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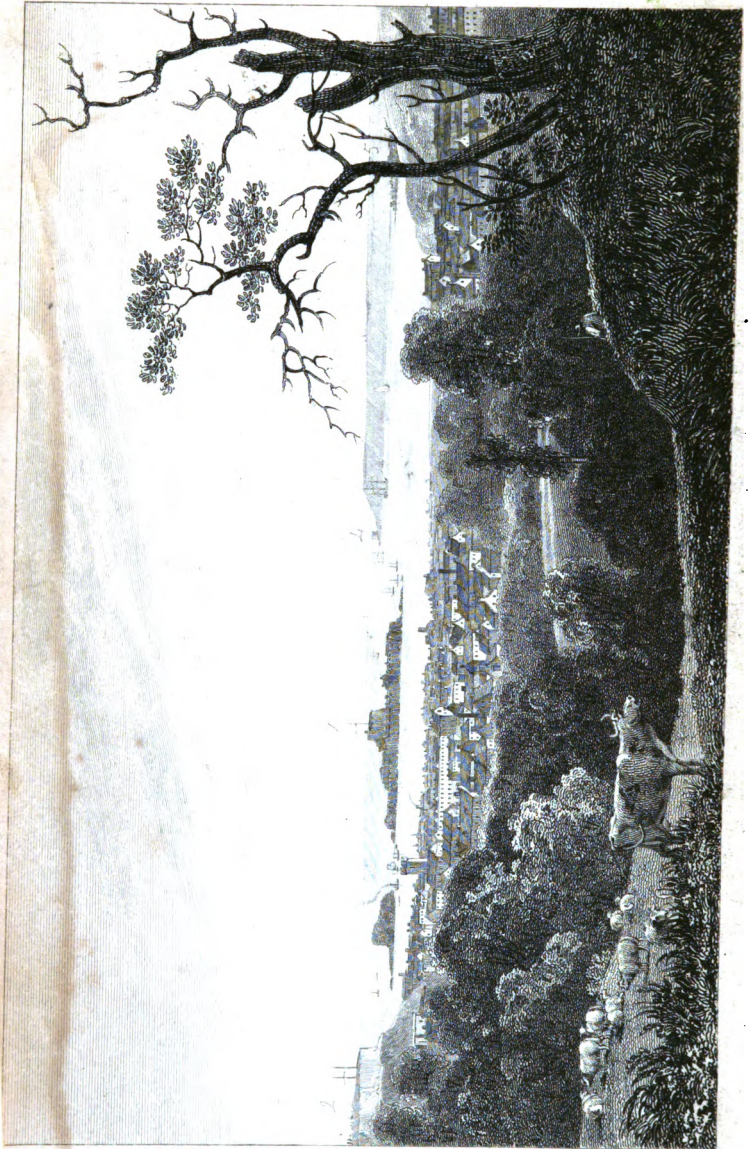
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C Æ S A R E A.

THE

ISLAND OF JERSEY;

ITS

HISTORY, CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, LAWS, PECULIAR
PRIVILEGES, CUSTOMS; MINERALOGY, PRODUCE,
COMMERCE, AND OTHER STATISTICS;

WITH

A Tour round the Coast, and in the Interior;

TO WHICH IS ADDED, ITS

ANTIQUITIES,

AND THE

BIOGRAPHY OF EMINENT MEN,

NATIVES OF THE ISLAND.

ILLUSTRATED WITH ENGRAVINGS.

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PREFACE.

MANY works have been written on the small Island of Jersey, from the elaborate histories of Mr. Falle and Mr. Plees, to the unpretending little publications known only in the Island itself; but not one has yet appeared adapted to the use of the visitor, and at the same time containing so much of its History, Antiquities, Laws, Peculiar Privileges, Commerce, and other Statistics, as would claim a place for it above that of "A Guide." The object of the present work is to supply this. Every thing that has been written on the Island has been carefully examined; MSS. have been searched, and much valuable information from private sources has been obtained: if the publication therefore should not fulfil the object intended, it will not be owing to a want of diligent investigation.

Mr. Falle, the first Historian, did not enter much into the ancient state of the Island: indeed, the most remarkable monument of antiquity was not known to exist in his time. It was brought to light in 1785; every particular that is known of this Druid Temple is given in the Chapter on the Antiquities, with a description of others that were either unnoticed, or scarcely mentioned by Mr. Falle.

The work of Mr. Inglis has certainly a claim to the place which this presumes to occupy; but it is not to be relied on for historical facts, and he almost repudiates antiquarian research. His object seems to have been merely to give to the public an attractive book, written in a pleasing style. The outline he has drawn may be generally correct, but, like Shakspeare in his Plays, he has filled it up with such particulars as his fancy or his partialities may have dictated.

There is one feature in the work now presented to the public, which it may be allowable to notice. There has never been published in a connected form, any account of the eminent men who were natives of the Island: the lives of these lie scattered in various works, and in some instances are to be found in books little resorted to. It has been attempted to collect the names of all those who have distinguished themselves, whether in the service of their country, or in literature, and to glean such particulars of their lives and character as may be considered interesting. They are now presented to the reader in a separate Chapter, as the BIOGRAPHY of JERSEY.

It is intended to continue the work on the same plan in reference to the Island of Guernsey; but the author, having found great difficulty in obtaining information for the present work, of persons deservedly eminent in their native Isle, but of whom no information could be obtained in England, induces him to solicit gentlemen in Guernsey to communicate any particulars they may be in possession of, relative to their ancestors, who would, by their literary attainments, or by having risen to high rank in the service of their country, deserve a place in the intended work. Alderney, and the lesser islands in the Channel, will be included in this work; and will thus form a second volume to the one now published.

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ERRATA.

Page 12, line 8, *add the word at before Feschamp.*

— 18, last line, *for Court read Count.*

— 31 — 27, *for educed read reduced.*

— 74 — 2, *Potato spirit refers to Guernsey.*

— 130 — 26, *for Ancestor read Testator.*

— 228 — 12, *for which read arts.*

Correct date in page 72; Dr. Heylin visited Jersey in 1629, his work was not published till 1656.

JERSEY,

AND THE

NEIGHBOURING ISLANDS.

CHAPTER I.

SECT. I.—*General and Military History.*

THE origin of small states can seldom be properly ascertained. Absorbed in the history of larger territories, they seldom become objects of notice; and when they have engaged the attention of any early writer, the account transmitted to posterity is generally a tissue of facts and fabulous extravagancies, so interwoven as to render it difficult and frequently impossible to distinguish the truth from the fable.

Jersey has, in this respect, shared the fate of other minor countries; it is, therefore, quite uncertain at what time it became peopled, or who were its aborigines. It was, unquestionably, inhabited at an early period: the various monuments of Celtic worship that formerly existed, and some of which still remain, sufficiently attest this; and the Punic, the early Roman, and the Gaulish coins, discovered at different times and places in the Island, corroborate it.*

* Some years since, a considerable quantity of Celtic coins were discovered in a bank, the falling of which disclosed them. All have a head on one side, and generally a horse on the reverse. Some of them are composed of an impure silver amalgam, but the greater part of copper blended with some other metal.

The earliest mention of the *Channel Islands* is in the 6th book of Cæsar's Commentaries, where it is stated that one Ambiorix, having rebelled against the authority of Cæsar, in Gaul, was quickly overcome, and his followers put to the sword, the chief fled to the shore and passed over to some islands; these islands are supposed to be Jersey and Guernsey, from the description that is given of their appearance from the land, which corresponds with their general appearance at the present time.

That part of Mont-orgueil Castle, in Jersey, called Le Fort de César, the immense earthen rampart near Rosel, and the remaining traces of a camp at Dielament, together with the many Roman coins found in different parts of the Island, prove that it was a place of some consequence under that people: it may however be presumed that Jersey was only a military station, though an important one.

Mezeray, in his History of France, mentions a division of Gaul into provinces, under Octavius Cæsar, and a subdivision of Normandy into presidencies. "These ten nations," says another French historian, "together with the inhabitants of the islands lying near them, were known in Celtic Gaul by the name of The League of the eleven Cities." Thus we have historic proof that these Islands were inhabited by the Romans.

In the fifth century, the Franks, issuing from Germany, spread themselves in every direction. Under their sovereigns of the Merovingian and Carlovingian races, they founded an empire which extended from the ocean to the Danube. Its more general division was into East and West France; the latter called Westria, and afterwards Neustria, which now is Normandy, though far more circumscribed than the ancient Neustria. The islands in its vicinity very naturally constituted a part of the district.

During this period, Sampson, an Englishman and archbishop of St. Davids, on some disgust, retired to Brittany, where the Duke of that province gave him the bishopric of Dol, to which Childebert, King of France, added the islands of Jersey and Guernsey, with the other Islands contiguous to them. Sampson landed in Guernsey, in that part which is now called St. Sampson's harbour, and where he built a chapel: his object in visiting the Islands, seems to have been the conversion of the heathen inhabitants to Christianity. He was succeeded by Maglorius: the result of their labours will be given, with more detail, in the ecclesiastical history of the Islands.

The inhabitants of the Islands, but principally those of Guernsey, in the time of Sampson and Maglorius, subsisted chiefly on fish: this Island was reckoned, though the most distant from France, the most considerable of all, on account of the safety and convenience of its harbours, and the quantity of fish on its coast. In the course of time, when the fishery was well established, many families of note, convents and other religious houses in Normandy and Brittany, were constantly supplied with fish from Guernsey; the few necessaries that the inhabitants required were supplied from the ports of Bretagne and Normandy, in exchange for that commodity. As their occupation was fishing, their land was not cultivated; all their houses and even the churches were built near the shore, to be near the scene of their occupations.

About A. D. 837, during the reign of Ludovicus Pius, son of Charlemagne, the Normans began to carry on a piratical war, on the western coast of France. By degrees, their ravages became frequent and more extensive, and these Islands were not exempt from their predatory visits; if they did not suffer in the same degree as their conti-

mental neighbours, it was more from the poverty of their inhabitants than from their means of resistance. In one of these descents, the Normans murdered St. Helier, a venerable anchoret, whose cell still remains on a rock near Elizabeth Castle. A Norman nobleman, who was present when the horrid act was committed, after the establishment of the Duchy of Normandy, being converted to Christianity, founded an Abbey in St. Helier, in order to atone for the crime. Their incursions continued nearly eighty years: at length Charles the Fourth, surnamed The Simple, concluded a treaty with Rollo, the chieftain of that restless band, A. D. 912. By this agreement he married the king's daughter, and had Normandy, together with these Islands, ceded to him, as a fief of the crown of France.

The character of Rollo, as handed down by historians, and as seemingly corroborated by circumstances, does not accord with his being the leader of a banditti; he is said to have been remarkable for the strictness and impartiality with which he administered justice. Whether originating in his own appointment, or from a veneration for his name, is uncertain; but a singular custom prevailed, during his lifetime, of appealing to him, however distant he might be, in cases of oppression or encroachment. Ah! or ha! is supposed to be the exclamation of a person suffering. Ro! is an abbreviation of Rollo; so that, on Ha-Ro being pronounced aloud by the aggrieved party, the oppressor was obliged, at his peril, to forbear: in Jersey the cry is Ha-Ro, *à l'aide, mon prince!*

It is reported that the *Clameur de Haro* was employed at the funeral of William the Conqueror at Caen, where he was buried. A Norman, who had not been compensated for a part of the ground on which the

monastery stood in which William was to be buried, uttered the word as the royal corpse was brought into it: such was the regard paid to the appeal that the man was compensated ere it was interred.*

Rollo died in 917; he has been compared to his great contemporary, King Alfred. The Icelandic Chronicles described him as one of the most renowned chiefs of the Normans. The French historians mention him as the greatest politician, the most humane prince of his time, religious, wise, liberal, eloquent, and indefatigable; of a noble figure, and majestic mien. William the Conqueror was descended from him in the seventh degree.

During the time that England was ravaged by the Danes, these Islands did not escape their incursions: according to some insular MSS. in Guernsey, they landed on that Island and plundered the inhabitants, carrying off their corn and cattle. It was at this time that Vale Castle was built for their protection and security, and when finished was large enough to contain all the inhabitants with their cattle and effects; it was then called St. Michael's Castle, or the Castle of the Archangel. Little more than the

* This *Clameur d' Haro* still subsists, in practice; but the complainant must make the appeal before two witnesses; and should it be made without a substantial reason, the appellant may be fined by the court.

—————“ De Haro.”

“ Notre vieille chronique nous en fournit un exemple memorable, en la
 “ personne d'un pauvre homme, de la ville de Caën. Il arrêta, en
 “ vertu d'un Haro, la pompe funèbre de Guillaume le conquerant, qui
 “ lui avoit ôté un champ de terre, jusqu'à ce qu'on lui eût fait raison
 “ de cette usurpation. Et en l'année 1418, la ville de Roüen étant as-
 “ siegée par Henri, Roi d'Angleterre, un prêtre fut député pour lui
 “ faire cette harangue, et au Duc de Bourgogne: *Tres excellent*
 “ *prince, et seigneur, il m'est enjoit de crier contre vous le grand*
 “ *Haro, qui signifie l'oppression qu'ils ont des Anglois; comme ra-*
 “ *porte Monstrelet.*”

Coutumes de Normandie, par Basnage.

outer wall of the original building now remains, and it has of late years been converted into barracks.

Duke Robert, who succeeded to the Dukedom of Normandy in 1028, greatly enlarged its defences. He had prepared a considerable force to invade England, during the reign of Canute, to support the claims of his cousins to the crown of that kingdom : he had embarked his forces Feschamp, intending a descent on the Sussex coast, but the day after he set sail he was driven by a storm into Guernsey, and would have been cast on the rocks of that dangerous coast, had not the fishermen ventured out in their boats to his relief, and brought them into a bay on the north side of the Castle, where they rode in safety. The Abbot of St. Michael received him with all the respect due to a sovereign ; on which account he added to the domains of the abbey, and granted it many immunities, as will be hereafter noticed. He also left engineers on the Island, and skilful men, who added two other castles, which are now gone to decay.

The immunities granted to the Abbey of St. Michael proved of great service to the Island. The Abbot by Robert's grant being confirmed proprietor of a considerable portion of land within and round the vale, portioned it out to such of the inhabitants as would clear it, and thus prepare it for tillage, and he encouraged the inhabitants of Normandy to emigrate for the same purpose. The Abbot had also the power to establish a feudal Court, to decide all cases in the Island, whether civil or criminal. This seems to have been the first regular jurisdiction of any kind established in Guernsey. Duke Robert died in 1035.

William, an illegitimate son of Robert, succeeded to the dukedom, and the improved state of the Island tempted

pirates from the coast of France to invade and commit their ravages on it: they must for a time have had military possession, for they built a castle near the centre of the Island; but application having been made to William for assistance, he sent a body of troops under Sampson D'Anneville, who relieved the inhabitants and put the pirates to the sword: to reward this service William granted to D'Anneville a large portion of land—one half of the Island being divided between him and the Abbot of St. Michael: he at the same time granted other portions to some of his nobles, and reserved the remainder to himself, which he let out in fiefs or manors, and appointed a person to manage and receive the rents. Thus was Guernsey brought into general cultivation in the eleventh century, and about this time divided into parishes as it is at present.

On the conquest of England, by William, Duke of Normandy, these Islands came under her dominion, and have remained so since that period, notwithstanding the many efforts that have been made by the French to wrest them from it: they have, as Mr. Falle the historian of Jersey has observed, “the preference in point of antiquity to most others of their Majesties’* subjects, Ireland not being subdued till the reign of Henry II.; nor Wales till that of Edward I.; nor Scotland till the beginning of this last century, to say nothing of foreign plantations, which are yet most of them of a later date.”

Though, in England, the laws, customs, manners, and even the language, underwent a material alteration at the Conquest, no change occurred in Jersey, or neighbouring islands, in any of the foregoing respects. Under Henry

* Falle wrote during the reign of William and Mary.

the First all of them were finally annexed to the kingdom of England as a part of Normandy.

The intestine troubles by which England was agitated, during the reign of King John, enabled the French to invade and subdue Normandy. Twice also they attempted these Islands, but were repulsed. The king himself came over, and encouraged his loyal subjects to defend his and their patrimony.* He added to the defences on the island, and strengthened the existing fortifications at Grosnez and Mont Orgueil. He gave to Jersey† a body of constitutions: this code is the foundation of all its franchises and immunities; and has been the basis of all subsequent charters, down to the present time: these are very numerous, and have been granted by different English monarchs, from Henry the Third to Charles the Second. Since the latter reign no new charter has been given; but orders from the sovereign in council, have, at sundry times, been issued to a similar effect. This code may, with strict propriety, be called the *Magna Charta* of Jersey; and was granted prior to the charter extorted from him by the barons.

John having freed the Islands from their dependence on Normandy, determined that all matters of appeal, hitherto carried before the Duke's Exchequer in Normandy, should be referred to himself and council in England: this is at present the last appeal that the inhabitants have from their

* It has been a matter of surprise to some historians, that John suffered his Norman possessions to be wrested from him with so little opposition, and exerted himself so strenuously on behalf of these islands; but they must have overlooked the circumstance, that he had them granted to him when Earl of Mortaigne, by his brother Richard I., which readily accounts for his partiality; and it is related that he several times visited the islands, after he became seated on the throne of England.

† Called in the deed Gerese.

superior Court, in the respective Islands: these now became more closely connected with England than ever; from Britain they looked for protection: Normans and Frenchmen became equally their aversion, and in succeeding reigns, frequently attempted their subjugation.

During the reign of Henry III. nothing relating to general history is recorded of the Islands, but it must not be left unnoticed, that Jersey produced a celebrated naval commander at this time, Philip D'Aubigny, who commanded the British fleet. When Louis, King of France, after a fruitless attempt to oppose the right of Henry, was returning with his forces, D'Aubigny met his fleet, and routed it with considerable loss.

While these Islands constituted a portion of Normandy, several gentlemen had estates in both: but when the separation took place, they were required to relinquish their allegiance to one or the other of the two contending kings, and to quit his dominions. The consequence of this requisition was the abandonment of such estates as lay within the territories of the monarch whose sovereignty they disavowed. This, though a necessary alternative, was rendered an act of flagrant injustice, the owners not being permitted to sell the property abandoned. The greater part of the landholders declared in favour of that sovereign in whose domains they had the largest possessions: but the Seigneur de St. Ouen, of the name and family of Carteret, remaining fixed in his allegiance to England, was deprived of his lordship of Carteret and other estates in Normandy, which were much more valuable than his property in Jersey.

During the war between Edward I. and Louis IX. of France, the island of Guernsey was invaded, and the French obtained possession of Castle Cornet, but were

speedily repulsed : Edward rewarded those who had signalized themselves on this occasion, and provided for the widows and orphans of those who had fallen.

In 1234, in compliance with a requisition from the inhabitants of Guernsey, an order was issued for the erection of a Pier, and a duty granted on ships coming to the Island, to defray the expense : although the dues were collected, the pier was not began till the reign of Elizabeth.

Edward I. presented Jersey and Guernsey with a seal, which is still affixed to all important public acts.

The close alliance that subsisted between the kings of England and France, during the reign of the weak but virtuous Edward II., kept the Islands from foreign attack, but they suffered from the mal-administration of affairs. Judges of assize were sent over from England, who wantonly distressed the inhabitants, by a flagrant violation of their most valuable rights :* but, on a petition from the two chief islands, during the reign of Edward III. an effectual stop was put to those abuses.

Edward III. claiming the crown of France by right of his mother, again involved the two kingdoms in war. The French made a descent on England; Southampton was sacked and plundered, and it is related that the islands of Jersey and Guernsey were invaded. Hugh Queriel, admiral of France, took possession of Castle Cornet, in Guernsey, and held possession of it three years. There is no authentic account of Jersey having at this time been attacked, and it is certain it was not taken, for we find the inhabitants raising a contribution, which amounted to

* The Courts of Westminster assumed a right, which neither the Charter nor the constitution gave them, issuing *quo warrantos*, compelling attendance at Westminster.

6400 marks, to assist in the recovery of Guernsey; the Island was recovered by Reynold of Cobham and Geoffrey de Harcourt: many Jersey men of note lost their lives on the occasion. It has been stated that Guernsey was also again taken in 1372, but this statement seems not to rest on so good a foundation as the former. The only account that exists of the fact is an extract from a MS. and an old legend.

In a subsequent invasion, commanded by the famous Bertrand de Guesclin, constable of France, the castle of Mont Orgueil in Jersey was attacked: the siege lasted several months, and the Castle was on the point of surrendering, when the siege was raised, by the appearance of an English fleet, dispatched to its relief. Guernsey was at the same time subject to an attack, but it seems only to have been for the sake of plunder.*

Richard II. succeeding to the throne on the death of his grandfather, Edward III., found the nation at peace, a truce having been made with France: this was afterwards renewed for twenty-five years, and it afforded the Islands a long season of tranquillity. Richard gave a charter to the islanders, granting them the same immunities as his Majesty's subjects in England, "provided they would well and faithfully behave themselves for ever."

The French again invaded Jersey, during the reign of Henry the Fourth. They ravaged the open country, yet could not make any impression on the castle; which,

* These islands must always have been considered an important appendage to the English Monarchy, for it was stipulated in the treaty which ceded Normandy to France, "that those islands which he (Henry III.) possessed on the coast of France, should be his as before;" and in the treaty of Bretagne, in 1360, Edward III. had inserted an especial clause for the reservation of his title and possession, in like manner.

it is said, from this period, received the name of the castle of Mont Orgueil. They were in this expedition under the command of Penhock, Admiral of Brittany.

But where force was unavailing, treachery succeeded. During the eventful reign of Henry VI., commenced the civil wars between the white and red roses; or, more properly speaking, between the houses of York and Lancaster. Margaret of Anjou, Henry's queen, went over to France, with a view of obtaining assistance from Lewis XI. The intriguing monarch, not daring openly to espouse her cause, yet desiring to profit by her misfortunes, connived at her treating with one of his courtiers; this was a nobleman, named Pierre de Brezé, Comte de Maulevrier, et de la Serenne. He agreed to raise a body of troops, and make a descent on England, on condition of having these Islands made over to him and his heirs, to be held independently of the English crown. Accordingly he sailed to Britain with 2000 men, and sent one Surdeval, a Norman gentleman, to take possession of Mont Orgueil castle. This fortress, the English commander, who was of the Lancastrian party, had secret orders to deliver up; but to prevent any appearance of collusion, it was concerted, that the governor should be surprised in his bed. The deep-laid scheme succeeded. The count arrived afterwards, styling himself, in all public acts, Pierre de Brezé, Comte de Maulevrier, &c., lord of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and the others adjoining: but as a proof that he was merely an agent for the politic monarch, he added to his other titles, those of counsellor and chamberlain of our sovereign lord the king of France.

The inhabitants were enraged at this declaration: and all the court's endeavours to appease their discontent were

unavailing. In the space of six years, he could not reduce more than as many parishes. The other six, influenced by Philip de Carteret, Seigneur de St. Ouen, an ancestor of the late Lord Carteret, defied the count's power, and thwarted his measures.

Gros-nez Castle was, at that time, a place of some strength: this De Carteret held as a post of defence for England against the French and Normans.

Under Edward the Fourth, Sir Richard Harliston, vice-admiral of England, arriving at Guernsey, with a squadron, De Carteret applied to him for assistance: Harliston came over to Jersey privately; and having concerted measures with De Carteret, the inhabitants were directed to assemble on a night appointed, and they approached the fortress of Mont-Orgueil under cover of the darkness, without being discovered; the fortress was thus suddenly, and by a simultaneous effort, blockaded both by sea and land. After a short, though spirited, resistance, it surrendered, before any account, even of its being besieged, reached Normandy.

Jersey men on a former occasion assisted their fellow Islanders of Guernsey, to deliver them from the French, so, on this occasion, the latter joined the troops of Sir Richard Harliston; and contributed greatly to the success of the expedition. At a subsequent time, when a new charter was granted to Guernsey, this was recorded in the preamble; and thus remains as an authentic testimony of their courage and patriotism.

After the reduction of Mont-Orgueil Castle, Harliston was appointed Governor of Jersey: in this post he continued nearly sixteen years, during which time he added a tower to the castle. He conducted himself so much to the satisfaction of the Inhabitants, that he acquired general

esteem; but, unfortunately, he was induced to believe, that the person known in the annals of England by the name of Perkin Warbeck, was really the duke of York, younger son of Edward the Fourth. Upon this persuasion he quitted the Island, and went over to the duchess of Burgundy, in Flanders: but on the failure of Warbeck's enterprise, Sir Richard, not daring to return, remained at the court of that princess until his death, when his body was honourably interred at her expense.

Sir Richard Harliston was succeeded by Matthew Baker, but he was a man of a very different character. He rigorously oppressed the inhabitants; until, in consequence of his tyrannical conduct, he was superseded.

Baker's arbitrary measures induced Henry the Seventh to issue an order, withholding from him, and every future governor, the privilege of appointing any dean, or bailiff, in the Island: this he reserved to himself. He forbade any governor from interfering with either the ecclesiastical, or civil, court: and required that all disputes, in which the governor might be interested, should be cognizable only by the King in council.

Henry the Seventh, when earl of Richmond, and while escaping from his pursuers, landed in Jersey; where he remained concealed for a time, after which he passed over to the continent. This gave him an opportunity of making himself acquainted with the government and public administration of the Island, which appeared to him defective. When he mounted the throne, he endeavoured to remedy the evils; and as John framed a constitution for the Island, Henry issued ordinances, comprised in thirty-three articles: these, with occasional alterations, continued in force until they were superseded by a code of laws, in 1771.

The feudal system prevailed in Jersey, and even with

later rigour than in England, or on the continent. Every Seigneur was, in his district, a little sovereign; or more properly a little tyrant, exercising the power of life and death over his vassals: in so small an island, all the evils of the feudal system prevailed, with none of its advantages. Thus, as the population of a country must in a great measure depend on the manner in which justice is administered, Jersey, so cruelly treated, lost by degrees its inhabitants—an island so favoured by nature, was becoming a mere desert.

From an early period, the kings of England had endeavoured to correct this abuse of power; but all their exertions were fruitless, and the people still sunk under the rod of oppression. Henry the Seventh, despairing of producing by forcible means any beneficial effect, or of inspiring the Seigneurs with a sense of justice and humanity, had recourse to the bishop of Rome to assist him in the accomplishment of his purpose. He applied to Pope Sixtus the Fourth, stating the miserable condition of his Jersey subjects; and representing how much the Seigneurs themselves injured each other by their private quarrels. The Pope issued a bull, excommunicating those who should continue these intestine commotions. Fear operated where force had proved ineffectual. Those men, whom neither the royal authority, nor the strong arm of power, could restrain, were intimidated by the threat of papal excommunication.

From that time, the Seigneurs have completely changed their conduct; formerly they were unfeeling tyrants, now they have become the protectors of the people, and the support of the Island; and their authority has been exerted for the public benefit and welfare of the inhabitants.

During the long reign of Henry the Eighth, these Islands

were undisturbed by foreign invasion, but about the year 1518, Jersey, and especially the town of St. Halier, was visited by the plague, so that the Court and the market were removed to Grouville. Henry granted four charters to Guernsey, but principally in confirmation of former grants.

In the short but promising reign of Edward the Sixth, the French took possession of Sercq, which had been for some time uninhabited: this they fortified, as a point from which to make a future attack. The first attempt was on Guernsey: they were, at first, successful; but were, ultimately, repulsed. They were not, however, discouraged, but afterwards attempted the conquest of Jersey: they anchored in Boulay bay, and there disembarked; but were driven back to their fleet with the loss of a thousand men. Against this attack, the Islanders had the timely assistance of a body of troops dispatched from England.

During the reign of Queen Mary, Sercq was recaptured. In the *Chron. MSS. de Jersey*, it is said to have been surprised by a company of Flemings, subjects of king Philip, the husband of Mary. These men, arriving in night, and finding the Island unguarded, mastered it without resistance: but Sir Walter Raleigh, who was for some time governor of Jersey, says that it was taken by stratagem.

He relates that the captain of a small vessel came to the Island, and asked permission to bury a corpse: after the precaution of searching the people who were to come on shore with the coffin, lest they should have arms concealed about their persons, this was granted. The coffin, instead of containing a corpse, was filled with arms; and while in the church, with the feigned purpose of burying the dead, the coffin was opened, they armed themselves

with its contents, by which means they overpowered the inhabitants, and regained possession of the Island.

The whole reign of Elizabeth, was a season of peace with France, and Jersey remained in a state of tranquillity. That princess rendered Castle Cornet, in Guernsey, one of the strongest places in her dominion; and she caused that fortress to be erected, in Jersey, which is called by her name, for the protection of the sister Island:* the construction of the present pier in Guernsey, which has been so long postponed, was begun during her reign.

To recompense the De Carteret family, the Queen gave to Helier de Carteret, Seigneur de St. Ouen, the island of Sercq, to people and cultivate it. Notwithstanding many difficulties and obstructions, that retarded his progress, he finally accomplished this object; and Her Majesty testified her satisfaction by establishing Sercq as a fief *en haubert*.†

Previously to this period America had been discovered by Columbus and Vespuccius. That part of it which is more immediately connected with Jersey, is the island of Newfoundland. As the great but unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh was, towards the latter part of Elizabeth's reign, governor of the Island, and became so instrumental in the colonization of America, it is highly probable that he was the first who suggested to the inhabitants of Jersey, the advantage to be derived from that source of national wealth.

The reign of James the First was a season of peace; and it was by a commission issued by him, under the great

* The bells of the churches, leaving only one for each church, were sold to pay part of the expense.

† i. e. a fief, holding from the crown alone, by knight's service.

seal, that the canons and constitutions, forming the ecclesiastical law of Jersey and Guernsey, were framed; and an estimate of the revenue of the crown in the Channel Islands, was made by them under this commission.

Under Charles the First, the islands of Jersey and Guernsey were again menaced by the French; but defensive measures were adopted, by which the threatened blow was averted: That monarch was extremely desirous of freeing Jersey from the repeated attacks of its neighbouring enemies. With this view, he added, at his own expense, the lower ward of Elizabeth Castle, and increased the other defences of the Island.

In the great rebellion, which terminated in the execution of the King, Jersey produced a gentleman, who, through a great variety of the most trying exigencies, preserved for his sovereign an unshaken loyalty. This was Captain George Carteret, comptroller of the navy, an officer of high reputation, who was afterwards knighted by His Majesty for his eminent services. The parliament having appointed the earl of Warwick to be admiral, nominated Carteret as vice-admiral: this post he refused to accept, without the consent of his sovereign, who would not permit one of his own officers to appear as favouring a rebellion against his authority.*

Animated by the most devoted royalty, Carteret retired with his family to Jersey. Well assured of the fidelity of the inhabitants, he declared openly for the King; and equipped ten light vessels, for the purpose of intercepting merchantmen trading under parliamentary passports. This little squadron was very successful, and excited a general alarm throughout the Channel.

* See his life, with that of his uncle Sir Philip de Carteret, in chapter xvi., BIOGRAPHY.

It was at this time that the King sent his son to the west : but his support there not being sufficient to enable him to cope with the parliamentarians, he came over to Jersey, where he was joyfully welcomed by the inhabitants.* The Island, being surveyed by the officers in his suite, was considered as a place of security for him. In this expedition he was attended by several persons of rank, among whom was Sir Edward Hyde, afterwards earl of Clarendon. The prince was urged by the Queen, his mother, who was then in France, to repair to her ; to which, after reiterated and pressing entreaties, he consented. He resided in Jersey about two months : several of his courtiers remained much longer, particularly Sir Edward Hyde, who continued in the Island more than two years, during which time he wrote a considerable part of his celebrated history.

When it became generally known that the King was to be brought to a public trial, a plan for his deliverance from his confinement in Hurst Castle was concerted by his Jersey subjects ; but from some unknown cause, the scheme was not carried into execution ; probably from the hopeless character of the project.

After the King's death, his son was proclaimed in Jersey by the title of Charles the Second. This prince resided then at the Hague, but being obliged to quit Holland, he came again to Jersey, attended by a numerous suite, and was joyfully received by the inhabitants. At this time he remained in the Island several months, and then quitted it, at the invitation of the Scottish nation.

* It must not, however, be concealed, that, though the major part of the Islanders remained firm in their attachment to the royal cause, some did not : this is evident from a proclamation, issued by the king, in the year 1643, offering, with a few exceptions, a general pardon to the inhabitants. For more particulars of the state of the Island at this time, see *Lives of De Carteret*.

During his residence there, Sir George Carteret assembled the States, for the purpose of making a levy on the inhabitants, in order to tender His Majesty a present in money. The sum so obtained amounted to 5070 ecus, or £633 sterling, a large sum at that time for so small an Island; and shows the devotedness of the Islanders to the royal cause.

The Parliament, by which the nation was now governed, enraged at the asylum afforded to the fugitive prince, and alarmed at the numerous captures made by the Jersey privateers, determined to reduce these Islands. For this purpose, in the month of October, 1651, a fleet was dispatched, under the command of Admiral Blake; together with a formidable land force, under Major-General Haines. For three days these troops made different attempts to disembark on the western side of the Island; but were as constantly repulsed by Sir George Carteret and the armed natives. To harass and distract the Islanders, the admiral separated his squadron into divisions, and thus made false attacks in various places. At length, favoured by a dark night, a landing was effected in St. Ouen's bay.

The brave and loyal inhabitants, unable to resist in the field a force far superior to their own, retreated into the fortresses. Their enemies soon possessed themselves of the fort at St. Aubin's, which was pusillanimously surrendered, after a feeble resistance; they soon after reduced Mont-Orgueil Castle, the fortifications of which, since the construction of that named after Queen Elizabeth, had been greatly neglected.

Sir George retired into Elizabeth Castle, with some of the principal inhabitants, and a garrison of 350 men. This he resolved to defend to the last extremity: but the

invaders having commenced a very destructive bombard-
ing from the town hill, they were reduced to the utmost
distress.

Charles the Second was then in France: to him Sir
George, in this extremity, applied for assistance from the
sovereign of that kingdom: Charles could not obtain it,
and he even advised Carteret to capitulate, as continuing
an unavailing defence, would subject many loyal sub-
jects to the certainty of becoming prisoners, and of being
treated with severity. Still the brave Carteret resolved,
if possible, not to yield: at last, however, finding every
hope of relief vanished, and further resistance fruitless,
he surrendered on honourable terms, and went over to
the King, in France.

Guernsey had previously yielded to the forces of the
Commonwealth, with the exception of Castle Cornet,
which held out for the King. The castle was commanded
by Sir Peter Osborne, Lieutenant Governor of the Island,
and for a considerable time bid defiance to every attempt
to reduce it. This occasioned a kind of civil war in that
Island, the castle and the town frequently firing on each
other. The former was at length compelled to submit;
and the fatal year 1651 completed, every where, the con-
quest of those places that adhered to the royal cause.

During a considerable period, at the time of the Com-
monwealth, the office of Bailiff was filled by the Jurats,
who exercised its duties alternately every month. It is
to be presumed that this mode of government was proved
to be neither to the advantage or satisfaction of the Island-
ers, as it seems there was no attempt to continue it at the
Restoration. During this time, the earl of Norwich was
appointed Governor, who deputed his authority to twelve

commissioners, these governed Guernsey in his name: their authority extended to Alderney and Sercq.

It has been said, that Charles had at one time an intention to deliver up these Islands to the French, in order to obtain some assistance in his necessities: but a higher and a more commendable policy prevailed; for, as Lord Clarendon observes, "so strict and punctual was his care of the interest of England, when he seemed abandoned by it, that he chose rather to suffer those places of great importance to fall into Cromwell's power, than to deposit them on any conditions into French hands, who he knew would never restore them to the just owner."

On the accession of Charles the Second, the inhabitants of Guernsey drew up a petition, soliciting the royal clemency, "humbly acknowledging their great guilt and unfeigned grief of heart for having, since the disorders these many years, submitted to the usurping power which lately tiranised over his Majesty's subjects, and quitted their dutys to obedience to their native Sovereign:" this pardon was graciously granted.

After the Restoration, Charles conferred many marks of favour on Sir George Carteret; appointed him, according to his promise, chamberlain of the household, and named him one of his privy council. He confirmed the charter granted to the Islands by his father, and he discovered his partiality to Jersey in particular, by the gift to the bailiff and magistrates of a silver mace, with the following singularly honourable motto:—

" Tali haud omnes dignantur honore."

The renewed Charter set forth, that the Island had twice afforded him a safe retreat, when excluded from his other

dominions. Charles seems not, in this instance, to have acted with his heartless indifference to the former services of his friends and adherents.*

During the reign of James the Second, a popish governor was sent over to Guernsey with a body of catholic soldiers, and other means adopted to subvert the protestantism of the Island; but upon the arrival of the Prince of Orange in England, a plan was formed to secure it for the prince. A day was fixed on, when a protestant officer was, by rotation, to have the command in Castle Cornet: the secret was entrusted to several protestant soldiers. Their muskets being loaded with ball, while on parade they were ordered to form opposite to the popish soldiers, and compelled them to lay down their arms: at the same time, the chief captain in the town, seconded by the militia, secured the popish officers and men quartered there.

* The following copy of a letter, the original of which is still extant, evinces the high degree of estimation in which Sir George was held by the king.

“ Sir George Carteret,

“ The fidelity and affection wth w^{ch} you have constantly carried
 “ yourself are soe acceptable to me, y^t I am resolved to continue to you
 “ the place of Vice Chamberlain w^{ch} you had in my house, and you
 “ shall enjoy it wth the same dignity, privileges and immunities y^t it
 “ hath been enjoyed by those who have held it in the times of any of
 “ the former Kings of England, and if I could have caused you to have
 “ been sworn presently w^{thout} much inconvenience to my service I
 “ would have done it: I shall doe it most assuredly as soon as my af-
 “ fairs doe permit me to swear any of my household officers, of w^{ch} I
 “ do give my word and promise, and y^t I am

Sir George Carteret,

Your very loving Friend,

CHARLES R.”

“ At St. Germaines,
 this Aug. 10, 1659,

To our trusty and well beloved

Sir George Carteret,

Lieutenant Governor of Jersey.”

From the calamitous time that the republicans became masters of the Island, Jersey experienced the misery of being under an arbitrary government. Haines extorted money, under the pretence of a ransom, from all whom he thought able to supply his rapacity. Five thousand soldiers were put at free quarters, for the space of some months, on the inhabitants: they ranged, without control, throughout the country; and being violent enthusiasts, vented their fanaticism against the established religion, turning the churches into guard houses and stables, with other acts of desecration.

During the war in the reign of William and Mary, the Islands were in a state of continual alarm, but no attack on them actually took place: the victory of Cape La Hogue in 1692 dissipated all fears: but so imminent was the danger at one time, that the English government sent seventeen ships of war, under the command of Admiral Carter, to secure them from an attack.

The constant wars in which the French monarchs were engaged during the reigns of our sovereigns, Anne, George the First, and George the Second, prevented further attempts on Jersey; and it does not appear that any important events disturbed the internal peace of the Islands, during the whole of this long period.

During the reign of George the Third, two attempts were made on Jersey, but both happily unsuccessful. The first was in 1779: on the first of May, the prince of Nassau, commanding a body of from five to six thousand men, appeared with a fleet off St. Ouen's Bay. Here this army attempted to disembark; but the military stationed in the Island, assisted by a corps of militia, and supported by artillery, opposed their landing. Frustrated in the first design, the hostile squadron proceeded to St.

Brelade's bay; but perceiving a similar opposition in this quarter also, the enterprize was abandoned.

Dissensions and recriminations among the French officers, in consequence of this failure, led to a second attempt; but before it could be carried into effect, the fleet destined to cover the landing was attacked by a British squadron, under Sir James Wallace, and nearly the whole destroyed.

The next and last project of this nature was of a very alarming description: not indeed from the force employed on the occasion, since it amounted to only 2000 men; but from the circumstances that accompanied the attempt, and the consequences that were likely to have resulted. This being the most recent attack, some more detail will be interesting.

On the 26th December, 1780, a body of French troops were embarked at Granville, under the command of the Baron de Rullecourt, who intended to land in the night, during the festive season of Christmas; at which time he hoped to possess the Island by a *coup de main*, conceiving that the inhabitants would be in a state less capable of defence than at any other time.

Rullecourt quitted France in very tempestuous weather: many of his transports were, in consequence, dispersed; and the rest obliged to seek for shelter at the rocky island of Chauzey: this checked his progress, and reduced his little army to 1200 men. With this diminished force, however, he again set sail, on January the 5th, 1781, and reached Jersey about eleven in the evening. The place at which he arrived was Le Banc de Violet, a projecting point of flat rocks, covered at high water, at the S. E. corner of the Island. To this point his ships were driven by the current. Though not the

spot at which he intended to disembark, his troops were ordered to land: only 700 got on shore; 200 being wrecked in their vessels, and the rest prevented, by the tide, from effecting a landing.

Rullecourt's first care was, to seize on a small battery of four guns: this he manned; and having left a company to protect the boats, and, in case of necessity, secure his retreat, he proceeded to St. Helier's, avoiding the shore to prevent being discovered to any of the guard-houses.

On entering the town, they massacred one man, who was standing at his door, and wounded a few other persons, whom they met with on the road. Arrived at the market place, they killed the centinel, and secured the guard: there escaped, however, one man, who ran immediately to the general hospital, in which was quartered a regiment of Highlanders. The inhabitants were astonished to see, at break of day, the market place filled with French soldiers, without a single gun having been fired, or the least alarm given.

The lieutenant-governor, at this time, was Major Moses Corbet. He was in bed when first made acquainted with the enemy's arrival. His house being soon surrounded, he was taken prisoner; some others that were with him shared the same fate. Corbet, though thus surprised, found means to send information to the Commander of the troops, which were stationed in different parts of the Island.

The French general, having had the lieutenant-governor conducted to the Court house, represented to him that resistance was useless; that he had landed 4000 men in different parts of the Island; that the British troops, stationed near La Roque, were prisoners; and that he had two battalions in the vicinity of the town. He pretended

to send an order for these to approach; and then issued a proclamation, in the name of the French monarch, promising protection to the inhabitants that would submit quietly, and menacing all that should resist with immediate punishment.

He then produced articles of capitulation for the Island, and required Major Corbet to sign them; saying, that in default of instant compliance, he had orders to burn the town, with the shipping, and to put every inhabitant to the sword. The major refusing, in consequence of being a prisoner, and making some remarks on the articles, Rullecourt laid his watch on a table, observing, that the objections were made merely with the intention of gaining time, and that unless the articles were signed in half an hour he would set fire to the town, and abandon it to pillage. At last, to avert the threatened destruction, for this was the reason assigned by Major Corbet in his defence, he and Major Hogge signed the capitulation. This convention was then presented to the king's advocate, to the constable, and to several other persons; but they refused their signatures, though strongly urged, and particularly by a Turk of rank, who had accompanied Rullecourt in his expedition, and who drew a dagger, to render his threats more effectual.

The baron now conceived himself to be master of the Island. He therefore produced a commission from the king of France, appointing him a general in his army, and governor of Jersey. Under these new titles he invited several gentlemen to dine with him at Major Corbet's. He then ordered all the shops to be opened, and every thing to proceed as usual, forbidding, however, the assembling together of any number of inhabitants. He had taken care to oblige Major Corbet to send a written

order to the different corps of troops, not to move from their respective barracks: this the British officers were compelled to obey, until convinced that the major issued it while a prisoner.

During these eventful scenes, the militia assembled in different places, and prepared for a severe encounter. Every regiment moved towards the town; the greater part joined the Highlanders, who were encamped on *le Mont Patibulaire* or Gallows hill; and a company marched to Elizabeth castle, whither Captains Aylward and Mulcaster had previously repaired, and given the information that Major Corbet was a prisoner.

Corbet now dispatched an order for the troops on the heights to bring their arms to the Court house; and sent notice of the capitulation to the castle. Shortly after this message had been forwarded, the French troops left St. Helier's, to take possession of that fortress.

Rullecourt marched at the head of the column, holding Major Corbet by the arm. They were no sooner on the beach, than a shot from the castle announced resistance. Advancing still, a second ball wounded several of the enemy. This hostile reception induced the French general to halt, and send an officer to the garrison, with a copy of the capitulation, and a written order from Corbet to surrender the castle: this was refused by the commanding officer, and the messenger having represented the force already landed as very formidable, he was answered by being conducted to the citadel, and shown the strength of the fortress.

Rullecourt, compelled to retire to the town again, denounced vengeance. Major Corbet then sent a peremptory order, commanding the gates to be opened, and the French to be received as conquerors. The answer to

this mandate was such as became a spirited British soldier.

During these transactions, the regular troops, under the orders of Major Pierson of the ninety-fifth regiment, who was the next in command to the captive lieutenant-governor, together with the island militia, were assembled upon the heights near the town.

Rullecourt's bright prospect now began to lower: a dark cloud was gathering round him. He seized on the parochial artillery, which he planted at the avenues leading to the market place. He soon received information that the troops were descending from Gallows hill, in columns; the regulars in advance.

In this critical moment, the baron made a last effort to revive his withering laurels, and to obtain actual possession of his assumed conquest. He sent an officer to meet the advancing troops, and to prevail on Major Pierson to conform to the capitulation: thus to spare the effusion of human blood, and save the town from destruction. On the major's refusal, the French officer requested time to return, and make a report to his commander. He required an hour for this purpose; but the island troops evinced an impetuosity that Major Pierson found it difficult to repress. He consented to halt for half an hour; at the same time sending the adjutant of the ninety-fifth regiment to accompany the French officer, and to demand the liberation of the lieutenant-governor. On their arrival at the Court house, where they found Rullecourt and Major Corbet, the adjutant asked if the latter was a prisoner: both are said to have answered in the negative, though not in a manner satisfactory to Pierson's messenger. The baron perceiving that negotiation was not likely to terminate favourably, added, that he should now so

dispose of his men, as to prove that he could enforce submission.

The time granted by Major Pierson to the French officer appeared long to the little army under his command: the militia, in particular, displayed that enthusiastic loyalty, which the Islanders had, on so many occasions, previously manifested. The major had, however, a reason for restraining this ardour. He had detached the light companies of the seventy-eighth and ninety-fifth regiments, together with two from the militia, with directions to take a circuitous route, and possess themselves of the town hill: this detachment had not yet arrived at the place of its destination. The major was likewise at a loss how to act: he had received the lieutenant-governor's orders not to engage; and he repeatedly observed, that if that officer was not a prisoner, he must, necessarily, conform to the directions of his superior in command. However, on the adjutant's return, the whole body formed into one column, and marched towards the town.

It had been hitherto supposed, that the force stationed near Mont Orgueil had, agreeably to Rullecourt's own assertion, sustained a defeat, and that a formidable portion of his army remained posted in the same quarter: in fact, his strength in the Island was quite unknown; but during the march of Major Pierson's corps, he received a letter from the officer who commanded the troops near Mont Orgueil, by which he learned, that so far from having been made prisoners, they were proceeding to attack a party of the enemy that had taken possession of a battery at La Roque.

The British and island troops now arrived at St. Helier's, and, separating into two divisions, pressed forwards towards the market place. An immediate and impetuous

attack was made by one of these columns: rendered furious by disappointment, the French fought desperately. During this onset, part of the detachment which had reached the town hill, bore down on the enemy, from another quarter of the town. At the same moment, the division headed by Major Pierson appeared in the market place: he entered it through a short street, opposite to the present government house. The enemy made an immediate discharge, and that gallant officer fell dead into the arms of his grenadiers. Surprised, and for an instant discouraged, by this unfortunate event, his troops gave way; but they soon rallied, formed again, and regained the ground which they had lost.

Rullecourt, seeing his men driven from every street into the market place, added wanton cruelty to his previous falsehood and treachery. He went out from the Court house, holding the captive lieutenant-governor by the arm: a short renewal of the conflict ensued: the baron received a mortal wound; some of his soldiers secreted themselves in the adjacent houses, and the rest surrendered: the victory was complete. Major Corbet escaped unhurt, though he received two balls through his hat.

The firing having ceased, Major Corbet resumed the command, and having secured his prisoners in the church, he marched towards the place where the French had landed, and were supposed to have a detachment. The battery of which they obtained possession on landing, had been retaken in the morning: and such of Rullecourt's soldiers as were not either killed, or made prisoners, escaped to their vessels.

The enemy's loss in this ill-concerted and ill-fated attack has never been known: the British had nearly fifty of the regulars killed and wounded, and about thirty of

the militia. Major Pierson was interred in the church of St. Helier, and a monument erected,* at the public expense, to commemorate his bravery and lamented death.†

A second descent being expected on the same night, the troops remained under arms until the morning. A general alarm was, indeed, at midnight, spread through the Island, and all expected a fresh conflict; but no further attempt was made.

It has been asserted, that a large French force was destined for the expedition so happily rendered abortive; that it was to have sailed whenever a landing had been effected; and that the plan was to obtain and keep possession of all these Islands: that the commander in chief was the prince of Nassau; and that the inhabitants were to be transported to a remote part of France. Such was

* Executed by Bacon. The following is the inscription:—

TO THE MEMORY OF
MAJOR FRANCIS PIERSON,
WHO
WHEN THIS ISLAND WAS INVADED BY THE FRENCH
FELL, BRAVELY FIGHTING
AT THE HEAD OF THE BRITISH AND ISLAND TROOPS.
HE DIED IN THE FLOWER OF YOUTH
AND IN THE MOMENT OF VICTORY,
ON THE SIXTH DAY OF JANUARY,
1781; AGED 24 YEARS.
THE STATES OF THE ISLAND,
IN GRATEFUL TESTIMONY OF THEIR DELIVERANCE,
CAUSED THIS MONUMENT TO BE ERECTED
AT THE PUBLIC EXPENSE.

† It is related that a faithful black servant of Major Pierson, having seen the soldier fire who killed his master, levelled his musket at him and shot him dead. A fine painting representing this engagement, has been executed by Copley, and he has chosen this point of time for the scene. The black servant is a prominent figure in the fore-ground, apparently much excited, and his musket levelled at some object, supposed to be behind a group of soldiers that are bearing up the body of the fallen Major. An engraving has also been executed from this painting, by Heath, in his best style.

the report circulated soon after, respecting the enemy's intention.*

Since the attack just detailed, Jersey has, at different times, been both menaced and alarmed; but has not experienced any actual attempt. Buonaparte, in his threatened invasion of England, called these Islands stepping stones to that kingdom; yet he never thought it advisable to attempt their subjugation.

In the beginning of the year, 1814, this Island became the temporary residence of His Royal Highness the Duc de Berri, nephew of Lewis XVIII. Every attention was paid by the inhabitants to the illustrious visitant; while the condescending urbanity displayed by the prince, and the sense he expressed of the civilities he experienced, are the best proofs that he merited and felt them. He left Jersey, for France, April the 12th, on receiving the intelligence that Buonaparte was dethroned, and the Bourbon family reinstated.

On Tuesday, July the 12th, peace with France was proclaimed, both at St. Helier's and St. Aubin's; on which memorable and happy occasion, there was, in the evening, a general illumination of both towns; and Thursday the 14th was observed as a day of solemn thanksgiving.

* Major Corbet was tried, and superseded: but is said to have received a pension. It would not therefore be right to impute to him greater culpability that was found by the court-martial. It may, however, be said that, though treachery did not attach to his conduct, it appears difficult to exonerate him from great negligence and pusillanimity.

CHAPTER I.

SECT. II.—*Ecclesiastical History.*

THE earliest account of religious worshippers in Transalpine Gaul, to which Jersey and the neighbouring Islands unquestionably belonged, is that of Cæsar. He says, that, among the Celtæ, there were only two orders of men in any high degree of honour or esteem: these were the Druids and the nobles. The Druids had the supreme direction of every thing relating to religion; their province was also to administer justice. Their principal deity was Mercury.* According to others, the sun was worshipped, under different names: thus Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, is by many supposed to have been a temple dedicated to that luminary; and the annual rural pastime in Britain, on the first day of May, has probably been derived from a Celtic origin; that day being, with the Druids, a great festival in honour of the sun.

As we know but little respecting the Druids before Cæsar's time, so the subsequent accounts of them are very defective. It was a law with them, never to commit their doctrines to writing; so that, being delivered orally, almost every traditional account of their tenets was by degrees effaced. To this the Romans also contributed, either from an abhorrence of the barbarous rites sometimes practised by the Druids, or from a conviction that they animated the people to resist; or, more probably,

* Cæs de Bello Gall.

from both causes. The Romans, contrary to their usual custom, extirpated the Druidical priests, in every place where the success of their arms gave them the power.

Before the invasion of Britain by the Saxons, that country enjoyed the blessings of the Christian faith; the first step towards the conversion of these Islands from the idolatrous worship practised by the natives, was the consequence of a persecution in England; numbers, as well laity as clergy, sought a retreat from the Saxon invaders.

Among those fugitives, the most conspicuous, for sanctity of life and eminence of character, was St. Samson, who had become a metropolitan in Britain. The see of Dol, in Armorica,* was conferred on him, and, on his account, erected into a metropolis. The bishops of Armorica had previously been suffragans of Tours; and because the see of Dol was circumscribed in extent, and therefore unequal to its new dignity, considerable accessions were made to it by the religious zeal of different princes. These Islands were at that time subject to France, the sovereigns of which had recently been converted to Christianity: and Childebert, son of Clovis, presented them to St. Samson, about A. D. 550, as an augmentation to his small diocese. Alderney, being too remote from Dol, was not included in this grant.

It does not appear that the bishop reaped any great advantage from the donation of these Islands, or that he was very successful in proselyting the inhabitants, who

* Armorica was that portion of Gaul, situated in the N. W. corner, between the Seine, the Loire, and the Atlantic. From the settlement of the refugee Britons, the province of Bretagne, or Britany, derives its name. This territory was newly peopled, in the fourth century, by a colony from Wales.

must have been much attached to the pagan superstition, from the great number of altars and temples that have been found in the islands, many of which still exist: they are called by the inhabitants *Pouquelays*.* They are thus described by Mr. Falle:—"They are great flat stones of great bigness and weight, some oval, some quadrangular, raised three or four feet from the ground, and supported by others of a less size. It is evident both from their figure and the great quantity of ashes found in the ground thereabouts, that they were used for altars in those times of superstition; and their standing on eminences inclines me to think they were dedicated to the Divinities of the ocean. At ten or twelve feet distance there is a smaller stone set up on end in manner of a desk, where it is supposed the priest kneeled and performed some ceremony, while the sacrifice was burning on the altar."

Most of the Armorican sees were filled by British prelates who had accompanied St. Samson. He left his diocese and metropolitan dignity to his nephew, St. Magloire, who was likewise a Briton. This venerable ecclesiastic was the happy instrument, selected by Divine Providence, for the purpose of extending to these Islands the blessings of Christianity. St. Magloire, animated with an enthusiastic desire of converting the inhabitants, resigned his bishopric to St. Budoc, one of his disciples. Accompanied with properly qualified assistants, he then quitted the continent. He first landed in Sercq, where he built a small monastery, and afterwards came over to Jersey; where he also built a chapel, which was called by his name;† there, by his powerful preaching, and influ-

* See a particular description of these in the Chapter on Antiquities.

† Corrupted to St Manliers.

enced by his religious life, the inhabitants were induced to renounce idolatry, and receive the rite of baptism.*

During the reign of Chilperic, Pretextatus, bishop of Rouen, having displeased that King, by conniving at a marriage of his son with Brunehault, who was too nearly related to allow of the connexion, was banished to Jersey, where he remained in exile ten years.

During the reign of Charlemagne, who governed France from the year 768 to 814, Geroaldus, abbot of Fontenelle, was sent by that prince to Jersey and Guernsey, to assist in the pious work of conversion. A copy of the mandate is still preserved in the Abbey of Fontenelle.

In the year 912, Rollo I., Duke of Normandy, annexed these Islands to the bishoprick of Coutance, from which time they were separated from the See of Dol.

The establishment of Christianity in these Islands was followed by the invasion of the Normans. These fierce and piratical marauders, in one of their descents on Jersey, murdered St. Helier, a pious recluse, whose cell, on a rock near Elizabeth castle, is still extant; but being converted to Christianity, those barbarous heathens, from being prosecutors of the Christian faith, became some of its most zealous advocates.

This wanton outrage on the unoffending hermit led to the foundation of an abbey. Hammon, the son of the barbarous chief who committed the bloody deed, probably to atone for the crime of his father, founded an abbey on the spot where the murder was committed; and he richly endowed it for the support of canons regular

* In an old MS. it is said, that St. Magloire, or Maglorius, settled on the spot where Elizabeth castle now stands; and on that spot, which was then joined to the main land of Jersey, "erected a school for Christianity, which was continued till at last it was converted into an abbey."

of the order of St. Augustine, who were placed in it: this abbey must at this time have stood in a pleasant valley, joined to the mainland of the Island.*

The Norman abbots were lords of several good manors in Jersey, and had the former priories reduced to cells, and dependencies on their houses. They were patrons of all the churches, and shared the tithes belonging to them, leaving only a very small portion for the officiating minister.

Richard I. of Normandy, began a religious persecution in the early part of his reign: his pretence was, that many of his subjects were wasting the prime of their life in, what he called, "religious idleness;" and he seized the ecclesiastical revenues, which reduced the number of the clergy in his dominions: many who could no longer be maintained on their benefices fled, and endured severe privations during their exile; others succeeded in establishing monastic institutions. The Benedictines that were reduced in Normandy, retired to Guernsey, and founded, in the year 962, an abbey in that part of the Island near Vale castle.

This account was transmitted by Popish historians; other accounts state that he suppressed those only in which the scandalous lives of the monks were the most notorious: this seems the more probable, as in some instances, the monasteries were not suppressed, but the monks re-

* Upon this rock was "formerly a religious house of monks, devolved to the crown in Henry the Eighth's time, with the rest of the Abby lands in the Island: distant from the town of St. Heliers about a mile, in a fair sandy bay, *formerly meadows*, belonging to the said monks, on whom with other things, they were bestowed by Henry the Second, as may be seen in a record of the Exchequer, anno 1328; "but when it was overflowed is uncertain."

Dumaresq: MS. Survey, 1685.

moved, and their place supplied by those of a different order.

Duke Robert, the grandson of Richard, and the father of William the Conqueror, founded other monasteries in both Islands, and in gratitude to the abbot of St. Michael's, in Guernsey, for assistance rendered to him, when in danger of shipwreck, as has been already related,* he granted a large portion of land, and many privileges, by which it was greatly enriched, and obtained considerable power in the Island.

Whatever may have been the character of the monkish institutions in Guernsey, during the time of Richard, it must afterwards have been greatly improved; for the Island became so noted for the sanctity and devout lives of the monks, that it was called "the Holy Island."

Under the reign of King John, these Islands were annexed to the See of Exeter, but did not so continue long, devolving again to the Bishop of Coutance, under whose jurisdiction they continued till the time of Elizabeth, when they were annexed to the See of Winchester.

During the reign of Henry I., three parish churches were built in Guernsey, St. Sampson's in 1111; St. Michael's in 1117; St. Philip of Torteval in 1130; besides the chapel of the priory of Lihou. The church of Torteval was built by Philip De Carteret, of Jersey, who while in danger of shipwreck, vowed that if brought safe to land he would build a church near the spot. He landed in Rocquaine harbour, in the parish of Torteval, where he fulfilled his promise by building the church.

During the reign of Henry II. three other churches were built in Guernsey, or at least consecrated in that reign: St. Saviour's in 1154; St. Margaret's in 1163; and St.

* See General History.

Peter's in 1167. The other two were built during the reign of John.

All the churches in Jersey were built between the years 1111 and 1204:—St. Brelade's the most antient on the Island, was consecrated during the former year, and St. John's in August 4th in the latter,—except the three following, which are of later date: Grouville in 1312; St. Mary in 1320; and St. Helier in 1341.

Nothing particular occurred in the ecclesiastical history of the Islands from this period, until the time of the Reformation, when the monasteries, following the fate of those in England, were suppressed, and the English liturgy, translated into French, was sent hither.

On the accession of Queen Mary to the throne, popery was restored. Poulet, a popish dean, was appointed to that office A. D. 1555, when a priest, named Averty, was convicted of murder, and executed, notwithstanding the dean's interference, who, in order to save his life, denied the power of a lay court. He continued dean until the year 1565.

During this period, the protestants in France being cruelly persecuted, many of their ministers came over to Jersey. They increased so much during the reign of Elizabeth, that they addressed that princess, to allow them to establish the Genevan mode of worship, instead of the use of the liturgy: this was refused by an order in council, dated Aug. 7, 1565, as respects the whole of the parishes in the Islands, but granted on behalf of St. Helier's, in Jersey, and St. Peter's port, in Guernsey; it appears however that this order was not strictly observed, for the discipline* of Calvin was adopted in all the parishes of

* This was settled by a convocation of the Islands, in the year 1576. This discipline consisted of three orders, or assemblies of men, with

the Islands, and without a remonstrance from any party: this may easily be accounted for, from the circumstance of the inhabitants almost universally approving that mode of discipline and worship, as well as its being favoured by the then Governor, Sir Hugh Pawlett.

James in the first year of his reign confirmed this, with the understanding* that it was so granted by the order of Elizabeth; but in the short space of twenty years: so material a change came over the minds of the islanders on this subject, and partly assisted by disputes between the governor and the colloquy, about the right of presentation to vacant benefices, that in the twenty-first year of James, an address was presented to the king, to the effect that he would restore the office of the dean, and the use of the liturgy. The Rev. David Bandinel was appointed the first dean, with instructions, conjointly with the ministers, to draw up a body of canons to be approved by the king: these were submitted to archbishop Abbot, the lord keeper Williams, and Andrews, bishop of Winchester, and after several corrections made by them, and approval by the king, were transmitted to Jersey, to have the force

authority one above the other. 1st.—The *Consistory*, or minister and elders of the church; they met every Sunday. 2nd.—The *Colloque*, or the assembly of the ministers and elders of the whole Island; these met four times in the year, to receive the reports, and to regulate the affairs of the Consistories. 3rd.—The *Synod*, or an assembly of ministers and elders deputed by the Colloque; these assembled once in the year, alternately, in Jersey and Guernsey. The ministers of Alderney and Sark (or Spark, as the Island is called in the printed rules), were allowed to attend the Colloque in Guernsey, once in the year. One of their rules states, “In every synod, there shall be a minister chosen to govern the action, and a scribe to register the actions:” more concisely expressed in modern phraseology, by a chairman and secretary.

* Falle states it was by a false representation, that this privilege was granted by James.

of laws in matters ecclesiastical, as they have to this day. This measure, however, did not entirely supersede the use of the Genevan discipline: it must have existed to a considerable extent, and for a considerable time after the restoration of the church establishment, as in the year 1642, towards the close of the reign of Charles I., the synod met and confirmed the original orders by which the Island was governed.*

Guernsey was subject to the Genevan church discipline at the same time, and for a considerable time after Jersey had returned to the communion of the Church of England: this may be partly accounted for, by the circumstance of the governor, Sir Thomas Leighton, being favourable to the former, while the governor of Jersey favoured the latter. Guernsey did not conform until the passing of the Act of Uniformity. John de Saumerez was the first dean on the restoration of episcopacy.

* It may amuse the reader, to quote a few of the rules, on an interesting subject. On the order respecting marriage; Act 1, required "that all promises of marriage be made in the presense of parents, friends, governors, or masters or mistresses of the parties; and with consent of them, or in the presense of ministers, elders, or deacons," and it is added, "as for those that are at their owne libertie, the presense of the minister, or one of the elders or deacons, is also necessary for the policie." Act 2, states, "The children, and those that are under government, cannot make any promise of marriage, without the consent of their fathers and mothers, or of their tutors, or of their guardians, in whose power they are." Act 3, "If the fathers and mothers are so unreasonable, that they will not accord to so holy a thing, the Consistory shall give them such advice as shall be expedient, to the which, if the fathers and mothers will not agree, they shall have recourse to the magistrate." Act 4, "Even those which have been married, owe this honour to their parents, not to marry themselves, without the advice of their parents, for the want thereof they shall be censured." Act 5, "Those that shall be betrothed, shall promise with their parents, that they shall be married within three months after their promises are made, or in six months, in case they be on a voyage:

It was the intention of James the Second again to introduce the Roman Catholic religion into Jersey. With this view, he began by sending officers and soldiers of that persuasion, as a garrison, into Elizabeth castle. His design was, however, delayed by the policy of the magistrates, and finally rendered abortive by the revolution of 1688; since which time, nothing material has taken place in the ecclesiastical constitution of the Islands.

Queen Elizabeth founded a free Grammar School in Guernsey, in the year 1563, called after her name, Elizabeth College, and endowed it with certain lands and rents, which have so increased in amount, that they are now of considerable value: whether the Islanders receive all the benefit from the institution that they have a right to expect, may be questioned.

Charles the Second granted three fellowships in Oxford, for the two Islands, in Exeter, Jesus, and Pembroke Colleges; and there have been since added five exhibitions, three for Jersey, and two for Guernsey.

and if they will not obey, they shall be pursued by ecclesiasticall censures." Act 6, "No stranger shall be betrothed without the consent of the governor, or of his leiftenants." Act 11, "Those who have accompanied together before they are married, shall not be married before they have made confession of their fault; and if the fault be openly known, they shall doe it before all the church; and if it be lesse knowne, the Consistory shall give order for it." Act 12, "The promises of widdowes that would remarry themselves, shall not be received, but six months after the death of the deceased husband; that both for the honestie and well seemlinese, and to meet with many inconveniences. As for the men, they shall be exhorted to stay a certain time also, without constraining them thereunto."—EXTRACT from "*The orders for ecclesiastical discipline, by the ministers, elders, and deacons of the isles of Garnsey, Gersey, Spark and Alderny: Confirmed by the authoritie of the aforesaid isles. Printed in the yeare 1642.*"

After this brief sketch of the ecclesiastical affairs of the Island, the present state of its religious establishments and services will claim attention.

The number of beneficed clergy, or incumbents, including the dean, is just equal to that of the parishes, the canons of Jersey absolutely forbidding pluralities. The dean is always one of the rectors. Here is a regular spiritual court, of which the dean is the head: the other eleven rectors are his assessors. This court has, attached to it, a greffier or register, two advocates or proctors, with an apparitor to execute its summonses. Three ministers, including the dean, or vice-dean, are sufficient to form a court. Appeals may be made from this tribunal to the bishop of Winchester, as superior ordinary; or, in case of a vacancy in that see, to the archbishop of Canterbury; such appeals must be heard by the prelate in person.

Before the dean, as surrogate to the bishop, the wills of persons dying in the Island are proved and registered, and from him administrations are obtained of persons dying intestate, copies of which are transmitted to the Bishop's Court at Winchester. The dean has likewise the power of granting licences for private marriage; and as these are not expensive, the practice of marrying in private is very commonly adopted.

The rectors are entitled to the small tithes, and, though only in some instances, to a part of the great tithes: the remainder of these belongs principally to the crown, and forms a part of the governor's salary. Thus, instead of being rectories, the livings may with more propriety be denominated vicarages. The repairs necessary for every parsonage house are done at the expense of the parish; so that the heirs of a deceased rector are not liable to

those dilapidations that sometimes, in England, fall so heavily on a widowed family.

When the revenues of the churches were seized, the patronage fell to the sovereign, who has since ceded it to the governors; but the crown still nominates to the deanery, and, by the canons of James the First, "the dean shall be a master of arts, or a graduate in the civil law, at the least, and the originaries or natives of the Island shall be preferred before others to the ministry."*

Though, from the causes just recited, the livings are necessarily small, yet most of the rectors have at present an advantage, as local chaplains to the troops stationed in or near their respective parishes: the increased value of land, and the advanced prices of its produce, add likewise to the clerical incomes.

There is a church in every parish, and a chapel connected with the Establishment, at St. Aubin's: this was erected by subscription; and the proprietors possess the right of electing the minister. The chaplainship of Elizabeth castle is a distinct military appointment.

By the before-mentioned canons, "no conventicle, or congregation, shall be suffered to make sect apart, or withdraw themselves from the ecclesiastical government established in the Island." This exclusive regulation is no longer enforced: so that now here are Independents, Wesleyan Methodists, Catholics, a Quaker's family, and a few Jews. The first two mentioned sects have, of late years, rapidly increased. The Independents and the Methodists have each a spacious and neat chapel

* It should appear, that, in King James's time, the inhabitants were in general very illiterate; since in the same canons, it is ordered, that two churchwardens are to be chosen for each parish; men "*able to read and write, if possible.*"

at St. Helier's; and there are also conventicles of both persuasions in other parts of the Island, as well as Baptists. The Catholics have likewise the privilege of performing their worship publicly: they are chiefly emigrants, both clergy and laity, together with such of the military as profess the same faith.*

Two regular church services are appointed for every Sunday in the parish church: one of these is now, in some of the parishes, performed in the English language; this is because the rectors have become chaplains to the troops. At St. Helier's there is, in addition, an evening service. There is also a chapel of ease to the parish church, in which the service is performed morning and afternoon. There are likewise two neat episcopal chapels, St. Paul's and St. James's in which it is performed in English: these are both modern erections; the former was built in 1818, the latter in 1829. (*See Appendix.*)

The bishop not residing in the Island, young persons are not obliged to be confirmed previously to their partaking of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper: they are however assembled by a minister, examined, and admonished: thus are they received into the communion of the Church of England. The Bishop of Winchester has, however, within a few years, visited the Island for the purpose of performing the ceremony of confirmation.

There are, in Jersey, two free grammar schools, each for the children of six parishes; one in St. Saviour's parish, called St. Manlier's; the other in the parish of St. Peter, called St. Athanasius's; but as the endowments are small, the masters usually take boarders, or adopt other means to increase their income; that at St. Manlier's has

* For a list of these Chapels, and the time of celebrating public worship, the reader is referred to the Appendix.

lately been much improved by large additions to the original building. They were founded in A. D. 1498.

Every parish has a fund, supported by legacies, for keeping the church and the parsonage house in repair. The poor are likewise maintained by legacies, by poor's boxes, collections at the church doors, and by a rate when necessary: extraordinary cases of distress or misfortune are frequently relieved, and liberally so, by private contributions.

Two public schools for the instruction of poor children, of both sexes, were established, by voluntary subscriptions, a few years since, The plan has recently been extended, and is now in successful operation.*

* For information respecting other Societies, established for the benefit of the Island, the reader is also referred to the Appendix.

CHAPTER II.

Name, Situation, Form and Extent, Appearance, Tides, Highways, Military Roads, Regular and Island Troops, and Fortifications.

THE name by which JERSEY was known, in ancient times, is not decisively ascertained. Like other states, it has had several appellations; some so remote, both in sound and orthography, from others, as to elude every attempt to trace their etymology to one common source.

Jersey has been variously spelled; Gearsey, Gersey, and Jereseye,* and is supposed to have been derived from Cæsarea, by which name it was known to the Romans.† It has been attempted to be proved that it was called Augia, previously to its possession by that people: by this name it was indeed given by Childebert, king of France, to Samson, archbishop of Dol, in Armorica, about A. D. 550: but as this was subsequent to the declension of the Roman power in Gaul, it rather proves that the change was from Cæsarea to Augia.

The N. W. point of Jersey, is situated in north latitude $49^{\circ} 16'$, and in $2^{\circ} 22'$ longitude west of London. It forms the most southern island of that group,‡ which

* So spelled in the records of the Tower and Exchequer.

† It is so named by the emperor Antoninus, in his Itinerary.

‡ This group is composed of the following islands, viz. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sercq: with the smaller ones of Herm, Jethou, and the rocky islets of Chausey, Ecrehou, &c.

lies in St. Michael's bay, on the coast of Lower Normandy and Britany. That ample gulph sweeps from Cap de la Hogue, in the former province, to Cap de Frehelle, in the latter.

The distance from Jersey to Carteret, or to Port Bail, which are the two nearest French ports, is somewhat more than five leagues.

To Granville eight leagues :

To St. Malo ten leagues :

To Guernsey, about seven leagues :

To Alderney, ten leagues :

To Weymouth, twenty-eight leagues :

To Plymouth forty leagues :

To the Isle of Wight, thirty leagues :

To Southampton, forty leagues.

The form of this Island is that of an irregular parallelogram. Its greatest length, from S. E. to N. W., is about twelve miles ; and the average breadth may be estimated at full five miles : the width does not in any part exceed seven miles. By a very accurate measurement, it contains a superficies of between thirty-nine and forty thousand acres.

Jersey exhibits an inclined plane : part of its eastern coast, commencing at Mont Orgueil, and the whole of its northern shore, form one continuous range of rocks, rising abruptly from the ocean, frequently to an elevation of from forty to fifty fathoms. This natural defence renders the Island, in those quarters, nearly inaccessible. The rocks exteriorly, are, in general, mere naked ridges, projecting their sharp angles into the sea ; thus adding to the rapidity of the currents, and varying their courses. In several places the rocks are loosely blended with

other terrene combinations, or are in a state of great disintegration; hence many deeply indented inlets, and sundry excavations, have been formed by tides, rising, occasionally, to forty or fifty feet in perpendicular height, and dashed about, by boisterous winds, in every possible direction. From these rugged cliffs the land declines towards the southern coast, which, in several places, is nearly on a level with the sea. In this respect, Jersey displays a striking contrast with Guernsey, the southern boundary of which shoots up in high rocks from the sea, and declines towards the north.

This contraposition is supposed to occasion that considerable difference in the nature of the soil, and in the temperature of the atmosphere, in the two Islands, which the trifling distance between them seems otherwise to render inexplicable.

In general, the strata run from north to south, thus following the form of the Island; but those layers are usually more inclined than the regular declination of the surface.

From the wedge-like form of Jersey, it must be evident, that little table-land exists in the Island: nor is the surface a widely extended declivity: it is mostly composed of elevated parts, running from north to south, intersected by deep, and, in general, by narrow vales. The sides, or Coteaux, of these eminences are frequently steep and craggy. They follow the inclined course of the Island; so likewise do the numerous rivulets of excellent water that gurgle through the valleys; these receive the tributary streamlets that issue from so many sources, that perhaps no spot in the universe is more amply furnished. The comparatively long course of these

rivulets is particularly advantageous to so small an island: several corn mills are worked by them.

Though Jersey may be considered as an aggregate of different rocky substances, moulded into a single irregular heap, yet its western, its southern, and part of its eastern shores, are scooped into open sandy bays, separated from each other by solid projecting masses. The principal of those inlets are the bays of St. Catherine, Rosel, Boulay, De Lecq, St. Ouen, St. Brelade, St. Aubin, and Grouville. In tracing the marine line, it begins with the continued range of rocks, at Mont Orgueil, on the eastern side: proceeding from this spot, and skirting the whole northern boundary, until, doubling the point at Gros-nez, we reach a rugged mass, called L'Etac. Here an extensive curve, like the segment of an immense circle, comprises a moiety of the western shore; and this sweep receives the full unbroken waves of the Atlantic ocean. At the southern extremity of this too frequently boisterous bay, the cliffs rise again to a considerable height, and continue to a well known rocky pile, called La Corbiere: thence, turning eastward, they line the southern coast, until they touch the town of St. Aubin, situated in a beautiful bay of the same name. Passing that town, the rocks recede inland, until a projection takes place at Mont Cochon, and another at Le Mont Patibulaire: further on lies the sandy plain, on which stands the town of St. Helier. Immediately beyond this spot rises the insulated rock, formerly called Le Mont de la Ville, on which now stands Fort Regent, which extends to Havre des Pas. Here the eminences, that form a lofty sea wall, terminate; and the remaining part of the coast, from this inlet to Mont Orgueil, is flat, and so low as to be occasionally subject to partial inundations. Thus is Jersey nearly encircled by natural defences.

It is to a greater degree protected by a chain of rocks that rise about a league from the shore, on the north-eastern and northern sides. They are called Ecrehou, Les Dirouilles, and Les pierres de Lecq, or the Paternosters, having a narrow rocky passage between each. To the south, but more distant from the land, lies another ledge, named Les Minquiers; and, to the south-east, but still further from Jersey, is the small rugged island of Chausey. These and a great variety of smaller protuberances,* both above and below the surface, in different parts of the surrounding ocean, constitute a most formidable barrier. Nor are these all;—this immense assemblage of rocks, by obstructing the natural course of the tides, produces a number of strong and diversified currents, which contribute a great accession of strength to the other natural outworks.

It is a very probable conjecture, that many of the adjacent rocks were originally part of the Island itself; but departed from it by the force of violent tempests. On the southern, the eastern, and the western sides, there are incontrovertible proofs that large portions of useful land have been ingulfed; and strong sea banks are found, in many places, necessary to prevent further encroachments.

There is a legendary tradition, that this Island was once so contiguous to France, that persons passed over, on a plank, or a bridge, paying a small toll to the abbey of Coutances. That all the islands in this quarter formed a portion of the continent itself, does not seem very improbable; their external appearance evidences some dreadful convulsion: but it may well be questioned, whether any

* Most of the rocks that rise above high water mark are distinguished by a particular name, which is well known to the fishermen, and to the farmers who resort to them during the seasons for cutting vrac.

disruption of nature has taken place since the flood, so as to cause so mighty a change.

There is something very extraordinary in the tides that flow and ebb among these Islands. The directions they follow seem totally uninfluenced by others in the Channel. They receive indeed their momentum at its mouth, but take different impulses, from the various obstructions that divert the regularity of their course. They flow E. S. E. to the bay of Mont St. Michael. The declivity of the shore, in this gulf, is so inconsiderable, that the common extent of the tide is from twelve to sixteen miles; and the bay is filled in the short space of two hours. When this is effected, a new direction takes place. The saturated inlet resists a greater accession, and the water is impelled along the Norman coast, northwards, until, in the course of twelve hours, it has encircled the Islands, and returned to the spot from whence it began to flow. The currents, from being frequently intersected, succeed each other so rapidly, that they are in continual motion, and there is no appearance of still water in these parts, as in the Channel, at low ebb.

These tides rise from forty to forty-five feet, round the Islands: at St. Malo their height is said to be near sixty feet.

It will readily be conceived, that an immense body of water, rising, in the space of six hours, to so great an elevation, and diverted from its natural course by so many intervening obstructions, must necessarily produce a variety of impetuous currents, running in different directions; and must likewise form many submarine banks. These circumstances apply more particularly to Jersey than to the neighbouring Islands; for though the bottom

of the sea, in the open parts, is tolerably uniform, and the depth may be averaged at from thirty-five to forty fathoms, yet it is said to be more variable on the coast of Jersey than round either of the other Islands.

It is high water at Jersey about six o'clock, at every new and full moon: but as the flood commences by rushing full against the rocks on the northern shore, it is high water half an hour earlier on that and on the western side, than on the southern and eastern shores.

Though there is good anchorage at Boulay bay, St. Aubin's bay, and at other inlets round the coast, yet not one of them is land-locked; and the two ports of St. Helier, and St. Aubin, are both dry at low water. To remedy this last defect, it has been suggested, that a safe and commodious harbour might be constructed at Boulay bay, as there is always a considerable depth of water there; but this suggestion has not been acted on, and probably never will.*

The following remarks in reference to the tides, are extracted from a paper published by the Geological Society, presented by Dr. Macculloch:—"The great wave which enters from the Atlantic, striking directly against the projecting coast of Normandy, first fills the bay, and then continues its course along the Islands, and round la Hogue, up the English channel; where its passage being narrowed and diverted by the land, it forms those currents, of which the rapidity is such, as in some places, it is said to amount to six miles an hour."

* Although there is a good depth of water at all times in Boulay bay, as a harbour for mercantile shipping it would be useless, or nearly so, on account of the great acclivity of the land from the sea, which would increase the difficulty and expence of cartage to St. Helier, the grand emporium of the Island. It is better adapted as an anchoring ground for ships of war, during a state of hostility.

“Neither from my own observations, nor from the traditions of the inhabitants, nor from antient record, have I been able to trace much alteration in the level of the sea, or any considerable change in the positions of the harbours, or the depths of the soundings. Indeed, the shores in general being high, small changes of level are more likely to escape notice; and the rocks being of a firm constitution, and belonging to a country without rivers, and almost without ice, escape some of the ordinary causes of decay.”—*Geological Transactions*, vol. 1.

The highways were formerly of different widths, and were under strict regulations in this respect, when they were originally formed. They are thus described in a MS. in the British Museum: *—“There are in Jersey three kinds of wayes: *Le Chemin de Roy*, the king’s highway, which is to be of the breadth of twelve feet, besides four feet on each side by the hedge; in all sixteen feet. † *Le Chemin de huit piéds*, of eight feet in the middle, and four feet on both sides, in all twelve feet; and lastly, *Le Chemin de quatre piéds*, or four foot way, for footmen or carriages (carriers) on horseback.” ‡

* This is a small 4to. volume very neatly written, elegantly bound, and richly ornamented: on the first leaf is a note, by which it appears to have belonged to James the Second; it was written during the reign of the second Charles.

† This discrepancy in the measurement is explained, by observing that the foot path ran sometimes on one side of the same road, and sometimes on the other; so that the width did not exceed sixteen feet.

‡ There were also other roads, called *Perquages*, extending from each church to the sea. Any person who had committed a crime, and taken refuge in the church, as a sanctuary, and remained there nine days, and afterwards swore to leave the island and never to return was allowed the privilege of these *Perquages* to depart, but if deviating from them, was liable to be seized, and suffer the penalty of the law: this privilege was abolished at the reformation, and the roads given to Sir Edward Carteret, and by him disposed of to those who had lands adjoining. (*See Antiquities.*)

These were the only roads of which the Islands could boast, until the new military roads were made by General Don; and they were generally, indeed nearly all, in a miserable condition, as may still be seen by those that remain; but many of these roads have been widened and formed after the manner of those in England, and are almost in every respect equal to them. They have proved a great advantage to the Island, which is now acknowledged by the inhabitants, although a violent opposition was at first raised against the plan—so great indeed that nothing but the most resolute perseverance on the part of the governor could have succeeded in removing it; but so satisfied was he of the ultimate success and advantage of his plan, that he declared, “I will do them good in spite of themselves, and they will hereafter experience and acknowledge it:” this has been fully verified in both respects.

Though, in time of war, the chief defence of Jersey must, necessarily, be confided to the regular troops, yet the Island force is considerable and well disciplined.

The militia comprises six regiments or battalions of infantry, amounting to more than 2500 men. To each corps is attached four field pieces, and a company of artillery: these form a body of between 600 and 700 men, and are when exercised formed into a battalion. All the island troops are armed, and clothed in proper uniforms, by government, but do not receive pay. They are frequently drilled; and during war mount guard every night, at different stations round the Island.

Every inhabitant, from the age of nineteen to sixty-five, is by law obliged to bear arms, either as an officer or a private; and all boys, from the age of sixteen to eighteen, are exercised, weekly, during the summer months. This

juvenile corps is upwards of a thousand strong. There are likewise a few troopers attached to each regiment, whose duty is to serve as orderly men and guides: the artillery also is mounted.

The militia staff consists of inspectors and assistant inspectors; and the whole island force is under strict regulations: though the governor, or lieutenant governor, appoints the officers, and has military command over them, yet all complaints against individuals are judged and punished by the royal court.*

The regular troops in time of war, generally amount to about 7000 men: the peace establishment does not exceed 300. ○

The principal fortifications are, Fort Regent, Elizabeth castle, that of Mont Orgueil, Fort Henry, La Rocco, St. Aubin's tower, Seymour tower, with the tower at Noirmont point, and that at Ich-ho. Besides these, there is a chain of martello towers, redoubts, and batteries, in every maritime part of the Island, where defences are requisite. As an additional security, Jersey and Guernsey together form a station for ships of war. There are, likewise, in Jersey four signal posts, on different elevated parts, which during war are increased, so that a telegraphic communication is established round the Island.

There are barracks for the regular troops in different parts of the Island: a very handsome and extensive range of buildings was erected, at the close of the last war, in St. Peter's parish.

* The militia is now called the "Royal Jersey Militia:" it obtained that distinction by an ordinance of his late Majesty, William the Fourth, in 1831, on the fiftieth anniversary of its gallant resistance, under Major Pierson, to the French invasion of the Island, January 6, 1791. (*See General History.*)

CHAPTER III.

*Division, Enclosures, Population, Language,
Dress, and Peculiar Customs.*

THE Island is divided into twelve parishes; these are Trinity, St. John's, and St. Mary's, on the north; St. Ouen's, St. Peter's, and St. Brelade's, on the west; St. Lawrence's, St. Helier's, and St. Saviour's, on the south; St. Clement's, Grouville, and St. Martin's, on the east. These, with the exception of the parish of St. Ouen, are again divided into Vintaines.* The divisions in that parish are called Cuillettes.† All present a large coast to the sea, except St. Saviour's, and even this has one small point of contact.

As the law of inheritance frequently causes a division of property among the children, on the death of the proprietor, the land is necessarily divided into small estates; this of course occasions corresponding enclosures. These circumscribed portions are surrounded by banks of several feet in height and thickness. Many are even faced with stone, so as to have the appearance of ramparts; and most

* This sub-division is the same as in England into hundreds, and the name in both cases explains itself. As in England the division was into hundreds, or a space occupied by a hundred houses, so in Jersey by "Vintaines," or where there were twenty houses.

† This was originally a private arrangement made by the Seigneur for his own convenience, and who at that time probably possessed the whole parish: he divided it into two parts, for the purpose of making the collections more easily; hence the term "Cuillettes" or gatherings.

of them have hedges, or trees, planted on their summits.* It is difficult to ascertain why so extraordinary a waste of ground, on such limited estates, and in so small an island, should have been introduced, and still more so that it should have become a general custom. The approach to houses in the country, above those of the lower class of farmers, is through a long and narrow avenue, called *une chasse*; this likewise is, in most cases, an unprofitable use of ground: besides the waste occasioned by these circumstances, which are to a certain extent unavoidable, there is not much land uncultivated: there are, however, some tracts of marshy ground, and other parts towards the north, that might be made productive.

In 1734, the population of Jersey was estimated at 20,000 souls.

By the census, taken in 1806, the total number of inhabitants, was 22,855: it appears therefore, that there was not any material increase during the seventy years between those two periods. It will not be interesting to the stranger, to detail the population of the respective parishes, as given in the report to parliament, but the following will show the increase that has taken place since the latter period, in the whole Island.

in 1821, the population was	-	-	-	28,737
in 1831	-	-	-	36,582

which shows the rapid increase of the population since the peace. Although Jersey may in some respects be benefited by a war, and especially with France, yet the steady

* In the environs of St. Helier's, most of these banks have been removed, and replaced by neat stone walls: young trees have, also, in several parts been planted, and which have added to this improvement.

and increasing commerce which has attended her since the peace, and the influx of visitors as well as residents, prove that the latter is more to her advantage.

The population of the parish of St. Helier's is somewhat more than two-fifths of the whole Island. The number of inhabited houses at the latter period, was very nearly 5,000, and the number since must have greatly increased:

Supposing therefore the area of Jersey to contain sixty-two square miles and a half, or 40,000 acres, the number of inhabitants will form an average of 365 2-3 in every square mile; whereas the average for England and Wales is computed at not more than 192: thus it appears that with the exception of Holland, and the Netherlands, Jersey is more populous than any other part of Europe.

The English residents may be computed at about 3,000 besides tradesmen; of which a considerable number has been attracted to the Island by its encreasing trade and comparatively cheap living. It has been observed that no place contains so large a proportion of English, except Paris, Rome, Florence, and Brussels: this may be true, but the comparison between these places and Jersey is not correct, inasmuch as Jersey is not, strictly speaking, a foreign country.

The vernacular language is French. Divine service and preaching, the pleadings at court, and the public acts, are all in good French; though, in legal documents, some obsolete forensic terms are still retained. The upper ranks understand and speak the French language in its purity; but in their conversation with the lower classes, they, usually, converse in the provincial tongue, or, as it is called, Jersey French. This is a heterogeneous compound of old Norman French, intermixed with modern ex-

pressions and gallicised English words,* it is pronounced, especially in the country districts, with a most determined *patois*. The different parishes even vary in these respects, so that there are more dialects in the language of Jersey than in the ancient Greek. English is, however, becoming daily more and more prevalent; and there is scarcely a countryman who does not now understand somewhat of the language; although to the same class of persons not more than fifty years ago, it would have been perfectly unintelligible.

The internal communication throughout the Island has been of late much promoted, and the intercourse with Great Britain considerably increased. These causes, together with the number of British troops stationed in the Island during the war, have materially contributed to the diffusion of the English language. If more encouragement were given, Jersey would be in a few years, in every respect, as it should be, an English island.

If we consider the state of society in Jersey 200 years ago, when the intercourse with England and France was comparatively limited, and before the inhabitants had learnt to imitate the customs and fashions of either country,—at a time when we are led to contemplate them as simple and unaffected, it might be supposed that sumptuary laws were unnecessary; but it appears that this was not the case: whether the lower orders were not so

* This remark applies particularly to the dialect spoken by the inhabitants who have the most frequent communication with the town. a few years ago, before the intercourse with England became so intimate, the language spoken by the country people, was the pure French of some four or five centuries past. It may be difficult to account for the circumstance, but it is a fact, that the vernacular language of Jersey differs materially from that of Guernsey.

simple as we are led to consider them, or whether the members of the States at that time were rigid puritans, we are not informed; but an order of the court was made in 1636, to remedy abuses in the dress of the lower classes, as well in excess of clothing, as in lace and silk hoods, above their condition: such "females are forbidden to wear lace of above fifteen sols per yard, and that for the hood only, or to use silken hoods, *tied*, which," says this curious decree, "*belongs only to the rank of ladies.*"*

The usual dress of the old farmer was a large cocked hat, and thin *queue à la française*; and, among females, the short jacket, or bed gown, and coarse red petticoat, formed the prevailing costume. Secluded, in a great measure, from the circles of fashion and commerce, they lived in a kind of insulated manner, and thus retained the modes and customs of their ancestors.

Not many years since it was an uncommon occurrence for a Jersey farmer to lay out any money on dress; most of the articles of his clothing were not only woven at home, the knitting needle being in such constant use, and nearly all made of worsted, but were either made up under his own roof, or at a very small cost by female tailors, who were principally employed in this trade: the same circumstances which have operated to assimilate the Jersey character to that of the English, have had their influence in this respect also; and the very cheap rate at which articles of clothing are now brought from England, and sold in the town, has led in a great measure to a discontinuance of this practice. It need scarcely be observed, that the

* It is probable that this restriction was intended to repress a rising desire for finery, which may have begun to prevail, rather than against a general practice already established, or certainly the wives and daughters of the lower orders in the Island were formerly more addicted to show than they are at present.

style of dress that prevails among the middle and higher orders, is the same as in England, although somewhat tardy in adopting its fashions. A disposition to finery is however to be observed, not quite consonant with good taste.

The great intercourse with England during the war, and the greater connection that this occasioned between the people of the town and country, have occasioned an almost general uniformity of dress throughout the Island; the more aged only retain the antient mode of dress: a few more years, and even the short jacket, and coarse red petticoat, will be no longer seen.

Like the lower classes in England, many inhabitants, even some of a rather higher order, assemble in jovial parties on Easter Monday. The most general place of rendezvous is near Mont Orgueil. During the month of May the environs of St. Helier's are, early every morning, crowded with the youth of both sexes, who in groups walk to different farm houses, for the purpose of drinking milk warm from the cow.

The natives have likewise some customs, that originated from other sources; such as making a particular kind of cake on the festival of All Saints, and the singularly discordant ceremony of *faire braire les poëles*,* on the eve of St. John's day, which indeed is chiefly practised in the parish named after that apostle.†

* For a description of this ceremony see TOUR ROUND THE ISLAND.

† These and other customs were, in former times, the general practice: whereas several of them are now no longer in vogue among the higher class.

Many customs have probably a Celtic origin. There is, in Normandy, during the season of Lent, a ceremony something similar to that formerly practised by the Druids, on May-day, but which is, by the peasants, appropriated to Ceres. They go about with torches, made

The assembling on the "*lit de veille*" is a custom that prevails in both Islands, but particularly in Guernsey. This *lit de veille* is a large low frame, not unlike a stump bedstead, and usually standing in one corner of the room: during the winter evenings, the young of both sexes meet at different houses, and seated on this frame form a circle, their feet meeting in the centre; over which is suspended a lamp, which of course serves to light the whole party: the girls sew or knit, while the young men amuse them by singing or relating stories. Where there is no *lit de veille*, or when the party is large, straw is spread on the floor, on which the assembly sit. It is probable that this custom took its rise from the frugal character of the inhabitants: one light serving for several persons, and little fire being needed, where so many were assembled in one room; and for the same reason, probably, the decline of this custom is greater in Jersey than in Guernsey, as the increasing wealth is more diffused in the former than in the latter Island.

At Midsummer the natives of Jersey and Guernsey respectively pay visits to their relations and friends in the sister Island, and these visits are generally prolonged to a considerable time: the festivities of Christmas are still maintained in a high degree. The declension which has begun in England in this respect, has not yet had an influence in Jersey.

Marriages, among all but the lower classes, are generally solemnized in the evening, and at home. The rite

of different rude materials, and, in a kind of song, invoke that goddess to destroy the moles and field mice, and to grant a plentiful harvest. Part of that district in Normandy, Le Contentin, still bears the name of le Val de Ceres. May-day is not celebrated in Jersey.

of baptism, if performed in private, must be renewed at the parish church.

When a death occurs in a family, it is usual to send an early notice to relatives and particular friends: these, in return, are expected to pay a visit of condolence, before the funeral. A general invitation for relations, friends, and neighbours, to attend the funeral, is then issued. A corpse is therefore followed to the grave by a numerous concourse, who, even among the lower ranks, are mostly in mourning: this indeed forms a very general dress of the Island, among the middle and higher classes: inter-marriages link so many persons together, that family connexions are extensive, and it is customary to assume the sable garb, even for an infant. The interment frequently takes place within two or three days after death, and a subsequent visit to the nearest relations is again expected from those who received an early intimation of their friend's decease.

CHAPTER IV.

*Trade, Commerce, Shipping, Banking,
and Manufactures.*

It is of very recent date that Jersey has attained her present eminence in a commercial point of view. Peter Heylin, the author of the "Cosmography," who visited the Channel Islands in the year 1656, and wrote an account of them, notices the poverty of the inhabitants, which he ascribes to their "dislike of traffic:" the men were principally employed in agriculture, and the women and children in knitting stockings; and so extensive was this trade to France, in the year 1734, when Falle published the second edition of his work; that he computes no less than ten thousand pair were weekly exported from Jersey to Paris, Lyons, and Rouen. It is necessary in some measure to qualify the above remark respecting agriculture: the Island at that time, as at present, abounded with orchards, and the manufacture of cider constituted the principal employment of the men, which better suited the habits that then prevailed among them, than the more tiresome labour of tilling the ground, and it was probably more profitable.

At this early period of the commercial relations between Jersey and other nations, the States of the Island were no great advocates for the freedom of trade, for they passed a law in the early part of the 17th century, prohibiting several specified articles being sold *wholesale* to the mer-

chants, until they had been offered *retail* on board the ships for four days,—corn, salt, and coals were the principal commodities subjected to this regulation. The Royal Court usually fixed the price of labour, and of the common articles of consumption. In 1607 the Viconte or sheriff was directed to see that nothing was brought to the Island but what was useful to the public; that principle in trade which regulates the supply according to the demand, was not so well understood as it is at present, or this would have been left to be regulated by the inhabitants themselves: since more enlarged views have been entertained, and a better line of policy has been adopted by the States, the trade of the Island has increased in a surprising degree. Its commercial relations were formerly almost entirely confined to England and France; Newfoundland* afterwards opened a field to the speculation and enterprize of the Islanders: at the present time they trade with almost every country in Europe, with America, and some of our colonies in the West Indies.

The commerce with England is subjected to several regulations and limitations; principally with a view to prevent any contraband traffic. But every article “of the growth, produce, and manufacture” of Jersey is admitted into the mother country, on payment only of the same duties that are imposed on similar commodities, grown, produced, or manufactured there.

Jersey receives from England manufactured goods, iron, copper, cloth, linen, and cottons; together with coals, crockery, glass ware, flat paving stone, and a great variety of other useful and ornamental articles. In return she

* This branch of commerce declines considerably when Great Britain is engaged in a Continental war—so many of the usual markets for salted fish being closed against its subjects.

sends to England apples, cider, cows, heifers, potatoes, stone, potatoe-spirit, and oysters.

The produce of the Island exported to foreign parts is very inconsiderable. It consists principally of potatoes to Gibraltar and Malta, while the articles imported from abroad, and actually consumed in the Island, form a large aggregate amount.

As the whole export of Jersey produce is so extremely inadequate to the imports consumed, it is evident that, without a foreign trade, or an accession of income from other channels, the Island could not support its present increased expenditure. A large additional income is certainly produced: of this no small portion is derived from considerable sums spent in the Island by English and other families residing there: still however the foreign commercial relations of Jersey must have become a source of advantage to the Island, or there could not have been that rapid influx of wealth, which has introduced a degree of luxury and expensive living, formerly unknown in the Island.

The late war made, so far as this Island was concerned, a great difference, in every respect, from any former state of hostility. It enriched not only the merchants and the retailers, but all the country inhabitants. It so increased the value of estates, that land was then let in the parish of Grouville, at the exorbitant rate of five pounds sterling per vergee:* equal to about twelve pounds per acre.

It is a remarkable fact, that Jersey continued to flourish, while every other part of Europe groaned under the most severe pressure.—The crowds of emigrants, particularly from France, that sought an asylum in the Island, great-

* A vergee is somewhat less than half an acre.

ly increased the number of its inhabitants. The military establishments were augmented beyond all precedent, and public works, on an immense scale, were carried on, which brought from England a large body of workmen. This amazing influx of adventitious inhabitants expended their respective incomes in Jersey. The more immediate effects were felt by the retail dealers in the town of St. Helier; but those effects soon extended through the whole Island, and to every description of property. Every article produced in Jersey continually advanced in price, and the usual consequence followed: the large landed proprietors raised the rents of their farms: their tenants reimbursed themselves by increased prices of their produce. The smaller proprietors, accustomed to consume the greater part of their produce, found it more advantageous to sell it. Riches flowed in at every channel. A spirit of enterprize diffused itself among the men of business. The merchants sought out new markets, which the firm policy of Great Britain, by assisting weaker nations in stemming the overwhelming torrent, enabled them to find. The tradesmen, leaving the details of a shop to their wives, became merchants likewise; and, uniting in temporary partnerships, freighted their own vessels with valuable cargoes. Some, in addition to these concerns, added the more hazardous undertaking of fitting out privateers. Very few, annuitants excepted, complained of the war. Great profits were derived from this state of things, and being themselves equally exempt from its burthens and its distresses, the islanders thought little of, because they felt not, the horrors and privations it inflicted on others.

After this general view of the commerce of the

Island, it will be necessary to enter somewhat more into detail; and the internal trade shall first be presented to the reader. There are no documents published, by which the actual trade within the Island can be known; but it may be fairly presumed, that all the produce that is sold for exportation, and a portion of what is sold for home consumption, is brought to a weigh-bridge, of which there are four in the Island, in order that its weight may be ascertained. In 1836, there were 22,594 cart loads weighed:—supposing each to contain a ton and upwards, the quantity may be estimated at 23,000 tons, principally of apples and potatoes; but this does not furnish accurate information of the produce of those articles, as the potatoes used on the farm, or sold at the market, and the apples made into cider, and potatoes in the manufacture of spirit, are not included in this statement. The produce of the Island will be more particularly noticed in the chapter that treats of that subject.

Iron Foundries are of recent establishment in Jersey: at the present there are four in full operation; and the preparation of leather gives employment to five Tan-Yards. Bricks likewise, were not made on the Island till of very recent date. The actual quantity that is now made cannot be ascertained, as there is no excise to which they are subject, but the number exported in 1835 was upwards of 180,000: the constantly increasing buildings at St. Helier's must give full activity to this new island employment.

Flour was formerly imported into Jersey in large quantities, principally from England, as water and wind-mills were comparately few, and of course liable to constant interruption in their working: but since the discovery of steam power, it has been applied to the

grinding of corn in the Island, by which a constant supply can be produced; and importation is become unnecessary.*

It is not only in this instance that steam power has been so beneficial to the inhabitants of Jersey: its application to vessels has been of immense advantage to the internal trade of the Island, by bringing it virtually nearer to England, and thus facilitating their constant intercourse, and increasing the number of visitors to the Island: previous to 1823, when the first steam-boat came to Jersey,† a passage from Southampton of a week or even ten days was not a very unusual occurrence; it is now performed in fourteen or sixteen hours, allowing for a short detention in the road of Guernsey, to put on shore the passengers for that Island.

A discovery has lately been made, which may at a future time tend to increase the internal trade in an important branch of manufacture—that of Porcelain:—at Boulay-bay are some hills, which mostly consist of felspar in a decomposed state, which is the same substance as the *kaolin* of the Chinese, from which that article is manufactured.

Ship Building is another branch of island trade, which is greatly on the increase; in many parts at and near the harbour, is constantly to be heard the dock-yard sound

* There are reasons why steam-power has been applied to the grinding of corn here, more generally than in England. There are of course no rivers, and the quantity of running water, of sufficient power to work a mill, is comparatively small. No additional water or wind mills can be erected, according to an old feudal law still in existence, without permission of the council board in England.

† An amusing anecdote is told of a well-intentioned man, who, seeing a steamer for the first time from St. Brelade's parish, rode with all haste to St. Helier's, to report a vessel on fire, making towards the Island: but his fright was soon changed to astonishment, when he beheld her steadily pursue her course, and at last safely land her unterrified passengers in the harbour.

of caulking, and other processes used in the building and repairing of ships. To the lower price of carpenter's labour, to that of England, or even of Guernsey, is this in some measure, though not altogether, to be ascribed: although this may seemingly operate to the disadvantage of the Jersey workmen, compared to those of Guernsey, it is not really so: the price of labour may be lower, but the employment is more constant. To the builders themselves this is of signal advantage, for a Jersey built vessel can be launched at from 10 to 15 per cent. less in amount, than the same sized vessel built elsewhere—thus the ship owner reaps a benefit equally with the builder. In addition to this, the wages of seamen are lower in Jersey than in Guernsey, which gives another advantage to the ship owner over his neighbours in the carrying trade, whether on freight, or for himself as a merchant.

Another article of island trade is Shoes, and this to a somewhat considerable extent. A great number is exported to British North America; the quantity sent there, may be estimated at from 11,000 to 12,000 pair of shoes, and 1000 pair of boots annually; the price is about the same in appearance as those made in country towns in England, and sold in London; but labour being lower here than in England, it is to be presumed that they are of a superior workmanship, and so in reality cheaper.

The large quantity of knit-worsted Stockings, formerly made in the Island, has already been noticed: some are still made, though to a very small extent: the use of machinery in the making of this article in England, has caused the Jersey-made stockings to be confined to a limited home demand; the export not exceeding 1000 pair annually, and these for the use of persons on the fishing stations in British North America.

The peculiar export of the Island, and for which it is most noted, is that of Heifers and Cows: these are generally known in England as Alderney cows, but by far the larger proportion are sent from Jersey; Alderney furnishes but a very small number, and the Guernsey cow is of a different character. The peculiarity of the Jersey cow will be more particularly noticed in the Chapter on Agriculture.

The Oyster Fishery may be said to be a Jersey traffic, for many of the natives are engaged in it: the vessels assemble in Mont Orgueil harbour; which with its neighbourhood, during the season, presents a scene of amusing activity: men, women, and children, are seen in their several occupations, of filling baskets with oysters, carrying them, and loading the vessels.

This fishery is not only an important, but an antient branch of Jersey traffic: in the Archives of the Royal Court, there is a document, dated 1606, expressing a "conviction of the influence it possessed in promoting the welfare of the people;" it must therefore have grown up from a period considerably antierior to the above: in 1755, the States again passed laws, regulating its traffic, but the great increase in the trade, took place about the year 1797: previously to that time, it was conducted exclusively by Jersey fishermen; but the large quantity brought to England, attracted the notice of English speculators, who now participate in its advantages: in its most flourishing years it employed about 300 vessels, and 1500 men.

But the Island fishermen met with a more vexatious opposition from the French, which led to the issuing of an order in council by the English government in 1822, to protect British interests; and to a convention in 1824,

between both governments, by which each nation was to have the exclusive right of dredging for oysters, to the extent of one league from low-water mark, along their respective coasts; the intervening space, between Jersey and France, to be common to both: this convention has been ultimately prejudicial to the Island, from the interpretation which has been given to it, and upon which the French authorities now act; for the beds on which oysters are the most abundant, are, by their construction within the French limits: this, as may naturally be expected, has led to encroachment on the part of the English fishermen, sometimes ignorantly, sometimes wilfully, and on one or two occasions to sanguinary conflicts. The question still occupies the attention of the respective governments, and commissioners have been named by both, for the purpose of arranging the matter, and determining the limits, but as yet they have published no reports, and apparently have made but little progress.

Important as is the oyster fishery to the Islanders, it has during the last few years been on the decline: in 1833, there were exported 303,840 bushels of oysters, in 1834, 305,670, in 1805, only 149,865; this diminution, though partly owing to other causes, is in some measure occasioned by the successful opposition of the French. It is to be hoped, that in the final adjustment of the dispute, this will not be over-looked by the British government.

The States are however, unwilling to trust to this uncertain result: with a praiseworthy determination to secure their own interest, should they be disappointed of redress by government, they some years ago voted a sum of money for the laying down of new beds; and appointed an inspector for carrying the plan into effect: it is

now in operation, and promises well, for the spawn deposited has given birth to many new oysters, which are increasing, and in a thriving state: these new beds have just been thrown open to boats, which may now dredge there.

The oyster fishery commences on the 1st of September, and ends on the 1st of June, but its greatest activity is from February to May. The small oysters are those principally sought for by the merchants; for after being deposited in the Thames, in parks arranged for the purpose, they increase in size, and yield an additional profit. But the States have fixed a fine, to be levied on any person bringing on shore oysters of a less diameter than $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

The Lobster Fishery is another object, though a very unimportant one, in which the Islanders are engaged; this has however increased within a few years: in 1832, only 260 dozen were sent to London; in 1835, 1470 dozen.

L'industrie d'un nation n'est pas bornée par l'étendue de son territoire, mais bien par celle de ses capiteaux.

This remark of a French political economist, is indeed applicable to Jersey: its foreign Commerce far exceeds what might be expected from the size of the Island. The most important and beneficial branch is, the fisheries on the coast of British North America. It may naturally be expected that to the inhabitants of an island, fishing would form one of their principal occupations: this was the case at a very early period with respect to Jersey. The Conger-eel fishery is mentioned in the Charter granted to the Island by King John. A duty was levied on the export of Congers and Mackerel, which produced a revenue in the reign of

Edward the First, of 400 livres tournois, which in those days may be considered a large sum. The Congers were salted and sent to those countries with which Jersey at that time had any traffic: for this purpose the larger only were used; the smaller, such as could be spanned round with the hand, were not liable to any duty, and brought on shore for home consumption.

Although this fishery still exists to a limited extent, the consumption is principally confined to the country people; but as a trade it has been superseded by the Newfoundland Cod fishery. This began early in the 17th century, and it is by no means an improbable conjecture, that the Islanders were first induced to engage in it by the celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, who was governor of Jersey from the year 1600 to 1603: it is well known that he was a great advocate for the encouragement of the English fisheries, and wrote a pamphlet on the advantages which the Dutch derived from the occupation. In the reign of Charles the Second, twenty vessels were employed in the trade: during the war which succeeded the revolution, it was almost annihilated, but it afterwards revived; for in the year 1732 twenty-seven vessels were engaged in it, and in 1771 forty-five were dispatched to Newfoundland. The number of vessels now employed is between seventy and eighty, making a total tonnage of 8000 tons, and giving employment to about 1300 Jerseymen: these usually return to their agricultural labours in the autumn, and bring with them the means of maintaining their families during the winter.

The advantages of the Newfoundland fishery are not confined to the trade, simply considered, but it gives employment to a great number of persons in the making of clothes, boots and shoes, and to coopers and other artificers in the manufacture of barrels, tubs, and other articles

necessary to the trade, and to that of Brazil. Some idea will be formed of the advantages to home industry from the statement that upwards of 16,000 barrels, each containing 128lb. of cod fish, were shipped from Jersey to the Brazils alone, in the year 1835.

A sensible writer, in reference to the trade of Jersey, has made the following judicious remark :—" During the last war, privateering offered to capitalists of these Islands the hope of a speedy fortune, and indeed the privateers of the Channel Islands were very successful, and brought large sums to many persons who were interested in them; but when peace was proclaimed, several who had made a fortune, withdrew from business, especially in Guernsey, whose trade, not being established on sure or permanent ground, declined. The Newfoundland trade offered a substratum to our industry, and since the war, the profits to the principal merchants on each commercial transaction may have been less, but industry has increased, and with it our wealth, our commerce, and our prosperity."

The Island has a direct trade with Sweden and Norway for timber, which owing to the great increase of buildings, has of late years been considerable: the average annual importation for the last few years, has been above 1400 loads of fir, and about 500 loads of oak timber. The exports to that kingdom, which are trifling, consist principally of coffee and sugar, the produce of the Brazils.

From Russia are imported cordage, hemp, tallow, and linen. Wheat and barley are the principal articles from Prussia: the average annual importation of the former for the last three years was 15,000 quarters, and of the latter somewhat more than 1500 quarters. Denmark also supplies the Island with grain, which, added to the former

quantity, would make the importation of wheat to be about 20,000 quarters annually, and of barley about 2000. Timber and grain are also brought from Hamburgh, but not in any great quantities. Salt provisions and flour are imported from the two latter countries.

The principal articles supplied to these countries are coffee and sugar, mostly shipped immediately from the Brazils.

With Holland the trade is considerable, consisting in the importation from that country of geneva, cheese, hoops, and tiles. The quantity of geneva imported into the Island depends in a great measure on the price of brandy; but it averages 45,000 gallons annually. The exports to Holland are the same as to the other kingdoms of the continent, above alluded to.

The imports from Spain and Portugal are wine, brandy, fruit and salt. Wine and brandy are also imported from Sicily. The average annual importation of the three kingdoms is about 70,000 gallons of wine, and considerably more than 100,000 gallons of brandy. The Island is principally supplied with oranges and lemons from Sicily.

At Honduras the Jersey merchants have two establishments in the mahogany trade, which employ five ships, together of upwards of 1400 tons burthen. The mahogany is mostly sent to England: the Island consumption is not large. The exports to Honduras are flour, potatoes, printed cotton, linen, stockings, and geneva, but only a small quantity of each.

The trade to the Brazils is not only considerable, but very important: that country consumes a great quantity of the fish, furnished by the Jersey trade, and supplies the Island in return with sugar and coffee, a portion of which, as has already been observed, is sent to the continent in

exchange for its timber and corn. This trade alone employs twenty vessels of a total of about 4000 tons. The annual import is about 600 tons of sugar, and upwards of 600,000 lbs. of coffee. The quantity varies annually, through a variety of causes; for sometimes it may be more convenient to a merchant to land a cargo, and send a part in another vessel to the north, or even the whole, if he require his vessel to proceed forthwith on another voyage; or the season may be too late for a ship to proceed, and the cargo is stored for the winter, till the navigation with the northern ports is open.

The trade with France, compared to that of England, is not great, and the exports very inconsiderable; they consist principally of coals, bricks, and potatoes: French wines, brandies and live stock, form the principal articles of import; an average of three years would give about 70,000 gallons of the former, 50,000 gallons of the latter, and about 2,500 head of oxen; fruit also is supplied from France; a few thousand yards of linen and cotton are annually brought over, probably more on account of the superior taste which the French display in their patterns, than from any advantage in quality or price: muslins and silks are also articles of import. French pottery is much esteemed in Jersey, and a considerable quantity is brought to the Island, which is considered preferable to the English for the use of the dairy, though stoneware and red-pottery are mostly brought from England.

The trade with England need scarcely be specified: it supplies a large proportion of the Island consumption—whether raised from her soil or formed by her industry—coals, iron, sail-cloth, hardware, every article to be made up for clothing; indeed England is the general merchant that sells to Jersey. The supply from France, with

the exception of wine, brandy and live stock is rather incidental than otherwise: the average importation of coals is about 20,000 tons, of which a few tons are reshipped for France.

THE SHIPPING TRADE will next engage the reader's attention. Jersey, like its sister port of Southampton, has known its ebbs and flows of prosperity. It should seem that at an early period of English history Jersey employed a greater number of ships in its general trade, than at some subsequent time. In the year 1301, when Edward the First was preparing for the invasion of Scotland, the two Islands were required to furnish 10 vessels;*—a large proportion, considering the smallness of the Islands.

The general trade certainly afterwards declined, and this of course affected the shipping: the cause of this declension is not known, and probably there are at present no means of tracing it; very little is known of the trade of the Islands, previously to the reign of James the First, during which the cod fishery was established, in which the Islanders took an immediate and an active part. Jersey and the neighbouring Islands had, however, a peculiar privilege, from an early age, of being considered neutral in time of war: † this remarkable privilege must have been of great advantage to the belligerents, and especially to the Islanders; but the discovery of America, and the cod fishery established on

* The reader need scarcely be informed, that before the time of Henry the 7th, there was no royal navy; but the sea-ports were required to furnish to the State a certain number of ships, according to their ability.

† See a subsequent chapter on "Antient Privileges."

the banks of Newfoundland, presented to their enterprise an object more substantial and enduring, and seemed to call forth their commercial spirit and activity.

The trade of the Island was originally carried on at Gorey, under the protection of Mont Orgueil Castle; it was afterwards removed to St. Aubin; as we find an order in council, directed to the inhabitants in the reign of Edward the Sixth, directing them to raise money "for the speedy reenforcing of the bulwarkes of St. Albons," in order to protect the harbour: this appears to have been enlarged, or probably rebuilt, during the reign of Charles the Second, by whom an order was issued for levying a duty on spirits for the purpose; at this time the inhabitants of St. Helier commonly used during summer, a small pier near the sally-port of Elizabeth Castle, and probably built for the sole convenience of that fortress, but being nearer to the town, they were allowed the privilege of using it. The first pier at St. Helier was erected about the middle of the last century: it was very small and inconvenient, which caused the erection of the present harbour, the first stone of which was laid in 1790; about the same time, or soon after, the inhabitants of St. Aubin caused a new pier to be erected near that town, but by far the principal trade is now carried on at St. Helier.*

That a state of peace is advantageous to Jersey, is fully proved by the following statement, which will not be uninteresting to the commercial or inquisitive reader. The Island possessed

* The trade of Jersey has so increased since the peace, that the present pier, large as it is, is not capable of accommodating all the vessels to unload, and a plan is on foot, either to enlarge the present, or build a new one.

In 1807	76 vessels	6655 tons
„ 1817	79 „	8167 „
„ 1827	182 „	16583 „
„ 1837	244 „	23826 „*

The harbour dues are not heavy. There was formerly a difference between English and foreign vessels in the amount paid, but this has lately been equalized, and all now pay 6*d.* per ton; if vessels make six voyages in the year, they pay only 4*d.* per ton: the total average amount of harbour dues, received at St. Helier, is about £2000 per annum.

It has been observed that vessels are built in Jersey at a lower rate than in Guernsey and in the ports in England. The Island has another advantage in the case of insurance: Jersey vessels are usually insured at a lower premium than those of the United Kingdom, at least the underwriters prefer taking them: this may be accounted for from the high reputation which the masters and crews have for carefulness and general steadiness of character.

Jersey has not only several privileges, but she has also many immunities;—besides exemption from all taxes

* The relative shipping trade of Jersey to that of other ports in the United Kingdom, will be seen by the the following number of vessels belonging to each port, at a period intervening between 1827 and 1837, and which shews what a large proportion belongs to the Island: it will also be observed that the average tonnage ranks high:—

London	2669 vessels	565174 tons.
Liverpool	853 „	166028 „
Hull	557 „	68892 „
Greenock	367 „	37791 „
Aberdeen	355 „	41671 „
Dublin	299 „	22972 „
Bristol	296 „	46567 „
Cork	275 „	18019 „
Belfast	255 „	25151 „
Glasgow	241 „	41532 „
Jersey.....	216 „	20250 „

imposed by the Imperial Parliament, she is allowed to import all her own produce, duty free, into the ports of Great Britain, and this privilege extends even to her manufactures, if made of the island produce: to the colonies of British North America she has the privilege of sending not only her own produce, but manufactures also, although made from the produce of other countries. Jersey vessels have also the advantage of a British register.

It is no small advantage to the visiter that his bags and baggage are not subject to Custom House examination. He lands himself on his arrival in the Island, and takes all that pertains to him to his hotel or lodging, without difficulty or detention; he departs, takes with him whatever he pleases of wine, brandy, or cigars, and no enquiry,—the punishment for what is wrong awaits him on the other side the water. The masters of vessels partake also of these privileges, for they may, after having made their entry at the Custom House, unload as soon as they have a berth assigned them; as the Manifest Act has not been registered in the Island, it is of no force here.

The system of BANKING in the Channel Islands is of a mixed, and of a very anomalous character; indeed it can scarcely be said to be founded on any system at all. In Guernsey, the States issue notes to the value of one pound, and these constitute about half the currency of the Island: although, in Jersey, the States do not contribute to the paper currency, yet some of the parishes issue their notes for the payment of demands on them. Besides the regular banking companies, of which there are several, individuals not unfrequently issue notes for the payment of private debts, or as a means of raising capital, without having to pay interest: it need scarcely be observed, that

this kind of paper has not much of the public confidence ; it has, however, a quick circulation for a time : persons holding notes of this description, prefer making their first payments in them, as being the least secure. The issue of the regular bankers were formerly in one pound notes, Jersey currency, and payable on demand ; but since the law, passed in 1835, establishing English money as the legal tender, the notes issued by the banks are of one pound British sterling.

The great circulation of paper currency in Jersey, giving great facility for discounts, has led to speculations of a hazardous and unwarrantable extent ; these causing losses to the speculators themselves, and consequently very often to the bankers, have had an injurious effect on the monied interest of the Island : the bankers perceiving the effects of their over-issues, connected with other circumstances, have contracted them, and thus left the circulation to be chiefly supplied by an inferior kind of paper, or by the metallic currency, which is by no means equal to the demand.

The metallic currency of the Island was in French money, mostly in livres, pieces of ten sous, or in pieces of six livres, until 1832, when the French government called in its old silver coin ; since which time English sovereigns and silver have mostly circulated in Jersey. The exchange varies from 8 to 9 per cent. in favour of England, so that an English shilling passes for thirteen pence, and a sovereign for twenty-one shillings and eight pence Jersey currency.

It is uncertain whether there were formerly in Jersey any establishments that might be termed **MANUFACTORIES** ; though several articles were made there, as they are still, in the houses of private persons.

The earliest account that we have of Jersey manufacture is that of a kind of body coat made of hemp or flax, which were then grown on the Island: these coats were sent to England in large quantities; the same account informs us that at that time the manufacture of knit stockings was so extensive, that 10,000 pair were weekly sent to France;* this seems to be an almost incredible quantity, notwithstanding that women and even children were constantly employed in knitting; and even making a large allowance for the circumstance, that it was unusual to see a woman in the country, whether in the house or walking, without plying the knitting needle, and even on horseback, while bringing the farm produce to market. The introduction of machinery in England, which has reduced the price of stockings, and other engagements employing the female population of the Island, has greatly diminished this, though it is still continued, but principally for the consumption of the inhabitants.

The increased demand for articles which were formerly brought from England, has led to the establishment of various manufactories; so that there are now Ropemakers, Brewers, Brickmakers, Tanners, Soapboilers, Candlemakers, Ironfounders, and Distillers; but their business is not of an extent to require particular notice.

—See Appendix—

* This statement was made by the writer alluded to in the text, before the time of Mr. Falle: it was adopted by him, and by every person who has since written on the Island, but it seems incorrectly, as such a large quantity would consume more wool than was allowed to be imported: 6000 pair would probably be a more correct estimate.—See new edition of *Falle's History*, by the Rev. E. Durell, note 114.

CHAPTER V.

Agriculture, Soil and Fertility, Produce, Climate, and Air.

AGRICULTURE is a subject on which much cannot now be said in praise of Jersey, whatever may be anticipated: if its credit depended on the good management of the farms, whether in the succession of crops, or mode of tillage, it would not rank so high as it does in other respects. It has been said in vindication of Jersey farming, that the method adopted is best suited to the place and the nature of the soil; this may be very well as an excuse, but nothing can palliate the unsightly appearance that many of the fields present, so luxuriantly covered with weeds, which, as a person once jocosely observed, may be considered "a Jersey crop." The true reason we apprehend is to be found in the system of economy that pervades all the operations of a Jerseyman, and the small number of agricultural labourers that are employed: it is the practice of the Jersey farmers to assist each other in their labours rather than hire, which it is very obvious is by no means favourable to good farming, as delay must frequently occur at a time when expedition may be very important. These remarks do not altogether apply to the large estates cultivated by the proprietors, nor is the censure universally directed to them or to their farms, for they are not governed by the circumstances which have been stated as productive of the evil.

A Jerseyman has not the becoming pride of an English farmer in the appearance of his horses and harness; these appear to him to be altogether a matter of perfect indifference; even those who rank higher in life, and whose practice in other respects is more like the English, pay but little regard to this: it is a subject of surprise, and perhaps it is to be lamented, as it leaves an impression on the mind of a visitor unfavourable to the Island.

However the existing state of things proves the correctness of the above remarks, there is good reason to suppose that a foundation has been laid for improvement. An "Agricultural and Horticultural Society" has been formed in the Island, which in 1837 published its Fourth Annual Report, in which her Majesty's name stands at the head as Patron: this report states that a great improvement has taken place since the formation of the Society.—" Stimulated by the example of their more energetic neighbours, the indolent have been roused from their lethargy, and induced to take an interest in the beautiful and ornamental, as well as the necessary and lucrative productions of nature":* this, at so early a period from the commencement of their operations, is favourable, and presents a fair prospect that the results will be equal to their expectations, and which the nature of the soil fully warrants.

That the Society is flourishing is seen by the circumstance that in the May show of 1836, 71 head of cattle were presented, 153 in 1837, and 244 in 1838, and the arrangement which is making to improve the breed of cows will secure a continuance of the high character which they have in England. It must not be left unnoticed that much of the benefit which is anticipated by the

* Report.

Society is to be ascribed to the exertions and example of Col. Le Couteur, the honorary secretary.

In the horticultural department likewise the Island is making rapid advances: some of the orchards and gardens of the peasantry begin to assume an appearance of neatness and good order, which formerly was no where thought of, and there cannot be a doubt that in this respect the Society will extend its beneficial influence over the whole Island, and it may, like the Isle of Wight, become another 'garden of England.' "The last monthly show especially was remarkable for its classification and its botanical accuracy: indeed many of the flowers, and garden productions generally, would have been objects of admiration, even in the exhibitions of the parent Society of London."*

Exertions are also making by the Society to restore another island produce, which formerly was made to a considerable extent, and which is still highly esteemed in London—Jersey honey. Prizes have been offered to the cottagers as an encouragement to keep bees. It may, however, require time to induce the Islanders to return to a practice which they may suppose to have been discontinued, because unprofitable: this, however, if entertained, is an erroneous opinion, for it is justly observed that there is "no branch of rural economy, which involves so little expense, and secures so large a profit."†

From what has been observed as to the general character of Jersey farming, it will be understood that the rotation of crops is not much considered; that which yields the best immediate profit is the principal object: and there may be some reason in this, if the *vraic*, with which the land is dressed, imparts to it a larger portion of vivifying properties than is be found in either chalk or marl.

* Report.

† Idem.

Notwithstanding these disadvantages, arising from a want of scientific management of farms, yet the Island is certainly very productive. One reason has just been noticed; the quality of the soil is another, a third is the great inequality of the surface, and the very large proportion of the declivity having a southern aspect, which receives more directly the rays of the sun.*

The soil of Jersey is, necessarily, very variable, from the unevenness of its surface. The whole Island is a huge stony mass, the elevated parts of which are often but slightly covered with a gritty substance, composed of the detritus of rock, and of sea-sand, amalgamated with decayed vegetables. On the contrary, the valleys have a great depth of alluvial matter, washed down by violent rains, from the steep declivities of those slopes, called *coteaux*, by which the rivulets are straitened in their course. These valleys, where not swampy, are extremely fertile, and all might be drained, and rendered highly productive. The general depth of soil is from one to four feet, but in the valleys from ten to twelve feet of vegetable earth is sometimes found.

An exception must, however, be made to a large tract of land, called *Les Quenvais*, or *Quenvés*, in the S. W. corner of the Island. This district is now a mere assemblage of sandy hillocks, which, in several places, rise one hundred feet above the level of the shore, and scarcely afford nourishment to some scattered plants, and a few meagre blades of spiry grass. It is completely open to the western gales, to which must be attributed the clouds of sand from St. Ouen's bay, which have been drifted over

* One of the Reports expresses a hope that by the superior management of the farms, Jersey may supply England with seed-wheat to a much greater extent than at present.

that devoted part of the country, and the sterility is thus produced.

A remarkable inundation took place towards the close of the 15th century,* and so desolating were its effects that a rich vale in this quarter of the Island, became a desert: this was wholly, or in part, an extensive wood; which, while it remained, sheltered the more inland part. That defence thrown down, the wind had full power over the adjacent country: and the sand, which, since the inundation, continued to cover Les Quenvais, may be a portion of the very soil in which the forest grew; for St. Ouen's bay is, in a manner, paved with flat rocks to a considerable way in the sea, beyond low-water mark. These had, doubtless, a superstratum of excellent soil: the number of trees, that are at times discovered, with their roots still penetrating the fissures of the rocks, and thus clinging to them, prove the fact.

The soil of Jersey is, in general, good, although it is not of the rich loamy character, found in some counties in England; it will, however, bear the character of a sandy loam; but, aided by the mildness of the climate, it is very productive. Another reason of its fertility is the unctuous nature of the manure that is used in the Island. This is the *Vraic*† already noticed, and it will be necessary to be somewhat particular on this marine production: we cannot give a better account of it, both of its nature and properties, than is to be found in the

* The general opinion is here adopted: the Rev. E. Durell supposes it to have taken place at a much earlier period. See his Notes, 70, 97, and 98.

† It was the opinion of Sir John Sinclair, that sea-weed used as a manure, ploughed in, preserved wheat from mildew, and was otherwise most propitious to its growth. It is generally admitted that salt water sprinkled on grass makes it both sweet and more abundant. *Vraic* used as a top dressing must have the same effect.

MS. already quoted: the mode of collecting it will be detailed elsewhere. After describing the rocks, the writer observes, "These rocks, though they are bare of earthy matter, and cleane washed by the continual beating of the sea, produce a weed, called by the inhabitants *Vraic*, and in antient records *Veriscum*. This weed groweth there as thick as grasse in a meadowe, and much more, especially in moiste years, which is an argument that the rain, as well as the sea, contributes to its growthe. There are two kinds of it, ye round and ye flat leaf'd: the first is more dry, and approaching the nature of wood, and therefore it is used for firing, and maketh as hot a fire as that which is made of sea coales, but not so lasting: after it is burnt, the ashes of it serve for an excellent manure for the ground, to produce either corne or grasse, for if you sowe it on your grasse about Christmas, or rather before, you shall easily discover in the spring, the place where it fell from the other where there was none. The same ashes are used for makeing soape. . . The other kind of flat leaf'd *Vraic* is more slimye and fatter than the former, and rotteth easily, imbibes into the ground, and keeps it fresh and moist during the heat of summer, and soe is more propitious to corne and other seedes, yea, to plantes also, as is demonstrable by experience, the surest argument. . . This sort is of more account with the Islanders, because it serves of manure for half the Island at least; therefore, in the gathering thereof, no anticipation is tolerated; nor is it ever, by antient tradition, permitted to be cut in the moneth of January, without urgent necessity, nor protracted beyond the first of February, and the permission lastest till St. George's Day; during which time there is a perfect truce from ordinary lawe-suites,

but not for those quarrels, which the communion of that weede produceth."*

It should not be left unnoticed that this is a most beneficent provision, as the Island produces neither chalk, limestone, nor marle; and as the supply of stable manure is small, the land could receive but little improvement without it.†

Vraic is collected in large quantities, and at no other expense than that of labour; and as the distance of conveying it, even to the centre of the Island, is short, it is used, as may be supposed, with no sparing hand: the land has thus a good dressing, and more frequently than in England—this is the main cause of the productiveness of the land in Jersey. It will not be necessary to enter into the question, whether large or small farms are the more productive, whether the rich man's capital, or "the farmer's foot," which some say "is the best manure," tends to the greater profit, but it is certain that the same quantity of land is cultivated at a less expense in Jersey than in England; a Jerseyman works more hours in a day than an English farmer, whose farm is too small to allow much labour to be on hire, and perhaps it may be said is more laborious while at work: although this may not cause the land to be more productive, it causes the profit to be greater, which, added to the frugality that is observable on a Jersey farm, yields a larger surplus than an English farm of the same extent could supply. The value and rent of land, which are always in a measure regulated by its produce, are certainly high in Jersey: this proves that a Jersey farm yields a large profit, and accounts

* MS., 1682.

† This was formerly so little esteemed that the farmer paid for removing it; this however is no longer the case.

for what would otherwise be considered an exorbitant price; the value of an acre of land is from £120 to £160, according to its proximity to or distance from the town, and the rents from £5 10*s.* to £6 15*s.* per acre: nothing but great produce, and much labour at a small expense, could bear such an enormous rental. There is not however much land on rent; a Jerseyman is generally the cultivator of his own property, descended to him from his ancestors, and perhaps through many generations.

In the neighbourhood of the town of St. Helier there is found an earth capable of being made into bricks, though not of a superior quality: it is however used for the purpose, as has been already observed in the preceding chapter.

From what has been observed of the population of the Island, compared with its extent, it cannot be supposed to produce sufficient for its consumption. It has already been noticed that it is mostly supplied with grain from the Baltic; France principally supplies it with live stock. The following statements will at once show the large quantity that is needed for its support, besides what the Island produces, and the increased demand occasioned by an increasing population. There was brought into the Island, and mostly from France,—

	<i>Oxen.</i>	<i>Sheep.</i>	<i>Lambs.</i>	<i>Live Poultry.</i>
1830....	1947	4207	709	14344
1836....	2784	6602	1243	28821

It should here be observed, that although Jersey is principally supplied both with grain and cattle by the foreigner, it is not to the injury of the Jersey producer, and much to the advantage of the consumer, for both are imported

at a lower rate than they could be produced; and the Jersey farmer is left to employ his time and his capital in a way more profitable to himself: this leads to the subject of the actual produce of the Island; Cider, Cows, Potatoes, and Butter are the chief products and articles of trade, as they are all exported, and in large quantities.

There are no means of ascertaining the actual quantity of Cider made on the Island, but it must be very great, as it is the principal beverage of the middle and lower classes: the farmers are not very particular in assorting their fruit, but allow a mixture of different kinds, and are not sufficiently careful in rejecting such as are damaged: the result is, of course, an inferior article,* but this is mostly consumed on the Island: the better kind is sent to England: upwards of 2,000 hogsheads are annually exported. It is supposed that one fourth of the cultivated land in Jersey is employed as orchards.

The English reader need scarcely be told in what great estimation the Jersey Cows and Heifers are held. They are better known in England as Alderney cows, but they are mostly sent from Jersey—the former island exports comparatively few;—they are, however, of a similar character. The Guernsey Cow, though good of its kind, is altogether a different animal. The Jersey Cow is small and slender in its make, with short horns; the Guernsey is larger, more like a cross between the small short-horned Devonshire and Holderness: the former gives by far the richer milk, the latter the larger quantity.

A large portion of the Island is devoted to the growth of Potatoes, and the soil seems well adapted to it. It is calculated that a vergée will produce 360 cabots, which

* It would not be unworthy the exertions of the Agricultural Society, to endeavour to improve the quality of Jersey cider.

is equal to about 200 sacks, or 14 English tons; it must be admitted that this is a very high estimate, and it may well be questioned if any one county in England, taking an average of the whole county, produces so large a quantity; but the fact that 8,000 tons are annually sent to England, proves that the produce must be very great.

From what has been observed of the character of the Jersey cow, it will be supposed that a large quantity of Butter is made, and as the economical habits of a Jersey farmer do not allow him to indulge much in this luxury, it is mostly sent to the town market for sale, or exported to England. It is in general very good: in 1830 there were upwards of 25,000lbs. sent to England: this quantity has since decreased, owing to the larger consumption in the Island.

Jersey certainly produces Wheat, Barley, and Oats, but not in large quantities; it is found more profitable to import these, and devote the land to other purposes. Jersey wheat is lighter than that of England in the proportion of 52: 13 to 62, but the average quantity per acre is greater.

Jersey produces, besides farinaceous grain, all the various edible roots, and other vegetable substances, that are usually reared in England. Mangel-wurzel has been introduced into the Island, and its culture of late much increased, with considerable advantage to the Island, considering its great produce, and its estimable properties in the feeding of cattle. Peas and beans are very little cultivated.

The quantity of grass cut for Hay is inconsiderable: the rearing of Cows is so great an object to the Jersey farmer that the meadow land is mostly reserved for pasturage.

Lucerne is grown in considerable quantity, and for this

the island soil seems well adapted: it is generally cut green and given to the cattle. Where the land has been well cultivated, it is sometimes cut four times, and afterwards fed off. Very few other artificial grasses are sown. Although the system of tethering is not peculiar to the Island, yet it is universally adopted in it, and with great advantage as a saving of pasturage. An unsuccessful attempt has been made to rear hops; from the nature of the soil it would probably succeed, but the heavy gales of wind, to which the Island is subject, are by no means favourable to a hop plantation.

The small surface of the Island does not allow of any large plantations of timber Trees, yet it is by no means deficient in wood: the trees mostly grow in hedge rows, although there are a few small enclosures. The Island produces most kind of fruit trees. Small fields requiring exposure to the sun, farmers are obliged to lop the wide spreading branches so close as almost to reduce the trees to pollards, and the few trees that are allowed to grow to a state of timber, are usually cut before they have arrived at large dimensions. On the slopes, or *coteaux*, trees are also to be seen, and they yield likewise broom, gorse, and fern: where they are neither too steep, nor too rocky, there is tolerable pasture.

Among the wild plants that appear to be indigenous, we may particularize as of most utility, the *Rubia tinctoria*, (madder,) *Luteola*, (weld,) single chamomile, gorse, broom, fern, and heath, with an extensive variety of aromatic herbs. There also morels, common mushrooms, and the smaller kind, also called *Champignons* by the French. Laver and samphire are found, through chiefly on the northern coasts: the former is a marine production, of which little use is made in Jersey. Among the danger-

ous though medicinal species, those most numerous are the *Digitalis*, (foxglove,) *Thymæla*, (spurge,) and the common nightshade.

Private gardens yield every natural luxury that the climate can produce; and from this source the market is principally supplied. The peach apricot is remarkable for its size and beauty. Melons are in profusion, and strawberries have been noticed for superiority of flavour. Of winter fruits the *Pearmain* is here a very good eating apple, and reckoned to keep longer than almost any other. But the pride of this Island is the *Chaumantelle*, which is a pear sometimes nearly a pound in weight. This delicious fruit frequently sells on the spot for five guineas per hundred, and is sent to English friends as a choice present. The *Colmar*, though in less general estimation, is by many considered as even a superior kind. Both these species keep for several months; but they require great care and almost daily attention.

Formerly, when a very considerable quantity both of mead and perry was made in the Island, Bees were a particular object of attention; from the honey were made two kinds of mead, called *Vittoe* and *Boschet*, and so strong was the former, that when any one in his libations had exceeded the bounds of moderation, the taunt was "*vous êtes envittoé*:" but a comparatively small quantity of either of these is now made, although the Jersey honey is still in high estimation in the English market; and if the Islanders adopt the suggestion of the Agricultural Society, it may yet be an important article of Jersey produce, and profitable trade.

In the MS. account of Jersey, it is stated that hemp and flax were formerly grown and dressed in the Island; during the time that these were cultivated tillage declined, as

“ a painful occupation.” The Islanders have, however, become more industrious, and are now willing to endure the pain of cultivating their land, for the sake of the profit it affords them.

From the trifling difference between the latitude of Jersey and that of the southern coast of England, and from its proximity to the continent, by which it is embraced on three sides, an Englishman would not be led to expect any great variation between the climate of Jersey and that of his own country. There is, however, a sensible difference, particularly with respect to the season of winter, for the climate of islands is always more temperate than that of continents in the same parallel. Frost is rarely of any continuance: snow seldom lies more than two or three days on the ground; and shrubs that require to be sheltered, even in Devonshire and Cornwall, are here exposed without any covering, and seldom receive much injury. We see also carnations, pinks, and other spring flowers, blowing, during winter, in the open air, if in a favourable aspect; and, with a little shelter, even the Chinese rose. Rains are indeed more frequent in the Island: fogs, that rise from the sea and spread themselves over the land, are not uncommon; and Jersey is subject to boisterous gales of wind, especially from the western quarter, from whence it blows more frequently than from any other point of the compass. The weather is, occasionally, very warm in summer; but that oppressive sultriness, sometimes experienced in England, and on the continent, in hot summers, is seldom felt.

This nearer approach to equability of temperature, is the natural consequence of Jersey being completely open, on one side, to the Atlantic ocean, and to its com-

parative minuteness, whereby every part receives a portion of the vapours exhaled from that immense body of water.

In the latter part of the spring a keen easterly wind prevails, usually, for some time: this is remarkably penetrating to delicate constitutions; but on the whole, the climate may be considered mild, and the air very salubrious. Agues are, indeed, not uncommon in the few swampy parts; and it must be admitted that pulmonic complaints are not unfrequent; these last chiefly attack young persons, and they may in some measure be attributed to causes which have not any reference whatever to climate, but rather to the want of attention in the clothing during the variable season of spring. Bilious affections are likewise prevalent, particularly in the summer season. Perhaps, however, no part of Europe can furnish more instances of vigorous longevity.

It will be interesting to the reader who may seek particular information on this subject, to give some extracts from a work, written by Dr. Hooper, on the topography, climate, and prevalent diseases of the Island. The work is the result of many years minute observation on the subject, and careful registration of the facts as they occurred.

On the Climate Dr. Hooper observes—

“ The island of Jersey, from its situation and small extent, enjoys a remarkably mild climate; so mild, indeed, that with regard to temperature simply, it will be found superior to most neighbouring places, and equal to many in more southern latitudes.

“ From observations continued during five successive years, it has appeared that the mean temperature of St. Helier averages at 53° 06. In the same lapse of time the entire range of the mercury in the thermometer was 26°, the two extremes being 88. and 62°,

Atmospheric heat, averaged on the whole month, arrives at its maximum in August, and is at the lowest level in January; arranged according to their mean temperature, the months stand thus, 1 August, 2 July, 3 June, 4 September, 5 May, 6 October, 7 April, 8 November, 6 March, 10 December, 11 February, 12 January."

Jersey according to Dr. Hooper's opinion approximates, in respect of climate, more nearly to Penzance than to any other of the mild situations on the south of England.

"The progression to temperature through the months from one extreme to the other, appears more gradual in Jersey than at the other Islands, and the variations being decidedly less in the spring than in the autumn; the difference is however of trifling importance, compared with those which exist between the two localities with regard to equality of temperature. In this point of view, Jersey lays claim to a superiority, which undoubtedly more than counterbalances its disadvantages in other respects. Its climate in winter is singularly favourable, and fully proves the correctness of Dr. Young's conclusion, that for equality of temperature, a very small island must have great advantages over every other situation on shore."

In the following remarks, which describe generally the character of the climate during different seasons of the year, will also be found some useful hints, worthy the attention of the visitor, and especially the invalid—

"The Island enjoys an early spring and a lengthened autumn; vegetation being usually active and forward in March, and the landscape far from naked as late as the end of December. The dreary aspect of winter is comparatively short-lived, but the season of spring is marked by the same unsteadiness of temperature, and harsh variable weather, as in most spots under a similar latitude; and this disadvantage is particularly felt in May, which often fails to bring with it the expected enjoyments. Generally speaking,

our March is mild, compared with what it is in neighbouring places: October possesses a still greater superiority in the same respect; consequently the genial qualities of the climate may be made available to the invalid, to whose case they are applicable, during a period of six months. In diseases which require the avoidance of great ranges and variations of temperature, the objectionable qualities of the months of April and May, though in a certain degree tempered by the causes which mitigate the severity of our winter, are nevertheless such as to call for great care in the use of exercise in the open air. To those who quit warm clothing, or in any other way relax in their precautions against the effect of cold by anticipation, these months too often prove very dangerous. Bating this circumstance, a securer spot could scarce be found by a numerous class of English invalids within a much greater distance from their home. The summer is generally and always comparatively dry and cool, restricting, of course, the meaning of the words to the quantity of rain and the mitigating influence of the surrounding ocean upon the power of the sun's rays. The winter, however, is the season, which of all others contributes the most to the peculiarities of the climate; with rare exceptions, it passes off in soft, rainy, or windy weather, with intervals of astonishingly mild days, and with scarcely any frost or snow."

"By reason of the mildness, trifling range, and variations of temperature, chronic disorders proceed slowly towards their termination; a circumstance of no mean import, since by allowing more time for the operations of nature and of art, it adds to the chances of recovery, in cases not absolutely hopeless.*

—See Appendix.—

* It will not be expected in a work of this kind, to treat of the Pathology of the Island; but to the medical student, who may desire information on the subject, a perusal of Dr. Hooper's work is strongly recommended: it is entitled "Observations on the Topography, Climate, and prevalent Diseases of the Island of Jersey, by George S. Hooper, M. D.

CHAPTER VI.

Mineralogy.

THIS Chapter on the Mineralogy of Jersey was originally written by Mr. Plees, whose work is alluded to in the preface: his taste and knowledge of the subject rendered him peculiarly qualified; and Mr. König, of the British Museum, whose valuable contribution is acknowledged in the original work, has lately revised the whole: it is therefore presumed that it will prove an interesting chapter to the scientific reader.

IN the accounts of Jersey that have been published the subject of mineralogy has been scarcely noticed. Dr. Mac Culloch* was the first who made it an object of scientific inquiry; but he did not enter minutely into the geological character of the Island. Sercq appears to have more particularly engaged his attention. From his account of the rocks that are dispersed throughout St. Michael's bay, there is reason for supposing that Jersey, and all the other Islands in the same quarter, are composed of secondary rocks, resting on a basis of real granite. This primitive mass, though not found in its strict form in Jersey, exists in some of these Islands: indeed each of them exhibits various stony substances, that are not common to the rest: this, in so circumscribed a dis-

* See Trans. of the Geolog. Soc. vol. i.

tract as St. Michael's bay, is a curious and unusual circumstance, especially if connected with the idea that the whole was, probably, a part of the continent itself. Thus, in Jersey, no rocks of steatite have been observed, though along the northern and north-eastern shores innumerable small portions are found. This exists in Sercq; and as the tide, at its outset, rushes from thence to Jersey, detached pieces are probably carried thither, broken still more in their passage through the Pierres de Lecq, and the Dirouilles. Gneiss is found in Guernsey, but not in Jersey. Though Sercq contains a diversified assortment of mineral substances, it is deficient in sienite, which granitic variety may be traced in almost every quarter of Jersey. Those remarkable pudding-stone masses, that form the lofty north-eastern boundary of the latter, do not exist in any of the other Islands.

Dr. Mac Culloch, speaking of Jersey, says that, in a general view, the whole of the high and northern tract may be said to consist of granitic rock, and the southern and flatter part of a mass of schistus, incumbent on it. He mentions a pudding-stone rock, of argillaceous breccia, consisting of large and small scraps of schistus, cemented by a basis of the same nature, but having lost its tendency to a schistose fracture, and occupying the whole of Boulay bay, from Rosel to Belle Hougue; Dr. Mac Culloch does not however give the full extent to the rock, as it rises in St. Catherine's bay, of which it constitutes the northern boundary; nor does he distinguish between this rock and another, nearly similar in quality, connected with it, which runs inland.* These deficiencies must be imputed to the short space of time in which his observations were made.

* See Mr. König's account, subjoined.

The rock described by Dr. Mac Culloch is unfit for building, not being able to sustain any considerable pressure, when applied to detached pieces; the indurated cement, though in a petrified state, is not, in all places, very strongly attached to the stony nucleus of which it forms the matrix: many of the pebbles, on receiving a slight stroke, fall out, and disclose a polished cavity, as if composed of fine clay: others indeed break in thus attempting to remove them from their sockets. Some persons assert that they have seen, in this adventitious fossil, the shells of limpets; but, on diligent search, the author of this work could not discover any marine exuviae whatever.

That this concrete was once in a soft state cannot be doubted: some of the stones seem to have been rounded by attrition, like those on the border of the Black Sea, mentioned by Dr. E. D. Clarke; others do not present this appearance; and some are angular. The rock resembles, in several respects, the celebrated English pudding stone, which Pinkerton supposes not to exist in any other part of the world.

The interior of the pebbles is generally of a dull colour, and some have externally a white crust like that of flints. They are not in strata, as if deposited at various times, or as if composed of substances differing in density; but form one compact aggregate. As this combination spreads inland, it becomes less pebbly, and the petrified gluten or cement more friable, until, by degrees, the whole disappears, and is lost in other earthy commixtures.

Dr. Mac Culloch says, that no metallic traces, except of iron, and lately of manganese, have ever been observed in Jersey; and that the schistus, though spread wide

over the Island, has not hitherto afforded any roofing. Ochres of various hues, particularly those of a reddish cast, are found in many places; and, near Rosel, the author observed some specimens of fine tripoly.

That there is not any appearance of lime has been noticed by every one; and yet at a spot called English harbour, within the pier at St. Helier, are many flints both black and grey.* This stone is frequently present in gravel, and perhaps always in chalk; yet neither of these substances is to be found in Jersey; the only substitute for the former being particles of sienite, in a disintegrated state, from the decomposition of its feldspar: but though pure lime does not seem to hold a place in the geological department of Jersey, the author has found it combined with other substances, in strata, blended with clay or alumine, and also with silex. He has likewise found veins of gypsum. Though no true granite has been observed in the Island, yet micaceous particles abound in some places. The author has in his possession a large rounded stone, almost wholly composed of quartz and mica; and in which the latter substance may be said even to predominate; he found it on the beach at St. Helier, so that its origin cannot be ascertained.

On a level with the sea, but deeply buried under high cliffs, that impend over the harbour at St. Helier, are large masses of rounded rock, the smooth surfaces of

* These flints are not found in any other part of the harbour: this seems to prove that they are, from time to time, washed in by the sea, from some neighbouring sub-marine situation. They are likewise to be met with at Havre des Pas; but though this spot approaches near to the harbour, yet the greater part of the flints found in it are grey, whereas those to be met with in English harbour are principally black: this circumstance seems to prove that they are washed in from a different quarry.

which sufficiently indicate the manner in which they assumed their present shape.

The foregoing short sketch of the mineralogy of Jersey might have sufficed for a limited account of the Island; the author has it however in his power to enter more in detail on that interesting subject. He has been favoured with some particulars from Charles König, esq. of the British Museum, who visited Jersey a few years since. That gentleman is desirous that his remarks may appear more as if derived from colloquial conversation, than from epistolary information. He observes, that his stay in the Island was short, which prevented him from bestowing any great degree of attention on the subject. It is a matter of regret that gentlemen, so well qualified for the purpose as Dr. Mac Culloch and Mr. König, could not have devoted more time to the pursuit in this Island, and given a complete history of the Jersey mineralogy.

The author trusts, however, though Mr. König is pleased to term his remarks desultory observations, that the public will appreciate their merits in a much higher degree.

The following are the particulars communicated by Mr. König :—

“ The rocks of which the Island is composed appear chiefly to belong to the trap and porphyry formations of Werner. Granite, strictly speaking, is not observed here, but a rock nearly related to it, viz. sienite, is very prevalent in the Island, and found in various states of freshness. In all places where it is seen, it shows a tendency to subdivision. The variety which approaches nearest to real granite, strictly speaking, is that quarried at Mount Mado, which also naturally separates into distinct masses ;

but these blocks are of much larger dimensions than those of the other varieties. They are indiscriminately angular, and of a more or less prismatic form; their surface is of a deeper colour, which is generally seen to penetrate two or three inches deep into the interior. This Mont-Mado rock, of which ample use has been made for architectural purposes, is as hard as any granite: it is of a close and rather small grain; the proportion of its feldspar, which is of a pale red colour, far exceeds that of quartz and hornblende, the latter of which is not seen in quantity in any of the varieties that occur here. Another variety of this stone, equally hard and compact, is quarried at the western side of St. Brelade's bay, beyond the church: it separates more than the other into pieces of various shape and size, some of them very small wedge-shaped. Sometimes the blocks appear perfectly white on the rifts, in consequence of the disintegration of the feldspar. The sienite of Plemont is of a close grain, but separable into small masses, and therefore not so useful as that of Mont Mado.

“ A beautiful variety of granite-like sienite is that seen in various parts of the coast, especially in St. Aubin's bay, towards Noirmont point, in which the feldspar, which constitutes by far the greater part of the mass, is of a deep flesh and brick red colour, with large grains of white quartz, which is sometimes found crystallized in it, and not unfrequently mixed with much massive thalite or epidote, which here and there forms small veins. It juts out in huge masses, and is in some places overlaid by thick beds of loam, with imbedded blocks and rolled pieces of the same rock, of which also innumerable rounded fragments are scattered about on the shore. In the bay of St. Brelade it occurs with veins of common quartz,

which is sometimes indistinctly crystallized. In this bay stands a small insulated rock of the same large-grained sienite, in which may be seen enclosed a moveable rounded piece of the same mass, which partly projects from the hollow in which it is lodged. The thallite occurs also in considerable masses in the sienitic rocks that stand out at that part of St. Aubin's bay where the barracks are, where likewise considerable veins of brick-red feldspar are seen in it.

“ The varieties of sienite appear in some parts to pass into porphyry, in others into a kind of green-stone, in a state of partial or entire decomposition; to this belongs the rock which forms the town hill. The well sunk at its top passes through from thirty to fifty feet of the rotten rock: the rest, to the depth of two hundred and thirty-three feet, is in the fresh sienitic rock. Both these varieties of rocks have a seamed structure: the direction of the seams in general is from south-west to north-east. The rifts of the fresh rock are often coated with common pyrites.

“ At Fremont and its neighbourhood we find abundance of compact feldspar with disseminated quartz, and also here and there with crystalline particles of flesh-red common feldspar: there are several varieties of it, both with regard to the colour of the mass, (which is generally of a yellowish grey,) and the particles of quartz and common feldspar imbedded in it. The surface of Fremont is entirely covered with masses and fragments of this rock, in various states of disintegration: they are all quite white, at least on the surface, and some are almost entirely changed into kaolin. At the foot of Fremont, in Bonnevuit bay, there are several large rolled pieces of the same decomposed rock. In going down the road, at the foot

of Fremont, leading to Bonne-nuit bay, we see on the left side a bed of this porphyritic rock laid open: it is fissured in all directions, and reddish brown on the rifts: a deposition of loam, with large fragments and rolled pieces of the same rock, rests on this porphyry bed.

“The compact feldspar, in a completely disintegrated state, may be seen in going to Bouley bay, on the hills nearly to the southward of the signal post: on one side a great mass of it is laid bare, which, at first sight, has much the appearance of white limestone. A curious variety of compact feldspar also occurs in masses in Bouley bay and its neighbourhood: it is variously tinged by a green substance, which in some parts appears like green earth, in others like thallite, and even like serpentine. Some varieties are porphyritic and of a very pale green colour, passing into greyish white with green spots. Bouley bay presents a very curious aspect by those quantities of large green stones, and the huge boulders of variegated porphyritic masses, partly disengaged, partly still imbedded in the loam: but the most remarkable rock in this bay, quite up to La Coupe, and of which immense blocks lie scattered about, and stand out in their natural situation, is a pudding-stone, the mass of which is the green thallite-like substance, sometimes pure and dark green, sometimes pale, including pebbles, mostly of the porphyritic rock above mentioned, from very small to several feet in diameter: this is a very fine rock, and bears some resemblance to the beautiful Egyptian breccia. It appears to be in connexion with another of a similar nature, which forms the high ground in going from St. Martin's to Rosel harbour. This is a conglomerate, differing from that of Bouley bay in the cementing mass, and presenting but little of the green substance with which

the other abounds ; its cement is in general of a ferrugino-argillaceous nature. This conglomerate appears to discontinue at St. Catherine's bay, where a porphyritic rock begins, which in part is not unlike that of Fremont, but is also seen in a state of clay porphyry. It contains nests of green earth, and a green substance like thallite, but softer.

“ Besides green stone, both fresh and in various degrees of disintegration, which occurs in some parts as insulated masses in connexion with the sienite, two other rocks belonging to the trap formation deserve to be mentioned here, viz., the green porphyry and the amygdaloid, which are seen in considerable beds at Roque Mollet, on the road leading to St. Saviour's, where both rocks are quarried, and employed for paving and in the construction of walls. The green porphyry has a blackish-green base, in which are imbedded slender prismatic crystals of feldspar, mostly decomposed, and also, here and there, small withered globules of what appears to be carbonate of lime. The amygdaloid consists of the same mass with that forming the base of the green porphyry; only that its colour has generally more of a bluish-brown tint: it contains small nodules of calcareous spar, and the cells are generally lined with green earth. The rifts of both the amygdaloid and porphyritic masses are frequently marked with holes as if worm-eaten. Sometimes the mass appears without either feldspar or calcareous spar, and may then be considered as approaching to the nature of wacke; but sometimes granular carbonate of lime is found in it, in considerable nests: it is, therefore, incorrectly stated, that the latter substance is among those of which no traces are to be found in Jersey. On the other hand, the emery is mentioned by many authors as a mineral occurring in

that Island; but this assertion appears to be founded in error. The Duke of Bouillon gave me a piece of fine-grained magnetic iron-stone intermixed with some particles of quartz, which was accompanied by a ticket inscribed 'St. Lawrence Mont Frelard at Beaumont.' This substance might perhaps have passed for an inferior kind of emery; but I could find nothing similar to it at Mont Frelard, where there are curious beds of a trap-like slate clay in distinct layers, divisible into small fragments, which sometimes show rhomboidal forms.

"I saw a piece of green copper ore, said to have been found in Jersey; but this, I suppose, is likewise a mistake.

"Some of the Cornish miners, I understand, conjectured that tin might be found, from seeing a substance which resembled the chloritic earth called peach, which often indicates the presence of that metal: but neither was the substance the same as peach, nor is the nature of the rocks such as to warrant any expectation of finding tin ore.

"Manganese ore has lately been found, according to Mr. Lowry."

CHAPTER VII.

Assembly of the States, Military Government, Royal Court, its Officers and Jurisdiction.

THE Legislative Assembly of the Island called the States, consists of thirty-six members, and is composed as follows, viz. the twelve Jurats, who are elected by the whole of the rate-payers of the Island as judges for life, or who are *ex officio* legislators for life. 2. The twelve Rectors of the twelve parishes into which the Island is divided, and who likewise are members for life: and 3. The twelve Constables, who are chosen by the parishes triennially. The whole of these three Estates sit together, and form but one assembly. The queen's Attorney-general, the Vicount or sheriff, and the queen's Solicitor-general, though they represent no estate, are also admitted, *ex officio*. The attorney-general and solicitor-general have a right to address the assembly, but neither they nor the vicount are entitled to vote. The Greffier, or secretary of the royal court, is likewise, by virtue of his office, clerk of the States.

The Assembly of the States is convened by the Bailiff, who constantly presides, or in his absence, by his lieutenant. The governor may protract the assembling of the States, but not beyond fifteen days, except on occasions when the Island is in danger, or for the special service of the crown.

The governor, or representative of the sovereign, has

a *veto* on all its proceedings, but he is instructed not to use this power, except in cases which concern the "special interest of the crown:" he has no vote. The bailiff has also a similar right of dissent, but his *veto* extends only to the postponement of the Act of the States passing into a law, until it has received the consent of the crown, and is to be used only in such cases as when her "Majesty's interest or prerogative, or the constitution or laws of the country," are concerned.

No Assembly of the States can be held without at least seven of each corps being present, except on very urgent occasions, such as when the safety or defence of the Island, makes prompt measures necessary. Foreigners preferred to benefices, are, unless naturalized, excluded.

The jurats and the constables are elected by those inhabitants who are British subjects, and twenty years of age, and whose names are on the rate list. The dean is appointed by the sovereign—the governor prefers to the rectories.

The principal business of the States is to raise money for the public service,* and to pass laws for the government of the Island; these have force only for three years, unless ratified by the queen in council, when they become permanent. This Assembly also exercises the power of naturalizing foreigners, with the same limitation as to time, unless confirmed by the council.†

* By an order of council, (received June, 1816,) it is required, that, in all levies of money, ordered to be made by the States, the greffier must certify, that all the proper forms have been observed; the act must then be transmitted, by the lieutenant governor, to England, and must be sanctioned by the king in council, before it can take effect.

† The public seal is kept in a purse, sealed by two Jurats, in the custody of the Bailiff, which seals are not to be broken, except when a like number be present. The seal now in use was presented to the Island by Edward the First.

When Commissioners are appointed by the crown, to institute any enquiry on the Island, the ordinary forms of justice are suspended, while they are exercising the powers vested in them by the commission.

MILITARY GOVERNMENT.

The principal officer in Jersey, who is the representative of the sovereign, and who claims precedence of all others, is the Governor. The governors were formerly styled "Custodes;" at that time they held both the military and civil jurisdiction; the title then was "Custos Regum," "Custos terræ:" at a still more remote period they were styled "Captains," and afterwards "Lords of the Island." The office of governor was then considered so honourable, as to be sometimes possessed by Princes of the Royal blood.

The governor has at present a mere sinecure appointment, the duties of the office being entirely executed by the lieutenant-governor: who, as well as the governor, is appointed by the sovereign. The whole of the crown revenue of the Island, with the exception of some trifling rents, which are received by the lieutenant-governor, after deducting some fees and salaries, are appropriated to the governor.

The power of the governors has varied, as their respective commissions have, at different times, been either enlarged or restrained. Anciently the governor had a mixed power. He had the administration of both the civil and military authority. He was judge as well as governor, and had the disposal of all appointments, whether in court, church, or garrison. To relieve himself from the various duties imposed on him, he at length reserved

the exercise of his military authority alone, and transferred the judicial to another, who thereby obtained the title of bailiff, but who was still a dependant of the governor, and merely an instrument of his will. The other ministers of justice were equally his creatures. It may well be supposed that an authority so unlimited and without controul, was not always administered with justice. King John began, and Henry the Seventh completed, the establishment of a jurisdiction wholly distinct; the latter taking from him the nomination of the bailiff, and other officers of the court, and forbidding his interposition in any civil affairs.*

But though the governor has no proper jurisdiction, yet, in consequence of his dignity, his presence is frequently required in court, and is in some respects necessary. He has the court so far under his protection, that he is obliged, when so required, to assist the bailiff and jurats with his authority, in the execution of their decrees. He has power, with the concurrence of two jurats, to arrest and imprison any inhabitant, upon strong suspicion of treason. Foreigners may neither settle, nor even enter the Island, without his permission. He may protract the assembling of the States, and render invalid, by his *veto*, any measure they may have carried; but subject to the restriction in both cases already noticed. He may attend and deliberate with the States; but cannot vote in their assembly: he has only a negative voice.

The Lieutenant-Governor is now, generally, a military officer. He has the custody of the fortresses; the regular troops, as well as the island militia, are under his command, and he grants commissions to the officers. The militia are furnished with arms and clothing by the British govern-

* See General History

ment : but neither officers nor men receive pay, except the adjutants and drill serjeants. The great attachment of the islanders to the British government leads them to the active and zealous performance of their military duties; and so efficient is the body, that in time of war, they are sometimes brigaded with regular troops, and mount guard with them, in the defences round the Island.

On the death or absence of the governor, the court has the power of swearing in the next superior military officer, into to the office of deputy governor.

ROYAL COURT, ITS OFFICERS AND JURISDICTION.

The Jersey court of judicature consists of the Bailiff, and the same twelve Jurats who sit in the Assembly of the States. The former is appointed by the crown, and represents the sovereign in court: there, as a standing memorial of his independence, and of his right of precedence in the court, his seat is raised above that of the governor. The jurats, who are his assessors, must be protestants of the Church of England.

The Bailiff is the chief magistrate of the court. He presides in all the debates, collects the votes, and pronounces the sentence or decision; he has not any vote, except upon an equal division among the jurats; in this case he has a casting vote: he is otherwise bound by the majority, and obliged to pronounce accordingly. He is the keeper of the public seal, which however he cannot use, without the joint concurrence of two jurats. He is bound to reside in the Island, unless he has a dispensation from the crown,—in this case a lieutenant bailiff is appointed: this appointment is also by the sovereign.

The province of the jurats is not only to decide private

controversies, but also to enforce a general obedience to the laws. They act as magistrates in their individual capacities, and are chosen for life, unless dismissed by the sovereign, or discharged by him on petition. The office has not any salary attached to it: but a few privileges are annexed. There must be seven present to constitute a full court; any cause decided by a lesser number may be again brought before a *Corps de Cour*, or full number, to which an appeal lies; but without the presence of the bailiff, or his deputy, there cannot be any proceedings. Neither of these nor a jurat can sit in judgment on any cause in which he, or any relation within the degree of uncle, may be interested. A jurat is also liable to be recused (challenged) for enmity to one of the parties, or on other special grounds.

There is also attached to the court, *Le Procureur du Roi*, or attorney-general; *L'Avocat du Roi*, or solicitor-general; *Le Viconte*, or high sheriff; *Le Greffier*, or clerk, who has the custody of the rolls and records; six pleaders or solicitors at the bar, stiled *Avocats du Barreau**; two under-sheriffs, called *Denonciateurs*, who publish the injunctions of the court; and *Le Huis-sier*, or usher, whose office is that of preserving order. To constitute a court, however, there need only be present the bailiff and two jurats, the Procureur du Roi, or the Avocat du Roi, and the Greffier; the Viconte, or one of the Denonciateurs usually attends. To these may be added, though not a member of the court, *L'Enregistreur*, or keeper of the register for hereditary contracts. Of the

* These advocates are appointed by the bailiff; this practice, which may well be supposed to indulge in favouritism, as no qualification is required, has been condemned by some: it is not the plan of this work to give an opinion in such cases: it is merely mentioned here for information.

preceding employments, the first three are held by patent; the bailiff has the appointment of all the others.

The court, thus composed, is a ROYAL COURT, having, generally, cognizance of all pleas, suits, and actions, whether real, personal, mixed, or criminal, arising within the Island, with the exception of treason and coining, or such other as may affect the royal prerogative: these are reserved for the queen in council, to whom alone this tribunal is immediately subordinate.

If after the hearing of a cause before a *corps de cour*, or full court, one of the parties should think himself aggrieved, he may, under certain regulations, and by consent of the court, appeal to the queen in council: yet such is the independent constitution of Jersey, that even these appeals are to be determined according to the laws and customs of the Island. Should the court refuse to grant an appeal, a doléance, or complaint, to the queen, may be preferred. If the doléance be not sustained, the petitioner is liable to be fined by the council.

In criminal cases there lies no appeal; nor can the governor even suspend the execution of a sentence, until the queen's pleasure be known; although the court has this power by delaying the execution of its own judgment.

A code of laws was, in 1771, compiled by the States, and sanctioned by the king in council: this may be considered as the fundamental statute law of the Island; it is however very defective, and has been greatly changed by the enactment of new laws.

The court had formerly the power of enacting laws; but by the above-mentioned code, this power was annulled; and though the States, or legislative body, can still make provisional statutes, such ordinances are not to be in force for more than three years, unless sanctioned, and

rendered permanent, by an order of council; but with respect to points already established by council, no alteration can be made, unless the same sanction be obtained.

Though there is but one tribunal, and in that the judges are always the same persons, yet, on account of the great variety of causes, requiring different methods of proceeding, the court is under the necessity of assuming four distinct characters; and is called either *La Cour d'Heritage*; *La Cour de Catel*; *La Cour du Billet*; or, *La Cour extraordinaire*, or *du Samedi*.

La Cour d'Heritage, as its name implies, takes cognizance only of hereditary matters, as partitions of estates, differences about bounds, invasion of rights, &c. *La Cour de Catel* was principally for chattels, rents, and decrets.* *La Cour du Billet* is a court chiefly for arrears of rents, and for small debts. *La Cour du Samedi* is a subsidiary court, in which all personal matters are adjudged, election causes, and those which require to be immediately decided; it is also in this court that debts and penalties due to the crown are sued for, and before which the ordinary police business of the Island is transacted.

Besides the officers attached to the court already noticed, there are others that regulate the police. In every parish, the principal magistrate is *Le Connetable*. This officer is chosen by the same inhabitants who elect the jurats. His office is triennial, and he may be re-elected. The office of constable is of a more honourable character in Jersey than in England. His post is more like that of the mayor in a corporate town, and is generally considered as a step to the magistracy. He is one of the members of the States;

* This term means what in England is called "bankruptcies;" but in consequence of a recent change in the law respecting *decrets*, the *Cour de Catel* has very little business to perform.

and he presides in all parochial assemblies, for secular affairs, even though a jurat be present; but in all meetings relative to the affairs of the church, the minister presides.

The civil establishments, in the different parishes, is thus regulated:—

- The principal officer is *Le Connetable*.

Under the Connetable are two *Centeniers*: these were formerly prefects over one hundred families. In the absence or indisposition of the Connetable, the senior Centenier performs his duty, and represents him in the Assembly of the States.

There are likewise several *Vinteniens*, each of whom has the charge of a particular vintaine, into which the parishes are divided; also *Officiers du Connetable*, whose duty is subordinate to that of the other officers, and is nearly similar to that of an English constable. There are besides two *Procureurs du bien public*, whose office is to conduct any lawsuit, or attend to any legal business relating to the parish, similar to a vestry clerk in England. Every vintaine has its own procureur.

In all criminal cases the *Procureur du roi* is the prosecutor.

Contrary to the order of procedures in England, every accusation is first examined by a petty jury, termed *l'enditement*, which is composed of the parochial constable, and twelve of his officers. To find a prisoner guilty seven of these must agree. In this case he may appeal to a grand jury, called *la grand enquete*, composed of twenty-four persons, taken from the parish where the offence was committed, and the two neighbouring parishes. The person accused may, in prosecuting his appeal before *la grand enquete*, on substantial grounds, object to any of the jurors; the validity of the objection is

decided by the court: five out of twenty-four are sufficient to acquit a prisoner.

In all cases the prisoner is entitled to the gratuitous assistance of an advocate, who is assigned to him by the court.

A prisoner is not, as in the English criminal courts, found guilty, or acquitted: the verdict of the jury is either, *plutot coupable qu'innocent*, or *plutot innocent que coupable*; and the punishment is awarded accordingly.

When sentence of death is pronounced, it has been usual for the bailiff or his lieutenant, and the jurats, all of whom were before uncovered, to put on their hats; and the criminal kneels to receive his doom.

Not only are the proceedings favourable to a prisoner, but the royal court has always shown itself disposed to mercy.

There were formerly three terms in the year, but one was abolished by the code of laws, confirmed in 1771: at present there are only two terms,—the first commencing on the Saturday next after the 11th of April, and ending on the 5th of July following; the second beginning on the Saturday next after the 11th of September, and ending on the 5th of December.

CHAPTER VIII.

Laws and Peculiar Privileges.

It will not be expected, in a work of this kind, to give more than a summary of the laws: and those will be selected that may be considered interesting to the visitor, or which may concern the trader.

The laws of Jersey are derived from five sources.

1. The antient laws of Normandy.
2. Municipal and local usages, similar to the common law of England.
3. Constitutions and ordinances, made by the crown in former times.
4. Acts, passed by the States, either provisionally for three years, or made perpetual, when confirmed by the sovereign.
5. Such orders as may be transmitted from the council board, and sanctioned by the reigning monarch.

Former decisions and judgments, although not of equal force with laws enacted by the authority above stated, like precedents in England, are seldom departed from, except in very urgent cases.

LAWS CONCERNING INHERITANCE.

The custom of gavel-kind prevails in Jersey: but with this difference, that in Kent and other counties, males are preferred to the exclusion of females, whereas in Jersey, females may get a small share of the inheritance.

Primogeniture as a principle is, however, more prevalent: a man cannot devise his real property; it must follow the law of succession. If there is a house on the estate, the eldest son takes it, with a certain portion of land, with other privileges, to enable him to pay off the rents that may be due: this generally amounts to nearly half the estate. The remainder of the property is then divided: two thirds go in equal proportions among the sons—the eldest having his proportion of this division—and the remaining third to be equally divided among the daughters: there are other minutiae which belong to the division of property, but which are only interesting to those immediately concerned.*

Personal property may be devised: a will must be attested by two witnesses, whether in real or personal property, and must be made forty days before the testator's death, otherwise it is null and void. If the husband dies intestate, the wife takes one half, as in England, if there are no children, and one third if there are; the other two thirds are equally divided among them.

Settlements previous to marriage are not usual, nor indeed necessary; a wife is invested with one third of all the property of the husband, on her marriage; and of all he may subsequently possess by inheritance, and which he cannot alienate without her consent; nor is it affected by a bankruptcy; but she has no right to any proportion of what he may otherwise acquire.

If a man has a wife or children, he cannot alienate from them by will, more than one third; if he has neither, all his property may be disposed of as he pleases: furniture, plate and linen, are considered the property of the wife.

* In each parish, six appraisers are appointed, at the parish meeting: their business is to value the lands that are to be divided.

On the death of a wife, the widower takes her real estate if they have had children, until he marries again ; in this case it goes to her next of kin, as it does if there had been no issue.

Should any person be seen to be wasting his property, the heirs at law may, on applying to the court, and showing sufficient cause, have a guardian appointed : in which case the proprietor loses all power over his effects ; and is considered in this, and some other respects, as in England a man would be, against whom a statute of lunacy has been issued.

Marriages are celebrated, by bans or by licence, as in England : licences are granted by the dean. A man may legitimatise his children, born out of wedlock, by acknowledging them in church after marriage.

A man may be separated from his wife "*quant aux biens*," i. e. as regards property, by which she retains that which was her's before marriage, and is not liable to the husband's creditors.*

The personal property of intestates is divided equally when there are only sons, or only daughters: but when there are both, the sons are entitled to two-thirds and the daughters to the remainder.

All contracts or instruments giving a preference, contrary to law, to one child over another, may be set aside by proceedings commenced after the ancestor's decease.

Forty years possession confers an absolute title to an estate.

* This was originally intended to secure a wife's property from waste by a husband, but it is sometimes used for a fraudulent purpose.

LAWB RESPECTING DEBTOR AND CREDITOR.

Debts are recoverable by legal process in the Royal Court.

Insolvencies are usually managed very differently from similar cases in England.

An insolvent may make a voluntary cession of his property, for the benefit of his creditors, in which case he is said to renounce, *renoncer*; or he may be compelled to do so, by one of his creditors taking legal measures for that purpose. If the insolvent possess any real estate, the same is said to be *en decret*; a person denominated an *Attourné* is then appointed to conduct the proceedings, whose duty it is, by advertisement, to desire all persons having claims on the estate, to remit the same, within a given time, into the hands of the Greffier. A schedule of the bankrupt's estate, and of the debts due upon it, is afterwards made out by the *Attourné*, and the creditors having been summoned together, the person who has the most recent claim is required to declare whether he will take the insolvent's estate, in which case he would be subject to all previous incumbrances: if he refuses, his debt is cancelled. A similar offer is then made to the next latest creditor, and so on, until some one is found who thinks he may safely accept the estate, on condition of paying all those charges which are prior to his own. The person who so accepts the estate, is called *Tenant*, and is thereupon put into possession of the insolvent's property, with the liabilities above mentioned, and the bankrupt is thenceforth discharged from his debts.

A debtor may also be declared to be, what is technically termed *en disastre*, that is, in difficulties, and which is usually resorted to, where the insolvent does not pos-

sess any real estate, or where the creditors wish to avoid the expense of a *decret*. This step is taken in open court at the instance of any creditor, and a day is appointed for the different persons, to whom the insolvent is indebted, to bring actions for their several demands, so that no priority may be given one over another. The Vicount is further authorised to sequestrate the insolvent's property, which may afterwards be disposed of, for the benefit of all the creditors who have used due diligence in suing for their debts, within the time limited by the court, unless the debtor shall previously arrange with his creditors.

Another peculiarity in the law of debtor and creditor, is the power possessed by the court, of granting a debtor a respite of a year and a day, for payment of his debts: this takes place on the application of the debtor himself, on his producing to the court a statement of his affairs, and showing that there is a good and sufficient balance in his favour, after liquidating all demands upon him, providing time be granted to him to get in his property. If the court is satisfied with the account, it usually grants his request, and in that case the debtor is obliged to verify his statement on oath, and that if he does not satisfy his creditors, within the time allowed, his property shall be adjudged to be renounced, and his real estate *en decret*; two persons are at the same time named by the court, generally two jurats, or a jurat and an advocate, to superintend the debtor's affairs, whose duty it is to see that no waste of his property is committed. This proceeding is termed a *remise des biens entre les mains de la Justice*.

Arrears of rent have a preference over simple-contract debts; but those arrears cannot be recovered by action, or distraint, after a lapse of three years.

In case of imprisonment, the debtor has not the right

of Habeas Corpus : in the statute it is said to extend to Jersey : but it is not registered in the Island, and the court does not admit of such a right. It is, in fact, of little consequence, as there is but one jail in the Island, and prisoners are, in general, soon brought to trial.

No proprietor of lands or rents* can be imprisoned for debt, except after a judgment of the court : an Englishman possessing land or rents, is entitled to the same privilege.

The real and personal property of a person, dying insolvent, are equally liable to his debts.

Where the heir, or next of kin, is in doubt whether the estate of the deceased was solvent, or if he has reason to suspect that some charge has been made, with a view to his prejudice, he may obtain from the court an act of *benefice d'inventaire*, (benefit of inventory,) which gives authority to the vicount to take an account of the deceased's estate ; and if it should appear that he died insolvent, the co-heirs may decline to take the property, in which case it is adjudged to be renounced ; but if they accept the succession, they do so subject to the payment of the debts.

The landlords of houses, &c., may attach for rent accruing, but not due, and thereby prevent the removal of any articles so attached ; and if perishable commodities, they may proceed to sale.

Debts contracted in England can be sued for in Jersey, if not of more than six years' standing ; but debts contracted in Jersey are not barred until ten years have elapsed. Bonds are subject to the same limitation as simple-contract debts ; but island rents, due upon

* This term does not, in Jersey, apply to the rents of houses, or of land, let out for certain sums annually : the difference is explained in a subsequent part of this chapter.

registered contracts, require a lapse of forty years, without payment having been demanded.

Persons expatriable, that is, not bound to the soil by owning land or houses, whether natives or strangers, are liable to arrest for book debt, bill, bond or rent, whether contracted in the Island or out of it; the sheriff can take either body or goods, as he thinks proper, but cannot take both, unless the goods are first seized and found to be insufficient to satisfy debt and costs. Money found in the house, or lodged in a bank, can be arrested, but not money carried about the person, nor the working tools of an artificer.

Bankrupts who have not surrendered to their commission in England, may be apprehended in Jersey by the commissioners' warrant, accompanied by an order from the Secretary of State. And if in actual custody in the Island for debt or otherwise, they can be removed by a writ of Habeas Corpus from the Court of Chancery.

Bill of Sale is the best security on moveable property, if it be accompanied by possession: no act of renunciation can affect it, unless it can be shown to have been fraudulent.

The legal interest of money is five per cent. Simple-contract debts bear no interest until after judgment has been given. Special debts, such as bills of exchange and promissory notes, after they have been noted, carry interest, unless they are made payable in Guernsey, where no interest is allowed.*

* Owing to the peculiarity of the laws as to insolvency, it is advisable for every non-resident, having dealings in Jersey, to appoint an attorney there to watch his interest.

MISCELLANEOUS LAWS OF A MORE GENERAL CHARACTER.

Rents—The term *rent* is thus explained by Mr. Falle:—

“ A rent may, originally, be created thus : a man who wants money, sells a quantity of wheat upon himself; that is, binds himself and his heirs, for ever, with the annual payment thereof; and this same rent shall, perhaps, afterwards pass from the first purchaser, through many hands successively.

“ Thus again, the proprietor of a tenement, with land, lets it out to another, for so many quarters of wheat, for ever, yearly: nay, though it be but a house, with not a foot of land to it, as in the town, 'tis let in the same manner, for a rent in wheat, which seems absurd; yet such is our practice.”

Such was the origin of what, in Jersey, are called rents: they are now commuted for specific sums in money; but the term quarters is still current in the conveyances of estates: rents of this nature are, therefore, in some respects, similar to mortgages in England.

Rents are considered as real and not as personal property. There is a difference in the rents. One sort is called *rente foncière*: this cannot be redeemed, except by consent of parties; but must remain a charge on the estate, or house, on the security of which it was raised. The other is called *rente assignable*, or *rente créé*, which is redeemable at any time. Rente assignable, however, becomes *rente foncière*, unless assigned within forty years.

Rents in Jersey are regarded as a sort of funded property, and are constantly changing hands, in a similar manner: they are made payable at Michaelmas, and are transferred by a deed called *contrat*, (contract,) made on oath, in the presence of the bailiff and two jurats, and

put under the seal of the Island; nearly three thousand of these contracts are passed in the course of the year. The forms of conveyancing are very simple, and never run to any great length. There are many singularities connected with these rents, to explain which would be uninteresting to the general reader; but it would be advisable, before a stranger buys Jersey rents, that he should consult some experienced person on the subject.

In every parish is an annual meeting, called *la vendue du froment*; at which meeting the rents of *le tresor de l'Eglise*, and of *la charité*, are put up to the highest bidder. The purchaser, who is called *le tresorier*, then fixes the price, in money, at which he will receive the rents, due from the several tenants of these establishments, unless any prefer paying in kind. The king's receivers, and also the seigneurs, for the rents called *rentes seigneuriales*, have the same privilege as the *tresorier*. The price is generally a little under the market price of the day.

To prevent delay, or the unnecessary detention of persons engaged in commerce, or of any vessel lying in the harbour, priority is always given by the court to suits arising out of disputes connected with shipping, or mercantile affairs. These suits are called *causes d'amirauté*, (admiralty causes,) and are heard in or out of term: actions on bills of exchange and promissory notes are also privileged.

Affidavits may be sworn before the bailiff, or one of the jurats, and in some cases before the lieutenant-governor. A fee of one shilling is sometimes demanded.

English merchants should embody in their invoices, and notes of hand, "British Sterling;" otherwise, they cannot recover in the court of Jersey more than currency.

Promissory bills payable in London or elsewhere, for "Jersey currency:" cannot be recovered in England.*

Forgery is punished only as a fraud, by imprisonment, whipping, pillory, or banishment. Forgery on the bank of England, or government security, and counterfeiting the coin of the realm, may be tried in England.

Persons landing cattle from France without giving notice to the harbour-master are liable to a penalty of 1000 livres.

All exciseable articles entered at a custom-house in England, may be taken back again by refunding the drawback and paying the incidental expenses.

No goods can be imported into, or exported from, the United Kingdom to the Channel Islands, except in British ships; and no ships are deemed British, unless registered as such, and navigated by a master and crew wholly British subjects. Vessels laden with stone from the Islands are not liable to be piloted by the pilots licensed by the Trinity-house.

Every article of the growth, produce, and manufacture of Jersey, is admitted into England, on payment only of the same duties as are imposed on similar commodities, grown, produced, or manufactured there.

Persons purchasing the produce of the Island, intended for exportation to Great Britain, must obtain an affidavit from the farmer that it is the growth of the Island, otherwise such produce will be liable to seizure in England.

No goods prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom from abroad, can be imported from the Islands

* As the law has adopted British currency, this is now considered unnecessary, though as a measure of precaution, and to prevent any quibbling, it may as well be done.

of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, or Serq, although the manufacture of these Islands, if the materials of which such goods are made be the produce of a foreign country.

Aliens on their arrival in the Island are obliged to present themselves to the constable of the parish, who is bound to report their names to the governor; they are allowed to reside in the Island only during his pleasure.

Members of Parliament and Peers of the Realm are liable to arrest in the Islands.

The Test and Catholic Disabilities acts, agreeably to an order in council, have been registered in the courts of Jersey and Guernsey, and consequently are in force there.

Acts of Parliament regulating copy-right have force in Jersey; thus English books protected by copy-right cannot be printed there. Books printed in Jersey, and not affected by English copy-right, are admitted into England on paying the duty of 3d. per lb.

Agreements, to be rendered valid, should be witnessed by two disinterested persons who are of age.

A person charged with an assault is not only liable to be criminally tried for the offence by *enditement*, but can be sued for damages in a civil action, notwithstanding his previous acquittal or conviction.

When the punishment of transportation is the sentence, the person is sent, at the expence of the States, if natives of Guernsey, to that Island; and all others to any port in England which the convict shall choose, and there ~~at~~ at liberty.* If the convict return, he is whipped and sent back.

Felo-de-se is punished by confiscation of property, and the body is buried without religious ceremony.

* It will excite a smile in an English reader, to consider England as a convict-colony to Jersey.

Until lately no writ from the courts of Westminster could be served in Jersey, but by the 4th William IV. writs of subpoena from the courts of Chancery and Exchequer (it is presumed) have effect there.

The above is "An Act to explain and extend an Act of the second year of His present Majesty, to effectuate the service of Process issuing from the Courts of Chancery and Exchequer, in England and Ireland." It recites that all Writs of Subpoena, or Letters missive from those Courts

"Shall be, and they are hereby extended to any Defendant or Defendants, in any suit or suits, as herein-before mentioned, who shall appear by affidavit to be residing in any place, specifying the same, out of the Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

It further enacts, if the Defendant is secreting himself, so as to avoid being served personally, then

"It shall be lawful for the Court to order that the service of the Subpoena, to appear and answer, shall be substituted, in such manner as the Court shall think reasonable, and direct by such order. Cap. 82."

PECULIAR PRIVILEGES.

The history of the Island shows how exposed it has been to constant attacks from enemies. Jersey may be considered in the light of a frontier town, and these are usually favoured with peculiar privileges, to counter-balance the dangers to which they are exposed; and no country ever merited distinguished marks of royal favour more than Jersey.

There is not any existing record respecting the privileges of this Island before the reign of King John; it is, therefore, not possible to ascertain those that it possessed under the preceding monarchs, or under its more ancient sovereigns. That monarch gave to Jersey and Guernsey

a body of constitutions, consisting of eighteen articles : probably founded on the old Norman laws, and existing usages. Two great privileges are therein granted—one, that no process, in either of the Islands, commenced before any magistrate of that Island, can be transferred out of it, but must be decided there. The other, that no person, convicted, out of the said Islands, of felony, is to forfeit the inheritances he may have in them, so as to deprive his heirs of their lawful possession. This does not, however, extend to crimes committed in either Island, and decided there. The two foregoing articles seem to have been inserted to show how completely independent these Islands always were of the English courts of judicature.

Another most important privilege is, they are exempted from the jurisdiction of the British courts, except that of the Admiralty, which, by an order in council, issued during the last war, comprehended the Channel Islands : even acts of parliament passed by the British legislature have no force here, unless the Islands are especially named : and it was even contended formerly, that it was necessary to have the sanction of the Royal Court, and to be registered by it, before they were binding on them ; this however will not now be urged, as an order in council, which is admitted to be imperative, has decided that this registration is not necessary.

The Islanders enjoy the double privilege of being governed by their own, that is, the old Norman laws ; and have also the privileges of British born subjects : yet, in the administration of their own laws, a British subject is, in many respects, considered as an alien, and subject to disabilities as such. This relates principally to the appointment, or the privilege of electing, to offices : the remark

applies equally to both Islands:* but British subjects being freeholders, that is, possessing lands or rents, have all the privileges of natives. British residents, in general, are not taxed to the poor rates, as an inducement to their continuing in the Island: after a residence of a year and a day, they may claim to be rated, and then they have a right of voting as well as natives.

From what has been observed it will be understood, that writs issued by the courts in Westminster, with the exception already noticed, cannot be served in these Islands; as Lord Coke observed, "the King's writs runneth not into these Islands."†

The charter of Elizabeth confirmed all those granted by former sovereigns in their fullest extent, and she freed the Islanders from all tribute or toll of every kind whatsoever, that may be imposed throughout England: and even by a declaratory clause acknowledged that singular privilege, the neutrality of the Islands, even with nations with which England may be at war.‡

The Royal Courts of the respective Islands try all causes originating in them, whether civil or criminal, except those for treason, coining, or such other as would

* Mr. Berry, in his history of Guernsey, has complained of this, and considers it an injustice; it should, however, be remembered that the Islanders have deserved the privileges by their unshaken loyalty, and constant attachment to the British government, as well as by their situation; and it should not be forgotten, that the British government attaches great importance to the possession of the Islands: therefore are the privileges continued to secure their attachment, and the English, as a nation, partake of the benefit.

† It is thus that the same eminent lawyer makes the distinction in reference to them, "though they are parcel of the CROWN of England, they are not parcel of the REALM of England."

‡ This fell into disuse soon after the reign of Elizabeth, and was finally annulled by William the Third.

A particular account of this very remarkable privilege will be found in Chapter XV. on "Ancient Privileges."

affect the Royal prerogative, nor can an appeal be made to any superior court in England—the queen in council is the only appeal. Commissioners have sometimes been appointed under the great seal, and have had extensive power in the Islands; yet even the commissioners must decide according to the existing laws—they have no legislative power. While exercising their jurisdiction, the ordinary forms of justice are suspended.

The Islanders elect their own magistrates, with the exception of the bailiff.

One of the ecclesiastical privileges is, the Islanders have the preference of being appointed to vacant benefices: thus no Englishman can hold a living in Jersey, while an inhabitant, in orders, prefers a claim.

Another ecclesiastical privilege is, as it respects benefices, pluralities are not allowed—no person can hold two livings.

No stamps are required either for bills, receipts, or conveyances of property.

The Island is protected from the impress service.

Jersey till lately enjoyed the privilege of being a free port: there were, until the late peace, only a few duties on the imports, but no prohibitions.

There are not any taxes, except the parochial rates for the indigent, and for the highways, and some small duties on wines and spirits. Levies are, however, sometimes made, for the purpose of defraying any extraordinary expenses; but not large in amount.

CHAPTER IX.

Revenue, Coins and Pecuniary Substitutes.

THE average annual amount of revenue, received by the States, for the years 1810, 1811, and 1812, was somewhat more than 110,000 livres, French currency, which is about £4,600 British sterling.

This revenue, partaking of the general prosperity of the Island, has greatly increased; for a report made to parliament for the year 1821, gives the following result:—

Revenue collected	£.	s.	d.
	10,562	10	2
Expenditure	5,062	10	5
	<hr/>		
	5,499	19	9

leaving near £5,5000 to be expended on improvements in the Island; and taking an average of four years, ending December 31st, 1836, the last period to which, at this time, the accounts have been made up, gives the amount of £14,632 3s. 1d. per annum, which, it will be observed, is an advance of nearly 50 per cent. in fifteen years.

The revenue arises from licenses granted to tavern-keepers, rents in the market, duties on wines and spirits, harbour dues, &c.; and when an additional sum is required, and especially when it is for any particular object, a rate is levied on the inhabitants: the States formerly

had recourse to lotteries: they were conducted more soberly than in England—there was no fluctuation in the price of tickets, and no insurance on them was allowed; so that the gambling mania which formerly prevailed in England, and which led to their suppression, did not exist in Jersey: notwithstanding they were abolished by an order in council, issued in 1837.

The duty on Spanish and Portuguese wines is £2 10*s.* per pipe; on French and Rhenish £1 10*s.* per pipe; on spirits one shilling per gallon: a publican pays £5 for his license. The following statement may be considered an average of the different items to make up the total amount, as reported to parliament:—

	£.	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Duties on wines and spirits . . .	7,250	0	0
Licenses on public house	500	0	0
Harbour dues, anchorage, &c. . .	2,250	0	0
Incidentals	562	10	2
	<hr/>		
	10,562	10	2

The import duty on wines, liquors, &c., was granted by Charles the Second, for the purpose of endowing a college, building a workhouse, erecting a pier at St. Aubin, and providing a magazine of arms: but the sum produced not being sufficient to accomplish all these objects, the whole was applied to the construction of the two piers at St. Helier and St. Aubin: but the duties now being consolidated, they are applied to the public works, and the general improvement of the Island, after the current expences, and the interest of the debt, have been paid.

No part of the revenue of either Island is applied to its defence; the British government defraying the whole of this expenditure, which, including that for the militia,

is upwards of £20,000 per annum, from which is to be deducted about £2,000 per annum the produce of the post-office, the revenue of which the government takes.*

Although the income of the Governor arises from the resources of the Island, yet it cannot be said to be paid from its revenue. At the time of the reformation, government applied to its own use a very large portion of the great tithes of ten parishes,† leaving very little more than the small tithes for the incumbent: the former is now received by the Governor, amounting to about £3,000 per annum; but as he has to pay certain salaries to the officers of the royal court, and other sums chargeable on this revenue, to half the amount, the actual income arising from the Island, does not exceed £1,500 per annum.

The Lieutenant-governor has a very small portion of the revenue of the Island: it consists of some fees, under £200 a year: his income arising from the public is derived from his pay as a field-officer.

The Coin current in Jersey was, until lately, chiefly that of France, with a small proportion of Spanish money; these still continue, though not in a large proportion. The total amount of specie in circulation, has been estimated at £120,000 sterling. During the French revolutionary war, the coin of England came more generally

* The exact amount of the return made to Parliament, for the year 1821, was £1,949 4s. 2d. but it must have greatly increased since that time.

† The tithes of St. Saviour are annexed to the deanery: those of St. Helier were granted to Sir E. Carteret; these latter have passed by purchase and inheritance through several hands. Of late years a considerable portion has been sold to several land owners, so that a great part of the parish of St. Helier is now tithe free.

into use, until the increased value of gold and silver completely drained the Island of all specie but copper, and even that became scarce. At this time the banking houses in the town of St. Helier, and a few mercantile men, were accustomed to issue notes, payable to the bearer on demand, for twenty-four livres French currency, or one pound sterling. So great, however, and so increasing were the inconveniences occasioned by the almost total disappearance of silver, that these houses were obliged to issue notes of five and ten shillings each: this induced other individuals to do the same, for sums as low as one shilling, all having the high-sounding title of "Jersey Bank:" it may well be supposed that the Island became inundated with the notes of these *soi-disant* bankers, many of the lowest description of traders and publicans. Alarming as this was, necessity gave them a general circulation; until at length it was put an end to by order in council, issued in 1813, forbidding the circulation of notes under £1 sterling.

Seeing the evil of this state of things, the States issued silver coins of eighteen-pence and three shillings, to the amount of £10,000 sterling, and an additional sum was afterwards issued: this did not long remain in circulation, the general distrust occasioned by the uncertain value of the paper money, caused it to be hoarded; thus was the object defeated, and in 1834 these pieces were called in: its place, however, is now well supplied by a large introduction of British silver and gold, which, however, still bears a premium; but the former custom of reckoning by livres and sous is retained in the lesser transactions of trade.

The circulation of paper money is still much complained of, as it is not confined to professed bankers,

but societies, and many private individuals, whose credit is not so well established, issue notes.* If the States were to pass a law, requiring some kind of security, for the amount of notes issued, it would go far to remove the evil.

British silver is the legal tender of the Island.

* See more on this subject in Chapter IV. on Banking.

*Statement of the PUBLIC DEBT, due by the STATES,
made up to Dec. 8th, 1838.*

	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Amount due Dec. 31st, 1837 } paying an int. of 4 per cent. }	31,740	13	4			
Amount disbursed in 1838....	1,358	6	8			
Total at 4 per cent.....				30,382	6	8
Amount due to the Savings' } Bank..... }	21,029	16	8			
Add amount borrowed in 1838..	1,159	3	4			
Amount borrowed of 'La So- ciete des Secours mutuels,' } (Benevolent Society,) 1838 }	22,189	0	0			
Total at 3½ per cent. ..				22,459	16	8
Plus 18 qrs. 6 c. rents at } £16 : 13 : 4 per quarter.. }				312	10	0
Add balance to the Treasurer. .				53,154	13	4
				4,679	10	10
Total amount due Dec. 8, 1838				£57,834	4	2

CHAPTER X.

THE TOWN OF ST. HELIER.

Approach from the Sea; surrounding Scenery; the Harbour; the Royal Square; the Court House; Market-place; Price of Provisions; Fort Regent; Elizabeth Castle; Ecclesiastical Buildings; Hospital-Poor House, and Prison; Public Library; the Parade; Theatre and Assembly Room, Baths, &c.

THE present work being principally intended for the English visiter, it may be supposed that he has made the work his travelling companion, and himself acquainted, during his voyage to the Island, with its general history, its statistics, its government, its laws, peculiar privileges, and such other particulars as are noticed in it, and that he is now to be introduced to its localities.

Should the vessel in which he may be embarked first make the north-west corner of the Island, he will be struck by its bold features, its prominent and rugged coast, not so much studded with detached rocks as in the south-eastern part, but by high projecting and enormous masses, which are to be seen along a considerable part of the coast, in a line with which his course will now be, stretching from cape Grosnez to L'Etac: he will next sail by the bay of St. Ouen, until he again falls in with the rugged masses of rock, terminating with a noted pile

called *La Corbiere*. It will not, however, be necessary to notice the several points, as a full description of the whole coast will be given in a tour round the Island, to which the reader is referred; but the scenery on his rounding Noirmont point, will immediately engage his attention. In the centre of a large and beautiful bay stands Elizabeth Castle, which, should his approach be at the time of low water, will appear to be situated on the main land, but as the tide flows it becomes an island; on the same rock as the Castle stands the Hermitage, which has been already noticed;* on the right, situated on what was formerly the town-hill, is Fort Regent, deemed almost impregnable: it has been styled a second Gibraltar. Under this fortress lies the harbour and the town of St. Helier. The eye stretching to the left will rest on the town of St. Aubin with its harbour and protecting fort. So beautiful is this bay, from a point which embraces these various objects,—combined with the country intervening between the towns, behind which rises a fine range of wooded cultivated heights, forming a back ground to the picture,—and so enchanting is this scene, in its general effect, that it has been compared to the bay of Naples.

Should the state of the tide allow him to enter the harbour, after passing the water-gate, the voyager will find himself in a most capacious dock; but, capacious as it is, not sufficiently so to accommodate the whole trade of the Island: he will find every convenience for landing, and certainly no lack of importunity to repair to the various inns, hotels, and boarding-houses which are to be found in the town;† having made his selection, the guide

* See Ecclesiastical History.

† For a list of these see Appendix.

will provide conveyance for his luggage, and conduct him to his temporary abode.

The Town may be said to be divided into two parts, and, like the northern metropolis, may be called the old and new town; or the old town may more properly be likened to the city of London in the time of queen Elizabeth, when there were scarcely any suburbs, but with these added, it may be said to be London in its present state, though in miniature. These great additions have mostly been made during the revolutionary war, and since the peace: Jersey before that time was comparatively little known.

The town is not so intricate but that a stranger will easily find his way, after one or two general surveys, to any part: * our plan will therefore be to describe the various public buildings, and other objects worthy of notice, not so much with regard to their locality, as to the circumstances which more immediately connect them with each other.

St. Helier is the seat of government and of justice: the centre of business, of fashion, and of amusement. These have, in the course of only a few years, so increased that it now contains nearly one-third of the whole population of the Island.

The town itself consists of upwards of a thousand houses, besides many that are, in every direction, scattered through the environs. It has undergone a very rapid increase and improvement, such as few other places have experienced. Not many years since, it was chiefly comprised in two streets, running nearly in parallel lines: the

* A plan of the town, on a very large scale, has been engraved, from a survey, made by Mr. E. Le Gros, civil engineer, which is delineated with great minuteness and accuracy.

western entrance was under an old, confined, and ill-contrived prison: this has been taken down, and a new spacious edifice has been built. The principal avenue of the town is Broad street; which, contracted at first, widens as it proceeds towards the square, or old market place. Several shops that projected into the street have been removed, which has greatly improved its appearance. The square forms a general focus; there are leading into it four carriage ways, and one foot way. Several new streets have lately been built in different directions.

Anciently all the houses were substantial stone edifices with small windows, consequently gloomy, and the greater number were thatched; now they are mostly built of brick, and even those of early date are, in general, modernised. The pavement was likewise very uneven; at the present time, nearly every street has a regular carriage road, paved with a very hard granite, brought from Guernsey,* with as broad a pavement as the width will admit. The shops were formerly of a most gloomy and forbidding aspect: in most places these have been succeeded by others, light, airy, and inviting; and in the course of a few more years, every part will partake of the same character. The town is now lighted with gas, a most valuable improvement, as it was before not lighted at all; it was, however, very amusing, to see the number of small lanterns, in continual motion, every night.

The square is ornamented with a statue, in a Roman military costume, elevated on a stone pedestal.† The

* This stone is also found in Jersey: but it is not in equal estimation.

† Gough, in his edition of Camden, says it is a statue of George II.: other accounts state that it is of Charles II., but it is generally reported to be neither, but that it was preserved from a wreck, and placed there merely as an ornament to the square.

square has, within a few years, been paved with flat *Mont Mado* stones, so that now it is a pleasant and convenient promenade, but mostly used by mercantile men.

On one side of this square, is *La Cohue*, or Court House, a solid but plain structure, built in 1647. In this building is held the Assembly of the States, together with the Courts of Civil and Criminal Jurisdiction. At one extremity of the vestibule is a full-length portrait, as large as life, of the late Marshal Conway, who was formerly governor of Jersey; it was painted by Gainsborough: at the other end, now parted off, and forming a small retiring room, is a portrait, equal in dimensions, of George III. in his robes of state, painted by Mr. Jean, a native of the Island.

Government house, the town residence of the lieutenant governor, was formerly near the square. In the early part of 1822, the whole of this property was exchanged for Belmont, an elegant newly erected mansion, near St. Saviour's church, embellished with gardens and pleasure grounds, which is now the residence of the lieut.-governor.

The only market was formerly in the Royal Square. A singularly neat and convenient set of covered sheds, with broad open spaces at intervals, is now erected: the main entrance is through folding iron gates, between massive stone pillars. Adjoining to the general market is another for fish, in the same style; and a place in the vicinity has been walled in for a cattle market, with spacious covered sheds. The general market days are Wednesday and Saturday; but the articles supplied from France, especially fruit and vegetables, now come in such constant succession, that they may be purchased almost every day.

Formerly there was a corn market in the town, but it no longer exists, as it is now principally supplied with

flour from England; and as the country inhabitants consume the greater part of their own produce, it is no longer necessary.

Some information with respect to the price of provisions will be acceptable to the stranger. Jersey is not so noted as Guernsey for a good supply of fish, neither is it so cheap as in the sister Island: this may be accounted for, partly by a greater number of persons being employed in the occupation of fishing in Guernsey, and partly by the taste of the Islanders requiring a larger supply. Butchers' meat is somewhat cheaper than in England, and its quality is generally good; but being mostly of French beasts, must not be compared with that of London, or even with the best in country towns in England. Fruit is in general very good and cheap, being brought from France at a small expense. Tea and coffee are about two thirds of the price in England, and sugar scarcely more than half: rice, currants, and other dried fruits are considerably cheaper. But the greatest difference of price is in wines and spirits, especially the latter, which bear so high a duty in England: the best Cognac brandy may be bought at 7*s.* the gallon; rum and hollands at 3*s.* 6*d.* Excellent port wine, according to its age; from two to six years in bottle, from 20*s.* to 25*s.* per dozen; inferior from 15*s.* to 18*s.* Jersey butter has three high recommendations; it is excellent in quality, moderate in price, and 17½*oz.* to the pound weight. The market is well supplied with game from France, as well as with the various kinds of poultry—indeed, few markets in England have a better supply than that of St. Helier.

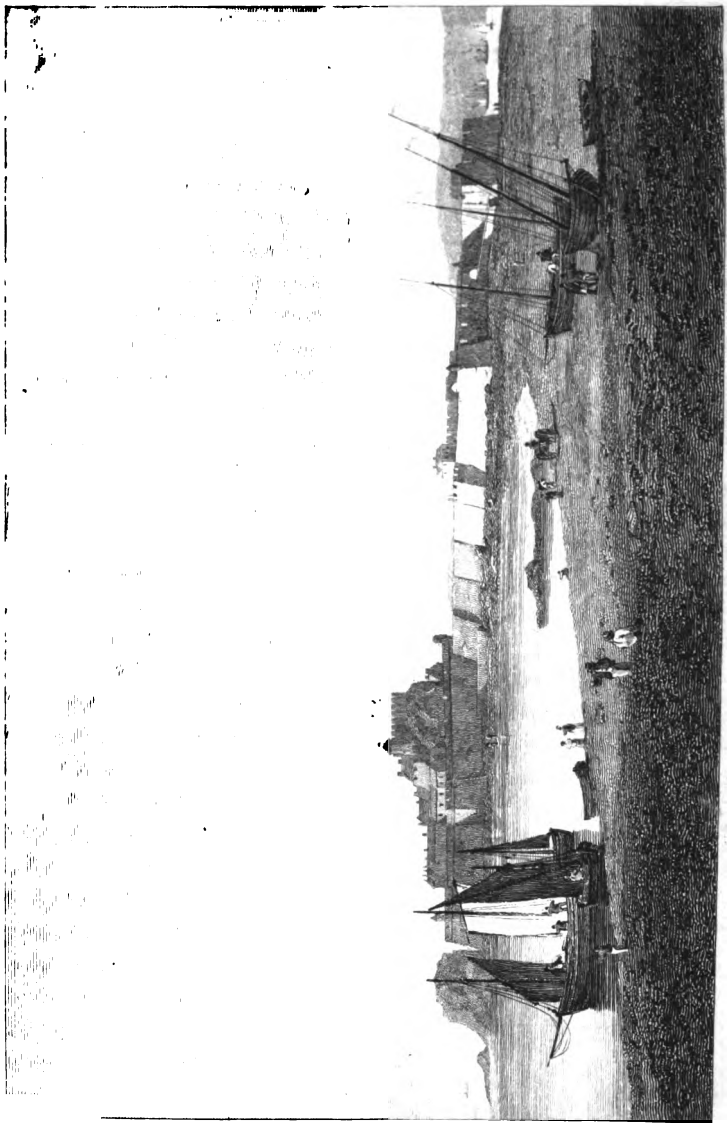
Other articles of household expenditure, such as wearing apparel and servants' wages, are about the same price as in England; but furniture, if Jersey made, or brought

from France, is considerably cheaper. There is, however, one drawback on cheap living in Jersey, and that is, house rent, which is somewhat higher than in a populous country town in England. This may be easily explained: although a considerable number of new houses have been built, still the demand keeps above the supply, and time is of course required to build more.

Many houses are furnished with wells; but the greater part of the town lying in a low situation, and on the sea shore, the water is not, in that district, remarkable for its purity: there are, however, some springs of excellent quality; and the recently discovered mode of procuring water by boring, having been employed in the Island, has furnished a good supply.

The *Mont de la Ville*, or Town Hill, is a long insulated rock, elevated 150 feet above high-water mark. Its northern extremity rises so close to the town of St. Helier, that, before it became the property of government, the gardens of several houses were continued in repeated hanging terraces to its summit. In order to render the fortress which has been built on it less accessible, the rock has been cut down, and thus a vertical section exposed. It exhibits a broken upper surface, the chasms of which are filled up with small pieces of the same rock.

This hill was purchased by government, and on it has been erected a fortress, which, being built during the regency, is called Fort Regent: it covers four acres of ground, is built of granite, and is bomb-proof; indeed, nothing that art or expence could accomplish seems to have been wanting to render this fortress impregnable: the magazine is so capacious, that it will contain 5000 barrels of powder. It is well supplied with water from a well nearly 250 feet deep, 200 of which are cut through a solid rock:



at the opening it is fourteen feet in diameter; the water is excellent, the daily supply of which is from 6 to 8000 gallons. Besides the troops that it will contain, there is accommodation for a great number of inhabitants, should an invasion of the Island cause their retreat to it necessary. Stores for ammunition are hewn out of the solid rock. The total expense of erecting this citadel is said to have been a million sterling. The amount paid by government, to the vintaine, for the hill on which Fort Regent is built, was no less than £11,280.*

It has already been observed, that Elizabeth Castle was built during the reign of our renowned queen of that name. Charles the First made great additions to this fortress; he built the lower ward, and otherwise added to its defences: the rock on which it stands, including the hermitage, is a mile in circuit. It is accessible at low water, from the shore, by a bridge of earth, raised above the level of the sand, but as the tide flows it is insulated. Since the erection of Fort Regent, it is principally to be considered as a defence for the bay: in this view it may be important as an out-work against shipping, as they approach: at present a few artillery-men only mount guard within its walls.

The Church stands on the west side of the Royal Square: it is more modern than any other in Jersey, having been consecrated A. D. 1311. It might, from this circumstance, be supposed to have been subject to fewer alterations than others; whereas not one has undergone more: this was

* A project for fortifying this hill was entertained, as early as the reign of Edward the Sixth: the Duke of Somerset was then governor of the Island. An ordinance, dated April 6, 1550, is still extant, in which the inhabitants were recommended to construct fortifications there, wherein they might find a place of safety, in the event of an invasion.

probably occasioned by enlargements at different periods, as an increasing population made them necessary.

Over the centre of the northern aisle rises a tower, of no great height, faced with square masonry, and surmounted with a parapet. It is quadrangular, with the exception of a small projection on one side for a staircase. This tower appears of later date than the other parts of the building. In the centre of the northern aisle is a chapel.

The church has been materially beautified internally within the space of a few years, and a neat organ erected by voluntary subscription. Several monuments are affixed to its walls, but none of an earlier date than the seventeenth century. One of them is commemorative of the death of Major Pierson,* who so bravely fell in repelling the French invasion in 1781: this was erected at the public expense as a grateful commemoration of his services, and as a tribute to his valour and decisive conduct in the attack. As there is no altar in the church, a temporary one is placed before the pulpit, whenever the sacrament of the Lord's supper is administered.

Besides the parochial church, there are two episcopal chapels—St. Paul and St. James; the former is in New street, the latter in St. James's-street: they are both modern erections, and the services in both are performed in English. The various denominations of Dissenters have their respective places of worship; and there are two Roman Catholic chapels, in one of which the service is performed in French, and the other in English.†

At the western extremity of the town is the public Hos-

* See General History.

† For the time of performing divine service in these several chapels, see Appendix.

pital and Poorhouse for the whole Island. This establishment has been greatly assisted by legacies and contributions :* the general number of inmates may be averaged at a hundred, of which not more than two thirds are natives of the Island. This building has lately been enlarged : the funds for this purpose were supplied by the late Charles Robin, Esq., who left to the institution a legacy of £2500 : this munificent bequest has enabled the trustees to build a chapel for the inmates, and to provide for the payment of a chaplain.

Near the hospital is the new Prison : this is a handsome building, in an airy situation ; the cells for the male criminals are on the ground floor, each nine feet square. A space under an arcade is allowed them for exercise, and they have a common room, with a fire during the winter. Half the upper story, with a separate staircase, is for the female criminals, who have a private yard for exercise. The debtors occupy the remaining half of the top floor, consisting of twelve rooms. The criminals are never fettered during incarceration : they may be visited by an order from the sheriff.

At this skirt of the town is a large empty space, called *Les Mielles*. It was until lately covered by sandy hillock . General Don caused the whole to be levelled, formed into a lawn, and enclosed with a dwarf wall. It

* The whole amount raised by a rate, for ten years, ending 1834, for the eleven country parishes, was only £2285 5s. 3d., and this includes all charges ; very little more, taking an average, than £20 a year to each parish. The poor rates in St. Helier's amount to about £1500 per annum. There are two other funds applicable to parochial purposes, "*Le Tresor de l'église*," and a "Charity fund," both formed of bequests by pious persons in former times. The former is applied to the repairs of the church, the latter, as its name imports, goes in direct charity, or to assist the poor-rate.

is now converted into a parade, and round part of it runs a gravelled walk.

The town possesses a public Library : the building was erected at the expense of the Rev. Philip Falle, the historian of the Island ; who presented to it a valuable collection of books, to which the late Rev. Dr. Dumaresq made a considerable addition ; and the States have lately voted an annual grant of £100 to be laid out in the purchase of modern publications. This is a most valuable acquisition, as the library formerly consisted of old works, and mostly on divinity : it contains upwards of 6000 vols. The annual subscription is very moderate. There are several Reading Societies, and other private associations. Newspapers, both in English and French, are published on different days in the week.

The Theatre stands in the centre of a crescent, at the east side of the town : it is a modern structure, built in 1827. English and French comedians perform occasionally. There is also a minor theatre in Regent Road ; this is principally engaged by amateur performers. The Assemblies and Concerts are held at the Royal Yacht Club Hotel, on the pier : they commence in October, and continue through the winter, every fortnight. There is usually a Fancy Ball during the season.

The Baths are situated in Bath-street. Hot and cold, with either salt water or fresh, and shower baths, may be had from seven in the morning till ten at night : the charges are moderate. A Reading room is connected with the baths, in which some of the London and provincial English papers are taken in, with a few periodical publications. Attempts have more than once been made to establish Bathing Machines, but they have hitherto failed ; a spirited individual has, however, lately renewed the attempt,

and with such means as furnish strong hopes of success. They are situated at Gréve d'Azette.

There are several Benevolent Societies established in the town, a list and particulars of which will be found in the Appendix to this work.

In the town are several Hotels, respectable Inns, and Boarding-houses. Steam Packets are constantly sailing from Jersey to Weymouth and Southampton: they always stop at Guernsey, to receive or land passengers. The reader is also referred to the Appendix for a particular account of these, with the times of their sailing, and many other particulars alluded to in the body of the work.

We cannot finish this account of the town, without alluding to some valuable observations of Dr. Hooper, in his work already quoted, on the comparative salubrity of the respective towns of St. Helier and St. Aubin. The patient who comes to Jersey for the benefit of his health, would do well to consult this before he fixes on the place of his abode.

CHAPTER XI.

THE INHABITANTS.

Physical Peculiarities; Sketch of general Character; Vraiking; Pic-nic Parties; Amusements; Theatricals; Balls and Concerts; Races;—Other Amusements recommended.

THE person of a Jerseyman is about the middle size; it is very unusual to see a remarkably tall man; he retains much of the physical characters of his two originals, the Celts and the Scandinavians, especially in the northern districts of the Island, where the race has suffered the least admixture. The hair is mostly dark brown or light chestnut; the features sharp and intelligent, though a skilful physiognomist would probably discover much is harsh and phlegmatic: the complexion is generally tawny, the limbs are muscular, not bulky—well adapted for active labour: an agricultural labourer is not so clownish in his manner as one of the same grade in England; this is to be ascribed to his being trained to military exercises, which would necessarily improve his deportment. Of the females it has been observed, “though comely and well-built, they are more remarkable for neatness of figure than elegance of stature and regular beauty.” There is something peculiar in the gait of a Jerseyman, though not sufficiently marked to distinguish him from an Englishman or a Frenchman.

There will not be much difficulty in the delineation of the character of a Jerseyman: hypocrisy is not a prominent feature—he is what he appears to be. A deportment amounting to bluntness and rudeness has been charged on him. These are comparative terms: an Islander in the society of persons in England, scarcely a degree above himself, would be deemed deficient in good manners, though scarcely chargeable with being either blunt or rude: the English language has not a word to express exactly the character in this respect,—the French would say he is *brusque*. Occasional admixture with society above his own rank, and which is only to be found in large communities, can alone remove this, and communicate ease of manner, and a greater measure of exterior polish.

There is an independence of character in a Jerseyman, which may in some measure contribute to the feature already noticed, and this is easily explained: he is generally an independent man, either living on his own property, or possessed of rents: almost all have political rights, they elect their own judges and magistrates: this of itself every Englishman will allow must induce a feeling of independence, by bringing him more in contact and temporary equality with his superiors, and more frequently than in England. Party spirit certainly runs very high in Jersey, the whole Island being ranged on one side or the other; and the many clubs that are established, in which island politics are discussed, tend very much to keep up this spirit. The old distinctions of *Magot* and *Charlot* have given way to those of *ROSE* and *LAUREL*: the liberals take the Rose as their emblem, the high party in church and state the Laurel. Thus, Island politics seem to absorb all their thoughts, beyond their own individual concerns; and party strife is found too

much mixed up even with these: the politics of England, or even of the world generally, engage very little of their attention—they live in a world of their own.

It has also been said that this same party spirit exists in matters of religion, but probably not more than in other places. In what town in England does the churchman and dissenter meet in social harmony? this difference always did, and ever will, exist; and it may well be vindicated on the ground that in the highest concerns of a man's life he is not disposed to yield to his neighbour: if either is to enjoy his own opinion, and live in peace with each other, they must live without social intercourse. It must, however, be admitted to their praise, that Jerseymen, both churchmen and dissenters, are generally moral and devout, and the sabbath is more strictly regarded by them than in England.

Frugality is a very prominent feature in a Jerseyman; this within its proper limit is commendable,—every man is bound to provide for his present household, and for those who are to succeed him; but when it trenches on liberality as a duty, when it shuts the heart and hand to the calls of humanity, frugality no longer ranks among the virtues,—then it degenerates into parsimony, and will most likely end in avarice. This has certainly been charged on the Islanders, and perhaps with some truth: their excuse must be found in their insular situation, and the minute subdivision of their property, which requires that they should make the most of what they possess. It should however be observed, that the many benevolent societies in the Island show that they are not so regardless of other claims, besides those of their own family, as their accusers would lead us to imagine.

Whatever there may be of justness in the charge, it is

principally to be found in the country, and with the farmer who is little disposed to lay out money. Economy, carried to an undue extent, is generally inconsistent: if a Jersey farmer will give his seed-wheat to the poultry, as some have said, rather than buy; so have we heard of very *economical* English ladies, who would expend eight or ten shillings in coach-hire, in driving to a part of London, reputedly cheap, and save in their purchase about half that sum. There is however one point on which the frugality of the Islanders strikingly appears, and this mostly concerns the higher orders: the learned professions, whether of the law or physic, are not sufficiently remunerated for the expences of their education. It may excite some surprise that this has not prevented eminent men from settling on the Island.

The *quid pro quo* system is certainly carried to a great extent in Jersey: this is however right, when seasoned with a measure of liberality in the mode of calculating the exchange—when too strict in exacting the full measure of return, it is apt to occasion discontent, if not strife. A Jerseyman is, in strictness, an honest man, and punctual in fulfilling his engagements; but it must be admitted that he likes a good bargain: and it is said will sometimes strain the finer springs of his conscience to obtain one. He is strongly attached to his own little Island and its constitution, endeared to him by the many centuries he has possessed them, and the many privileges he enjoys.

Some Englishmen have been known to complain of a want of hospitality in the Islanders: if there be any foundation for the charge, a consideration of the state of things alluded to in the above remarks will go far to remove it; and it should not be forgotten that strangers coming to a place where they are not known, are expected to bring

with them an introduction, before they can be received into good society.

There is an absence of pride in a Jersey lady which stands connected with frugality; heads of families universally go to market themselves, and most commonly carry home their purchases in baskets they take for that purpose.

Although Jersey has produced some learned men, and a few eminently so; yet, taking the community as a whole, it cannot be said to be literary: there is little either of knowledge or taste for the fine arts or belles-lettres. The liberal annual donation of the States for the purchase of new books, to enlarge the public library, will doubtless improve its character in this respect: a sensible difference has been perceived within a few years.

Vraiking, or Vraik gathering, is an important peculiar in the occupation of a Jerseyman, who has land to cultivate; for on the quantity he may collect of this beneficent boon of nature, will mainly depend the product of his next year's crop. The time of gathering this manure is fixed by the legislature, and is restricting to twice in the year, except when boisterous weather may have detached portions of it from the surrounding rocks, and driven it on the coast, and even the gathering of this is controuled by authority. The time of general vraiking is fixed to commence some time about the middle of March, and towards the end of July: it lasts about ten days. It is a season of great interest to the Islanders, and a scene of amusing bustle and activity to the stranger. Parties of eight or ten persons usually associate, and agree to assist each other, as in their agricultural labours. They provide themselves with a short scythe, not unlike an English

reap-hook, and a thick covering for the leg to protect it from accidents. The provender for the day usually consists of cakes made for the occasion, called "vraiking cakes," and a keg of cider: thus accoutred and provided, they proceed to the coast with their carts, and thence to the rocks which are accessible; but as the tide flows, or when the scene of labour is among the more distant rocks, boats are employed to bring the rich boon to the shore. It is not only a season of interest, but of great merriment—as is the *harvesting* in England, so is the *vraiking* in Jersey; and if some of the noviciates get a few tumbles on the rocks, occasioned by the slippery nature of their standing ground, it only adds to the merriment at the time, and serves for amusement when the labours of the day are finished.

The beautiful bay of St. Aubin is well adapted for excursions on the water, but these seem not to attract the inhabitants of the town, nor are they more inclined to frequent the walks that the vicinity presents. It is not difficult to account for this disregard to amusements that excite so much interest in a country town, or watering place in England. Scarcely any of the natives are without country relatives: *mon cousin* and *ma cousine* connect half the families of the Island. Visits of a few days or weeks to friends at a distance are preferred to the pleasure of a sail, or a walk in the country.

There is, however, a recreation which is also practised and enjoyed in England: "gipsying parties," in which the *pic-nic* system is adopted and are not unfrequent: for these the Island offers many inducements—the lofty eminences presenting a most extended sea-view, and regaling the party with refreshing breezes; or should the state of the

weather require a more sheltered spot, the rich valleys that are to be found in all directions, furnish the desired shade, while the shore and the caves present their peculiar attractions, as taste or circumstances may invite.

Although there is a Theatre, and a room for Balls and Concerts, as noticed in the preceding chapter, yet it cannot be said that either is well attended: the inhabitants are certainly not addicted to such kind of amusements, and the visitors are either disposed to fall in with the taste of the natives, or are not sufficiently numerous of themselves to sustain them. There is not encouragement for a good company to make occasional visits to the Island, and such as have hitherto appeared on the boards have not sufficient histrionic powers to induce a change in the taste either of the Islanders or visitors. This may be lamented by a few, but considering the effect which theatrical amusements have on the mind and morals, and especially of the young, there may be no great cause for regret. Balls and concerts are not well attended: this also may in a measure be ascribed to the same cause which influence the other. Card parties are more to the taste of the Islanders, and suit better with their habits of friendly intercourse with each other: they indulge in this amusement to a considerable extent.

The Jersey and English society do not much intermingle in what may be called social parties: the natives being so much linked together by relationship in various degrees, are naturally led to associate among themselves: this is the main cause of their confining their visits so much among each other, and not to a wish on their part to exclude those English residents, who have been properly introduced, with whom the higher orders do occasionally meet in large parties.

There are occasionally Races on the sands, which certainly furnish a species of amusement, although not of a character so exciting as that felt at Newmarket or Epsom, but probably far less pernicious.

About half a mile from the square, on the skirts of the town, is a kind of promenade, in some pleasure grounds; and in which a band of music plays during certain hours in the summer. The grounds are private property, but admission is allowed on paying a trifling fee of sixpence to the gate-keeper: they command a fine view of the Island.

The English sportsman will not expect to find indulgence for his favourite pursuits in Jersey: the limited extent of the Island altogether precludes "Field Sports," and "good Izaak Walton" would not have endured a summer's residence there.

" Oh! my beloved Nymph, fair Dove,*
Princess of rivers, how I love
Upon thy flow'ry banks to lie,
And view thy silver stream,
When gilded by a summer beam,
And in it all thy wanton fry
Playing at liberty,
And with my angle upon them,
(The all of treachery
I ever learnt) industriously to try."

Walton's Angler.

Although few places are better supplied with running water, flowing in various directions, yet they deserve no higher term than rivulets, and do not approach to what, in piscatory language are called "Streams."

It would scarcely be right to tantalize a Jerseyman with a pleasure he cannot enjoy, unless we were prepared

* The river Dove flows between the counties of Derby and Stafford.

to suggest others within his compass. Although Falconry does not now prevail as a pastime to the extent it did formerly, yet is it still to be found among the amusements of the field: should it be doubted whether there can be any pleasure in it as a recreation, let a falconer tell his own tale, and express his own feelings.*

There is yet another out-door pastime, which may be enjoyed by the residents in Jersey, of a more social character than that of hawking, and not liable to the charge of cruelty, that is often made against it.

* George Tuberville was a celebrated falconer, during the reign of James the First, and wrote on the training and management of hawks: there is a poetical introduction to his work, in which he sounds the high praises of falconry: his verses may not be so symphonious as the renowned Angler's, but they have great force of language, and are not without beauty, according to the taste of the times. After descanting on the evils of idleness, he proceeds:—

Which if be so, I need not blush or deem it my disgrace,
 If hawks and spaniels I preferre, and set in highest place;
 For truly no devise delights the mind of man so much,
 No game so gladsome to the limmes, there is no pleasure such:
 No phisicke fitter to remove the dregs of direfull paine,
 And to restore to former life the feeble force againe.

He then describes the feats of a spaniel, and the pleasure they afford when

They scour the fields with wond'rous skill, and deale in cunning sort,
 As though indeed they had conspirde to make their master sport:
 So as by hawkes doth pleasure grow unto the gazing eie,
 And dogges delight the listening eares before the hawkes do fie.
 What dolt so dull but takes delight when once the spaniel springs
 The fearefull fowle, and when the hawke lyes long upon her wings?
 What sence so sad—what mind so mazed, but sets his sorrowes by,
 When once the falcon free, begins to scud amid the skie,
 To turne and winde a bird by sleight, and eke at last to slay,
 With strong encounter doves and ducks, and every other prey,
 By binding with her close in clouds, in manner out of sight,
 For noble peeres and chiefest states, a passing pleasant flight;
 So small a bird, so large a fowle. at such a loftie gate
 To reach and rappe. and force to fall—IT IS A GAME OF STATE!

Since the musket has displaced the bow and arrow as a weapon in war, Archery has been retained as a recreation. Although it is far less prevalent now as a pastime, than when employed in battle, yet has it always held a place among the amusements in England, and several of her monarchs have bestowed on it their especial favour.

It were easy to give a history of archery from the reign of Henry the Eighth, when it became altogether a pastime, through the successive reigns of Edward the Sixth, Elizabeth, and the Stuarts, all of whom bestowed upon it marks of royal favour, down to George the Fourth, who, when Prince of Wales, gave it his especial patronage; and when he visited Scotland, in 1822, was constantly attended by a band of archers:—but here it will be unnecessary to say more than to mention some eminent men who have written on the subject, and quote them in its praise.

Roger Ascham, the celebrated tutor to Queen Elizabeth, was the first who wrote on archery as an amusement during the reign of Henry VIII: his book is entitled "*Toxophilus*, or Schole of Shootinge:" he thus commends it:—"Shooting is an honest pastime for the mind, and a wholesome exercise for the body; not vile for great men to use, not costly for poor men to maintayne; nor lurking in holes and corners for ill men at their pleasure to mis-use, but still abiding in open sight, and face of all the world for good men, (if it bee any way faulty) by their wisdom to correct it."*

* The reader will be amused with Roger Ascham's "praise of a goose," which is, indeed, connected with the subject of archery: he says, "how well doth she make a man fare at his table—how easily doth she make a man lye down in his bed—how fit even as her feathers are for shooting, so be her quills fit for writing."

Every lover of archery is well acquainted with William Wood, that Prince of Archers, and his celebrated book, "the Bowman's Glory;" but not to multiply quotations, we shall only add one from "the Arte of Archerie," by Gervaise Markham, who was marshal to the Company of Archers, in 1634: in the introduction to his book he observes: "The Lacedæmonians never ordayned anything for the bringing up of youth, that was not joined with labour, and that labour which is in shooting, is of all other the best, both because it increases strength and most preserveth health, being not vehement but moderate, not over-laying any one part with weariness, but exercising every part with equalnesse, as the arme and brest with drawing, the other parts with walking; being not so painful for the labour, as delightful for the pastime; which exercise, by the judgment of the best Physitians, is most allowable."

We shall merely add that archery revived with considerable *éclat*, in 1770. Societies were formed, and many of the nobility became members: there was one in particular that attracted great notice at Hatfield, under the patronage of lady Salisbury. In 1790 the prince of Wales not only gave it royal countenance, but prizes to be shot for: on this occasion the ladies' prize was won by lady Cunliff.

In concluding this subject may it not be asked,—if archery has received so much of royal favour, would it at all derogate from the dignity of the lieutenant governor of Jersey to give it the sanction of his high patronage?

CHAPTER XII.

TOUR ROUND THE COAST.

“Undertake at all events a pedestrian tour round the Island. Descend into the bays, double the headlands, and skirt the cliffs. This is the way to see an island: many fine scenes and singular spots escape one, if excursions be only directed to particular points.”

Ingliis.

It is proposed in this Tour round the Island to notice only those bold features and natural curiosities, which probably have existed from before the period when it became inhabited: the buildings and other works of man, whether mansions, or castles, or druidical remains, which may fall in our way, will be passed by with a cursory remark, to be described more at length in the tour through the parishes.

The coast tour may be performed in two days, taking the northern centre of the Island for the conclusion of the first day; where the traveller may get slender accommodation in St. John's parish, or as the distance is only five miles to the town, he might return to his hotel, and by traversing the same road the next morning, he may start from the point which he left the evening before.

The reader need scarcely be informed that this should either be a pedestrian tour, or performed *en cavalier*: if the latter, he should provide himself with a person to attend to his horse while visiting spots inaccessible on horseback.

It is proposed to commence the tour from the town of St. Helier: on leaving which, the tourist will be conducted along a part of the southern shore; and from thence, turning northwards, skirt the eastern side of the Island. After having proceeded thus far, the next course will be that of winding among the sinuosities of the high northern boundary; then stretching along the western extremity, turn again to the southern barrier. Having pursued this outline, he will enter St. Helier on the western side.

On leaving St. Helier, the first striking object is an assemblage of high rocks, all insulated at half flood, on one of which stands Elizabeth Castle. This chain is encompassed with the rugged surfaces of lower masses, rendering the approach of an enemy both difficult and hazardous. These rocks divide St. Aubin's bay into two parts, one of which is called the great road, and the other the small road.

Ancient records inform us that, about A. D. 565, and probably for several subsequent ages, the range of rocks just noticed constituted part of the main land of Jersey: on the summit of one of them is a small but substantial stone building, called the Hermitage, in days of legendary fame, the secluded cell of a martyred ascetic, from whom the town of St. Helier received its name. From the harbour the road is continued round a part of the hill until it descends to a small rocky inlet, called *Havre des pas*, from which, at a short distance, we arrive at a small village, called *Le Dic*. From this village we pass along a low flat surface, bordered on the right by the sea, and on the left by rising umbrageous grounds, which separate the parish of St. Clement from that of Grouville. When the tide rises to its full height, the sea view is remarkably fine, and highly picturesque, exhibiting a

number of islets ; but as it recedes, very different is the appearance: the whole coast being laid open, discloses a terrifying congeries of rugged rocks, varying in height and dimensions, which appear to render all access to the Island absolutely impracticable. In fact, the whole coast line from Elizabeth castle to the long and narrow point which forms the southern boundary of Grouville bay, is completely studded with irregular rocky masses ; and this natural embossed shield is rendered more eminently defensive, by the strong and varying currents that intersect those craggy protuberances.

Continuing along the beach, St. Clement's church appears on the left, erected on rising ground inland and commanding from its tower a boundless sea prospect, while a beautifully diversified landscape fills up the intermediate space. Another mile will bring the tourist to *La Roque* ; from thence a projection, composed of low rocks, stretches out for more than two miles into the sea. On one of the most distant of these crags stands Seymour tower, nearly two miles from the shore at high water, but it may be approached on foot when the tide is low. *La Roque* terminates the southern coast of Jersey. Directing his course northwards, along the eastern shore, he will follow the sea-line to the termination of Grouville bay at Mont Orgueil.

Grouville bay will now display itself to great advantage. It forms a beautiful curve, and should a fresh breeze ruffle its waves at full flood, it presents an interesting sea view ; especially when the scene is enlivened by a little fleet of oyster vessels in the bay. Among the rocks, at the southern extremity, stands Seymour tower, already noticed. Its appearance is very striking from this point ; for though, at low water, connected with the land, it is

completely insulated soon after the flood begins to rise. It then appears like a tall column in the midst of the surrounding waters.

Approaching Mont Orgueil, he will approach a sandy level, and see the antient village of *Gorey* on the left. This was once a place of importance, being formerly the seat of justice. The most distant part of the village sweeps up a beautiful ascent towards the castle, and rises above the floods, which occasionally inundate the lower extremity.

The castle of Mont Orgueil, named also the Old Castle, was once an impregnable fortress; but, since the invention of gunpowder, its lofty bulwarks have been suffered to decay. From it there is an extensive view of the French coast, at a distance of five or six leagues from its nearest point.

A little beyond Mont Orgueil is a projection called *Geoffrey's rock*; from which, according to traditionary report, criminals were formerly precipitated into the sea: hence it is called *Saut Jeffrey*, or *Geoffrey's leap*. To the N. E. of Mont Orgueil, and about a league from the shore, a long range of low rocks, named *Ecrehou*, emerges from the sea, and presents an additional barrier to this side of the Island.

Proceeding northwards,* the coast assumes a more imposing character than that which is displayed in the former part of the tour—the craggy summits exhibit a variety of fantastic forms. They seem to vie with each other for superiority, and present an appearance somewhat grotesque—they reflect from the swelling bosses, that jut out from the greensward, a profusion of tints; while

* If this tour be taken on foot, the pedestrian should be informed that there is a path along the shore, which continues as far as *Rosel bay*.

the heaving surge breaks against their bases ; and in recoiling, traces a long streak of silvery foam on the ruffled surface.

After passing a small harbour, called Anne Port, and skirting the indented coast for some time, by a tolerable bridle-way, scooped out of the solid mass, at about half its elevation, the view opens on the bay of St. Catherine. This bold inlet is more circumscribed than that of Grouville ; but the sublime and the beautiful are here finely contrasted.

On a rock, insulated as the tide flows into the bay, stands Archisondal tower, protecting, as it were, the magic scene. A little to the northward of that fortification is a bed of pipe clay, which is seldom applied to any purpose, though said to be of an excellent quality : it is overflowed at high water, and is frequently covered with sand.

Continuing to follow the marine line, we sweep round several smaller inlets, forming coves along the coast, which now tends to the N. W. ; these shallow retreats from storm are protected by headlands, that divert the rapid currents, one of which, called *Verclut*, is a bold projection into the sea. On the northern side of St. Catherine's bay a mountainous pudding-stone rock rises abruptly from the sea, called *La Coupe*. This and others of nearly the same description, occupy the whole N. E. corner of the Island, until the farthest of them terminates at Bouley bay.

We now approach *Le Couperon*, an elevated projection towards the sea, descending from which, into a narrow valley, the road leads to the summit of another height, from whence a tortuous path declines to *Havre de Rosel*, a small semicircular basin bounded by high rocks. This beautiful little port affords a residence to a number of fishermen.

From this point of the Island we now turn to the westward, and trace a deeply indented coast, formed of rocky cliffs, that rise occasionally to the height of forty or fifty fathoms. Continuing the route, with the ocean on the right, the inland prospect on the left is highly interesting. The intermixture of hill and dale, of pasture and arable land, of light and shade, affording a pleasing contrast to the bold sea view on the opposite side.

Soon after quitting Havre de Rosel, we pass *La Petite Césarée*, a Roman fortification, which will be particularly described as it existed formerly, in the chapter on Antiquities, but very little of it remains at the present time. We next descend a serpentine road to the beach, and a noble gulf, named Bouley bay, will open to view; characterized, like the bays of Rosel and St. Catherine, by an outline of gigantic rocks, that stretch from *Tour de Rosel* to *Belle Hougue*. From the heights that overlook the bay is a very extensive marine prospect. The north-eastern horizon is skirted by a considerable portion of Lower Normandy: while, in the north, appear the islands of Guernsey, Alderney, and Sercq, with their dependencies. The intervening watery expanse contains the long defensive range of Ecrehou, Les Dirouilles, and the Paternos-
ters.

Turning from the wildness of Bouley, and directing his course a little inland, the tourist will be again gratified with the contrast afforded by extensive cultivation. The road will conduct him by Trinity Church, from which a short and pleasant ride leads to the sea at *Bonne Nuit*. This is a small port, formed by an inlet between two projecting points. Bonne Nuit is bounded on the land side by rocky cliffs of immense height, whose declivities display no other covering than a scanty portion of short herbage,

variegated by the purple and yellow tints of heath, broom, and gorse.

On one of those elevations, called *Mont Mado*, is a signal station, and closely adjoining are large quarries of sienite.* In several places the quarries, no longer wrought, are converted into fish ponds.

Pursuing the route from this point, somewhat to the left is St. John's Church. The most usual road declines from the bold promontory of *Fremont*, and leads through a pleasant, but not greatly diversified, part of the country. A more romantic road skirts the coast; this, though gratifying the eye with greater variety, is attended with much difficulty, and even with danger. To follow the narrow tracks of sheep and goats, along a shelving path, on the very brink of rugged precipices, where the acclivity is so steep as to render it difficult to preserve a seat on horseback, would indeed be hazardous: it would be more desirable at this spot to dismount and enjoy the prospect in safety. Sorel point is seen in the distance, on the right.

Though, in following the sea line from Fremont, the surface of the ground is extremely irregular, rising and falling in rapid succession, yet, inland, the roads are level and good: should this course be adopted, a road will conduct to St. Mary's church, and thence to Greve de Lecq.

In the centre of a bay formed between the two promontories of Sorel and Plemont, is a beautiful cave, called *Greve de Lecq*; the extensive outline between these points is broken in various places by angular projections. The

* The tourist will not deem it lost time to pay a visit to these quarries; they furnished the stone with which many of the old houses are built; it is preferred to any other in the Island, as it works readily, and a flat surface is easily obtained. Fort Regent and the new prison are built with it, and considerable quantities are shipped to England.

extremities have been torn off by the violence of contending waves, and now form ledges of low sharp rocks, which are rendered extremely dangerous, owing to the strength and diversified course of the currents.

The cliff that marks the immediate eastern boundary of Greve de Lecq swells to an enormous bulk and height, forming a circular hill called *Catel de Lecq*, the base of which, on the land side, has the appearance of a rampart. The northern declivity of this tremendous cliff is, in several places, so precipitous as to assume a beetling form; in others, it descends to the sea in huge masses of denuded rock.

Passing the barracks, and winding round the base of the lofty hill, already noticed as constituting the immediate eastern extremity of the cove, there is a narrow perforation of no great height, which extends in length about one hundred feet. This subterraneous passage, which cannot be explored when the tide is up, is rendered difficult and unpleasant by the lumps of detached rock, which the sea, by constant attrition, has rounded into monstrous pebbles, and forced into the aperture. Emerging from the tunnel into another creek, two high rocks, of pyramidal shape, rear themselves in front, and have a singularly striking appearance. In the centre of that which is lowest down on the shore, the waves have burst through, and formed a high and narrow aperture like a Gothic arch.*

Few strangers come to Jersey without visiting the caves; those of *Greve de Lecq*, *Plemont*, and *Le Moye* are the principal. The course of our tour now brings us to the

* Dr. Mac Culloch, in the *Geological Transactions*, has given a view of these two rocks; he mentions only one being of a pyramidal shape; but his drawing exhibits their eastern front: on the western side, which is opposite to the mouth of the perforated tunnel, both have partly the same triangular form.

former: it lies under a hill that shelves rapidly on the western side of the bay, until it terminates abruptly in a precipice. Approach to it along the shore is prevented by a ledge of broken rocks; but by following the sinuosities of a narrow track, that runs along the hill, by the very edge of the precipice, a rough path descends to the spot. This chasm is filled with water as the tide rises, but becomes dry at half ebb. The mouth is an irregular opening, nearly twenty feet in height, but much narrower in width. The cavern rises from the entrance to a considerable degree of elevation, and penetrates horizontally to the depth of fifty or sixty feet. When the sun's rays gleam into this obscure excavation, and glitter on the sandy floor, the dark tints of the rugged sides and roof become softened by the refracted light. Looking outwards from the extreme depth, when the cavern is thus half illuminated, it instantly conveys the idea of a church, with a lofty vaulted roof. The best time for viewing this sublime object, is when the tide is so high that it may be entered in a boat.

From Greve de Lecq the road ascends, along a well-shaded path: it then becomes level, and passes between two ancient mansions, *Vinchelez de haut*, and *Vinchelez de bas*, which stand opposite to each other. A tortuous path now leads to *Plemont*, a high rugged cape, jutting further into the sea than the other headlands on the northern coast, and, like them, characterized by acute ledges of sienite.

The promontory of Plemont is so deeply intersected on each side, as to be joined to the main land by a very narrow isthmus: this has been cut down to a considerable depth, so that it is, though improperly, termed an Island. Over the deep fosse is a bridge, and close to it is placed

a guard-house. This place has long been celebrated for its caves; they are chiefly on the western side of a small inlet, of which the eastern point is formed by the promontory of Plemont. The usual descent to those caverns is on this side. The declivity is safe, though steep: that from the hill which covers them is seldom used, as it is more dangerous.

All the caves should be reconnoitred by water; with a boat from Greve de Lecq, it would be easy to land close to every opening in the cliffs; and thus they might be viewed before the receding tide would admit of proceeding to them by land. The cave at Plemont, which is most noted, is four hundred feet deep, though those who deal in the marvellous, would give it, and many others, a much greater depth: when the waves rush into these caves, they produce a noise nearly equal to the loudest thunder. Not far from Plemont is another promontory, which from its bluff form has acquired the name of *Grosnez*. In the way to it is a small cove, that possesses a fine sandy beach; but to this inlet it is very difficult, if not dangerous, to descend.

Grosnez constitutes the north-western boundary of Jersey, and like other parts of the northern line, the coast, notwithstanding its bluff appearance, is bristled with angular points. No other way leads down the cliffs in this quarter, than the paths made by the feet of a few straggling sheep, which here and there crop the scanty herbage.

At the extremity of the promontory are the ruins of *Grosnez* castle. A small gateway, and two projecting angles, constitute the remains of a portal,—all that now exists of this once noted castle.

Advancing southward, a most singular colossal rock will be seen rising suddenly from the sea. It is an irre-



Engraved by G. Cooke.

gular pillar, more than a hundred feet in height, and tapering but little from its broad craggy basis. This natural tower is very appositely named *Le Pinnacle*.

On quitting Grosnez the rocky cliffs begin to decline in height ; and this progressive reduction gives to Jersey that form of an inclined plane, which has already been noticed. The last of the rugged eminences in this district is called *L'Etac* : it is a large irregular mass, jutting out from the shore, and becoming from its position the northern boundary of St. Ouen's bay. This inlet sweeps from L'Etac to the southward of *La Rocco*, a tower erected on a rock, about half a mile below high water mark, though dry as the tide recedes.

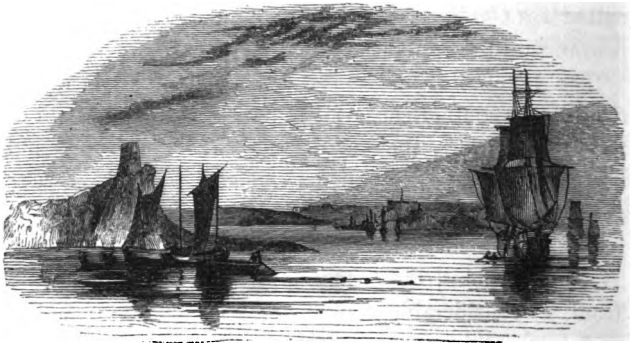
Continuing to follow the sea line, on leaving *La Rocco*, a part of *Les Quenvais* that borders on the shore, will next be traversed. That devoted part of the Island is nearly a mile in breadth, and stretches inland, towards the south, about two miles. At some distance in a southerly direction, there is a point of land, close to the extremity of which is that rugged mass of lofty rocks, called *La Corbiere*, which present such a formidable appearance in the approach to the Island.

The direction is now to the eastward, and along a portion of the southern coast ; and after passing the head of St. Brelade's bay, the road declines to the south-east, and a small inlet is seen, called *Portelet* : in this cove rises a rock, on which is erected a low circular fort, with a piece of ordnance. Rounding this curve, we approach *Neirmont* point, the extremity of which drops sharply from a considerable height, and terminates in a low rock, on which has been erected a martello tower, which guards the western entrance of St. Aubin's bay, and commands a range of coast towards St. Brelade's, and Elizabeth Castle is seen in the distance.

On the heights above the point are two assemblages of very massive fragments, seemingly thrown upon each other in a confused manner: they may be classed with those problematical blocks, of a similar appearance, which are seen in various parts of the Island, and may well become objects of antiquarian speculation, as Jersey has abounded in relics of paganism.

We now approach the town of St. Aubin: the way is along a new and very pleasant road, which, about half way up the cliffs, winds from Portelet along the sinuosities of the shore. The seams of the rocks in this part are variously inclined; so much so as to be in some places nearly vertical, and in others as nearly horizontal.

A short ride will now conduct the tourist to St. Helier; the road over the sand when the tide permits is very pleasant; there is however another somewhat inland, and more elevated: but the prospect from neither of them is greatly diversified.



Noirmont.

CHAPTER XIII.

TOUR THROUGH THE ISLAND.

EASTERN TOUR—*St. Clement, Grouville, St. Martin, St. Saviour.*

CENTRE TOUR—*Trinity, St. John, St. Mary, St. Lawrence.*

WESTERN TOUR—*St. Peter, St. Ouen, St. Brelade.*

HAVING conducted the visitor round the coast, and exhibited to him the peculiar and characteristic features of the Island, we propose to accompany him in a tour through the parishes. It must be admitted that there is very little in the interior to engage the attention of an English traveller; but whoever comes to Jersey to see it should, if time permit, see every part. The inland tour is divided into three excursions, each of which may be performed in a morning's ride; but a stranger who is satisfied with a cursory view of the Island, may pass through it in two days: in this case he will of course consult the driver of the vehicle he may hire, as to the best plan of combining the excursions that will be recommended.

On leaving the town of St. Helier, there are two roads which take to Grouville; one, which may be called the upper road, and which conducts directly to the church; and the other, the lower road, which passes through St. Clement's parish, and is not far from the shore. In the pre-

sent tour it is supposed that the stranger is desirous of visiting the whole Island,—of passing through all the parishes: he will, therefore, be conducted on the road to St. Clement.

On leaving the town, he will pass the house and grounds of *Plaisance*, and will descend to the small village of *Le Dicq*: on leaving this village he will pass through the manor of *Saumarez*; the mansion, which is a modern structure, stands on the left of the road, and somewhat more than a mile from the town. The land between this part of the road and the sea consists of low sandy hillocks, called *Les Mielles*, with occasional patches of verdure. The manor of *Saumarez* belongs to the family of *Hammond*; it is the most extensive, and, indeed, the principal fief in the Island: about a mile further the tourist will reach St. Clement's church.

In the MS. account of Jersey, already quoted, there is the following general description of the churches:—
“Next are the churches, which are in number twelve, the like whereof are not to be found in the same plot of ground in all Europe, cittyes excepted. Four of them have for steeples square towers, two very high and faire, and tve others not soe: the rest have very high spires, whereof some serve for seamen, for markes to direct their course by; that of St. Saviours is the fairest, and the clearest of all, and the best in repaire, but none of the rest want something (anything,) which may render it commendable, in comparison of many other churches to be frequently seen upon the roads of France and England.”
After this general description of the churches, it will not be necessary to detain the reader, by describing them separately; he will form his own opinion how far it is correct at the present time.

Near St. Clement's church, on the shore, is the small village of *Pontaque*, which is a place of very general resort, both for the upper class of town inhabitants and for visitors, as there is here more accommodation for a temporary abode than in any other part of the Island, and more convenience for sea-bathing. During the season of vracic gathering, it presents a scene of unusual activity and amusement.

The next inland point to which the tourist will be conducted is the village of Grouville, which he will enter near the church. It has already been observed that there is another and more direct road to this village, avoiding St. Clement, which if he should be desirous of saving time, he would probably take: this passes through George town and *Longueville*, and conducts directly to the church. In the church-yard is a plain monument, which was erected by private subscription, to commemorate the names of seven soldiers, who fell in the attack of the French, in 1781. A short ride will now take him to the village of Gorey and Mount Orgueil castle.

The view of the castle from this road is very striking, and presents an appearance, situated as it is on a very high elevation, which is well described by its name. After passing through the village of Gorey, which during the oyster season is a scene of great bustle, the road conducts to its gates: the stranger will of course visit the interior of this once renowned castle, although there is not at present much to admire: it is fast going to decay, and when arrived at that state, will probably be more to be admired, than in its present state of partial ruin. The rooms which are said to have been occupied by Charles the Second, are the only ones that are in a tolerable state of repair. Under an arched gate-way, near the entrance,

are seen some stone benches, which were formerly seats of justice; and not far from these are the ends of beams, from which condemned prisoners were suspended. Should the visit to the castle be on a clear day, the tourist will be gratified by a fine view, from its summit, of the coast of France; and the cathedral of Coutance, at a distance of thirty miles, may be distinctly seen with the naked eye.*

From Gorey we now proceed to the village of St. Martin, which is scarcely three miles from the castle: the road lies over a hill of considerable acclivity and length, and on either side is to be seen some of the most fertile land in the Island. The interior of the church has been modernized, and a new parsonage house built. The manor house of Rozel, which is in this parish, is a short mile from the church; it has been greatly improved by

* Prynne, the noted puritan, was confined in this castle for three years, during which time he wrote several poems, which he dedicated to

“ Sweet Mistriss Douce, fair Margaret,
Prime flower of the House of Carteret.”

A further specimen of the learned barrister's poetry, in the description of Mount Orgueil Castle, will serve to amuse the reader:—

Mount Orgueil Castle is a lofty pile
Within the eastern parts of Jersey isle;
Seated upon a rocke, full large and high,
Close by the sea shore, next to Normandie,
Neare to a sandy bay, where boats doe ride,
Within a peere, safe both from wind and tide;
Three parts thereof the flowing seas surround,
The fourth (north-westwards) is firme rockie ground.
A proud high mount it hath, a rampier long,
Four gates, foure posternes, bulwarks, sconces strong;
All built with stone, on which there mounted lie
Fifteen cast pieces of artillery.
With sundry *murdering chambers*,* planted so,
As best may fence itself, and hurt a foe.

* Small guns.



its present owner, and is well shaded by wood. Rozel is one of the principal Seigneuries in the Island, and the manorial rights extend over a considerable tract of country: some substantially built barracks are in this neighbourhood, but during the time of peace they are unoccupied. A short distance from the Manor House, is *Havre de Rozel*, the usual place of resort for pic-nics; a digression of this kind would be a pleasant interlude during the tour, if it be undertaken by a party. Should the tourist visit the Manor House of Rozel, he will find a narrow road on the right, which winds over a hill of some length, and then falls into the road already described in the Coast tour, and which connects immediately with Havre de Rozel. There is, however, a more direct road that takes directly to the harbour, avoiding the Manor House. The remains of a druid temple are also in this neighbourhood: it is the principal one that exists in the Island, at the present time: it consists of twenty-one stones, placed in the form of an oval, with other stones in the centre.*

Havre de Rozel is well worthy the attention of a visitor. It is one of the most beautiful spots in the Island: the bay is formed by high banks and cliffs, that completely hem it in: a few fishermen's huts are scattered along the beach.

On the right of the church is the road leading to Trinity, but having recommended, in this day's route, a return through St. Saviour's, the stranger will avoid the road to Trinity, and take the left of the one he has already travelled from St. Martin's; he will soon enter the parish of St. Saviour. In this part of his tour he will visit *La Hougue Bie*, or as it has lately been called, Prince's

* For a more particular account of this Temple, the reader is referred to Chapter XIV., ANTIQUITIES.

Tower, having been inhabited by the late Prince of Bouillon. It is an ancient building, and has furnished the subject of several legends, but which are too ridiculous to deserve notice.* The first ascent is by a flight of steps, to the top of the mound on which the tower is built; from thence a winding staircase conducts to the summit. From this elevation the Island is seen to great advantage; the whole lies beneath the eye, and looks like a vast wood, owing to the great number of enclosures, and the hedge rows being planted with trees: it also commands a great extent of the French coast. Being so near the town, it is the principal place of public resort. It is embellished with beautiful walks and pleasure grounds, in which parties can be supplied with refreshments. On returning from Prince's tower, the road lies through the manor of *Grainville*; and will soon conduct to St. Saviour's church: this is the largest of the country churches, and its situation is very commanding. From the tower, and even from a field near the church-yard, is a fine view of the bay, Elizabeth castle, and the town of St. Helier.† In St. Saviour's church is a monument to John Poindextre, Esq., who died in 1691: he is justly celebrated in Jersey, as "one of the most learned and upright magistrates the Island has ever produced." In this parish, and somewhat more than a mile from the church, on the north, is the public school of St. Manlier, already noticed in the Ecclesiastical history of the Island.

In returning to the town from St. Saviour's, the tourist

* A story has been written by Mr. Bulkeley, founded on the events connected with the building, which has all the interest of an eastern tale, without its extravagancies. It is called "La Hougue Bie, a tale of Jersey:" it has many interesting and learned notes, relating to Jersey and Normandy.

† The View in the frontispiece is taken from this spot.

will pass by Government House on the right, the residence of the lieutenant-governor, which is pleasantly situated. On the same line of road are very extensive nursery grounds which a florist, or horticulturist, would be pleased to visit. The suburbs may now be said to begin, as gentlemen's villas or cottages are to be seen on either side of the road, which now soon terminates in the town itself.

CENTRAL TOUR.

The second tour will comprise the centre of the Island, and comprehend the four parishes of Trinity, St. John, St. Mary, and St. Lawrence.

The first route will be to Trinity: there is little to be noticed on this road, except the very beautiful sea views with St. Aubin's bay in the fore-ground, until we arrive at the manor of Trinity, which belongs to the renowned family of Carteret. The house is not unlike those venerable mansions built in England during the reign of the Stuarts, and approached through an avenue of trees. A table, a goblet, and a pair of gloves, which belonged to Charles the Second, are preserved as relics of the monarch, who evinced so much attachment to the honoured predecessor of the present Seigneur, as related in the general History. The grounds are extensive; they are ornamented with a sheet of water, and the gardens are well laid out. In Trinity Church is a handsome tomb enclosed by iron railings, and a mural monument to the memory of Sir Edward Carteret, Knt.—he was usher of the black rod to Charles II. he died 1682.

If the visitor has not already made the tour of the coast, he should by all means diverge to Bouley bay; it is not far from Trinity Church. This bay is remarkable for the bold scenery of which it forms a part. A harbour has,

within a few years, been made there, at a great expense; it is, however, very little used, and for the reason already stated;* notwithstanding it is a road-stead, easy of access, has good anchorage, and considerable depth of water when all the other bays are dry.

There is a direct road from Trinity to St. John's, which is the next object in the present tour. The little harbour of *Bonne Nuit* is not far distant, a path leads directly to it, and to the barracks in this neighbourhood, which may now be visited, if they have not already.

The Quarries have already been alluded to in the Coast tour, or they may be visited now, as they are scarcely a mile from St. John's Church. The two most noted are *Mont Mado†* and *La Perruque*. Half a mile from the Church of St. John is the manor of *La Hogue Boëte*, belonging to the family of Le Couteur. In the church is a monument to John Le Couteur, Esq., who died in 1794.

In the parish of St. John is practised a ceremony, or rather a pastime, called "*faire braire les poëles*:" it is observed on St. John's eve. A large brass boiler is encircled with rushes, and others attached to them; the boiler is partly filled with water: when the rushes are well moistened they are drawn quickly through the hand, and thus a loud discordant sound is produced, not a little heightened by the blowing of cows' horns: after having regaled themselves with noise, these merry-makers go forth and furnish themselves with milk for syllabubs, by milking all the cows that are abroad. Robbing gardens and orchards is another part of this after-sport: these depredations are however now in a great measure suppressed.

We now take the road to St. Mary's, distance somewhat

* See Chapter II., TIDES. † See Chapter VI., MINERALOGY.

more than a mile and a half: on this lies the manor of *Des Pres*. On the right the scenery on this road is rich, and it is not deficient in wood. As there is nothing worthy of notice in the Church, the tourist will take a road to the left, and direct his course to St. Lawrence; on this road is situated *Avranches*, a modern mansion belonging to the family of Marett. After leaving the Church of St. Lawrence the road passes an estate called the Grove, and a short drive will conduct to the village of Millbrook. On the left is Millbrook House: turning to the left, a mile and a half will take to St. Helier.

WESTERN TOUR.

The third excursion will be through the western parishes of the Island. The route at first lies along the shore; after having passed the village of Millbrook at a short distance, a road on the right conducts inland and through the much admired valley of St. Peter to the Church. The tourist will not find much to detain him here: the Church is like most of the others in the Island; it has, however, the credit of being kept in a better state of repair than many of them, and it has an elaborately carved monument to the memory of Elie de Carteret, date 1640. Proceeding to St. Ouen's he will pass a mansion which was once the residence of the Carteret family, but it has now passed into other hands. St. Ouen's Church stands in a retired part of the parish: it appears as if sunk into the earth, as the approach to the interior is by a descent of two steps. The same hurricane that desolated Les Quenvais may have contributed to this, by raising a mound around it.

After passing St. Ouen's Church, he will continue his route to *Vinchelez de haut* and *Vinchelez de bas*, which two residences are separated by the road to Plemont. The

former is a very antient building, and will remind the tourist of feudal times—a large court-yard, surrounded by high walls, and a machicolated gateway with its turret and bell: the arms of De Carteret are placed over the portal. The latter has lately been erected by Captain Carteret, the lord of the manor. If the stranger has not made the tour of the coast, he will probably proceed to the N.W. corner of the Island, to which the road alluded to conducts, visit the caves at Plemont, and view Grosner Castle, celebrated in history, but now in ruins. From this point he must return to the Church: from hence he will probably diverge to the barracks, which are not more than a mile distance, and from whence a road leads directly across the *Quenvais* to St. Brelade's.

Les Quenvais, and the catastrophe that occasioned the desolation which marks this part of the country, have been already described.* It is generally reported, and indeed believed, in the Island, that this was a signal instance of divine vengeance on the inhabitants of that part of the Island, for acts of extortion and cruelty on some Spanish ships, which were cast away on that shore, in the year 1495. We give this story as it is related, without presuming to fix the manner in which Almighty God may be pleased to manifest his displeasure in this present life, or whether He did so in this instance; and the narrative is the more questionable, as it is reported that the judgment was inflicted, because the delinquents are said to have acted in contempt of the authority of the church: without meaning in the least to justify oppression, we are not prepared to admit, that divine judgments will always fall on those who disregard injunctions, issued by emissaries of papal authority.

* See Chapter VIII., SOIL AND FERTILITY.

The Church of St. Brelade is the most antient in the Island, and the view from it, commanding the bay, is very fine.* Near the Church is the Manor House of *La Moye*. From this point, the road skirting the head of the bay leads to St. Aubin.

The situation of the little town of St. Aubin is singularly beautiful, and the view from the most elevated parts very extensive. It was formerly a place of more importance than it is at present: the principal trade of the Island was formerly carried on here, which is now removed to St. Helier; it has however a portion of the island trade. The harbour and military defences stand opposite to the town. On its southern side is a promenade, the view from which combines the beauty of that already described, with well wooded heights that rise above, and the rugged line of coast that stretches towards Noirmont point.

The town of St. Aubin consists principally of one street: it is in the parish of St. Brelade, and consequently at a considerable distance from the Church: there is however a Chapel of ease for the accommodation of the inhabitants.

Near the town is a fort, built on a rock, which stands well as a protection to the harbour: though dry at low water, it is insulated as the tide rises. The harbour is sufficiently capacious for the trade that is brought to it: this also is dry at low water, though at a high spring tide

* Jersey was formerly, according to tradition, the land of fairies, and they seem to have been very officious at the time St. Brelade's Church was built. It was proposed to build it on the eastern side of the bay, but no sooner were the materials collected, than they were carried to the opposite side, where the Church now stands; this was supposed to be miraculous, to point out the proper site. It is however more than probable that it was a contrivance of the priest, who preferred the western side of the bay. It must be confessed that either he or the fairies showed great taste in the selection of the spot.

it has a depth of thirty feet. A drive across the sands, or by the road already noticed, will conduct to St. Helier.

To the reader who may come to Jersey for the sake of its genial climate, and for the improvement of his health, a few remarks on the advantages of the different parts of the Island, will not be unacceptable: they are selected from Dr. Hooper's work, already quoted. Above all others he recommends to the attention of the invalid the three districts of St. Clement, Grouville, and St. Catherine's bay, possessing advantages peculiar to each, over any other part of the Island. Those of St. Clement have already been noticed—its proximity to the town causing it to be a place of very common resort. Grouville he considers to be the most healthy part of the Island, being protected from those influences which detract from its general salubrity; St. Catherine's bay he describes as "a lovely sequestered little cove, and behind which a dry rocky, but fertile ground, whose declivity is moderate, displays all the luxuriency of inland scenery." He further observes:—

"In no part of it is it altogether without sun or shade; and therefore at all hours it offers some delightful resting places; where the visitor, breathing the purest air, may view in tranquil enjoyment, the splendid marine prospect before him."—"I know of few retreats where, in the summer season, the middle hours of a fine day—devoting them to bathing, a light repast, and moderate exercise on the surrounding cliffs, or in the shade of an adjacent dell—might be passed with greater advantage by a numerous class of invalids.

ANTIQUITIES.

CHAPTER XIV.

*Ancient Name; Druid Temples; Roman Works;
Early Christian Edifices.*

NAME.

IN entering on the subject of the Antiquities of Jersey, it will be expected to revert to the Name by which it was originally known; and to be somewhat more particular than was deemed necessary in the general description of the Island. It has been contended that it was known by the name of *Augia*, previously to its occupation by the Romans, and that this was changed to *Cæsarea* by that people. It certainly appears in the "Itinerary of Antoninus" by the latter name: and it is equally certain that it was granted by Childebert, King of France, to Sampson, Archbishop of Dol, about the year 550, by the name of *Augia*. Supposing both these statements to be true, and that its original name was *Augia*, the only probable solution is, that although it was called *Cæsarea* by the Romans, who probably had little more than military possession of the Island, this name was not generally adopted by the inhabitants, who retained its more ancient one in all their private transactions; and it may be supposed that they readily returned to its general

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use after the Romans had left them. It has also been asserted that *Augia* was the name first given by the Franks, and it has been supposed to have originated from *Auge*, which, in old French, means a trough, and was therefore applied to Jersey, on account of the number of its valleys giving it that appearance. In the writings of Vaice, or Wace as his name is now written, who was himself a native of the Island, and who wrote during the reign of Henry II., it is spelled Gersui: he thus writes:

“ Ie di et diray que ie suis,
Vaice de l'isle de Gersui.”

Hence it is certain that it was written Gersui in the 13th century, and it is more than probable that the change to this latter name, was occasioned by some circumstance of a more sudden character than is generally supposed; for it does not seem to be a very easy transition,* whatever others may suppose, either from *Cæsarea* or *Augia* to Gersui, although from this latter to *Jersey*, as it is spelled in the early English records, may have easily obtained, from which a very natural abbreviation would bring it to its present name of Jersey.

If there be any truth in the conjecture that some circumstance occasioned a sudden change to be made in the name, probably it was at the time of the irruption of the northern nations. *Ege* or *eye* in the Saxon language meant an island: thus *Shep-ege*, or *Sheppey*, in Kent; and

* Mr. Bulkeley, whose work has been already quoted, is of the same opinion; he would, however, still derive Jersey from *Cæsarea*, although through another medium; he says, “ *Cæsarea* is the name given by the Romans to the island of Jersey. It would appear hence that the Italian pronunciation of *Cæsar* is consonant with the orthoepy of the Latin, since we can easily discover Jersey, or as more anciently written *Jersary*, from *Cæsarea*, pronounced *Tshesarea*; but with difficulty from *Cæsarea*, as articulated by us.”—*La Hague Bie*, note 18

Angle-sey, or the isle of the Angles : and thus abbreviating Augia, and adding the Saxon *eye*, brings it very near in sound to its present name ; and the very unsettled state of orthography until within a very few years of the present time, easily explains the different ways in which it was spelled, as they were all adapted to the same sound, whether Gersui, or Gearsey, Jarsary, or Jeresey.*

It has also been stated that *Barsa* was the name by which Jersey was known previously to its occupation by the Romans ; but this opinion can be traced to no authority.† The earliest name known at the present time was certainly Cæsarea—all else is doubt and conjecture.

DRUID TEMPLES.

THERE are not many remains of Antiquity at present existing in Jersey ; but the few that do remain must have existed at a very remote period : they are mostly religious edifices, either in the form of Druid Temples, and which were devoted to pagan idolatry, or buildings for Christian worship. Both were very numerous, and it may therefore be inferred that the Island always bore a religious character, either in the rites of pagan superstition, or as professing the holy and influential doctrines of the gospel.

Some of the most antient monuments of antiquity that have been known in Jersey, have existed within the memory of many of the present generation : these are the Temples

* A learned correspondent in Jersey has suggested that the name Augia may have been derived from the German word *hoche*, or French *haut* ; he observes, “ that all depends on the *g* not being pronounced, as in *height*, *though*, *bough*, &c. and that a foreigner would easily make high into Augia, that is, *the high Island*.”

† In some ancient maps there appears on the coast of France, some miles to the south-west of Jersey, an island called *Barsa*, which may have led Dr. Ubele, of Alderney, (who held the opinion that Barsa was the original name of Jersey,) into the error.

of the Druids, some few remains of which are still to be seen, though of small proportions compared with those of former times. From the great number of these temples that were in Jersey, it must have been a most important station of those religionists, perhaps scarcely less so than the Isle of Anglesey, which was the chief residence of the Druids.

The different kinds of temples, or, as it is sometimes the case, the different parts of the same temple, known in England by the term *Cromlech* or *Cairn*, are in Jersey expressed by one general name—all are called *Poquelayes*, of whatever character or dimensions. Neither Mr. Falle, nor any other author who has written on the Island, has even hazarded a conjecture why they were so called, and the French word *Dolmen* does not bear any affinity to the name: it must therefore be left in its native obscurity. It may however be observed, that the termination of the word is the same as the English *Cromlech*; *lech*, *leh*, or *lee* in Celtic, meant a stone—so doubtless *laye* in *Poquelaye* has the same meaning; as, likewise, *Carnlêh* in Scotland, and *Cromlêh* in Ireland.*

As it was the custom of the Druids not to commit anything to writing, but to communicate all instruction orally, that the knowledge of their rites and observances should be confined to themselves, it is no wonder that so little

* The following interpretation has, however, been suggested; "This seems to be a British compound word; for, in Cornwall, we still call a heap a *pook*, as a *pook* of hay, a hay-cock; and *laye* is nothing but *leh* in Amoric and Cornish, signifying a flat stone, so that *Pook-leh*, (Gallic *Poquelaye*) means a heap of stones."—*Borlase's Antiquities of Cornwall*. As we should, however, look for its derivation rather from a Gallic than a British source; it may, with more probability, come from *Pouqua* or *Pouqui*, which in old French means a *fairy*: and as, since the times of the Druids, their temples have been supposed to be visited by these elves, *Poquelayes* may mean, the resort of fairies.

is known of them at the present day. It is supposed that they were in the fullness of their power and influence about 500 years before the Christian era; it is, however, certain that they existed before that time, as they, as well as the Brahmins, are mentioned by Pythagoras. The Druids had their colleges or seminaries of learning, to which the youth were sent for instruction; Jersey might have had one of these colleges, which would account for the great number of their temples, otherwise so disproportioned to the size of the Island, as well as other circumstances connected with druid worship and jurisdiction.

The principal account that we have of that remarkable people, or rather community, is from Cæsar and Tacitus, who both agree that their rites and ceremonies were in their character the most debased. Mixing up human inventions with traditions that had their source in a revelation from God, but corrupted by time and superstition, they perverted, by their cruel and sanguinary observances, that which originally had a significant purpose, exhibiting the divine mind as to the present duty of man, as well as to indicate what should take place in the future ages of the world.

It is a disputed point among the learned of modern times, whether the Druids existed in their distinct character, as known and understood at the present day, any where except in Britain and in Gaul; but it is certain that there was a people in Germany who, in their religious observances, bore a strong resemblance to them, and who must have been instructed by the more eastern nations, among whom idolatry had its origin; but the peculiar characteristic of druid worship seems to have been confined to the part that now constitutes France and the British isles; and of these the latter must have been the super-

rior station, inhabited by Druids of greater eminence, and probably their highest colleges of learning were established there, as Cæsar observes, "The institution was preserved in greater strictness and purity in Britain than in Gaul, and when the Gauls were at a loss, they used to go over to Britain for information." We learn also from other sources that the British Druids were famous both at home and abroad for their wisdom and learning.

The eastern nations, it is well known, worshipped the sun as their chief deity, and which may readily be supposed to be an object of idolatrous worship, where the only true God was not known, viewing the sun as extending and shedding his influence over all, and for the benefit of all. It is probable that their devotions to this luminary were first offered up in groves, to protect them from its scorching rays, so powerful in the east, and that this afterwards became a constant practice; as they might consider that the surrounding gloom, conveyed an impression of mystery and devotion to their religious services, and inclined the worshippers to believe that the deity was really present, and thus raise a superstitious dread of their imaginary divinities. The same cause may have induced them to practice their devotions at a late period of the day, on account of the salutary influence which the shades of evening may have been supposed to have, in preparing them for these engagements; which were probably also continued long after the close of day, for the purpose of worshipping the moon, as a subordinate deity: and here we find the origin of those nocturnal revelries and debaucheries that are known to have existed among the idolatrous nations of the east, and were even found to prevail in South America, when first visited by Europeans.

It may be a subject of surprise how nations who could

have had no intercourse with each other, should be found adopting the same customs, practising the same kind of idolatry, and giving themselves up to the same licentious practices in their pretended worship; but it is well explained by a learned writer, who observes, "These essentials were found to suit best with the licentious temper of mankind, and were secretly promoted in every nation by one and the same power of darkness; Satan well knowing that his iniquitous system would most easily conduce in this life to the utter corruption, and in the next, to the certain perdition of its unhappy followers."*

It has been contended that the Druids did not worship in groves, because none of their temples has been found standing in a wood: this will furnish no proof to the contrary, as during so long a period of time as sixteen or eighteen centuries, the trees would have been all cut down for the purposes of life, and all traces obliterated; but knowing that they derived many of their idolatrous customs from the eastern nations, it can scarcely be doubted that they worshipped in groves as well as on eminences, according to the description given by the prophet Hosea of the idolaters of his day:—"They sacrifice upon the tops of mountains, and burn incense upon hills, under oaks, poplars, and elms, because the shadow thereof is good;"† nor is the feeling unnatural: an awful and solemn pleasure

* Dr. Borlase, "History and Antiquities of Cornwall."—That America may, however, have been peopled from Europe, is the opinion of many learned writers; one has observed, "It is not unlikely but that the Britons, with other northern nations, being driven by the Romans into Iceland, and other isles of the north, might then pass over in boats into Greenland, and thence into North America, and so people that continent, it being but a short cut from Iceland, not above two or three day's sail; and Mr. Joseph Mead, in one of his letters to Dr. Twiss, gives reasons of the probability of the peopling of America about this time, and in this manner."—*Rowland's "Mona Antiqua."*

† Hosea iv. 13.

possesses the mind in entering a grove, "a verdant cathedral, deep in shade," a kind of religious dread, arising from the majesty of the place, and very favourable for the purpose intended, although very different from the feeling that is experienced in the sincere worship of the only true God. It may, however, be observed, that there is a tradition—if a tradition of eighteen centuries be worth any thing—that Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain was once surrounded by trees.

The origin of druid worship may thus be traced to the nations of the east; but, as human inventions will be found to diversify into an almost endless variety in religion, unless restrained by the fixed and unerring testimony of the Word of God, so the Druids changed the observances they had learnt from the eastern nations, to suit their more northern habits, or as the policy and superstition of their superiors dictated.

With scarcely any exception the druid temples were erected on lofty eminences, as becoming the dignity and sublimity of their devotion, or nearer neighbourhood (as they imagined) to the habitation of their gods: thus, "Balak took Balaam, and brought him to the high places of Baal,"* so that this peculiarity of idolatrous worship is of the most remote antiquity. They were not enclosed: they were formed of detached stones arranged in various forms, but generally in a circle, with smaller circles formed within: the stones of the outer circle were not of that immense size as those which now remain; but the inner part, that which was considered the most sacred, was formed of them; the stones of the outer circle were placed at various distances, and supposed to have some mystic meaning, unknown at the present time; and were formed

* Numbers xxii. 41.

into various shapes, which doubtless also had its meaning;* but the most common was that of a circle, as representing eternity; thus correctly described by the poet:—

“ ————— consecrated hills
 Once girt with spreading oaks, mysterious rows
 Of rude enormous obelisks, that rise
 Orb within orb, stupendous monuments
 Of artless architecture, such as now
 Oft times amaze the wandering traveller,
 By the pale moon discerned on Sarum's plain.”

Sometimes stones were placed at a moderate distance from the temple itself, forming a kind of entrance to it; to this, as well as to the immediate entrance, they attributed a degree of sacredness. The altar for the lesser sacrifices and libations was within the outer circle; but they had also altars formed of large mounds of earth, not unlike the tumuli or barrows that still exist: these were used on great occasions, as when any large number of beasts or human victims were to be sacrificed. In some instances have been found very small circles of stones, —too small to suppose that they were druid temples and devoted to public worship, unless for a very small community: they were probably used for the more private purposes of religion, as the chapels and oratories of modern times.

The Logan, or rocking-stone, that remarkable feature in druid superstition, must not be left unnoticed, Jersey having had one of them, as will be seen when the remains of antiquities that formerly existed in the Island come to be described. The Logan was an immense rock, poised on another underneath, but on a point of support so small that the stone could, as is stated on credible authority, be moved by a very slight pressure. These Logans have

* Stukeley's Abury.

been found in different parts of the world, but mostly in Britain and the British Isles: Pliny mentions one in Harpasa, a town in Asia, which he describes as "a rock of a wonderful nature; lay one finger on it and it will stir, but thrust it with your whole body and it will not move." The learned are not agreed as to the use to which they were applied, but the most commonly received opinion is, that they were employed to deceive the ignorant, by leading them to believe that the priests had a supernatural power proved by their moving such an immense weight. It is supposed that the Arch-druid issued his decrees from these Logans, and that they were the seats of justice. It is not unlikely that some of lesser dimensions may have been formed by art, and raised by mechanical power to their situation; but it cannot be supposed that a weight amounting to near a thousand tons, could be raised by any machinery known at that time: these larger ones were doubtless cut away when the natural rock presented an appearance favourable to the object, until it was brought to the nice counterpoise fitted for the purpose. Borlase mentions one in Cornwall, whose weight was estimated to be 750 tons: the one in Jersey, already alluded to, and which was destroyed towards the end of the seventeenth century was supposed to exceed that weight.

The Druids did not admit of idols in their temples, thus avoiding the more absurd species of idolatry, that of worshipping gods made with hands; and this agrees with the opinion they had that the object of their adoration was an all-pervading influence, as the sun and moon. It is, however, the opinion of some, that during the latter period of the times of the Druids, images were introduced as objects of worship, in conformity with the practice of other nations.

It has already been observed, that much of idolatrous worship may be traced to a divine origin; it is said in the scriptures of truth, that "God dwelleth not in temples made with hands," which doubtless had reference to an enclosed building, and the Druids may have formed their temples so as to comport with the idea, that they should be so constructed as to allow free access to their divinities.* The inner part, being the most sacred, was intended to represent that part of Solomon's temple which was accessible only to the high priest, and called the "holy of holies." Even that most horrid practice, the sacrifice of human beings, may be supposed to have had a divine sanction, although, as in all other cases, lamentably perverted through the ignorance that always prevailed where the light of Scripture shone not, to mark truth from falsehood, and when it became distorted by superstition and cruelty. It was ordained by God, in the Mosaic law, that beasts without spot or blemish should be offered in sacrifice, to typify the immaculate purity of the Saviour who was to come: this led the idolatrous nations, who received it as a tradition, to suppose that nothing was too precious for a sacred offering; thus human sacrifices became to be preferred to beasts, and led to the notion that what was dearest to man was most acceptable to God: hence the offering up of the most beautiful captives, the most noble youths, the dearest friends, the first-begotten son.

The especial regard which the Druids paid to particular stones and gems, by the inspection of which they pretended to foretel events, may be traced to the Urim and Thummin of the high priest; and their custom of walk-

* One of their laws was, "that it is unlawful to build temples to their gods, or to worship them within walls, or under roofs."—*Henry's History of Great Britain.*

ing round their altars three times, in order to obtain a blessing from their gods, doubtless had its origin in that signal display of divine power after the Israelites had encompassed three times the walls of Jericho.* Even with respect to the final state of this world, they must have received their opinion from a traditionary source: they believed that it would not be totally destroyed, but purified by fire; thus we are assured by divine revelation, that the time will come when "the heavens being on fire shall be dissolved, and the elements shall melt with fervent heat;" nevertheless from this purification there will arise "new heavens and a new earth, wherein dwelleth righteousness."

It will not be uninteresting to the reader, in connection with the druid temples, to know something of their worship, and their pretensions to a power derived from their gods: what the Magi were in Persia, the Brahmins in India, and the Chaldeans in Babylon and Assyria, were the Druids in Gaul and Britain, and they had a number of rites in common with the nations of the east. The higher orders lived in great splendour: we are told that "they sat on golden thrones, lived in large palaces, and fared sumptuously,"† and by their influence over the minds and consciences of kings, they, in great measure, ordered the affairs of the state.‡ They decided all controversies, and if any one refused to submit to their award, he was excluded

* This superstitious foolery is still continued in some parts of the Highlands, where Druidism prevailed longer than in any other part of Britain.

† Smith's Gaelic Antiquities.

‡ We may here trace a strong resemblance between the pretensions of the idolatrous Druids and those of the Papacy: it has been observed that "there is an almost entire conformity between the laws, discipline, and hierarchy of the ancient Druids and the Roman Catholic clergy; nay, the latter claim the same privileges, prerogatives, and exemptions as were claimed and enjoyed by the former"—*Bower's Lives of the Popes*.

from all society, which was considered the greatest punishment, even as an outlaw. They loved contemplation, and indulged much in silence. Praters were even amendable to the law, and punished, after two or three admonitions. They pretended, both men and women, to be gifted with the power of foretelling future events. As prophets the Druidesses were held in especial honour.* The pretended mode of foretelling future events, was by examining the entrails of their victims, which, according to certain prescribed rules, instructed them in what was to happen: the voices of birds, and their mode of flying, indicated either favourable or unfavourable circumstances: it was a custom to collect and preserve in their sacred groves white horses, which on certain occasions were harnessed to a consecrated chariot, and thus forming a procession, their neighing as well as their manner of going were supposed to have a prophetic meaning; with many other circumstances, which they imagined indicated the mind and will of their deities; but the most noted method of foretelling events, was by the fall and convulsion of the limbs after the victim had received the fatal stroke. The particulars of these absurd rites, and the circumstances by which they pretended to dive into futurity, are of course unknown to modern times—at least every thing is founded on conjecture; but can it be supposed, as is observed by Dr. Borlase, already quoted, “that the supreme power which had industriously concealed from the subtil spirit of man, he had wantonly dispersed the criterions

* Pomponius Mela mentions “an island called Sena, over against the land of the Orismii in Gaul, famous for an oracle, whose priestesses were supposed to be of rare endowments; capable of raising and allaying storms, curing diseases, quick at discerning, and able to foretel future events: they were easy of access to sailors, and those who came to the Island to consult them.” This Island is laid down in some antient maps a few miles to the southward of Brest.

of, in the whole conduct of birds, and in all the several parts of a victim, the horse, the ox, and what not."

The Druids not only believed in the immortality of the soul, but in the most intimate connection between this world and the next—so intimate that transactions begun here might be concluded hereafter: hence they would postpone settling their accounts until they met in a future state, and would lend money to be repaid in another world:* they would even cast letters on a funeral pile, addressed to departed friends, that they may be conveyed to them by the devoted victim: by such lamentable ignorance were their minds clouded, and so deluded were they by the arch enemy of mankind.

The Druids began the year in May, which they called the first month, and it was their custom to reckon by nights, and not by days, because night was created before day; and it may not be unworthy of remark that this custom still obtains in England, although we use the term unconsciously; thus we say *sen'night* for a week, and a *fort-night* for fourteen days.

It was also a custom of the Druids, indeed it may be considered as one of their religious rites, to order that all fires be put out on the last day in October, and re-kindled with, what they called, sacred fire, on the 1st of November; herein they showed great skill in finance, "for if any man had not cleared with the Druids for the last year's dues, he was not to have a spark of this holy fire from the Carns, nor durst any of his neighbours let him take the benefit of theirs, under pain of excommunication; which, as managed by the Druids, was worse than death."†

* Smith's Gaelic Antiquities.

† Toland's History of the Druids.

The dress of the Druids of Gaul and Britain was, in some respects, different from that of the other inhabitants of these countries. In particular, their mantles were not of various colours, like the plaids of others, but entirely white, and probably of linen cloth: this was no doubt intended as an honourable mark of distinction, and perhaps as an emblem of sanctity, to which they were great pretenders.

It is well known that the oak was considered a sacred tree with the Druids, and the mistletoe that grew on it peculiarly so. When the end of their year approached, they marched in solemn order to gather the mistletoe, inviting all the world to assist at the ceremony, chaunting these words, "The new year is at hand, gather the mistletoe;" when the priest ascended the tree, clothed in white, and with a golden hook cut it down, when it was received on a white garment spread for the purpose. The plant thus gathered was supposed to possess many valuable properties; the Druids made of it a potion, which, as they thought, prevented sterility, cured diseases, and was an antidote to poison.

The Druids consisted of three orders, or degrees, of men. The first were the Druids, emphatically so called, who were the chief men; they were consulted by the kings in all important concerns; they performed all religious services, they exercised judicial functions, and may be said to have had supreme power by the influence they possessed. The next were the Bards—these were also prophets, and they gave out their pretended prophecies in verse: they were instructed in their vocation when very young, and their memory was so constantly exercised that they could repeat at a very early age many thousand verses, in which was embodied their history, and indeed every

thing they wished to transmit to posterity. It generally required no less than twenty years to learn all that was necessary to commit to memory, and to be fully instructed in all their mysteries and observances. The third degree was that of the Euvates, or Eubates; according to some, they were the Philosophers; "they directed their attention and study to the phenomena of nature;" according to others "they were sacred musicians and poets, performing the same offices for the gods as the bards did for men."*

The Druidesses were also divided into three classes. The first class were virgins, who had devoted themselves to celibacy, and were secluded as nuns in a monastery: the second class were married, but conversed with their husbands only occasionally, their duties being in attendance on the temple: the third were not separated from their husbands, but governed their families, brought up children, and laboured as much as became their sex and circumstances.

They had also the high dignitary of Archdruid, whose residence was in the isle of Anglesey, the Mona of the Britons, who presided over the rest, and whose authority was very extensive.

It has been deemed advisable to give this short sketch of the Druids, and of their character and worship, as it connects the islands of Jersey and Guernsey with a more remote period than has been done by Falle or any other author who has written their history: we have now to state more minutely the claim these Islands have to have been inhabited at this very early period of time, and to describe their remains of antiquity.

Before giving a minute description of some of the Druidical temples, the particulars of which have been pre-

* Henry's History of Great Britain.

served to the present day, it will be interesting to the antiquarian to be informed of those that existed from the earliest time of which any account has reached us; and it will not be necessary to apologize to the general reader, as one object of the present work is to collect all the information that lies scattered in others, whether in MS. or print, relative to the former state of the Island. With this view the reader is presented with an extract from the MS. already quoted.*

I observe in this Isle three sorts of ancient remainders of antiquity; the first and doubtless the most ancient are those we call Poquelayes, which consist for the most part of foure huge stones, whereof three planted on end, Triangle-wise, at foure, five, or six feet distance from each other, and the fourth flatter than the rest, and soe large as being lay'd on the top of them three, to beare on them all, and to make a vault under; then at ten or twelve foot distance, sometimes more, sometimes less, another great stone, set up in the manner of a pillar. Of these Poquelayes some are yet entire, others are fallen, and some peeces of them sunck into ye grounde: there are in the Island halfe a hundred of them. I observe two different in forme from the rest, one in a place called *Les Landes Palot*, not farre from the free Schoole, consisting of one onely massive entire stone, and therefore not hollowe under as ye rest, which seems to be the naturall rock, growne upon the place, and by arte and fashion hew'd into a naturall Poquelaye, with such a counterpoise, that at a certain place a boy with his finger's end can move, which

* In the former part of this work, the MS here quoted is merely stated as having been written during the reign of Charles II.: it has been ascertained that it is the work of John Poindextre, Esq. who died in 1691, and whose monument is still to be seen in St. Saviour's church. Mr. Gough in his edition of Camden's *Britannia*, "*de Insulis Britannicis*," alludes to a *Mr. Bindextre* as having written some tracts on Jersey: as Mr. Bindextre is not known, probably Mr. Poindextre was the person meant: the letters Po, if not very distinctly written, may be easily mistaken for a B.

otherwise a hundred men could not doe.* The other is to be seene neare ye Old Castle, as you goe towards St. Catherine's: this stands just on the top of a round hillock, made of hands, and is supported not by three, as the rest, but by five stones, which by length of time are suncke soe deepe into the grounde, that a man must creepe to goe under it, ye covering being so exceeding arge and waighty. I shall hint at the use of these Poquelayes, when I speake of the religion of those times.

Such is the general description of these Poquelayes, as they existed towards the close of the seventeenth century, about the year 1682: the rocking-stone that is mentioned in this extract must have been destroyed soon after, as Mr. Falle mentions having seen it; but it was demolished at the time he wrote his history, in 1696, as he observes, "for the sake of the splinters to be used in building."

In 1761 the Rev. Mr. Morant, the celebrated antiquarian, and a native of Jersey, presented to the Society of Antiquaries a paper giving an account of such Poquelayes as were known to exist at that time: it was read by Dr. Stukeley in that year. The following is the paper, as printed in the *Archæologia*:—

"In St. Helier's parish, about a mile north-west from the town, on a rising ground, whence is a view of the sea, are three stones, each near five feet high, and as much thick and wide, supporting a fourth eleven feet and a half long, ten broad, a foot and a half thick at the west end, and above two feet at the east: within is one large stone like a floor. Near three feet from these stands a single stone, four feet and a half high and thick, and

* There is an allusion to this stone in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for 1784, and in which it is stated that its weight was supposed to have been 800 tons: Dr. Borlase mentions one in Cornwall, 97 feet in circumference, and supposed to weigh 750 tons

about twelve feet further east, another between four and five feet high, and four feet and a quarter wide. Two feet from thence another lies down, near seven feet long and five feet broad, and about half a mile north-west are the remains of a tumulus.

“ On a tumulus south-east of the town are three stones, supporting one fifteen feet long, and six feet and a half broad, and four feet thick : east of this is another twelve feet long, three feet and a half broad, and between two and three feet thick, lying on others. To the west of the first lies one at the side of the tumulus, seven feet by four. On the north side of the tumulus are four large ones.

“ On the town-hill, which commands a view of the sea, is a stone fourteen feet long, seven feet and a half broad, and above three feet thick, supported by five. On the south-east stood a circle of stones, only one of which is still standing, six feet high : the rest broken to make a neighbouring wall.

“ In Grouville parish, near Mont Orgueil Castle, on a tumulus in sight of the sea, is a stone fifteen feet long, ten feet and a half broad, three feet and a half thick, supported by five others.*

“ In St. Martin’s parish, on a cliff near the sea, is an oval of twenty-one stones, erect, and within are fourteen others in two rows, seven on each side, supporting three large flat stones about six feet diameter ; there are two others down : at each end without the circle are two large stones. Within this cliff are caverns running into one another : the entrance about three feet high and two feet broad.”

The most perfect of all the Poquelayes that were known to exist in the Island, when the paper presented by Mr. Morant was read, is the last mentioned ; it is near *Le Couperon*, but a great part has been destroyed since

* A representation of this is in the Gentleman’s Magazine for 1784 ; it is thus described : “ It stood in a corner of a field of corn, on an elevated spot or barrow, almost covered with fern. It is a large rough irregular-shaped stone, supposed to weigh 80 tons, supported by six smaller ones, its elevation not above two feet from the ground.”

1761; the outer circle seems to be the same as it was at that time, but the inner circle, within which devotions were usually performed, is less perfect.

The next in importance is the one in Grouville parish near Mount Orgueil: this is now nearly in the same state as described, with the exception that the removal of some of the supporters, has caused the large superincumbent stone to recline on the ground. The vestiges of all the others are very scanty; but the most important probably of all that ever existed on the Island, and the most perfect at the time it was discovered, was unknown in 1761, when Mr. Morant presented his paper to the Antiquarian Society; it was revealed in 1785: it will be unnecessary to say more on this remarkable monument of antiquity, as full particulars relative to its discovery, situation and dimensions, are detailed in the following papers. The first is a letter from Marshal Conway to the Earl of Leicester, at that time President of the Antiquarian Society, and the other a paper read at a meeting in 1787. The ground plan that accompanies this is a facsimile of the one presented to the Society, and the drawing is selected from the three alluded to by the Marshal, as giving the most correct idea of the appearance of the temple at the time of its discovery.

Description of a DRUIDICAL MONUMENT in the island of Jersey; in a letter from the Right Hon. HENRY SEYMOUR CONWAY, Governor of Jersey, to the EARL OF LEICESTER, P.S.A.
Read March 8th, 1787.

My Lord,

I have the honour to transmit the model of a Druid Temple, discovered some time ago on the top of a pretty high rocky hill, near the town of St. Helier in the island of Jersey. I am sorry to have so long delayed executing the



77. Fickens Hill

THE ALTAR, A SYSTEM OF STONES REVEALED IN 1885.

From the photograph of the original drawing.

promise I made to your Lordship, but it having been transmitted to me without a scale, I did not care to trouble you till that defect had been remedied by the scale, which I have now received, and which is three feet to an inch. Your Lordship will see the dimensions are not great, but I imagine it to be the most perfect and entire monument of this kind existing in any part of the world.

I shall not attempt to say any thing of the nature or the use of these extraordinary structures; your Lordship and your learned society having full knowledge of all that can be said on the subject.

By the very imperfect accounts we have of the history and antiquities of that Island, there is reason to think that it has been very particularly the seat of the Druids, and their worship; Mr. Bindextre,* who wrote some tracts on the affairs of Jersey, and died in the year 1691, says, there were existing in that small Island, no less than fifty of those Druid temples or altars in his time, of which the greater part were demolished, when Falle published his history of Jersey pretty early in the present century; he mentions a single altar of large dimensions, then standing on the same hill at St. Helier, the top stone of which was fourteen feet long, seven and a half broad and three in thickness, and near it a circle of other stones of which there remained but one when he wrote, *the rest having been broken to make a wall hard by.*

From the above it is plain that the present complete structure was not known at that time, though there was another large altar or temple, and an outer circle of stones seen on the same hill. The present temple remained entirely covered with earth till the summer of 1785, having the appearance of a large barrow or tumulus, in which I had constantly seen it when I was in the Island. It then happened that the Colonel of the St. Helier's militia, wanting to level the ground for the exercise of his corps,

* Poindextre:—this error must have been copied from Gough, already noticed.

the workmen soon struck on the stones, and the temple thus discovered was afterwards cleared as it now stands.

There is no trace of the time at which it was covered up; not improbably at the time of the Romans, by the Druids themselves, to preserve it as their most sacred temple from the violence or profanation of that people, who frequently persecuted them, and who certainly had possessed themselves of the Island, as appears from its Latin name of *Cæsarea*, and from several names and some small vestiges remaining, as well as from the coins found pretty often in different parts of the Island.

I do not know whether it may be thought of any consequence to mention the particular position of the temple, or the bearings of the several cells or altars respectively; but knowing it is the opinion of some learned persons that they are objects worthy of some consideration, I had them taken, and herewith subjoin a ground plan of the whole, set out to the points of the compass, as also three drawings of the temple, as it appeared soon after the discovery, together with a plan of it.

There have very lately been discovered, as my lieutenant-governor informs me, five graves on the same hill, and about one hundred and seventy feet from the temple: one of them has, he says, somewhat of a curved form, but they have no other peculiarity except that of their being lined with a kind of rubble-stone.

The above are the chief particulars that I have been able to learn on this subject, and I shall be happy if they give any satisfaction to your Lordship, or the Society.

I am, my Lord, with great esteem,

Your Lordship's most faithful and obedt. servant,

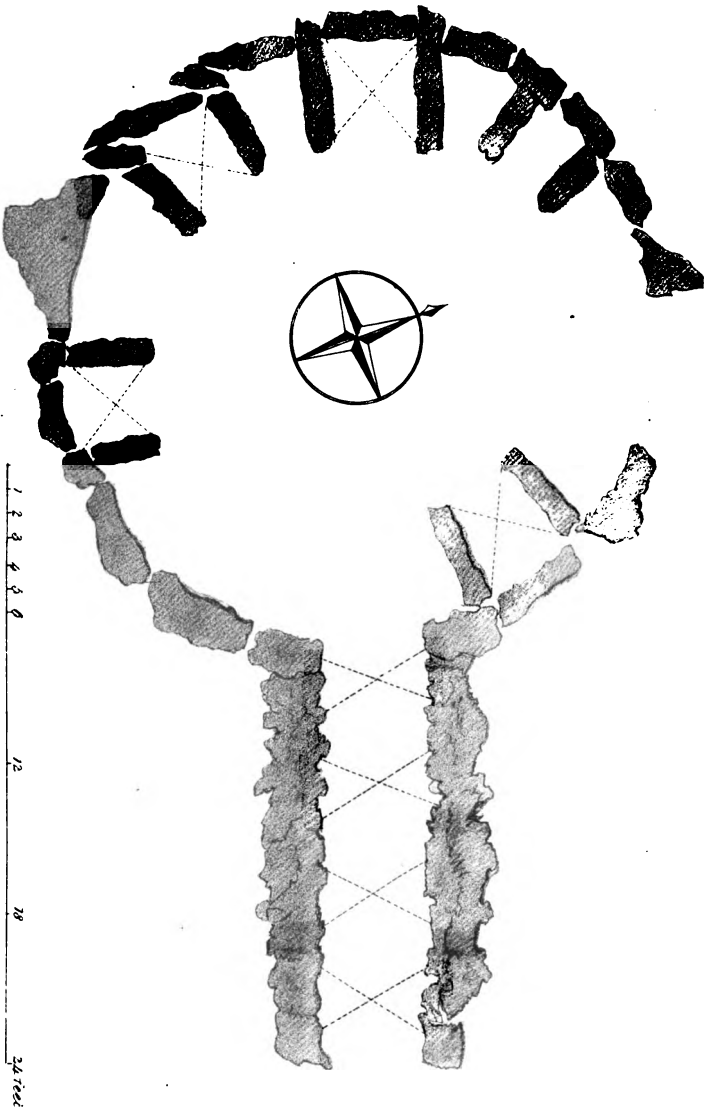
Little Warwick Street,

H. S. CONWAY.

Feb. 20th. 1787.

*Description of the DRUID TEMPLE lately discovered on the top of the hill of St. Helier; communicated by Mr. Molesworth:—
Read Jan. 11th. 1787.*

It is sixty-six feet in circumference, composed of forty-five large stones measuring seven feet in height, six in breadth, four in



GROUND PLAN of the **POQUELAYE**.

thickness, containing four perfect lodges (or cells,) and one destroyed : the supposed entrance to it may be called a subterraneous passage, faces the east, and measures fifteen feet in length, four feet and a half inches in breadth, from the inside of the two outward pillars, or stones, in height two feet, each pillar being one foot nine and a half inches thick.

The inside of the passage measures five feet three inches in breadth, four feet four inches in height, and the first covering stone three feet in thickness : it gradually decreases the length of the fifteen feet before mentioned.

The vacancy on the north side, which appears to have been the real vacancy, measures in breadth six feet nine inches.

The greatest lodge, facing nearly the east, or subterraneous passage, measures, both in depth and length, four feet three inches; the next on the left four feet in breadth, four feet three inches in length, and three feet seven inches in height; the distance from one to the other is three feet four inches : the third, at the distance of five feet nine inches from the second, measures in breadth three feet four inches, in length three feet seven inches, in height four feet. The subterraneous passage in the inside of the temple, describing a perfect lodge, distant from the third ten feet, and the fourth joining both east and north passages, in breadth measures two feet four inches, and two feet one eighth in depth. The eastern cavity is still filled up with the same rubbish that covered the temple.

Two medals were found in this temple,—one of the Emperor Claudius, and the other so worn by time as to render it unintelligible.

About fifty yards south of the temple are five places in the form of our graves, masoned on every side, but not paved, and lying east and west. A stone quite alone lies five feet from the subterraneous passage.*

* Mr. Falle supposes that these stones, apart from the temples, were used as a kind of desk, at which the officiating priest kneeled, but Dr. Stukeley, with more probability, supposes that they were posts for officers stationed there as sentinels.

This remarkable monument of Druidical superstition no longer exists in the Island: the States by a unanimous vote granted it to Marshal Conway, who removed it to Park-place, his seat near Henley, where he had it placed exactly in the form it originally was. The possession of this relic was doubtless gratifying to him, as a mark of esteem, and as an embellishment to his estate; but by its removal from the place where it stood, it loses the interest which is connected with association, and the Island has been deprived of an object that would probably have drawn to it many visitors. It is, however, to be observed, that it would have been destroyed not many years after, as Fort Regent is built on the hill on which it stood: but the States of the Island, and Marshal Conway himself, scarcely escaped censure at the time, for allowing such a valuable monument of antiquity to be removed from the Island.*

ROMAN WORKS.

Although there can be no doubt that the Romans had possession of Jersey, history does not furnish any account of the time that they first invaded the Island, or the period at which they quitted it: it is however probable that both circumstances took place about the same time as their descent and departure from England; but proofs certainly are not wanting to satisfy us that they had posses-

* A model of this temple is in the possession of Mr. Philip Mourant, of St. Heliers.

It is sufficient proof that Druidism prevailed in the Channel Islands, at the same time as in Britain and Gaul, and not that the Druids took refuge in them, when they were persecuted by the Romans; as those in South Britain, during the persecution, fled northwards and settled in Scotland and Ireland. It is more probable that those of Jersey fled at the same time, and that this, their principal temple, was covered up to keep it from desecration by the Romans.

sion of it. The Roman coins found in the Island, and the immense ramparts of earth that existed till within a few years of the present time—one called Cæsar's wall, near *Havre de Rozel*, and another at *Dielament*,—both evidently works of that people, furnish abundant proof. *La petite Cesarée*, or Cæsar's wall, which was formerly of considerable length, at present is nearly demolished: at the time Mr. Pless wrote his account of Jersey, a larger portion remained; it was about twenty-four feet in height, twelve feet at the base, inclining to about four feet at the top. This was doubtless a fortification, and no less certain that it was a work of the Romans; the name it bears is not only strong evidence of this, but Roman bricks and tiles were found in demolishing this immense rampart. The following extract from Mr. Poindextre's MS. gives the most correct account in existence, and shows its extent towards the close of the seventeenth century;—whether the eminences he calls *Hogues* were the work of the Romans, or whether they were raised afterwards for the purpose he states, must now remain a doubt.*

The second kind of monument, and which I take to be next to the Poquelays in antiquity, are by ye Islanders called *Hogues*, which are nothing else but round hillocks or eminences, raised

* The following remark of the Rev. E. Durell on the term *Hogue*, in his edition of Falle's History of Jersey, would lead us to suppose that they were not the work of the Romans, but gives countenance to the opinion of Mr. Poindextre, that they were *Speculæ*. "It does not seem to be generally known, that these *Hogues*, or rather *Hougues*, mean merely any elevated ground, and that the word itself is of German derivation, and comes from the same root as the English word *high*, *height*, &c. The Latin *altus* and the French *haut* are probably of the same origin; that derivation may also lead us to suppose that those barrows are not of a more ancient date than the invasion of the Norman Pagans in the ninth century.—*The Rev. E. Durell's new edition of Falle's History*—Note 193.

up with men's hands: the most part of them not much higher than those which are to be seene in many parts of England, thought to be sepulchers of eminent men slayne in battaille: those in Jersey seeme to have beene made for a farre different use, that is for *Speculae*, or hills to espye a farre off, from the land into the sea, which necessity brought the Islanders to provide for their security at the time, when the Danes, Vandalls, and other Northerne people, invested the coast of France, and other southerly parts of Europe, not long after the time of Charles the Great, to the end that the inhabitants discovering their shippe a farre off, might have time to hide such things as they desired to preserve. It may be objected that the sea is not seene from some of them, which is against my conjecture, but the cause is the improvement made since those times of the ground, by the planting of trees, and enclosing of ground, which have quite changed the surface of the Island, where as in antient times it was all champain and open ground. Of these Hogues there are two of more especiall notice: the one more commonly knowen standing almost in ye roade from St. Helery to Mont Orgeuil, soe high that it is seene for some leagues into the land of Normandy, having a chappell on ye top of it, built not long since after the modell of ye Sepulcher at Jerusalem, by one Mabon,* who had been a pilgrim there; concerning which there is a fabulous report, that a gentleman of Normandy, whose title or surname was De Hambye, having killed a dragon, which had done much mischief to the Island, and being afterwards treacherously killed by his servant, and being buried there, his lady caused the sayd Hogue to be raised over him, to the end that she might behold it from her house beyond the sea; and from the latter part of the gentleman's name, viz. *bye*, it was afterwars called *Hogue-bye*, some part of which story may very well be true; but for ye other, *sit fides penes authores*. The other is in the north part of ye Island, taken notice of but by fewe persons, as being quite out of ye waye, in a corner of the Island; though in my

* Mabon was Dean of Jersey about the year 1530.

opinion as considerable, if not more than the former: wee call it *Castell de Lecq*, placed on ye top of a naturall eminence, just over the sea, at a much greater height and compasse than ye other; from whose top one may discover very farre towards Guernsey. The very name implyes that it was made for defense, but it might alsoe serve for a watch-tower, as well as a place for retreat: however I dare say it caryes the face and stateliness of a Roman worke, trencht and bulwarke from ye land-side according to the manner of those times, which appears yet plainly. The number of these Hogues is not soe easily knowne, some having been default and ruined, by ye proprietors of ye ground. I guesse them to have been about a douzen, more or lesse.

The third sort of monuments of antiquity are to be seen in Trinity parish, towards the north-east part of ye Island, hard by *Dielamen* one, and the other neerer ye sea. The first is by the people thereabouts called *le Chasteau de Sedman*, Sedman's Castel, noebody can tell why, for who this Sedman was, or when he lived appears not. Sure the forme of this worke is farre differing from that of a Castel, unless perhaps our ancestors called all fortifications Castels, especially those that are made to encampe in, from ye Latin word *Castra*, which signifies a camp, fortified after the Roman waye, as this seemes to have sometimes been. It is a great worke raised in ye manner of a bulwarke, with a deepe ditch without it, making a square, whose length is neere an aker, and ye breadth above half an aker. In ye foure corners were, I conceive, four Hogues, or round hillocks, whereof one is yet entire; ye rest, with a great part of ye worke have been evened by the owners for their benefit. It is of ye one side upon even ground, and then it falls by degrees till it meets a bottom, where a gentleman hath two fish ponds: about ye midle of it is a spring, and close by it the remainder, that is the best halfe of another worke, perfectly round, high, and proportionally thick, with a ditch outside, part of it is thrown down and levelled. This is the part of it which is called *Le Chasteau de Sedeman*. It seems to have been as it were the *Prætoriu*, fort or retiring place upon occasion of disorder in ye camp. At another place

called *Le Vallet*, close to ye shore, not farre from Bouley bay, in the same pariah, beginneth another worke, reaching from thence all along the browe of steepe hills, as farre as Rozel-haven, very thicke, high, and strong, about two or three hundred paces in length, where it begins; because nature having been sparing to fortifye that place, it was necessary that art should supplye it; but in other parts the hills are a sufficient fortification, except close to that haven, where the work is continued downe to the sea. It hath the sea on the one side, and a deepe valley on ye other, and soe makes a peninsula about a mile in length, but not above half so broad: the ground none of the best, with a good spring of water, but noe appearance of any ancient building within that compasse. The people thereabouts will have it to be the retrenchment of some who had invaded the Island; but I take it to be ye work rather of a flying than pursuing enemy; it being made for defence not for offence.—MS.

As Mr. Poindextre was a jurat, he had access to all the ancient insular documents that could give information on this subject; and as he was a learned man, he doubtless availed himself of every thing that was accessible to him. It may therefore be presumed that he presented all that was known at his time; any further remarks would therefore be mere speculation.

Although Mont Orgueil Castle is evidently of Norman architecture, yet as there is a part still called *le fort de César*, it furnishes strong probability that a Roman castle formerly stood on the present site: there was a tradition, which has been preserved, that Julius Cæsar crossed over from Gaul to some islands, and took possession of them. The rampart already described as *La petite Cæsariée*, and the part of the old castle still bearing the name of Cæsar, present strong indications of the fact that they were both the works of the Romans, although it is impossible at this distance of time, to fix the date with any certainty.

The building of the castle, as it now is, has been ascribed to Robert, the eldest son of William the Conqueror, who was so barbarously treated by Henry I. his younger brother: but he may have built on the old foundation, and a portion of the original building may have remained, and which still retains its ancient name. Mr. Poindextre does not sanction this opinion in his account of Mont Orgueil Castle, but it is to be observed that he says very little in any part of his work of the Romans having continued possession of the Island; and seems rather to avoid admitting the fact. The following is his description of the Castle.

“ On the south side lies the village of Gouray, with a faire castle called by the same name, but more modernly Mont Orgueil, being indeed a stately peece of building and making a proud shewe as you approach it from Grouville Church; seated upon a steepe rock, having the sea on the south side and a hill overlooking it, at too neare a distance, on the other.”

Grosnez Castle is also supposed, by some, to be a Roman work; but too little of it remains for any decisive opinion to be formed: it is only known to history as a military post, held by Philip de Carteret againt the French, while they had possession of half of the Island, from 1461 to 1467.

EARLY CHRISTIAN EDIFICES.

It may be scarcely necessary to remark, that in using the term *Christian*, it must be understood merely as a distinction from Jews, Pagans, and Mahomedans, and not in that restricted sense when it was said “ The disciples were first called Christians at Antioch;” at a time when christianity prevailed by its own excellence, which com-

mended itself to the hearts and consciences of men ; and not as it was afterwards propagated by the Emperor Constantine, as a state engine, and when the means of its propagation was human authority, effected by the sword, and aided by that too powerful incentive—self-interest.

However we may lament that monkish institutions have departed from their original object, and no longer, at least in a very small degree, accomplish the useful purposes for which they were designed ; yet were they originally christian in the strictest sense: a distinction worthy to be noticed by the different effects produced—the one causing men to be holy, harmless, and without rebuke ; the other leading them, as might be expected, to acts of aggression, and producing a superstitious and misguided zeal for objects, not warranted by the Scriptures of truth ; and ending in those disastrous and senseless expeditions to the holy land, and now degenerated into a merely formal profession.

It may be inferred that the Chapels in Jersey, which are about to be noticed, were built at a time when christianity retained much of its original purity, and that in them were offered up sacrifices to the only true God, from sincere and devoted hearts : at a time when true religion was to be found in monasteries, and while they retained the object for which they were instituted—not that men should spend their time in sloth and licentiousness, but devote themselves, and the talents given to them, to the service of God—that they should live apart from the distractions of the world, and the temptations that abound in it. In allusion to the benefits derived from monasteries, it should be observed, that in them were preserved, not only the writings of the Fathers, but even the Scriptures, which probably would otherwise have been lost: that they afterwards fostered all kind of abuses, cannot be denied,

and woefully degenerated from the original object of their institution; but even during the worst of their times were to be found in them holy men, who doubtless understood and lamented the evils that prevailed, but who wanted either zeal or courage to expose them, and attempt their removal; until God, in his providence, raised up Luther, that morning star of the reformation, and caused the translation of the Scriptures into modern languages; and thus opened to mankind the blessings they have since enjoyed.

The time above alluded to, as will be presently shown, was about the 6th century, and Jersey must at that time have been populous, to have required so many as twenty-five chapels, besides the abbey and conventual houses, that will be hereafter noticed; but there are no means of ascertaining more than these data furnish.

It can excite no surprise that so little is known of the early British Christians, when Gildas, the most ancient of our historians, and who lived in the sixth century, said that he could find no British records of ecclesiastical affairs: the little, therefore, that is known, must be collected from the writers of other nations. Both Tertullian and Eusebius affirm, that the gospel had penetrated into Britain in the apostolic age; Theodoret also adds his testimony, when he says, "these, our fishermen, publicans, and tentmakers, persuaded, not only the Romans, but the Britons, Cimmerians, and Germans, to embrace the religion of him who was crucified:" Gildas, who wrote about a century after Theodoret, fixes the time of its first introduction at the period of the revolt under Boadicea, A.D. 61: whether he obtained the information from tradition, or from other writers, we are not informed; but there is sufficient proof that the Christian religion was planted in Britain about that time, from the fact that

Pomponia Græcina, the wife of Aulus Plautius, was accused of having embraced a strange and foreign superstition, which there is every reason to suppose was Christianity: she was tried, and pronounced innocent of any thing immoral. Pomponia lived many years after this trial, but in a state of seclusion, and great innocence of manners, which furnishes the best evidence that can be produced, that it was not superstition, but real christianity, by which she was influenced. As her husband was governor of Britain from A.D. 43 to 47, it may be supposed that she was one of the first who brought the light of the gospel to the Island. The small grain of mustard seed may then have been sown, but did not spring up so as to appear, until, by the ministrations of others, it was afterwards publicly proclaimed to the people.

Admitting the above to be fact, it is still a doubt—for the learned writers of antiquity are not agreed—by whom the gospel was first proclaimed in Britain, as the glad tidings of salvation to a lost world; but all agree that it by one of the apostles; St. James, Simon Zelotes, St. Peter, and St. Paul, have all been mentioned; but the latter is of all the most probable. There is reason to believe that the labours of the other apostles were in the east; and St. Peter may at once be excluded, as his were directed mostly, if not entirely, to the Jews: but from the year 58, when St. Paul was set at liberty from his imprisonment, to the year 67, when he suffered martyrdom at Rome, there are no particulars of him recorded, except that he preached in Spain; but can it be supposed, with his holy zeal, and devotedness to the object of his apostleship, that he confined himself to the continent; may it not be affirmed, not only with the highest probability, but we can scarcely suppose otherwise, that he visited the British Islands.

This conjecture, so strong in itself, is borne out by the many traditions respecting the introduction of the gospel into Britain : many of these may be rejected as mere fables, but taken as a whole they may be allowed to add something to the reasoning on the subject, and strengthen conjecture.

Although the accounts that have reached the present time, of the early buildings appropriated to christian worship in England, are very slender, yet they inform us that they were merely wooden structures, which may well be supposed from the poverty of the natives, and the small progress that the arts had made among them. Mean as their edifices were, the British christians were not altogether unknown to the Churches on the continent, as we find them represented in the council of Arles by three bishops, A.D. 314. Their early buildings were, however, destroyed, whether by time or by the desolating hand of the Saxon invader, does not appear, but it is probable that the latter had the greater share in their destruction, and finished what the former had begun, so that no traces of them were to be seen, at the time when the first authentic account begins.

The most ancient building known that was erected for the purpose of christian worship, is that of St. Paul's, at Rome ; it was built during the reign of Constantine. The original form of christian churches, even at that early age, was not unlike the present, consisting of what is now called a nave and two side aisles. This mode of constructing ecclesiastical buildings, during the infancy of the art, was adopted as a convenient method of supporting the roof, by diminishing the span : the cruciform was not introduced till some time after, and doubtless owed its origin to Romish superstition, what-

ever opinion may be formed of its beauty. Great zeal for building churches prevailed in England during the 7th century; the Saxon invaders, when they became converted to the profession of christianity, found no fit buildings for religious worship, but with the zeal that usually attends the first profession of religion, and probably to atone for the wanton destruction perpetrated by their forefathers, they built a number of churches, in different parts of the kingdom: they were, however, of a character very inferior, as it regards both extent or magnificence, to that which afterwards prevailed.

Very few of the which that flourished among the Romans were introduced into Britain by that people, but they taught a more substantial mode of building; hence the improvement of using stone instead of wood, and which was afterwards adopted by the Saxons. Foreign workmen were employed, and mechanics were even brought from Rome after that people had evacuated the Island.

From this account of early christian places of worship in England, it may well be supposed that they were buildings of no exterior beauty; without ornament, and with scarcely any decoration whatever; it was that which is now called "the depraved Roman style." The Saxons afterwards improved on this style, until they produced that which now bears the name of "Saxon architecture," and which was principally adopted until the time of the Conquest, soon after which it was supplanted by a more light and elegant style—the "Gothic" or "Saracenic."*

It can scarcely be doubted that the chapels in Jersey, of which Mr. Poindextre says there were twenty-five in

* See a more particular account of the introduction of christianity, and of the style of architecture, which prevailed previously to the building of the churches in the Channel Islands; in "SARNIA, *The Antiquities of Guernsey.*"

the Island, belonged to the former class, and that they were built during the sixth and seventh centuries. That this is the period, is not only highly probable, from the circumstance already alluded to—the zeal for building places for christian worship,—but is confirmed by the style, so far as it can be ascertained from the very small remains which now exist: there is however another circumstance that will fix their erection at a very early period. It was at this time that the practice prevailed of painting figures on the walls, representing scripture subjects: the internal walls of old St. Peter's, at Rome, were painted in this rude manner, under Formosus, in 890, but the custom may have prevailed long before that time. Figures of a like kind are still to be seen in a chapel in St. Brelade's church yard, although many are too much effaced to allow the subject to be explained with any certainty. Mr. Plees, who wrote an account of Jersey, in 1815, thus describes them as they were at that time:—

The interior of the chapel has been ornamented with a variety of figures, displaying different scenes from the New Testament. These figures are about four feet in height, and painted in colours on the plastered walls; but time, accident, and perhaps wantonness, have nearly effaced them. On the right is still distinguishable an angel, having in one hand a scroll, on which is an inscription in Gothic characters. He holds this towards a female, whose hands are uplifted in the attitude of praying: behind her, on a curvated pole, is a reading desk, with a book open, in which are some nearly illegible letters. We may venture to suppose this to represent the annunciation. On the left-hand wall is a man, crowned, with an antique sword in his right hand: from his mouth issues a scroll, on which is incised, *Héroù le roy*. His garments are of an olive colour, and over them is a scarlet robe flowing to the ground. On a lower part of the same wall is Jesus Christ, bearing his cross, depicted with yellowish hair, and his head sur-

rounded with a glory. Over the entrance, which is opposite to the west, is the figure of a man, robed, with a number of naked persons round him; some at full length, others just emerging from the ground. This is doubtless a representation of the general resurrection. The figures of this composition are smaller than those on the side walls. All are tolerably well proportioned; but, like many other ancient religious portraits, there is little expression in the features of the personages. The figures are mere sketches; but the colours appear to be well preserved. The chapel is now employed as an armory for the parochial artillery, so that the whole of those antique designs cannot be seen, unless when the guns, &c. are drawn out; and even then, the greater part of the figures being nearly effaced, it is difficult to identify the occurrences to which the paintings refer.

In the History of the Island it has already been related,* that an abbey stood on the site of that on which Elizabeth castle now stands: it afterwards became a priory to the abbey de Veto at Cherburg. At that time it was connected with the main land; but when the land which surrounded it was ingulfed, and the bay as it is at present was formed, no authentic account has reached the present time: the abbey was standing in the time of Henry the Eighth, and was suppressed by him.†

Besides the twenty-five chapels already noticed, there were four others, depending on the great Abbey of Mont St. Michael, situated at St. Clement, Noirmont, De Lecq, and Bonne Nuit; and La Hogue Bie stands on the site of

* See page 43.

† In a work lately published by l'Abbé Manet, he has stated that it was in the year 709 that a violent inundation took place, along the coast of France, by which the bay of St. Michael was formed: supposing this to be the fact, there can be no doubt that the same catastrophe inundated the low-land on the coast of Jersey, formed the bay of St. Aubin, and thus separated the rock, on which the abbey stood, from the main land of the Island.

One of them, according to Mr. Poindextre,* who thus describes those that were yet remaining at his time :—

“ That near Rozel House is yet whole, and soe is another by Havre des Pas, so called from a tradition of the footsteps of the blessed Virgin, scene thereabouts in an aparition of hers ; St. Thomas his chappell, by Longueville, is yet standing, and entire ; I do not remember any other undefaced : there remaining at this day nothing but the very foundations, to be scene, of above twenty more, dedicated to divers saints, whome it would be easie, but needless to rehearse.”

It has been asserted, but probably without any foundation, that these were chapels of ease to the present churches : it is not likely, that at any time since the erection of the churches, the Island has been so populous as to need this addition to them ; and besides the reason already given, in proof of their antiquity, it may be observed that one of the chapels stands in St. Brelade's church-yard, so as to be a convincing proof it could not have been an appendage to it, as a chapel of ease.

Of the present churches little need be said : not one of them possesses any architectural beauty, that will require particular notice:—nine of them were built during the 12th century, and in the style that is now termed NORMAN, or early Gothic : the other three were erected during the 14th century, but none of them can lay any claim to the improved style that prevailed at that time.

* Mr. Falle's opinion is, that a considerable part of the original building remains, and that the part which appears more modern, was only additions to it, made by Dean Mabon, about the year 1520-30.

CHAPTER XV.

ANCIENT PRIVILEGES,

Sanctuary, (Perquages,) Clameur de Haro, Neutrality.

It is admitted that an objection may be taken to the term “ *Ancient Privileges* ;” and the reader will probably observe, that all the privileges are ancient, and the changes that have been made, have rather abolished those that formerly existed, than created new ones : this is certainly true, but the term is used to distinguish those which, though ancient in their origin, still remain in force for the benefit of the Islanders, from those which have been abrogated, or allowed to fall into disuse.

One of the most ancient privileges of Jersey, was that which belonged to the Church, of affording protection—a sanctuary to criminals, while endeavouring to escape from the hands of justice. The privilege of Sanctuary certainly was not confined to Jersey, but there were some peculiarities connected with it in the Island, that did not obtain in other countries, where it was allowed. The protection afforded was sometimes only temporary, but when the rights of the Church were in any way implicated, the protection was continued, and became permanent. This privilege was not confined to the walls of the church ; but there were certain roads, called *Perquages*, which also afforded protection to the criminal. There were twelve of

these roads, one extending from each of the churches to the coast: they were twenty-four feet in width, and hence called *Perquages*; from *Pertica*, a perch.

The object of this privilege, in its original intention, was not only unobjectionable, but had the authority of Scripture for its exercise; though certainly extended beyond the limit which that authority prescribed. The law of Moses appointed cities of refuge, to afford protection to the manslayer only—to him who had killed a fellow creature unawares,* and was never intended to protect criminals of all grades and character; but when Judea became subject to the Roman power, the privilege of the cities of refuge was abolished in that province.

We learn, however, from Tacitus, that *Asyla*, and the privilege of sanctuary, were allowed by the Greeks, who doubtless adopted it from the patriarchs; but while they followed the custom, they changed the object; reverence was attached to the building, and criminals were protected because it should not be violated. The Romans too had their *Asyla*, but they were not so common as in the states of Greece: the privilege was, however, so much abused in the asylum at Ephesus, at the time of the emperor Augustus, that he suppressed it; and Tiberius abolished them altogether.†

The privilege was, however, revived under the Christian dispensation, and was extended to all crimes: the object was doubtless humane, though not sanctioned by divine authority. Its original intention was to afford protection to any one who sought it, not only as a criminal, but as a penitent who desired to confess his sins, and to

* Deut. xix. 1—10; xxxii. 35; Num. xxxv. 9—29.

† This is the account given by Suetonius; Tacitus says that Tiberius only regulated them.—*Archæologia*, vol. viii.

record his solemn promise before the altar, that he would not again commit a like transgression. The Romish priesthood first added to this simple act of confession, and assumed the power of absolution; and as the power of the church of Rome increased, until it became a spiritual hierarchy, she used it as an engine against temporal authority: it was during the seventh century that it began to assume this obnoxious character. Pope Boniface V., seeing the great advantage that would accrue to the church by the extension of the privileges of sanctuary, added to them, and appointed all religious buildings as sanctuaries; the protection was only to Catholics—all Jews, infidels, and heretics were excluded, but given in its fullest extent to its own members; unless the crime was committed within the walls of the church.

It is to be observed that in some instances, where the principle of sanctuary was acted on, it was more or less rigid, according to the institutions of the asylum to which the criminal fled: like as in monasteries, where the rules were less strict, and more in accordance with common sense; thus we find that the laws of one of them states “if a man be a thief or a robber, let him restore what he hath unjustly taken, if he hath it in his possession; or if he hath wasted or embezzled it, let him make it good from his own property, if he be able.”

Before the time of the emperor Charlemagne, all churches were sanctuaries; but this extensive privilege led to such an abuse of power, that that monarch limited the privileges to certain monasteries, and other ecclesiastical buildings, as well as specified the crimes for which they were to afford protection, which greatly checked the evil.

Although the privilege of sanctuary was held sacred—

if such a term can be used, when so much iniquity was practised to defeat its object—and was not to be violently assailed, yet was it often rendered of no effect by deceit and fraud: thus Basilicus was induced to quit his sanctuary on a promise by the emperor Zeno not to shed his blood, but he was cast, with his wife and children, into a dry cistern, where they perished; and thus the well-known fact of Henry VII., who induced Perkin Warbeck to leave the sanctuary where he had taken refuge, on a promise of protection; but on quitting it he was seized and ultimately executed.

Although the privilege was not peculiar to Jersey, yet it pertained to every church in the Island, and all possessed it, until it was finally abolished, in the British dominions, soon after the reformation had become fully established. It had, however, this peculiarity in Jersey; that while the felon in England was obliged to confine himself to the sanctuary, or to a prescribed distance from it; or, if he had abjured his country, to go to the sea “by the most direct road,” and to quit the kingdom: in the Island he was protected while he was on one of the Perquages, one of which, as has been observed, ran in a direct line from every church to the sea.

In those countries where the privileges of sanctuary were carried to the greatest extent, debtors were protected, while within the prescribed limits, with all their goods and chattels, and even their cattle—so great was the influence of the Church, and so great its power over the minds and consciences of men. It cannot now be ascertained whether this privilege was carried to this great extent in Jersey, but it seems highly probable, both from the character of the Islanders, and the peculiarity that pertained to their Perquages.

There seems to have been another privilege of sanctuary peculiar to Jersey; the criminal was always under the protection of the Church, while found on one of these Perquages. In England the criminal held a crucifix in his hand, to show that he was under the legal protection of the Church, and was allowed only forty days to quit the kingdom, which he must previously have abjured. In Jersey, as all the churches were sanctuaries, so were all the Perquages to him at all times privileged.

i It is to be observed that all the parishes not only border on the sea, but present a large coast to it, except St. Saviour's, and even that has one point of contact, and to which point, doubtless, the Perquage ran; and it is more than probable that in the division of the Island into parishes, a regard was had to this privilege in their formation, as the privilege of sanctuary unquestionably existed before the Island was so divided.

As the reformation proceeded in England, and the light of truth was diffused, the absurdities of the Romish church became more apparent, and this much abused privilege was seen to be not only absurd in itself, when viewed as a protection against crime, but to be rather an incentive to it;* thus it lost its sanctity in the eyes of the nation at large, and the privilege being much restricted by Henry VIII. and Edward VI., fell, in great measure, into disuse, but it was not finally abolished till the first of James I.; and the Perquages were afterwards given by Charles II. to

* It may not be amiss here to state an instance of the great abuse of sanctuary, as it exists at the present day, where the privilege still prevails, in catholic countries; Smollet thus writes:—"I saw a fellow, who three days before had murdered his wife, in the last month of pregnancy, taking the air with great composure and serenity, on the steps of a church in Florence; and nothing is more common than to see the most execrable villains diverting themselves in the cloisters of some convent at Rome."—*Smollet's Travels.*

Edward de Carteret, son of the celebrated Sir Philip de Carteret, for their eminent services rendered to the royal* cause; and he afterwards sold them to the Seigneurs on whose lands they abutted, who brought them into cultivation; so that all traces of them must necessarily be lost.

Mr. Poindextre's MS. does not furnish many particulars of this privilege, but enough is said to corroborate the foregoing remarks:

“ I never heard of such ways any where else; for albeit the custom of taking sanctuary, and forswearing the country, were the same with that of Normandy; yet the old custom book says, onely, that those who had forsworn, were to be conveyed along the highway, from deanery to deanery, till they were out of the confines of the province: and so, I think, I may place this kind of way among the singularities of the Island.”

A proceeding still obtains in the criminal courts of Jersey, which is probably a *remanet* of the ancient privilege of sanctuary: its character is certainly changed from superstition, and of protecting crime, to that of political expediency. The following extract from Mr. Durell's notes on Falle, will at once explain the practice, and furnish an apology for its use; “ A custom still exists in our criminal proceedings, probably derived from, or at least modified from that ancient practice, which is, that when a prisoner is first brought to the court, *he demands that* in order to stop all further proceedings, he may be allowed to leave the country (*à vuidier le pays,*) which when the offence is not very serious is often granted, and the prisoner is then generally banished either for three or five years. This

* The grant of these Perquages is found among the records of the royal court, dated May 30th, 1663.—*Durell's notes.*

practice might appear, at first sight, like a compounding for felony, but in a country abounding with strangers, it is an expeditious way of getting rid of many notorious characters, whom it might be very difficult to convict; and it is further to be remarked, that this indulgence is never granted to persons charged with offences which would amount to felony."

The following regulations, and mode of proceeding, which were adopted in Normandy, will not be uninteresting to the English reader, and they doubtless formed a part of the custom in Jersey, as far as they were applicable to the Island: its early dependence on the duchy, and the practice already alluded to, which still prevails, is strong evidence of the fact:—"Se aucun damne ou fuytif à léglise ou en cymitiere, ou en lieu saint, ou il se aert à une croix qui soit fichée en terre, la justice laye le doit laisser en paix pour le privilege de leglise, si quelle mette la main à luy, mais la justice doit mettre gardes quil ne senfuye dillec. Et sil ne se veult dedans neuf jours rendre a la justice laye ou forjurer Normendie, la justice ne souffrira dillec en avant que on luy apporte que mengier a soustenir sa vie jusques a ce quil soit rendu a justice pour en ordonner selon sa desserte, ou jusques à ce quil offre a forjurer le pays. Et il forjurera en ceste forme. Il tendra les mains sur les Saintes Evangiles et jurera que il partira de Normendie et que jamais ny reviendra, quil ne fera mal au païs ne aux gens qui y sont pour choses qui sont passée, ne les fera grever, ne grevera, et mal ne leur fera, ne pourchassera, ne fera faire ne pourchasser pour soy, ne par autre en nulle maniere. Et que en une ville ne gerra que une nuyt, ce n'est par grande deffaulte de santé, et ne se faindra daller tant qu'il soit hors de Normandie, et ne retournera aux lieux qu'il aura passez, ne a autres pour revenir, ainsi ira toujours en avant. Et si comencera maintenant à sen aller, et se doit dire quelle part il voudra aller, si luy tauxera lon ses journees selon la force et la grant quantité et longueur de la voye. Et si remaint en Normendie depuis que le terme que on luy donnera sera passe, ou se il se retourne une lieue en arriere, il portera son jugement avec soy, car desque il sera alle contre son serment, Saincte eglise ne luy pourra plus ayder."—*Coutumes de Normendie.*

CLAMEUR DE HARO.

The next ancient privilege, in order of time, is that of "*Le Clameur de Haro*;" this has been already noticed in the History of the Island;* but, as it is necessary to give it place among its ancient privileges, a few particulars will be added, which have been preserved in the chronicles of Normandy.

In the general history, the character of Rollo, the first duke of Normandy, was alluded to. He was the leader of a band that invaded that province, without legitimate grounds; yet he by no means deserved the character that usually attaches to an invader, without pretensions to right. He was remarkable for his administration of justice among his followers, and so strict in maintaining and enforcing it, when he obtained legal possession of Normandy as chief, by the cession of it to him by Charles IV., that a bare appeal to him by name, even at a distance from the scene of contention, was sufficient to protect from present wrong; and the supposed oppressor was obliged to desist, whatever was the subject in dispute.

The chronicles of Normandy, from which the information is derived, do not furnish any evidence of the origin of the custom—whether from his own appointment, or by the influence of his name and character; but the effect was an immediate protection against wrong, until the subject had been heard and determined;† *Ha-Rou* was the

* See General History, page 10.

† "Pour la bonne paix et justice, qu'il maintint en sa Duché, ses subjects prendrent une coutume, tant de son vivant, comme aprez son mort, quand on leur faisoit force au violence, ils crioient Au Rou, &c." *Chron. de Normand.*, ch. 26.

exclamation used, and which the oppressor immediately respected; but the usual addition "*à l'aide mon prince,*" would lead us to suppose that it had reference to the character and justice of the prince, in calling upon him personally to avenge a wrong.

There was a remarkable instance of its efficacy at the funeral of William the Conqueror. Henry, in his *History of England*, relates some minute particulars of the death of William, but does not notice this at his funeral; the particulars are, however, preserved in the *Chroniques de Normandie*, and are given by Baker in his *Chronicles of the Kings of England*; they are briefly these:—The abbey of St. Stephen, in Caen, was built by William the Conqueror, and he caused several houses to be demolished, in order to allow sufficient space for the building; but compensation was not, in every case, made for the property destroyed. According to the directions that William had given, that he should be interred in this abbey, the royal corpse was brought thither, "but when the divine service was ended, and the body was ready to be laid in the grave, one Anselm Fitzarthur stood up, and claimed that ground to be the floor of his father's house, which king William had violently wrested from him; and thereupon charged them, as they would answer before the face of Almighty God, not to cover the body with the earth of his inheritance: whereupon, after some pause, three pounds was paid in hand for the ground broken up, and one hundred pounds more afterwards, for the ground itself, paid him by Henry, the king's youngest son, who only, of all his sons, was present at the funeral."* The chronicles of Normandy give the words of the address. "While the officiating priest was addressing the people, saying,

* Baker's Chronicles.

‘ Let us pray that the sins of this prince be remitted ;’— the ceremony was stayed by the power of the *Clameur de Haro*: uprose then the bold young yeoman, Arthur, the son of Asselin ; ‘ Hold,’ with a loud voice he exclaimed, ‘ on the spot on which you stand, was the house of my father ; he, for whom you pray, then duke of Normandy, seized it by violence, denied retribution, and on its site erected this edifice : the land, therefore, in presence of the ravager, I claim ; and in the name of Rollo,* forbid to rest the body of the oppressor beneath my turf, or his tomb to encumber my estate.’ ”

Another version of this speech, in which Arthur Asselin is made to assume a higher tone of defiance, is given by Paulus Æmylius, who says he addressed the company in these words :—“ He who oppressed kingdoms by his arms, has been my oppressor also, and has kept me under a continual fear of death. Since I have out-lived him who injured me, I mean not to acquit him now he is dead. The ground whereon you are going to lay this man is mine ; and I affirm that none may, in justice, bury their dead in ground which belongs to another. If after he is gone force and violence are still used to detain my right from me, I APPEAL TO ROLLO, the father and founder of our nation, who though dead, lives in his laws : I take refuge in those laws, owning no authority above them.”

In a work lately written by Mons. Lecanu, we learn several interesting particulars relative to the funeral of William ; and from which the following extract is given, in a translation :—

* It should seem that Baker was not informed of this appeal to justice, by the *Clameur de Haro*, therefore he assumed that it was made to Almighty God ; and he has not quoted the name correctly ; but there can be no doubt that the same circumstance is alluded to.

“As soon as the Conqueror was dead, his courtiers and attendants plundered his effects, stripped his corpse of his apparel, and leaving him naked went away. Nobody remained to sit by him; and when at length a sufficient number of bearers were found to render him this last office, after the service for the dead had been chaunted over him with great precipitation, on account of the infectious effluvia that filled the church, which could not be removed, notwithstanding the clouds of smoke from the burning frankincense: this was occasioned by the corpse having been ruptured, by forcing it into a coffin which was made too small. It was then that a citizen of Caen opposed its interment, by the protest, or *Clameur de Haro*, until he had been paid for the ground in which the remains were to be deposited; as the claim was just, a compliance with it was indispensable. It was thus, that he who had lately been the possessor of two crowns, was left almost without a sepulture, a shroud, a coffin, a priest, or even hands to lower him into his grave.”*—*Lecanu, Eveques de Coutances.*

The more modern processes in courts of law have not altogether superseded this ancient mode of obtaining justice; it is still, in some cases, a first proceeding to bring a disputed question of right to issue.

“Trials on this *Clameur de Haro* are still brought before the royal court of this Island. It is a remarkable feature in that law, that the prosecution is carried on by the crown, and that the losing party, whether plaintiff or defendant, is mulcted in a small fine to the king, because the sacred name of *Haro* is not to be carelessly invoked with impunity. It is the usual form in Jersey, to oppose all legal encroachments on landed property, and the first step to be taken, by which an ejectment may be finally obtained.”—*Durell, note 20.*

* Pope, in his “Windsor Forest,” alludes to this circumstance:—

“But see the man, who spacious regions gave
A waste for beasts, himself denied a grave.”

NEUTRALITY.

We learn from the charter of Elizabeth, that will be hereafter quoted, that the Islands enjoyed peculiar privileges before the reign of king John, partly owing to their situation, and partly to their not being subject to many of those claims which bore so heavily on the people on the continent, and in England, during the time of feudal service; which privileges they possessed both from the ancient dukes of Normandy, and from the sovereigns of England, but that granted by the above-mentioned monarch, is the first known to exist. It may justly be styled the MAGNA CHARTA of Jersey; and it may here be observed, that it was not extorted from John, as in England, but granted to the Islands on account of his peculiar favour to them, and to the inhabitants. Later charters are little more than repetitions of that by John; except in some instances, the privileges were enlarged, and the preamble to the charters generally states the conduct of the Islanders, in their allegiance to England's sovereign, as deserving the marks of royal favour: they are declared to be a free people, subject to no authority but what emanates immediately from the crown; and the great importance of the Islands to the monarchs of England, not only secured them from the exercise of any despotic power those monarchs possessed, but was the cause of their privileges being maintained. The charters declare that they should be considered, throughout the king's dominions, *citra vel ultra mare*, near, as well as beyond the seas, not *tanquam alienigenæ*, as foreigners and strangers, but *tanquam indigenæ*, as native English-

men; this was a great benefit to the Islanders, as regarded their intercourse with foreign nations, while at the same time they retained many privileges, which were not possessed by the English themselves.

The privilege that we have now to treat of was of a later date than the reign of John, and was probably granted, not so much in reference to the advantage of the Islands, as for the mutual benefit of belligerents, during a state of hostility; for it can scarcely be supposed that the English and French monarchs, while their respective nations were at war, would in any way make important concessions in favour of Islands so comparatively unimportant; unless they did, at the same time, secure to themselves some reciprocal benefit; or it is not unlikely that the English monarch was induced, on religious grounds, to concede the right of free access to the subjects of France, for reasons that will be hereafter stated.

The privilege alluded to, is that of Neutrality during war, which comprehended, not merely the harbours of the Islands, but to the most distant point that could be seen from the land, "as far as the eye of man can reach." This remarkable privilege has been already noticed, and where it was stated that a more particular account of it would be given, when the ancient privileges should be treated of.* It had its origin during the time of Edward IV. who began his reign in 1471, but for what reason is now lost to posterity; although, probably, with a view somewhat similar as that with which the Hanse Towns, and their privileges, were established; or by the interference of the Pope, in reference to the connexion which then subsisted between the Islands and the bishop of Coutance, as they were still subject to that suffragan in all

* See page 141.

ecclesiastical affairs, notwithstanding they belonged to the crown of England; and this is the more probable as we find a bull issued by Sixtus IV., in 1483, not only confirming the neutrality, but denouncing the anathemas of the church against all who should infringe it: and the privilege was probably conceded, to allow free access to the Islands, which their connexion required, without being prevented by the usual prohibitions of war. That the privilege was continued after the Islands were transferred to the see of Winchester, was probably occasioned by the belligerents having found the advantage of neutral-ground, independent of the original object.

In introducing this remarkable privilege more particularly to the reader, we shall first give a translation of that part of the charter of Elizabeth relating to the subject, which, it will be observed, refers to former charters granted to the Islands, and among others to that of Edward IV. conceding this privilege; the charters alluded to in this of Elizabeth, are not now known to be in existence, but the bull of Pope Sixtus IV., which confirmed the privilege as regarded the authority of the Church, and denounced anathemas against those who infringed it, proves it to have been originated by Edward IV.

“—And, Whereas some other privileges, jurisdictions, immunities, liberties, franchises, have been indulged, given, granted, and confirmed, to the aforesaid Isle,* by our forementioned progenitors and predecessors, formerly kings of England, and dukes of Normandy, and others, and have, from time immemorial, been inviolably used and observed, within the Island maritime places aforesaid; one of which is, that in time of war, the merchants of all nations, and others, as well foreigners and natives, as well enemies as friends, may and shall be permitted freely, lawfully, and without fear or danger, to resort, accede to, and frequent

* Jersey.

the foresaid Isle and maritime places, with their ships, merchandises, and goods, as well to avoid tempests, as to pursue their other lawful affairs; and there to exercise a free commerce, trade, and merchandizing; there safely and quietly to stay and remain; and thence to return and come back at any time, without any damage, molestation, or hostility whatsoever, in their wares, merchandises, goods, or bodies; and that not only within the Island, and maritime places aforesaid, and the precincts of the same, but also all-a-round them, at such space and distance as is within man's ken, that is, as far as the eye of man can reach: We approving and allowing the said immunity, impunity, liberty, privilege, and all the premisses last mentioned, do, by these presents, indulge and grant the same, for us, our heirs and successors, as much as in us lies, to the said bailly and jurates, and other indwellers, inhabitants, merchants, and others, as well friends as enemies, and to each of them, and by our royal authority do renew, reiterate, and confirm the same, in as ample form and manner as the said indwellers and inhabitants of the said Island, the said natives and foreigners, merchants and others, have in time past used and enjoyed, or ought to have used and enjoyed them. We do therefore by these presents charge and strictly enjoin all and every of our magistrates, officers, and subjects, throughout our whole realm of England, and other our dominions, and places subject to our government, wheresoever constituted, that they do not presume rashly to infringe, or any way violate this our grant, concession, and confirmation, or any thing therein expressed or contained; and if any one dares or attempts to do ought to the contrary, We will and command, as much as is in our power, that he not only restore the things unjustly taken, but also that he be compelled, by any remedies of law, to make full amends and satisfaction for the loss, interest, and expences, and be severely punished, as a presumptuous contemner of our royal authority, and of our laws."

It has been doubted by some writers, whether the neutrality was ever carried into effect, with much strictness; and their opinion seems to have been founded on the circumstance of its occasional infraction. The objections

of the present day are not new; they were urged at the time of Mr. Poindextre: he considers them at great length in his MS., and proves that it was enforced, not only by his reasoning, but by the facts that he produces: it will not be necessary here to detail his arguments—the facts will be sufficient. One of the main objections is to be found in the new edition of Falle's History: it is there observed:—"The bull of Sixtus did not produce the effect of restoring security to the Islanders. There is a curious act of the Royal court, of the twenty-first of October, 1545, by which the inhabitants are enjoined to carry sticks for their protection, (*porter des bâtons.*) It was not many years before, that according to the Jersey chronicler, Richard Mabon, the then dean of the Island, had been dragged out of his bed, taken on board of a Spanish freebooter, and been obliged to pay a heavy ransom for his release. It is nugatory to talk of the neutrality, which our ancestors are reported to have enjoyed, among whom such a disorganized state of society was tolerated."—*Durell, note 182.*

It may, however, be observed, that although this neutrality might be respected, as it regarded the vessels of belligerents, either in the harbours, or within ken of the Islands, for the benefit of the trade of both nations, it might not preclude a general hostile attack; and it may be inferred from an extract that will be inserted, from Mr. Poindextre's MS., that this arming with *bâtons*, may have been rather to enforce the neutrality, by furnishing them with the means of attack on those who may have dared to infringe it. It is by no means improbable, that there were occasional attempts to break it, and that these attempts might, either by fraud or for want of sufficient power to repel them, have sometimes succeeded; but there

can be no doubt that it was generally respected, and that the instances quoted are rather to be taken as exceptions to the rule, than as proofs that the privilege was slightly regarded. Even the strong instance of its infraction, in the case of dean Mabon being taken from his bed, by a Spanish freebooter, was the act of a pirate, whom no laws, however enforced by legitimate authority, will bind.

This, however, does not rest on conjecture; there are several instances on record, to prove that it was not only respected, but when any attempt was made to infringe it, the authorities of the Island interposed, to enforce its observance, and in every instance compelled the assailing party to obedience. The instances subjoined have the high authority of Mr. Poindextre; and it is to be observed, in reference to the latter case, that as it occurred during his time, he must have been fully cognizant of the fact.

“Moreover we have an act, of the year 1524, made in the assembly of the three estates of the Isle; the then governor, and the commissioner, sent over hither from the king, being present; how that a prize, made by one Dennis Pointy, within the precinct of these Isles, contrary to ye neutrality, was judged tortionary and illegall; and the said Pointy condemned to make restitution, with costs, which was accordingly done.”—MS.

“It happened, in the duke of Somerset’s time, when the war was very hot with France, some French vessels were then in the port of St. Aubin’s, laden, and ready to sett sayle; it happened that some English privateers, with 300 men on board, then arrived thither, and offered to seize on them as enemies, which Henry Cornish, the deputy-governor of the sayd duke, being informed of, caused the strength of the Island to be gathered together, and had layd them by the heeles, had they not prevented by departing thence.”—MS.

“In the year 1628, when a barque, laden with goods from St. Malos, and addressed to Mr. Baillefranch, an inhabitant, was

sett upon by one captain Barker, in ye port of St. Aubin, being at anchor there; the court ordained that it should be released for many reasons, but especially for this of neutrality."—MS.

If the principal object of this neutrality was of a religious character, in order to preserve a free and uninterrupted communication between the Islands and their suffragan at Coutance, it is certainly probable that it became relaxed, in a great degree, after they were transferred to the see of Winchester by Elizabeth. From this time, when the power of the Pope was no longer feared, and his threats could no more be enforced, the privilege came to be disregarded; and we learn that the Islanders finding the system of privateering would be more gainful to them, they adopted it, without being checked by the British sovereigns: thus it was virtually relinquished, and finally abolished by an order in council, by William III.* removing the restriction, and allowing the Islanders to act for themselves.

This singular privilege furnished the learned Selden with an argument, which he employed in his celebrated work, *Mare Clausum*, to prove that England always possessed a right to the dominion of the narrow seas: his argument is founded on the assumption that this country had possession of these Islands, from a very early period, and consequently had maritime dominion in the channel; which every authority that can be quoted, proves to be incorrect. It is somewhat singular, that Selden should have used it; but there can be no doubt that such was his opinion: his words are, "The kings of England have always possessed the Islands aforesaid, lying near the coast of France, and consequently been masters of the sea in which they are situate." Mr. Morant, the learned

* Gough's edition of Camden's Britannia.

antiquarian, addressed a letter to Mr. Falle, in 1733, in which, while he admitted the fact of England having the dominion of the narrow seas, he proves the incorrectness of that particular argument adduced by Selden, who quotes some ancient documents, and refers to former customs in proof. Mr. Morant examines all the arguments in the *Mare Clausum*, bearing on this point; and shows, however high the authority of Selden is, and how conclusive generally his arguments are, in this instance he was wrong.*

* The reader who may wish for more information on this subject, may consult Falle's History, by the Rev. E. Durell, in which Mr. Morant's letter is reprinted at length.

For many other ancient privileges, but which are in exercise in the present day, the reader is referred to chapter viii.

CHAPTER XVI.

BIOGRAPHY.

ALTHOUGH some few particulars have reached the present time, of the general history of the Islands, yet nothing is known of those persons who flourished in them before the Conquest, and comparatively very little from that period till the 17th century. At the time that they were taken possession of by the Romans, we are not informed that the Islanders were marshalled on the shore, like their now fellow subjects, the Britons, to repel the assailants; and we may trace the page of history in vain for a patriot Carteret, prepared to oppose a landing, or a brave Pierson, who sacrificed his life in repelling an insolent invader:—every thing anterior to the Conquest, which respects individual history, must be left to imagination. But it may not be unduly exercised, in picturing to itself the Islanders of ancient days engaged in heroic deeds, which only wanted a chronicler to transmit to posterity, and to give them an interest equal to the most famous of later times. Even the story of De Hambie, whatever of truth the credulous may attach to it, is nothing more than an ingenious, and, as given by Mr. Bulkeley, a beautiful fiction, although it may have had some truth for its origin.

In comparing the names of those who accompanied

William the Conqueror, in his expedition to England, with those who are at this time natives of the Islands, the ancestry of some of the present generation, could the line be followed, may be traced to that distant period; but the renowned families must be satisfied with having a right to the claim, without being able to prove it:—to attempt the proof would be fruitless, and uninteresting to an English reader could it be effected.

It is intended, in the present Biographical Sketch of Jersey, to give the Memoirs of Individuals in chronological order, from the earliest period at which any individual history is known, to that of the present time. It is presumed, however unusual this plan may be, that it will be found to combine some advantages which no other can furnish. There have been many characters, who were eminent in their day and generation, and in the sphere in which they acted, sufficiently so to deserve a place in the Biography of the Islands; but the scenes in which they acted were too decidedly of a temporary character, and consequently uninteresting to posterity, to allow a separate memoir; it is therefore intended, in the proposed sketch, to give them a place in the order in which they lived, with such particulars of them as the annals of the Islands will furnish, and which may be deemed interesting at the present time; reserving for those who are better known, a separate sketch of their lives. -

The proposed plan will also have another advantage. The general history could only narrate the great leading events in which the Islands have been engaged; the limited space allotted for it, would not allow much to be introduced of individual action. In giving the lives of Individuals in chronological order, the characters who took part in public transactions will be introduced, and their separate

history given, as connected with those events; not omitting those persons who passed their lives in literary retirement; or those who, although in high stations in the church, took little or no part in the politics of the day.

If, in the early period of its history, Jersey furnished any eminently literary characters, their names are, with one exception, lost to posterity. Neither of the Channel Islands can be called classic ground. Jersey had no institutions of a public character, besides the two already mentioned, St. Manliers and St. Athanasius, where little more than the mere elements of learning were taught on the foundation: from thence students were usually transferred to the University of Saumur, where they were instructed in the learning of the age. Even at the present time it has no colleges, or rich endowments for the promotion of learning—no scholarships to attract, no fellowships to reward talent and persevering industry. For all these advantages, her sons are indebted to England, and her munificent University of Oxford; they are found in the three colleges of Exeter, Jesus, and Pembroke, in which are fellowships to reward the talent of the more favoured Jersey scholars.*

But to encourage learning among his fellow subjects, the celebrated historian of his native Island, Falle, left, at his decease, his large collection of books,—a valuable bequest, as before his time the Island had no public library whatever; and Dr. Dumaresq has since added to the collection a considerable number of volumes. An annual grant has also been voted by the States, for the purchase of more modern books, so that at present it forms a very respectable collection.

It has already been observed that nothing is known of

* See Ecclesiastical History, page 49.

individual history, before the time of William, the Norman, who held the sovereignty of these Islands, previously to his conquest of England. The person who claims the first place in this Biography, flourished in the 12th century; Robert Vaice, or Wace, (1) as his name is now written, the

(1) ROBERT WACE.

ROBERT WACE was born in the 12th century, as we learn from his writings, but he does not inform us in what year, neither does he give any account of his parentage, or of his early years, except that he left Jersey, where he was born, while young.* In the few extracts that will be given from his writings, those parts will be selected, that furnish particulars, from which the information respecting his life has been taken; and the reader will, at the same time, have a specimen of his poetry:—

“ *Je di et dirai ke je suis,
Vaice de lisle de Gersui;
Ki est en mer vers loccident,
Al lieu de Normendie apent.
En lisle de Gersui, fui nez
A Caem fui petit portez,
Illoques fui a letres mis,
Puis fui longues en France apres.*”

Thus we learn that he was born in Jersey, that he was sent to Caen while he was young, and where he commenced his studies: from thence he went to France; but as no particular place is mentioned, it is probable that he employed his time in travelling, and in collecting information for his future labours.

Although Wace informs us that he was born in Jersey, he does not state precisely the time; it must, however, have been early in the 12th century, and during the reign of our first Henry:

“ *Treis reis Henriz vi et connui,
Et clerk lisant en leur tens fui,
Rei d' Engleterre la garnie,
Et duc furent de Normendie.*”

* In an allusion he makes of his parents, he intimates that he lost his father while a youth, and probably before he left his native Island.

“ *Quer je oui dire a mon pere,
Bien m'en sovint mex varlet ere.*”

Anglo-Norman poet, was born in Jersey, and his poems were of so much celebrity in his day, that they furnished the chief amusement of crowned-heads and their courtiers, and perhaps excited as much interest, and afforded as much amusement, in that illiterate age, as either the *Iliad* or *Æneid* of more ancient times.

Here he informs us that he lived during the reigns of three kings Henry :* that he had some public appointment, which he terms “clerk lisant;” what this meant cannot now be correctly ascertained—whether it was an officiating priest, as a reader, or an engagement of somewhat a higher character, analogous to a professorship, or a lecturer on some subject, probably history—but whatever this appointment was, it must have been in Normandy. He received it from the king of England, as duke of that province, and who endowed it; as the term “garnie” probably signifies.

“ Quant jo de France repairai,
A Chaem lungues conversai,
De remanz† faire m’ entremis,
Mult en ecris, et mult en fis.”

These lines inform us, that on his return from his travels, he again settled at Caen, where he continued his engagements a long time, and was much occupied by his writings, and his official duties, whatever they were;—“Mult en ecris, et mult en fis.”

After he had finished his “*Roman de Rou*,” the work best known in England, and which will be hereafter noticed; Henry II.

* The reader should be informed that it is not here meant that he lived during the reigns of our first, second, and third Henry; for this would have made to be 81 years of age, even if born the last year of Henry I, and died the first of Henry III, which is not likely; but the eldest son of Henry II, also named Henry, was crowned, during the life time of his father, and died before him in 1183; consequently he never actually reigned, but having been crowned, was in that sense king.

† It may here be observed that the word “*Remanz*,” though literally translated by the English *Romance*, has a very different meaning: it originally meant a history of the knights Crusaders, and by an easy change, became to mean a more general history; and hence we may trace the origin of the term romantic. Wace gives his authorities like any other historian, who desires that his work may be deemed authentic, and thus avoids the charge of its being a fiction.

Robert Wace had not a Plutarch or a Johnson, to transmit his name and his talents to posterity; all that is known of his individual history is gathered from his poems, in which he incidentally alludes to himself; but enough is told us to satisfy the curiosity of the present day, and his poems still live to prove his claim to celebrity.

to whom he had dedicated it, presented him with a prebendal stall in the cathedral of Bayeux: we learn by the cartularies of the church, that he held this preferment nineteen years; and probably to the day of his death.

After he had written "The continuation of the History of the Dukes of Normandy," he rested for a time from his labours, and he then received very flattering invitations to continue the history; but in his next poem, he assigns a reason for the delay—he complains that he had not met with encouragement: his complaint is that his patrons amused him with ample professions, and had not fulfilled their promises to him:—

" De dons è de pramesse chescun d' els m' asoage,
 Mes besuing vient, qui tost sigle et tost nage,
 E suvent me fet metre li denier el gage."

He charges the Mæcenases of the age, with confining themselves to barren compliments, and not giving him sufficient to defray a month's wages of his amanuensis; he reminds them of happier days, when the barons and their ladies knew how to honour and reward the historian, who consecrated their names in his works, and transmitted them to posterity. Henry II. was, however, exempted from this charge; for besides the stall in the cathedral at Bayeux, he conferred on him other favours, as a reward for his talents, and for the amusement he afforded to the court.

As Wace was present at the coronation of the son of Henry II., he must have resided for a time in England, and was personally known in the court of his patron: it has, indeed, been asserted that he died in England; the authority, however, is not stated. His death occurred about the year 1184, but as the time of his birth is not known, we are, of course, ignorant of his exact age.

The island of Jersey must, however, be satisfied with having given birth to the poet: he does not in any part of his poems allude to his having visited the Island, after he was sent to Caen; but it is an honour that is undisputed. While more than one city of Greece claim to be distinguished, as having given birth to Homer, and claim

Of the writings of Wace, the first that will be noticed is—

“*Le Brut d'Angleterre*,” so called from Brutus, the first king of the Britons; it is a translation in verse, and was originally written in Latin, by Geoffrey of Monmouth, or, as some suppose, translated into Latin by him, from the language of Lower Britany, in which it was originally written, by an author now unknown: this translation was first published—if the modern term will apply—first known to the public, in 1155, as may be inferred from the following lines, or it may indicate the year in which he began it:—

“Pois ke Dex incarnation
Prist por nostre redemption,
M. C. L. et cinq ans,
Fist mestre Wace cest remanz.”

Wace continued this history of the British Kings to the close of the 7th century; but as the early part is in a translation, he is not, of course, answerable for its accuracy, which would certainly implicate its authenticity, as Geoffrey is by no means entitled to this merit. There is in the royal library at Paris a very superb copy of this work, supposed to be coeval with the author: in the same library there are other MSS. of it, of a later date; it is also in the library of the British Museum. It contains 1800 lines of octo-syllabic verse.

The next was an original work, “*The History of the irruption of the Normans into England, and the northern provinces of France*.” Mon. De la Rue, who has critically commented on the writings of Wace, observes that in this work “the author discovers a prodigious knowledge of history, and the revolutions of empires.”* The only copy known of this work, is in the royal library of Paris: it is written in lines the same length as the last.

The third performance of Wace is the famous “*Roman de Rou*,” the name is derived from Rollo, the first duke of Normandy, who is the hero of the history. Some annotators on Wace have confounded this work with the preceding, describing them as one work; this is evi-

* Mon. De la Rue presented a paper to the Antiquarian Society, on the life of Wace and his writings, which was published in the *Archæologia*, vol. 12.

the distinction on that single fact, no one denies that Jersey was the birth-place of Robert Wace.

The paucity of means, already noticed, doubtless repressed much rising genius : could we penetrate the recesses of their church-yards, and bring to view the latent, because untutored talent, during what may be called the

dently an error, for not only is the subject perfectly distinct, but the two poems are composed in lines of different lengths. He informs us, in another of his poems, that he composed it in 1160; it is written in verses of twelve syllables, called Alexandrine, and is to be found in the library of Paris : it was transcribed early in the 18th century, and the orthography adapted to that time; and an edition has lately been printed at Rouen, in two vols. 8vo., with notes and comments by M. Pluquet.

His fourth work is "*The Romance of William Longsword, son of Rollo*:" this also has been considered as a part of the "*Roman de Rou,*" and with more propriety, as the lines are of the same length, and it may be considered as a continuation of that work; but we prefer viewing it as a distinct, as it is in fact a separate, history; and is generally found separated in libraries, although sometimes placed at the end of the other work, as is the case of the one in the library in Paris.

The fifth is "*The Romance of duke Richard I. son of William Longsword*:" the same remarks will apply to this work as to the preceding, and the same reasons for making it separate are also applicable; this is considerably longer than the former, and is also written in lines of eight syllables.

The sixth is "*A continuation of the History of the Dukes of Normandy,*" comprehending a space of time from duke Richard I. to the sixth year of the reign of Henry I.: that is, to the period at which he took his brother Robert prisoner, and thus became possessed of both England and Normandy. In this work he informs us that he saw the eldest son of Henry II. crowned, during the life of his father:* this fully explains what has been already observed, that he lived during the time of three kings Henry. This event took place in the year 1170, so that the poem was written after that time: it is the longest of all his poems, taken separately; it contains 12,000 lines, and is in the library of the British Museum.

His seventh work is a sort of compendium or abridged chronicle of the History of the dukes of Normandy. In this work he again alludes to himself, and the time that he commenced his history of the dukes of

* The fact is admitted by Hume, *History of England*, vol. 1. page 291, 4to edit.

dark ages of the Island, probably it may be said

“Some mute inglorious Milton here may rest.”

and we may, with more certainty, add, judging from the
bravery and the known loyalty of the Islanders,

“Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country’s blood.”

but history has not presented the name of any one of note,

Normandy, which it appears was in 1160;

“Mil chente è seisante ans ont de tems è d espace,
Pois ke Dex en la Virge descendi par sa grace,
Quant un Clerc de Caem qui ot nom Mestre Wace,
S entremet de lestoire de Rou è de setrace.

This work is in Alexandrine verse, and is in the library in Paris.

The eighth is “*The Origin of the Feast of the Conception of the Virgin* :” tradition states that this feast was established by William the Conqueror, and that poetical games were instituted, analogous to what are now called prize essays were appointed in honour of it. This work of Wace gave rise to many canticles that have since been written on the miraculous conception. There are several MSS. of this poem in the royal library in Paris.

Wace’s ninth work is “*The Life of St. Nicholas* :” this poem is in verses of eight syllables. There is a copy in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge; and in the Bodleian library, Oxford.

His tenth work is “*Roman de Chevallier au Lion* ;” some suppose that this was written by another person, and ascribe it to Chrestien de Troyes; but others, with more probability, give him only the honour of translating it, but the authorship to Wace. He alludes to some other lighter works that he composed, but it is not known that any have come down to the present time.

We shall conclude this account of the writings of Wace, by giving his very graphic description of the person of William Longsword:—

“Willame Lunge Espee fu de haute estature
Gros fu par li espaules, greile par la chainure,
Gambes ont lunge dreites, large la forcheure
Nesteit mie sa char, embrunie ne obscure,
Li tex porta hault, lunge out la chevelure
Oils dreits et apers out, e dulce regardeure,
Mez a sis enemiz semla multe fiere e dure,
Bel nez e bele bouche, e bele parleure,
Fors fu come Jehanz* e hardiz sans mesure,
Ki son colp atendi, de sa vie nont cure.”

* Fort comme un geant.

till the 17th century: it will, however, be observed, that as the reformation became extended to the Islands, it brought with it its attendant advantages; the light of truth shone not on them in vain, but elicited talent that would have remained undiscovered, had the ignorance and superstition of popery continued to prevail. From this period many eminent men arose, who either by their talents or their learning, shed a lustre on the Islands, and caused them to be better known to the British public.

It will, however, first be necessary to notice some few individuals, who, by their patriotism or benevolence, claim a place in this history. Philip de Carteret, who has been already noticed in the General History, distinguished himself during the war of the Roses, as an adherent of the House of York, and opposed for six years the Comte de Maulevrier, who was of the Lancastrian party, and being supported by the French, got possession, by treachery, of Mont Orgueil Castle, and a considerable portion of the Island; but which de Carteret, assisted by Sir Richard Harliston, afterwards recovered. He was Seigneur of St. Ouen, and progenitor of a long line of celebrated men: his son married the heroic Margaret de Harliston, by whom he had twenty sons and a daughter; this son died young, or rather while several of his children were under age. One of his grandsons was Helier de Carteret, the celebrated bailly of the Island, who died in 1640.

In the search after the names of eminent men, natives of the Island, the next we find, after de Carteret, is that of John Neel: he was born in Jersey, and was the first to bestow on the Island any benefit of a literary character. The two schools of St. Magloire (St. Manlier,) and St. Anastase (St. Anastasius) were founded by him, conjointly with one Tehy, who was also a native of Jersey, and set-

tled in Southampton as a merchant. Very few particulars have reached the present time of the life of Neel, but we find that he graduated in the university of Paris, and was afterwards treasurer to William Waynfleet, bishop of Winchester, and dean of Prince Arthur's chapel, which appointment he held till the time of his death, which occurred in 1497.

Dean Mabon has already been mentioned, but it is necessary again to notice him here, as having added to that beautiful structure "*La Hogue Bie*:" the part that he built retains his name; it is called Dean Mabon's Chapel. The Jersey Records state that he had presided at a Royal Court, as *Juge commis*, or deputy Bailly, during the reign of Henry VIII.; it appears by this that he acted in a civil, as well as ecclesiastical, capacity; unless the appointment was only temporary, during the absence or illness of the official. He must have died towards the latter part of the reign of Edward VI., or in the first year of Mary, as that queen cancelled the presentation to a living of one Gouray, that dean Mabon had given him—doubtless to make way for a papist.

In the list of benefactors to the Island, the name of Laurens Baudeyn must not be omitted; he added to the benefit of Neel and Tehy's bounty, by giving a certain sum in wheat-rents,* to assist young men, whose means would not otherwise be sufficient to obtain a university education. This is indeed only a part of Baudeyn's original plan, which was to found a college, but the amount was insufficient for the purpose.

In the ecclesiastical history it has been stated that the Island was subject to the Genevan discipline and mode of

* For an explanation of this term, the English reader is referred to page 135.

worship, during part of the reign of Elizabeth and James I.,* but episcopacy was restored during that of James, when Dr. Bandinel was the first dean; he would therefore claim a place in this part of the general sketch; but so little is known of his private history, and he was so much mixed up with the politics and commotions of the Island, during the time of the great rebellion, that his name is now passed with this notice, and the part he took in public affairs, will find a more appropriate place in the life of the Carterets.

But we must now leave the contemplation of poets and benefactors, to view scenes of contention and strife; and to consider persons who also devoted themselves to the service of their native Isle, but certainly employed far less tranquil means; the result, however, in the subsequent prosperous state of the Island, proves their endeavours were not without a good effect.

Sir Philip de Carteret, (2) whom it will be our province first to mention in this warfare, sprang from an ancient and considerable family in Jersey. It will, however, be necessary to include the life of his nephew, afterwards Sir George Carteret, (2) who took such a distinguished part

(2) SIR PHILIP DE CARTERET.—SIR GEORGE CARTERET.

The family of De Carteret was originally from Normandy, and consequently is of high antiquity; and had been distinguished in Jersey, previously to the time of the subject of the present memoir. Sir Philip de Carteret was born in the isle of Sercq, in 1584, and must have exhibited considerable abilities, even while young, for as soon as he was of an age to be entitled to the honour, he was elected a Jurat of the Royal Court of Jersey. Although the Island, during the early part of the 17th century,

* See page 46.

in opposition to the Parliament; as the events in which

was not disturbed by any commotions, but such as she bred within herself, yet these were at this time somewhat rife; and two commissioners, named Conway and Bird, were appointed to examine into the state of the Island, and report to the privy-council; Sir Philip de Carteret must have rendered very able assistance to the commissioners, as in their report, which was made in 1617, they speak of him in the highest terms of praise. He was soon after appointed by the States to confer with the privy-council, and to arrange with them the settlement of the canons of the Church,* which had been previously drawn up, by the dean and ministers of the Island; and it was principally owing to his exertions and influence that the arrangement was brought to a favourable result. In 1626 he was appointed Bailly, and while he held that office, to the military post of Lieutenant Governor, during the time that Sir Thomas Jermyn had the supreme command, as Governor: this latter appointment he held during the remainder of his life.

Having thus traced his progress through his official gradations of rank and honour, we have now to notice the part he took in those stirring events in which the Island was concerned, during the latter part of his time. The faithfulness of history requires the admission that Sir Philip de Carteret had his faults, and among others that his manners were austere—that he carried himself with a haughty demeanour towards the Jurats on the bench; but it may be assumed that his distinguished position in the Island, and his impartiality in administering justice, raised him up enemies, who sought an opportunity to lessen his reputation, and deprive him of his power: it is, however, a subject of regret, that some of the charges against him were not without foundation; they were, principally, that he contrived to secure for himself “various offices incompatible in one person, for the indifferent administration of justice,” and that “he intrusted those of his own name and family, with the chiefest places and offices;” at the same time granting reversions of places to his own relations:

* See Ecclesiastical History, page 47.

both were concerned are so connected, that they in fact

this was deemed contrary to the law, at least contrary to the ancient practice, of the Island.

In this sketch of his life, it cannot be expected to enter into an examination to what extent these charges were true; that they had some foundation there can be no doubt, but that they were greatly exaggerated may be fairly inferred, from the fact that Prynne, who was confined in Mont Orgueil Castle while he was Lieutenant-Governor, and who it may be supposed would not openly, at least, vindicate any arbitrary stretch of power, undertook his defence against his enemies: and the Royal Court, in 1668, some years after his death, on the occasion of a cause being before it, in which his relations were concerned, passed on him much encomium: the following testimony to his character, which, while it admitted the fact that he held various offices of trust, declared that he administered justice with integrity:—"Il posseda les premieres places; et au gouvernement et en l'administration de la justice, il s'enquitta toujours avec tant d'honneur et d'integrite, qu'il ne se rendit pas moins considerable par son propre merite, qu'il l'etait par l'importance de ses charges."—*Cours de Samedi.*

Dean Bandinel, who has already been mentioned, was a violent opponent of Sir Philip de Carteret. Sir Philip had been charged with endeavouring to deprive the Dean of part of his tythes; this, as may be supposed, raised the opposition against him, as it was said that he sought to effect it by stretching his right beyond due bounds: and thus were the two heads—the one of the civil, the other of the ecclesiastical power—in mutual conflict.

We must now introduce to the reader the celebrated Sir George Carteret; he was son of Elie de Carteret, nephew to Sir Philip, and his son-in-law. Sir George was born in the year 1599, he entered young in the service of the navy, and we first hear of him as Captain Carteret in the Mediterranean, where he signalized himself against the pirates of the Barbary States; but we know little of him afterwards, until he appeared in Jersey with the king's commission as Lieutenant Governor, in November 1643, soon after the death of his uncle: there is, however, one

form one continued history, and thus the transactions of

fact recorded, which shows his great zeal and activity in favour of the royal cause. Having heard that the king's army, in the south of England, was in great want of powder, and cut off from its supply, Captain Carteret went over to France, and obtained a considerable quantity, which he caused to be conveyed to the army. For this timely and very important service, he received the honour of knighthood, while the king was at Oxford: he was afterwards created a baronet; the patent is dated May 9th, 1645.

Previously to the death of Sir Philip, some of the malcontents had shown strong symptoms of disaffection to the authority of the king, and the parliament having sent over commissioners, their disloyalty was fomented until it broke out into two parties, which seemed prepared to set themselves in array against each other. The insurgents had possession of the town, while Sir Philip was shut up in Elizabeth Castle, and his wife in Mont Orgueil, which two fortresses were held for the king. At this time Bandinel was considered the head of the parliament-party, and evinced his personal animosity to Sir Philip. All supplies were refused to either of the castles, but they were amply supplied by Capt. Carteret, who was at St. Malo, making active preparations against the storm that he apprehended; but which did not, in fact, break over the Island until some years after. This was the state of things, when Sir Philip, borne down by grief and vexation at the malignity of his enemies, and anxiety for the cause in which he was engaged, was attacked by illness, which, in fourteen days, carried him to his grave, at the age of sixty years. It was during his illness, that Dean Bandinel showed his animosity, although his conduct was attempted to be vindicated on the ground of policy: he, and others who were associated with him, not only refused Sir Philip being supplied with those things which would tend to lessen the sufferings of a dying man, but for a long time refused his wife to visit him, or to receive from a minister of his choice, what he deemed the consolations of religion; and when at last his wife was allowed to pass into the Castle, it was only in time to witness his dying agonies; and the only consolation she had,

that time will be brought as it were to a focus, and avoid

was the recognition of her presence, by his gently raising his hand : he died the 23rd of August, 1643.

Before the news had reached England of the decease of Sir Philip de Carteret, the parliament sent over one Major Lydcott as Lieutenant Governor, with orders to arrest him ; but death had already placed him beyond human power or controul. When the king heard of the death of Sir Philip, he appointed Captain, now Sir George Carteret, Lieut. Governor : his commission bears date Oct. 3rd, and he landed on the Island, from St. Malo, on the 19th of November following. During the interval the *pseudo* Lieutenant Governor Lydcott had lost much of his influence, and even some of the officers whom he brought over with him, had gone over to the Dowager Lady de Carteret, who was still in Mont Orgueil Castle ; and finding that the Islanders were generally well affected towards the royal cause, he, together with other functionaries appointed by parliament, fled the Island, and as many of their party as had the means of escape went with them : and thus the Island was, without bloodshed, brought under subjection to the king.

The character of Captain Carteret was in such repute, that previously to his declaring for the king, the parliament had offered to raise him to the rank of vice-admiral, and to place him under the Earl of Warwick, who then had the command of the fleet ; but he preferred adherence to the royal cause, and subsequent transactions justified his choice ; although it has been asserted, that had he obtained a command in the fleet of the parliament, he might have brought it over to the service of his royal master : how far this line of conduct could be reconciled even to political integrity, may well be questioned.

The authority of Sir George Carteret being now fully established in the Island, he began to adopt the best means of annoying those, whom he now considered his enemies ; his profession, and the situation of the Island, soon suggested the most likely method. He fitted out several vessels, as privateers, some of which were of a class almost equal to frigates ; with these he made captures of vessels, trading under passports from the officers

much repetition. The Restoration having quelled the dis-

of the parliament, and did considerable injury: these furnished him with the means of further annoyance, till at last it excited the alarm of the English merchants. The prizes did not, however, supply him with sufficient means for the defence of the whole Island, and he was obliged to levy a forced loan on the inhabitants; which was subsequently paid, by fresh captures that he made, and by the property of some of the malcontents that had been confiscated.

This was the state of things when the king sent the prince, afterwards Charles II., to Jersey, as a place of safety, accompanied by several distinguished men; among others Sir E. Hyde, afterwards Earl of Clarendon. The prince did not remain in the Island, at this time, more than two months; but Sir Edward was there upwards of two years, during which time he wrote a considerable part of his celebrated history. It was during his stay on the Island, that the prince formed his high opinion of Captain Carteret's character and talents, and which he afterwards so bountifully rewarded.

Among those who did not flee the Island, when Captain Carteret arrived with the king's commission, were Dean Bandinel and his son: these men had offered too much opposition to the royal cause, and were too well disposed for mischief, to be allowed their liberty, even if the Lieutenant Governor felt no inclination to visit on them their conduct towards his uncle. They were both apprehended on a charge of high treason, and confined in Elizabeth Castle, but afterwards removed to Mont Orgueil: after somewhat more than a twelvemonth's imprisonment, they formed a plan for their escape. Having previously made preparations, they waited for a stormy night for its execution, and the 10th of February, 1644, was favourable to their purpose: having tied together the bed-clothes, and whatever cordage they could obtain, to make the line sufficiently long to reach the ground, they forced themselves through the grating of the window: the height was immense—they must have miscalculated the distance to the rocks below. The apparatus was too short, and the younger Bandinel, who first made the attempt, fell on the rocks, and was dreadfully

sensions of parties in the state, and brought peace and

bruised; but a more awful fate awaited his father. Before he had reached the end of the line, the rope broke, and he was dashed on the cragged rocks, where he was discovered by the sentinel on duty the next morning, in a state of insensibility, but still alive: he lingered a few hours, and expired the next day. The younger Bandinel escaped into the interior of the Island, and was secreted in the house of a friend and partizan, where he was discovered, and again consigned to prison. On the eve of his trial he was seized with a delirious fever, which caused it to be postponed; but the attack terminated his troublesome life, July 26th, 1645.

Sir George Carteret having completely established the authority of the king on the Island, he scrupled not, on the execution of Charles, to proclaim his son as Charles II.: this was indeed a bold step, and worthy of his intrepid character, considering that the parliament had now triumphed, and that the commonwealth was completely established throughout England. On the September following the king's death, Charles paid his second visit to Jersey, and remained on the Island till May in the next year: it was during this time that he was first appointed controller of the navy*—a somewhat ludicrous appointment, when the whole navy consisted of privateers, and the few small frigates that he had himself fitted out.

But the privateering expeditions, and the numerous captures, increased the alarm of the English merchants; and the parliament dispatched a large force, under Admiral Blake and Major General Haines, in 1651, to reduce the Island: the particulars of their descent and success have already been given, in the General History.† The parliament troops had, at first, only possession of the country; Mont Orgueil was, however, soon reduced: Sir George Carteret shut himself up in Elizabeth Castle, in which he had a garrison of about three hundred and fifty men,

* This is gravely stated by Chalmers; but it was probably an instance of the "merry Monarch's" jocularly, who could amuse himself amidst his greatest misfortunes, though with certainly more of indifference than philosophy.

† See page 26.

tranquillity to Jersey, as well as to other parts of the Bri-

and provisions for eight months : here he determined to hold out till the last extremity, and the situation of the Castle favoured his determined resistance. Built on a rock, nearly a mile distant from the land, and surrounded by the sea at every tide, it could not be attacked by regular approaches, and a distant cannonading did but little injury to the wall, which was soon repaired ; but a shell having been thrown from a mortar on the town-hill, it fell on the church, under which was a magazine of powder, and burst the vaulting ; the explosion was terrific—upwards of fifty men were killed, which reduced his small garrison, and spread dismay among the survivors, some of whom urged Sir George to capitulate, representing to him that such must be the issue ; but he was not a man to yield to fear, although he may have formed the same opinion as his officers.

In this extremity Sir George dispatched the Rev. J. Durel, who was at that time chaplain to the garrison, to communicate the intelligence to the king, and to solicit assistance from the French monarch. As this could not be obtained, Charles advised him no longer to offer a fruitless resistance, but to capitulate on the best terms he could obtain : still, however, he was unwilling to submit ; but seeing no hope of a successful opposition, he at last yielded to the representations of his officers and the wishes of the king, and capitulated on honourable terms, after a siege of almost two months.

It is somewhat remarkable that Sir George obtained such terms as he did ; but doubtless the Parliamentarians were willing to obtain possession of the fortress, to prevent a further effusion of blood ; and by which the whole Island would be reduced to submission. The substance of the terms was—That Sir George should receive full indemnity for all that he had done against the parliament—that all his possessions on the Island should be secured to him, or that he should have the power to dispose of them—that he should have free ingress and egress from the Island—that he be allowed to reside in any country subject to the parliament, without taking the oath of allegiance—that he be allowed to retain the grants made to him by the late king—and that

tish dominions, it produced other characters, who either

he be furnished with a vessel for himself, his effects, and those of his adherents who chose to accompany him to France. Such were the terms he obtained for himself, personally; those on behalf of the royalists, generally, were equally favourable, of course giving security that they did not again take arms against the parliament. Elizabeth Castle was the last fortress that yielded to the Commonwealth; thus was Sir George gratified in the great object of his ambition—that as he was one of the most strenuous supporters of the royal cause, so he was the last to submit to the enemies of the king. The Castle was delivered up Dec. 15th, 1651.

After the surrender of the Island, Sir George retired to France, and where he must have exerted himself, however fruitlessly, to serve his royal master. Some transaction in which he was engaged gave offence to Cromwell, and by the Protector's influence with Cardinal Mazarin he was thrown into the Bastile; he was, however, soon released: this occurred in 1657. Two years after we find him at Rheims; from thence he joined the king at Brussels, preparatory to his embarkation for England, to take possession of his throne. Sir George acted a prominent part in the procession of May 29th, 1660, on the restoration of the exiled monarch to his dominions: on the following day he was appointed Vice-Chamberlain of the Household, and likewise sworn a Member of the Privy-Council; and afterwards Treasurer of the Navy.

In the first parliament that assembled after the Restoration, Sir George was chosen, by the corporation of Portsmouth, to represent that borough; and he was an active Member of the House. He continued from this time in the faithful discharge of duties attendant on these numerous engagements, until the year 1673, when he was appointed one of the Lords of the Admiralty, and in 1676 one of the Commissioners of the Board of Trade, and Treasurer to the Military force in Ireland. This frequent succession to posts of honour and responsibility, were not only marks of royal favour, but prove his capacity for the highest offices in the state, and show that he possessed habits of business, and

shone in the paths of literature, or were champions who

extensive information on other subjects than those connected with his profession.

There was, however, a still higher honour in reserve for him. The king intended to raise him to the dignity of the peerage, as a peculiar mark of personal esteem, for his past and present services; and the patent was actually ordered to be made out: but before it was issued, he was compelled to forego all earthly honors and titles: death released him on January 14th, 1679, when he was near 80 years of age.

On the 11th of February following, a royal warrant was issued, stating "That whereas Sir George Carteret died before the patent of his barony was sued out, his Majesty authorises Elizabeth his widow, and their youngest children, James Carteret, Caroline, wife of Sir Thomas Scott, knt., and Louisa, wife of Sir Robert Atkins, knt., to enjoy their precedency and preeminency, as if the said Sir George Carteret had actually been created a Baron." Thus his nearest connections were not deprived of their rank in society by his death, before he was himself possessed of it; and his descendants were not only allied by marriage with nobility of high rank, but were actually enobled in their own persons. His eldest son, Philip, married the daughter of Edward Montague, the first Earl of Sandwich, and perished with that celebrated nobleman in the great sea-fight with the Dutch, in Solbay, in 1672; the eldest son of Philip was the first Lord Carteret, created 1681, and the eldest son of Lord Carteret was created Earl Granville, and took his seat in the House of Peers in 1711: on the accession of George I., he was appointed one of the Lords of the Bedchamber, and afterwards Lord Lieutenant of Devon.—*Records of Jersey; Clarendon's History of the Rebellion; Chalmers's Biog. Dict.; Durell's Notes on Falle; Collins's Peerage.*

fought with less deadly weapons than those of war; but whose exertions were equally in support of order and legitimate authority: the scene of their warfare was the bloodless field of controversy. Of literary characters, the first in the order of time is Dr. Isaac Basire. (3)

(3) DR. ISAAC BASIRE.

The subject of this memoir, Dr. I. Basire, was an extraordinary man, whether in respect to his abilities and literary attainments, or the zeal with which he devoted himself to the fulfilment of his duties as a Christian minister—indeed it may be said that instances are very rare of men who have so distinguished themselves by their learning, and at the same time given themselves up to their sacred calling with a devotedness that seems akin to apostolic.

Dr. Basire was born in Jersey, in the year 1607. We have no certain account where he received his early education, but probably at the protestant University of Saumur, to which it was usual to send the Jersey youth for instruction, previously to the foundation of the fellowships in Oxford, by Charles I. The first public employment in which we find him engaged, was as master of a free school in Guernsey—that which was founded by queen Elizabeth, and which has since been exalted to the higher dignity of a college. It is no where stated at what time he took holy orders, but we first find him officiating as chaplain to Dr. Morton, Bishop of Durham, who gave him the rectory of Stanhope and the vicarage of Egglecliff, both in the county of Durham. In July 1640 he had the degree of Doctor of Divinity conferred on him by mandate at Cambridge, and was incorporated in the same degree at Oxford, in November following. “In December 1643 he was installed into the seventh prebend in the Church of Durham, to which he was collated by his generous patron Bishop Morton, and the next year he was collated to the Archdeaconry of Northumberland, with the rectory of Howick annexed.” These high honours and preferments, as they suppressed not the zeal that he afterwards manifested in devoting himself to the best interests of his fellow mortals, shed a lustre on his character that

It is somewhat doubtful whether the next should have a

is both rare and praiseworthy, and more worthy of praise because so rare.

In 1646 we find him in Oxford, at which time he was chaplain to the king, and where he preached several times before his majesty, who "granted him, with several other learned divines, under the public seal of the University, a license to preach the Word of God, throughout the kingdom." On the surrender of the Oxford garrison, we are told that "he was sequestered, persecuted, plundered, and forced to fly;" he followed, however, the fortunes of the king, and was shut up with him in the Castle of Carlisle, during the siege of that city, and suffered confinement for some time in Stockton Castle. The turbulent state of the nation did not allow him the exercise of his sacred duties, in a way that he held to be conscientious: but he could not remain inactive while there was a field to labour in; and he chose one that required no small degree of labour, and the greatest self-denial. He quitted England, where he left his family, and sought for himself a scene for his christian exertions in the east: he first directed his course to the small island of Zante, where he settled and remained some time, preaching the gospel to the Greeks and Arabs, and it appears with much success: here he translated the Church Catechism into Greek, and which he left as a summary of Christian principles. He had long suffered opposition from the Roman Catholics, but when this translation appeared, which was intended to work with a more quiet effect on the minds of the ignorant than his public ministrations, it raised such a violent persecution against him, that he was compelled to quit Zante, and he went over to the Morea, where he was well received by the Metropolitan of Achaia, who invited him to preach in the Greek language. We are not informed how long he remained in these parts, but we next hear of him in Italy and Sicily, where he laboured for a time; and from thence he embarked for Syria: he prolonged his stay at Aleppo several months, where he held frequent conferences with the Patriarch of Antioch, and here he translated the Church Catechism into Arabic. In 1652 we find him at Jerusalem, and during his residence in that city

place in this work, and still more doubtful whether the

he traversed the whole of Palestine, preaching the doctrine of the cross and proclaiming the gospel to the benighted Jews. The Patriarch of the Greek Church paid him peculiar respect, and evinced his desire to hold communion with the Church of England: he gave him his bull or patriarchal seal, as a testimony of his favour; and he even found favour from the less bigotted Roman Catholics of those parts, as we are told that "the Latins received him most courteously into their convent, though he did openly profess himself a priest of the Church of England." It was not however all peace, as disputes were raised by some on the subject of the English ordinations, and their validity was questioned: to what length these disputes were carried we have no means of ascertaining, but it may be concluded that they were conducted with no great degree of acrimony, as we find that he received many favours from the catholics, which were not usually granted except to those of their own communion. On his departure from Jerusalem, the Pope's Vicar gave him his diploma and public seal, in which he is styled "a Priest of the Church of England, and Doctor of Divinity," which must have been a mark of esteem for his talents and character, as it was unusual: it was, however, condemned by his opponents, especially by the French ambassador at Constantinople. After a time he returned to Aleppo, and from thence he crossed the Euphrates into Mesopotamia—into the land where the gospel had been many centuries before proclaimed in type, when Abraham, in a figure, offered up his son Isaac: from this country he returned to Aleppo, where he wintered, and while there he received many civilities from Mr. Riley the English consul, and much assistance during his journeys into the interior of Asia, from the ambassador at Constantinople, Sir Thomas Bendyche.

In the year 1653 he left Aleppo, and came to Constantinople by land, travelling a space not less than 600 miles without any attendant of his own, but in the company of a few Turks, who treated him well, not indeed without a motive, as the knowledge that he had acquired of medicine caused him to be a useful companion. On his arrival at the Turkish capital, he was invited by

sober-minded Islanders would claim him as a native ;

the French Protestants to become their minister, who offered to settle on him a liberal stipend : it does not appear that he undertook this charge, and it is likely that he did not, as the discipline by which that Church was governed, was on the Genevan plan ; and Dr. Basire was too strenuous an advocate for the constitution of the Church of England, to make any concessions. He formed the design while he was in Constantinople, of visiting Egypt, in order to survey the Churches of the Coptics, and to confer with the Patriarch of Alexandria : he relinquished the design, but for what reason is not stated. From Turkey he passed over to Transylvania, where he remained seven years, and was highly honoured by George Ragotzi, the prince of that country, who placed him in the divinity chair of Alba Julia, where he had lately founded a University, and endowed him with a liberal salary. During his travels he collected and collated the various confessions of faith of the different sects of Christians with whom he became acquainted. He was very zealous in the endeavour to correct their errors, and to prove that the constitution of the Church of England was founded in truth, and supported by the authority of Scripture.

On the Restoration, Charles wrote a letter to Prince Ragotzi, requiring the services of his faithful and zealous adherent ; but that prince dying soon after, and before Dr. Basire had quitted his territories, he was detained by his relict, the Princess Sophia, who committed to his care the solemn obsequies of the departed Prince : and other duties devolving on him, he was detained a considerable time in Transylvania, and did not reach England till 1661, when he was graciously received by the restored monarch, again put in possession of all his dignities and preferments, and made chaplain in ordinary to the king. He continued in the quiet and conscientious discharge of the ecclesiastical duties, which devolved on him by his station in the Church, the remainder of his days. He died October 30th, 1676, and was buried in the yard of the Cathedral of Durham, where a tomb was erected over his grave, with an inscription in Latin ; translated :—

notwithstanding he was justly entitled to the praise of deep erudition, which would have shed a lustre on the Island,

" Here lie the remains of

ISAAC BASIRE, D. D., ARCHDEACON OF NORTHUMBERLAND,

Prebendary of this Church, and

Chaplain to their Majesties, King Charles I. and II.

Who fell on sleep the 12th day of October, in the year of our Lord, 1676,

And in the 69th year of his age.

1 Thes. iv. 14.—' Them which sleep in Jesus will God bring with him.' "

This memoir of Dr. Basire shows his great zeal, not only in the performance of his sacred duties, but in adherence to his principles; and to so great an extent did he carry his zeal for the Church, and his attachment to monarchical government, that he declined considerable advantages offered him by the Consul, at Smyrna, because, as he observes, he " could not be allowed to exercise his function, where the duty of praying for the king should be prohibited;" and in a letter to his friend Sir R. Brown, he writes, " I should now long for a comfortable return to my family; yet I am resolved rather to die in these toilsome ecclesiastical peregrinations, than to decline the least on either from my religion or allegiance." He was no less eminent for his great learning, as is testified in the public register of the University of Cambridge, in which he is styled " Vir doctissimus ingenu et doctrinæ ornamentis peditus."

His principal works are;—

1. " *Diatriba de antiquâ Ecclesiæ Britannicæ libertate.*" This work was originally written in Latin, and published at Bruges in 1656; it was translated into English by Richard Watson, in 1661, under the title of " *The Ancient Liberty of the English Church, and its exemption from the Roman Patriarchate;*" the original MS. was found in Lord Hopton's library.

2. " *The History of the English and Scotch Presbytery.*"

3. " *Sacrilege arraigned and condemned by St. Paul:*"—besides other minor pieces, and single sermons.

—*Wood's Athenæ Oxon. ; Biog. Brit. ; Walker's Sufferings of the Clergy ; Lowndes's Bib. Man.*

Henry Jacob (4) was so "shiftless," as he is described by his biographers; it is, however, stated by Wood that he

It is right to observe, that some doubt is expressed by the writer of the memoir of Dr. Basire, in the *Biographia Britannica*, whether he was a Jerseyman; and it is supposed that he was a native of France: this doubt is said to be confirmed, from the circumstance that the parish registers of the Island have been searched, and his name does not appear: it is not improbable that he was of French extraction, but the above is no proof that he was not born and baptised in Jersey, as no reliance is to be placed in the registers previously to the Restoration. During the time of the grand rebellion, they were very imperfectly kept: in some parishes there is an entire gap from 1645 to 1660; and although before 1645 the entries are more regular, yet they are by no means in that perfect state as to warrant the assumption that because Dr. Basire's name does not appear, he was not born and baptised in Jersey. The proofs in favour of the assertion, that he was a native, are strong: it is not likely that any one, except a native of one of the Islands, would have been appointed master to a public school in Guernsey; and his very zealous attachment to the discipline of the Church of England, and his many preferments in the Establishment, are strong evidences that he received his early impressions within her pale.

(4) HENRY JACOB,

was born in the year 1608: his father was a learned man, though a non-conformist, and wrote a work which he dedicated to James I., recommending a reformation of the Church of England; and "A treatise on the sufferings of Christ," in answer to a work by Bishop Bilson: he was the founder of the first independent or congregational church in England.* Henry, his son, first studied at Leyden, under the celebrated Erpenius: at the age of twenty-two he came to England, when his great attainments attracted the attention of the Earl of Pembroke, then Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and on his recommendation, was created

* Strype's Life of Whitgift.

was born in Jersey, and there is colour for the assertion, as his mother's name was Dumaresq, and it is not impro-

B. A. in 1628 : he was also patronized by the Earl's successor, Archbishop Laud, by whose influence he was elected fellow of Merton College ; and on the following year he was appointed to some honourable post ; but he so neglected his duty that he was suspended. Notwithstanding this failure, he soon acquired a character for profound erudition among his cotemporaries. He was deeply skilled in the Hebrew and other oriental languages, and became the intimate friend of the learned Selden, who patronized him on account of his great acquirements ; and so high an opinion had he of Jacob's talents, that he adopted several of his emendations, and especially some suggestions in reference to his *Mare Clausum*. It is said that he even instructed Selden in the Hebrew language.

In 1648 he was ejected from his fellowship by the parliamentary visitors ; and here he suffered for his recklessness of character, for he had little either of prudence or economy. Wood says, " he was a shiftless person, as most mere scholars are," and the benefactions of his friends not sufficing him, he was obliged to sell a patrimony he had in Kent ; but he died before the money it produced was expended : thus was he saved from the evils of absolute penury, for he had quite exhausted the liberality of his friends. He died in 1652.

Some of his works were published during his life-time, by his friend Henry Birkhead, as he had not the means of publishing them himself ; more have been published since his death, but still many more remain in MS. It is deemed unnecessary to give a list of these works, as they are mostly in Latin ; the only one that would interest the English reader is " A description of Oakley Hole," near Wells, in verse ; and which he probably wrote, like the lamented Cowper, when he composed the diverting " History of John Gilpin," as an alleviation either from severer studies, or a more mournful state of mind.*—*Wood's Athenæ Oxon. ; Biog. Brit.*

* Dr. Dickenson published some of Jacob's works after his death, from his MSS., but so altered as to make them appear as his own.—*Watt's Bib. Brit.*

bable that his father retired to Jersey, and married there : but, before presenting the lives of the champions alluded to, some notice must be taken of John Poindextre, Esq., (5)

(5) JOHN POINDEXTRE, Esq.

has already been noticed in this work, as the author of a very interesting MS. account of Jersey : he was the son of Edward Poindextre, and was born in the Island in the year 1609. But little is known of his early life : the first authentic account that we have of him is that he was elected fellow of Exeter College, Oxford, and was the first who partook of the benefit, after the foundation of the Jersey fellowships. It is indeed to be regretted that so little of him has been preserved, as he was a man very eminent in his day, and seems to have possessed all the qualities requisite to adorn private and public life, when called to act on a scale so limited as a small Island in the British Channel. He was esteemed one of the best Grecians in the University, and it was understood that he was employed on a new edition of Hesychius, as the work was expected from him ; it has, however, never appeared. He was not only well skilled in the Greek language, but so beautiful was his penmanship of the Greek character, that Falle has observed that the very exquisite types of Stephens scarcely excelled it. As a magistrate he was remarkable for his impartiality and his strict justice, and his deep acquaintance with the Norman laws, which he had made his peculiar study, as well as the laws and customs of his native Island, caused every case to be familiar to him, and rendered him a most valuable person to be at the head of the magistracy of the Island.

The few particulars that have been preserved of the life of Mr. Poindextre, are that he held some office under Lord Digby, who was secretary of state in the reign of Charles I., but the nature of the appointment is not exactly known ; that he was ejected from his fellowship by the parliamentary visitors, when he retired to Jersey ; he was shut up in Elizabeth Castle during the siege, and was dispatched to France by Sir George Carteret, to confer with Charles on the state of the Island ; he was, however, in the Castle at the time of its surrender : but there is reason to believe

a magistrate of no little ability and integrity, during the preceding times of commotion; and although he never appeared before the English public as an author, he left several valuable MSS. relative to his native Island.

that after this event he banished himself from Jersey, and preferred living in exile, than under the dominion of those who had subverted every thing he held dear in his native Island. During the interregnum the partisans of Cromwell filled all offices, whether military or judicial; but after the Restoration, and on the death of Mr. Le Geyt in 1668, who was Lieutenant Bailly, he succeeded to that office, under Sir Edward de Carteret.* There seems to have been some inaccuracy in his appointment, to be Lieutenant Bailly; and it is said that some arbitrary stretch of power was exercised in setting aside the usual mode; but probably the peculiarity of circumstances at that time will satisfactorily explain, if not fully vindicate, the informality. He retired from this office towards the close of his life, but kept his seat on the bench, as Jurat, until the day of his death, which occurred in 1691.

It is understood that Mr. Poindextre left several MSS., but the only one accessible is that in the British Museum:† the others are supposed to be in possession of his family; “they consist principally of a commentary on the Norman code, or the *Grand Coustumier de Normandie*; showing how far it has been changed or modified by the local laws and usages of the Island, where with those exceptions, it may be said to be the law of the land.” And we may here be allowed to remark, that it would be doing justice to his name and talents, and a service to the public, if they were submitted to some gentleman capable of extracting from them the information they may contain. That which has been so frequently quoted in this work, does not so much refer to events, as to the state of the Island in his time,—to its buildings and other monuments of antiquity; and however the

* This Sir Edward de Carteret was Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, in the reign of Charles II., and died in 1681.

† This MS. is the one so often referred to in this work, and from which large extracts have been given. It is noticed in page 61.

The first of the divines who entered the field of controversy, was the Rev. Dr. Brevint, (6) a man eminent for

former may have been so amply supplied by the Rev. E. Durell, in his notes on Falle, it is more than probable that the MSS. of Mr. Poindextre, unknown to the public, may contain information very interesting, and explain some doubtful points in the History of the Island.—*Falle's Preface; Durell's Notes on Falle; Private Information.*

Should any apology be needed for the large extracts given in this work from the MS. account of Jersey, which this celebrated man left, it will be found in the intimate knowledge that he had of the Island, and the deserved commendation by Falle, who observes in his preface, "his long exercising the Magistrature, had made our laws and judicial proceedings, our customs and usages, familiar to him. He had transcribed all our Charters, and reduced our privileges into a sort of a system, branching them out into proper heads; and as to historical antiquities and researches, he had, from his earliest days, been collecting all he could find of that kind, in print or upon record, relative to us."

(6) DR. D. BREVINT.

Daniel Brevint, the subject of the present memoir, was originally of French extraction, but was born in Jersey, in the parish of St. John, in the year 1616, of which parish his father was rector: he received his early education at the University of Saumur, where he studied logic and philosophy, and took his degree of Master of Arts. From thence he came to England, and studied at Oxford; in 1638 he was incorporated in the same degree as he had taken at Saumur: in the same year Mr. Brevint was chosen to the first fellowship at Jesus College, founded by Charles I., as already noticed. One of his biographers states that he was ejected from his fellowship by the parliamentary visitors, in 1647, but he must for some reason have quitted the University before that time, for he relates himself that "he was kept by the times of rebellion, seventeen years abroad among the Romanists." As

his talents, and which discovered themselves at a very early period, as is shown by the high recommendation he

he returned to England at the Restoration in 1660, he must have retired to France in 1643: during the time of his absence from England, he prosecuted his studies; and thus he gained a more perfect knowledge of the doctrines and superstitions of the Roman Catholics, which he there saw in all their deformity, and which fitted him for exposing their errors, and vindicating the Church of England, in which he was afterwards so preeminent, both in his preaching and by his writings. At this time he was employed in the incongruous and fruitless attempt to reconcile the protestant and popish religion, and this made him, as he observed, "acquainted with every corner of that church." He settled in Normandy, and was minister of a protestant congregation there, and was soon after appointed chaplain to Vicomte de Turenne, afterwards the distinguished Marshal of that name, whose lady was one of the most pious and exemplary women of her time.

On his return to England, he was presented to a prebend's stall in the Cathedral of Durham, by Charles II., who had known him abroad; he was installed March 15th, 1660, and in February of the following year, he was created Doctor of Divinity in Oxford; and presented to the rectory of Brandspath.

His works were mostly of a controversial character, and directed against the errors and superstition of popery: one he wrote, entitled "The Depth and Mystery of the Roman Mass," brought up a furious papist, who replied to it; and the reply is dedicated to "the Rev. Doctors of the University of Oxford." After complimenting the University for its antiquity, learning, and buildings, the author breaks out into a lamentation, directed against Dr. Brevint and his work, "that the magnificent structure of the unparalleled theatre should be abused and defiled by such an unseemly imp, as the late Dr. D. Brevint has hatched under its roof." The learning and other eminent qualities of Dr. Brevint caused him to be highly esteemed, and to be in great favour with his sovereign, by whom he was promoted to the Deanery of Lincoln, on the recommendation of the ecclesiastical commis-

received from the dean and ministers of his native Island, to one of the Oxford fellowships, and he had the honour

sioners, in 1681 and was installed the seventh of January in the following year, with some other preferments annexed to it. He lived in the enjoyment of these favours, and the esteem in which he was held, till the year 1695; he died May 5th of that year, and was buried in the Cathedral Church of Lincoln, behind the high altar. The monumental stone bears the following modest and pious inscription, in Latin, translated:—

“ Here lieth the body of
DANIEL BREVINT, D. D.,
 LATE DEAN OF THE CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF LINCOLN,
Who departed this life May 5th, 1695.
 I have waited for thy salvation, O Lord.”

There can scarcely be a higher testimony of his talents and character, than the following recommendation of him to Archbishop Laud, to be preferred to the newly instituted fellowship. It was signed by the Dean and all the ministers of the Island:—

LETTER TO THE ARCHBISHOP.

Most honourable and most reverend Father in God,

Having credibly understood that your Grace hath been pleased to procure and settle three fellowships, in several colleges of Oxford, for the advancement and maintenance of young students, born in these remote Islands; we acknowledge ourselves, with all dutiful humility, much bound and obliged to your Grace, for this, your undeserved care and kindness: and we had sooner expressed our humble and hearty thankfulness, for so great and unexpected a benefit, had we not waited for a fit person to prefer to your Grace, to reap the fruits of that gift His Majesty hath been pleased to bestow upon us, by your gracious hands. There was none fitter to present and recommend to your most honourable acceptance, than the very hopeful young man, Mr. Daniel Brevint, of whom we conceive a good opinion, for his learning and piety, so that he shall be capable, within a short time, to serve in the ministry in this our Isle, for we trust that is the end and intent of the bestowing of these places. We therefore, with all humble submission, bespeak your Grace to be pleased to accept of him, seeing he hath been persuaded to leave his hopes of preferment in the University of Saumur, in France, where he hath proceeded Master of Arts,

A a 3

of being the first who partook of the benefit: he was soon succeeded by another, or who was rather his contemporary, and better known in England, Dr. J. Durel, (7) who enjoy-

with good approbation, and hath promised to be ready for the Island's service, when occasion shall be offered. Thus, with our hearty prayers unto God, for your long life and prosperity, we ever remain.

Jersey, April 1st, 1637.

His principal work, that is known at the present time, was written at the particular request of La Comtesse de Turenne, and La Duchesse de Bouillon; it was in Latin.

“*Ecclesiæ primitivæ Sacramentum et Sacrificium a Pontificiis corruptelis et exinde natis controversiis liberum.*”

—*Wood's Athenæ Oxon.; Durell's Notes on Falle; Biog. Brit.; Wilkins's Concilia.*

(7) DR. JOHN DUREL.

The celebrated John Durel was born at St. Helier's, in the year 1625: it is probable that he received the rudiments of his learning in his native Island, but he came over to England at an early period of his life, as we find him entered in Merton College, Oxford, in the year 1640: after remaining two years he went to France, on occasion of the city being besieged by the forces of the parliament. He commenced his studies at Caen, where he took his degree of Master of Arts, in the Sylvanian College of that place, on the 8th of July, 1644: from Caen he went to Saumur, where he applied himself to the study of divinity, under the famous Moses Amyraldus, divinity reader of that University. In the year 1647 he returned to his native Island, and continued there some time, as we find him Chaplain of Elizabeth Castle, during the siege in 1651, and was dispatched to France by Sir George Carteret to communicate with the king on the perilous state he was in; but on the subjection of the Island to the parliament, he retired, or rather he was expelled, on account of his adherence to his sovereign. We next find him at Paris, where he received episcopal ordination, from the Bishop of Galway, at the Ambassador's Chapel: from Paris he went to St. Malo, and while there he was invited to Caen, to succeed the

ed so much of his sovereign's favour, and the patronage that he had to bestow, and to which he was justly entitled,

learned Bochart, who had received an invitation from Queen Christiana to go to Sweden : about the same time the Landgrave of Hesse, having applied to the ministers of Paris, to send him a protestant, who could preach in the French language, he was recommended as a fit person, but he declined both appointments : no specific reason is given, but he says himself that " the providence of God did not permit him to go to either of these places." He afterwards became chaplain to the Duc de la Force, father of the Princess of Turenne, with whom he remained eight years. On the restoration Mr. Durel came over to England, where he was greatly instrumental in establishing the episcopal French church, in the Savoy, under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of London, in which he performed the first service, July 14th, 1661, assisted by the Rev. Mr. Le Couteur, and where he officiated for some years, highly to the satisfaction of his congregation. At this time he was chaplain in ordinary to the king ; and in 1663 he was preferred to a prebend's stall in the Cathedral of Salisbury, and in the following year made a canon of Windsor : these several preferments show how highly he was esteemed by his Majesty, to whom he had been a faithful adherent. On July 1st, 1668, he was installed a prebendary of the Cathedral church of Durham, and had a rich donative conferred on him. In 1669 he took his degree of Doctor of Divinity, by creation ;* in 1677 Charles II. gave him the Deanery of Windsor, in which he was installed July 27th, of that year. He is described not only as a learned man, but as a " perfect courtier : " one of his biographers says, " he was skilful in the arts of getting into favour with great men." Had he lived a few years longer, he would, doubtless, have been promoted to a bishoprick, for which he

* The following extract from a letter, will show how highly he was esteemed by the University ; it was written by the Duke of Ormond, the then Chancellor : he said " his fame was well known to them, for the great pains he had taken in the Church, that he could hardly propose any thing that they would not be willing to accord to him : " adding, " of his parts and learning they were better judges than himself, but had not so much experience of his loyalty and fidelity to his Majesty."

by his unshaken loyalty, and attachment to the order of things as established at the reformation.

seemed to have been so well qualified, at least according to the estimate of qualifications entertained by the authorities of that age; and it must be admitted that he possessed many of the real qualifications.

A further eulogy is passed on him, more consonant to his ministerial character: it has been observed "that no one of late years hath more plainly manifested, or with greater learning more successfully defended, against its most zealous opponents, the constitutions of the Established Church." Even Louis du Moulin, his principal opponent on theological points, gives him the following high commendation, that he is "in familiari progressu vir civilis ingenio, ore probo, pectore niveo, oratione profuente et lenocinante, &c." It is admitted that he "was well versed in all the controversies on foot between the Church and the disciplinarian party."

Among the many works that Dr. Durel published, the one mostly known to the English reader, is "A view of the Government and public Worship of God, in the reformed churches beyond the seas, wherein is showed their conformity and agreement with the Church of England, as it is by law established." This work called up many opponents, who wrote against it, principally, as may be supposed, among the presbyterians and independents; but it was highly commended at the time, and often quoted: it was afterwards abridged, and published in 1705. He likewise showed his adherence to the Church of England, in a Sermon that he published, entitled "the Liturgy of the Church of England vindicated." He translated the "Book of Common Prayer" into French and Latin, and the "Whole Duty of Man" into French; in the execution of this last work, he was mainly assisted by his wife.

He died June 8th, 1683, and was buried in the collegiate chapel at Windsor, in a vault, over which is a flat black marble stone, with an inscription in Latin, which, if dictated by himself, though short, does credit to his faith and piety; translated:—

Some mention must here be made of Philip Dumaresq, Esq., (8) a celebrated man in his native Island, though

“ Here lyeth

JOHN DUREL, D. D., DEAN OF WINDSOR,

Waiting for a Happy Resurrection :

He died June 8th, 1683, in the 58th year of his age.”

Of his general character, that of untainted and steady loyalty is the most prominent : he is described “ as constantly adhering to the sinking cause and interest of his sovereign, in the worst of times ; who dared, with an undaunted and unshaken resolution, to stand up, and maintain the honour and dignity of the Church of England, when she was in the lowest and most deplorable condition.”—*Biog. Brit. ; Athenæ Oxon. ; Willis’s Cathedrals of York and Durham ; his own work, View of the Government, &c.*

(8) PHILIP DUMARESQ, ESQ.

Very little is known of Philip Dumaresq, of whom such an honourable mention has been made by the Rev. Mr. Falle, the historian of Jersey, and by his recent editor the Rev. Mr. Durell. The name of Mr. Dumaresq is principally entitled to the notice of his countrymen, for an unpublished survey of Jersey, which he presented to James II. in 1685, and from which Mr. Durell has given large extracts. The work itself is but small, but it is represented as giving a correct account, not only of Jersey, but of the other Channel Islands, such as they were under Charles II.

The life of a private gentleman, living in a remote part of the kingdom, can furnish but very few incidents. He was Seigneur of Saumarez, in St. Clement’s parish, a considerable and extensive estate : he represented the eldest branch of the Dumaresq, one of the most ancient and most honourable families in the Island ; his grandfather Henry Dumaresq was a Jurat, or magistrate, and acted a prominent part in the troubles which agitated Jersey during the calamitous reign of Charles I. ; his father Philip Dumaresq became also a Jurat soon after the Restoration. His son Philip Dumaresq, the subject of the present sketch, was born about 1650 ; he entered into the navy, in which he rose

unknown to an English reader, as the work he wrote, and which will be noticed in the subjoined sketch of his life, was never published.

The Rev. Philip Falle (9) will next claim attention, the

to the rank of post-captain. If we judge from his writings, he must have been an able and skilful officer: his chapter on the tides, about the Island, &c. is a very masterly performance. On its being shown to a naval friend, a few years ago, he was so much struck with its accuracy, that he immediately pronounced that it must have been written by a professional man: nothing is known about the motives which induced him to write this work, or if he had any official suggestion to present it to his sovereign.

Mr. Dumaresq was then resident on his estate, and it was a very natural consequence that his countrymen should elect him to the magistracy, into which office he was sworn on the 2nd of February 1681-2. The year of his death is not exactly known, but it must have taken place about 1690; he left a daughter and heiress Deborah Dumaresq, who was a minor, and according to the law of Jersey, had a guardian appointed for her in 1694. This lady was afterwards married to a kinsman, Philip Dumaresq, but had no issue. At an advanced period of life, she conveyed the Saumarez estate, by a deed of gift, to the Rev. Mr. Seale, the then rector of St. Clement, from whom it passed by sale, about 1750, into the family of the Hammonds, or Hamons, the present owners.

It may be observed that the map of Jersey prefixed to Falle's History, edition of 1734, was constructed by Mr. Dumaresq, and that its accuracy was such, that nearly all the more recent maps of Jersey have been copied from it, with scarcely any alterations, except such as new roads or other improvements required.—*E. D.*

(9) REV. PHILIP FALLE.

The remark that has been made in the preceding memoir, will equally apply to the subject of the present. Few incidents occurred in the life of the Rev. Philip Falle, to claim the attention of a biographer; but he was a man of considerable talent, and

celebrated historian of Jersey, and the first who published a detailed account of his native Isle; this work is justly esteemed, and has been referred to as an authority by all subsequent authors. Although some inaccuracies have been

was highly esteemed in his native Island, although he may not have possessed the distinguished abilities of the divines whose lives have been already given.

The Rev. Philip Falle was the son of Thomas Falle, and was born in Jersey, in the year 1655; he was related, on his mother's side, to the ancient insular family of Dumaresq. We have no account of him till he was fourteen years of age; but his early days were probably spent in his native isle: in 1669 we find him a commoner in Exeter College, and learn from Wood that he "translated himself afterwards, for the sake of Dr. Narcissus Marsh, to St. Alb-hall, and as a member thereof, took the degrees in arts, that of master being completed in 1676." On taking holy orders he retired to Jersey, and became minister of Trinity parish; and in 1690 he succeeded the Rev. Thomas Poindextre as rector of the parish of St. Saviour, in which his patrimonial estate was situated, and where he continued in the regular discharge of his clerical duties.

In the early part of the reign of William III., an occurrence took place in the life of Mr. Falle, slight in itself, but which led to his future advancement in the Church. The French having obtained a temporary superiority at sea, the Islands in the British Channel were considered in danger; and they were by no means prepared for a sudden attack. In this emergency the States resolved to send a deputation to England to solicit aid: Mr. Falle was one, and he is supposed to have drawn up the address to the King which was voted; in this loyal address, he tells his Majesty that "though their tongues be French, their hearts and swords are truly English." Mr. Falle, and Mr. Nicholas Durell, the king's solicitor on the Island, who was joined with him in the deputation, were admitted to a private audience of the Sovereign, to whom they were introduced by Lord Jermyn, who was at that time governor of Jersey: they were most graciously re-

discovered in the publication, and some deficiencies ascertained, yet this does not materially detract from the credit of the work ; as it may fairly be presumed, that when other men entered into his labours, with the light he had afforded

ceived, and commanded by the King to assure their countrymen of his care and protection : the Island was soon after supplied with a large quantity of warlike stores ; and on this occasion Mr. Falle was appointed chaplain in ordinary to the King.

This visit to England not only paved the way for Mr. Falle's promotion in the Church, but induced him to write the history of his native Island : he found that great ignorance respecting it prevailed in England, and to remove that ignorance was the cause of the undertaking : he says in his preface, " it was an honest zeal for my native country suggested the thought of something that might place us in a better light, remove prejudices, and rectify misapprehensions concerning us : " this work is entitled " *Cæsarea, or an account of Jersey, the greatest of Islands remaining to the crown of England of the antient dutchy of Normandy :* " it is of considerable repute—is considered a standard work, and is the foundation of all others, though more recent research has discovered some errors in it, and the author has not always exercised that impartiality which the public has a right to expect from a historian.

Mr. Falle was never married : a disappointment in an attachment he had formed, in the person of a young lady, the daughter of the Dean of the Island, and who was also connected with the Carteret family, was severely felt ; and was probably the cause of his remaining single during the remainder of his life. It is not unlikely that disputes which afterwards arose between him and De Carteret, as to the right of nomination to St. Manlier's School, may be traced to this circumstance, as the opposition of De Carteret was the principal cause of his disappointment. In this dispute Mr. Falle ultimately succeeded ; for although the Royal Court of Jersey decided in favour of De Carteret, he appealed to the King in Council, when the decision of the Court was reversed.

them, they may have discovered imperfections, and even errors, which had escaped either his vigilance or research : or should the charge be made against those omissions which are more common and obvious, he may be sheltered

In April, 1692, he preached a sermon to the soldiers in the garrison of Elizabeth Castle, which was afterwards published, from Luke iii. 14 : " The soldiers likewise demanded of him, saying, what shall we do?" This was a question put by the soldiers to John the Baptist ; and the preacher, in commenting on the passage, makes a distinction between those in garrison, and those engaged in actual warfare : he applies the text to the former, and then elucidates this difficult passage of Scripture, which enjoins soldiers to do no violence—when, it should seem, that violence was the main object of their profession—by observing they were not to exercise undue authority over peaceful citizens, among whom they were located, by reason of their power, but to demean themselves peaceably and without rebuke. In this sermon he states some few historical facts, not noticed by him in his history. He remarks incidentally, that the population of the Island was " 15,000 souls, all protestants," and all of the Church of England, as he further observes, " there is not one separate sect of any congregation whatsoever in the whole Island." This is somewhat remarkable, considering that the Island but a few years before was entirely under the controul of non-conformists. In the following passage he seems to make an allusion to the time when an attempt may be made to recover Normandy from the French : addressing the English garrison, as part of the nation, he says " While we are yours, the enemy cannot boast that they have regained, or that you have lost all, and when you shall think fit to attempt a recovery of your antient rights, we are a better title than any authentic records can furnish." This may be very well as an *argumentum ad hominem*, but would not be considered valid by the law of nations.

He afterwards preached a visitation sermon, before the Bishop of Lincoln, from Acts xiii. 3 : " And when they had fasted and prayed, he laid hands on them and sent, them away." This

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by the high authority of Dr. Johnson, who observes, as an apology for any omissions in his dictionary, "he that is searching for rare and remote things, will neglect those that are obvious and familiar; thus many of the most

sermon was so much approved by his lordship, that he ordered it to be printed: it is not now to be found, except in private libraries.

On being presented to the rectory of Shenley, in Hertfordshire, he left Jersey and took possession of his living; but still retained that of St. Saviour's, having appointed a curate to perform the duties of the parish. This must have been considered no violation of the Jersey canons, which do not allow of pluralities, as one of the livings was in England; but the spirit of the ecclesiastical law was doubtless infringed. In 1699 he was collated to a stall in the Cathedral of Durham, the only preferment he held during the remainder of his life, which was extended to the very advanced age of 87. His death occurred in May 1743.

Besides the work on his native Island, and the sermons already noticed, Mr. Falle preached one, which was also published, before the Lord Mayor, April 21st, 1695; and he was engaged by Bishop Gibson to revise the part of Camden's *Britannia* which related to the Channel Islands.

In the review to be taken of Mr. Falle's character, there cannot be much difficulty: as he was never married, it is not exhibited to us in the domestic and more endearing relations of life. That he was a learned and laborious man, a faithful and devoted subject, a zealous adherent to the Church of England, his writings fully testify; and there is reason to suppose that he was conscientious in the discharge of his clerical functions; but the faithfulness of history compels the admission that there was a trait in his character it were wished did not exist. He certainly did not live on the best terms with his parishioners. His name is to be found very often occurring in the proceedings of the Court of Jersey, for the recovery of his tithes, which would lead us to think he was somewhat too exact: and although no one would go the length of saying a clergyman should never resort to legal process

common and cursory words have been inserted with little illustration, because in gathering the authorities, I forbore to copy those I thought likely to occur when they are wanted."

The Rev. Edward D'Auvergne (10), though he is less

for the recovery of his just dues; yet when such proceedings are frequently adopted, a doubt is certainly suggested, that the minister is not always in the right; and the question is raised whether more forbearance and patience might not have secured payment, as effectually as compulsory measures, and, in a manner, certainly more consonant to the ministerial character.

It is doubtless a redeeming quality that Mr. Falle had a sincere desire to benefit the inhabitants of his native Island, and this he did very effectually by the bequest of his library, as already narrated,* and which may be said to have laid the foundation of other benefits of a similar nature: a subsequent donation of Mr. Dumaresq, of his library, and within a few years a vote of an annual sum of £100 by the States for the purchase of new books, have now supplied the Island with a very good collection.

(10) EDWARD D'AUVERGNE,

a native of the island of Jersey, the son of Philip D'Auvergne, was born about the year 1660, as we find him entered in Pembroke College, Oxford, in Michaelmas term, 1679, and Master of Arts, May 4th, 1686. But few particulars of his life have reached the present day; it is, therefore, probable that he spent his life, principally, in the fulfilment of his clerical duties, and others connected with them: he was rector of St. Brelade's, in his native Island, chaplain in ordinary to their Majesties William and Mary, and to a regiment of Scotch guards, while it was stationed in the Island. He is better known to the English student by his writings, than any remarkable incident in his life: he wrote several military histories; 'The History of the Campaign in the Spanish Netherlands, in the year 1694, with a Journal of the Siege of Huy;' and 'The History of the Campaign in Flanders, in the year 1695, with an account of the Siege of Namur.'

See page 158.

known than either of the learned men who preceded him, as an author, must also be noticed.

It would be unjust to the memory of a celebrated man altogether to omit his name in this Biography of Jersey, although no very splendid action is recorded of him, and the probable reason is, he had not sufficient scope for his abilities. Dr. Shebbeare, from whom the information of him is taken, says " Jersey was too small for such a man." This man was Philip Le Geyt: his claim to notice is founded, not only on his talents, but on the strict and uncompromising justice which he constantly exercised on all occasions, and in the most trying and self-denying circumstances. It is further said of him, in commendation of his strict probity, " The opinion of his integrity, which prevailed during the long time in which he was a judge of a people, too indulgent in litigiousness, precluded the advocates from advancing any thing of private interest. All were convinced that such a conduct would render them extremely culpable, and expose them to signal shame. In consequence of this he was never troubled with unbecoming solicitations, and all the world had reason to believe that he was perfectly disinterested."

Mr. Le Geyt filled the several offices of Greffier to the Royal Court, Jurat, Lieutenant Bailly, and Judge Delegate; and it is said might have been raised to the highest judicial office in the Island, but which he declined. He lived to the age of 80 years, in the bosom of his family; having for some years retired from all public business. He died in 1716. The works that he has left in MS. are numerous; they are mostly on points of civil law, showing wherein it corresponds with the law of Jersey.

We have now to notice several members of the Durell family, who served their country in the profession of arms;

and all of whom attained to the command of ships of war. The first in the order of time is Thomas Durell, who was appointed to the Sea-horse frigate, in 1720: we hear nothing more of Mr. Durell till the year 1731, when we find him in the command of the Exeter, of 60 guns, and employed to convoy a fleet of merchantmen to the West Indies: while on the voyage he was attacked by two Spanish ships of the line, which he engaged so long, that only six, out of thirty-six of which the fleet consisted, were taken, and he escaped himself, after seeing the remainder of the fleet in safety. We next hear of him in the command of the Kent, of 70 guns, when he sailed under the command of Vice-Admiral Vernon, in the expedition against Porto Bello, but was left to cruise off Cape Ortugal, with the view of intercepting a convoy that was expected to arrive; in this, however, he was not successful, and he returned home, after cruising the time appointed him. After refitting, he was again ordered on a cruise, under Commodore Maine; when they fell in with, and captured, the *Princessa*, a Spanish ship mounting 70 guns; in this action, the Spaniard warmly contended against a very superior British force, and Captain Durell had the misfortune to lose his hand. On his return from this cruise, the Kent was ordered into dock, and Captain Durell was appointed to the *Elizabeth*, a ship of the same rate as the Kent, and sailed under the orders of Sir John Norris, in 1740. In this command he died at sea, in the year 1741.

Of the next, Captain John Durell, we have little more to narrate than a list of his several promotions, for it does not appear that he had an opportunity of signalizing himself in the service of his country. In 1735 we find Captain Durell in the command of the *Centurion*, and he sailed for Lisbon under Sir John Norris: in 1741 he commanded

the *Mary*, a fifth, rate of 40 guns : in 1745 he was Captain of the *Eltham*, of the same rate and force. He died in England, in the year 1748.

The information that has reached the present time, of the next of this family, is even more scanty. Captain George Durell commanded the Liverpool frigate, in 1745, and it is stated that he was afterwards appointed to the *Eltham*; but in this particular it is probable he has been confounded with Captain John Durell, who commanded that ship. Captain George died in England, on the 15th of May, 1754.

Of Philip Durell (11), who attained to the rank of Vice-Admiral, we have a more circumstantial account.

(11) ADMIRAL PHILIP DURELL.

Of the early part of his life we have no positive information, but first hear of him in the command of the Gibraltar frigate, in the year 1742. In 1747 he had command of the Gloucester, of 50 guns, and served under Admiral Hawke, when he defeated the French fleet. In 1749 he was appointed to the Rochester, also of 50 guns, just after she was launched. We do not find that he was engaged in any particular service, while in this ship; but next hear of him in 1755, in the command of the *Terrible*, of 74 guns : in the month of May, in that year, he joined Admiral Boscawen, in America, with the rank of Commodore. In 1758 he was appointed commander-in-chief of the ships left to winter at Halifax. In May following he was again under the command of Admiral Boscawen, and hoisted his broad pendant on board the *Princess Amelia*, of 80 guns, in the expedition against Louisbourg. On this occasion Admiral Durell was appointed to reconnoitre the coast, and to point out the most convenient spot for the disembarkation of the troops; his recommendation was adopted, which led to brilliant success, in the surrender of the place. While absent on this service, he was promoted to be Rear-Admiral of the blue, and subsequently of the red. In 1759

We have now to introduce to the notice of the English reader a well-known name, the Rev. Philip Morant (12); it is written Mourant in his native Island, where there are still several families of the same name. We shall have to record but few incidents in the life of this laborious antiquary—the account that will be given of him, will principally relate to his academical honours, the preferments in the Church that he at different times possessed, and his

he served under Vice-Admiral Saunders, who was sent out in command of the fleet, to assist in the attack on Quebec. Admiral Durell was not present at the siege, as he was dispatched by Sir Charles Saunders to intercept a fleet of transports and victuallers, that were expected from France: he captured only two, as the others, seventeen in number, had entered the St. Laurence before his arrival; but he received the highest praise from the Admiral, for his advice and assistance, and was included in the thanks of the House of Commons. On his return from America in 1761, he was appointed Port-Admiral at Plymouth; and in 1762 was promoted to be Vice-Admiral of the blue. On the conclusion of peace, he was appointed commander-in-chief on the American station, where he hoisted his flag on board the *Launceston*, of 44 guns, and in this command he ended both his mortal and military career. He died at Halifax, in August, 1766.—*Charnock's Nav. Biog. ; Naval Chronicle.*

(12) REV. PHILIP MORANT.

Mr. Morant is well known in England, as a learned man and an indefatigable antiquarian: he was the son of Stephen Mourant, of the island of Jersey, and born there October 6th, 1700, in the parish of St. Saviour. Mr. Morant came over to England at an early age, and was placed in a school at Abingdon; he afterwards entered at Pembroke College, Oxford, and took his degree B. A. in June, 1721. In 1722 he was preferred to the office of preacher in the English Church at Amsterdam, but never entered on its duties. He took his degree M. A. in 1724; and the same degree at Sidney College, Cambridge, in 1730.

learned labours, by which he added to the literature of his time, and especially the county in which he resided, by his deep antiquarian research. It may be a subject of regret that we have no other trait of Mr. Morant's character, either as a divine, a husband, a father, or a friend; but without presuming to decide that he did not rightly fulfil his duties in these several relations, it may be presumed that he was so engrossed by his studies—without in the

He had successively the several benefices of Schellow-Bowels; Broomfield; Chicknel-Smeeley; St. Mary's, Colchester; Wickham-Bishops; and Aldham; all in the county of Essex: these were presented to him by Dr. Gibson, Bishop of London, who was his particular friend and patron; but he settled in Colchester, of which place he wrote a history: this work is much esteemed for its deep research into antiquarian subjects, to which Mr. Morant was peculiarly attached. In 1751 he was elected F. S. A. From this year till his death, he was a constant correspondent of the well-known Mr. Bowyer, and the learned Dr. Ducarel, on literary subjects: in 1752 he met with a severe domestic loss, which he thus describes in a letter to Mr. Bowyer: "Within the compass of three days, I was so unhappy as to lose my only brother and sister-in-law, the former on the 9th and the latter on the 11th of January: my good brother died, indeed, at a distance, and I could but seldom have the pleasure of seeing him; but my sister-in-law lived with us, and had been a constant and inseparable companion to my good wife, of above 50 years, and was withal a person of most amiable qualities, and the most faithful friend, so that her loss is irreparable."

In 1762 he published the first part of his "History and Antiquities of the county of Essex," and in 1763 the second part; but the third, which completed the work, did not appear till 1766. In 1768 he republished the "History of Colchester," and incorporated it with the general history of the county: the whole is comprised in 2 vols. folio. The work is now become very scarce, as it has not been reprinted; although a recommendation to that effect appeared in the Gentleman's Magazine, some years since.

least meaning to detract from antiquarian pursuits, in their general character—as in a measure to prevent the exercise of less intense engagements, whether of duty or of study. It may be that his biographers themselves, being *mere* antiquarians, may fail to recognize any quality in man, except that reflected by their favourite and engrossing pursuit, and thus overlook some traits of excellence in his character, that he probably possessed: there are, indeed,

A copy of the work was placed by the author in the library of the Royal Institution, with his M.S. notes, which would be valuable in a future edition.

As a native of Jersey he was acquainted with the Norman French; this, together with his great antiquarian knowledge, led to his employment in preparing for the press, a copy of the Rolls of Parliament: he succeeded Mr. Blyke in this engagement in 1768. He continued the Rolls of Parliament, from the period that Mr. Blyke left them, till the 16th of Henry IV.: this must have been a most arduous employment, but he persevered in the engagement till his death.

His connection with the Channel Islands led him to examine the arguments employed by Selden, in his “*Mare Clausum*,” to prove that England always had possession of those Islands, because she always had dominion of the narrow seas. Mr. Morant, while he admits the latter fact, disproves the former assertion, as it is well authenticated that they formed part of Normandy, and came under the dominion of England at the time of the Conquest.* The paper on this subject was printed in the second edition of Falle’s *History of Jersey*, in 1734.

Mr. Morant’s literary labours were mostly in translation and compilation, and generally in relation to English history. He employed a large portion of his time in comparing Rapin’s *History of England*, with “*Rymer’s Fœdera*,” and “*Acta Publica*,” and all the ancient and modern historians, the result of which furnished notes for the new edition of that work. He supplied

* See more on this subject, Chapter XV., NEUTRALITY.

some noticed in the inscription on his monument; and to this we would fain give due credence; but it is too well known that the partiality of surviving relatives, with a desire to record either their feelings or their gratitude, go to the opposite extreme of exhibiting qualities that were scarcely known in life. The monument to his memory was erected by his daughter and son-in-law.

The next of the natives whom we shall have to notice,

Dr. Kippis with several lives for the "Biographia Britannica;" those marked C were written by him.

He resided in South Lambeth, for the convenience of attending to his duties connected with his parliamentary labours: during his residence there, being seized by a violent cold, on his return from the Temple, it brought on a severe illness, which terminated his life. He died Nov. 25th, 1770; and was buried in the chancel of the Church at Aldham, where a monument was erected to his memory. The Latin inscription may be thus rendered in a free translation:—

"In memory of

PHILIP MORANT, A. M., Rector of this Church;

A man of admirable Simplicity and Integrity, ardently attached to good men, and benevolent to all. The History of this County, and his Biographical Compositions, the useful, though unostentatious, labours of his whole life, attest his various and extensive erudition. He died Nov. 25th, 1770, aged 70.

In memory also of ANNE, his exemplary wife, descended from the ancient families of STEBBING and CREFFELD, who died July 20th, 1769, aged 69.

To their excellent parents, T. & A. M. ASTLE, dedicate this Monument."

Besides the Histories and the other labours already mentioned, Mr. Morant added many of the notes to Rapin's History of England, and wrote an account of the Spanish invasion, in 1588, to illustrate the tapestry hangings in the House of Lords, and the King's Wardrobe; "Geographia antiqua et nova, with Cellarius's maps;" the "Life of Edward the Confessor;" some works on miscellaneous subjects, and several sermons.—*Chalmers's Biog. Dict.; Aikin's Biography; Watt's Bib. Brit.; Nichols's Literary Anecdotes; Gent's Mag.*

is Dr. David Durell (13), who attained to the dignity of Vice-Chancellor in an English University; and he has

(13) DR. DAVID DURELL.

David Durell, though not a lineal descendant of Dr. John Durell; whose memoir has been already given, was of a collateral branch of the same family; the addition of the final *l* to his name was probably adopted by him to give it a more English character; and may have been dictated by the true English feeling that the Islanders possess. He was born in Jersey, in the year 1728: of his early life we have no information, but first find him entered a member of Pembroke College, June 20, 1753, in which he took his degree M. A.: the next notice that we have of Mr. Durell, of a public character, is that he was elected a fellow of Hertford College, and on the resignation of Dr. Sharp, in 1757, was admitted principal, and was afterwards Regius Professor of Greek at the University, and rector of East Hampstead, in Berkshire. In April, 1760, Mr. Durell took his degree B. D., and that of D. D., January 1764. In 1767 he succeeded Dr. Potter as a prebendary of Canterbury, and at the latter period of his life, we find him in the possession of the vicarage of Sysehurst, in Sussex, which was the last preferment he had.

Dr. Durell was Vice-Chancellor of the University of Oxford, in 1765 and the two following years, and while he held that high and honourable office, a circumstance took place that gave rise to much controversy at the time. Six of the students of Edmund Hall felt it to be their duty, in obedience to the dictates of conscience, to devote themselves, more than was usual at the University, to exercises of devotion and acts of piety: it was asserted that in these they transgressed the college rules, and complaints against them were made to Dr. Durell, as V. C. Whatever may have been the merits of the case, it was doubtless his duty to suppress every thing irregular in the Colleges over which he presided: the result was the students were expelled, and from this schism arose those two sects so well known by the names of their founders—Whitefield and Wesley; whose exertions have been productive of the greatest good, in a more spiritual exhibition of divine truth,

excelled all others in the critical knowledge and exposition of the Scriptures.

and when received in sincerity, a consequent reformation of manners, especially among the lower orders of society.

Having thus traced Dr. David Durell through the various gradations of ecclesiastical preferments and rank that he held, we have now to notice him as an author. The first work that he published appeared in 1763 : it was entitled "The Hebrew text of the parallel prophecies of Jacob and Moses relating to the Twelve Tribes, with a translation and notes, and the various readings of near forty MSS. ; to which are added the Samaritan and Arabic versions of those passages, and part of another Arabic version, made from the Samaritan text : " this is stated to be " a valuable work, deserving a place in every critical library ; " and in it the author has evinced his great skill in oriental literature, and a capacity to elucidate some difficult points in the sacred Scriptures. In 1772 he again appeared before the public, in a work which gave further proof of his great proficiency in biblical learning,—“ Critical Remarks on the books of Job, the Psalms, Ecclesiastes, and Canticles : ” in the preface to this work, the author makes some observations on the present translation of the Bible, and recommends a new one. This is not the place to enquire how far this would be advisable ; it may, however, be remarked, although it is admitted there are some few imperfections, and perhaps inaccuracies, in the present translation, there would be danger that still greater errors, and far more important, than those which are now found to exist, would appear in a new one.

Dr. Durell had projected other works on the prophetical Scriptures, and made considerable preparation, but he did not live to fulfil his purposes, as he died at a comparatively early age. These papers may not, however, be lost to the public : they were sent by his family to the Archbishop of Canterbury's library, at Lambeth, where they doubtless still remain. The subject of unfulfilled prophecy now engaging such an unusual measure of attention in the religious world, it is certainly desirable that they should be edited by some competent person, whose views and studies have been directed to the subject. As Dr. Durell had devoted so much time to the study of the Scriptures, and as he possessed

Although the lamented Admiral Kempenfelt, who was drowned in the Royal George, at Spithead, cannot in strictness claim a place in the Biography of Jersey, as a native, yet as he was brought to the Island at a very early age, even while an infant; and as his father was Lieutenant Governor, almost immediately after his birth, and his brother Augustus, who was only two years younger, was born there, the family is too much connected with the Island to allow his name to be passed over without some notice. Jersey certainly did not give him his natural birth, but she fostered him in his earliest years, nurtured his opening talent, and probably, by her insular situation and connection with maritime affairs, first raised in his mind a desire towards the naval profession, in which he afterwards attained to so high a rank.

Richard Kempenfelt, who was of Swedish extraction, was born in Westminster, in the year 1818, and entered early into the naval service. We first find him in the rank of Lieutenant, in the year 1740; and he afterwards commanded a sloop of war. In January, 1757, he was appointed to the Elizabeth, of 64 guns, and served under the command of Commodore Stevens: he afterwards removed to the Queenborough frigate, and was dispatched, in conjunction with some transports, having on board troops and ammunition, to Madras. This reinforcement arrived while Count Lally was carrying on the siege of

no inconsiderable degree of critical acumen, these, his unpublished works, may clear up many doubtful passages, indicating the future state of the world, as spoken of by the prophets.

Dr. Durell died October 19th, 1775, at his College in Oxford, in the 47th year of his age, and was buried at St. Peter's in the East.

that place, and the supply being immediately thrown into the garrison, gave such a decisive change in the aspect of affairs, that the Count immediately raised the siege, and this led to the expulsion of the French from India. Admiral Stevens having hoisted his flag on board the *Grafton*, of 68 guns, Kempenfelt removed to this ship as his captain, and afterwards, when the Admiral shifted his flag to the *Norfolk*, Captain Kempenfelt accompanied him; and while in this ship, he distinguished himself at the siege of *Manilla*, where he superintended the debarkation of the troops, and on its surrender was appointed Governor of the place, in which capacity he acted for a short time, and was afterwards sent home with dispatches: he, however, returned to India, and resumed his station as Captain of the *Norfolk*, in 1763. He was successively appointed to the *Buckingham*, of 74 guns, and to the *Alexander* of the same rate. In 1779 we find him First Captain, or, as it is termed, Captain of the Fleet, in the *Victory*, under Admiral Sir Charles Hardy. On the 26th of September, in the same year, he was promoted to the rank of Rear-Admiral. In 1781, with his flag still on board the *Victory*, he commanded a squadron of twelve sail of the line and some frigates, sent out for the purpose of intercepting a French fleet which was expected home: he fell in with this fleet, but it proved of much greater force than was supposed—consisting of nineteen sail of the line, and two of 64 guns, armed en-flute: these had a convoy under their protection. The Admiral deemed it prudent to decline an engagement, but looking out for an opportunity of cutting off part of the convoy, he happily succeeded, having captured fifteen sail, and sunk four. He continued in the *Victory* till he removed to the *Royal George*, and in her he made a cruise in the channel, under

Lord Howe; but the ship being discovered to be leaky, was sent home. On her arrival at Spithead, she was ordered to be repaired without being brought into dock—this led to the lamentable occurrence so well known: in the endeavour to ascertain the extent of the leak, she was lowered too much on one side, and a gust of wind rising at the same moment, she was further impelled to leeward; the water rushed into the port-holes, and in the space of eight minutes, she disappeared with 1200 hundred people on board, including women and children, of whom not more than 300 were saved.* The Admiral was writing in his cabin at the time the lamentable occurrence took place, and consequently perished. The event occurred August 29th, 1782.

A monument was erected to his memory, in the church-yard at Portsea, with an appropriate inscription, which finishes with this short, but not undeserved eulogy:—

“’Tis not this stone, regretted chief, thy name,
Thy worth, thy merit, shall extend thy fame;
Brilliant achievements have thy name imprest,
In lasting characters on Albion’s breast.”

Admiral Carteret (14), the circumnavigator, will be the

(14) REAR-ADMIRAL PHILIP CARTERET,

was born in Jersey in the year 1733, and was a branch of the family of Lord Carteret. He entered the navy very young, in which profession he rose to the rank of admiral. On the death of his elder brother, 1760, he succeeded to the fine estate of Trinity Manor, in Jersey, but it was so encumbered, that he may almost be said to have repurchased it. Previously to the voyage that he made round the world, as commander, he had sailed in

* The reader need scarcely be informed, that a considerable portion of the Royal George has, very lately, been recovered; the several parts of the ship having been detached by submarine explosions, and raised by means of the diving bell, and mechanical power.

next to be introduced to the reader; and Admiral Dumaresq (15), who was a native of Jersey, will succeed him.

a similar expedition, as lieutenant, under the Hon. Commodore Byron: and on his return from this voyage he married Miss Silvester, the daughter of a French protestant physician, and sister to Sir John Silvester, the late Recorder of London.

His voyage round the world, as Commodore, was performed in the years 1766-7-8-and-9; his commission bears date July 1st, 1766, when he was appointed to the sloop Swallow, and left England on the 22nd of August following, in company with the Dolphin and Prince Frederick, store ships: during this voyage he discovered a cluster of islands in the South Seas, to which he gave the general name of Queen Charlotte's Islands, distinguishing four of them by the names of New Jersey, New Guernsey, New Alderney, and New Sark: they are situated lat. $11^{\circ} 10' S.$; long. $164^{\circ} 43' E.$: he also discovered other islands, the particulars of which are fully detailed in the voyage written by himself, and published in Dr. Hawkesworth's collection. He had constantly to sustain attacks on the ship by the savage natives, by the necessary reprisals on whom, great numbers lost their lives. On his return to England Captain Carteret made the Cape of Good Hope, on the 28th of November, 1768, and on the 20th of March, 1769, anchored at Spithead.

After this expedition Captain Carteret resided at Southampton, where he died, July 20th, 1796, and was buried in the catacombs of All Saints' Church. His promotion to the rank of Rear-Admiral took place a very few years before his death.—*His own Voyage; Private Information.*

(15) ADMIRAL DUMARESQ.

The name of Dumaresq often occurs in the course of insular history and politics; and we have now to record one who distinguished himself in a naval engagement, with which all are familiar. Thomas Dumaresq, a native of Jersey, proceeded through the different gradations of rank in the British service, till he attained that of Admiral of the blue: he commanded the Repulse,

The next who has appeared before the English public as an author, is Dr. J. Bandinel, (16) who is principally known as having been chosen to preach the Bampton Lectures, in 1780; but he had other claims to the character

of 64 guns, in the memorable action of Lord Rodney, when he defeated the French fleet, under the Count de Grasse, on the 12th of April, 1782. Admiral Dumaresq ended his days at Pilham Place, in Hampshire, 1802, at the advanced age of 73; and during that long period, he never, as he said towards the close of his life, "had occasion to pay either a lawyer or physician a fee." Probably there are few circumstances in the life of mortals, above the lowest condition, so truly enviable as this.

(16) DR. JAMES BANDINEL

was born in Jersey, in the parish of St. Martin, in the year 1740. This is all that is known of his early days. History first finds him a fellow of Jesus College, Oxford, where he took his degree M. A. 1758, and B. D. in 1767. During this interval we find him rector of Wigginton, in Oxfordshire, and public Orator of the University; and in 1777 he took his degree D. D. After this time he was presented to the two valuable livings of Netherbury and Beamister, in Dorsetshire, by his relative the Rev. Dr. Dumaresq, in whose patronage they were, as attached to the prebendal stall in the Cathedral of Salisbury, but Dr. Bandinel dying before his patron, they were given to the Rev. W. Brookland, who had married his neice.

In 1780 Dr. Bandinel was chosen to preach the Bampton Lectures for that year. These Lectures were afterwards printed, according to the will of the testator, and in the same volume is printed a sermon, preached by him before the University, in 1778, on Romans ix. 2, 3, intitled "A Vindication of St. Paul from the charge of wishing himself accursed." The learned preacher begins this sermon with an assertion somewhat startling: after alluding to the text, in which St. Paul says, "I could wish that myself were accursed from Christ, for my brethren, my kinsmen according to the flesh;" he observes, "I cannot be induced to

of a learned divine. He was a lineal descendant of Dean Bandinel, who has been already noticed in this work; but he was by no means guilty of the inconsistency of his pro-

think, that it ever proceeded from the great Apostle to whom it is attributed:" To receive this remark in its literal interpretation, would be to question the divine inspiration of the Scriptures; this, however, cannot be Dr. Bandinel's meaning, as he proceeds throughout, in this and in all his sermons, on the assumption that the Scriptures are not to be mutilated, but, as we now have them, they are to be received in all their parts, as a revelation from God. It is not intended here to discuss the Apostle's meaning, but merely to give the preacher's interpretation, and how other commentators understand the passage. Dr. Bandinel thinks the Apostle alludes to his state of ignorance, when he was in appearance accursed from Christ, and that he meant to represent himself as a type of the Jews, who are now accursed as a nation, but that they will in the latter days be brought to a knowledge of Christ the Saviour. Others think the Apostle's meaning to be that he would willingly be cut off from all the privileges of the Christian dispensation, as enjoyed in this present life, so that he could benefit his brethren and kinsmen according to the flesh. Of these two explanations the reader will form his own opinion; but probably he will be inclined to think the latter the more intelligible, and likely to be the correct one.

At the time that the Bampton Lectures were published, it was asserted that they savoured of popery: this charge must have come from an enemy regardless of the truth, for it is almost a sufficient refutation to observe that Dr. Bandinel held the writings of the learned Mede in high estimation. The Lectures are certainly of a character that is termed *orthodox*, or more properly *High Church*, which may have given countenance to the opinion; but when we read of such a passage as the following, which occurs in the last of the eight lectures, and at its close—always premising that the *free grace* spoken of, is the first moving principle which influences the fallen and rebellious nature of man to any thing that is really good towards God in a scriptural sense—Dr. Bandinel is at once relieved from the charge of a tendency to-

genitor, of opposing episcopal authority and discipline, while he held an office, the duties of which he was bound to fulfil.

We now pass from the warriors and divines, whose lives have been given, to one who was a divine, but who devoted the time he could spare from his clerical engagements to benefit his native Island, on a subject by no means inconsistent with the duties of a clergyman. The Rev. F. Le Couteur (17) devoted thirty years of his life to expe-

wards popish doctrines; he says, "It ill becomes us to pry too curiously into, and dogmatically pronounce upon, God's secret decrees; but it is every man's bounden duty, written in plain characters on the mind of every man, to obey with awe and reverence his express commands. Scripture cannot be at variance with itself; we ought, therefore, so to temper the sense of passages, seemingly contradictory, as to rob it neither of that honour and submission, which is due to every part of the Word of God. When, therefore, salvation is ascribed to his free grace, we ought to conclude that our own endeavours ought to co-operate with it; when we are exhorted to *work* out our salvation, we ought not to exclude the concurrence of his *grace*, by which 'his strength is made perfect in our weakness.' When we are said to be justified through *faith*, we should understand such a faith as is productive of good works: when we read of the glorious promises made to *good works*, we must confine them to such works only as spring from a true lively *faith* in CHRIST JESUS."

In a review of the Bampton Lectures at that time, it was observed of them, that "they discover sense, ingenuity, learning, and critical power in their author, and are written in a style generally easy, accurate and impressive." Dr. Bandinel died Dec. 1804.—*Chalmers's Biographical Dict.; Bampton Lectures.*

(17) REV. F. LE COUTEUR.

The author of the life of the Rev. Mr. Le Couteur, from which this sketch is taken, has observed that "the lives of literary men, and indeed of all such whose actions are not of a public nature,

riments in the culture of the Apple tree, and to improve the manufacture of Cider, which he has given in a work

as to be linked with the history of their country, are generally barren of interesting incidents, and are little more than a detail of dates and publications :” this is true as applied to the subject of the present memoir ; but he was well known to the inhabitants of Jersey, as a skilful agriculturist ; and to his parishioners and intimate friends, as a pious divine, fulfilling the duties of his sacred office, under a full consciousness of their value and importance.

Among the ancestors of Mr. Le Couteur, we find two who had arrived at the highest ecclesiastical station in the Island—that of Dean ; and during the early part of his life his maternal uncle, of the name of Payn, possessed the same insular dignity.

The Rev. Francis Le Couteur was born in the year 1744 ; he was early intended for the Church, to which his own inclinations, the discovery of his early talent, and by his influential family connections, naturally led. It may be presumed that he received the rudiments of his education in his native Island. We first find him entered in Jesus College, Oxford, where he obtained an exhibition, through the influence of his uncle : he afterwards became a fellow of Exeter College. He resided some years in Oxford, but when he took orders he went to serve a church at Shrewsbury, where he remained between two and three years. It appears that Mr. Le Couteur had formed an engagement to make the tour of Europe, as tutor to a young gentleman ; but having met with a serious accident, in the fracture of his thigh, he was compelled to relinquish it, and he retired to his native Island, where he was presented to the living of St. Martin, but which he afterwards exchanged for that of Grouville.

Among the few incidents of Mr. Le Couteur’s life, we must not omit to notice his patriotic conduct at the time of the French invasion in 1781. As he did not reside at St. Helier’s, he had not the opportunity of joining those who refused to affix their signatures to the capitulation. But his merit consisted in his decided and patriotic conduct, which led to the recovery of the battery of *La Platte Hogue*, which a French detachment had

not unknown to the English reader : this alone would entitle him to a place in this work, but he has other claims,

occupied on their landing : this took place before the attack on the French by Major Pierson ; and while others were labouring under the consternation of this unexpected surprise, Mr. Le Couteur encouraged the commanding officer of the troops at Gouray, while hesitating whether he should recognize the capitulation by the Governor, to attack the battery : Mr. Le Couteur provided him with two parish field-pieces, and offered to indemnify him for his commission, if he should lose it for disobedience to orders. This led to the bold attack by which the battery was recovered, and in which six gallant British soldiers fell, whose names are still recorded on a monument in Grouville Cemetery. It is needless to observe, that Mr. Le Couteur's firm and patriotic conduct was the more commendable, as he would have been exposed to the rigour of a military execution, for a breach of the capitulation, had the French retained possession of the Island.

Previously to the residence of Mr. Le Couteur in Jersey, the character of the cider made in the Island was far from good ; and he employed the time that he could spare from his clerical and other duties, in endeavouring to improve it, by the experiments he made in the manufacture of the article. He ascertained that its inferiority was owing, not so much to the fruit as to the negligent manner of preparing it. He devoted thirty years of his life to this branch of rural economy, and he lived to see the result of his labours, the staple commodity of the Island having increased in character and reputation. In 1801 he published a work on the subject, which he dedicated to Sir J. Sinclair, and a second edition with considerable additions in 1806 ; this was translated into English, and is highly esteemed in England where it is known : it is generally bound up with Pitt's Survey of Worcestershire. The work is continued through twenty-eight short chapters, in which the author treats, not only of the art of making cider, and the mode of preserving and bottling, the various disorders to which it is subject, and its method of cure, but the culture of the apple itself, and the best sorts for the purpose of

to notice, which will be recorded in the subjoined memoir.

making cider, and the soil best adapted to the growth of the tree. For this work Mr. Le Couteur received the most flattering testimonials of approbation from the President of the Board of Agriculture; and he had the thanks also of the Society for the encouragement of Arts and Manufactures.

Although the constitution of Mr. Le Couteur was naturally robust, yet was it impaired by the accident already alluded to, and still more weakened by the pressure of domestic afflictions. The last was the loss of his second son, Captain Philip Le Couteur, who died in the East Indies. Notwithstanding he was supported under these trials, as his reverend biographer states, by religion, yet, as he continues, "the human constitution cannot fail of being impaired under such circumstances; and worn out as he was by bodily infirmities, he did not recover from the shock: he was seized with a typhus fever, a few weeks after, and a mortification at the same time taking place in one of his thighs, he expired without a groan, May 15th, 1808, being then in the 64th year of his age."

The character of Mr. Le Couteur cannot better be given than in the words of his friend and biographer: "As a clergyman no one ever discharged his duty more conscientiously; his piety was lively and unaffected, without either ostentation or enthusiasm: he was no orator, but the earnest and forcible manner of delivery, which proceeded from his conviction of the awful truths of Christianity, never failed to arrest the attention of his hearers. His duty required him to visit the sick, and he administered advice and consolation to the afflicted. He was at the same time free from pride and superciliousness, which are never so contemptible as in the person of a clergyman."

"In his limited sphere as a public man, he never suffered considerations of private interest to come in competition with public good: this was his rule of conduct for more than thirty years that he was a valuable member of the States of Jersey."—*Abridged from his Life, in Pitt's Survey of Worcestershire; Private Information.*

Jersey certainly cannot exhibit many proofs that she has excelled in the fine arts: she has, however, produced a painter, who was highly esteemed in his native Island, and is not unknown in England, where he exercised his profession the greater part of his life. Mr. Jean was of low extraction, and was brought up to some menial trade; but, like another Opie, he surmounted his early difficulties, and by the strength of his native, though untaught, genius, soon acquired distinction in his art. Mr. Jean seeking a larger sphere for his talents than Jersey, came to Southampton, and he was eminently successful. He afterwards removed to London, where he continued in the exercise of his profession to the end of his days. He died in the year 1813. Mr. Jean's liberality to his native place must not be left unrecorded. He executed a whole-length portrait of George III., for which his majesty graciously condescended to sit to him: this he presented to the States, and it now adorns the hall of the Royal Court. But his liberality was not unrewarded. The States, by an act August 20th, 1796, voted the sum of £100 to be expended in the purchase of a piece of plate, to be presented to him as an acknowledgment of his merit and liberality.

We have now to introduce to the reader a native of Jersey, who was not only of the rank of Admiral in the British service, but a prince in his own right: the Duke of Bouillon (18) was no less distinguished by his rank

(18) REAR-ADMIRAL D'AUVERGNE, DUC DE BOUILLON.

Philip D'Auvergne, Prince and Duke of Bouillon, was born in Jersey, November the 22nd, 1754. He showed a very early predilection for the naval service, and first served on board one of the Royal yachts. In 1772 he joined the *Flora* frigate, as a midshipman, under the command of Sir George Collier; she made a voyage up the Baltic, and while in Russia, Mr. D'Auvergne

and honours, than by the vicissitudes that chequered his course; the waves of the sea, on which he rode the greater

had the honour of being presented, with the other officers of the ship, to the Empress Catherine. He next made a voyage of observation to Spitzbergen, in the *Race-Horse*, commanded by the Hon. Captain Phipps, afterwards Lord Mulgrave: for this expedition Mr. D'Auvergne's previous studies well qualified him; the drawings, which accompany Captain Phipps's voyage, were made by him, and he was charged with the Meteorological Registers. On his return to England, he was under Captain Vandeput, in the *Asia*, and proceeded in her to Boston, from thence he was appointed to the *Kingfisher* sloop, as acting Lieutenant, during which time he shared in several arduous services, previously to the battle of Bunker's-hill; at the siege of Boston, and in the expedition against Falmouth, in Casco Bay, where he was slightly wounded: he afterwards served on board the *Preston*, and on the arrival of Admiral Shulldham, to command on the American station, with his flag on board the *Chatham*, of 50 guns, Mr. D'Auvergne removed to her, as acting lieutenant: here we find him constantly engaged; sometimes on land, but always in boat expeditions on the rivers, and many other important services, for which Lord Howe, in 1777, sent him a commission as Lieutenant, to command the *Alarm*, an armed cutter, fitted for the river service. In July, 1778, he was acting as Brigade Major, to the Brigade of Seamen and Artillery, on Rhode island; circumstances having compelled the destruction, of the *Alarm*, and other vessels on the coast. In November in the same year he returned to England, in the *Leviathan*.

A few days after his arrival, Mr. D'Auvergne was appointed first Lieutenant to the *Arethusa* frigate, of 32 guns, commanded by Captain Everitt, and while in this ship, he was wrecked on the coast of France, after an action with the *Aigrette* French frigate, near Ushant. During his captivity, occasioned by this disaster, he was recognized and claimed by the then reigning Duke of Bouillon as his heir, and some tempting offers were made him to leave the service of England, and join that of France; but which, to his credit as a subject of the British Sovereign, he

part of life, are not an unfit emblem of the constant and successive changes by which his onward way was marked ;

declined. On being exchanged in the summer of 1780, he was appointed to the *Lark*, armed cutter, and in the next year we find him under the command of Commodore Johnstone, in the expedition to the Cape of Good Hope. Although the attempt against the Cape was, at that time, unsuccessful, the Commodore destroyed a number of Dutch vessels, in Saldanha Bay, and the fleet was afterwards ordered to rendezvous at St. Helena : while there Mr. D'Auvergne received his commission as Master and Commander, and he was sent home in the *Rattlesnake*, with the dispatches of the ill success of the expedition.

Captain D'Auvergne next proceeded to the West Indies, in the *Rattlesnake*, where he was wrecked on the Island of Trinidad, during a tornado ; and he suffered great hardships while residing three months on the Island : but he received high commendation for his conduct on that trying occasion, when the enquiry was made into the loss of the ship. On his arrival in England, in January, 1784, Captain D'Auvergne had conferred on him Post rank.

This was an important era in the life of Captain D'Auvergne ; on his arrival, he found the Duke of Bouillon waiting his return, who having traced, to his entire satisfaction, the filiation of this branch of the family, which he had been pursuing for many years, he recognized and admitted the Captain as his heir and successor, after his son who was then living.

Captain D'Auvergne's health having materially suffered while he was at Trinidad, he was advised to make a tour on the continent ; and while abroad he was complimented with the honorary degree of L. L. D. by a German University. He passed the winter at the Duke of Bouillon's seat in Normandy, and continued his tour in search of health during the summer, of 1786 ; and returned to England in the spring of the following year, when he was appointed to the command of the *Narcissus* frigate, on the channel station : he was the same year elected a Fellow of the Royal Society. His state of health having obliged him to relinquish his command, he was persuaded by the Duke to

and it may be said, that the one which ended in disappointment, was that which ruined all his hopes, and in

reside with him in France, in order to arrange the private affairs of the Duchy, which even at that early period seemed to be in some jeopardy.

The reigning Duke died in December, 1793, and was succeeded by the hereditary Prince, James Leopold; to whom the oaths of allegiance and fidelity were taken, as well to the Prince his successor, the subject of the present memoir.

On his return to England, Captain D'Auvergne, now Prince of Bouillon, became a member of the Society of Arts; and in 1793 was elected a member of the Society of Antiquarians.

The high rank to which he had now risen, did not prevent his taking an active part in the service of his country. In June, 1794, the Prince was appointed Captain of the *Nonsuch*, and commander of a Flotilla of gun boats stationed for the defence of the islands of Jersey and Guernsey, with orders to communicate with the Royalists party on the coast of France: the assistance he rendered to the Royalists in this, and in other respects, was the cause of the opposition and ill treatment he met with in Paris, when he went there after the peace of Amiens to prosecute his claim to the Duchy of Bouillon.

In the year 1798, the Prince was honoured with the distinction of a broad pendant, under which he continued to command the defensive Flotilla at Jersey. In November, 1806, he was promoted to be Rear-Admiral of the Blue; in July 1810, to be Vice; and in November, 1813, to be Vice-Admiral of the White: we have put all these several promotions together, that the following relation respecting the opposition he experienced at Paris, and his future services, may not be interrupted.

James Leopold having died in 1802, during the short interval of peace, Admiral D'Auvergne repaired to Paris to claim his rights to the domains and emoluments of the Duchy of Bouillon, which had been seized and annexed to the French republic by an act of the National Assembly, in 1796; but on his arrival he was arrested and committed a prisoner to the Temple, and all his papers seized. He was lodged in the same apartment which Princess

fact ended his days. His rights, and indeed his life, were sacrificed to a policy that governed the Congress of Vienna:

Elizabeth had inhabited, but was treated with the greatest indignity: it was only by the interposition of his legal adviser that he was allowed any indulgence whatever. He was arrested on mere suspicion; there was no ground whatever for his detention: the suspicion was, that he was employed by Mr. Pitt on some secret service against the French government; but the real cause, it is supposed, was the refuge he had afforded the French emigrants, and the annoyance that the French marine suffered by him while he had the command on the Jersey station; and it may be readily believed that such was the case, when the conduct of the Consular government, during the short interval of peace, is considered. After some days of confinement he was released, with orders to leave France within twenty-four hours. After this treatment by the French authorities, it was useless for him to prosecute his claim; and the war, which was almost immediately after renewed, put an end to his hopes: he therefore again betook himself to the service of his country. In September, 1803, he was appointed to the *Severn*, of 44 guns, on board which he hoisted his broad pendant; and the States of Jersey, to manifest the high opinion they had of him, and his services to the Island, voted a sum as a bounty to any seamen who should serve under him. He was again appointed to the Jersey station.

It is a remarkable circumstance in the life of Admiral D'Auvergne, that three of the ships that he commanded should have been wrecked; but it does not appear that in either case it was owing to any want of experience or neglect on his part: two of the instances have been already stated; the third was the *Severn*: this occurred in December, 1804; during a tremendous storm, while she was riding in Grouville bay. Having broken the mooring chain of a ship of the line, and parted a twenty-two inch cable, she drifted on the rocks which surround the bay. The Commodore was on shore; but his brother the Lieutenant, used every exertion to get her off without effect, till the rising of the tide floated her on the beach, but she was a complete wreck: all the men and stores were, however, saved by the boats of the

If the peace of Europe required the sacrifice, it would be right to acquiesce in the decision; but probably it was

Alcmaene, which was also on the coast, but rode out the storm. Whatever enquiry was made into the loss of the Severn, Admiral D'Auvergne must have been exonerated from all blame, as we again find him employed on the Jersey station, in 1808, and he continued in this command till towards the close of the war.

Although the life of the Duke of Bouillon does not present any striking and peculiar feature to command the attention of posterity, yet few men have experienced greater vicissitudes in their passage through life. He had served in almost every part of the world; he had been raised to high rank in the British service, and he was depressed by the ignominy of a prison; he had the prospect of succeeding to a duchy, but it ended in disappointment by the rapacity of the French government. Another is yet to be related, which put an end to his hopes of succeeding to the sovereignty of Bouillon.

After the restoration of the Bourbons, he was in possession of his rights, and governed the duchy during several months, until he was dispossessed of the territory, by an Act of the Congress of Vienna, "upon considerations of general policy."* On the return of peace Prince Charles de Rohan, duc de Montbazou, also set up a claim, founded on a greater degree of consanguinity, as descended from one of the former dukes. The Admiral's claim rested not only on his relationship, but on his adoption by the duke who died in 1793. The greater part of the evils of feudal times has happily passed away—the sovereignty contended for was too unimportant to be decided by the sword: the rights of the respective claimants were submitted to the Courts of Austria, Prussia, and Sardinia for decision, and Admiral D'Auvergne appointed Sir John Sewell to be his commissioner at the Court of Arbitration, who with great talent supported his right; but the Court decided in favour of the Duc de Montbazou, and he was put in possession of the duchy. Sir J. Sewell, on the part of the Admiral, entered a protest against the decision; but this, as may be supposed, was a mere *brutum fulmen*, and when it is

* This was the reason given for the decision in favour of the Prince de Rohan.

made on some personal grounds, which are so well understood by the term favouritism, and even then a compensation should have been made to Admiral D'Auvergne, as his right had been most fully recognized, by the best and most legitimate authority—the actual possessor of the duchy.

F. J. Le Couteur, Esq. (19), the son of the Rev. F. Le

considered that it was made “on considerations of general policy,” it may be easily supposed that the actual right of individuals formed but a small part of them.

Admiral D'Auvergne outlived this disappointment but a very short time: he died at Holmes's Hotel, in London, September 18th, 1816, and was buried in St. Margaret's Church, Westminster.

Of the Admiral's merits, as a commander, we have certainly no decisive proofs, except the testimony in his favour that he was almost constantly employed. Of his character as a gentleman and a friend, evidence is not wanting: the high esteem in which he was held in his native Isle, and which is still attached to his memory, furnish the best that can be given.

Admiral D'Auvergne had only one son, who died on board the *Africaine*, in 1815, in the 17th year of his age; and was buried with military honours at Columba: and he had a brother, who was a Major-General in the British service, and Equerry to George III., he died at Southampton, in 1799.—*Naval Chronicle; Family Documents; Other private information.*

(19) FRANCIS JOHN LE COUTEUR, Esq.

This gentleman was born in 1773, and after having received a classical education at Berkhamstead, in Hertfordshire, under the late Rev. Dr. John Dupre, he was sent at a proper age to Paris, to study jurisprudence. It was during the horrors of the Revolution, that he witnessed the execution of the unfortunate Louis the Sixteenth, and most of the other unhallowed scenes of that disastrous period. Being naturally of an ardent and inquisitive

Couteur, must not be omitted. He is the only Jerseyman that is known, since the time of Wace, who has attained to any eminence as a poet, and even in this character he

mind, and relying on his character of a British subject, that it would protect him, he remained longer than was prudent: he was made a prisoner, and confined indiscriminately with the victims of the Reign of Terror. He was then exposed to the most imminent danger, expecting daily that it would be his fate to be summoned to the Revolutionary Tribunal. One day, while beguiling the dreary hours of imprisonment with a game at whist, his partner, a lady, was sent for to appear before those tyrants: she received the order with the greatest composure, and only requested to be allowed to play out her cards; she left the party, but returned no more. After the downfall of Robespierre, he was allowed to return to his native country; but his constitution had so suffered from his confinement, that he never entirely recovered from its effects. Soon after his arrival in Jersey he published a detailed and an affecting account of his sufferings: in the same work there appeared several beautiful and pathetic pieces of French poetry, which he had written during his captivity.

Mr. Le Couteur soon after married, and confining his views to the Island, became a distinguished and eloquent member of the insular bar. In 1817 he was appointed the King's Solicitor-General of Jersey, which office he held till 1823, when ill health compelled him to resign it. He survived scarcely a twelvemonth, and died in 1824, at the age of 51.

Mr. Le Couteur was eminent as a poet, and for his extensive acquaintance with French literature. Some of his pieces were printed in his life time, as already noticed, but many are still in MS.; and it may be remarked, as a subject of regret, and, indeed, surprise, that these have not been added to the former, and given to the public. He possessed a remarkable retentiveness of memory, and could quote passages from the French classics, to elucidate or exemplify a subject, and express them with a taste and pathos, that has often delighted the writer of this sketch of his life.—*E. D.*

is scarcely known in England, but his pieces shine in the galaxy of French poetry; and this is the more worthy of notice, as it is not usual to find a native of either Island, possessing a correct taste, and capable of giving expression to his sentiments, in that language, with the refinement and elegance which mark some of his pieces.

Of the few persons, natives of Jersey, that remain to be noticed, there is nothing sufficiently marked either in their lives or character to require a separate memoir; the scene in which they acted presents nothing of peculiar interest to the public; but they stand too much out from among their contemporaries to be altogether passed by.

Dr. John Lempriere so well known in England, as the compiler of the Classical Dictionary, was a Jerseyman. He was born on his paternal estate, in the neighbourhood of the town of St. Helier, about the year 1766; he began his education at the Grammar School of St. Manlier, and afterwards became a scholar on the Morley foundation in Pembroke College, Oxford: while there he was noticed by the Rev. Dr. Valpy, of Reading, who employed him as an assistant in his school. Mr. Lempriere having taken his degree, was soon after admitted into holy orders, and by the recommendation of Dr. Valpy, was elected master of the Free School, at Blackbourne, where he remained some years, and during which time he had under his tuition several members of the Peel family. In 1788, while yet young, he published the Classical Dictionary, which is so well known to every student of the classics, that nothing more need be said of it: it is on this book that the claim of Dr. Lempriere to notice principally rests. He afterwards obtained the mastership of Abingdon Grammar School; and, on the resignation of the Rev.

Robert Bartholemew, in 1808, became master of the Exeter School, in which situation he continued till 1818, when he retired, or was removed—we scarcely know which term to use, as his removal was a subject of litigation—and went to Teignmouth, where he had a small benefice, and took private pupils. There he remained, till a fit of apoplexy ended his days, in 1822. Dr. Lempriere was three times married, and had a numerous family.

The talents and acquirements of Drs. John and Edward Dupré, are too well known and appreciated by many persons now living in Jersey, to allow their names to be passed over without some notice. Dr. John was a fellow of Exeter College, Oxford; and afterwards head master of the Grammar School, at Berkhamstead: he was a good classical scholar, and an elegant writer; he published a volume of sermons, which have been much admired. He died at Weymouth, only a few years since.

Dr. Edward Dupré was a fellow of Pembroke College; in 1783 he succeeded his father in the living of St. Helier. He was a man of a cultivated mind, and had a true taste for poetry, as his translation into French of "Pope's dying Christian" testifies; and his pulpit talents were of no mean order. He was preferred to the Deanery in 1802, and died in 1824.

The last to be mentioned of the many Jersey men who have served their country in arms, and signalized themselves in their profession, is Sir Philip Carteret, bart. who afterwards took the name of Silvester, on the death of his uncle, Sir John Silvester, the late Recorder of London. Sir Philip was one of the younger sons of the Admiral, the circumnavigator, and was born in the year 1776. He

entered the navy young, under Captain Gore, and was in the fleet which accompanied Lord Macartney to China. He was made Post at an early age, and particularly distinguished himself in the attack on Boulogne, in 1805, when the part of the fleet in which he commanded, attracted the marked attention of Napoleon, who saw it from the adjoining coast: and he afterwards took a French vessel of superior force, after a gallant and well fought action. Sir Philip was not only eminent in his profession, but a man of considerable talent and information, which would doubtless have secured him higher rank, had he lived to become entitled to it; but during a peace promotions are slow. He died in London, in 1828, after only two days illness, in 52nd year of his age. Sir Philip was never married, and the title became extinct; but the landed property of Trinity manor, in Jersey, devolved on his sister, Lady Symonds, the lady of Sir William, the present Surveyor of the Navy.

The Rev. Edward Valpy was a younger brother of the Rev. Dr. Valpy, and was born in St. John's parish, in Jersey. He was during many years, in the early part of his life, with his brother as his second master; but on the death of the late Dr. Foster, in 1810, he was elected head master of the Grammar School at Norwich, the character of which he greatly raised, by his persevering assiduity and talents. Mr. Valpy was patronized by the late bishop Bathurst, who appointed him his domestic chaplain, and preferred him to a valuable benefice. His classical attainments were of the highest order: he compiled a work, well-known in schools, "*Elegantiae latinæ*," and a Greek Testament, from Griesbach's text, with English notes, from Hardy, Schleusner, and others, which has gone

through several editions. Frequent attacks of hereditary gout, compelled him to resign the mastership of the school, some years before his death, which occurred in 1834. It should not be left unnoticed, that the Corporation of Norwich voted him a valuable piece of plate, on his retiring, as a token of the high esteem in which they held him, and his meritorious conduct in the management of the school.

There are few persons in England, who have had the instruction of youth, so well known as the Rev. Dr. Valpy, of Reading, whether from the number of scholars he has had under his tuition, or the still greater number he has instructed by the means of the useful books that he compiled. Dr. Valpy was born in Jersey, in 1754; he received his early education and his knowledge of the French language at Valogues, in Normandy, which he both spoke and wrote with ease and purity; he was afterwards at the Grammar School, at Southampton, and here he showed early talent, having obtained the Stanley prize, given by Hans Stanley, Esq. the member of the town at that time. We next find him entered on the foundation of one of the Morley scholarships, in Oxford. He was ordained in 1777, by the Bishop of Hereford, and in 1781 was appointed to the Grammar School at Reading, founded by Henry VII. Here it was that Dr. Valpy exercised his peculiar talent—that of instructing youth: he raised the school from the very low state in which he found it, to be one of the most known and most celebrated of any of the public schools in England. In 1787 he was preferred to the living of Straddishall, in Suffolk. His duties at Reading required his almost constant attendance there, but he visited his parishioners twice every year,

at Midsummer and Christmas; to whom he addressed, and afterwards published, "An Address from a Clergyman to his Parishioners," for which he was complimented by the Bishop, and so highly was it esteemed, that, though of a somewhat local character, it ran through seven editions. Age, and increasing infirmities, compelled Dr. Valpy to resign his charge at Reading, some years before his death, to which one of his sons was immediately appointed. He spent the remainder of his days in the society of his children, dividing his time alternately between them. He died at his eldest son's house, in Kensington, March 28th, 1836, and was buried in the new Cemetery at Kensall Green, where a Masoleum has been erected to his memory by his children.

Dr. Valpy was twice married, but survived both his wives, and left a numerous family. Two of his sons have distinguished themselves as authors and printers, and have revived the days of the Stevenses and the Elzivirs.

We close the Biography of Jersey with the sketch of the life of Sir Thomas Le Breton. Many advocates at the Jersey bar have discovered considerable talent, and would justly claim notice in a more extended work; but it will be by no means considered invidious to introduce one, who, by his eminent talents and his rank in society, has an especial right to be noticed. Thomas Le Breton, was the eldest son of the very Rev. Francis Le Breton, rector of St. Saviour's, and dean of the Island; he was born in the year 1763. He received his early education at Winchester College: from thence he removed to Pembroke College, Oxford; and while there obtained the Chancellor's prize for Latin verse. He was elected fellow of the same College in 1786; but declining to take holy orders,

he retired to his native Isle, to prosecute his studies for the insular bar. In 1799 Mr. Le Breton was admitted a pleader of the Jersey Royal Court, and his rise was most rapid: for thirty years he maintained his high character for talent; and so great was his influence, that he may be said to have had the largest share of the civil administration of the Island. He was appointed Attorney-General of the Island in 1802, and Lieutenant-Bailly in 1816, while Lord Carteret was Bailly. In 1824 he was deputed by the States of Jersey, to plead the cause of the Islanders, before the English government, against the encroachments of the French on the local oyster fishery: on this occasion he had conferred on him the honour of knighthood. On the death of Lord Carteret, in 1826, he succeeded to the office of Bailly, in which he had for so many years administered justice as his Lieutenant. He died in the year 1838.

FINIS.

APPENDIX.

JERSEY.

*Names of the Principal Military and Civil Officers, Consuls,
Situation of Public Offices, &c.*

GOVERNOR	Viscount Beresford.
LIEUTENANT GOVERNOR	Major Gen. Sir E. Gibbs, K.C. B.
BAILLY	Sir J. De Veulle
LIEUTENANT BAILLY . . .	P. Marett, Esq.
DEAN	The very Rev. F. Jeune, LL.D.
ATTORNEY GENERAL . . .	T. Le Breton, Esq.
SOLICITOR GENERAL . . .	John W. Dupré, Esq.
VICOMPTE	M. Gossett, Esq.
DEPUTY VICOMPTE	P. Le Gallais, Esq.
GREFFIER	F. Godfray, Esq.

ADVOCATES:—John Hammond, Esq.—F. Le Couteur, Esq.
F. Godfray, Esq.—Peter Le Sueur, Esq.—John Aubin, Esq.
James Godfray, Esq.

FOREIGN CONSULS:—C. Helgren, Esq., for Sweden and Norway.—P. J. Simon, for France.—Nicholas Le Quesne, Esq., for Portugal.—John Moisson, Jun., for the Netherlands.—Ed. De La Taste, Esq., for Brazil.—Frs. De St. Croix, Esq., for Hanover.—Chs. Le Quesne, Esq., for Spain.—P. Warne, Esq., for the Hanse Towns.—T. Duhamel, Esq., for Belgium.—J. De St. Croix, Esq., for Denmark.—P. De St. Croix, Esq., for Prussia.—W. F. Blanchard, Esq., for America.

AGENT FOR LLOYD'S:—T. Mallet, Esq.

AGENT OF DROITS OF ADMIRALTY:—A. Gosset, Esq.

POST OFFICE,—Minden Place, open from 9 in the morning, to 10 in the evening.—Packets arrive every Sunday and Thursday. The Mails for England are made up every Monday and Friday evening.

OFFICE FOR COLLECTING THE DUTIES ON WINES AND SPIRITS:—Hue Street, open from 10 to 4.

CUSTOM HOUSE OFFICE:—No. 9, Bond St., open from 9 to 4.

Benevolent and other Societies.

THE JERSEY SAVINGS BANK :—*Treasurer*, Mr. D. Janvrin.
Secretaries, Messrs. F. Le Breton, and James Hammond.
Actuary, Mr. Wm. Janvrin.—Office opened every Saturday,
from 11 till 1, at No. 31, Broad Street.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY :—*Patron*,
Her Most Excellent Majesty Queen Victoria.—*Vice-Patrons*,
The Governor, Lieutenant Governor, and Bailly.—*President*,
Colonel Le Couteur. **BOARD OF MANAGEMENT**, to meet the
first Saturday in every month, at 11 o'clock.—**HORTICUL-**
TURAL, the first Wednesday in every month.

CHAMBER OF COMMERCE :—*President*, Fras. Le Breton, Esq.

THE JERSEY ATHENÆUM :—*President*, His Excellency Sir
Edward Gibbs, K.C.B.

BENEFIT SOCIETY FOR THE MERCHANT SEAMEN OF JER-
SEY :—*President*, James Robin, Esq.

JERSEY NATIONAL SCHOOL :—*Patron*, Lieutenant Governor.

DISTRICT COMMITTEE OF THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING
CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE :—*Patron*, Bishop of Winchester.

AUXILIARY BIBLE SOCIETY :—*Patron*, Bishop of Winchester.

NAVAL AND MILITARY BIBLE SOCIETY.

FEMALE AUXILIARY BIBLE SOC. :—*Patron*, Lord Bexley.

PAROCHIAL SUNDAY SCHOOL :—*Patron*, Bishop of Winchester.

PROVIDENT DISTRICT SOCIETY :—*President*, Sir J. De Veulle.

PAROCHIAL LENDING LIBRARY.

BENEVOLENT SOCIETY.

SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY.

CHURCH MISSIONARY SOCIETY.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIANITY AMONG THE JEWS.

LADIES ASSOCIATION TO THE IRISH SOCIETY OF LONDON.

RELIGIOUS TRACT SOCIETY.

GOREY DAILY AND SUNDAY NATIONAL SCHOOL.

PROVIDENCE GIRLS' SCHOOL.

PROVIDENCE BOYS' SCHOOL.

List of Churches and Dissenting Chapels, with the time of performing Divine Service.

TOWN PAROCHIAL CHURCH.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in French.
_____	. . .	Afternoon	. . .	at 2 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at 7 in French.
Wednesday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in French.
Thursday	. . .	Evening	. . .	at 7 in French.

CHAPEL OF EASE, ALL SAINTS' PARADE.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Afternoon	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 2 in French.

ST. PAUL'S, NEW STREET.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at 7 in English.

ST. JAMES'S, ST. JAMES' STREET.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in English.
Thursday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.

INDEPENDENT, UPPER HALKET PLACE.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 10 in French.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in French.
Thursday	. . .	Evening	. . .	at 7 in French.

INDEPENDENT, GROVE PLACE.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 10 in French.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in French.

ZION CHAPEL, UNION STREET.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in English.

BAPTIST, NEW STREET.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in English.
Thursday	. . .	Evening	. . .	at 7 in English.

SALEM CHAPEL, ANN STREET.

Sunday	. . .	Morning	. . .	at 11 in English.
_____	. . .	Evening	. . .	at $\frac{1}{4}$ past 6 in English.

The Wesleyan Methodists have also their places of worship in Peter Street and Don Street, both in English and French. Roman Catholics—Hue Street in English, Castle St. in French.

JERSEY STEAM PACKETS,

FROM SOUTHAMPTON TO JERSEY.

The **ATALANTA** leaves Southampton every Tuesday and Friday evening at 7 o'clock, and returns from Jersey every Monday and Thursday. W. J. Le Feuvre, French consul, Agent.

The **LADY DE SAUMAREZ** leaves Southampton every Monday and Thursday at half past 7 o'clock, and returns every Wednesday and Saturday. Mr. Priaulx, 78, High Street, Agent.

* * Both these Vessels stop at Guernsey going and returning, to land and take on board passengers.

One of the Company's Packets proceeds to St. Malo from Jersey every Wednesday and Friday on the arrival of the Steamers from Southampton, and to Granville every Monday morning, returning Thursday and Saturday from St. Malo, and on Tuesday from Granville.

FROM WEYMOUTH TO JERSEY.

Her Majesty's Mail Packets, **WILDFIRE**, **FEARLESS** and **DASHER**, leave Weymouth alternately every Wednesday and Saturday evenings at 9 o'clock, and return every Saturday and Tuesday; they stop at Guernsey going and returning. The Agency is conducted at the Post Office.

FROM PLYMOUTH TO JERSEY.

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE leaves Plymouth every Thursday evening at 6 o'clock, arrives the following day, and returns the same afternoon; takes passengers for Guernsey and Falmouth.

* * Traders are constantly sailing to London, Bristol, Poole, Southampton, and several ports in France.

INNS :—British, Broad-street.—Britannia, Hill-street.—Union, Royal Square.—Caledonia, Pier.—Commercial, Esplanade.

BOARDING HOUSES :—Blanchard, 15, Halkett Place.—York, Royal Square.—Norman, Belmont Road.

BANKERS :—Cæsarea Bank, Bond-street.—Godfray, Hugh, Sons, and Co., Old Bank, Hill-street, draw on De Lisle and Co., London.—Janvrin and Co., Commercial Bank, Broad-street, draw on De Lisle and Co., London.—Nicolle, De St. Croix and Co., Jersey Banking Company, Broad-street, draw on J. Thomas, Son, and Le Feuvre, London.—Jersey Mercantile Bank, King-street, draw on Pickstock, London.

