.85	68.4	70.1
April ...	29.992	29.935	73.1	71.2	82.1	75.6	87.0	69.7	134.0	61.1	E.&N.	79.	.746	7.59	69.7	70.9
May ...	30.010	29.945	75.0	73.4	83.4	76.9	87.8	70.7	136.7	61.3	E.	80.	.798	11.61	72.2	72.5
June ...	33.020	29.980	73.7	72.7	80.6	75.9	86.0	70.0	129.9	59.2	E.	84.	.798	16.26	71.9	72.7
July ...	30.026	29.981	73.2	72.3	80.8	75.9	86.3	73.8	128.9	—	E.	87.	.798	15.35	71.61	72.57
August ...	29.987	29.942	73.8	72.7	82.3	77.2	81.9	70.4	127.0	—	E.	83.	.999	9.21	70.9	74.19
September ...	29.944	29.902	74.1	72.9	82.8	76.9	88.7	70.5	117.0	69.0	E.	85.18	.798	3.57	72.03	73.09
October ...	29.942	29.888	73.31	72.34	83.00	76.5	88.5	70.3	107.0	68.6	E.	81.79	.785	11.49	71.62	72.15
November ...	29.915	29.851	73.55	72.17	83.78	76.17	86.51	70.86	111.10	68.31	E.	80.5	.759	5.40	71.30	71.15
December ...	29.909	29.948	70.66	69.50	82.16	75.03	86.80	67.00	113.27	64.50	E.	80.13	.720	4.69	68.62	70.26
Average } for year }	29.977	29.927	73.09	71.64	81.05	76.11	87.02	70.02	128.25	63.65	E.&N.	80.29	.761	91.14	70.41	71.64



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The Public is cautioned against imitations bearing names such as "per SIEGERT'S prescription, according to SIEGERT, SIEGERT, SIMPSON, &c., &c.," as also against all counterfeits under the name of ANGOSTURA BITTERS, AROMATIC BITTERS, ANGELSTURA, ANGUSTURA, &c., &c., with sham representation of Medals and a more or less faithful copy of the original label placed in a similar manner to the genuine one. These counterfeits, though vigorously prosecuted at law, and against which numerous judgments have been obtained, do not cease to spring up anew in one or other form, owing to the immense success the genuine article has secured by its purity, flavour, and constancy in composition during a period of over sixty years. All these imitations are merely intended to deceive and misguide the public by their low cost, and relying chiefly on the use of the word "ANGOSTURA," placed conspicuously somewhere in the labels and on BOMBASTIC advertisements with ARABIAN NIGHTS TALES, whilst they are in the majority of cases, of a very inferior mixture, injurious to health, and IN EVERY RESPECT DIFFERENT FROM THE GENUINE ANGOSTURA BITTERS.



Siegert's * Bouquet
AND
Angostura * Liqueur,

Both agreeable Cordials, to be taken either plain or with Water, Soda Water, or Lemonade, and also well adapted for mixing Cocktails, cold and hot Punch, &c., &c.



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Gloves, Hosiery	—————	+	LATEST
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Corsets, Dress Goods	—————	+	Fashions
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Boots and Shoes	—————	+	ALWAYS ON HAND.

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LARGEST IMPORTERS OF ALL CLASSES OF



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*from principal European and
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Wholesale and Retail

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AND *DRUGGISTS*,

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GROCERS

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SUNDRIES,

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OF

Superior Brands.

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us are from the most

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in Europe and America.

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We also guarantee every
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Carefully Compounded by

COMPETENT LICENSED DRUGGISTS,

AT ALL HOURS, DAY AND NIGHT,

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WITH THE PUREST DRUGS.

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Bread, Cake and Biscuit Maker.

* Dealer in *
ROCERIES
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Family Supplies
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FRESH MEATS and 
 *NATURAL ICE.*

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Aerated
Water
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LEMONADE, GINGER BEER,
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KEEPS ALWAYS IN STOCK :

THE PUREST DRUGS & CHEMICALS, ⊕ PATENT MEDICINES, TOILET ARTICLES
PERFUMERY, ⊕ CONFECTIONERY, BISCUITS,
SURGICAL INSTRUMENTS & APPLIANCES. ⊕ LIQUEURS, WINES, PRESERVED MEATS, &C.

* PRICES TO DEFY COMPETITION. *

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Fine Watch Repairing
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All kinds of Mounting & Jewellery Repaired.

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THE PUBLIC SUPPLY STORES,

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MILLER BROTHERS,

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Dry Goods,
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Boots & Shoes,
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
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Celebrated for its Pure White Cottons.

ELECTROPLATED WARE, A SPECIALITY.

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English, American and Austrian Furniture imported.

CREOLE FURNITURE ALWAYS IN HAND OR MADE TO ORDER.

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**Importer of Watches, Clocks and Jewellery of
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Sole Agent for the Potosi Silver Company and its Manufac-
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WATCHES, CLOCKS AND JEWELLERY OF ALL KINDS REPAIRED WITH
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Including Hair Brushes, Razors, Strops, Paste, Shaving Caps and Brushes,
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*Whose Goods
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are specially
adapted for
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BEST HOUSE IN THE ISLAND FOR
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OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

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Sold by all respectable Grocers, Wine and Liquor Dealers, Hotel and Restaurant Keepers.

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THE ANGOSTURA BITTERS

Formerly prepared at Angostura by Dr. SIEGERT are now prepared by his sons and successors under the old firm or name of

Dr. J. G. B. SIEGERT & SONS

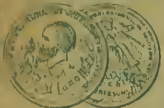
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Port-of-Spain, Trinidad, B. W. I.

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