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PREFATORY NOTE

The papers comprised in these volumes were most of them given originally as lectures in the Sunday Afternoon Course at the South Place Institute, Finsbury, from 1895 to 1898, with the object of affording trustworthy information concerning the various colonies, settlements, and countries scattered over the world which go to form the whole known as "The British Empire." It was thought that a wider and deeper knowledge of the growth, present condition, and possibilities of each integral part of our Empire would tend to strengthen the sympathetic, material, and political ties which unite the colonies to the mother country.

The generous response to the invitation to lecture was very gratifying; travellers, natives, and those to whom had been given the onerous task of governing the various provinces of our Empire, vied with one another in their willingness to impart the special knowledge which they had acquired.

The lecturers were asked, when possible, to give a short account of the country prior to its incorporation, its colonial history, the effect of the British connection on the country and the natives, and the outlook for the future. To these topics were added the conditions for colonisation, of trade and commerce, the state and local government, and the laws of the country, especially where there was any great difference from those of the United Kingdom.

The task has demonstrated the many and various interests contained in this vast subject, and has far exceeded the original limit. It is, however, hoped that the wider public to which the articles now appeal will be as sympathetic as the original audiences.

WM. SHEOWRING,
Hon. Sec. Institute Committee.

South Place Institute,
Finsbury, London, E.C.

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INTRODUCTION

By the Hon. Sir J. A. COCKBURN, K.C.M.G., M.D.,

Agent-General for South Australia.

British Australasia consists of Australia, New Zealand, part of New Guinea, Fiji, the Cook, South Solomon, Tonga, Ellice, Phœnix, and numerous small islands, together with the Gilbert and Union groups. Australia claims the unique position of being at once an island and a continent, and includes New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and West Australia, with Tasmania nestling near the south-eastern shore. These six colonies are now, with all the joy and vigour of youth and union, stepping forward under the name of the Commonwealth to take rank amongst the nations of the world. Twelve hundred miles to the South-east of Australia is situated New Zealand, the home of the comely, brave, chivalrous and intelligent Maori race, and now one of the chief centres of modern democracy. Close to the north-east of Australia lies New Guinea. Fiji, and the other members of the group are scattered eastward in the Southern Pacific Ocean. Together these form one of the most important segments of Greater Britain, and owing to their vast extent, their delineation has incarnadined the map of the Antipodes.

Among the stupendous events of the closing century, there is not one of greater significance than the formation of the Colonial Empire of Great Britain, and no links will glitter more brightly in the chain of history than those which contain the record of this achievement. Owing to their homogeneous nature and their remoteness from disturbing influences, the Colonies of Australasia afford admirable opportunities for the study of the life history of a group of such communities. Originally the sport of alternate apathy and autocratic interference, passing through successive stages of official administration, up to individual autonomy, and afterwards to Federal Union, the Australasian Colonies, within the brief period of a human life, may be said to have been exalted from the abject condition of receptacles for rubbish, into temples wherein we have lately witnessed the most choice manifestation of the Imperial spirit.

In accordance with the usual phenomena attending the development of either individuals or communities, the various phases of Colonial growth, especially in the earlier stages, have been of an instinctive nature, impelled by organic requirements and frequently unattended by any intelligent adaptation of means to ends of which the significance, even at times of momentous action, lay beyond the ken of those whose function it was to direct the helm of State. Many of the leading statesmen of the century have viewed Colonial expansion with indifference, if not with antipathy. There is evidence to show that even the great boon of individual autonomy was granted to the Colonies, more from considerations of ease to the parent than of advantage to the offspring. What a contrast to such unintelligent disregard the present advanced stage of development affords! Witness the enlightened appreciation and ready assent with which the aspirations of Australia towards Federal Autonomy were received, a proof that the instinctive initiation and direction are now reinforced by the intellectual operation, and that Greater Britain has attained the goal of self-conscious existence.

In this volume will be found an account of the origin and individual life of the Australasian Colonies, together with some history of the Federal movement. The Federal future appears as the great white sheet of an unwritten record. But one prediction may confidently be made. Australia is the latest offspring of the great race mother; she has the advantage of all that has gone before, and as the heir of all the ages her history will not belie her origin. Even more remote and inscrutable are the relations which will ultimately obtain between the Mother Country and her Federal dependencies. That some form of practical reciprocity must be evolved appears inevitable; for the impulse at the proper time we can, in the future as in the past, implicitly trust the Divinity that shapes our ends, rough-hew them how we will.

The Federal movement is almost coeval with the existence of Australia; the advocacy of some form of union originated even before the process of fission of the neighbouring Colonies from the Mother Colony of New South Wales had taken place. The coexistence of such apparently conflicting tendencies towards separation and union is not in reality an anomaly; it constitutes a familiar stage in the process of normal development both in the physical and social worlds. The primitive unity everywhere gives place to a period of differentiation. This is ultimately succeeded by the co-ordination of the diversified elements on the higher plane of co-operative individuality. The object throughout the Federal movement has been to preserve as far as possible the autonomy of each colony, and to avoid undue centralisation. The supremacy of the British people arises from the genius displayed by them in the management of their own affairs, and unduly to interfere with the exercise of this capacity would be to sap the springs of national greatness. A central Government is to be erected to perform those functions for which isolated action is insufficient, but at the same time no effort has been spared to preserve the powers of self-government of the individual colonies, or, as they are in future to be designated, the States. Accordingly, in the Bill to constitute the Commonwealth of Australia which was framed at successive Australasian Conventions, and after being submitted for the direct approval of the electors has recently received the Royal assent as an Imperial Act, the powers entrusted to the Federal Authority are strictly defined, all powers not expressly enumerated being retained by the States. The Commonwealth in this respect resembles the United States, but is just the opposite of Canada, where the Central Authority possesses all the powers except those which are specified as belonging to the Provinces.

Chief among the federal powers are trade and commerce, which are to be absolutely free within the limits of the Commonwealth; postal, telegraphic, and telephonic services: the control of the naval and military forces, lighthouses, quarantine, currency and coinage, bankruptcy, copyright, patents, naturalisation, marriage, immigration and external affairs. The Federal Authority may also concurrently with the States borrow money and levy taxation. The Parliament is also empowered to provide for invalid and old age pensions and for arbitration in settlement of industrial disputes extending beyond the limits of any one State. The acquisition of the railways on terms mutually arranged with the States and the taking over of the public debts are optional.

All such subjects as the control of lands, mining, agriculture and industry, local government, police, education, and generally all matters of internal government not being enumerated among the Federal powers, are retained by the States.

To avoid any danger of an overshadowing of the smaller and more sparsely populated States by the influence of their more powerful neighbours, an ingenious bicameral form of legislation, well known in such elaborate forms of federal government as the United States and Switzerland, has been adopted. The Parliament is to consist of the Queen, a Senate, and a House of Representatives. The representation of each State in the House of Representatives is to be in proportion to its population; but in the Senate each State is to enjoy equal representation irrespective of population or area. There are to be six senators for each State, elected for a period of six years, half retiring in rotation every three years. The number of members of the House of Representatives is to be as nearly as practicable twice that of the Senate. The House of Representatives is to be elected every three years, but will be subject to dissolution. Members of both Houses are to be of the full age of twenty-one years; they must have been resident within the limits of the Commonwealth for at least three years; and must be subjects of the Queen, either natural born, or at least five years naturalised. The franchise of both Houses is to be that of the popular branch of the Legislature in each Colony, and no elector is to vote more than once at any election. The Senate will thus differ entirely from the ordinary type of Conservative Legislative Councils as at present constituted. The members of both Houses are to be paid at the rate of £400 a year. The place of a member of either House becomes vacant if, without permission of the House, he is absent for two consecutive months. The Federal Ministers must be members of one or other of the Houses.

Appropriation and Taxation Bills must originate in the House of Representatives, and the Senate must not amend such Bills, but may suggest amendments; in other respects the powers of the two Houses are practically identical. The House of Representatives will, however, have the control of the purse, together with all that is involved thereby. All money votes must be recommended by message of the Governor-General. Ample provision is made to meet cases of disagreement between the two Houses. If a Bill is passed twice by the House of Representatives, and each time the Senate refuses its assent, both Houses may be dissolved simultaneously: and if, after the dissolution, the Bill is again passed by the House of Representatives, and again the Senate refuses assent, a joint meeting of the two Houses is to take place, and an absolute majority of the joint meeting can carry the measure.

There is to be a High Court of Justice to hear appeals from the Supreme Courts of the States, and the High Court will have conferred upon it powers of original jurisdiction in the interpretation of the constitution, and in some other cases of a federal character. There is to be no appeal to the Privy Council from decisions of the High Court on questions as to the limits of the constitutional powers of the Commonwealth and those of the States, unless the High Court is of opinion the question is one which ought to be determined by Her Majesty in Council, otherwise there is to be no impairment of any right which the Queen may be pleased to exercise, in virtue of the Royal Prerogative, to grant special leave of appeal from the High Court to Her Majesty in Council; but the Parliament may make laws limiting the matters in which such leave may be asked. Such laws are, however, to be reserved by the Governor-General for Her Majesty's pleasure.

A uniform federal tariff is to be imposed within two years of the establishment of the Commonwealth. For a period of at least ten years three-quarters of the net revenue from Customs and Excise must be returned to the States or applied towards the payment of interest on State debts. There is to be an inter-State Commission to carry out the law with regard to trade and commerce, so as to secure internal free trade in the spirit as well as in the letter.

The seat of the Government is to be in Federal territory of at least one hundred square miles within the colony of New South Wales, but not within one hundred miles of Sydney. Until it meets at the seat of Government, the Federal Parliament is to sit in Melbourne.

Any amendment of the Constitution must be passed by an absolute majority of each House, or by one House twice, with an interval of three months, and must be accepted on a referendum by a majority of the States and by a majority of all the electors voting.

The Bill is the outcome of careful and continuous deliberations extending over a period of ten years. In 1889 General Sir Bevan Edwards visited Australia with the view of reporting to the Imperial Government on the question of colonial defence, and advocated federal action for this purpose. Sir Henry Parkes took advantage of the opportunity to communicate with the other Premiers, with the result that a conference, attended by two representatives from six colonies and one from Western Australia, was held in Melbourne, under the presidency of the Hon. Duncan Gillies, early in the year 1890, when resolutions were carried affirming the desirableness of federation, and appealing to the Parliaments of Australasia to send representatives to a convention, which was held in Sydney in 1891. At this convention there were forty-five delegates—seven from six colonies, and three from New Zealand. Sir Henry Parkes was the president, and Sir Samuel Griffith was the vice-president and leader of the convention. After many weeks of careful deliberation there was drafted a complete Federal Bill, which has formed the basis of all subsequent constructive work on the federal edifice. Although the Bill prepared by the convention of 1891 was advocated by many of the prominent men of Australia, it failed to awaken the enthusiasm among the people which is necessary to the success of a great cause. The electors had no direct voice in the selection of the members of the convention, and remained comparatively indifferent as to its deliberations. This apathy was reflected in the respective Parliaments, where the draft Federal Bill was discussed in a perfunctory manner and gradually dropped out of notice.

In 1895, at the instance of the Right Hon. G. H. Reid, a conference of Premiers took place in Hobart, when it was decided to hold another convention which should consist of delegates elected, as far as possible, by the direct popular vote. The necessary enabling Bills were passed by the respective Legislatures, and in 1897 ten delegates were chosen from each of the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania. Queensland and New Zealand on this occasion were not represented. The convention held its first session in Adelaide in March 1897. The Right Hon. C. C. Kingston was elected president, and the Hon. Edmund Barton leader. A Bill was framed which was subjected to the criticism of the respective Parliaments. Later in the same year the convention met again in Sydney to consider the amendments suggested by these bodies, and the Bill was finally adopted in March 1898, at an adjourned meeting held in Melbourne.

In June 1898, the Bill thus prepared was referred to the electors for their approval in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania, and was in each case approved by the majority of those voting. In New South Wales, however, the number of affirmative votes fell short by some thousands of the statutory requirement. This result was due to dissatisfaction on the part of a large number of public men in New South Wales with the provisions of the Bill—notably with the mode of settlement of dead-locks between the two Houses of the Federal Parliament, and the absence of a guarantee that the federal capital would be within the boundary of the Mother Colony. The measure was discussed in the New South Wales Parliament, and amendments suggested. With the view of meeting the requirements of New South Wales a meeting of Premiers was held in Melbourne in January 1899, and a mutually satisfactory arrangement was arrived at. It was decided that an absolute majority at a joint meeting of the two Federal Houses of Parliament should decide any question in which a dead-lock had arisen, and that the federal capital should be situated in New South Wales at a distance of not less than one hundred miles from Sydney. Bills accepting this arrangement were passed by the Parliaments of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania; Queensland also joined in the movement; and a second referendum was taken, which resulted in largely increased and adequate majorities. Addresses to the Queen were passed by the Parliaments of the consenting colonies, praying that the seal of approval of the Imperial Parliament might be placed on the measure, and were forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Colonies towards the close of the year 1899.

In accordance with Mr. Chamberlain's desire delegates were appointed by the Australasian Governments to confer with the Imperial Government with the view of facilitating the passage of the Bill through Parliament. The delegates receiving appointment from the Federating Colonies were the Hon. Edmund Barton, New South Wales; the Hon. Alfred Deakin, and later the Hon. Sir Andrew Clarke, Victoria; the Right Hon. Charles Cameron Kingston, South Australia; the Hon.

J. R. Dickson, Queensland; and the Hon. Sir Philip Fysh, Tasmania; the Hon. S. H. Parker and the Hon. W. Pember Reeves respectively represented Western Australia and New Zealand.

After several conferences the Bill was introduced into the House of Commons, with an alteration permitting an appeal to the Privy Council even in matters involving the interpretation of the Constitution. This was done in spite of strong representations to the contrary by the majority of the delegates. Further negotiations ensued, with the result that a compromise was arrived at, and in committee the Bill was restored by Mr. Chamberlain to a form almost identical with that which had been accepted by the Australian people, and was unanimously passed through both Houses of Parliament, receiving Her Majesty's assent on July 9, 1900.

The covering clauses of the Act provide that a proclamation is to be issued declaring the day on which the Commonwealth is to be established, and at any time after the proclamation is made a Governor-General may be appointed by the Queen. It is thus provided that the Governor-General shall have sufficient time to select the members of the Executive Council, and for all the necessary arrangements to be made before the Commonwealth is inaugurated. It is generally understood that the proclamation will declare that the birthday of the Commonwealth is to be January 1st, the commencement of the twentieth century. The Earl of Hopetoun, who administered with so much tact the Government of Victoria, has been selected for the distinguished honour of being appointed the first Australian Governor-General.

For a long time much doubt was felt as to whether Western Australia would throw in her lot with the Commonwealth, or would mar the completeness of the union by remaining aloof from the contract. Happily, however, the reluctance of the Legislature to refer the bill to the electors has been overcome, and on 31st July a referendum of the Western Australian people was taken, with the result of an overwhelming majority in favour of Federation. The circle of agreement is thus completed: there will be no inland frontier to the Federation, the ocean which encompasses Australia will continue to be the natural boundary of the Commonwealth, and will serve as a strong wall of defence against all possible foes.

In all previous instances in which federation has been accomplished the necessary degree of adhesion has been induced by some external pressure or common danger. The history of Federated Australia will present the unique spectacle of a marriage of States which has resulted solely from the internal force of attraction. The impulse towards union, which has thrilled every fibre of our world-wide empire during the past few months would doubtless have provided abundant motive-power, had not all the steps on the part of the colonies been already taken. The initiation and successful issue of the Federal campaign were in great measure due to the enthusiasm of native-born Australians, whose passion for nationality chafed at the barriers between their respective colonies. They desired to be known to the world, not as New South Welshmen, Victorians, South Australians, Queenslanders, or Tasmanians, but as Australians; and this aspiration has been shared to the full by many who have become devoted to Australia as the land of their adoption. These enticements of sentiment have been strongly reinforced by the promptings of utility. The achievement of intercolonial free trade will give an incalculable impetus to industry and commerce. A uniform tariff will be a boon to the commercial world, and the larger field rendered available for the disposal of products will be a strong inducement to the establishment of new industries and manufactures. A united defence will confer a sense of security, should troublous times arise, and will place Australia in a position of power in the Pacific.

Whether or not New Zealand will eventually join the Federation remains an open question. The earlier conferences were attended by delegates from New Zealand, and one of them observed that there were 1200 arguments against the union, each argument being represented by a mile of stormy sea. The machinery of a Federal form of government is, however, of such a nature as to permit of successful application even in the case of countries widely removed from each other.

Flexible, yet firm, Federation possesses characteristics which indicate it as the form of government of the future: and who shall place a limit to the prospect which is presented not only to the British Empire, but to the whole English-speaking race, by the contemplation of a sufficiently elastic bond to admit of the autonomy of the several parts while providing for the co-ordination of all the members for the purposes of mutual defence and advancement?

AUSTRALIA: GENERAL

By MATTHEW MACFIE

I PROPOSE to cite a few facts and figures concerning the geography, natural history, aboriginal inhabitants, capabilities, resources, and the economic, political, financial, and social development of the Australian continent. When Benjamin Franklin determined to select a vocation in life for his son, he is reported to have brought under the lad's notice a variety of professions, in order to ascertain, as the father expressed it, towards which of them his inclination would "dip." There is, perhaps, a similar advantage in presenting a general view of Australian interests on the present occasion. Every reader is thus afforded an opportunity of choosing for subsequent study, at his leisure, those particular topics out of the number to be submitted which are found to be specially congenial to his tastes.

I gratefully acknowledge, at the outset, my indebtedness to distinguished experts who have made separate departments of the subject their special study. At the same time, I may be permitted to state that it has been my privilege to reside six years in Australia. During a considerable part of that time I happened to occupy the position of responsible editor of a well-known newspaper, published in the most populous city in the country. As one of the local journalistic centres, intelligence of a very miscellaneous character constantly gravitated to me from travelling and resident correspondents in the service of the paper, scattered over all the Australasian colonies. I have also some personal knowledge of New South Wales, South Australia, Western Australia, and Victoria; and since my return to England, about four years ago, I have been able to peruse attentively the files of Australian newspapers arriving by the regular weekly mails, up to date, having at the same time kept in touch with the colonies by frequent private correspondence.

Geography and Natural History.

Australia is the largest island on the surface of the globe. It lies south-east of Asia, between parallels 10′ 39″ and 39′ 11½″ south latitude, and between the meridians of 113° 5″ and 153° 16″ east longitude. The length of its coast line is about 7750 miles, or more than two and a half times the distance from Liverpool to New York. It comprises an area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles. It is as large as the United States of America, with the recently-added territory of Alaska left out. It is twenty-six times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, fifteen times as large as France, and only one-fifth smaller than the entire European continent. It is bounded on the east by the South Pacific, on the south by Bass's Strait and the South Pacific, on the west by the Indian Ocean, and on the north it is washed by the waters of Torres Strait. The name of New Holland, which Australia first received, was given to it by Flinders in 1802. At present it embraces five self-governing colonies. If the continent were divided into 100 parts, Victoria would constitute 3, New South Wales 10, Queensland 23, South Australia 30, and Western Australia 34. If it were populated throughout as densely as England is, Western Australia alone would have 500,000,000 inhabitants, and the entire continent 1,500,000,000. Yet the population of European origin over the whole of its surface is still under 3½ millions—108 years after the first colony of white men was established at Botany Bay, New South Wales.

Not only is Australia the largest island in the world, but the territory of which it is at present composed has been longer standing out of water than any other known portion of the habitable globe. Its indigenous flora and fauna resemble those which existed in Europe in the Mesozoic period. In primeval times its dimensions were immensely larger than we now find them. It has been conclusively proved by competent geological authorities that this great southern continent once included New Guinea, the Louisiade Islands, and the land between and around them—before that intervening land was submerged—the Moluccas northward, and Tasmania southward, with the land now covered with water which forms the Torres and Bass's Straits. The great Barrier Reef along the Queensland coast, but long under water, plainly indicates that the continent in remote ages must have extended hundreds of miles farther eastward, and it is not less obvious that before the Tertiary Period it must have included New Caledonia. On the other hand, there is no evidence that at any ascertainable geological epoch Australia has been united to India. But the interesting proofs in support of this contention would detain us too long to specify here.

The fact, however, ought not to be overlooked, that in the dim and distant past Australia stretched much farther than it does now, in a westerly as well as in an easterly, northerly, and southerly direction. It has been demonstrated by Professor Alfred Russel Wallace that the flora of Cape Colony and Western Australia are similar. On that and other grounds, which it would take too much time to enumerate, he bases the opinion that the western part of Australia formerly extended to Africa. That being so, the rich and extensive goldfields of Western Australia and those of the Transvaal may, not improbably, have more than an accidental connection, and may be traceable to a common and simultaneous geological origin. Whether this alleged primitive territorial connection between Western Australia and Africa throws any light on the presence of the black-fellow in the former country, is too large a question to be discussed now, especially as ethnologists do not seem to be agreed among themselves on the subject.

Another striking feature in the geological and geographical changes which Australia has undergone, is that vestiges remain of the previous existence of a broad navigable strait dividing the Eastern from the Western portion, and running from the Gulf of Carpentaria to Spencer's Gulf. The course of this ancient channel is distinctly traced by a depression of the land, a chain of long lakes (Torrens, Eyre, Gairdner, &c.), and numerous rivers emptying into them. East and west of the location of this former strait, the contour of the land, with the botany and zoology of the country, differs widely. On the east side, the dividing ranges of hills in Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland assume a somewhat impressive character. The loftiest height in the whole of Australia is Mount Kosciusko, in New South Wales, 7300 feet high. In New South Wales and Queensland there are mountains which rise to 4000 and 5000 feet. In South Australia and Western Australia, west of the ancient strait, on the other hand, a monotonous level surface preponderates. In South Australia the most important chain is Flinders's Range, and in Western Australia the highlands are divided into two sections. In the northern division isolated chains of hills cross the valleys of the De Grey, Ashburton, Murchison, Fortescue, and Burgoyne Rivers, but in no instance is there any known elevation worthy of notice. On the east side of the old strait the species of eucalypti differ from those on the west. Eastwards we meet with the *Eucalyptus globulus*, but it is only on the west side that jarrah, karri, and the brilliant Christmas-tree flourish. The east side is the original habitat of the numerous varieties of the marsupia, monotremata, parrots, and birds of Paradise, with the struthious or great wingless birds, the emu and the cassowary.

Most of the streams in Australia can only be called rivers by courtesy. The two of any magnitude are the Murray and the Darling, both of which are on the east side. The former rises near the borders of Victoria and New South Wales, dividing Victoria from the parent colony northward. After flowing through South Australia, it debouches into a lake opposite Kangaroo Island, which is situated in Spencer's Gulf. The majority of the remaining rivers, especially those west of the ancient channel previously mentioned, are almost entirely dried up in summer and become torrents in winter, often flooding the plains and valleys through which they pass, and carrying destruction in their course. A grave hindrance to pastoral, agricultural, and mining pursuits in Australia is insufficient moisture, which occurs in the dry season. In that period of the year the prevailing winds are from the north. These blowing over the heated sandy deserts of Central Australia, are sometimes raised to an intensely high temperature, and wither up every green thing over which they sweep. The result is that sheep and cattle die at intervals by many millions in a season, while mining operations in Southern and Western Australia are seriously impeded from the same cause. But it is now proved that vast stores of water are obtainable at a depth of less than 200 feet from the surface, and already in several colonies artesian boring is increasingly and successfully resorted to. This and other methods of supplying the lack of a deficient rain supply, are certain to become very general in Australia.

The climate, though hot in summer, for the most part is (outside Sydney) usually dry and bracing, Queensland and Western Australia not excepted. In that season some of the colonies are subject to a short spell of hot winds, which serve the useful purpose of destroying insect pests that would otherwise prove disastrous to agriculture and gardening.

Flora and Fauna.

As regards flora and fauna, an intelligent visitor from Europe experiences a complete contrast in comparison with the animals and plants of the northern hemisphere. Indeed, these are far more remarkable than he could meet with in any other part of the world. Australia is the native home of the famous eucalyptus, which has been mentioned. Forests of this tree in Eastern Australia, sometimes reaching a height of 480 feet, are said to exude the vitalising principle of ozone, which is wafted over the country, diffusing health in all directions. Even the "mallee scrub" of the bush is a species of dwarfed eucalyptus, and this is found mingled with acacia eastward and, west of the South Australian lakes, with spinifex. In Europe and America, trees shed their leaves; in Australia they shed their bark, which serves to roof the huts of the aborigines. There are nearly 10,000 species of flowering plants on the great southern continent, about 6000 species of temperate, and 2000 species of tropical flora. The most remarkable peculiarity of the temperate Australian vegetation is the marked difference which prevails between its eastern and western sections as regards plant and tree life. But stranger still is it that, although West Australia has no mountains worthy of the name, and a much smaller area of fertile land than exists on the eastern side, it, nevertheless, possesses as rich a flora as Eastern Australia, and one much more unique.

The zoology is even more extraordinary than its botany. Every one of the most characteristic and widespread animal groups of the entire northern hemisphere are here wanting. There are no apes or monkeys; no oxen, antelopes, or deer; no elephants, rhinoceroses, or pigs: no cats, wolves, or bears; none even of the smaller civets or weasels; no hedgehogs or shrews; no indigenous hares, squirrels, porcupines, or dormice. Yet the country contains a considerable variety of mammals indigenous to Australia; all belonging, however, to distinct sub-classes. They are divided into marsupials and monotremes, of which the only congeners now left in any other part of the world are a few opossums which inhabit America. Of Australian mammals there are no less than 160 species—the fruit-eating flying-fox being the most remarkable. But the original habitat of the Dingo, a wild dog, so well known in South Australia, does not exist anywhere in Australia. Marsupials are distinguished from other mammals by the young being born in an extremely imperfect state, and transferred by the mother to a natural pouch which she carries. In this receptacle the baby kangaroo attaches its mouth to the nipple, and thus completes its development. As it grows, the pouch enlarges for its accommodation, and even when it can get out and run about on the ground and feed itself, it continues for a time to return to this curious temporary abode, which is suspended from its mother's chest—for concealment and protection. The largest and most striking marsupials now living are kangaroos, of the *Macropidæ* family, of which nine large and more than forty smaller species inhabit Australia. The great red kangaroo is five feet high, and weighs 200 lbs. The small kind are called wallabies, hare-kangaroos, and rat-kangaroos. The larger sort are hunted with dogs bred for the purpose. The red kangaroos are swift and dangerous. When pursued, they will not uncommonly sit erect against the trunk of a tree, and when the dogs attempt to spring at their throats, they will strike out with their fore-feet and rip up the dogs with the nails of their large, sharp, and powerful middle toes. Among the smaller marsupials, bandicoots and rabbit-rats run on all-fours. In the pig-footed bandicoot the pouch opens downward instead of upward, as in the kangaroo, and it feeds on bulbs and roots. The phalangers, or tree-climbing species, are most active at night, and feed on leaves. They are usually called opossums, but are somewhat distinct from the animals in America to which that name is applied. Allied to the former are the beautiful flying opossums, which greatly resemble the flying squirrels of Asia. The flying mouse is one of the smallest of Australian quadrupeds, being so tiny, indeed, as to be able to sleep in a good-sized pill-box. The wombat is three feet long, and is next for size to the kangaroo, which is the largest of existing marsupials. The flesh of the wombat is said to resemble pork.

The lowest group of Australian mammals are monotremes, and consist of two of the most extraordinary animals to be met with in the world—the duck-billed platypus and the echidna, or spiny ant-eater.

The platypus (*ornithorynchus*), or water-mole, is twenty inches long, and has very short legs, broad webbed feet, and a flat head, from which latter project two flat horny jaws, almost exactly resembling the bill of a duck, the upper jaw having a strong membranous border. The animal is covered with thick brown fur, and inhabits lagoons and rivers in Southern and Eastern Australia. It makes burrows in river banks forty or fifty feet long, in the extremity of which it builds its nest. It lays two eggs, which, in form and structure, more resemble those of reptiles than of birds. Yet the creature has mammary glands, and suckles its young, forming an interesting link between mammalia and reptiles.

The echidna, the other Australian monotreme, resembles a hedgehog in size and appearance. It has a long snout, a long cylindrical and flexible tongue, covered, like that of the true ant-eater, with a viscous secretion. The echidna has a fairly-developed pouch, in which it places its eggs, carrying them about till they are hatched. Marsupials, at a far-distant period in the history of the world, were widely distributed in many countries, and the circumstance to which alone we are indebted for their preservation solely in Australia down to our own times, is that the continent, as a whole, has been preserved from submergence, which meanwhile has overtaken all other lands which were once above water, concurrently with Australia. Thus we have in the latter country preserved, as in an antique museum, living specimens of fauna which once inhabited many other parts of the globe, in varieties long extinct elsewhere, from the subsidence of the lands to which they originally belonged.

It is admitted by naturalists that Australia is unrivalled for variety of form, beauty of plumage, and singularity of habits in its birds. Of these the struthious, or large wingless family, are the most notable for size. The parrots and cockatoos are more numerous and beautiful than those of many tropical countries. There is the regent bird, with its velvety black coat, and the rifle bird, unrivalled in its array of intensely metallic plumage. Many of the native pigeons are exquisitely beautiful, while some warblers, fly-catchers, curious species of wrens, and many finches, are unsurpassed for lovely combinations of vivid and varied colour. The strange yet elegant tail of the lyre-bird is altogether *sui generis*, and the habits of the brush turkeys and bower-birds are most remarkable.

Two great families of the feathered tribe which range almost over all the rest of the globe—vultures and woodpeckers—are foreign to Australia. Pheasants are also wanting. But the absence of these is more than compensated by the presence of large families of interesting bird varieties exclusively Australian, including honey-suckers, broad-tailed parroquets, with other types, some of which have been already described. Species of birds are developed by the rich variety of flowers which abound, corresponding to the humming-birds of America.

The brush turkeys are like reptiles, in this respect, that they never sit on their eggs, but bury them under mounds of earth or decaying vegetable matter, where they are hatched by the heat of the sun. Compared with the size of the bird, the eggs are enormous, and they are laid at intervals of several days. The mounds constructed by the megapodins, which belongs to this type, are immense. One of these was found to be fifteen feet high, and sixty feet in circumference at the base. The whole is composed largely of sticks and stones, and is placed under the shade of a thick-leaved tree, to prevent the evaporation of moisture. The eggs are laid in holes, ranging from the top to the bottom of the mound. When these are hatched, the young birds find their way out through subterraneous labyrinths, and thus instinctively provide for themselves.

Australian parrots are wonderfully varied and beautiful. There are white, rose-crested, and black cockatoos, gorgeous broad tails, pretty lories, elegant grass parroquets, and love-birds. There are green fruit doves, bronze-wings—magnificent fruit pigeons being most noteworthy. The kingfishers are of strange form and brilliant colours, one of the largest being the "laughing jackass," which makes the forests and hill-ranges resound with its notes, which resemble prolonged and hearty human laughter. The name of "jackass," applied to this bird, is evidently a corruption of "jaciasse," the technical name applied to its class. The northern part of the continent contains many musical warblers equal to those in England, while the remarkably modulated whistle of the piping-crow, or musical magpie, is unsurpassed among European birds. There are satin or bower birds, which construct their bower-like nests with coloured feathers, bones, and shells. Some of these structures are several feet in length. If we consider the vast area of Australia, the great extent of its desert interior, and its isolation from all great continents, the abundance of its bird life is remarkable. It possesses no less than 630 varieties, compared with only 500 in Europe, and 720 in all North America, both of which latter divisions of the world being considerably larger in area than Australia. Reptiles, lizards, and snakes are somewhat numerous, although but few of them are dangerous. The insects to be met with are numerous, often handsome, and always notable.

In these outlines of Australian physiography the geology of the country ought not to be omitted. About one-half the surface of the continent is occupied by sandstone, which appears to belong to remote periods. The "desert sandstone," which is peculiar to Australia, is now said to belong to the Mesozoic group, although some observers consider it to be of more recent date. Subterraneous rivers and mound-springs are distinctive features of the continent, the former being of great utility to the agriculturist, since, of the average rainfall, probably more than one-half goes underground. The gigantic extinct marsupial monsters which, in distant ages, roamed over Australia, include the elephantine Diprotodon, and the Nototherium, which equalled the rhinoceros in size. An extinct wombat has been dug up among fossil Australian remains, as large as a tapir, and the skeleton of a wingless bird has been disembedded, larger than an ostrich, but allied to the existing emu and the cassowary. Comprised in the prominent geological features of the country are also the remarkable Jenolan Caves in New South Wales, some of which are 500 feet high. These are of stalactite and stalagmite formation, with a considerable river running through them. Similar phenomena exist in South Australia. The extensive carboniferous formations in New South Wales, Queensland, and in other colonies command attention by their great economic importance. The metalliferous resources of the continent will be noticed presently, when industries and trade are glanced at.

The Aborigines.

The aborigines of Australia, like the natives of America and the South Sea Islands, continue to die off by contact with civilisation. There are probably not more than 50,000 of them left in the whole country. They seem constitutionally incapable of imitating the enterprise of the white man. Indeed, their mental qualities are inferior to those of most savage races. In the use of native arms and implements, however, they display a certain amount of skill. Though their weapons and tools are extremely primitive, these are well adapted for the pursuit of game, and for self-defence against hostile designs from members of their own race. With the boomerang they perform feats of surprising ingenuity. But they pass life without forethought, in alternations of eating, sleeping, hunger, and the chase. Though each winter brings periodical famine, they make no attempt to provide against its recurrence by storing supplies. They are careful of their young male offspring, but often abandon their old men and women when they are ill or wounded, without a pang, and they treat their wives with atrocious barbarity. When pressed with hunger, they do not hesitate to kill and eat their own children, especially females. No native ever dreams of taking a woman's part, no matter how wrongfully and cruelly she may be treated by her husband. She neither receives nor expects the smallest consideration, being held simply as the slave property of the man who lives with her, liable to be speared by him at any time with perfect impunity. Chastity in either sex is quite unrecognised. The blackfellow is inferior in courage to the white man. He will never enter upon an undertaking in which the death of even one of his party engaged in armed strife seems probable. The most prominent sentiment in their rude, unwritten creed, is the horror in which, in common with many other totemistic savages in other countries, they hold consanguineous marriages. In most of the colonies they go about quite naked. In this condition they suffer little from inclemencies of weather. But when missionaries and other philanthropists induce any tribe to wear European clothing, out of mistaken pity, the seeds of consumption are soon planted in their systems, and the victims of this misguided kindness quickly succumb to disease, resulting from wearing clothes saturated with rain. Of inferior races there are none whose dwellings are more wretched. Their bill of fare contains some revolting dishes. All the mammalia of the country are eaten by them without distinction when these can be caught. Besides lizards, snakes, white ants, a kind of moth, frogs dug out of ponds, and fish—the head being always rejected—all sorts of eggs are included among their articles of diet. These, with flesh, are eaten in a state of semi-putrefaction. And in North Queensland they make no secret of their cannibal propensities. A large assortment of vegetable food—seeds, fruits, and berries—is also consumed by them. They show much ingenuity in discovering water, in which scent appears to play a prominent part. Their clubs, spears, digging-sticks, pigments, and flint axes may be metaphorically called their household gods. They have rude dramatic performances called *corroborees*. It has already been intimated that they practise totemism. As might be expected, their punishments of serious offences—as is too often the case in civilised communities—are of a vindictive character. If a native commits murder, and escapes penal consequences by running away, the life of one of his relatives is taken. They have no religion, except a dread of ghosts and demons. Nor have they any belief in a Supreme Being or any form of worship: neither have they any idols or forms of propitiation to spirits. Yet they profess to have faith in a future state of existence, although success in attaining it does not depend on conduct of any particular kind, but, alone, on whether they have been buried with proper funereal rites. They believe white men to be reincarnated spirits of natives—an idea which prevails also among some African tribes—and they cherish the hope that after death they will become white and enjoy the privileges of the superior race. Every case of death, except when due to old age, is traced by them to sorcery. But low as are their nature and condition, and inconsistent though the fact appears, they practise initiatory rites, which in some higher races are associated with religion. Circumcision is practised in the north and south, but not on the Murray or in Western Australia. About ten years of age a boy is covered with blood from head to foot, several men bleeding themselves for the purpose. The object of this ceremony is understood to be to familiarise the boy with the sight of blood, and, presumably, to inspire him with courage. At fourteen, the rite of circumcision is performed, and at twenty, tattooing and scarring are produced by gashes on the arms, back, and shoulders. In order to harden the novitiate to pain, some tribes compel him to lie before a hot fire while his wounds are still raw. On the east coast, two front teeth are knocked out as a substitute for circumcision. The septum of the nose is almost universally pierced, and a long piece of bone or other substance thrust through it. Here we see a resemblance to a custom common among some tribes of North American Indians. Young girls are likewise subjected to horrible scarring operations, under which their screams are heart-rending. In some parts both sexes are compelled to undergo initiatory rites even more cruel and abominable. If the *totem* regulations are broken by the contracting of consanguineous marriage, the woman is killed outright, and the man, whose life is spared, is severely punished. Polygamy is occasionally to be met with, and in some instances old men are allowed to have three or four wives. Infanticide, too, is not of rare occurrence.

The question of the origin of the Australian natives is too large for discussion within the space allotted me. Professor Alfred Russel Wallace supports the theory that they are Caucasian, and the views of so great an authority on such a topic must be received with becoming respect. But some who have also studied native characteristics maintain that the race is excessively mixed, being composed, in part, of races originally migrating from countries to the north and east of Australia, while, probably, an African element may have been introduced countless ages ago, when the two continents are supposed to have been united by land.

Discovery and Exploration of Australia by Europeans.

The earliest discovery of Australia by Europeans is as recent as the first half of the sixteenth century. But allusions to the "Great South Land" occur in writings as far back as the time of Alexander the Great, in the fourth century before Christ. More than two hundred years later, Strabo, Pliny, and Ptolemy make distinct mention of the same mysterious territory, although the accounts given of the inhabitants by these writers are evidently apocryphal. There is no doubt that the existence of Australia was known to the Greeks and Romans, although all trace of the channels through which they obtained their information seem to be hopelessly lost. There are indications that in the eight centuries of Mohammedan rule in the Malay Peninsula, the northern coasts of Australia were visited by adventurers from that country. At the same time there is abundant proof that the trepang fishery was carried on by the Chinese on the north coast of the continent from an early period. The features of the aborigines in the Gulf of Carpentaria and at Cape York plainly reveal the fact that they had been in contact with Mongolians from the Celestial Empire.

The "Columbus" who discovered the Australian continent is believed to have been a Provençal navigator, called Gillaume le Testu, a native of Grasse. French maps and related documents exist in the British Museum and the War Office in Paris, which countenance this view, and point to the discovery as having taken place in 1531. The story of Le Testu's undertaking, and the interesting accounts of subsequent explorers, including the Dutch and the first Englishman, Dampier, who landed at different points on the coast, are, however, too long to be recited. We come at once to Captain Cook, who sighted the coast of Victoria, and subsequently landed in Botany Bay, New South Wales, in 1770, upwards of a century and a half after the period covered by Dutch exploration. Attempts, which ended only with the first half of the present century, were made by other nations to acquire a foothold in the country. Some of these attempts failed from timidity, and others from incompetence in the explorers. But for the providential croaking of frogs, it is not improbable that to-day Western Australia would have belonged to France. A century ago a party of French colonists landed on the west coast, but the first morning after they had alighted from their boats on the beach, they were scared by the loud croaking of these animals, which they superstitiously believed to be demons, and they returned in haste and fright to their ships.[1] Another expedition of the same nationality was so squeamish, that they were driven from their intention to settle on the coast by the repulsive appearance of the natives. A third party pronounced Australia Felix to be generally unfit for human habitation. The most serious of French attempts to take possession of a portion of the continent were made in 1801, when three French men-of-war, under Baudin and Freycinet, cruised about the southern coasts in quest of a suitable spot for the establishment of a pioneer colony, but without success.

So far, however, from any glory in the first instance accruing to England from becoming possessed of Australia, her experience—if the truth must be told—was quite of an opposite kind. Upwards of a century ago, and for many years afterwards, the English Government had no intention of annexing the whole of the country. Their sole object at first was to form a penal settlement for convicts, as the Declaration of Independence by the first federal Government of the United States prevented us from any longer utilising the American colonies for a similar purpose. Eighteen years after Cook discovered Botany Bay, Captain Phillip disembarked the first cargo of English convicts in that locality in 1788. In 1802 a shipload of convicts was sent out by the Home authorities in the care of Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, under instructions that a penal settlement should be founded by him on the shores of Hobson's Bay, in what is now the colony of Victoria. But after an inspection of that region, it appeared to those appointed to select a site, so inhospitable as to be utterly unfit to support civilised immigrants. Yet, in that very neighbourhood the populous towns of Melbourne and Geelong now flourish. In 1804, Lieutenant-Colonel Collins transferred the prisoners who were destined for settlement in Hobson's Bay to Van Diemen's Land—now called Tasmania—and this was the origin of convictism in that beautiful island, which subsequently became the scene of those horrors and cruelties so graphically depicted in Marcus Clarke's famous novel, "The Term of his Natural Life." So little attraction did New South Wales present to immigrants from the United Kingdom, that, upwards of forty years after the first convict settlement had been established in that colony, the inhabitants did not number in 1830 more than 39,000, the colony being 309,000 square miles in extent. The population of New South Wales to-day approaches a million and a quarter, and is certain to advance at a steady pace.

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[1] This reminds us of the story told by Herodotus of a vast army of Scythians being put to flight, in a panic, by the braying of an ass.

Taking the colonies in the order of their formation, Western Australia was founded in 1829 by free settlers from England, who planted themselves on the banks of the Swan River, where the rapidly-growing city of Perth now stands. This band of pioneers was reinforced by a thousand immigrants from New South Wales in 1830, who brought with them an aggregate capital of £140,000; and to these two contingents of settlers considerable free grants of land were ceded by the Government. But unhappily a large proportion of the first settlers turned out to be unsuited to the hardships incident to their position, and many of them soon left the colony in disgust. Finding extreme difficulty for many years in obtaining labour to assist them in conducting farming operations, and, after experiencing a variety of trying vicissitudes from other causes, the settlers in 1850 were necessitated to petition the Home Government to export to them convict labour, and for a long time they were mainly dependent on the aid of some thousands sent out from British prisons, for carrying on work of every kind. Up to 1891, Western Australia, with an area of nearly 1,000,000 square miles, had only attained a population of 55,000. Since that date the number has increased to 172,000, and a constant stream of immigrants flows into the colony from the eastern colonies of Australia, and from all parts of Europe, attracted by the remarkable gold discoveries which have been made in the west. As the vast expanse of auriferous country is developed, the population is certain to increase at a surprising rate. The irony of fate, however, is strangely illustrated in the history of this latest born of self-governing Australian colonies. Rich and extensive gold mines were discovered in New South Wales and Victoria about thirty-five years before the existence of gold was even suspected in Western Australia, despite the fact that the original discoveries of Australian land were made by European explorers on the West Australian coast.

Victoria, which had previously been included in the colony of New South Wales, was erected into a separate colony in 1834, receiving its first inhabitants from Tasmania, these immigrants being headed by Batman and Fawkner. Four years later, in 1838, the population of Victoria rose to 3500, and in 1891 it reached 1,140,000, the area of the colony being 87,800 square miles. Since the latter year, however, there has been a decline in population, consequent upon the disastrous collapse of inflated land speculations and the failure of local banks. But it is believed that a general recovery has now been effected, and it is hoped that progress will be resumed on a more solid basis than previously. Responsible government was not conferred upon Victoria till 1850, the year immediately before that in which the marvellous gold mines of Ballarat and Bendigo attracted notice, and brought tens of thousands of gold-seekers from many distant countries. And in about fifty years the collective amount of gold the colony has yielded is valued at upwards of £246,000,000. Last year alone the gold production reached nearly £3,700,000, although it is noteworthy that last year (1898), for the first time, Victoria was dethroned from her position as chief gold producer in the Australian group of colonies by Western Australia, which in this respect is expected to maintain her supremacy.

South Australia was founded in 1836, under the auspices of an English joint-stock company, called the South Australian Colonisation Association, promoted and directed by the eminent philanthropist, Edward Gibbon Wakefield, an ingenious and well-meaning theorist, whose conspicuous lack of wise organising power, nevertheless, brought serious disappointment, privation, and loss on those who followed his guidance. The first working of his colonising scheme was disastrous. The colony was inundated with immigrants who were unable to settle on the land for want of means, and the small proportion who could settle could not sell what they produced for want of markets. Now, in a territory comprising 900,000 square miles, there is a population of 340,000 with a promising future before it. Queensland, situated to the north-east of New South Wales, was carved out of the parent colony, and ultimately received self-governing institutions in 1857. Its area is 678,000 square miles, and its inhabitants number 400,000. Already it almost equals Victoria in gold production, and it is not impossible that it may eventually surpass it.

Colonial Products.

Western Australia only began to yield gold in 1886, when the total amount recorded for that year was £1000, against about three-quarters of a million for the twelve months nine years later, with a tendency to rapid increase. The production for 1898 closely approached £4,000,000. If we add New Zealand and Tasmania to the colonies already enumerated, the total gold yield of Australasia since 1851 is estimated at £390,000,000.

The quantity of silver raised in the five Australian colonies in the thirty years, 1863–99, is given at twenty millions sterling. The great bulk of this metal is derived from the rich silver mines of Broken Hills in New South Wales, which have paid in the last few years about £7,000,000 in dividends and bonuses to shareholders. New South Wales has exported in minerals and metals a total of about £95,000,000, gold alone amounting to over £45,000,000. The latter colony produces annually about 4,000,000 tons of coal. Promising coal discoveries have also been made within the past seven years in Victoria and Western Australia, as well as in Queensland. The present output of this mineral in Victoria reaches 200,000 tons a year. Yet, as recently as 1887, an eminent Government mineralogical expert of New Zealand, who was appointed by the Victorian Government to inspect and report on the Victorian coal-fields, found no indications of a remunerative and permanent output! From minerals and metals other than gold, in Victoria alone, including silver, tin, iron, copper, antimony, lead, lignite, kaolin, slates, diamonds, sapphires, &c., the value realised since 1851 has amounted to upwards of a million and a half sterling. Opals, sapphires, topazes, rubies, and diamonds are distributed on a considerable scale in New South Wales and Queensland, and will doubtless be found in West Australia. The annual value of the wool exported from New South Wales, in productive years, when the occasional plague of drought is absent, is over £10,000,000. The Victorian wool yields about a quarter of that value. From the whole of the Australasian colonies the aggregate quantity of wool exported annually is about 679,000,000 lbs., the value being £25,000,000. The value of the wheat, timber, dairy produce, frozen meat, fruit, sugar, &c., produced in Australasia runs into several millions.

Fiscal and Political Hindrances to Progress.

The total trade of these colonies is said now to equal the trade of England at the accession of the Queen. I have no hesitation in saying, that the volume of trade might be indefinitely increased, but for the injurious influence of Protection in all the colonies except New South Wales—Victoria being, in this respect, the most flagrant transgressor. Happily the parent colony was only ensnared for a brief period by the delusive fiscal system referred to, and signs of a reaction against it are apparent in Victoria. Its tendency in the latter colony, as well as in several others, has been to retard settlement on the land by drawing people to centres of population already congested and afflicted with a large number of the unemployed, who are misled by the fallacy that heavily-protected industries can absorb an unlimited amount of labour.

Intercolonial Federation.

After repeated futile attempts to federate by the Australian colonies, a step has recently been taken (July 1899) which promises to succeed. A referendum has been submitted in New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. and a majority in each case has declared for federation on the basis of the bill passed by the colonial delegates assembled at the last federal convention. No appeal has yet been made to the popular vote in Queensland, but this test is sure to be applied very soon, and the result, it is hoped, will be in favour of union. The attitude of West Australia, for the moment, is more doubtful, but it is certain that the latter colony will not permanently stand out. Meanwhile it is understood that a parliamentary commission of inquiry has been appointed by Sir John Forrest, the Premier, to consider the matter and report. As for New Zealand, she regards her interests as so distinct from those of Australia that she has positively declined to join. Hitherto the number of dissentients has been largest in New South Wales, and there is much to be said for the hesitation of that colony. Many of her best citizens, after being so long loyal to free trade, abhor the necessity that will now be laid upon them to accept a protective tariff against the outside world, the only compensation offered them being free trade with the federating colonies. They also, not unnaturally, object that colonies with less than half the aggregate population of Victoria and New South Wales should have double the representation of these two colonies in the federal senate. There are also serious financial difficulties connected with the vast collective indebtedness of the federating colonies which will tax the skill and forbearance of the federal parliament to the utmost.

Class Legislation.

Not the least mischievous check to sound colonial development, economic as well as political, in Australasia, is the prevalence of universal suffrage. In most of the colonies, every male of twenty-one years of age, not disqualified by crime or insanity, is entitled to a parliamentary vote. The result is a tendency to legislation in favour of the class constituting the majority of those who possess the franchise, these being working-men. It is not, as a rule, those having the largest financial stake in the country that seek election to the legislative assembly; nor are successful candidates for the lower house of parliament usually those best fitted by wisdom, political intelligence, education and culture, for the performance of legislative or administrative duties. In every Australasian legislature, except that of Western Australia, the people's representatives are salaried. Inducement is thus offered to needy adventurers, having more glibness of speech than sober reason and high principles, to seek legislative honours. Not a few candidates are lavish of promises to the constituencies during a canvass for votes, but they are rarely able to keep them after being elected. The party for the time-being in power does not scruple, as occasion may require, to buy the support of members in order to maintain their parliamentary majority. Australian governments have been known to promise pliant members railways, irrigation works, roads, and other improvements for the boroughs or districts they may represent, although in many instances these boons may not be urgently needed, and may afford no reasonable prospect of being commercially reproductive.

Excessive Borrowings.

Immense sums are borrowed in London for carrying out such undertakings as have been named, and the colonies, with hardly an exception, are perilously embarrassed with debts contracted in connection with unremunerative public works. At the same time the interest on the capital raised for these objects proves a burden to the taxpayers, which with difficulty they are able to bear. A considerable number of State railways in Victoria, and several other colonies, are very far from earning working expenses. Owing to this, and other causes, the general revenues on the funds of the Government Savings-Banks in the colonies so situated are heavily drawn upon from time to time for advances to meet treasury deficits which, in the last few years, have accumulated by millions. The collective governments of Australia, with Tasmania and New Zealand, have already borrowed roundly over £200,000,000; and this is but two-thirds of the total amount of British capital invested in these colonies. British shareholders in squatting and land investments and in mortgage companies have, perhaps, been the greatest sufferers since the collapse of the land "boom" in 1892, for no less than £11,400,000 of share capital in these undertakings is now receiving no dividend, and only £6,300,000 is receiving, on an average, about 6 per cent. per annum. The holders of preferential stocks and debentures in these institutions are obtaining an average of slightly over 4 per cent. on a total of £32,200,000. Since the Australian banking failures in 1893, the volume of British deposits in Australian banks has diminished from £40,500,000 to £24,000,000, a proof that the credit of colonial banking has received a severe blow in the estimation of British investors.

For some years previous to the recent crash in Australian banking and land speculation, English capitalists became as rashly eager to lend to the colonies as they had formerly been to lend the bankrupt governments of Turkey, Spain, Portugal, and the South American Republics. Hundreds of millions have been as hopelessly lost in these foreign loans as if they had been sunk in the ocean. It is to be hoped that the ultimate result will be different as regards loans to Australian governments. One thing is certain. The strain to which colonial governments are subjected in paying, punctually, the half-yearly interest (amounting annually to £12,000,000) on their loans is intense. And there is no doubt that this system of wanton borrowing from too-confiding British investors is directly responsible for the reckless public expenditure which has taken place—ostensibly to execute so-called "reproductive" public works, which, in many cases, are notoriously unproductive—and has been the root of all the wild speculation and financial disaster which we deplore. The large amounts of borrowed money could not be used by the governments all at once, and were placed on interest-bearing deposit in the local "associated banks" among which the government account was distributed. The banks naturally wished to make a profitable use of the government deposits while these remained in their hands—in secured loans to their customers. After the latter had borrowed as much as their ordinary business requirements could safely absorb, a large amount of government money still remained unused; and this was not unfrequently pressed on their clients by the banks, with an intimation that land would be acceptable as security for loans. This was the origin of the great land speculation of 1887–1892, which ruined many financial institutions, and brought hundreds of thousands to poverty and want; the innocent being too often involved with the guilty. The bank directors and managers do not seem to have paused to consider that, by fostering speculation in land by the granting of extensive loans, in their senseless haste to earn large dividends for their shareholders, they were forcing up land values to absurdly-inflated figures which could not be maintained, but must inevitably result in a destructive reaction. But not until the pricking of the speculative bubble had demonstrated the insanity of their policy did they fully realise how ill-fated was the crisis they had with a light heart precipitated, Had the governments found it more difficult to obtain loans from England, the social, financial, and economic position of the colonies to-day would be sound and prosperous, and the costly monuments of public and private folly and misery with which some of them are strewed, would be happily conspicuous by their absence. If Jabez Balfour has been justly convicted of obtaining money under false pretences, and paying dividends out of capital, there are scores of bank directors in Australasia who have been not less guilty of deliberately paying dividends out of capital, and robbing their depositors.

The thunderbolt of retribution which has fallen on Australian communities has not yet, I fear, exhausted its force. It is by no means certain that all the Australasian banks which have been "reconstructed" will succeed—at least for years to come—in resuming the payment of any appreciable dividend on their ordinary stocks, despite the exactions they have unjustly and cruelly imposed on their depositors in depriving them of their money, and making them compulsory preference shareholders. Whether the colonies will emerge from their trouble wiser for their trials, and be weaned from the mammon worship which they have too assiduously cultivated, remains to be seen.

Another mischief arising from this habit of extravagant colonial borrowing, is that the loans expended on public works have a marked tendency to unsettle men occupied peacefully on farms and cattle stations, and thus to create a large "tramp" population, who make a business of finding out what colonies are borrowing largely and migrating in quest of work to the new public undertakings which are carried out with loan moneys. Young men are tempted to leave their struggling parents or employers in agricultural and pastoral settlements, and seek unwholesome excitements in populous centres in or near which the new public works are to be constructed. The consequent congestion of population in towns from this cause robs the land of much-needed cultivation, and leads to a terrific increase of poverty, an over-supply of town labour, want of employment, distress, crime, and insanity.

I regret to see another form of mania recently taking hold of the crude public financial guides who usually find their way into the local governments and parliaments. I refer to what are called "State-banks," which are spreading through Australasia like an epidemic. New Zealand—that land of fanciful political experiments—is showing very acute symptoms of this distemper, and if these do not soon abate, fatal consequences financially can hardly fail ultimately to ensue. Victoria, New South Wales, Western Australia, and South Australia have also been badly smitten with the same malady.

SOCIAL DRAWBACKS.

There are social drawbacks in average colonial life which specially impress persons of cultured tastes and aspirations going out from this country to reside in Australia. The most striking of these among the classes moderately well off, and also among the rich in the Australian colonies, is that wealth is largely recognised as the permanent standard of worth. This vulgar test of social importance mostly prevails in young communities in which facilities for rapidly accumulating money are greatest, both at home and abroad. But in the old countries of Europe the airs assumed by the *nouveaux riches* are soon laughed down, because there exist side by side with them an old aristocracy and a wealthy middle class, in whose families unaffected refinement of taste and manners has been habitual for generations. But in new countries, affording exceptional opportunities for poor men to quickly become rich, the forms in which newly-acquired fortunes are often displayed, are naturally repulsive to men and women of breeding. As Victoria has hitherto borne the palm, among the Australasian colonies, as a gold-producer, she has naturally exhibited the coarsest type of plutocracy. New South Wales and Queensland have followed her in this respect; although, as a rule, with less pronounced manifestations. Society in South Australia, in Western Australia—before gold was discovered in her territory—and in Tasmania, was more decidedly congenial to educated European tastes. But as the precious metals are being more widely obtained throughout Australasia, the standard of all-round culture and simplicity in the individual and the family are certain to deteriorate. It has been often remarked that the best University education which the colonies can supply seems powerless, up to the present, to develop that delicacy of perception, and that combined ease, dignity, and courtesy which Eton, Harrow, Oxford, and Cambridge, with their preponderance of upper and middle class teaching and associations, so successfully aid in stimulating. The collapse of the land boom has inflicted bitter and, let us hope, salutary discipline on many mushroom aspirants to social distinction in Australia. Their sole claim, in most cases, to superior rank, was their suddenly-acquired wealth, and when that was ruthlessly swept away, they speedily retreated to their original obscurity, after a short-lived and grotesque mimicry of a station in life whose actual surroundings were as foreign to them as a levee at Buckingham Palace would be to a peasant. Among these ambitious pretenders were men who had spent years in angling, by ostentatious gifts to charitable institutions, for knighthoods which are to be met with in that part of the empire, out of all proportion to the limited population, and to the deserts of the recipients. Among successful tuft-hunters who fell in the crash were some who, in the days when they had nothing to lose, were ferocious demagogues, preaching republicanism, and setting the industrial classes against the mercantile and pastoral classes. But after having talked themselves into public notice, and eventually navigated their course into a position in one of the local ministerial cabinets, they grovelled before the Governor and his satellites for a K.C.B. or a K.C.M.G., and became sticklers for that conventional respectability which they despised when it seemed hopelessly beyond their reach. On the other hand, it need hardly be said that there is to be found in Australia a large substratum of excellent cultured and true-hearted men and women, who would adorn any station, and who are deservedly honoured in all the relations of life. But their natural modesty and self-respect cause them to shrink from the self-assertive and feelingless natures which too often force their way to the surface, and, in consequence, those who are really the salt of society have to be dug out.

One of the most incongruous institutions forming the centre of fashionable society in a practical community like that of an Australian colony, is the Viceregal Court held at Government House, and presided over by His Excellency the Governor, his family, and official retinue. The envy and jealousy engendered in ladies towards each other in reference to the style and quality of their dresses at the balls, garden parties, dinners, and other festivities to which they may be invited by viceroyalty, often threaten the peace of households. The costly tastes fostered by these gatherings, and the rivalries between families who aim at attracting supreme notice in the viceregal circle cause perpetual heart-burnings, and are responsible for habits of extravagance which too often end in distress and ruin. The elaborate and expensive ceremonials which are deemed necessary for a proper and efficient representation of the Queen by a Colonial Governor, I am bound to say, have a most injurious effect upon the vainglorious class, who are thus tempted, in ignorance of the consequences, to import into a new country, and among a socially unsophisticated people, the paraphernalia of an old country which has been ruled by monarchical pageant and aristocratic luxury for many centuries. The occupant of Government House in an Australian colony is not to blame in this matter, so much as the unwholesome régime which has from the first been forced on functionaries of his class, and which the pomp-loving section of Colonists now insist should be upheld, to the moral and social detriment of the community.

Another social drawback, which is partly of an economic character, is the needless severe restrictions placed by Australasian governments upon the introduction of immigrants from China, India, and Japan. The root of this exclusiveness is not difficult to trace. The mass of the working-classes have a declared aversion to the immigration of men of their own ranks from England and foreign nationalities, who are accustomed to receive lower wages than are paid for an equal kind of work in Australasia. Even trades unionists from the parent country have to endure, as a rule, from the workpeople previously established in the colonies, a long probation, during which they are treated with comparative coldness and suspicion. But their treatment of the yellow races, as might be expected, is much more inhospitable; although in this respect they are probably no worse than the working-classes of the United States and Canada. But impartial observers are of opinion that this prejudice against the Chinese, Japanese, and

Indians, is carried to a fanatical extent. The yellow races have never shown a tendency to come into Australasia in such unreasonable numbers as to create any well-founded dread of competition in the labour market. But for the Chinese it would have been impossible for the inhabitants of large towns to obtain an adequate supply of vegetables at a moderate price. They have always been the chief market gardeners of Australasia, and they have, with very few exceptions, been content to be "hewers of wood and drawers of water." Nor do the Japanese or the Indians desire to be obtrusive, or to come over in menacing hordes. Their mission is peace, and it will be time enough to stop them when they tend to become numerous. It may be remarked, however, that the eastern peoples cannot be excluded with impunity any more than the Kanakas of the South Seas could be, from the sugar plantations of Queensland. After repeated attempts of the parliament and people of that colony to exclude them, the colonists were at length driven to the conviction that without Kanaka help their sugar estates would perish from insufficient labour, and this *force majure* ultimately prevailed, Kanakas being admitted under legal regulations. It will likewise be found that the white labourer is unable to work under the tropical heat of the northern latitudes of Australia, and that if Chinamen, Japanese, and Indians are not imported, the development of those regions will be irremediably checked. But the yellow races will in time have their revenge for present interference with their liberty to live and trade, in a way which the most rigid form of protection cannot always prevent. Cotton and woollen mills are already springing up at a very rapid rate, in India, Japan, and China, and after the textile wants of these countries are supplied, a large export trade in cotton and woollen goods from them will be developed, not only to the growing populations in the Southern Hemisphere, but also to the great nations of the West in the Northern Hemisphere. The low cost of Oriental labour will enable merchants in Australasia to import the commodities referred to, and others, so cheaply that they will be able to pay heavy protective duties and still undersell the manufactured products both of the Colonies and Europe.

A grave and practical question, in conclusion, is irresistibly suggested by the whole subject. Is the system of British territorial expansion abroad so framed as to be made as subservient as it is capable of being, to the material welfare of the vast and increasing surplus population of the United Kingdom? Political reformers at home have long been agitating for a "redistribution of parliamentary seats." But if the inhabitants of these islands continue to increase at the present annual ratio, a still more urgent problem must ere long press for solution. How is the large and growing unemployed balance to be disposed of? Already the density of population to area is greater in England than in any European country, except Belgium, and we have a larger proportion overwhelmed in abject poverty than exists in any other European country. The additions to our home population are roughly estimated at 1000 per day, or about 350,000 per annum. Of this total increase about 200,000 leave the country, in each year, chiefly for the United States and the British possessions abroad, 150,000 per annum remaining behind to be dealt with. If this large surplus is left unprovided for, it must increase in arithmetical progression, and if the manufacturing competition of Germany, Belgium, and other countries continue to make advancing inroads, as seems not improbable, upon our industrial supremacy, especially in relation to foreign markets, we must inevitably be saddled with a startling increase of British pauperism. There are already between

800,000 and 1,000,000 paupers on the official records in England and Wales, and this large total represents a very much larger number perpetually hovering on the boundary line of starvation. We are consequently justified in believing that General Booth's estimate of a tenth of the thirty-nine and a half millions inhabiting these islands being actually "submerged," or hopelessly beaten in the struggle for existence under arduous, economic, and social conditions, is well within the mark; and there are factors in operation making it certain that, in the absence of effective alleviating agencies, this immense proportion of helpless and miserable victims of our civilisation will greatly increase. In London alone there are about 100,000 in the regular receipt of parish relief, and this shows some thousands more reduced to destitution in the Metropolis than were to be met with three years ago. British agriculture appears to be fast declining under foreign and colonial competition. The result is that farm labourers—to say nothing of former well-to-do farm tenants—are driven into the towns to swell an already congested population. According to Mr Charles Booth, 14,596,352 persons live in houses under a £10 rental, and 22,211,919—or considerably more than half the population of the United Kingdom—live in houses under a £20 rental, while an enormous number of families are huddled together in slums, living and sleeping promiscuously in two rooms, and often in only one. These outward and visible signs of wretchedness cannot fail to multiply to an appalling extent, as the decline in the cotton manufacture of Lancashire and in the woollen manufacture of Yorkshire, progresses under foreign competition. Formerly we feared as rivals, in iron and textile products, the Germans, Austrians, and Belgians. But, apart from the United States, which are making their presence increasingly felt in foreign markets to our detriment, we are face to face with a nation which threatens ultimately to be a more formidable competitor than any of these. I refer to Japan, whose unlimited command of industrial skill and cheap labour for many years to come will confer upon her an incalculable advantage over western nations. The time is approaching, too, when China, in like manner, will have to be reckoned with as, perhaps, the most powerful rival of all in the industrial branches which have been named, as well as in others. It is not long since Sir T. Sutherland, M.P. for Greenock, said that if the trades unions of this country should continue to press their demands for higher and higher wages, to the injury of the shipbuilding interest, such companies as his own would be compelled to have their vessels built on the Yangtse instead of the Clyde and the Tyne.

Here is an outlook which may well engage the attention of able and earnest statesmen, involving political and social problems, bearing an infinitely more vital relation to the wellbeing of this country than most of those which usually occupy Parliament. If war is undertaken against a foreign enemy, the most elaborate organisation is devoted to putting the two great branches of our fighting service in a state of efficiency, and scores of millions sterling are promptly voted for the purpose. But if an oppressive incubus of misery is to be removed from the country by a judicious redistribution of the population from the centre of the empire, where they are unable to earn adequate supplies of food and raiment, to the Colonies, where able and willing hands can earn both, it seems to be the business of nobody in particular, and it is postponed *sine die* by the people's representatives. I grant that the transplanting of our dependent unemployed classes to outlying sections of the Empire is surrounded by difficulties of no ordinary character.

But surely there is a great difference between an honest attempt to grapple with these and doing absolutely nothing in the matter. The problem is far too complex to be solved by voluntary efforts alone, whether of individuals or societies. It is only by the action of the State that the work can be successfully done. Some optimists are looking forward to the nationalisation of the land and a public system of settling the able-bodied poor upon it as a panacea for distress and want in England. But even assuming, for argument's sake, that such an arrangement would effectually meet the exigencies of the case—which we are not prepared to admit—the homely proverb remains applicable, "While the grass is growing the steed is starving." There will always be a certain proportion of the population disqualified from earning a living by some constitutional lack of will-power amounting to disease. This class would have to be kept at home, and placed under rigid discipline by the parish authorities, and trained, as far as possible, to live from work provided by the local bodies, under parliamentary regulation. They ought also to be prohibited from propagating their kind, under penalty, as a means of cutting off the entail of chronic poverty, which has so long been a fruitful source of intemperance, degeneracy, and crime in our midst. There would still remain, however, a large number of the unemployed of both sexes, able and willing to work, under public direction. A judicious selection might be extensively made out of the latter class; in the first instance, from declining agricultural districts, and a systematic organisation established to send them out to cultivate Colonial farming lands under efficient supervision, which should be continued until they can earn a subsistence for themselves and their families. It might also be arranged that they should refund, by easy instalments, the outlay expended on their passage and settlement by the State.

The marvellous growth of the Empire abroad by the constant annexation of territory—often through the exploitation of irresponsible adventurers—is ever being dinned in our ears by "jingo" enthusiasts who are ready to glorify the triumphs of brute force, regardless of considerations of public justice and private honour. Nor has this method of territorial extension abroad even the redeeming feature of being subordinated to the welfare of the destitute but deserving classes of our home population. If the supreme end and aim of our vast acquisitions of territory in Africa, for example, is simply to offer inducements to financial leviathans of the Rhodes, Barnato, and Beit type, and their satellites, to rear gigantic monopolies for their own advantage, while starving millions are left to perish in densely-crowded towns and in insanitary agricultural villages at home, then the more the Empire is enlarged under conditions so unworthy, the more it is degraded. The result is not less to be deprecated if the concession of responsible government to the Australian colonies is found to open the door to avaricious local land-grabbers who, from interested motives, discourage the introduction of poor but suitable immigrants from the United Kingdom, and who raise the heartless cry against admission being granted to the outside world—"Australia for the Australians." A policy so narrow and exclusive is surely the acme of ingratitude on the part of children towards a parent, who has spent countless millions in winning for them the soil of "Greater Britain," and in safeguarding the property and the lives of those who thus repudiate parental services and sacrifices, without which British Colonisation would have been impossible.

If Parliament has the right to empower vestries, boroughs and County Councils to impose on the ratepayers increasing financial burdens for the support of our helpless poor at home, it ought also to have the right to enable the local bodies to adopt a system of selected emigration for the benefit of those reduced to the brink of pauperism, and of actual denizens of parish workhouses, who may, nevertheless, give evidence of their capability to profit permanently by transference to one of our numerous fertile possessions abroad. If a large and judicious redistribution of our needy surplus population could thus be made, new and valuable markets for our manufactured products would be gradually created by those whose circumstances we had assisted in improving. Our honest and industrious poor would have the advantage of a fresh start in life, and the parent country would be more than rewarded by being invited to minister to their commercial requirements.

NEW SOUTH WALES

By JAMES BONWICK

How strange an idea it must have seemed when Mr. Matra proposed a settlement at Botany Bay!

A volunteer on board Captain Cook's ship in 1769, he had botanised by that bay with Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks. An American colonist, whose family lost everything by being loyal to England in the War of Independence, he suggested to Lord Sydney that Botany Bay would be a suitable place for the many ruined loyal settlers. But Mr. Pitt, just then troubled about over-filled prisons through the stoppage of transportation of felons across the Atlantic, fancied Cook's new land would do as a substitute for the long-established American convict refuge. He thought that British criminals might become as good customers for English goods in New Holland as they had been in the American colonies. Thus it was that a settlement of free and bond was laid in 1788.

Though a colonial archivist, I cannot say how the name of New South Wales originated. In the journals of Cook, his chief officer, and four others of the discovery party, I found no such name; but I do notice in an early copy of a journal the words "New Wales"—an interpolation—which naturally grew into "New South Wales." "Stingray Bay" became "Botany."

The present area of the colony—reduced by the separation of Port Phillip or Victoria, and of Moreton Bay district or Queensland—is 310,700 square miles, or 198,848,000 acres. Its greatest length, from north-west to south-east, is 850 miles. The river Murray, and a line from it to Cape Howe, would divide it from Victoria; the latitude, 28–29° S. from Queensland; and the longitude, 141° E. from South Australia.

The principal bays north of Port Jackson are Broken Bay, Port Stephen, Port Hunter, and Port Macquarie. Those south of Sydney are Jervis, Bateman, and Twofold Bay. The leading capes are, Howe, south; Danger, north; with North and South Heads of Port Jackson.

A cluster of mountains, south-east, by Victoria, form the Australian Alps, over 7000 feet high. The main chain, from south to north, includes the Blue Mountains and the Liverpool range. Hills to the north-east rise 6000 feet. The rivers thence to the Pacific are comparatively short; the Hawkesbury and the Hunter are most prominent. Westward of the main range, all the waters flow directly or indirectly to the Murray. The Macquarie and others run north to the Darling River. The Lachlan, 700 miles long, reaches the Murrumbidgee; the latter flows 1350 miles to the Murray. The Darling has 2300 miles of navigation from its junction with the Murray, which, after 1700 miles, reaches the Southern Ocean through a corner of South Australia.

Of the towns, Sydney, alongside Port Jackson, is the beautiful capital. Newcastle, the coal port, is at the mouth of the Hunter. Parramatta is at the head of Port Jackson. Wollongong, the coal and butter port, is south of Sydney. Goulburn, Bathurst, Orange, Deniliquin, and Silverton are westward. Wherever agriculture and mining extend, there new towns, with their civilisation, have their start.

The Climate of New South Wales partakes of the usual Australian characteristics. The coast-lands have a good rainfall, averaging 45 inches; the table-lands have but 30 inches; and the western interior only from 10 to 15 inches. There is winter cold in the Alpine quarter, with snow many feet in depth, though the spreading plains can have cold nights with great heat in the day. The purity of the atmosphere, the exhalation of healing airs from forest foliage, and the general joyousness of the climate, strike the visitor. Not a few localities can show less than half the average death-rate of England. Consumptive invalids from Europe are able to change from the hills to the coast, from the woodlands to the plains, from breezy parts to equable temperatures.

The birth-rate was 37, while that of death was as low as 14 per thousand. It may interest some to know of a recent year the order of diseases in mortality. The first place, as everywhere, was held by Consumptive complaints; Debility ranks second; Old Age, third; Pneumonia, fourth; Bronchitis, fifth; Cancer, eleventh; Heart, twelfth; Brain, eighteenth: Whooping-cough, twenty-first; Scarlet Fever, twenty-second; Insanity, thirty-sixth; Influenza, thirty-seventh; Dysentery, fortieth. Temperance practice greatly affects vital statistics.

The NATURAL HISTORY may be glanced at. The seas abound in fish, of which there are no less than 350 varieties, some being of delicious flavour for the table. Insect life develops, as in all warm countries. Snakes are not uncommon in the bush, but rarely of poisonous kind. Of wild beasts destructive to life, none exist The mild-eyed kangaroo, the leaf-eating opossum, several grass-feeding marsupials, the spiky echidna or porcupine, the amphibious duck-billed platypus, are among the curious forms of quadrupeds. The native dog only is not of marsupial structure. Birds are mostly of gay plumage, and some have rich or cheerful notes. The emu is rapidly becoming extinct.

The *Flora* is very varied, according to locality and climate. The deplored waste of forests is being repaired by a provident Government, in forest reserves and forest nurseries. The great proportion of timber trees are of the Eucalyptus family, and may run up to 400 feet. Among them are Gums (one hundred varieties), the Peppermint, Stringybark, Box, Blackbutt, Bloodwood, and Ironbark. The Eucalyptus oil abounds in the Peppermint. The Eucalypti are spare in foliage, but the leaves have special health-breathing qualities. Miasma-laden climates in other countries are relieved by planting out such trees, to drive off fever and ague.

The Flora consists of 10,000 species, 8000 of which are flowering. The lovely Waratah, or Native Tulip, grows on the mountain sides. Its crimson colour in that position gave rise to its name of *Telopia*, or "seen at a distance." The Flannel-flower, with pendulous, pluffy flowers, is known as the Australian *Edelweiss.* Tree-ferns may be seen 60 feet high. Scrubs exhibit many medicinal plants. Timber trees furnish 630 varieties; food plants, 212; forage grasses, 158; oil plants, 57; tanning, 37; fibrous, 67; and dyes, 35.

The NATIVE POPULATION have been unkindly classed among the unimprovable races, though the Whites have done little by example or training to improve them. Certainly we found them in a degraded position, but advanced enough to be removed from the Palæolithic to the Neolithic stage, as they rubbed their stone tools to an edge. Dark in skin, coarse in curly hair, savage in manners, they have both intelligence and heart. Their sight and hearing are superior to ours; they have much natural kindness, and their tribes are merry by the evening fire. In a wild state, their virtues were more prominent, and their vices fewer, than since their contact with our so-called civilisation. Drink destroyed their manliness and debased their women. As trespassers upon their former hunting-grounds, they depend now more upon charity. In religion they occupied no position, and both Protestant and Catholic missionaries, well supported by the State, failed in permanent good to the wanderers.

As victims of bad habits, and with few children born in the tribes, their extinction is near at hand. Ill-treatment in the past, provoking outrages, is one cause of disappearance. The unhappy remnant seems doomed to the fate of so many native races. It is fair to say that home and colonial authorities have espoused their cause against the rough usage of early settlers. Comparisons have been made with the civilising efforts of Romans in Britain. It is forgotten, however, that the Britons had no mean civilisation of their own at the time, and were kindred with advanced communities in Gaul, &c.; while the Blacks of New South Wales had no connection with any known civilised race, and may have been left for tens of thousands of years isolated through geological changes, cutting them off from other peoples.

The White Population arrived in 1788, both free and bond, though transportation ceased there in 1840. They now number about 1,400,000; the Chinese about 10,000; the native Blacks, 7000. Classed according to professed religion, the Church of England claimed 500,000; the Roman Catholic Church, 300,000; Presbyterians, 110,000; Methodists, 100,000; Congregationalists, 25,000; Baptists, 12,000; Salvationists, 10,000. But, reckoned according to church attendance, the Roman Catholics stood at 100,000; Church of England, 90,000; Methodists, 70,000; Presbyterians, 40,000; and Salvationists, 50,000. Only the Church of England had State aid till 1836, when other denominations partook of the Treasury loaf; none are now having that support, though all retain their land grants for church purposes. Sunday schools number 2000. The social condition differs little from that in England. They have like institutions, sports, and societies, virtues and vices, though more given to holiday pleasures. Government supports hospitals and benevolent asylums. Intemperance prevails there as in these islands.

The Pastoral Interest still continues to be a strong support to the colony. Imported sheep from India and the Cape Colony formed the earliest flocks. These were more hairy than woolly, but the breed was gradually improved by the Spanish merinos. A better pasturage than the woodlands followed the discovery of western plains. The few cattle landed in 1788 were limited to one pair, by the running off of two bulls and four cows to the bush. Though others were brought from India, of a very inferior sort, it was long before fresh beef replaced the ration of salt junk. There are there now far over two million head of cattle and fifty million sheep. The artesian wells, some two to three thousand feet in depth, are some checks to periodical droughts.

The Agricultural story is curious. Land grants, freely given to bond and free, helped the culture of the ground. Wheat and maize were the first crops. Now, every kind of fruit, vegetable, and grain is raised. Wool-growing being more profitable than corn, made a way for other colonies to send to Sydney markets flour, fruit, and potatoes, until the liberal land laws permitted free culture in New South Wales. The vine thrives well on the banks of the Murray and the Hunter, and sugar-cane in the warm and moist northeast, beside the Pacific. Potatoes yielded 3 tons to the acre; tobacco, 11 cwt.: sugar, 20 tons; wine, 200 gallons; wheat, 13 bushels; and maize, 34. Orchards are very productive. The area devoted to orange groves was 12,000 acres; to the vine, 8000.

The *Land Laws* furnish the key to both agricultural and pastoral progress. Land, from the very first, was granted to free settlers and those who had been bond-men, subject to the payment of a small quit-rent, as an acknowledgment that the land belonged to the State, for the use of all. Ultimately, pressure from without forced in the institution of freeholds. In later years this system has been modified in favour of the original principle of leaseholds from the State.

All depasturing was at first confined to land grants; but, as population increased, flocks and herds were moved farther from the coast to leasehold land on a very small rental, to which assessment of stock was added. The terms of leases, and their payments, varied according to position, and removal from the settled quarters. As necessity for farms called forth, the large areas occupied by squatters or graziers were gradually broken into, and the *runs* had to be moved farther inland. Continued restriction of the freedom of squatters opened up more land for agriculture.

Land, when exposed to sale, had the upset price at auction fixed at a pound an acre, but at a much higher rate for town and suburban lots. Continual reductions have brought the possession of a homestead into more and more liberal systems. The Act of 1895, the last great change, may be now described.

The Government claims the power to withdraw areas under pastoral leases when required for farming. *Occupation Licenses* are subject to change of fees and limitation of area. Authorised improvements had to be paid by a new comer. *Homestead Leases*, though for twenty-eight years' term, have the rent altered by appraisement every seven years. Tenant-right is always acknowledged for improvements. The *Homestead Settlement Provisions* are in blocks under 1280 acres. *Homestead Selections* are permitted to males and females under sixteen years of age, but not to women living with their husbands. The homestead selectors must erect a dwelling worth at least £20 within eighteen months, and pay a half-yearly rent of $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. on the value of the block. Upon the issue of a land grant, the homestead selector is charged a perpetual rental to the State, and required to live on his selection at least seven months in the year. A deputy occupying the land pays the higher rate of 3½ per cent. on the value, and must have one-tenth of the area in tillage within three years, and a fifth in five years. A number of families uniting in one block are released from residence thereon, if dwelling, for school convenience, in the adjacent village. Protection is secured for the selector. His land cannot be sold under a writ, nor taken possession of for any debts. It is the home of his family, not his individually. Act 1893 provides Labour Settlements.

Settlement Leases, for agriculture and grazing, run up to 1280 acres for the first, but 10,240 for pastoral purposes only, and are all placed under the direction of the local Land Boards. These leases are for twenty-eight years, to be fenced within five years, paying a rental of 1¼ per cent. on the assumed value, with no right to assign or sublet but by the State's consent. *Improvement Leases* of inferior land, for twenty-eight years, may include 20,480 acres. *Conditional Purchasers* of land are allowed time in rental payment, but at the extra charge of 4 per cent. added every year of delayed payment. Conditional purchasers may subdivide their area in lots of not less than forty acres each. The local Land Board decides upon the subletting. No man can occupy two holdings at the same time. There are also *Special Leases*, on twenty-eight years' term, for building or business purposes. *Residential Leases* may be up to twenty acres, with tenant-right for improvements. Even forfeited lands are allowed tenant-right for improvements regarded as fixed, or as necessary.

On the whole, the land laws of New South Wales, though subject to change, are truly founded on justice to the individual, and serve as a valuable policy in the settlement of the country. A few men of capital may complain of the restriction of privilege, but the children of the many gain a comfortable and progressive home.

The Mining Interest came last into the field. The mineral wealth of a country depends upon its geology. The leading features of this colony's geology can be only very briefly sketched out, although the greatest proportion of formations belong to the Primary or Palæozoic Order; yet all the rocks known in Great Britain are to be found there, and with the same kind of fossils. They have there represented the granites and metamorphisms of Cornwall and the Highlands, the Silurian slates of Wales and the Lake District, the old red sandstones of Cromarty and Bristol, the coal measures of Yorkshire and Northumberland, the Mesozoic of Cambridge and Kent, the ancient basalts of Scotland, the volcanic lavas of later periods, and the tertiaries of our eastern coast.

The gold diggings are generally in the metamorphic rocks for the so-called quartz-workings, while the auriferous alluvial deposits are sought for in old river beds, or places where the débris of gold-bearing formations have been washed down by floods. Silver and copper are usually found associated with crystalline limestone and igneous irruptions, often appearing amidst newer tertiary formations, as at Broken Hill. Tin is gathered from streams issuing from stanniferous granites, or blasted from the parent rock. Iron is abundant in all beds. Antimony, zinc, &c., are observed under conditions observed here. The coal, resembling in places the Yorkshire beds, mainly consists of enormous masses of the true English Newcastle order.

Coal was noticed in sea cliffs a century ago. Stream tin occurs in northern river beds. Gold was first found in commercial quantities—not mere fancy specimens—early in 1851, at Ophir and Sofala of the main range. Though the yield was afterwards surpassed in Victorian mines, the precious metal is being again raised in New South Wales to an ever-increasing amount. Silver workings at Broken Hill have a world-wide reputation. Iron is wrought in the Blue Mountains.

But coal, exported from the colony to America, India, &c., will be the mainstay for future years. The secondary Hawkesbury and Wiannamatta series, near Sydney, rest upon the older Newcastle beds north of Sydney. The capital itself stands upon carboniferous sandstone. Kerosene shale is an article of export. In addition to metals, the colony can boast of diamonds and admirable building stone. There have been produced of gold forty million pounds' worth; of silver and lead, twenty; of coal, thirty; of tin, seven; and of copper, twenty-one.

Mineral Leases, for the working of coal, gold, silver, &c., are to be obtained of Government on very easy terms. Any one can dig for gold on public lands, if provided with a license, cheaply procured. Few countries in the world have such mineral wealth as New South Wales.

INDUSTRIES.—Having referred to the three great interests of the colony—the *Pastoral*, *Agricultural*, and *Mining*—as leading sources of labour, a notice of *Town Industries* will be welcomed here.

Among such are iron-foundries, metal-works, clothing factories, tanneries, turneries, boiling-down establishments, potteries, manufactories of waggons and carriages, of cement, of soap, of rope, of various goods, of chemicals, of aerated waters, of furniture, of billiard tables, of pianos and organs, of saddlery, of paper, of ice, of bone manures, of jewellery, of jam, in addition to sugar refineries, printing and bookbinding works, shipbuilding, creameries, flour-mills, saw-mills, breweries, distilleries, tobacco factories, &c. The building trades are well represented. The growth of wealth has given increased employment to those who minister to luxury and taste. The natural materials, as wool, metal, and woods, once wholly exported to Europe, are now being worked up in many town occupations. The needs of miners, farmers, and graziers afford many openings for toilers in towns.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—Originally everything required by the settlement had to be imported, and there was nothing to export. Vessels bringing out people from home had to convey both food and clothing. In that day the officers and the settlers received Government rations. When agriculture got under weigh, bread was obtained; and salt provisions ceased to be sent thither when sheep and cattle increased. When whales along the coast were caught for their oil and bone, or when seals on the rocky islets were hunted for their skins, trade in the shape of an export had a commencement. The first merchants and traders were the civil and military officers, and a very few freemen of means. Ships had then something to carry back to Europe, instead of going to India or China for a cargo home. As wool and copper came forward, shipping and commerce had a fair start.

The British navigation laws, and the chartered rights of the East India Company, opposed the growth of a colonial mercantile marine. The sealers and whalers could not carry a cargo to the best market—China. Small vessels, under 300 tons, could not take products to England. Once a venture was made with sealskins and oil, but the colonial vessel was seized by the London Customs, at a hint from the East India Company. After a struggle of many months, and when favoured by the Ministry, a compromise was effected. Ultimately, colonials were allowed free trading in colonial produce.

Sydney, with its noble harbour, its central position, and its early command of trade, has progressed in shipping. In 1896 there entered cleared from the colony 5066 steam-vessels, of 4,760,750 tons, with 1366 sailing ships, of 1,420,010 tons—a total tonnage of 6,179,760. Of this amount Australasia represented 3,060,357; other British colonies, 77,055; the United Kingdom, 2,354,580; foreign nations, 118,687.

The *Imports* for 1897 were valued at £21,744,350. In 1896, Australasia sent £2,589,826 (much being indirectly from this country); other colonies, £925,164; the United Kingdom (direct), £7,190,115; and foreigners, £3,186,371.

The *Exports*—wool, coal, gold, silver, butter, fruits, &c.—with re-exports came to £23,010,369. Of this, Australasia took £8,374,836; other colonies, £520,328; the United Kingdom, £8,375,883; foreigners, £5,739,513. The total trade (imports and exports) of this colony of about a million and a quarter inhabitants, realised, during 1897, £45,495,422.

The import custom duties for 1896 gathered in £1,406,969; and the excise, £272,102. The tariff has been lately oscillating between protective duties and free trade, as if uncertain whether to follow modern England or the practice of the United States, Canada, and the continent of Europe.

The Government changes have been remarkable. In the early times the Governor ruled absolutely, subject only to orders from the Ministry, which generally followed his suggestions. The few free people had no power; the military officers formed the juries, and the Judge-Advocate was a captain of the Marines. Though the Governor's Court was followed by the Supreme Court, yet trial by jury, as we know it, had to wait many years longer. Gradually the popular element came into practical existence.

A long struggle took place between those who came free and the men emancipated at the end of their sentences. The emancipists, however rich and educated, were debarred from many civil privileges, but eventually secured their social equality. Responsible government, granted in 1850, was a revolution in the state of affairs, though well guarded by the "nominee" system of the Upper House. With progressive extension of the suffrage, workers secured their better position.

Under the Parliamentary régime the landed or pastoral men sought to retain their former privileges, while the landless demanded the breaking-up of squatting domains, for the formation of small farms, on easy terms of purchase. The *Tariff* question also divided parties. The mercantile and squatting classes favoured *Free Trade*, but the working-classes fancied their interests lay in *Protection*. The numbers of the latter carried the day in all the colonies. Intent on improvements or changes, the Parliament, though having a large income from new taxes and duties, with the sales of land, ventured upon loans, which people here were solicitous to provide.

For many years revenue was in excess of expenditure. Public works gave abundant employment, with high wages, while capitalists increased their stores. Speculative booms brought difficulties, and an arrest of loans, bearing heavy charges, have brought on a temporary monetary collapse. But the railways made by the loans, with other improvements, remain, and the coming tide of prosperity will soon restore the balance of affairs. So energetic and intelligent a community, in a land of such resources, cannot fail to recover a healthy condition.

The customs, excise, and stamps afford sources of income. The duties and land leases swell that amount. The total revenue for 1897 was £9,107,208; the expenditure, £9,140,350. But the public debt was lately over £60,000,000. Of this, the railways alone cost over £40,000,000, yet now pay at fair interest.

Depositors have nearly nine millions in the Savings-Bank, but forty millions of money in all banks. The exports are far in excess of imports. The Government railways, nearly 2800 miles long, are opening up the country. The Government tramways in Sydney, &c., are 65 miles in length. The telegraph wires extend 32,000 miles. Good roads, harbours, and other public works were in great part aided by the loans. The debt, unlike the debt of other nations, has been incurred to develop the country, and provide work for labour, wholly in the interests of peace.

Education, in its broad sense, receives distinguished attention from Government, as in all the colonies. Formerly, State aid was only afforded to schools under the clergy of the Church of England, though afterwards extended to those of other denominations, and to some unsectarian ones. Ultimately, a general school system was established, open to all, compulsory and unsectarian. Of such schools there are now 2700. But many Roman Catholic schools, and some few of Protestants, are independent of State aid, from an opinion that dogma must be united with ordinary learning. The State has scholarships for girls and boys, to enable them to rise to Government high-schools, while bursaries facilitate the entrance of both to university instruction. Private schools exist to the number of 900. All pupils travel free to school on Government railways and tramways.

State aid is also given to evening public schools, to technical schools, to a school of mines, and a school of medicine, in addition to the Sydney university. There are affiliated to the university, colleges of the three leading denominations, as well as the non-sectarian, besides the woman's college. The liberality of Government sustains not only these institutions, but provides a technical museum for technical schools, a national art gallery, an extensive public library, and the splendid Australian museum. The colony is justly proud of its schools of learning.

The Press has had an eventful history. The first Australian paper was the *Sydney Gazette*. A couple of foolscap pages were sufficient for a number of years, and the printer was often tried for want of decent paper, stuff used for sugar parcels having repeatedly to do service. Every article or advertisement had to pass the censor of the press. Governor Darling introduced the English Press-Gagging Act, and subjected newspaper conductors to rough treatment. But, thanks to the colonial Chief-Justice, the English Fourpenny Stamp Act was successfully resisted. Security was, however, demanded in two recognisances of £300 from newspaper proprietors. Heavy fines and imprisonment were often the lot of printers and editors. As other papers entered on the stage, the struggle grew more bitter; but, though many suffered, the *freedom of the press* was at length secured, and before English writers themselves were freed. All honour to the men of New South Wales that fought and conquered. Almost every petty township has now its newspaper. The press in Sydney has a world-wide reputation.

Let it never be forgotten that the evolution of freedom, and the progress of humanity, have received their noblest illustrations in the history of New South Wales.

VICTORIA

BY E. JEROME DYER, F.R.G.S.

(Secretary of the London Chamber of Mines)

As far away from contentious Europe as a wise Providence could place a land of promise lies the world's fifth continent—Australia. Mysterious in the vast solitudes of its unknown interior, and fascinating in the boundless natural riches which daily discoveries prove to exist in amazing profusion throughout the entire land wherever man has set his foot, this island continent has an auspicious destiny, that accident might happen to delay but which nothing can intervene to destroy.

In a country so huge, though so favoured by nature, one must expect to find at least a few drawbacks—without which, indeed, nothing exists in this world—standing out the more prominently by contrast with so much that is superior; and it is so, though, happily, the country is peculiarly free from so many of those unhappy visitations and natural afflictions which the rest of the world labours under. The worst and perhaps the only serious defect which disfigures this fair land, and which is quite as bad as it is conspicuous, is the insufficiency of water. This is occasioned by irregularity of rainfall and the sparsity of permanent streams. This misfortune is not so much a feature of the south as of the territories of the north, where on occasions of drought the hot winds of the tropics parch the vegetation and bring with them many of those evils peculiar to tropical countries.

In the more mountainous south or south-east, however, a different state of things prevails. In those latitudes, where the winds and seas of the tropics commingle with those of the frigid south, lies Australia's "farm-garden"—the colony of Victoria. Luxuriating in this climatic blend, its extremes of heat and cold are very brief and never excessive. Stock thrive in the fields without shelter throughout the winter, and winter clothing may be worn with but little inconvenience throughout the summer. No country in the world can show better returns per acre without artificial aid to the soil, in the majority of those industries largely dependent upon a benign sun and mellow climate, than this colony. And it is in this direction—in pastoral pursuits and in the industries of viticulture, horticulture, and dairying—that this colony and indeed the whole of Australia are finding their destiny. I have purposely excepted one of the most important of Victoria's industries, viz. gold-mining. I do so as I am of opinion that, valuable as this industry is to the development of a country, especially in the case of this colony, it cannot rank with agriculture as an abiding pillar of a nation's permanent prosperity. In Victoria's case mining is merely incidental to the perpetuity of its industries of the soil.

Another industry that does not justify the weight attached to it in Victoria is that of manufacturing. In fact all the colonies might be included in this connection. Australia can never become a manufacturing country in the sense which identifies England, Germany, and the United States, for instance, with this great industry. There are many reasons for this, chiefly affecting the present obstacles in the path, such as the scanty population, the attraction of more payable industries and the absence or scarcity of payable iron deposits, but a barrier of no mean proportion is the lack of the one indispensable essential—cheap labour. Nor will Australia ever become the manufacturer of her own requirements to any appreciable extent in the direction of fabrics, iron, steel, and other goods, without the aid of prohibitive protective tariffs, or labour considerably cheaper than at present. The feeling, however, against any reduction in the rate of wage is so strong that only the introduction of coloured labour could meet the case. But public sentiment is so unanimous against this expedient—and perhaps rightly so in a general sense and from a certain point of view—that it is extremely unlikely of adoption or even of mild encouragement. On the other hand, excessive protection is already becoming so obnoxious to the people that such high import duties or permanent State subsidies as are necessary to enable the local manufacturer to compete against the foreign may now be considered as quite outside the consideration of all those thoughtful Australians who comprise the majority of our colonists.

I do not wish to enter into a dissertation on the labour question, but I would point out that Trades' Unionism is a strongly-felt force in Australia, and even the slightest reduction in wage or any movement in this direction is strongly and bitterly opposed by these powerful labour organisations, which already control the majority of the Colonies' parliaments. When the franchise is extended to women and when the one man one vote system becomes general this labour influence will wield a power that may prove little short of irresistible. It is not, then, on the spindles or steam-hammers of soft goods and hardware manufactures that Australia is to build up a great nation, but on the rich resources of its soil—the time-honoured, healthy, and splendidly independent life of farming the land. The country has given ample and striking proof of its capabilities in this direction, though its handful of population have done little more than peck at its riches on some of the fertile plains and valleys, which especially lie along the coast of magnificent inland territory on the south and east of the continent. On the south coast territory of South Australia, in Victoria, in the coastal districts of New South Wales, and even in the south-east of Queensland, fruits, dairy produce, corn, and wine find a climate and virgin soil fitted for their cultivation, perhaps superior to any other country, sufficient at any rate, as has been fully proved, to enable such products being exported to European markets in competition against the whole world, and with results that highly satisfy the grower.

Farther north and inland sheep and cattle farming is carried on with a success that has brought as much fame to Australia as its marvellous gold-fields, but in the far north-east we enter into a tropical region where sugar, arrowroot, cotton, tobacco, coffee, and even rice find a home which would attract the envious attention of the world with its prolific productiveness were it not for the grave and most difficult question of labour. This, however, is a wide subject, and beyond the province of this sketch. I have gone outside the purpose of this paper in my references to other colonies, as I wished to briefly show the geographical, climatic and productive relationship which the bulk of the Continent bears towards that happy little corner on the south-east, known as "the farm-garden," to which I must now return. Before doing so, however, I should explain that I have not referred to the western half of the Continent, as it is comparatively outside the pale of the Australian agricultural area. Bisect Australia longitudinally and we find the eastern half as I have described, except a partially unknown and undeveloped northern centre, but the western half is for the most part sterile, the region of extraordinary gold-fields, with here and there along the coast cattle stations and saw-mills. The agricultural tracts are, unfortunately, few and unimportant, excepting in some coast districts in the south-west (the Colony of Western Australia), where promising openings are to be found for the agriculturist, more particularly in the industries of horticulture and viticulture.

The Colony of Victoria, in the affairs of its land and financial institutions, its railways (upwards of 3000 miles now open) and public works, and its Government service, has been the subject of much harsh criticism during the last three or four years, and perhaps deservedly, but not more so than every other naturally rich country on the globe which, through the force of surpassing wealth of productiveness, must sometimes pass beyond the limit of moderation and sufficiency.

The rapid recovery of the colony from the crash of 1893 is a striking proof of the richness of the country's agricultural resources. In no shape or form had production from the soil any part in this calamity—excepting in being the chief factor in the speedy recovery which followed. It was purely a speculators' crash, due to an exaggerated opinion of values caused by the country's rapid and prosperous development. But this progress was directly due to agriculture, which, though swift in growth and highly encouraging in prospects, was not the basis upon which to establish undue speculation.

In no state of a country's history could a more crucial—and therefore a more appropriate—time be selected for testing its backbone and the recuperative potency of its resources than that which followed such a crisis as Victoria experienced in 1893. It has been a sad experience to many, but the disaster has proved of incalculable good to the colony.

Now let us review as succinctly as possible the records of the last few years, especially since the crisis referred to. One of the most remarkable of the many changes which mark this critical period has occurred in Melbourne, the capital of the colony, where there were within a few thousands of half a million of people in 1891, while the population of the colony did not exceed 1,250,000. Within four years the population of the city decreased 40,000, while that of the colony as a whole showed no diminution. The people had gone back to the land, and the recent revival in mining and large increases in exports of farm produce are some of the excellent results.

In 1894 there were 23,332 officers in the public service annually drawing £3,000,420. The year 1896 shows a reduction of 1106 in the number of employees, and a saving of £290,178 per annum in salaries. This is remarkable retrenchment in two years, and a grim earnest of the colony's determination to place its public service on a footing commensurate with revenue and the reasonable necessities of the State.

But the most striking proof of the colony's emergence into the broad path of assured success is shown in the trade returns. Since 1880, and for many years previous to 1880, until 1893, the imports were each year greatly in excess of exports. In fact, for fifty-seven years previous to 1893, imports exceeded exports at the average rate of £1,500,000 in value per year. In the year mentioned, however, exports exceeded imports by £24,700, in 1894 by £1,555,900, and in 1895 exports exceeded imports by £2,075,300.[1] Yet in this last-mentioned year, owing to Australia's curse—an almost unprecedented drought—the wheat yield was only 5,000,000 bushels compared with 11,000,000 the preceding year. The large imports previous to 1893 were by no means warranted by the legitimate requirements of the colony, but in a measure represented borrowed money invested in the country's development. The safety of such investment is now being manifested in the surplus millions which the colony is showing in its exports as compared with imports. The chief reductions in mercantile imports are seen in machinery, grain, fruits, beers, spirits, wines, leather, timber, tobacco and cigars, oilman's stores, wearing apparel, and manufactures of metals. Those requirements are now being largely supplied by the colony itself. In beers, spirits, and wines, in which —compared with some recent years—the imports have fallen off to nearly one-third, the people are largely manufacturing and consuming—and even exporting —their own. Notwithstanding the falling off of imports and stagnation in trade during the recent unparalleled depression, the total shipping tonnage for the three years ending 1895 increased by over 316,000 tons, showing a steady increase each year. This was undoubtedly due to the increased output of agricultural products, as it needs no argument to show that decreasing imports do not increase shipping.

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[1] In 1897, the excess of exports over imports was £1,285,188.—[E. J. D.]

Victoria's greatest export staple is wool, which increased from £2,551,000 in 1893 to £2,783,200 in 1895. The total export is actually more than double these figures, which only represent the product of the colony. The balance represents the output of the Riverina district of New South Wales, which passes through Melbourne as the nearest port. Still Victoria is justified in a measure in laying some claim to the Riverina production, as a large proportion of it belongs to Victorian capitalists. New South Wales, Queensland, and New Zealand produce considerably more wool respectively than Victoria; New South Wales, in fact, producing four times the quantity. Australasia produces one-fourth the total wool production of the world and two-thirds the total imports of the United Kingdom and Europe.

There is no doubt that as soon as Victoria has realised her mistake in devoting so much attention to wheat-growing in unsuitable districts the wool output will largely increase—combined with the systematic production of mutton for export. I do not refer to wheat-growing generally in the colony, but to the industry in certain districts where in the best seasons the yield brings the general average very low. As a pioneer crop to prepare the land for pastoral pursuits wheat-cropping pays splendidly; but the mistake is that this first crop is often so good and encouraging that the farmer continues it in many cases much to his loss. A comparison of Victoria's average yield with that of other wheat-producing colonies and foreign countries, will show that though the expense of cultivating may be very low—as it is—the profit cannot be satisfactory in the districts I refer to, for constant cropping is impossible. Victoria's average per acre for, say, the last six years compared with other countries, is as follows:—

Victoria . .	9¾	bushels	Argentine . .	18	bushels
New South Wales	11½	,,	Austria . .	17	,,
Queensland .	14¼	,,	France . .	17	,,
Tasmania . .	17¾	,,	Germany . .	23	,,
New Zealand .	23	,,	Norway . .	27	,,
Canada . .	17	,,	Sweden . .	25	,,
Western States .	16	,,	United States .	13	,,
United Kingdom	26	,,	Russia (in Europe)	8	,,

The only country amongst these lower than Victoria is Russia, where the peasantry do not appear to reap that contentment and plenty out of the industry which we would like to see the lot of *our* wheat-growing countrymen. There are districts in the colony where wheat-growing can compare with any of the above-mentioned countries, but in those localities where droughts are frequent and the general average is below 10 bushels, and where the corn is only stripped and no return derived from the straw, I think the industry means heartbreaking anxiety, to which I might add comparative poverty, if not absolute failure. Were means adopted to combine this branch of agriculture with the helpful and highly-remunerative industries of dairying, pig-farming, fruit-growing, and other subsidiary branches, where it is possible, success would be certain, for it has already been experienced with the most gratifying results in many instances. While wheat-growing in Victoria meets with such indifferent success, though I wish it to be distinctly understood that I only refer to certain districts, the cultivation of oats, barley, peas, hay, and potatoes have been found more generally satisfactory. The yields and prices—as compared with wheat of late years—have not been sensational, but they have been fair, and where dairying and pig-farming have been carried on in conjunction they have been the means of rapidly transferring the farmers' accounts to the credit side of the ledger. It is to this systematic method of pursuing agriculture that the majority of Victoria's successful farmers owe the prosperity which they enjoy to-day.

The great industries, however, which stamp the colony with the eminent purpose which nature undoubtedly intended her to fulfil are dairying, horticulture, and viticulture. It was natural in the first years of our colony's settlement that our sturdy and indomitable colonisers should go first to the products of the earth most easily garnered and won, and ready in their native condition for consumption and export, and thus pioneers gave their energies to the great grass harvest and the ready gold. Wool and gold were their chief and, indeed, their only staples. In later days when the rich and prolific nature of the soil became better known, and the necessity for the raw product of the great staff of life became urgent, wheat was added to these staples. The pioneering generation passed away, forests were removed, roads made, lands developed, and the extraordinary fertility of the colony's soil laid bare. An experimental era then set in. The suitability of climate at various points was tested, soils were analysed, and trials made with plants and seeds. The success achieved realised all that experts had affirmed, and much more than the colonists anticipated. But local demand was restricted, and the world's great markets were far distant. The hopeful farmers grew faint-hearted, and many let their cows run into beef, and the gardens which they had grown in their zeal and confidence be swallowed up in the mass of vegetation which the fruitful soil was ever ready to put forth. The easily-produced and readily-marketable corn, wool, and live stock again received the chief attention. But far-seeing men saw the possibilities; foreign countries were crying out for food, the bursting soil was crying out for cultivation, and the needs being great, paternal governments arose to afford the means and point out the way. The story need be told no further here, but a few words may be said upon the developments which followed.

The greatest strides amongst all Victoria's amazing agricultural developments have been made in dairying. But a hand-breadth cloud on the edge of the sky six years ago, it now lifts itself in silvery wreaths and noble proportion far above the horizon, reflecting a radiance of prosperity and contentment over the whole colony.

Previous to 1889 the product of this branch of agriculture was confined to local and intermittent intercolonial requirements; though occasional experimental shipments to London had been made, always attended unfortunately with most disastrous results. But the surplus output was small and most irregular in quality—the latter being a fatal obstacle to the success of an export trade. It was at this time impossible for it to be otherwise, as each farmer made his own butter according to such system as he thought best and most convenient to practise.

The Government made its first start at the helm of this industry at the Melbourne Centennial Exhibition of 1888–89, where a complete working dairy was erected replete with the most modern appliances. Farmers were invited to inspect this practical exhibit, and hear lectures delivered by experts upon dairying and factory management. Previous to this a gentleman (the writer of this article) had visited New Zealand, where the co-operative and creamery system had just been introduced from Europe, and had written several newspaper articles and lectured throughout Victoria upon the advantages of the system. He ultimately succeeded in establishing in Melbourne, with nearly one hundred creameries now working throughout the colony, the first factory on such a principle in Victoria, and what is now the largest co-operative dairy farmers, factory company in the world. The Government followed up the exhibition's practical display by sending it round to all the dairying districts in the colony in charge of an expert dairyman, who lectured the farmers upon systematic dairying, while illustrating his remarks by working cream separators, butter-workers, churns and other parts of his exhibit. By these means the factory system became established in Victoria. But farmers are difficult to persuade to give up old-fashioned ideas upon which they and those before them thrived fairly well, and while realising that the system had advantages, they hesitated to engage in an enterprise the success of which depended upon the safe transit of butter through tropical seas to markets 13,000 miles away—and upon the prices of which, as returned by their agents, they had to entirely rely.

The Government again extended a helping hand, and offered a bonus of 3d. per lb. upon all butter exported which realised 1s. per lb. or over in a British or foreign market, 2d. per lb. for all which realised 10d. and over, and 1d. for all fetching 7d. per lb. Probably owing to this a timorous but satisfactory start was made in 1890.

	s.	*d.*	
In 1890, 400 tons were imported which realised	0	9½	per lb.
,, 1891, 1000 ,, ,, ,, ,,	0	10½	,,
,, 1892, 2140 ,, ,, ,, ,,	1	0	,,
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while in 1895 the export reached over 11,584 tons, valued at £1,081,240. The total export of all the Australasian Colonies being 15,670 tons, valued at about £1,450,000.

Previous to 1890 the methods and appliances adopted in making butter were so imperfect that 70 per cent. of the butter made in the colony was declared bad, and the majority of it was sold as grease and for soap manufacture. Even when the export started, the quantity of inferior butter shipped disclosed the fact that something yet was wanting. The Government thereupon secured cold storage depôts near the wharfs in which all butter had to be stored a few days and reduced to a certain temperature before shipping. The Government, further, made contracts for the season with shipping companies at certain rates, so that space would always be available for such butter as it was approximated would be exported. Officers were appointed to inspect and grade the butter before shipment, and all that passed inspection was branded with a Government brand according to its grade. Though this interference and watchfulness on the part of the Government was harshly criticised by many, its beneficial effect was far reaching in these early days of the butter export trade. The bonus expired in 1893, but the quality of the article has been established in England, and a satisfactory and almost illimitable market has been assured the dairy farmers of the colony. The Government are determined to insure the safety of this industry and have promoted the manufacture of ensilage, the growth of special fodders, the selection of the best breeds of cattle, the rigid inspection of dairy herds, the sanitary condition of dairies, the expert instruction of dairy farmers, the export and inspection of only uniform shipments graded as to quality, and have arranged specially low freight rates with shipping companies.

The manufacture of cheese in Victoria is another branch of dairying which is certain to soon occupy considerable attention, but it has not proved so remunerative as butter, as the latter is now conducted by aid of the creamery system, which allows the farmer to have the skim milk, while cheese-making does not permit the farmer to raise calves and pigs so well as by having the skim milk for such purpose. But in some districts cheese-making is carried on extensively, and it is growing. The Government have taken similar steps in this direction as with butter, but not with the same splendid results. Still it has almost as great possibilities as butter, and the country is admirably adapted for it. In 1895 the colony's export of cheese reached 1,000,000 lbs. weight, and as the Agricultural Department is educating the farmers upon the various systems practised throughout the world, an early expansion of this industry may be expected.

There are other industries connected with dairying which have not yet received the attention they deserve in the colony, but which offer prospects quite as remunerative though not so extensive as the butter industry. The chief of these are pig farming and the manufacture of condensed milk. Space will not permit me to refer at any length to these subjects, but I might point out that skim milk at its price in the colony is more valuable than all foods for pigs, yet it is difficult to convince the majority of Victoria's farmers that at the creamery price of ½d. per gallon skim milk offers an opportunity to breed and rear pigs that is unequalled in any other country—taking all circumstances into consideration.

In the matter of condensed milk it must occasion some astonishment to many to hear that though fresh milk is cheaper in Victoria than in any other country in the world, there are no condensed milk factories in the colony. There is one establishment which manufactures an unsweetened concentrated article, and a very fine preparation it is, but like fresh milk its life is short when exposed to air, and it will not keep in hot countries. But the ordinary sweetened condensed article of commerce finds large and expanding sale in the gold-fields of Western Australia, in South Africa, and Asiatic countries and islands. Yet it is not made in Victoria, where there is every facility for the manufacture and surety of highly profitable returns.[1]

In horticulture Victoria offers one of the most attractive fields in the world. The climate appears to have been designed by nature for this especial industry, and the soil could not be better fitted were it prepared specially by the artifices of expert chemistry. No country in the world can show a more superb variety of those fruits so dear to British taste or of primer quality by natural unaided growth and maturation than this "farm-garden" colony. Apples, pears, plums, peaches, cherries, apricots, grapes, figs, oranges, lemons, nuts, and a large variety of berries thrive with exuberance, and yield most abundantly.

In the years 1889–91 the Government voted £55,000 to be apportioned amongst vine-growers and horticulturists in the shape of about £3 for every acre planted according to certain conditions. This lent such stimulus to planting that in 1895 there were upwards of 50,000 acres under fruit trees, not including gardens or orchards kept for pleasure or private use. But having been instrumental in increasing the output of fruit, the Government felt compelled to aid in providing a market, for such are a Government's responsibilities once it begins to mother enterprises outside its ordinary or legitimate functions. Therefore in 1894 a bonus of two shillings per case was offered on all green fruits exported to approved British and foreign ports, providing such bonus did not exceed 25 per cent. of the sale price. This bonus has been the means of compensating fruit-growers for losses sustained in opening up British and foreign markets.

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[1] Since this Lecture was delivered (at the Royal Colonial Institute, 17th November 1896) a Condensed Milk Factory has been established in the colony.—[E. J. D.]

As in all other agricultural produce the fruit season in Australia is exactly opposite that of Europe and North America, so that the fruits of the colonies arrive in these home markets in their season of scarcity. This is a unique feature in Australia's position as a food supplier to the markets of the United Kingdom and Europe. And it is one to which the colonies must chiefly attribute the illimitable prospect open to her food-producing industries.

If there is one industry in Victoria that has a future of wide expansion and great promise it is viticulture. In 1873 the area under vines was 5222 acres, yielding about 560,000 gallons. Twenty years later it was over 30,000 acres, yielding upwards of 1½ million gallons.[1] This closely approaches the total output and area of South Australia, New South Wales, and Queensland. Rapid as this expansion has been it will not compare with that which the activity of the vine-growers promises in the near future. Some years ago the bulk of the wines exported was the product of the warm climate of the northern districts, where strongly alcoholic wines are largely produced. At the present time such wines are chiefly used for blending purposes in these home markets, but in the early years of the industry they were sent straight into consumption here, and consequently obtained a reputation for being too full-bodied, crude, and harsh to the palate. This opinion grew into a prejudice against all Australian wines, and this bias, most unjustly, still lingers. It is well known that there are not wanting many who imagine it to be to their interest to foster this prejudice, but it is being steadily trodden down, though not without many years of persistent and patient endeavour. The chief competitors were continental wine merchants and producers, and it was not until the *vignerons* of Australia boldly entered the Wine Exhibitions of the Continent and obtained the chief awards for red and white wines against the best those old countries could produce that the wines of the colonies obtained just recognition. The latest triumph was at the recent exhibition at Brussels, where a Victorian wine obtained the highest award available for wines—the Diploma of the Grand Cross. Another recent victory was at the Marseilles Exhibition, where another Victorian wine secured the coveted Diploma of Le Grand Prix. These distinctions surely indicate that Victoria can produce wines at least equal to the best Continental.

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[1] In 1897 the yield of wine from this acreage was estimated by the Government statistician to be 2,500,000 gallons, or 1,000,000 gallons more than in 1893.—[E. J. D.]

Another report that has obtained currency in this country is that Australians do not drink their own wines. Statistics easily disprove this—at least with respect to Victoria. The consumption in this colony averages considerably over one gallon per head per year—a consumption only exceeded by five other countries in the world outside Australia. This is further confirmed by the quantity exported as compared with the production.

By dint of careful selection of vines and the most studious attention to the manufacture and manipulation of the wines, Victoria has succeeded in producing a wine of fineness and delicacy that bears no resemblance whatever to the crude and harsh wines of years ago. Were the British consumers of taste to lay aside their partiality for a little while and accept these wines with the firm intention of dealing with them on their just merits, it would result in considerable advantage to both sides.

It is a matter of surprise to the people of the colonies that, amongst the many industries and enterprises in Australia to which the British capitalist has directed his attention, he has overlooked that of wine. I question if there is a single wine property in Australia held by a British investor. Yet there is no commodity that offers such a good asset, for, like money in a sound interest-paying bank, it improves by keeping it stored. Its value may briefly be described by stating that sound young wine is purchasable at less than 1s. per gallon in Victoria in quantities of hundreds of thousands of gallons, and in less than three years it is readily saleable at 3s. per gallon or even more. I mention this expressly, as during the last few years thousands of acres have been planted in Victoria by small *vignerons*, who cannot afford to store their wine or build expensive cellars, and they have recently been selling their vintages at as low a figure as 7d. per gallon—the cost price being 6d.

Grape-wine brandy is another product that I would like to say a great deal about had I not already nearly reached my limit in this paper. There is no purer brandy than that manufactured from grape wine, and I speak advisedly when I say that there is no country in the world where this article can be produced so cheaply as in Victoria. This is due to the high percentage of natural alcohol in the majority of the wines, the excellence of the climate, and the rich productive nature of the soil. It has been said that France is a competitor in this article which Australia will find it difficult to surmount. As a matter of fact France is a very small producer of grape-wine brandy and a still smaller exporter of it.

In 1894, France produced 2,434,500 hectolitres of alcohol, and in 1895 only 2,252,800. A hectolitre equals about twenty-two gallons. Of these quantities only one-twelfth of that produced in 1894 was real brandy, and of that produced in 1895 only one-thirty-seventh. The total export of alcohol to England from France for 1894 was 145,500 hectolitres, and in 1895, 125,300, the balance being consumed locally and exported to other countries. As the total production of wine brandy in the two years mentioned only amounted to 226,200 hectolitres, and the exports of alcohol made from various products for the same period are given at 349,700, if it were assumed that all real brandy was exported there would still be a considerable difference to make up. As a fact, however, the larger proportion of the spirit made from wine in France is used for blending purposes, so it would appear that England gets very little of it. I am told by London brandy merchants that there is a growing scarcity of this article in England, so we may confidently believe that Victoria has a wide field before her for this excellent article.

I cannot conclude my remarks upon Victoria, which are in fact all too brief, without a short reference to that industry which has latterly really done much harm and yet has been the source of almost fabulous wealth to the colony—viz., gold-mining. The harm I refer to is the attention and interest it has diverted from the more regular and satisfactory and generally more remunerative industries of agriculture. Up to 1896 about 64,000,000 ounces of gold, roughly estimated in value at £244,000.000, have been raised in Victoria.[1] Since gold was discovered in 1851, up to the year 1896 the Australasian group of colonies have added to the world's supply more than £388,000,000 worth of the precious metal, Victoria alone being responsible for no less than £244,000,000 worth of that magnificent aggregate. I wonder what country can even nearly approach this record, taking the same period into consideration? About three-quarters of this quantity have been from quartz, which have uniformly averaged half an ounce to the ton, the total cost of producing being about two-fifths. Much of this has been raised from very deep levels, the value of working which has been placed beyond all doubt so far as this colony is concerned. There are at least six mines averaging over 3000 feet in depth, all paying, while some are over 3400 feet. Since 1890, Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland show a steady increase in gold yield, though Victoria leads by showing a return for 1895 of 740,000 ounces, for 1896 of 805,000 ounces, for 1897 of 812,765 ounces, and for 1898 of 837,258 ounces. The total gold yield for Australasia is higher than any other country in the world, the next in order being the United States, South Africa, and Russia.

As an example of the amazing richness of Victoria's gold-mining industry, I might quote the yields of the following companies:—

The Carlisle Co., Bendigo	£1,400,000
The Garden Gully United, Bendigo	1,384,000
Johnson's Reef Co., Bendigo	1,124,000
Great Extended Hustlers, Bendigo	940,000
The Band and Albion, Ballarat	2,078,000
The Long Tunnel Co., Walhalla	2,525,376
Eight mines at Stawell, aggregate	4,018,884
A group of twenty mines, Ballarat	6,000,000

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[1] Up to 1899, the total value of gold raised in Victoria exceeded £252,000,000.

Points of the utmost importance affecting gold-mining in Victoria which should be weighed as compared with other fields are:—

1. Victorian gold is worth from £4 to £4, 3s. 4d. per ounce as compared with other colonies and countries, which average in many instances as low as £3, 10s.

2. Wood exists in the greatest abundance.

3. Water is more often a troublesome quantity than a matter of anxious necessity. In fact there is always more than enough.

4. Excepting in a few isolated cases, railways pass within sight of all the Victorian mining fields, and where this is not the case there are good roads, and transport in every case is easy and cheap.

5. Lastly, I would point out there are new mining discoveries being made every day of amazing richness.

The Government have aided prospecting very generously the last two or three years, and extraordinary finds are being constantly reported. Every newspaper that arrives from Melbourne contains some startling headlines concerning these marvellously rich finds. But mining is an industry that must have capital for development, and of late years this has been the want in Victoria.

While on this subject I will conclude with a short explanation concerning the present state of this industry in Victoria. Some years ago a feeling arose in England that Victoria retained all its best properties for local enterprise and investment, and only sent the doubtful to London. There may have been some little truth in this at that time, but many new fields have been opened up since, and numberless discoveries have been made, for only a very small proportion of Victoria's mining area has been properly prospected. But the chief factor militating against local enterprise has been the depression through which Victoria has passed during the last three years. Little money has been in circulation for mining development, and much has been locked up in reconstructed financial institutions that might otherwise have been expended in gold-mining, which has always paid well in Victoria. Still a certain measure of development had to be carried on though capital for the purpose became scarce. The old fields, naturally, were unaffected by the depression, for they were—and had been for years—paying regularly, but new fields entered on a precarious time. People hung on, for they saw the rich prospects ahead. This brings us up to the present. The new fields are there with all their promising prospects, and people still hang on, but they cannot do more, for they want capital. New finds are daily being made, but local enterprise is still hampered by the effects of the recent depression, and they lack funds to open out these promising concerns.

I would have liked to have referred to many other industries making splendid headway in the colony, including that of the promising meat export, and also the rapidly-developing coal-fields and tobacco, sugar-beet, bee and poultry farming, hop, flax, linseed and olive growing, the culture of oil-seeds, scents, and silk, but I have already far exceeded the space which was allotted me for this paper.

I would finally conclude with these remarks. Victoria has a total area of upwards of 56,000,000 acres, about equal to that of the United Kingdom, which has a population of about 40,000,000, while Victoria endeavours to cope with its huge area with a scanty population of one million and a quarter. It can easily be understood, therefore, that there are millions of acres in the colony available for occupation, which the Government are so anxious to develop that they are prepared to hand over certain sized sections, and actually capitalise desirable settlers, in order that the great Australian requirement—population—might be achieved. For instance, the Government have just established a Crédit Foncier scheme by which means farmers may obtain loans on most favourable terms. Advances are made through the Government Savings-Bank to farmers up to 75 per cent. on the value of their land. The rate is 6 per cent., and the amount includes interest, working expenses, and a 1 per cent. sinking fund by which the loan is completely repaid by the end of a certain period.

I have endeavoured to point out the splendid possibilities of the country by a brief sketch of the success of the past, which, after all, has only been an experimental or developing era, for the colony is yet in its infancy.

Though mining has a brilliant outlook, and is as safe an industry in Victoria as mining can be or is anywhere in the world, it is in the absolutely certain prospects of its agricultural industries that the colony is to secure that plenitude of comfort and prosperity which its people see plainly ahead of them to-day, notwithstanding the recent speculative reverses which brought upon them so many evil days a few years ago. But the people of Victoria are not selfish, and if their kindred across the seas do not accept their invitation to share the blessings of plenty which this bright land affords them, they hope that the varied and healthful products of Australia's "farm-garden" may continue increasingly to gladden the hearts and comfort the bodies of their fellow-Britons "at Home" whose lot in life might not be so fortunate as theirs.

QUEENSLAND

By CHARLES SHORTT DICKEN, C.M.G.

The enterprising spirit of the British race for colonisation is its glory; and its victories of peaceful settlement have enriched humanity. Still more, and of greater importance, is the natural gift possessed by the British race, in a measure far beyond that of any European nation, for bringing into harmony the conflicting elements of barbarous and semi-civilised States, and successfully inaugurating and consolidating law and order among coloured people in the far-away continents and islands of the Eastern and Western Hemispheres, which contribute to the completeness and solidarity of our great Empire. India, the Crown Colonies of the Straits Settlements, Ceylon, and Mauritius in the East, each with its own peculiar constitution and laws; that great Dominion of Canada in North America, with its mighty machinery of responsible government derived from the Crown; the self-governing colony of New Zealand in the South Pacific Ocean, with its glorious climate for Europeans and its remarkably interesting aborigines, the Maoris, all testify to the special genius of our race for colonisation and its resulting civilisation. Among the greatest of our self-governing Colonies are those of the continent of Australia, one of which is the subject of this article.

A glance at the map shows that Queensland occupies the north-eastern part of the Continent, having a coast-line to the South Pacific Ocean of

1500 miles, from Point Danger in the south to Cape York in the north, and having also about 750 miles of sea-board on the Gulf of Carpentaria. The breadth of the colony is about 900 miles near the southern boundary, comprising altogether an area of 668,497 square miles, or 427,838,080 acres, or, for the purposes of comparison, about 11½ times the size of England and Wales, and 22 times the size of either Scotland or Ireland. Before entering on its history as a separate colony, it is well to give a brief description of some earlier interesting particulars about Queensland. In 1606, Admiral Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, with two ships crossed the Pacific Ocean from Peru, to discover the great South Land which early navigators believed to exist. He saluted some islands, probably the New Hebrides group, under the mistaken notion that they were the "Terra Australis Incognita," and then choosing one course for further discoveries, he directed his lieutenant, Luis Vaes de Torres, to take the second ship and go westward. History relates that the admiral's crew subsequently mutinied, compelling his return to Peru. Lieutenant Torres, however, continued his course westward along the south coast of New Guinea, and unwittingly discovered the continent of Australia, at its northernmost point, now called Cape York, and then stood away north through the mazy channels formed by the numerous islands in those seas. The hydrographer to the British Admiralty subsequently designated the strait between Australia and New Guinea by the name of Torres, in honour of that officer, who claimed the islands under the flag of Spain. That country, however, was not destined to enjoy sovereignty over them. It would occupy too much space to give details of the successive discoveries of portions of Australia by the Dutchman, Peter Nuyt, in 1627, Tasman in 1642, and, finally, the Englishman, Dampier, in 1688. I therefore pass on to what is really the discovery of Australia by Captain James Cook in 1770, who in that year touched at Botany Bay, and then sailed northward to Moreton Bay, and up the coast of Queensland, of which he made an excellent chart, as far north as Torres Strait. On the site of the Cooktown of to-day, at the mouth of the Endeavour River, where he, the intrepid navigator, was compelled to beach his vessel in order to repair a leak, a monument has been erected within the last few years to his memory, and is now a conspicuous object near the place where he landed. The favourable report which Captain Cook gave of Australia on his return to England induced the Government of that day to transport their criminals there instead of to America, and in 1788 Captain Arthur Phillip landed at Sydney with his first company of prisoners, and in a solemn manner took possession of the whole continent in the name of Britain. This great event, however, happened only a few days before the arrival of some French vessels with the same object in view. Thus, by a fortunate coincidence, a new world was added to the dominion of the Anglo-Saxon race, enabling their descendants to expand and become the ruling power in the Southern Seas. Up to 1859, the whole of the territory now known as Queensland formed a part of the Colony of New South Wales, but on the 10th of December of that year the home Government granted separation from the parent colony, with its descriptive name, Queensland, and endowed it with all the privileges of responsible government. At that time there were only 25,000 persons in the new colony, owning 3,166,202 sheep and 432,800 cattle, whereas the latest statistics give the population at 460,550, the number of sheep, 19,856,959, and 6,822,401 cattle, proving that the confidence placed in the people of the colony by that act of self-government has not been misplaced. The colony has indeed flourished in a remarkable degree under the fostering direction of successive ministries.

Before entering upon the subject of the present position of the colonists, and the suitability of the country generally for colonisation by British people, it may be as well to consider the effect our occupation of Australia has had on the aboriginal inhabitants. For many centuries the Australian aboriginal has lived in the midst of very adverse surroundings, tribe warring against tribe, each possessing a very restricted area, and in the absence of any agricultural knowledge, they were necessarily entirely dependent on the skilful use of their native weapons in the chase, to supply them with animal food for subsistence. Then droughts were of frequent occurrence in the interior; the tribes, therefore, had great difficulty in obtaining sufficient game to supply their daily wants, and their whole time was occupied in search for the same. This, together with their very strong belief in the supernatural power of demons and of their own wizards, amounting almost at times to a paralysing effect on their actions, tended to keep them in a state of degradation, and prevented them from attaining to any of the higher qualities which the native races of some other countries, such as the Maoris of New Zealand, for instance, possess, and they have, therefore, been rightly characterised as almost the lowest race among mankind. Although, generally speaking, they are an unattractive and uninteresting race, they yet possess a keen sense of the ridiculous, and many of their habits are worthy of attention, especially their intuitive knowledge of travelling in the "bush," tracking persons and animals, and their methods of finding water in the arid parts of the continent. Many of the early explorers have given their experiences on the subject of water-quest, from the traditional knowledge of the aborigines, who have lived, roamed, and hunted in the waterless wilds of the interior. This knowledge extended to the discovery of water in the roots and stems of certain trees, such as the currajong, desert-oak, bloodwood of Central Australia, and in several plants, and to the finding of it in the hollows of trees, more especially in those of the desert-oak. The presence of wild animals, such as the kangaroo, wallaby, and dingo, may be taken as indications of water being near; but too much reliance in this connection cannot be placed upon them, as they are sometimes encountered long distances from water. The aboriginal conserves water in "rock holes" to the extent of several gallons, which are either natural or made by a process of pounding out the rock in such a place as will secure a good quantity of rain off the face of large rocks. When the tribes move from one place to another, the men carry only their weapons, the women bearing the small children ("pickaninnies") on their backs, with their opossum cloaks and the drinking-water, in a vessel hollowed out of wood, called a "coolamin," which is capable of holding about a gallon or so.

It is interesting to see an aboriginal climb a tree for an opossum, flying squirrel, or other animals which hide in tree trunks. If the tree is of small circumference, so as to enable him to get a grip of it, he proceeds by cutting notches in the bark left and right for his toes to rest in, and so works his way up to the branches. If, however, it should be of great girth, he provides himself with a line about sixteen or eighteen feet long from the scrub, one end of which he makes into a knot, and then throwing it round the tree trunk, catches it, and holding the knotted end in his left hand, he twists the other end round his right arm, and planting his right foot against the tree, with his arms fully extended and his body bent back as far as possible away from the tree, he begins his ascent. He keeps throwing the "kamin" or vine rope up the tree, and ascends to all appearances quite easily, carrying the tomahawk in his mouth, or slung round his neck; but the native troopers, when I have seen them climbing, usually carry the naked tomahawk in a strap round the waist. They become very expert at tree-climbing. I never saw or heard of any accident from this cause, although, no doubt, there must occasionally be some disaster. There is, however, no hesitation about going up a tree in this primitive fashion if there is any wild honey or mammal to be secured.

It is difficult, of course, to arrive at anything like an accurate census of the aboriginal population of Queensland, but it is roughly estimated there are about 20,000. In the northern parts they are most numerous, and there are still many tribes there who have had little or no acquaintance with the white man. It therefore behoves the gold prospectors and others engaged in scientific exploration to exercise great care and watchfulness, to avoid being surprised and attacked by these warlike tribes, as they seldom spare the lives of any who are so unfortunate as to be captured by them. Some instances are known where white men have been treated kindly by them, the most notable, perhaps, in North Queensland being the case of James Morrell, who was wrecked in 1846 on board the *Peruvian*, during a voyage from Sydney to China. Of twenty-one persons who left the wreck alive, only seven landed near Cape Cleveland. These consisted of the captain and his wife, one passenger, two sailors, a boy, and Morrell. The passenger and two sailors died shortly after landing, the remaining four were taken by the blacks. After two years the boy died, and about six weeks later the captain, and four days after his wife. Morrell lived with these blacks for seventeen years in the neighbourhood of Mount Elliott, during which time he suffered great hardships. When the country began to be occupied by "squatters," with their flocks of sheep and herds of cattle, he heard of it from some of his tribe, and he then determined to take an opportunity of making himself known to his countrymen, which, after much difficulty, he managed to do in January 1863. He was taken to Bowen, Port Denison, and afterwards was given an appointment in the Customs there, where I saw him in 1864. He was a small, dark-complexioned man, and a martyr to rheumatism, through being without clothes for so many years, and sleeping on wet ground. His long residence with the blacks made him uncommunicative, but his experiences with the blacks were interesting when he could be persuaded to speak about them, and he was looked upon with much pride and admiration by the early inhabitants of Bowen. After his return to civilisation he married, and died in 1865, prematurely old, leaving a wife and son.

Before quitting the subject of the aboriginals, or "blacks," as they are more familiarly called, I will just refer to one of their more distinctive pastimes. This is known as the *corroboree* or native dance, a thing well worth seeing. I arranged for one to be given on the Queen's birthday in 1879, near Townsville, in honour of the visit of the Bishop of North Queensland. On the day in question, the blacks had come to the court-house, as is their usual custom, for a new blanket each, and in the evening we visited their camp to witness their characteristic dance. The men had their bodies shining with red, yellow, or white paint, and their hair stiffened with a plentiful application of beeswax. During the dance—and a wild and weird performance it is—the women rest upon their heels, with their legs close together, beating their open hands upon their laps. Near them are two or three male musicians, who sit with crossed legs, singing a song, and accompanying themselves by beating together a boomerang and a "nolla nolla." The dancers perform about ten or twelve at a time. They approach the orchestra, twisting and turning with the music, and continually giving forth grunting sounds and cries, in harmony with the music and their movements, and when they are close to the musicians, they break off for a moment with a laugh, and retire, and then begin over again. The dance has few varieties, but when once seen it is never forgotten.

Notwithstanding what I have said about the aborigines, Queensland is emphatically the true home of the European settler. Law and order are well established, property and life are as safe as in any part of the United Kingdom. I have only given this glance of the old aboriginal life in order to convey some idea of the difficulties that early settlers and explorers have had to contend with. It is a matter of regret that as European settlement advances, so from various causes do the native races recede, and it may be safely predicted that in the course of a few generations the entire aboriginal race will have almost disappeared from Queensland, as it has already disappeared from Tasmania, and to which end it is rapidly approaching in both New South Wales and Victoria, notwithstanding the efforts of successive governments in all these colonies to save the native races from extinction.

I will now proceed as briefly as possible to describe the present condition of the colony and its suitability for European colonisation. In considering this, it must be borne in mind that the comparatively short time of thirty-seven years only has elapsed since it came into existence as a separate colony, and the facts and figures which I shall present to you will show what marvellous progress has been made in that time by a small population. Geographically, Queensland has great advantages. It possesses a long coast-line, which has been very helpful in opening up the colony the more rapidly, as settlement has taken place all along from south to north instead of population having to filter through a single port, as in the cases of Sydney, Melbourne, and Adelaide. It has also had the further advantage of offering facilities for making railways to the interior from three distinct districts—that is, from Brisbane in the south, Rockhampton in the centre, and Townsville in the north. I think it was the celebrated engineer, George Stephenson, who said in the early days of railway construction in England, "Let the country make the railroads, and the railroads will make the country." If Mr. Stephenson, in the infant days of railways, could foresee that the development of the railway system of England would enormously increase and benefit the trade of the United Kingdom, at a time when the high-roads were perfect, and the canals and natural waterways connected its ports with the centres of the manufacturing and coal-producing districts, and when there appeared to be every facility for transacting business conveniently and expeditiously, how much more true must his words be of railway construction in a country like Queensland, where the rivers do not extend far into the interior for navigation, and where distances are great and settlements sparse.

It is only necessary to read the early history of Australia to perceive how slowly it progressed until the railway era. I do not, of course, for one moment assert that railway construction has been the sole cause of Queensland's rapid progress, but there is no doubt that carrying the railways into the interior has been a great factor in causing closer settlement of the land for agriculture and grazing, and for placing producers in easier communication with the coast for export purposes. The railways belong to the Government, and are considered one of its valuable assets. The first railway was authorised in 1863, from Ipswich at the head of navigation on the Brisbane River to Dalby and

Warwick *via* Toowoomba; and in 1864, the railway from Rockhampton, on the Fitzroy River, to Westwood, a distance of thirty miles, was proposed, and although farther extensions were subsequently authorised, yet so slowly was construction beyond this point carried out, that when I came down country in 1874, I had to ride as far as Gogango, within thirty-eight miles of Rockhampton, before taking the train. In 1878 the railway from Townsville to Charters Towers was commenced. These three main lines are now extended due west from their respective termini at Brisbane, Rockhampton, and Townsville, to Cunnamulla, 612 miles, to Longreach, 426 miles, and towards Winton, 318 miles respectively. Other short railways have been made from various places on the coast, such as Maryborough, Mackay, Bowen, Cairns, Cooktown, and Normanton. The coast-line going north, connecting Brisbane with Rockhampton, is open for traffic as far as Gladstone. The latest returns give a total railway mileage of 2741 miles open for traffic.

The question may well be asked, What is the effect of this great railroad extension and expenditure in regard to the increased production and export of the colony's products? and it is satisfactory to be able to answer it from the treasurer's financial statement, delivered on the 18th August 1898, by which it is shown that the value of the year's exports exceeded that of imports by £3,662,360, the total trade transactions amounting to £14,520,748, the whole of which represents the *bonâ fide* production of the colony, and imports for its *bonâ fide* requirements. This may certainly be considered highly satisfactory, as indicative of the great resources of the country and the industry of its inhabitants. The total expenditure to the 30th June 1898, has been on railways £19,786,333. The receipts for 1897–8 were £1,158,657, against which were the expenses of £686,066, leaving a net revenue for the year of £472,580. The cost of constructing the last extensions of the main line westward—including rails and fastenings, station buildings, water supply, and supervision—was under £2000 a mile, which is a great reduction in comparison with the rate heretofore paid on account of contracts of a similar nature. There are some good natural harbours on the coast, such as Gladstone, situated on the shores of Port Curtis, where the entrance is excellent, and deep water is obtained at the wharves, whence cattle are shipped to New Caledonia, and horses to India. The chief pursuits followed in the district are mining and pastoral. Farther north, there is the beautiful harbour of Bowen, Port Denison. It is safe to enter for the largest vessels, and is practically land-locked. When I first landed there in 1864, it was the most northern coast town in the colony, and it was here that overlanders took their departure with supplies for the "never-never" country, which was then being stocked with sheep and cattle. A good jetty, over half a mile long, was built in the busy times of the port, but on my first visit, the horses I and my friend took up in the small coasting steamer from Rockhampton were put over the side of the steamer to swim ashore. We took our riding and pack saddles in a small boat until it grounded, when we waded some twenty or thirty yards to the beach with them on our heads. The town is delightfully situated, and the Moreton Bay fig-trees grow most luxuriantly, their branches giving a welcome shade in the streets. There is a short railway from here, but Townsville being the terminus of the railway to Charters Towers and westward to Hughenden and Winton, is the most important town in the north. It lies on the western shore of Cleveland Bay, on the banks of Ross Creek, into which vessels of small tonnage are able to go, and lie alongside the town wharves. There is a breakwater over a mile long, which forms an inner harbour, where large vessels can lie alongside in safety. Farther north is Cairns, where there is a good harbour, and whence the railway starts for Herberton. On this line, twenty miles from Cairns, are the Barron Falls, 1080 feet above the sea-level, which is the attraction of all travellers in the north. It is of course impossible, with the limited space at my disposal, to give even a brief description of each town on the long extended coast of the colony, but I hope to be able to give a general idea of the principal towns and of the varied and beautiful scenery that render the north-east of Australia so distinctive and so attractive from a purely picturesque point of view. There we have mingled sea and landscapes which rank justly among the finest in the world, and the woody islands in the Whitsunday Passage must remain indelibly engraved on the memory of all who have once beheld them.

Generally speaking, Continental Australia is not remarkable for waterways. Queensland, however, has been correctly described as a veritable land of rivers and streams. These find outlets in many lovely bays and fine estuaries. Moreton Bay, for example, receives the waters of six rivers; the Brisbane, on which the capital of the colony is situated, is among the number, and in general the beauty of the well-timbered banks is very great. Splendid fig-trees, enormous eucalyptus rise up in towering height, and their gigantic branches are frequently festooned with flowering creepers, and often along the streams are innumerable richly-blossomed lilies. The rosewood, tamarind, and cedar trees abound. An Australian poet, Charles Allan Sherard, tells us—

> "The river banks glitter with white wild flower,
> And feathery grasses wild,
> While spring woos the wattle from hour to hour
> In the gleaming guise of a golden shower,
> As Jove wooed, in spite of her brazen tower,
> Eurydice's lovely child.

And fairy-like flowers of azure and pink,
And amber and scarlet glow
Through the green and white on the river's brink,
Above where the cattle come down to drink
In the clear, cool waters below."

And has not another sweet Australian singer told us of

"The silver-voiced bell birds, the darlings of daytime,
Who sing in September their song of the May-time"?

Reverting to the railways, I may say that in close connection therewith, as tending to the rapid development and progress of the colony, must be taken also the subject of artesian water. Excluding bores on the coastal district, there are now 412 artesian wells in Western Queensland; their average depth is 1185½ feet, and the aggregate number of feet bored is 488,430, say 92½ miles, the cost of which may be taken approximately as £880,000. Many of the bores yield water eminently suited for irrigation, and at some of the wells irrigation is now in active progress. If the bores will yield—and there seems no reason to doubt it—sufficient water for extensive operations of this kind, their usefulness will be greatly increased, and the beneficial result will soon have a marked effect in causing closer settlement, as the difficulty of drought will then be overcome.

In considering the interests of the colony, the pastoral one occupies the first place. Formerly, station-owners, called "squatters," rented large areas of Crown lands, designated "runs," for pasturing sheep and cattle. Although this system is still in existence, yet each year brings closer settlement, and consequently smaller holdings are maintained under the grazing farm system. The experience of this system, so far, indicates a great increase in the number of sheep in the near future, as on these comparatively small holdings of 20,000 acres and under, instead of

100 square miles, or more in the case of runs, the number of sheep per square mile exceeds by from 40 to 50 per cent. that carried on ordinary runs. These grazing farms can be obtained from the Crown on a thirty years' lease at rents varying, according to the quality of the land, from a halfpenny per acre upwards, and are particularly inquired after by persons with a capital of £1000 or more, who desire to follow pastoral pursuits. The Government has also provided farms of smaller area, called "grazing homesteads," of a maximum limit of 2500 acres, which are specially suitable for persons of smaller means who wish to undertake dairying in the neighbourhood of central factories. There are also agricultural farms with a maximum limit of 1280 acres of the finest land, where wheat and all cereals can be readily grown; there are also the "homestead selections" in farms up to 160 acres for sugar and fruit cultivation, which can be obtained in fee simple by the payment of 2s. 6d. per acre, in five annual instalments, the main condition being personal residence. It will thus be seen that there is abundant choice of land, according to the individual means and taste of each selector. I strongly recommend any one going to the colony, with the purpose of acquiring land for agricultural settlement, to place himself immediately on arrival in communication with the Agricultural Department, which will be ready at all times to advise the newcomer as to locality and area suitable to his means and inclination. He will thus be saved the vexation and loss often experienced by being indifferently, and perhaps not altogether disinterestedly, advised. The variety of soil and climate enables agriculture to be carried on in many distinct branches, according to locality and the individual inclination of settlers, as, for instance, in the interior, the finest wheat can be raised, the average yield for six years—1888–94—being

17 bushels per acre. The 1895 crop was a failure, owing to the insufficiency of rain; but Professor Shelton, the instructor of agriculture, commenting on this in his report for the past year, says: "However, droughts are not peculiar to Queensland, nor to Australia. In the great wheat-growing Western States of America, the farmer reckons himself fortunate if he reaps three crops for every five planted. Here, in Queensland, every crop of wheat has been a full one since 1888. Certainly, this Queensland record of six good seasons in succession is a wonderful one for any country."

On the coast, the cultivation of sugar-cane is a thriving and an increasing industry, and a ready market is found in Australia for all the sugar that Queensland produces. Formerly, plantations were owned and worked by capitalists, but by the Central Mill system introduced by the Government, the small planter can grow the cane on his 160-acre farm, selling it to the mill-owner at prices varying from 11s. to 14s. a ton of cane; and as good land will crop 20 to 30 tons of cane to the acre, and the cost of growing, cutting, and carting does not exceed 6s. a ton, there is a very handsome profit to the grower.

One word as to the manufacture of sugar, as the grower under the Central Mill system is interested in that branch of the subject. It is estimated that it takes about eight tons of cane to make one ton of sugar. I have no very late returns to give, but the report of the Racecourse Central Mill at Mackay for 1894, shows that it costs £8, 10s. 7d. to produce a ton of sugar, which was sold f.o.b. at Mackay for £12, 5s., the mill thus making a profit on manufacture of £3, 14s. 5d. a ton. This places Queensland in a favourable position for sugar-growing and manufacture in comparison with other countries.

Tobacco grows well in several districts, and there is a large factory in Brisbane. There are many minor industries that must not be lost sight of, such as arrowroot cultivation and manufacture, and orange, lemon, citron, and pine-apple growing.

Almost every variety of the orange has been introduced into Queensland, and grown with good financial results wherever proper care has been exercised in selecting localities which practical experience has demonstrated to be suitable for this industry. The chief centre of orange-growing is Maryborough on the coast. Here, a single tree has been known to give the phenomenal yield of 3440 oranges. The Roma district, an inland centre, is another great orange-growing district, where, in one orchard two seasons ago, ninety trees averaged 100 dozen of fruit each. There is a very good market for the fruit, both in the colony and in the cities of the southern colonies, and those exported to England have also brought good prices.

The banana grows specially well in the northern portion of the colony, and every year sees an increase of the area of land devoted to its production. In point of capacity for yielding quick returns to the grower, it easily takes the first place among Queensland fruits, inasmuch as a banana plantation occupies on the average a period of fifteen months only in turning out a marketable crop, and is reckoned to pay at the rate of from £50 to £60 per acre per annum.

Coffee-growing is now one of the settled industries of the colony, with every promise of becoming a considerable factor in its prosperity. So far, enterprise of this kind has sought to do no more than supply the local needs of the various centres of population along the coast, but the exceptionally favourable results attained give promise of a rapid expansion of the industry. The entire coastal country, from Maryborough to Torres Strait, is regarded by experts as eminently adapted for the cultivation of the coffee berry; among the special advantages of climate and position claimed for it are the absence of strong winds and the proximity of the sea, which are asserted to have a direct and beneficial influence on the aromatic character of the berry.

The prospects of vine culture are encouraging; there are now 2000 acres under vines, producing 238,208 gallons of wine. The greatest area under vine is in the Roma district, but at Toowoomba, also, there is a considerable acreage under cultivation. The raisin and currant grape-cuttings which were imported by the Agricultural Department three years ago and planted in the Roma district have matured, and an attempt to manufacture raisins from Queensland-grown grapes is contemplated.

Mining naturally occupies a prominent place in the industries of the colony. The yield of gold in 1898 was 920,048 oz., valued at £2,750,349, which brings the value of all gold yielded by Queensland mines from the first discovery to £44,499,955. The great centre of gold-mining is Charters Towers, eighty-two miles by railway from Townsville. Near Rockhampton, however, there is a phenomenally-rich gold mine, known as "Mount Morgan," which gives employment to 1100 persons, including 760 miners. The other principal mining districts are Gympie, in the south, and Ravenswood, Croydon, and Etheridge in the north.

Coal is plentiful in several parts of the colony, the output last year being 407,934 tons. The other mineral resources are copper, lead, silver, and tin, which latter at one time formed a large item in the yield of the baser metals, but owing to the low price lately prevailing, mining for this metal has been conducted on a much smaller scale than in former years; the total quantity raised in 1898 being 1025 tons. Opals are found in the southern and western districts, the ranges from the Paroo to the Diamantina being more or less opal-bearing. Since the opening of the Fermoy opal field, near Longreach railway station, £10,000 worth of opals have been sold locally. They are justly considered equal to any found in any other part of the world, and are worth from £4 to £7 per carat when cut.

Let me now turn to education. Queensland was the first to establish a school system, open to all, without fees or any religious restraint. This education is termed shortly "free, secular, and compulsory," and is under the control of the Department of Public Instruction, presided over by a member of the Cabinet. At the end of 1898, there were 833 State and "unclassified" State schools, and there were also three schools for aboriginal children. The limits of age for children at the primary schools are from five to fourteen. Grammar-school scholarships are competed for by scholars from the primary schools. At the last annual examination in December 1898, 53 schools sent up 134 boys, and 29 schools sent up 53 girls to compete. Of these candidates, 27 boys and 9 girls were successful in obtaining scholarships. Grammar schools are in Brisbane, Maryborough, Ipswich, Townsville, Rockhampton, and Toowoomba. Exhibitions to universities are awarded to students of grammar schools who show, by examination, sufficient merit to entitle them to the award of an exhibition. The total expenditure by the State on education in 1898 was £226,098, 17s. 11d.

Every religious denomination is represented in the colony. There are no State or endowed churches; all are equally free, and with equal rights.

I must not omit to mention that the telegraph system throughout the colony is perfect; there are 408 stations, with 10,090 miles of line and 18,472 miles of wire. Telephones also are used in Brisbane and some of the larger towns.

Industrial pursuits of any kind when conducted on the land usually leave much leisure time at certain seasons; it is therefore in place to say that for those who are fond of sport an ample choice to suit all tastes can be had, and nearly everywhere excellent duck shooting can be got, and good bags of quail are also to be obtained. For those who are fond of riding, and are expert horsemen, there is no better amusement than kangaroo hunting; but riding up to a "flyer" takes a very fast horse, and good hands and nerve for the horseman, especially in timbered and broken country. An old man-kangaroo prefers usually, after a short run, to "bail" up and show fight, and when brought to bay, must be approached carefully; sometimes he will run into a water-hole to escape from the dogs, which he is able to drown if they are unassisted, although he can easily be killed then by any one on horseback.

Australian horses have frequently a bad habit of "bucking" when brought in from the bush, and the skill and strength of the rider is often severely tested to keep his seat. On cattle stations the stockmen are usually splendid riders, and it is not an uncommon pastime to run horses in from the bush and ride some determined "buck-jumper" for a wager. On such special occasions the "cap" of the stockyard is occupied by all hands on the station, from the manager down to the cook, to watch the trial for supremacy between horse and rider.

Mullet and other excellent fish are to be caught in most of the rivers and creeks.

I ought to mention here that all who are interested in Greater Britain should visit the Imperial Institute as frequently as possible, where they will find samples of the products of the various colonies. In the Queensland Court will be found samples of all the products which I have mentioned in this paper, together with many others which I have not had time to notice. There is to be seen there a splendid collection of timbers grown in the colony, with a description as to their suitability for commercial purposes. Free literature, fully describing the colony and the exhibits in the Court, can be obtained on application from the officials in charge. Of course the headquarters in this country for all information regarding Queensland is the Government Office, 1 Victoria Street, Westminster.

For those who believe in the doctrine of imperial industrial solidarity, and who hold that the empire comprises within its bounds all the requisite range of climatic and other physical conditions for the production of every variety of article necessary for the support and needs of mankind, I think I have shown in this article that the Colony of Queensland, at any rate, is capable of producing almost every commercial product required by civilised man. It is a country blessed with the natural advantages of good soil and climate and varied temperature, from temperate to tropical, waiting solely for a healthy increase in her population to enable her to take a very prominent place among the exporting countries of the world. It must not, however, be supposed, from what I have said about the natural advantages of the country and the insufficiency of population, that persons of a lazy, dissolute, and immoral temperament—although possessing capital—will do any better there than here, as that would be a mistake; but what Queensland wants are men of character, with integrity of purpose and energy, to develop her resources, and who will exercise their political power to direct the future of the colony and shape its destiny with such conscientious care as to make its people truly great and prosperous; remembering always that Queensland is a part of that vast empire to which we are all proud to belong, and which historians, statesmen, and poets never fail to honour in the highest, and I will therefore conclude with those heart-stirring lines of our late poet-laureate, Lord Tennyson—

> "Britain's myriad voices call,
> Sons be welded each and all
> Into one imperial whole;
> One with Britain, heart and soul,
> One life, one flag, one fleet, one throne."

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

By The Hon. JOHN ALEXANDER COCKBURN, M.D.
(London)

Agent-General for South Australia ; late Premier of South Australia

South Australia is the middle strip of the Australian continent running north and south from the Indian to the Southern Ocean. It is next-door neighbour to all the colonies of the mainland, having Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria on the east, and Western Australia, with its flush of gold, towards the setting sun. The country north of the 26th parallel of latitude is known as the Northern Territory, and was annexed to South Australia in 1863.

The area of South Australia comprises 903,690 square miles, considerably more than four times the size of France, and ranks third in size of the British colonies.

The climate ranges from temperate to tropical, and is eminently salubrious. Although in summer the thermometer occasionally registers considerably over 100° F. in the shade, the air is so dry and clear, and evaporation takes place so readily, that the subjective sensation of heat is not so great as is experienced in a moist atmosphere with many degrees less heat. Frost and snow are almost unknown, and even in winter many of the days resemble those of an English summer. The sky, however, reveals a depth and intensity of blue unknown to northern latitudes, and the air is crisp, sparkling, and invigorating. As a climatic resort South Australia is sought after on the one hand as a means of escape from the rigour of an English winter, and on the other hand as a respite from the tropical heat of India.

The mean temperature in summer is about 73°, and in winter about 50°.

Fruit of every variety grows in the utmost profusion. On the plains, grapes, peaches, and apricots exhibit a magnificent luxuriance, and, owing to the perfection of elaboration of the sap by the abundant sunshine, are of specially luscious flavour. In the hills, apples, pears, cherries, and other English fruits attain to a size which in their original habitat would be regarded as phenomenal.

The death-rate is exceptionally low—11.48 in 1000 in 1896—and some of the scourges of less-favoured lands, such as smallpox and hydrophobia, are unknown in Australia.

Adelaide, the capital city, named after the Queen of William IV., is situated in latitude 34.55° S., and longitude 138.38° E., and lies about five miles eastward from the shore of St. Vincent's Gulf.

The city is situated on rising ground, nestling in the base of an amphitheatre of lofty hills, with a gentle declivity down to the sea-shore. The heart of the city covers a square mile, and is surrounded by a belt of park lands a quarter of a mile in width, reserved for all time for the health and recreation of the inhabitants. The streets are wide and run at right angles. There are five spacious squares, arranged symmetrically like the points on a domino: the one in the centre is called Victoria Square, and round it are grouped the government offices and many other public buildings. A perfect system of deep drainage renders the city exceptionally clean and wholesome.

The site of the city of Adelaide was selected by Colonel Light, the first Surveyor-General of the colony, who, in face of much opposition in high quarters, tenaciously adhered to his decision. At the commencement of each civic year the city fathers reverently drink in solemn silence to his memory. Mr. G. S. Kingston, Deputy Surveyor-General, was the first white man who set foot on the site of the city of Adelaide. As Sir George Kingston he for many years filled the position of Speaker of the House of Assembly.

The southern coast-line of South Australia was first systematically examined in 1801 by Matthew Flinders, who accurately surveyed and gave the existing names to the most marked natural features. He was accompanied in his voyage of discovery by a midshipman named John Franklin, who afterwards became famous as an arctic explorer. There was at this time some rivalry between France and England in the investigation of the Australian littoral. On his voyage eastward Flinders fell in with a French survey ship in a bay, called from this circumstance Encounter Bay. The commanders compared notes of their discoveries, and it is a strange coincidence that shortly afterwards, calling on his return voyage to England at Mauritius—then the "Isle of France"—Flinders was seized and detained as a prisoner for over six years. The publication of the details of his voyages and adventures was consequently delayed till 1814, in which year he died, the romance of his career being crowned by the fact that his priceless discoveries were given to the world on the day of his death. Some action would doubtless have been taken by the people of England on the strength of Flinders's announcements, but the international complications which culminated in the battle of Waterloo occluded matters of Antipodean interest, and while they delayed British, they completely checked French, exploitation in this direction.

The Government of New South Wales, however, from time to time equipped exploring parties, and in 1829 Captain Sturt traced the River Darling down to its junction with the Murray, and followed the latter river in its course through South Australian territory to its debouchement in Lake Alexandrina. Two years later Captain Barker vainly searched for some communication between Lake Alexandrina and the sea. He penetrated inland as far as Mount Lofty, the highest point of the range of hills which forms the boundary of the Adelaide plains. From this summit he viewed a promised land of surpassing loveliness and fertility. Afterwards he discovered the channel through which the waters of the Murray find their way to the sea. In order to take some bearings from a sand-hill on the farther side of the river he boldly swam across the stream, but was assailed and speared to death by a numerous party of blacks. From the Murray flats—where this tragedy occurred—there is a fine view of a solitary mountain peak, which stands sentinel over a vast extent of lowland. This now bears the name of Mount Barker; and at its foot, and bearing the same name, is situated one of the most beautiful inland towns of Australia.

The news of such valuable features of country filling in the outline traced by Flinders excited much attention in England. A committee was formed, under the name of the "South Australian Association," and, owing to their efforts, a bill providing for the colonisation of South Australia passed through both Houses of Parliament, and became law on the last day of the session of 1834, the Right Hon. Spring Rice being at that time Secretary of State for the Colonies.

One of the provisions of the Act, which sheds a lustre on its promoters, was that "no person or persons convicted in any court of justice in Great Britain or Ireland, or elsewhere, shall at any time, or under any circumstances, be transported as a convict to any place within the limits hereinbefore described." It was also enacted that all persons residing in the province should be free, "not subject to the laws or constitution of any other part of Australia, but bound by only those which should be constructed especially for their own territory."

A constitution embodying a form of autonomy was to be granted when the population reached 50,000. Meantime, the Crown might appoint any persons resident in the province to frame laws for its government. Commissioners were to be appointed to execute the provisions of the Act, with power to sell the lands of the province, by auction or otherwise, for ready money only, at a uniform price of not less than 12s. per acre—the whole of the proceeds to be devoted to sending out labourers as emigrants from the mother country. This allocation of the proceeds of land sales is what was known as the Wakefield system of colonisation.

With the exception of selling land, the powers of the Commissioners were not to come into action until £35,000 had been realised by land sales. The land was first offered for sale at the price of £1 per acre—eighty acres of country and one acre of city land being sold for £81. Purchasers did not come forward, however, so readily as was anticipated. Eventually the South Australian Company, then newly founded, offered 12s. per acre to the amount of the balance of the required £35,000. This offer was accepted, and fifty-four additional acres were granted to each previous purchaser.

Within a year nine vessels, ranging in size from 105 to 850 tons, landed 546 passengers on South Australian shores. On December 28, 1836, Captain Hindmarsh arrived in H.M.S. *Buffalo* at Glenelg, about seven miles from Adelaide, and under the shade of what is now traditionally honoured as the "Old Gum Tree," proclaimed to the settlers his commission as first Governor of the colony. The anniversary of this event is religiously observed as a public holiday, and South Australians flock in thousands to Glenelg to celebrate the birthday of their homeland, and to do honour to the pioneers who were present at the foundation.

Governor Hindmarsh was recalled about eighteen months after his arrival. During his term of office the administration of the land was vested in a Resident Commissioner, who was appointed by the Commissioners in London, and who acted independently of the general executive. This division of authority led to continual friction; but though indefensible in general principles, it had a salutary effect at the time, inasmuch as it prevented the Governor from overruling the admirable selection by the Surveyor-General of the site of the city of Adelaide.

Colonel Gawler, the next Governor, held also the office of Resident Commissioner. His administration lasted from October 1838 to May 1841, when he was superseded by Captain Grey, in consequence of having incurred a heavy liability on account of public works, which, though an expenditure probably unavoidable, was regarded by the Colonial Office as excessive.

This was the first important executive office held by Governor George Grey, the eminent nation builder —one of the pioneers of Greater Britain—who, after successfully adjusting the finances of South Australia, distinguished himself as Governor of New Zealand and of the Cape of Good Hope. He afterwards entered the arena of politics, and became Premier of New Zealand. He was distinguished not only for his courage and intellect, but for the breadth and liberality of his views, and was practically the founder of the advanced school of statesmen in Australasia. In 1891 he conducted a successful campaign in Australia in favour of "one man one vote"; and, crowned with years and honours, he was laid to rest a few months ago as one of Britain's heroes in the sanctuary of St. Paul's Cathedral.

To him succeeded in 1845 Colonel Robe, a staunch Tory of the old type, who, despite the principles on which the colony was founded, attempted to carry into effect his views on the relations between Church and State, thereby causing a violent reaction, which has hardly yet spent its force. Governor Robe also endeavoured to carry out the wishes of the Colonial Office in imposing a royalty on minerals, but this attempt caused such dissatisfaction that, wearied with conflict, he requested to be relieved of his office. It is instructive, as showing the import of time, place, and circumstance in all reforms, to note that, whereas in 1846 a Tory governor was discredited for attempting to affirm the principle that the community should, in a measure, share in the mineral wealth of the colony, a Liberal Government in 1888 carried, with popular acclamation, a measure for mining on private property, having a somewhat similar object in view; and it was also determined by the Legislature that in future alienations of land the minerals should be reserved to the Crown.

Governor Robe was followed by Sir Henry Young, an experienced and tactful administrator, who possessed in an eminent degree the breadth of mind and liberal view necessary to develop the resources of a young country. He laid the foundation of the excellent machinery for local government that obtains in South Australia, by organising a system of district councils. He also re-established the Corporation of the City of Adelaide, which, by some preceding administrators, had been thwarted and practically extinguished. Recognising the importance of inland carriage, he took steps in railway construction which earned for him the title of "The Father of the South Australian Railway System." He had the prescience to foresee the value of the river Murray as a great waterway and mainline of settlement, and offered inducements which led

Captain Cadell to demonstrate the easy navigability by steam of the Murray and Darling for a distance of 1500 miles.

In 1851 South Australia was to a great extent depopulated by the rush over the border to the Victorian gold-fields. Most of the able-bodied men made off to the diggings, taking with them all the coin they could command to furnish them for the journey. The banks were thus depleted of specie and placed in a position of great jeopardy, and trade was brought to a standstill for lack of a circulating medium. At this desperate juncture Sir Henry Young called the whole of the Legislature and the leading financiers to his council, with the result that a bill was introduced, passed into law, and received the Viceregal assent, within twenty-four hours, empowering the banks to issue notes to the amount of any gold bullion purchased by them, and entitling persons to demand notes in exchange for bullion, and making these notes a legal tender. The effect of this bold measure in relieving the financial tension was instantaneous: it buttressed the banks, restored commerce, and saved the colony.

The Bullion Act was supplemented by an Act authorising the Government Assay Office to issue as a currency ingots of uniform standard and suitable size in exchange for bulk gold. These salutary measures were first suggested by the managers of the banks, who deserve much credit for their originality in devising means of escape from a desperate position. They had, however, everything to gain by this departure from custom, and were prompted by motives of self-preservation. Not so, however, the Governor. In assenting without reservation to laws dealing in this manner with the currency, he was acting contrary to his written instructions. By this act of daring disregard he saved the situation at the risk of his official life. Success condoned the offence; the Colonial Office took a generous view, and omitted to notice the occurrence. South Australia, however, will hold in perpetual honour the memory of Governor Young, as a man of courage and resource, who, in this matter and throughout his administration, proved himself capable of recognising the requirements of time and place, and struck the keynote of those liberal and progressive measures which have always characterised the Colony of South Australia.

The Act under which South Australia was founded contained a provision to the effect that the right of self-government should be conceded when the population reached 50,000. This stage was attained during the administration of Sir Henry Young, who submitted to the Legislature proposals for a constitution which, in an amended form, ultimately became law during the term of office of his successor. Sir Richard MacDonnell, who thus became the last of autocratic and the first of constitutional Governors, acting under the advice of responsible ministers.

Previous to the institution of a responsible government, South Australia passed through several tentative modes of administration. In the first instance the executive powers were divided between the Governor, representing the Colonial Office, and the Resident Commissioner, administering the lands, and appointed by the Commissioners in London. In 1838 the latter, office was combined with the former, and the Governor represented both sources of authority. The executive at this time consisted of the Governor and his nominees, the Colonial Secretary, the Advocate-General, and the Assistant Commissioner of Crown lands. In 1842 the management of the Colony was transferred from the Commissioners into the hands of the Crown. South Australia thus became a Crown Colony, and in 1843 a legislature was formed, consisting of the

Governor and three officials, together with four unofficial members appointed by the Governor. The Governor had a casting as well as a deliberative vote. In 1851 a Legislative Council was established consisting of eight nominated and sixteen elected members. This body framed the Constitution Act of South Australia, which came into force in 1856, and was regarded as one of the most liberal instruments of government the world had ever seen. So far as the franchise for the popular branch of the legislature is concerned, South Australia realised in the cradle of her constitutional existence the aspirations of the most enlightened statesmen of all times. Every one admits that a sense of responsibility steadies men and fits them for the exercise of power. The practical difficulty in extending the limits of constitutional freedom lies in the danger of raising the level of power by the extension of the franchise, without the simultaneous adjustment of an increased sense of responsibility on the part of the elector. This difficulty has never been experienced in South Australia. The people of other countries have had to struggle for the liberty of the franchise, often obtaining it at a period of passion which unfitted them for its calm and judicious exercise. At a great cost others have obtained their freedom, but South Australia was free born.

The founders of the Constitution built on the broadest and soundest foundation. Neither the license of plural voting nor the fetter of a property qualification have ever disturbed the equable exercise of the popular franchise. From the first election after the constitution was framed, every man who has placed his name for six months on the register has had a vote for the House of Assembly, and feels that in some degree the just conduct of the affairs of state depends upon himself. The result is that a sense of responsibility permeates all sections of the community: every one is interested in, and has some knowledge of, public affairs: there is no unleavened mass to be worked upon at times of electoral excitement; the unscrupulous demagogue, and the moneyed man who attempts to make a sinister use of his wealth, are alike confronted and paralysed by a phalanx of organised public opinion which gives stability to the community, and ensures an orderly progression in public affairs.

The executive of South Australia consists of a Governor appointed by the Crown, who acts with the advice and consent of six ministers, who are *ex officio* members of the executive council, and who, with the exception of the Attorney-General, are required to be members of the Legislature. The Legislature consists of a Legislative Council of twenty-four members, and a House of Assembly of fifty-four members. For the purposes of election of the former, the colony is divided into four districts, each returning six members; and for the latter into twenty-seven districts, each returning two members. The members of both houses receive payment at the rate of £200 a year.

In 1894 the franchise was extended to women, who vote on terms of exact equality with men, and are also eligible for election. Hitherto no woman candidate has come forward, but at the election of delegates for the late Federal Convention, which was conducted similarly to an election of the House of Assembly, Miss Spence was a candidate, and received over 7000 votes.

The nominal term of office for a member of the Legislative Council—entitled M.L.C.—is nine years, one-third of the council retiring every three years. Casual vacancies are filled as they occur, by election, for the full term; consequently the necessity of periodical partial renewal of the council shortens the tenure of office to an average of about six years.

The election of all the members of the House of Assembly—entitled M.P.'s—takes place on the same day. The life of the house is three years, but it is liable at any time to dissolution by the Governor. The Constitution Act requires all bills for appropriating revenue or imposing taxation to originate in the House of Assembly. In practice the council cannot amend money bills, though it may suggest amendments. As a means of avoiding deadlocks between the houses, both houses may be dissolved simultaneously, or at the option of the Executive eight new members may be added to the Legislative Council, if the same bill is passed in two consecutive sessions by an absolute majority of the House of Assembly and lost in the council, a general election of the former intervening between the sessions.

The franchise for the House of Assembly is enjoyed by all adults whose names have been on the election roll for six months. The franchise for the Legislative Council is restricted to owners of freehold of the value of £50, or leaseholders of the annual value of £20, or occupiers of a dwelling-house of £25 a year. A bill has lately been introduced by the Government for the purpose of extending this qualification to all householders and their wives, irrespective of value, it being argued that it was unfair that individuals should be disfranchised through a fall in rental values, and that the conservative unit should be the home, whether mansion or cottage.

The members of the Legislative Council enjoy the title of "Honourable," a vestige of the ancient practice by which a summons to Parliament was equivalent to a patent of nobility. No property qualification is required for the members of either house. The voting is in all cases by ballot—a cross being made by the voter opposite to the name or names selected. Under certain circumstances absent voters are permitted to exercise their franchise through the post, with due precautions to ensure secrecy.

In all countries enjoying representative government on the pattern of the British Constitution it is imperative, in order to ensure stable government, that a ready means should exist for ascertaining the true state of public opinion on any subject. It has been found in practice that a general election is a very indefinite, and sometimes a fallacious, indication. The personal element enters so largely into each election, and there are so many cross divisions of the various platforms, that the result is always open to dispute. Consequently, a strong tide of enlightened political opinion is, in South Australia, setting in the direction of adopting the direct referendum as a solution of important public questions. The referendum is no new institution; it was the law of Greece and Rome, as well as of our Germanic forefathers; and the custom is still extant in Switzerland. Although not actually embodied in the Statute Book, it was adopted by Parliament as an expedient to decide the question of religious education at the general election of 1896. The questions submitted were: Do you favour (1) the continuance of the present system of Education in State Schools? (2) The introduction of Scriptural instruction in State Schools during school hours. (3) The payment of a capitation grant to Denominational Schools for secular results. An overwhelming majority pronounced in favour of 1, and against 2 and 3. Again in 1898, the question of the adoption of the federal constitution framed at a convention specially elected for the purpose, was throughout most of the Australian colonies twice referred to the direct vote of the electors for the popular chambers, with the result that it was ultimately adopted by a large majority in each colony. Similarly, the bill providing household franchise for the Legislative Council was remitted to the whole body of electors at the last general election. Thus, without special legislation, the salutary safeguard of the referendum may be said to have become an established custom, providing a ready means of solving all cases of dispute between the two houses without humiliating either.

South Australian legislators have frequently distinguished themselves by pioneering in the direction of useful reforms which have been widely adopted in other countries. In 1858 Mr. Torrens succeeded in passing into law his celebrated Real Property Act, which facilitated and cheapened the transfer of land, and secured indefeasibility of title by a system of registration. In 1894 Mr. Kingston obtained legislative sanction to a bill for compulsory conciliation in industrial disputes, which was first introduced by him in 1890.

In 1895 a State Bank was established, with the object of enabling farmers to obtain at a reasonable rate of interest the capital necessary to develop their holdings. South Australia is to a large extent an agricultural community, and the usurious charges exacted by many money-lenders crippled in the first instance the farmer, and indirectly the tradesmen, the merchants, the shippers, and the professional classes who ultimately depend for their living on the producing powers of the farmer. The bank is managed by a board of trustees, independent of political control, and has proved an unqualified success. While it has not affected the ocean-level of interest, it has brought to the farmer's door the low-level rates of interest which were formerly inaccessible to the majority, owing to the interposition of a mountain range of commissions and incidental charges. In addition to the direct relief afforded to its customers, the institution of the State Bank has had a collateral effect in causing private investors to lower their rates in order to retain the custom of the borrower. There are hundreds of agriculturists in South Australia to-day who, owing to the saving effected by the operations of the State Bank, have been able to increase the production of their holdings by the purchase of artificial manures and improved implements, which were formerly beyond their means; and all engaged in the actual business of the community have incidentally participated in the benefits of the measure.

With the view of assisting the producer to find a profitable market, a State export department was, in 1895, organised by the Government. By its agency the world's markets for fruit, frozen meat, and dairy produce have been made accessible to the farmer. The little rivulets of produce from the farm and garden are collected in a receiving depôt at Port Adelaide; there they are subjected to inspection by experts; all inferior articles are rejected, but produce which comes up to the standard of quality receives a stamp of approval and is prepared for shipment. Insurance, freight, and sale are, if so desired, arranged by the department at lowest wholesale rates, so that all the farmer has to do is to forward his produce and await the receipt of his cheque, secure in the knowledge that his interests in the distant markets are closely watched and guarded by responsible officers, and that the highest possible profit is secured to him.

The climate and soil of South Australia are especially adapted for the growth of the grape; and wine-making is rapidly becoming one of the greatest staple industries of the colony. All wines exported through the depôt are inspected and analysed, and, if found suitable, are certified as sound and pure. On arrival in London they are stored, and, if necessary, blended and treated at the Government bonded store. They are placed on the market under the name of the "Orion" brand. Australian wine is rapidly finding favour in the eye of the public, and is especially valued by physicians on account of its purity, and, in the case of the red wine, on account of the health-restoring quality due to the presence of a high percentage of iron.

The adjustment of the incidence of taxation is everywhere a vital question. In young countries the problem is much more simple, and an equitable solution is more easily obtained than under the complex conditions of older communities where the friction of vested interests is necessarily more difficult to overcome.

In 1884 a land and income tax was instituted—the land tax being ½d. in the pound on the unimproved capital value of all land, without exemption. The income tax was 3d. in the pound on incomes derived from personal exertion, with an exemption for small incomes, and 6d. in the pound on incomes derived from investments. These taxes were proportional, the rates being the same for large as well as small estates; more recently, however, the principle of progressive taxation has been applied to all branches of direct taxation.

In 1890 the Government of the day submitted for the approval of the electors proposals for progressive death duties and land tax. Previously estates on probate of will had been charged with a uniform duty of one per cent. The new proposal was the imposition of a progressive scale levied not on the bulk of the estate bequeathed, but on the amount to which each beneficiary succeeded. The proposal became law in 1893, the scale for descendants being graduated from 1½ per cent. in bequests of between £500 and £700 up to ten per cent. on amounts over £200,000.

With regard to the progressive land tax, the original proposals of the Government were to increase the tax on land of over £5000 unimproved value by steps of ¼d. up to a total of 3d. in the pound in estates of over £100,000 of unimproved value. These proposals were bitterly opposed, and a vote of no confidence was carried against the Government proposing them. A request for a dissolution in order to appeal to the electors for their verdict was refused by the Governor. Eventually, in 1894, an Act was passed leaving the land tax at ½d. in the pound on land in the smaller estates, but increasing the tax to 1d. in the pound in estates of over £5000 of unimproved value. An additional twenty per cent. on the land tax is levied on all land owned by absentees.

The income tax was also, in 1894, adjusted on a progressive scale, the scale being: For incomes derived from personal exertion, 4½d. in the pound on incomes under £800, and 6d. in the pound on amounts over £800; and on incomes derived from investments, 9d. and 1s. respectively.

The Parliaments of 1893 to 1899 have been fertile of liberal measures. In the former year the two branches of the Liberals formerly opposed to each other were united, with the Right Hon. C. C. Kingston as premier. The unprecedented length of tenure of Mr. Kingston's ministry was due to his conspicuous ability as a leader, and to the financial genius of Mr. Holder as Treasurer.

The brilliant legislative achievements of the Liberal party during this period were greatly facilitated by the entrance into Parliament in 1890 and 1893 of the Labour party, who have proved staunch and efficient supporters of all Liberal measures.

In each house the direct representative of labour forms about one-fifth of the total membership. The individual members of the Labour party rank high among the best informed, most eloquent members of the Legislature, and they are unsurpassed in their industry and diligent application to the business of

Parliament. Although their advent into the Legislature was bitterly opposed by the Conservative element, their presence has come to be recognised as beneficial by many of those who are not completely in line with their policy. Here again the educative influence of responsibility asserts itself. Admitted to an intimate knowledge of the nice adjustments which maintain the balance among the working parts of modern civilisation, men become convinced of the futility of attempting to carry into immediate effect the sweeping changes which mere theoretical contemplation of the claims of abstract justice would seem to approve. They learn that evolution is necessarily a gradual process, and fall into rank as highly efficient members of the army of solid progression. It is considerations such as these that have converted previous opponents into supporters of the presence in Parliament of direct representatives of labour. Additional stability has been imparted to every department of activity in South Australia from the fact that, not only through the ballot-box but also in the legislative halls, the great army of workers directly participates in the business of legislation and administration.

The central position of South Australia secures for its enterprising colonists exceptional opportunities of exploring the interior of the continent. The names of many explorers have become household words. Sturt—one of the discoverers of South Australia, and afterwards Colonial Secretary—has left an imperishable memory; Stuart, who traversed Australia from the south to the northern sea coast; Eyre, afterwards the Governor of Jamaica, who skirted the great Australian Bight, and after terrible suffering succeeded in reaching Albany, in Western Australia; Warburton, Giles, Lindsay, and many others have also made valuable additions to the chronicles of heroism and the realms of geography.

The fact that South Australia is the only colony of the group whose territory extends throughout the whole longitude of the continent, seemed to mark out as part of its destiny the duty of establishing communication between the world's system of telegraphs, lying to the north of Australia and the centres of population on the southern and eastern coasts. This obligation the enterprise of South Australia was not slow to recognise. In 1870 the Government entrusted to Sir Charles Todd the task of erecting a wire across the then almost unexplored interior. Many and unforeseen difficulties were skilfully surmounted, and in 1872 the end crowned the work; and amid general rejoicing Australia was brought into the circle of daily communication with the world. The cost of the line was very heavy, and for many years the traffic was conducted at a loss to the revenue of South Australia. The other colonies have never failed to acknowledge the services and enormous expenditure of South Australia in the interests of international telegraphy, and have agreed to guarantee her against loss should the proposed alternative line, known as the "Pacific Cable" project, be constructed.

South Australia is pre-eminently a pastoral and agricultural country. The chief staple export is wool, of which 460,000,000 lbs. were exported in the decade 1888–1897. The mildness of the climate is especially favourable to the well-being of cattle and sheep. There being no rigorous weather, the housing and winter feeding customary in less-favoured countries is rendered unnecessary. The enterprise of leading pastoralists in importing pedigree stock has done much to raise the quality of the flocks and herds. At the show of the Royal Agricultural Society animals are exhibited which are equal to those seen at first-class shows in the British Isles.

The wheat of South Australia has long been celebrated. Owing to its firm texture the grain is highly esteemed for milling purposes. The greater portion of the wheat is harvested by a machine known as the "Ridley Reaper," consisting of a comb with revolving beater which strips the heads from the standing straw, and at the same time threshes it. The use of this machine has resulted in such economy of labour that a much lower average yield per acre is remunerative than in countries where, owing to the humidity of the atmosphere, the straw is not sufficiently brittle to admit of harvesting in this manner.

The grape-growing industry is assuming large proportions. A vast extent of territory is admirably adapted for the growth of the vine, and enormous areas at present under pasture are destined to be clothed with vineyards. The fruit industry is also rapidly becoming a staple. Eventually South Australia is destined to become one of the greatest fruit-growing countries in the world. The occasional droughts which affect cereals so injuriously do comparatively little harm to fruit trees of established growth.

The great river Murray—the Mississippi of Australia—which forms the boundary between New South Wales and Victoria, flows for the last 260 miles of its course wholly through South Australian territory. In 1887 the Chaffey Brothers established an irrigation colony at Renmark. By a powerful system of centrifugal pumps huge quantities of water are raised into high-level channels, whence it is distributed in open channels to the highest point of each settler's holding. The adjoining country, formerly a worthless Mallee scrub, has been converted by the industry of the settlers into a vast fruit garden.

In 1894 the Government established on the banks of the Murray some co-operative communities known as "village settlements." Of these several have been closed owing to unsuitability of soil, or difficulties of irrigation, but eight are prospering, and have under cultivation an area of 6585 acres, including 298 acres of orchard and 119 acres of vines. These settlements hold their instruments of production, land, machinery and plant in common: and each family shares in the profits attending the cultivation of the soil. The affairs of each settlement are managed by a board of six trustees elected from time to time by the villagers. It is optional with the villagers whether to continue the collective holding or to divide the settlement into individual holdings. Probably in most cases the land will be subdivided and owned separately, but the cultivation will continue to be co-operative; and in any case the pumping machinery and channels and general means of production must continue to be the property of the community.

The land laws of South Australia are of a liberal character. Pastoral lands may be obtained on lease for a period of forty-two years at a rental fixed by a board at very low rates. Agricultural lands may be obtained on lease with right of purchase at a few shillings per acre. The tendency is, however, to substitute for fee simple a system of perpetual leasing at a fixed quit-rent. The advantage of this system is that instead of the settler being required to expend his capital in purchase money, he is able to invest it in the machinery and stock necessary to the efficient working of his holding; at the same time his tenure is of equal value to himself. Owing to the varying demand for labour by the farmers at different seasons, large bodies of agricultural labourers, though required at harvest time and at other seasons of activity, are unable to obtain continuous employment throughout the year. In order to mitigate the hardships that want of employment entails, blocks of land throughout the country have been surveyed into small holdings of about twenty acres. These are allotted as homesteads, and an advance is made to the owner towards erecting a cottage. Thus in the intervals of employment the time of the labourer, which would otherwise be wasted, is utilised in making for himself a home.

Although traces of gold abound in many districts of South Australia, and the Echunga gold-field has been continuously worked for nearly fifty years, no great discovery of the precious metal similar to those in the adjoining colonies has yet been made. The rapid accession of wealth which usually accrues to young countries from this source has not yet taken place. There are abundant evidences that gold in large quantities exists, but hitherto the impetus necessary to its realisation has not been given. Consequently the gold of South Australia still lies to her credit safely stored in nature's treasury. Possibly the fact that few opportunities of becoming rapidly rich have presented themselves to South Australian settlers may explain the undoubted stability and freedom from booms and collapses which characterise the community. The chief mineral wealth of South Australia lies in copper. The value of the total export of this metal amounts to £23,000,000. The Wallaroo and Moonta Mine has paid in dividends over £1,700,000.

Subject, in common with the rest of Australia, to periodical droughts, the vicissitudes to which the South Australian agriculturist is exposed develop remarkable qualities of hardihood and courage. Undismayed by the losses entailed and the hopes sickened by a recent succession of dry seasons, the farmers of South Australia laid under cultivation during the past season a more extensive area of land than on any previous occasion. The harvest will, in most cases, amply repay the exhibition of such undaunted energy.

A similar sturdiness pervades all classes of the community, and imparts firmness to every institution. Business is in the main conducted on sound and safe lines, and during the financial storms which some years ago affected the stability of several well-known houses, the Bank of Adelaide, which confines its operations to South Australia, stood unshaken and uninvolved.

Similarly with public finance. During the recent droughts the treasury was not only able to pay its way, but in five exceptionally lean years was able to pay off £300,000 off the National Debt. The indebtedness of South Australia amounts to £23,252,380. In addition to this, £1,663,930 has been borrowed on a separate account for the development of the northern territory. In estimating the significance of this indebtedness it should be borne in mind that the public debts of the Australian colonies bear no analogy to the national debts of European countries. In Australia, many functions which in the Old World are undertaken by private enterprise fall within the sphere of State activity. The railways belong to the State. These alone represent nearly £13,000,000 of the public debt. The State also owns the water supplies, and has commenced the manufacture of its own locomotives and water-pipes. The telegraphic and telephonic systems are also public property. The State also conducts freezing-works and produce depôts, and several gold-extracting cyanide plants, which are worked for the benefit of the mining industry; and in many other directions the sphere of State activity has been extended with encouraging results. The public debt, therefore, represents not an expenditure in unprofitable wars, but forms a working national capital, almost the whole of which is invested in works of a profitable nature.

In South Australia there is no native problem of any magnitude. The aborigines were at no time numerous, and their numbers have dwindled of late years.

Their welfare is carefully watched over by a Protector, who is a Government officer, and by the Aborigines' Friends Association. The majority in the southern portion of the province are grouped together at a mission station, where they are educated and taught the arts of civilisation. Though not on a par, physically or mentally, with the Polynesian races, the natives of Australia by no means belong to so low a type of humanity as is commonly represented. They are intelligent and shrewd, and, when kindly treated, affectionate and loyal. Their civilisation on their own plane has been carried to a considerable extent, and many of their customs evince an ingenious adaptation to their environment.

The tariff of South Australia is protective, and was framed with the view of encouraging the development of local industries. In many cases its operation has been eminently effectual in this direction. A strong feeling is gaining in favour of giving some preference to British-made goods.

The school system of South Australia is, with few exceptions, in the hands of the State. Owing to the personal influence and remarkable power of organisation of the late Inspector-General, Mr. Hartley, the schools have attained a degree of efficiency which will compare favourably with those of any other country. In all classes drawing is a compulsory subject, and a foundation of technical education in the shape of hand and eye training is effected in the primary schools. The system is free, secular, and compulsory. Bible reading is permitted before the commencement of the regular school hours. Many districts in South Australia are destitute of timber, and as trees afford a desirable protection against hot winds, and tend to increase the rainfall, their growth has always been an object of solicitude on the part of the State. One day in each year is set apart as a school holiday under the title of "Arbor Day"; on this day the children of the schools with some ceremony plant trees, and are encouraged and taught to carefully tend their after-growth. In many of the country schools practical agriculture is taught. Secondary schools for agriculture have been established in Adelaide and other centres, the time being equally divided between the class-room and the experimental plots and workshops. Schools of domestic economy for girls are also about to be organised. Schools of mines and industries exist in Adelaide and several other centres. That in Adelaide is managed by a council of twelve under the presidency of Sir Langdon Bonython. The feature of this school is the practical nature of the instruction. Its operations have been attended with great success, and graduates of the school are much sought after for employment in mines and manufactories. There is also a high technical school of agriculture, where a complete course of practical and scientific agriculture is imparted by a distinguished staff of professors. Practical and scientific information of agricultural subjects is disseminated among the farmers by means of an agricultural bureau, with numerous branches throughout the country. There is also in Adelaide a well-equipped school of design, and of industrial and fine art. Adelaide possesses also a university which, in addition to the usual departments of art, science, and medicine, includes a professorship and a well-equipped conservatorium of music. The department of education is under the control of a Minister of Education. The permanent headship is vested in a board of three inspectors; under these is an efficient staff of inspectors, including one lady inspector. All appointments are made by the minister. The administration is assisted, and the powers of compulsory attendance exercised, by local and honorary boards of advice in every district, half the members being elected by the parents and half being appointed by the governor.

South Australia has played a leading part in the Federation movement. The Federal Convention, whose work is about to be crowned with success, held its first session in Adelaide under the Presidency of the Right Hon. C. C. Kingston. The referendum ot last year was first taken in South Australia. The South Australian Legislature was the first to pass the Addresses to the Queen praying for the necessary Act of the Imperial Parliament, and these Addresses were the first to be placed in the hands of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

By Sir WILLIAM C. F. ROBINSON, G.C.M.G.

I propose in this Article to refer more particularly to the events and records of my third administration of the Government of Western Australia. I must admit that when I first landed at Fremantle, some twenty years ago, I had no comforting premonition, like Whittington, that I should be thrice the governor of the colony. Possibly, at that time, had I been warned of the fate in store for me I should not have been fired with the hope and ambition of the future Lord Mayor of London, for I confess that my first impressions of the great western colony were neither encouraging nor stimulating. There was little or no indication of the greatness yet to come. All was primitive, scarcely promising. Officialdom held its sway, and the Governor was the Alpha and Omega of the community. His powers were almost autocratic, and it was only his sense of right and reason which prevented him from becoming a despot. Not an appointment of the humblest description but had to be personally approved by him, and his patronage was virtually only limited by the means and the departmental requirements of the colony. There was no communication with the eastern colonies or the mother country save by the mail steamers, which at that time called only once a month, instead, as now, of once a week at Albany. There was no telegraph line to South Australia, and no submarine cable from Broome. There was no railway from Albany to Perth, but the journey of three hundred miles or so was made over country roads in what, for the sake of politeness, was called a coach, but which might properly have been styled a bone-shaker and liver-disturber, the time occupied in the journey varying from sixty hours to something within a week, making allowance for the accidents, which were of not infrequent occurrence, and which, at any rate, gave to the journey the charm of novelty and excitement, which we now miss on the excellent railway line constructed by the West Australian Land Company. But what a change has happened in a couple of decades! A short time ago I left the Perth railway station, a really commodious and fine structure, the platform of which was crowded with well-dressed people, and was conveyed over a truly excellently laid and managed railway to Albany in something less than seventeen hours. At the latter place I received telegrams from my friends in Perth, and sent messages of friendship to them and to the eastern colonies. I was the recipient of cable messages from the old country, and when I got on board one of the magnificent mail steamers, which now call at Albany every week, but which, it is anticipated, will in a very few years call at Fremantle, I was positively besieged for information of the golden land I had just left behind me. Some of the questions so frequently asked of me I hope to reply to in this Article, though I do not intend to overburden it with dry-as-dust details, and will only quote such statistics as may be necessary to satisfy you as to the progress and development of the colony.

I remember being invited to lecture during my administration of the Government of South Australia on my experience as a Colonial Governor, and saying of the Government of Western Australia as I left it in 1882, after my second period as its Governor, that it was neither flesh, fowl, nor good red herring. At that time the colonists desirous of change, but afraid to venture too far, had introduced what was no doubt the thin edge of the wedge. They had acquired a good deal of power, but that power was not accompanied by corresponding responsibility, and it was plain that such a state of things could not last if true progress was to be made. Nevertheless, it endured for something like eight years after I had left, until the demand for self-government became too urgent and was too well grounded to be ignored and denied. It afforded me much pleasure (when I gave up the acting governorship of Victoria and returned for a brief time to England) to support the delegates from Western Australia who had been sent home to back up with their arguments and advice the request for responsible government, which had been formally made by the Legislature of the colony. I found in Lord Knutsford and other members of the Government of the day gentlemen who well understood the position, and who were very anxious to hear all that we had to say on the matter, and if our arguments prevailed with them—as I have reason to believe they did—I can only say that the result has more than justified the decision which was arrived at by the Imperial Government. The honour then devolved upon me of inaugurating in Western Australia the new constitution, and I undertook the task—egotistic as the statement may appear—without any serious misgivings. But then it was not the question of my own fitness that occurred to me. My long experience of colonial communities, and especially of the Australian provinces, had convinced me that Britishers and their descendants are always thoroughly capable of looking after themselves and their country, and the greater the difficulties by which they are faced, the stronger their determination to overcome them, and the greater, as a rule, their success.

There were many who laughed at the idea of forty thousand people or less being entrusted with a million square miles of territory and the entire control of their own internal affairs. I was not among those who laughed, for I knew the people. Few were better aware of the severe trials and vicissitudes which they had so bravely and uncomplainingly faced in the past. The gold had been tried by fire, and it has proved itself to be the true metal. Endued with the greatest powers and responsibilities which can be given to a colonial community under our constitution, no one can deny that the people of Western Australia have proved themselves equal to the situation. It is idle to say that Western Australia would have advanced whatever the form of government. With a full knowledge of the different types of colonial government, I have no hesitation in saying that the present position of Western Australia is due in no small degree to honest and progressive government, and that without that government her position might have been very different at the present day. On me devolved the interesting and important duty of appointing the first Premier and the first Legislative Council or Upper House of the colony. For the former position, after very careful consideration of the political circumstances, I selected Mr. (now Sir) John Forrest, and neither I nor the country have any reason to regret the choice. The political situation suggested his selection at the time, and he has proved himself thoroughly equal to the position, whilst in his colleagues and in the members of Parliament he has found loyal and able supporters. It was, I can assure you, a deeply-interesting task to launch the new ship of State in Western Australia, and it is now my pride and pleasure to see it safely sailing into the haven of success.

I would that it were given me to surround facts and figures with the glamour of a Gladstone or a Goschen. Nevertheless I hope to be able to show clearly that Western Australia presents a record of advancement during the last four years[1]—the period during which she has been self-governing and free to work out her own destiny—which few, if any, countries can surpass or even equal. I have to aid me the returns and reports of the Registrar-General, which are, of course, as unassailable as the character of the late Mrs. Cæsar At the end of 1890, or a couple of months after the proclamation of responsible government, the population of the colony was only 46,290, and at the present moment it is estimated that it exceeds 90,000, or an increase of nearly one hundred per cent. in rather more than four years![2] The revenue has also increased in the most marvellous fashion. In 1890 it was £414,314, and for the financial year ending June 1898 it was about £2,500,000. At present every man, woman, and child in the colony is contributing something like £10 per head to the revenue; but although it might be inferred from this that the community is overtaxed, and the cost of living high, I can only say, after wide and recent experience of the other Australian provinces, that there are no more contented and well-to-do people south of the Equator than those of Western Australia. You must judge a community as well as an individual by your own experiences and impressions, and mine are that Western Australia is a well-to-do community, full of hope, of energy, and of life.

If there is one thing more than another which must strike the new arrival and the inquirer into the conditions of the colony, it is the large amount of internal development which has been accomplished by what even now is but a mere handful of people. The telegraph penetrates into the remotest situations, and though Coolgardie and the Murchison were only discovered a couple of years or so ago, they are now in telegraphic touch with the whole world. I find that in 1893 there were 4303 miles of telegraph wire open, and at the present time there are fully 5000 miles—a wonderful record indeed.[1] At the present time there is a total mileage of Government railway lines open in the colony of 570, whilst the private lines, including the Great Southern and Midland lines, extend over 572 miles, making a total of 1142 miles of railway now open for traffic in Western Australia.[2] The Murchison and Coolgardie lines, for which tenders have been called, will add about 600 miles more, so you will admit that in this direction also the people of Western Australia are not deficient in enterprise. Since I resumed the government of the colony in 1890, nearly 500 miles of railway have been opened. What will be of great interest to the British investor, is how these lines are managed and are paying. The Government railways are being worked well and profitably, which in view of all things, especially the still limited population, is eminently satisfactory.

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[1] The colony received responsible government and ceased to be a Crown colony at the close of 1890.

[2] In October 1898 the population had increased to about 173,000. The imports were £6,493,557, and the exports £1,650,226 in 1897.

Amongst the important public works in progress is one for the conversion of the Port of Fremantle into a safe and commodious harbour. At present, as you know, the mail steamers call at Albany—a really magnificent harbour, than which there are few, if any, better in the southern seas. But the disadvantage is that the chief port of call in the colony is more than 300 miles from the metropolis and seat of Government. At present, the steamers go past Fremantle to Albany, and then the mails have to be brought back again to Perth. Steps are being taken to attract the ocean liners into what ought by geographical position to be the chief port of the colony, and to this end close on a million sterling is being spent in building breakwaters at the north and south heads of the estuary of the river Swan, in opening up the river and making commodious docks and wharves within the mouth. The scheme has been prepared by the engineer-in-chief of the colony, who has had large experience in harbour construction in New Zealand, and it is generally regarded as fraught with the strongest hopes of success. When we bear in mind what Melbourne and Adelaide have done in the matter of opening up their rivers, which are not in the least degree comparable with the wide and beautiful Swan, there is every reason to hope for the ultimate success of the scheme. At any rate, so sanguine is the Premier of the result that he induced the large Australasian Postal Conference at Hobart to agree to a resolution requesting the mail-steamer companies to make Fremantle a port of call when the harbour there is rendered suitable for the purpose.[1] The work of harbour and wharf construction is proceeding at a rapid rate, and it is expected that the whole scheme will be completed before the end of the present century. With harbour works at Fremantle, and a line of railway across the continent tapping the great eastern gold-fields, it is not difficult to foresee the future which lies before the western colony.

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[1] In October 1898 there were between 7000 and 8000 miles of telegraph wire open. In 1897 the number of miles of telegraph wire open was 6948.

[2] On 30th June 1898 the colony had in working order about 1700 miles of railway open for goods and passenger traffic, including tramways, possessed by government and private parties. Telephones are returned at over 2500 mileage of wire. The number of miles of railway lines in the colony in 1897 was 1867.

It will naturally be asked at what expense to the country and by what means these great public works to which I have referred are being constructed. Well, Western Australia, like her other Australian sisters, has not hesitated to come to the mother country for the aid which most kind parents extend to their deserving offspring. I find from the Year-book that the total amount of money raised on behalf of the colony in London up to the close of 1893 was £2,911,198, which, deducting debentures redeemed to the value of £38,100, left a floating debt, on 31st December 1893, of £2,873,098.[1] Subtracting from this the amount of the accrued sinking fund on the same date, viz., £129,099, left the net indebtedness of the colony on the day mentioned at £2,743,999, or at the rate per head of the total population of £43, 17s. 11½d. The first loan ever raised by the colony was in 1872 for £35,208, the rate of interest being then fixed as high as six per cent.: although Western Australia was then a crown colony, and might by some be considered to offer better security than even she can at present. In 1873 and 1875 two more small loans were raised, bearing interest at five per cent. For another loan raised in 1878 the interest was reduced to 4½ per cent., and for the subsequent loans raised, in 1881, 1882, 1884, 1888, and 1891, the rate of interest was further reduced to four per cent., showing, it is fair to say, an increased confidence on the part of the British investor in the colony and its prospects. The total amount of interest on loans paid by the colony during 1893 amounted to £100,386, which, with the sum of £13,982 carried to the sinking fund, made a total charge on the revenue of £114,368, or 20.40 per cent. of the total revenue received, and 17.85 per cent. of the total expenditure.[1] The balance brought forward from general revenue at the commencement of 1894 was £30,768. The total revenue for 1897 was £2,842,751, and the expenditure £2,839,453.[2] The total imports for 1897 amounted to £6,418,565, and the total exports for the same period, to £3,940,098.

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[1] Up to the close of 1898 the mail steamers plying between London and Western Australia had not been induced to substitute Fremantle for Albany as a port of call, nor does there seem any immediate probability of their doing so.

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[1] The public debt in 1897 had risen to £4,732.554, which has been expended on public works, but owing to the great increase of population the indebtedness per head has declined to about £34.

The population of the colony is, as will be observed from what I have already said, increasing very fast, but as yet the large and steady stream of emigration from the mother country has not set in to Western Australia. Nevertheless, there is an addition of a few hundreds every month from the old country, and my observation induces me to say that the mistake is not being made of despatching to the new world those who have failed in the old, but that Great Britain is sending to the golden West some of her best men. We are getting all classes, save the worst—from the peer to the ploughman—and I have had sitting at my table at Government House a collection of men of rank, ability, and high achievement who would grace any board, whether of hospitality or company direction. The colony is, in fact, at a most interesting stage in her history, and it is pleasant to live in a community in which the pulsations of progress are so marked, and where everything is so hopeful and prosperous—where there is little or no poverty save of the preventable description which overtakes the careless and indifferent. If I were asked whether Western Australia offered a gold field for men of means, muscle, brains, energy, and industry,

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[1] The public debt in 1897 was £7,608,480, or at the rate of £46, 19s. 9d. per head of population. The total charge on the revenue for the year ending June 1897, including annual interest and sinking fund, was £251,172.

[2] The estimated total revenue for 1898 was £2,905,350; general receipts being put at £1,685,000, and railway receipts at £1,220,000. The estimated expenditure, including the liquidation of a deficit on last year's account amounting to £186,803, is £2,900,000.

I should unhesitatingly say that I know of no country which displays a fairer field for enterprise and industry of almost every description.

But perhaps I am somewhat anticipating what ought to be my closing observations, so I will say a few words about the colony's leading industries and resources. First and foremost comes gold-mining. I think the gold returns are the best indication of the colony's auriferous resources. In 1897 the total value of gold exported from the colony, or rather declared for export at the Customs, was valued at over three-quarters of a million sterling, and there was an increase of more than fifty per cent. in 1898.[1] From the Pilbarra in the north to Dundas in the south valuable machinery is being erected on leading properties, in most of which good British money has been largely invested, and which I confidently hope and believe will yield large returns in many cases. When the different batteries are at work, turning out the gold regularly, as some of them are already doing, it follows that the gold yield must increase with almost astonishing rapidity; and it is estimated by some that the output this year will double that of 1894, and amount to a million and a half sterling in value.[2] New reefs are being found in all directions almost daily; in fact, information of fresh discoveries becomes almost monotonous in its regularity, especially to residents in the colony, and they, like the *blasé* pleasure-seeker, are hankering after new excitements. Indeed, the people of Perth need the discovery of a valley of diamonds[1] or a veritable mountain of gold to stir their pulses and thrill them with excitements. As for wonderful specimens from this or that locality, they are positively surfeited with them, and scarcely a man but is able to show you a lump of glittering quartz or a bright little nugget which some fortunate friend has given him. It must not be thought that West Australians do not fully appreciate and recognise the good fortune which has overtaken them, but I have endeavoured to make it clear that the name of the "Golden West," which is now applied to the colony, as it was years ago to the country across the Atlantic, is no misnomer. As I have already remarked elsewhere, the declared goldfields extend from Kimberley in the north to Dundas in the south, and the value of the gold that lies hidden there he would indeed be a bold man who should venture to predict. The fields have been reported upon with high favour by the most eminent authorities. It has now been pretty conclusively demonstrated that the Murchison and Coolgardie fields are practically one, together comprising an auriferous area of over 100,000 square miles, or more than three times the size of Ireland. Over these fields at least 20,000 men are scattered in all directions, about 4000 being centred at Coolgardie itself.[2] One of the principal drawbacks to mining and prospecting in certain localities has been the scarcity of water for both domestic and mining purposes. But a great deal has been done by both the Government and private companies in the direction of conservation of the rain which falls from the clouds and the condensation of the superficial and for the most part salt supplies which abound over the Coolgardie district.[1] As the shafts are being deepened, subterranean water—a good deal of it drinkable—is being discovered, and it is the opinion of experts that by means of one or other of the various schemes which have been propounded, the water difficulty, which has stood in the way of mining for a time, will soon disappear. Then, too, it must be remembered that there are dry processes as well as wet for the separation of the precious metal from the ores with which it is associated, and these have to be given a full and fair trial at Coolgardie and in parts of the Murchison district, which is, however, exceptionally well watered. It is perhaps not necessary for me to say more on this most interesting subject than to add the hope and the firm belief that Western Australia will before long realise the highest hopes which have been raised in regard to her prospects as a gold-producing country.[2]

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[1] The total gold production of the colony for 1897 amounted to £2,564,976.

[2] In the first half-year of 1898, Western Australia was shown to have risen to be the chief gold producer in the whole of Australasia, Queensland being second, and Victoria third. In the six months ending June 1898, the total auriferous yield of Western Australia amounted to 470,692 oz., which is equal in sterling value to about £1,665,200. In the later half of the year the returns have continued to be steadily progressive. The total for 1898 was 1,050,183 oz., valued at £3,990,697. For the first six months of 1899 the yield was 692.875 oz., valued at £2,632,927.

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[1] Curiously enough in October 1898 a great rush took place to Nullagine, in the North, on the reported discovery of a diamond-field which is said to afford indications of promise. Since the above was written other highly productive fields have been developed at Kalgoorlie, Mount Malcolm, and Mount Leonora; and other new districts of remarkable promise are likely soon to be brought under public notice.

[2] Since the above was written, Coolgardie has been eclipsed by Hannan's—more recently known as Kalgoorlie, north-east of Coolgardie,

The colony is fortunate in not having all its eggs in one basket. There are the great pearl fisheries of the north, from which valuable shells and magnificent pearls are obtained to the value of many thousand pounds yearly, the export of pearls in 1893 being

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to which a railway has been constructed. Highly-productive mines have also been discovered at Mount Leonora and Mount Malcolm.

[1] A great and costly scheme is being carried out by the local government for bringing an adequate supply of water for mining purposes from Swan River to the arid districts of Coolgardie and the auriferous region to the immediate north.

[2] There are large deposits of tin, copper, and lead in the colony, and important coal-fields have been tested on the Collie River.

estimated at £30,000, and of pearl shell at £59,254. These fisheries are now being carefully protected from wasteful fishing and exhaustion, Mr. Saville Kent, an eminent pisciculturist, having been appointed Commissioner of Fisheries for Western Australia, where he is already accomplishing valuable work. The deep-sea fisheries off the coast are at present almost untouched, and quite undeveloped, but these are commencing to receive attention, and Mr. Saville Kent is also engaged in the interesting work of acclimatisation of certain fish in the rivers of the colony, including salmon and trout. The pastoral industry of Western Australia has suffered somewhat of late years through a succession of severe droughts; but the pastures and flock have quickly recovered, and, but for the existing low price of wool, the sheep farmer would be as well off as ever. The quantities and values of wool exported in 1892 were 8,712,080 lbs., valued at £326,703: whilst in 1893 the figures were 10,742,384 lbs., valued at £244,973; a very satisfactory increase, all things considered.[1] Excellent wine is grown over a large area, in considerable quantities.

As to the timber resources of the colony, I am glad to see that our karri and jarrah are increasing in favour in this country, and are being largely used in laying the streets.[2] It is an old saying that there is nothing like leather, but I believe once its good properties for a variety of purposes become widely known, the proverb will be altered to, There's nothing like jarrah. It is certainly one of the toughest timbers in the world, and the most enduring for subterranean and submarine works of every description. Indeed, I look upon our forests as so important a physical feature, and as forming so large a portion of the material wealth of the colony, that a few special words about the south-western part of the territory, where these giant timbers exist, may not be out of place. I refer to that portion of the colony which is bounded on the north by the railway from Perth to Beverley, on the east by the railway from Beverley to Albany, and on the south and west by the sea. It has been estimated that our most valuable timber for commercial purposes covers an area of about 30,000 square miles, of which only a very small part extends beyond the limits of the division to which I now refer. There are other forest lands in the colony, notably those of pine, or more properly cedar, on the north coast, which will probably supply the wants of the Kimberley district, and which are accessible for that purpose, but too distant from other parts of the colony to have been available hitherto for use. Others there are which have been for the same reason useless, except for local purposes, being too distant from any port, but most of which will be made accessible by railways, as those on the watershed between Albany and Beverley and in the Blackwood district in the south, to which the line is about to be extended from Bunbury.

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[1] The value of wool exported in 1896 was £267,506.

[2] Since this article was written, a large amount of English capital has been invested in the jarrah forests of the colony, by the conversion of Millar's, Davies's, and the Jarrahdale proprietary into limited companies.

Of timber for exportation there are six principal kinds, all being eucalypts; but to these might be added several acacias, banksias, and other trees, all of which have their economical uses, not to speak of sandalwood,[1] now most plentiful to the east of the limit of our inquiry, and of which, when prices are favourable, large quantities are sent to China and Singapore. The first in importance of these eucalypts is that commonly known as the jarrah, or yarra, which is gradually finding its way into the markets of the world—the first not only because it is on the whole the most useful of the

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[1] The sandalwood exports in 1896 were valued at £65,800.

West Australian forest trees, but as covering the largest area, being the principal vegetable product over some 14,000 square miles. This tree attains to a large size, sufficient for all purposes of construction, is of handsome growth, straight and tall, but with the fault so common to the trees of Australia—it is not umbrageous. The white blossoms are, however, very beautiful, and produced in abundance, even when the tree is very young. The jarrah timber has been the subject of exaggerated praise and depreciation, and in either case not without some reason, having been found in some places to answer fully the claims made for it of strength and durability, while in others it has failed. The reason for this is not far to seek; like other timber it requires to be cut from trees growing on the proper soil—the ironstone gravel of the Darling Range—at the proper season and the proper age, and, moreover, certain parts of it are of inferior quality; it is also difficult to season, being liable to split in the process if care is not taken. The great and sudden demand which at one time was made for this timber induced, as I fear, its exportation to fulfil contracts as to quantity without sufficient regard to quality; but when the necessary care is taken, it will be found to justify the encomium of Baron von Mueller, whom we all know as a competent authority, "that for the durability of its timber it is unsurpassed by any kind of tree in any portion of the globe," and under such circumstances it has three properties of great utility—it resists the marine teredo and the white ant, and is not affected by the oxidation of iron bolts or nails. The next in importance is the white gum, of which there are several varieties. It is the predominant growth on some 10,000 square miles, and crosses the eastern limit of the watershed. This tree, although it does not often exceed 100 feet in height, has been known to attain to a diameter of 17 feet. The wood is hard, and for some works very durable and valuable, especially for the uses of the wheelwright and machinist; it is remarkable as growing on inferior land, and especially in moist situations. The tree occupying the next largest area is the York gum, so called from having been first found in quantity near York, on the Avon. It is the principal forest product over some 2400 square miles; its wood is remarkable for its toughness. Next in point of area of occupation, but first in size, and as will, I think, be ultimately proved, not second in utility, comes the giant of these forests, the karri tree, which prevails over 2300 square miles of the south-western coast of Western Australia. The maximum height attained by this noble specimen of Australian trees is not less than 400 feet, some 300 of which are without a branch, and its diameter has been measured to 20 feet. Hitherto the timber of this tree has not been much known, even in West Australia, on account of its size, and the consequent difficulty of felling and reducing it to marketable and transportable dimensions; but there is little doubt that, by means of the works established at Augusta, near the mouth of the Blackwood, it will soon be better known. Its durability has been sufficiently established by accidental circumstances; it is more elastic than, and quite as hard as, the wood of the jarrah. Next in order is the red gum, for beauty of form and umbrageous foliage the pride of Western Australian forest trees, predominating over an area of only some 800 square miles, but not infrequent elsewhere. The tree is lofty among eucalypts, and has not uncommonly a diameter of 10 feet at the base; its wood has been considered equal to jarrah, and its gum as a specific against dysentery. The tuart occupies the comparatively small area of 500 square miles in this district. It grows to a considerable size, often six feet in diameter, and very rapidly, on the sandy and limestone hills of the southern and western coasts, where, unfortunately, it has been in many places destroyed, being that most ready to hand for domestic use among the early settlers, its remains testifying that what is now a treeless waste was once a verdant forest. The wood of this tree is solid, and does not rend, and is used in shipbuilding.

These are the principal timber trees, but these forests produce others of value for purposes of utility or beauty; for the latter, the *Eucalyptus ficifolia*, with its gorgeous crimson blossoms, is preeminent. Obviously the vast forests of the south-west of Australia form one of its most important physical features, as they are, and must continue, at least for many years, a primary source of wealth; but unless their conservancy go *pari passu* with their utilisation, it is to be feared that, like those of North-east America, they may ultimately disappear altogether, unless, like those of Southern India, they are restored by science, art, and labour. One is an example of entire denudation from neglect, but the latter of restoration by timely care. It is not so many years since the dockyard at Bombay was supplied with teak from Moulmein. Now, under the scientific supervision of foresters, the neighbouring hill-country produces, as I understand, an abundance, both for use and exportation. The timber works in South-west Australia are increasing, the export becoming an important one.

The forest growth throughout that district is, as elsewhere, the cause of atmospheric action and reaction, producing a greater rainfall and a greater conservation of water by preventing evaporation from the surface of the ground. The average rainfall throughout the district approaches thirty inches; in other parts of the colony it descends to one-half that quantity. There is this to be observed, however, that the valleys opening to the north, as the Avon, or to the west, as those of the coast from the Swan southward, being more exposed to the action of the sun, the surface evaporation is more rapid, and the waters therefore less permanent than in the south.[1]

The coast districts of the south and west are in some respects similar, while yet they have characteristic differences. I may say a few words on both. In the floras the contrast is marked; the white gum and peppermint, so named from the scent of its leaves, were, and in less proportion are still, the principal trees of the west coast, until it approaches the district of the karri, which stretches across to the south coast, and is then continuous eastwards; but the special habitat of the karri is on the lower Blackwood and Warren, though gigantic specimens have been found as far east as on the Frankland.

A word must be said for the graceful peppermint, with its drooping branches and long train of white blossoms, and more especially its verdant foliage, which, no doubt, was what proved so grateful to the eyes of the first British explorers of this coast, comparing it, as they would do, with the russet green of the trees of New South Wales. There are few trees which grace the garden more than this beautiful tree. Besides these, a characteristic feature of the flora of the west coast is the black boy (*Xanthorrhœa*), common, indeed, throughout the country, but persistent in retaining its ground when others have been destroyed. Some day it may prove of economical utility. To this we may add the *Zamia*, which is found over the rough surfaces of the limestone, where worked into ridges and hollows by the action of the rain. The flora of the south coast has not only these, but additional characteristics peculiar to itself. There we find dense and almost impenetrable masses of what might be termed in England copsewood, with the varieties of eucalypts and other trees not known in other parts of the colony. The wealth of vegetation here is easily accounted for by the southern exposure, and the nearer the approach of the rocky hills to the sea, and consequent abundance of fresh water. I have elsewhere remarked that this district, from the lower Blackwood eastward, has been esteemed by more than one competent judge as better fitted for settlement by Europeans, especially on account of its climate, than any other part of Australia.

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[1] The timber exported in 1896 amounted in value to £116,420. The quantity shipped has greatly increased since then.

The south is emphatically the country for the man of small capital and great industry, whether directed to agriculture, dairy farming, or horticulture. The fruits of our European gardens and greenhouses are produced there spontaneously, but have hitherto received little cultivation, because a market was wanting. The same might be said of dairy produce, but the railway constructers will prove there, as elsewhere, great consumers, and the produce neither of gardens nor dairy will any longer want a market. If I term this district the garden of West Australia, I think I shall not be contradicted by those who know it. Other products of the colony are guano, horses, sandalwood, skins, and a few minor ones which I need not enumerate, so it will be admitted that the colony is not deficient in resources. When to all this is added its undoubted agricultural capabilities, which have been much misunderstood and misrepresented in the past—that, as I have endeavoured to show, it is essentially the home of the vine, and offers the greatest possibilities as a wine-making colony, and that all sorts of fruit, both tropical and sub-tropical, grow profusely, I have said enough, I hope, to prove that Western Australia is far from the land of sand and sorrow which some unfortunate prospector described it to be.

In considering the condition and prospects of the colony, one must not overlook the capabilities of the country opened up by the Midland Railway, running from the pretty little town of Guildford, on the Swan, to Champion Bay.[1] Important areas of land, much of it agricultural, and some of it said to be possessed of fine timber, are held by the company which built this line, as in the case of the Great Southern Railway, on the land-grant system, and as I understand that the company is on the eve of formulating comprehensive schemes for the settlement of their lands, we may reasonably hope that in the country between Perth and Champion Bay we shall witness an early and rapid development.

Thus far I have spoken almost exclusively of the natural features of the country. A few words before I close as to the condition of its towns and settlements.

Perth is the capital, and is situated about ten miles from Fremantle, at the mouth of the river Swan. Perth is the Adelaide of Western Australia, and Fremantle the Glenelg and Port Adelaide combined. With the exception of Sydney, I have seen nothing in Australia to equal the situation of Perth. The town contains now about 12,000 inhabitants,[2] and has several excellent public buildings. Government House and the Town Hall, both erected by convict labour, are commodious and handsome, and when built, some thirty years ago, were considered in advance of the times. For its population the city covers an unusually large area of ground, but as the population increases, the vacant spaces will be built upon, and I quite believe that, what with its beautiful site and splendid climate, Perth will ere long become one of the most agreeable places of residence in Australia. It will always be the political capital of the southern part of the colony, as distinguished from its tropical portions. and Fremantle, the shipping port of Perth and the central districts, will undoubtedly hold its own also. On the west side of the town there is a very beautiful hill with a not very beautiful name (Mount Eliza), on the summit of which is the service reservoir of the waterworks company. The water difficulty having thus been solved, picturesque red brick houses, after the manner so popular in London now, have been creeping up the slopes of the hill, and are spreading themselves over the top. Standing there about sunset, when the lights and shadows are at their best, the scene is one to be remembered. To the north and east the Swan River may be seen encircling the town, and flowing away westward towards the sea. At one's feet lies the city, with its numerous fine buildings and its gardens aglitter in the setting sun, while the background of the Darling Range, about ten miles distant, and purple in the evening light, contributes to the charm of a panorama which can hardly be surpassed in Australia, if indeed in any part of the world. One cannot look down on the Swan from the now peopled heights of Mount Eliza without recalling the time when, so 'tis said, a party of French sailors, on exploration, and possibly acquisition, bent, pulled up in their boats as far as the bend of the river where the city of Perth now stands, and were then driven back to their ships by the unearthly croaking of the myriads of frogs which then infested the shores. I must confess that the note of the Swan River frog (of which some still exist) is not particularly musical, and would hardly create feelings of envy in the breast of the great songstress of the south, who has forged so delightful a link between the new country and the old; and yet I never can listen to a chorus of our frogs without a feeling of gratitude and pleasure, for, if tradition be not merely a myth, we owe it to their ancestors that the flag of Old England now floats over the fair city of Perth, and that the sway of our own beloved Queen-Empress extends to that distant land.

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[1] There is now railway communication all the way from Albany and Perth to Cue, the chief town of the Murchison district, upwards of 200 miles from Mullewa.

[2] The number in 1898 was 40,000, and the population of Fremantle 10,000.

Descending the coast from Fremantle, the next town of importance is Bunbury, ninety miles from the Swan, and picturesquely situated on the west side of the entrance to Leschenault Inlet, in which debouch the Preston and Collie Rivers, with several smaller streams. The harbour is a tolerably safe one, being sheltered from all but the north-west winds. Bunbury is the capital of the district of Wellington, and a port for the shipment of timber, sandalwood, horses, and general produce. It is the outlet to a considerable tract of productive country, and possesses a fine jetty, built of jarrah timber, which affords facilities for the loading and discharging of vessels. The coastal steamers call at this port. The town is under municipal government, is already well provided with churches and schools, and will in course of time become an important place. It is connected by railway with Perth.

Thirty miles south of Bunbury we reach the pretty little town of Busselton, the capital of the agricultural district of the Vasse. Cereals do well in this neighbourhood. Couch-grass thrives remarkably well, and it is not too much to say that the bulk of the sandy and apparently inferior country along the coast could be converted into valuable paddocks, capable of carrying large quantities of stock. The climate of the Vasse is superb. The hot winds seem to stop short of this district; consequently the heat is seldom excessive, and as the cold is never so severe as in Tasmania, for instance, it may, I think, be said, without fear of contradiction, that the country from Vasse to Albany enjoys one of the finest climates in the world. It is a land of flowing rivers, magnificent timber, and scenes that are grateful to the eye, and the traveller there is impressed with the conviction that what is now primeval forest will one day be the home of a large and prosperous population.

Fifty miles south from Busselton is Augusta, a very useful port at the mouth of the Blackwood River, in the neighbourhood of which one of our enterprising and respected citizens, Mr. M. C. Davies, has established extensive timber-works. From this the coast trends eastward, and passing the mouths of the Warren and Frankland Rivers, Albany is reached, at a distance of about 180 miles from Augusta, and 360 from Fremantle. From Albany to Perth by road is 261 miles, and the country traversed by it is practically identical with that selected for the railway, with the exception that the road bends to the westward after passing the Williams, the railway line continuing north to Beverley, which is the south-eastern terminus of the Government railway. Of the journey by road from Albany to Perth but little need be said. In the first place, it is practically a thing of the past; and secondly, it really differs but little from country travelling in other parts of Australia. The country inns at Kojonup (100 miles north of Albany), the Williams, and other points along the road, are neither better nor worse than those in other similar places, while the road itself is by no means a bad one, considering the sparsely-peopled country through which it passes. There are worse things in life than a three or four days' drive from Albany to Perth, for what with the exhilarating atmosphere, the park-like beauty of the scene in places, the wealth of bush flowers, with now and then a touch of the mysterious silence of a great Australian forest—to say nothing of an occasional shot at a kangaroo or a bustard—I have found the time pass pleasantly enough while travelling on that unjustly-maligned highway.

As regards myself personally, everything connected with Western Australia is invested with peculiar interest to me, for some of the happiest years of my official life were spent there; and I like to think that feelings of friendship and regard have been established between the people and myself which, at all events on my side, neither time nor distance can obliterate.

AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINALS

By G. WILSON HALL

(*Late M.P., Victoria*)

Many persons come to the conclusion, in speaking of the natives (aboriginals) of Australia, that there is very little distinction between one part of the continent and another. Yet there is a difference of race, character, stature, language, and in some respects modes of life. If I were asked to give the two extremes of Australasia, I should select the Maori, New Zealand, as the most intelligent, highest character, and finest stature, and the Victorian blacks as about the dirtiest, laziest, most ignorant, superstitious, and poorest-built tribe. The Victorian race, however, is fast dwindling away, partly through some dire disease, which occasionally breaks out amongst them, carrying off great numbers, and partly through infanticide, once so universally practised. Then they had a belief that no one dies a natural death, so that if a death occurs, the relations of the deceased think sorcery has been practised by another tribe, and a murdering expedition is started to revenge the dead, and bloody, destructive battles are fought. It was a common thing to see a *lubra* carrying one pickaninny, but most uncommon to see a mother carrying two children. If she had twins she selected the healthiest, and did away with the other. The tribes have their own boundaries, and woe to any other native who was found trespassing on the territory of another. Sometimes it would be summary punishment. If a man, he would have his front teeth knocked out; if a woman, a joint of her little finger cut off. Some tribes have laws more stringent than others. In one, the man required exclusive fidelity from the woman, under the severest penalties, sometimes death, but he recognised no similar obligation towards the woman. The giving in marriage at an early age was admitted, but if a greater man grew up, and demanded the girl as a bride, it was a matter of the strongest, and the weaker man had to be content to see his intended marched off by his conqueror. There are travellers who have a good opinion of the Australian aboriginal, and believe most of them may be trusted. One writer says that if Messrs. Burke and Wills, the explorers, on their return to Cooper's Creek, after their dash across the continent, had understood the natives whom they found there, and exhibited a friendly bearing towards them, they could, in all probability, have learned from them that the party who had been left in charge of the depôt camp was only a day's journey ahead. A communication would have been opened up, and in the meantime the natives would have sustained them with food; instead of which the explorers were driven by hunger to eat some fish bones which had been left by the blacks, and finally perished from starvation. After the death of Burke and Wills, King fraternised with a powerful tribe, and was supported by them until succour arrived.

The blacks are superstitious, and have some strange theories regarding their origin. Some of the Yarra (Melbourne) tribes say that, many years ago, Punjil made two male creatures from clay, and with his big knife he cut three large sheets of bark, upon which he worked the clay into a proper consistency. When the clay was soft, he carried a portion to one of the other pieces of bark, and commenced to form the clay into a man, beginning at the feet; then he made the legs, then he formed the trunk and the arms and the head. He made a man on each of the two pieces of bark. Being well pleased with his work, he looked at the men a long time, and he danced round about them. He next took stringy bark from a tree, made hair of it, and placed it on their heads—on one straight hair and on the other curled hair. Punjil expressed his pleasure by again dancing round his human creation. Then he named the straight-haired one Berrookbom, the curly-headed one he called Kookinkerook. After again smoothing their bodies with his hands, from the feet upwards to their heads, he lay upon each of them, and blew his breath into their mouths, into their noses, and into their navels; and after breathing very hard, they stirred. He danced about them a third time. He then made them speak, and caused them to get up, and they rose up, and appeared as full-grown young men. This is the general belief as to their creation.

The blacks' chief superstition is that they do not die, but when the body becomes motionless it will rise again, and perhaps appear in the form of a white. It is very common to hear the black say that instead of dying, "he will go down black fellow and come up white fellow." This superstition is borne out by the account given by William Buckley, the Wild White Man, who lived with the blacks in Victoria for about thirty-three years before he had an opportunity of being restored to his own race. He was so long with the tribe that he spoke their language fluently, and well-nigh forgot his own. Buckley was an escaped convict, and in his early wanderings he was almost starved, not being able to procure suitable food. In a famished condition, he one day dragged himself to a grave, denoted by a spear being thrust in the ground. This was the spear of the dead black, and Buckley drew it from the ground. He clutched it in his hands, and sank exhausted upon the grave. When he woke, he found black women dancing and singing around him, and, as he afterwards learnt, hailing him as the returned black, but now a white man, and fully grown, for Buckley was over six feet in height. They came to him and unfastened his shirt, to be sure he was white all over. They then went for some of the men of the tribe, who made great rejoicings. Buckley signified that he was hungry. Food was brought to him, and he received great attention, and offered a wife from amongst the tribe, which he thought it better to accept.

The *corroboree* or war dance must be seen to be rightly understood; but I will endeavour to give a description, as I have seen over a dozen of these weird demonstrations. The night is selected, and a fire made, around which is seated the *lubras* or black women. Their legs are crossed, and stretched from knee to knee are dried skins of animals, upon which the women beat with sticks, keeping time to the sing-song, and to which accompaniment the men dance. The blacks—perhaps 200 in number—are grotesquely got up for the occasion, having wreaths of gum leaves around their arms, loins, and legs. Their faces and bodies are painted with different-coloured clay in peculiar fashion. Each man is armed with clubs, spears, or boomerangs, and shields of bark. They sing, snort, and make all sorts of noises, stamping their feet upon the ground all together, causing it to shake, so excellent is the time kept. They beat their spears or clubs upon each other's shields, singing or yelling, and wriggling their legs, which are painted with white clay. When this wriggling takes place, these white stripes down their legs have the appearance of writhing snakes. Then there is a struggle for victory,. With glaring eyes, dilated nostrils, and cheeks puffed out, a rush is made. One half the party beats a retreat, the others pursue, and the noise of the blacks is almost deafening. They all soon reappear, and continue their dancing and singing, presenting a weird sight in the forest by the glare of the firelight.

I do not think the number of the tribe in Victoria exceeds 200, and most of them are kept by the Government on farms, where they are provided with food and clothing, but are expected to do some kind of work in return. Many of these are half-castes, showing the morality of the black women to be of a degrading character. Some of these half-castes are full-grown men and women, and some are desirous of leaving the farm, going out to service as farm labourers or domestic servants. They are of a hardier nature than the full-bred native. All their royal family have departed this life: the last to leave it was King Billy, of the Gippsland tribe.

The blacks of Victoria did not regard the early invaders of their dominions with much apprehension, and showed but little desire to contest the right or the power of the new-comers to settle amongst them. They were as curious as inferior people usually are, and were greatly pleased with presents of trinkets, blankets, &c., offered them. After receiving them, the blacks sought the bush, and proudly showed these presents to their friends. One of these committed an act of theft, and stole the rudder or row-lock of the white men's boat, and made off with it to the bush. He was soon discovered, and he with his companions were taught the lesson that honesty was the best policy. They were brought back, and all the presents that had been given them were forcibly taken back, and they were made to understand that no more presents would be given them until they had restored the stolen property. This had the desired effect.

The natives are treacherous if led on by a member of the tribe who is dangerous and bloodthirsty. Some people have called their leaders chiefs, but from what I could gather the Australian blacks had no chiefs in the ordinary sense of the term. The husband was the head of the household, but the people as a tribe recognised no personal authority, unless from the king of the tribe. Each man or family was under no restraint but that imposed by custom. As in all communities, civilised or savage, some men in every tribe were naturally looked up to by the others, on account of superior intelligence or physical strength. These might be taken for chiefs by white strangers.

If I am not mistaken one of these leaders was the cause of bloodshed on the western side of Port Phillip, near what is now known as Coria Bay, Geelong, Victoria, and where the natives had their first experience of powder and shot, about the year 1803. Three unarmed natives came to the boats of the *Calcutta*, then exploring the shores of the bay, to receive fish, bread and blankets. Feeling no apprehension from these naked savages, one boat continued the survey while the other boat's crew remained on shore to make dinner and obtain fresh water. As soon as the boat had disappeared the three natives took their leave, but in an hour returned with forty more, led by one of these leaders, who seemed to have great authority with the tribe. They made a rush on the party, evidently with the intention of plunder. They stole a saw, an axe, a tomahawk, and other things, so that the white men could not get their boat off. The native number soon increased to more than two hundred. The other boat just then came in sight, and observing the warlike appearance of the natives, went to the assistance of their mates. Those on shore were being roughly handled, and called to the sailors in the boats to fire. Thinking that the report of firearms would intimidate the natives, two muskets were fired over their heads.

For a moment they paused, and a few retreated behind the trees, but finding no damaging result, returned, clapping their hands and shouting. Some small shot were now fired among them, and from the general howl many were supposed to be struck. This discharge created a general panic, and leaving their cloaks behind them, they flew in every direction among the trees. But after a while a large party advanced in a compact body to the brow of the hill, armed with spears, and carrying shields. When within a hundred yards of the boat, they halted, and the leader with one attendant came down to the tent, speaking vehemently, and holding a large spear in a position for throwing. For peace' sake the sailors gave the blacks all the cloaks that had been left, and also some presents. When this had been done, the main body on the hill began to descend shouting and flourishing their spears. The white party were drawn up, and for safety, the muskets loaded with ball were presented, with a threat that if the natives approached any farther, they would be fired upon. These threats, either not understood or despised, only brought the natives nearer. It became necessary then to prove the power of the firearms. Selecting this violent leader as a proper example, three muskets were fired at him, at fifty yards' distance, and he fell dead on the spot. The others turning round at the report, saw him fall, and immediately fled among the trees, and the dead body was left behind.

The strong expression of feeling is a somewhat savage fashion, by what may be called the ceremony of self-infliction. The men wildly beat their breasts, and hammer their heads with heavy clubs, the violent genuineness of their grief being made evident by the loud thuds, which are very audible. The women give vent to their feelings by demoniacal shrieks, and by each pulling out her own hair in handfuls, and by other equally mad actions. After moans and groans many seem quite giddy and dazed with the blows and injuries which they had inflicted upon themselves.

The natives are very adroit in their handling of their rude appliances when fishing. The bait is large earthworms, strung on pieces of long grass fixed at the end of a length of elastic bark. This line is tied to a rough rod and dropped into the stream. There is no hook, but the dexterity of the angler enables him to land his fish when he feels a good bite, as the fish generally keeps a tenacious hold for a moment.

Many of the natives are pigeon-toed, and this is often accounted for from their peculiar habits of tree-climbing when in search of nests or wild animals. He first cuts a notch in the bark of the tree about a yard from the ground, in which he puts his big toe and pulls himself up; then, after making a second notch, he lifts himself up farther in a similar way; a third notch is made, and so on again and again, embracing the tree with one arm while with the other he wields his primitive hatchet and makes the notches up the long straight trunk of the large trees of the forest.

When hostile tribes meet they sometimes have some hot words, which invariably result in active hostilities, but followed by both sides rushing for every available shelter behind shrub and tree, and from their cover glare hatefully, threaten loudly, and await an opportunity to do execution with their spears. As the tension increases the threatenings cease, and silence prevails as each party seeks to draw the other from its vantage-ground. When a spear is thrown it is a signal for a general engagement. They all come out of cover, and for a few minutes the spears literally darken the air. They dodge one another's weapon by nimbly jumping aside or warding it off with the narrow shield of thin wood or bark carried in the left hand. When a native is wounded one of his tribe endeavours to drag him into the scrub out of harm's way.

After the spear throwing, the side which considers it has the victory shout and close in upon its opponents. club in hand. The battle is then soon over by a little skull-cracking, and the victors march triumphantly on their way.

The natives make but little ceremony over the burial of one of their *lubras* (women). They collect together a quantity of wood and bark and heap it up into a pile. On this the corpse is placed and a fire-stick applied, and the whole mass set into a flame. When the body is sufficiently cremated, the embers of the fire are raked together over what remains of the dead body, and around it are stuck upright the long digging-stick with which the deceased used to dig up roots. No ceremony is performed, nor display of feelings by the men; some of the women may utter a low mournful wail for a few minutes. The savage tribes consider their women as of little importance. At the burial of a man the mourning is considerable, and the forests often ring with howls of lamentation.

In hunting, the blacks are very clever, and all their skill is required to capture the feathered monarch of the Australian forest—the emu. It is very shy and difficult of approach, and the utmost caution is necessary in order to get within spear-throwing distance. The slightest strange sound or the sight of an advancing man would be the signal for the birds to cut and run with great swiftness. So the huntsman adopts the ruse of procuring a leafy bush, large enough to conceal his form from the watchful bird. Behind this shelter the man silently stalks forth, pausing occasionally to allay any suspicions the bird may have at seeing a moving tree coming towards it. When the native is within throwing range the death of the emu is almost certain. The oily flesh is much enjoyed, and the hair-like feathers (after the ostrich) are used for dress material. These birds are now extremely scarce.

The Australian natives are said to be great gorgers, and to have tremendous appetites, and after they have stuffed to their bodies' content they stretch themselves on the ground and snore. One gentleman who had many years' personal contact with the natives thus describes the way they conduct themselves when the opportunity offers: "When food is plentiful they feast and riot to the top of their savage hearts, gorging themselves (as certainly none of the brute creation do) until their abdominal regions become so distended as to be decidedly uncomfortable. Not being learned in medicine they do not avail themselves of the relief offered by emetics. To remove their discomfort, however, they lay themselves prone on the ground, face downwards, and get women suffering less from repletion than themselves to run up and down on their bodies until the desired end is gained, either by expulsion or extension. When the happy result is successfully achieved they commence to gorge again, and continue doing so until the rolling process is once more found necessary to animal comfort; and this continues just so long as the feast lasts."

When a native wants a wife it was the custom for him to exchange his sister or daughter for one. A man is not supposed to marry a woman born in his own tribe, therefore he seeks a wife from a neighbouring friendly tribe. Old men frequently have two or three wives, while many young men have none. There are no old maids among the blacks, for the men generally number two to one of the women. A widow does not remain so longer than a week, as she is inherited by her husband's brother or some other near relation of his, who either takes her into the bosom of his family or exchanges her for another woman. If she is old or ugly she may be parted with as a gift to a bachelor friend. If a woman becomes old and decrepit, she not infrequently receives a quietus in the shape of a knock on the head from a waddy. A woman has no rights. She is simply regarded as a chattel, and as such is bought, sold, and exchanged by her parents or responsible guardians. One peculiarity of the blacks in connection with their marriage customs is that under no circumstances will they marry blood relations. Such an idea is regarded with indignation and horror.

In Australia the customs of the natives are so like in many respects to those of other existing savages or barbarous races, and the people of ancient times, that it is necessary to make a classification, in which every known custom, and where practised, should be classed, but that would be a long, toilsome duty. The funeral ceremonies of the Australian natives are perhaps unlike those of other savages, but the manner of disposing of the bodies are similar. The common practice is to inter the corpse, but some are placed in the hollows of trees, some in the beds of running streams, some in caves, others on the branches of trees, while others are burnt. In Queensland, sometimes a long speech is made over the grave by a leading man of the tribe. Mr. Bridgman gives an instance of a case in Queensland, where he heard a funeral oration delivered over the grave of a man who had been a great warrior, which lasted fully an hour. The corpse was borne on the shoulders of two men, who stood at the edge of the grave. During the discourse the orator spoke to the deceased as if he were living and could hear the words. After the body has lain in the grave for three months or more, it is disinterred, the bones are cleaned, and packed in a roll of pliable bark, the outside being painted and decorated with beads. It is then placed in the camp of the living, where it may be seen by the near relations of the deceased, who sit down by it, and wail and cut themselves for half-an-hour. The bones may be taken away by a friend, who will sleep by the body, but it must be safely returned the next morning. Women and children who die are usually burnt.

In some parts of Queensland, after the bodies are burnt the natives keep and carry about with them the ashes of the dead. A sudden death is often the cause of fighting amongst men of the bereaved tribe. They spear each other; some are killed by this means.

The Queensland natives suffer immense torture by the tattooing on their bodies. Some are heavily scored on the backs, and the figure of a native of Queensland which I saw showed a very curious set of scars; and it seemed wonderful how he could have endured the pain of the operation of this embellishment.

These natives communicate messages by what is known as message - sticks. They not only sent messages, but describe the events of a journey, and furnish details of a character that would prove useful to their friends. One of these message-sticks was produced in a court of justice in Queensland, and on being interpreted by a native trooper, it showed that an attempt had been made to release a black prisoner from jail. It has been stated that a message-stick has been carried about from camp to camp that once belonged to a native *corroboree.* It was carried for hundreds of miles. The stick is about the dimensions of a common walking-stick—only some ten inches in length — and carved after the aboriginal manner. Invitations are sent to distant tribes by this means. Young natives have carried their credentials carved on these message-sticks. They are used by the men—never by women.

The natives use their toes in dragging their spears when they want to conceal their weapons from their enemies, and in ascending trees the great toe is always in requisition. It is supposed the joints of the great toe are more pliable and the muscles well under command. The women also make use of the great toe of the right foot when they are twining rushes for their baskets. The natives are expert at stealing with their toes, and while engaged in talking with any one will, without moving, pick up the smallest thing from the ground. By means of their toes they will also carry as many as six long spears through the grass without any part being seen. "The nimbleness of their toes," says Mr. Jessop, "was proved to me when I asked a Murray black to display his cleverness in that direction. I put a sixpence on the ground and placed him by my side. Watching his operations I saw him pick up the thin coin with his great toe just as we should with thumb and finger, bend his leg up behind him, deposit the money in his hand, and then pass it into mine, without moving his body in the slightest degree from the vertical." The Queensland native in climbing trees not only uses his big toes, but makes use of the strong creepers or climbing plant, instead of a rope, to support his body, and ascends with great ease. The natives of Queensland differ a good deal in appearance; some are passable in appearance, while others are repulsive. Here and there are exceptions. Mr. Hodgkinson said he found a fine specimen on the Bellingen, in Queensland; and as he pictures such an Apollo, I give you Mr. Hodgkinson's own words: "One man in particular had been pre-eminently remarkable (in outrages on whites), from his tallness and herculean proportions; the sawyers up the Nambucca had distinguished him by the name of 'Cobbaun (big) Bellingen Jack.' I never saw a finer specimen of the Australian aborigine than this fellow. The symmetry of his limbs was faultless, and he would have made a splendid living model for the students of the Royal Academy. The haughty and dignified air of his strongly-marked and not unhandsome countenance, the boldly-developed muscles, the broad shoulders, and especially the great depth of his chest, reminded me of some antique torso." Here is another description, which I think will apply more generally to the Australian black: "Not pleasing. The expression of their countenances was sometimes so hideous, that after such interviews I have found comfort in contemplating the honest faces of the horses and sheep; and even in the scowl of the patient ox I have imagined an expression of dignity, when he may have pricked up his ears and turned his horns towards these wild specimens of the 'lords of the creation.'" Another authority describes a native as "six feet two inches in height, weighing fifteen stone, and of superior stature. His strength was prodigious, and his proportions remarkably fine. The development of the pectoral muscles and the depth of chest were greater than I had ever seen in individuals of the many naked nations through which I have travelled. A spear laid across the top of his breast as he stood up remained there as on a shelf. Although ugly, according to European appreciation, the countenance of the Australian native is not always unpleasing. Some of the young are, I thought, rather well-looking, having large and long eyes, with thick lashes, and a pleasant frank smile. Their hair I take to be naturally fine and long, but from dirt, neglect, and grease every man's head is like a huge black mop. Their beards are black and bushy. The gait is peculiarly manly and graceful; his head thrown back, his step firm; in form and creation at least he looks creation's lord—'erect and tall, godlike erect, in native horror clad.' In the action and gait of the black there is none of the slouch, the stoop, the tottering shuffle, incident all upon the straps, the braces, the high heels and pinched toes of the patrician, and the clouted soles of the clodpole of white men."

Many of the half-castes present peculiarities of interest. The female complexion is usually of a pale brown, and very few show much red on the cheeks. The boys are different, and generally have bright, clear complexions with red cheeks, and some would hardly be distinguished from children of European parents. There is very little difference or peculiarities in the colour of the eye. The young half-castes take more after the character of the male parents than the mother. The nose is usually broad, the mouth large, and lips thick, but no feature strongly or coarsely marked. When the half-castes attain maturity they exhibit aboriginal blood more strongly. They become fleshy and coarse, and have repulsive countenances. Both sexes deteriorate after the age of fourteen. The children of a half-caste female and a white man are difficult to distinguish from children of European parents. They may change after reaching the age of maturity, and this will much depend upon their surroundings and modes of living. A training in a good school with white children as associates, and a rough life in the bush with the blacks, is very different, and will have great effect upon the young.

The tribes of Central Australia speak different dialects, and attain their names from rivers and granges, or even animals. They pay but little respect to old age, except in the case of a leader. These people, like other natives, are superstitious, and have great faith in their medicine men. They do not appear to have made much use of the skins of wild animals for clothing, seeming to prefer nakedness. They show a marked appreciation for the dog, and any mongrel is welcomed in their camp. They treat him well, and think it a great crime to kill a dog. The natives are clever at hunting, and at fighting show the same courage as most of their race.

Both sexes are believers in tattooing, and in some cases the designs are such as to mark relationships.

They do not look upon the white man with feelings of kindness. The black thinks the white man should not hunt the kangaroo, unless the black is also permitted to hunt the white man's bullocks, cows, and pigs.

They show more cordiality and sympathy towards each other than is found in all natives. They sit around their camp fire at night, and sing their native songs and tell their native stories, until one by one the blacks becoming sleepy steal away to their *mia-mias* to sleep. A child at birth is sometimes named by the mother after the place at which she imagines she conceived it. They are not believers in close marriages, but prefer crosses. The marriage age is from fourteen to fifteen years.

When holding a *corroboree,* which sometimes lasts ten days, great sexual indulgence is permitted. The women are often taken by their tribe to a spot near another tribe and left there, and any familiarities between the women and men are considered acts of friendship by all parties. These mutual exchanges seldom cause any ill-feelings, except where a couple become too fond of each other, and are loth to part, or return to the rightful lord or spouse. A native would be considered very churlish if he refused to submit his *lubra* to the kindness of a man of another tribe during these rejoicings.

When a woman gets married, she has her nose bored by her husband. This makes her his wife. About puberty the boys are circumcised.

The women have a strong aversion to a large family, believing three or four children quite enough for her to feed and look after. When she has an increase of this number, she quietly disposes of the surplus without being asked questions.

To promote the growth of a girl's breasts, she is painted during the mumbling of a chant or dirge.

She is then taken away to her mother, and does not return to the camp until the paint is worn off. There is no actual proof of any fuller development by this practice. The breasts of native women are generally flabby and baggy.

The natives of Central Australia do not believe in natural death, no matter what their age may be. They say death is the result of some magical influence through the power of an enemy. Should the dying man mention the name of any person, he is regarded as the guilty man. If not, the medicine man is appealed to, and he invariably finds out the culprit, according to his belief; and the avenger bides a suitable time, when, accompanied by the medicine man, he waylays his victim, and stealthily creeps upon him and spears him. The medicine man goes to the dying man, who is unconscious, and covers up the wound, bringing the patient to his camp, where he dies without recovering consciousness. The medicine man has great influence with the blacks, and his actions are seldom questioned.

THE BEGINNINGS OF AN AUSTRALIAN LITERATURE

By ARTHUR PATCHETT MARTIN

Late Editor of the "Melbourne Review," and Author of the "Life and Letters of Robert Lowe, Viscount Sherbrooke," &c., &c.

In the strict logical sense of the words, there is—and there can be—no such thing as Australian literature, any more than there can be a South African, a Canadian, or even an American literature. Should some free and enlightened citizen of the United States feel outraged by this assertion, let him calmly consider for a moment the case of the ancient Greeks. That wonderful race, it will be admitted, were our supreme guides as well as forerunners in civilisation, our superiors in the science of colonisation, and our masters in the art of literature and all other arts.

From a small centre about the size of Yorkshire, or the Scottish Lowlands, the Greek spread his exquisite language, his beautiful creeds, his arts, his commerce, and his warlike arms from the Pillars of Hercules to the Sea of Azof. He converted the Mediterranean into a Greek lake, and his colonies extended from Massilia—the modern French city of Marseilles—and from the coasts of Africa on the west, to those extensive and troubled lands which we call Asia Minor on the east.

Even under the subsequent Roman dominion, Greek remained the literary language of the civilised world. St. Paul's very Epistle to the Romans, as well as the rest of the sacred books on which the Christian religion is based, were written, not in the local tongue of Judea, nor in that of Imperial Rome, but in the language of Greece. The whole of the seven apostolic churches of Christendom arose in what were Greek Asiatic colonies, and the speech and culture of this marvellous people long outlived the political downfall of the mother country.

Now, when we speak of Greek literature, we do not narrow the phrase to the works of those writers born and bred within the circumscribed area of Greece itself. According to tradition, Homer, the first of Greek poets, was an Ionian colonist of Asia Minor; so, too, Herodotus, the father of History, and Sappho, the first and greatest of Greek poetesses, were "colonial" Greeks. It is as though Shakespeare had been born in Sydney, or Milton in Melbourne.

It should never be forgotten that the United States of America, though politically independent—never again, I trust, hostile—are still, in the old Greek sense, England's greatest colony. The Greek colonies, in fact, generally began their career with a declaration of independence, but they remained Greek just the same. As Carlyle put it (speaking of England and America), "we are both alike the subjects of King Shakespeare!" Longfellow—or Walt Whitman—in so far as he is a genuine poet, and has produced verse that appeals to us by sincerity of thought and beauty of form, is equally with Tennyson one of the glories of our common English literature, and it matters not a whit that the one should have been born and bred in Old England and the other in New England.

But it is convenient to speak of "American" authors and "American" literature; and in that spirit, when I use the phrase "Australian literature," I mean the works of those few writers who reflect the life, describe the scenery, and reveal the social conditions of Australia. If these writings should be found to appeal to the critical judgment and to touch the higher emotions of our widely-scattered race, they must, in due course of time, take their place among the permanent treasures of English literature. I regret very much that I shall not have the pride and pleasure of bringing under your notice an Australian Homer or Sappho—these Greek "colonials" are altogether, high as the heavens, above us. In fact, I remember Sir Charles Dilke once saying that the only real book of genius yet produced in a British colony is Olive Schreiner's "Story of an African Farm." That may be so, although I think Sir Charles Dilke, contrary to his custom, makes here a somewhat too sweeping assertion. I trust, at any rate, to show that the English settlers in Australia have, at least, made a "beginning," and may even now claim a place in the ranks of English letters and culture.

I would, however, at the outset like to point out that a good deal of sheer nonsense is habitually talked, both at home and in the colonies, on such subjects as Australian literature and colonial genius.

I read the other day the report of an address in which a colonial lady boldly proclaimed Mrs. Humphrey Ward to be the bright particular star in this Australian literary galaxy. Mrs. Ward, the grand-daughter of the famous Dr. Arnold of Rugby, and niece of the late Matthew Arnold, is, by accident of birth, a Tasmanian. She was born at Hobart, from which town, at the early age of five, she was taken to England. But what has Tasmania or Australia to do with "Robert Elsmere" or "Helbeck of Bannisdale"? These well-known works are English novels of the day, which have achieved a vast popular success, though whether that success be lasting time alone can show.

My point is, that Mrs. Humphrey Ward, despite her birthplace, has nothing whatever to do with Australian literature.

A bright and gifted Irish lady—a valued friend of my own—a few years ago accompanied her husband, an English doctor, to Melbourne, and while resident in that city wrote "A Yellow Aster," which, on her return to London, she published under the *nom-de-plume*, "Iota." Mrs. Caffyn is therefore at once pounced upon as "an Australian novelist." What has "A Yellow Aster" to do with Australia or Australian letters? Absolutely nothing! However, unlike her colonial-born sister novelist, who can know nothing personally of Australia, Mrs. Caffyn can, if it pleased her, utilise her colonial experiences, and being a woman of literary ability, and with that rare gift in either sex—an original vein of humour—she may yet produce some work which will entitle her to rank among the founders of this still unformed school of Australian fiction.

All this wild and foolish kind of talk about Australian genius and colonial poets and novelists is as though one should dub the Marquis of Salisbury, because his lordship happened to visit a certain famous gold-field at the time of the first rush, in the early fifties, "the great Bendigo statesman."

Having tried to show what I do *not* mean by that Australian literature, of which I fancy I can trace the beginnings, it is full time that I should come to close quarters with my subject, and show what I *do* mean.

The late Marcus Clarke, in his fine preface to the collected poems of Adam Lindsay Gordon, makes a significant critical remark. "The student," he says, "of these unpretending volumes will be repaid for his labour. *He will find in them something very like the beginnings of a national school of Australian Poetry.*"

He who wrote these words was, in my opinion, not only the best all-round man of letters that Australia can yet boast, but the only first-class literary critic in the colonies who thought it worth his while to devote any serious attention to the works of local writers. Marcus Clarke was intimately acquainted with all that had been done, both in prose and verse, by the earlier generation of colonists. But he was a man of letters and a critic, not an antiquary or a stamp-collector. He knew quite as well as Professor Dryasdust that a certain prehistoric Sydney judge, Barron Field, the friend and correspondent of Charles Lamb, had scribbled some lines on a kangaroo before Adam Lindsay Gordon was born: only Clarke considered the "Lines on a Kangaroo" merely a quaint piece of doggerel verse, and not "the beginnings of a national school of poetry," or of anything else. Also, while proclaiming his friend Gordon to be the pioneer of Australian poetry, he knew perfectly well that Charles Harpur had written fairly good sonnets, and still better Australian descriptive verse long before Gordon ever dreamt that such a country as Australia existed. Since Mr. Douglas Sladen devoted his boundless energy to the compilation of Australian anthologies — a labour for which, in my opinion, he deserves more thankful recognition than he has received—Charles Harpur has attracted some faint amount of attention, both in England and America, as the Chaucer (in point of time) of Australia! Mr. Alfred Miles, in his "Poets and Poetry of the Century," includes Harpur, and gives some specimens of his verse, as does Mr. Edmund Clarence Stedman—the well-known American poet and critic—in his superb "Victorian Anthology," recently brought out in New York.

Charles Harpur was born as far back as 1817, in the bush township of Windsor, New South Wales, and spent almost his whole life among the lonesome primeval gum-trees and the rough human surroundings of that locality. "He was," writes his admiring disciple, the poet, Henry Kendall, "a son of the forest, a man of the backwoods, a dweller in unquiet and uncouth country, and his songs are accordingly saturated with the strange fitful music of waste broken-up places."

In my opinion, it is the utter absence of this "strange fitful music" which prevents Harpur from being the actual founder of an Australian school of poetry, and — despite the efforts of the anthologists—makes him a mere name, and nothing more! You might wander from one end of Australia to the other, and mix with every class of society, without hearing a line of Harpur quoted. His bush descriptions, faithful enough in the main, have none of the music of Henry Kendall's, beside whose melodious lyrics Harpur's read like so much disjointed prose.

Harpur's successor, Henry Clarence Kendall, was also a native of New South Wales, and although he survived Adam Lindsay Gordon by some years, he and the author of the "Bush Ballads and Galloping Rhymes," were actual contemporaries, and they may be regarded as the first writers of verse in Australia who made any real impression on the Colonial public.

Mr. Douglas Sladen, who has devoted a great deal of attention to the study of Kendall, considers—and I think rightly—that as a bush landscape painter, Kendall, who was native and to the manner born, is a truer and more delicate artist than Gordon, who was Australian only by adoption.

Though I should be the last to detract from the well-deserved local fame of Henry Kendall, many of whose poems—as "September in Australia," "The Grave of Leichhardt," "At Euroma"—will always be admired in the land of their birth, I still hold with Marcus Clarke that Adam Lindsay Gordon, if only by reason of his stronger Byronic personality, and the much more profound human feeling in his writings, is the true pioneer poet of Australia.

But before I speak at any length on Gordon and his "Bush Ballads and Galloping Rhymes," it will be more according to the sequence of events if I attempt to unfold the origin and beginning of the Australian novel.

Prose fiction is generally held to be the characteristic form of literary expression of the Victorian era, as the acted drama in blank verse was of the Elizabethan era. *Our* romance or novel in barren prose takes the place of *their* five-act play in blank verse! We loiter through our play "by our own fireside," as Sir William Harcourt would say, whereas our vigorous forefathers sweltered or froze in the playhouse pit to get at the gist of theirs.

Shakespeare, we are told, had he lived in the present time, would have catered for Mr. Mudie's subscribers. From the standpoint of those subscribers, I can only say that if this be so, they have a perpetual grievance! Certainly the novel dominates the modern bookshelf; but God forbid that we should regard the ordinary novel as having any necessary connection with literature. One might just as well consider a row of jerry-built suburban villas as having some relationship to the art of architecture. These modern novels, as a rule, are jerry-built indeed: constructed to sell, if haply they do not fall to pieces before the purchaser appear. For all that, prose fiction, from the days of Sir Walter Scott to our own, has been the one form of literary art that appeals to a really wide public. Amid the immense heaps of rubbish that are daily turned out from our teeming presses, we come every now and again upon the work of a true artist in fiction; a novelist who can portray for us human life, who can give us actual transcripts of human society, who is a master of the difficult arts of narration and description, and who possesses, it may be, the supreme Shakespearian gift of humour! Such a writer, though his medium be but the barren prose of our epoch, will produce lasting work, genuine literature.

Regarding fiction as an art, let us ask, Has Australia yet produced, or inspired, any work of lasting importance, any novel which shows us the actual phases of colonial life, in these remote, but no longer, new settlements?

Before we can answer this question it is necessary to have some picture in our minds of what we mean by Australia as a community, or, I should say, as a set of communities; for Australia, young as she is, has already passed through three or four distinct epochs. First of all, there was what may be called the convict epoch.

Captain Cook having discovered the country, Pitt and his political successors determined to make it a kind of huge over-the-sea prison reformatory. So we had a "society" in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land almost without a parallel in ancient or modern times. Following very sharply on this, and indeed mingling with it at first, came the pastoral or patriarchal epoch. And this was succeeded in turn by the gold era, heralding, and, in fact, creating, the present widespread Australian democracy.

With regard to that early criminal period, we have in Marcus Clarke's powerful but revolting story, "For the Term of His Natural Life," a work of singular, I may say of cold-blooded, power, which is actually based in the main on official papers regarding the early penal settlements in Van Diemen's Land. This book must always occupy a foremost position, perhaps I should say a unique position, in Australian literature. It can never be superseded or re-written. It was when Clarke was completing its final revision that I first made his acquaintance in Melbourne, and I remember, as a youth, being struck by the immense amount of labour which he bestowed on the gruesome details of this terrible tale. He told me that when he went over to Tasmania on a visit, in order to see with his own eyes Port Arthur, he was shown at Government House the unpublished MS. diary of a prison chaplain named Rogers. Readers of "His Natural Life" will remember the strangely pathetic figure of the Rev. James North and the frequent extracts from the diary of this weak, sore-distressed, pitiable, and yet not unlovable man. All this portion of the book was an actual transcript from the diary—"written up," so to speak—which Clarke found in the archives of Government House, Hobart. And sad as it is, I thought, when re-reading the book the other day, that these pathetic pages about the Rev. James North are almost the only portion of the book not calculated to give a sensitive reader the horrors.

Such chapters in "His Natural Life" as those headed "One Hundred Lashes," and the absolutely horrible one called "The Valley of the Shadow of Death"—to my mind the most revolting thing in English fiction—are almost too ghastly to dwell upon. But if you ever want to meet a man who really enjoys horrors, you should always search amongst professional jokers and comedians. I was not at all surprised, therefore, to find that Mark Twain, in an interview with a colonial reporter in Sydney recently, gave expression to his intense admiration of "His Natural Life," and his especial delight in the repulsive character of Gabbett, the convict-cannibal. "His Natural Life" has also proved a rare solace to another recent Antipodean tourist—Mr. Michael Davitt.

No single book produced in the colonies, unless it be Gordon's "Bush Ballads," occupies the same position in the popular estimation of Australians as this powerful story. It has been read all over Australia, and dramatised and acted in all the chief cities and bush townships. Yet I remember vividly my own feelings when, many years ago, I first read "His Natural Life." I confess that those feelings were largely made up of regret—a kind of patriotic regret—that a man so gifted as Clarke should have devoted such an immense amount of labour to this compendium of crime. It seemed to me a hard thing, too, that the free and untainted population of Australia, which had had no connection with those terrible times of Port Arthur and Norfolk Island, should have this national stigma recorded in indelible ink. And I remember expressing these sentiments to Marcus Clarke himself, and suggesting that as he had spent a couple of years on an "up-country" station, he should write another novel dealing with what I have called the "Pastoral Epoch"—the period of the pioneer squatters. When we next met, Clarke took me aside and said, "The thing you suggest—the writing of a novel describing the life of that splendid body of men, mostly gentlemen and younger sons, who were the real pioneers of this colony, has been already done. Henry Kingsley did it once for all in 'Geoffrey Hamlyn'!"

"The Recollections of Geoffrey Hamlyn" was written, or rather published, by Henry Kingsley, brother of the more famous Charles Kingsley, on his return to England after a five years' sojourn in Australia, in 1859—just forty years ago! With the companion book, "The Hillyars and the Burtons," it contains the best permanent literary record in the form of fiction of what I have termed the pastoral epoch of Australia. And from these two books, which, of course, were written many years before "His Natural Life" (though they deal with a later phase of the country's social development), we may trace the actual beginnings of an Australian school of fiction. I do not propose to make any careful analysis or elaborate criticism of these well-known novels, especially as they are just now very accessible, having been lately republished in London under the competent editorship of Mr. Clement Shorter. This fact of itself ought to be sufficient to show that I am not overstating the claims of Henry Kingsley to a place in the permanent literature of the country; for how few novels, after an interval of forty years, are ever heard of again, much less reissued in a popular and attractive form, and with the editorial care befitting a classic?

Concerning "Geoffrey Hamlyn" and the "Hillyars and Burtons," Mr. Clement Shorter makes this true and pertinent remark: "Henry Kingsley alone among novelists has focussed for us in two of these books the early life of a new country, the first building-up of a great commonwealth. His name must be writ large indeed in the annals of Australia; and in the Old Country there are critics of diverse tastes—critics like Mr. Swinburne, Mr. James Payn, Mr. Andrew Lang, Mr. Augustine Birrell—who are united in appreciation of 'Geoffrey Hamlyn.'"

I am sorry to say that, so far as my personal experience goes, "Geoffrey Hamlyn" is not nearly so widely read in Australia as it deserves. For ten persons who have read "His Natural Life," there is not one who would be found familiar with the characters and episodes of this fascinating story of early squatting life.

Among Australians no one has more warmly appreciated "Geoffrey Hamlyn" than Henry Kingsley's foremost living disciple, the well-known Australian writer, Mr. Thomas Alexander Browne, who, under the name of "Rolf Boldrewood," has produced in recent years a series of very entertaining and attractive bush stories.

If you would really enjoy the true flavour of Kingsley's two fine novels, I would strongly advise you, first of all, to read a little book by Rolf Boldrewood, entitled, "Old Melbourne Memories"—which, not being a work of fiction, is likely to be overlooked. I read these sketches of the "old Colonial days," as Gordon fondly called them—the "days before the gold," as the early squatters used to say—a dozen or more years ago; and nothing that "Rolf Boldrewood" has since done has given me quite so much pleasure. The title, "Old Melbourne Memories," is a misnomer; the book should have been called "In the Days of the District," or "Old Provincial Days," for Rolf Boldrewood here describes the "up-country" social life among the delightful sheep and cattle stations of the Western District of what is now the colony of Victoria, but which was then the Port Phillip province of the mother-colony—New South Wales. In "Old Melbourne Memories" you will see the actual records of these early pastoral settlers, whom Henry Kingsley turns to such brilliant account in "Geoffrey Hamlyn" and the "Hillyars and Burtons." One feels that they must have been about as fine a set of well-bred, high-spirited gentlemen as ever were raised in this wonderful little England of ours. These adventurous younger sons were irresistibly attracted to the newly-discovered pastoral runs in Port Phillip by Sir Thomas Mitchell's account of his memorable exploration journey across what he termed "Australia Felix." They found large tracts of virgin territory, admirably adapted for flocks and herds, and in the matter of labour they had at hand the pick of the huge convict population, who were let out as servants and workmen on a system of ticket-of-leave by the Sydney Government.

No one has given a truer picture of these pioneer squatters, whom Henry Kingsley immortalised in "Geoffrey Hamlyn," than Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, in an article entitled "Port Phillip: A Preliminary Chapter in the Political History of Victoria," which I had the honour of publishing for him in the *Melbourne Review* (October 1876), then under my editorship. Sir Charles writes: "To estimate this community by its numbers alone would give a very inadequate gauge of its power and resources. Every fifth man you met had done some successful work. He had made a prosperous business, or reclaimed and fenced wild land, or imported valuable stock, or explored new country, or, at lowest, had built a house and planted an orchard or vineyard, when orchards and vineyards were in effect nurseries for the whole community.

"These early settlers were trained by the nature of their pursuits to frank, fearless lives, at a time when men travelled with no other guide than the firmament and the landmarks of nature, and no protector but their right hands. Highways or bridges and punts there were none; and houses of entertainment in the bush were far apart; but hospitality was universal, and if there were no question of their 'rights,' of which they were as jealous as Alabama planters, these big-bearded sunburnt men were pleasant hosts and good fellows, and, for any adequate public need, would have furnished such soldiers as rode after Stonewall Jackson."

This, then, was the community, and this, so to speak, the raw material out of which Henry Kingsley worked up the Australian chapters of his two great novels. He himself went out to Australia a few years later than this glorious early pastoral period. He went out fresh from Oxford, with two young friends, in 1853, to seek his fortune on the gold-fields. As might have been expected, he found no nuggets, and was altogether an unsuccessful colonist. Despairing of making his fortune on the gold-fields, he drifted into the mounted police, a post which he is said to have resigned on account of the horror he felt at having to attend the execution of a criminal.

It is a somewhat singular fact, that Gordon, whom Marcus Clarke ranks as the founder of Australian poetry, and Henry Kingsley, whom I consider to be the founder of Australian fiction, should both have been mounted policemen. Australian literature, it would therefore seem, originated not in the student's library, but in the trooper's saddle.

There can be no doubt that, judged by the ordinary worldly standards, Henry Kingsley was, as Mr. Shorter declares, "on the whole a failure." After his return to England he married, and wrote half-a-dozen or more novels, in most of which may be found evidence that he possessed in a high degree the true genius of the story-teller.

But Henry Kingsley was completely overshadowed by the brilliant success and European fame achieved by his elder brother, who was a novelist, romancist, poet, historian, social reformer, and theologian, all in one. It is singular that the very name of Henry Kingsley should be completely ignored in the well-known "Life and Letters of Charles Kingsley." "And yet," adds Mr. Clement Shorter, "it is not too much to say that when time has softened his memory for us, as it has softened for us the memory of Marlowe and Burns, and of many another, the public interest in Henry Kingsley will be stronger than that in his now more famous brother."[1]

Australians, in my opinion, ought to be in the very forefront of this movement, to render some measure of tardy justice to this too-long neglected novelist. Australia, indeed, owes a real debt of gratitude to the brilliant young Englishman who, in those far-off years, settled for a while in the bush, and in that time learned to love and appreciate the country almost better than any "native-born" writer I could mention. Save for

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[1] Mr. Louis Becke would doubtless assert that Dr. George Kingsley, the youngest brother of this gifted family, should not be ignored. It was Dr. Kingsley who accompanied the late Earl of Pembroke on his Antipodean voyages, and wrote in conjunction with him that delightfully amusing book of travel, "South Sea Bubbles," by the Earl and the Doctor.

Henry Kingsley, no enduring literary record would have come down to us of those early pioneer settlers, who are the true founders of the present Australian commonwealth.

In "Geoffrey Hamlyn" and the "Hillyars and Burtons" we may see these men in their habit as they lived; and I would add that in the hands of this gifted romancer the Australian women and girls of those early times are as faithfully and beautifully presented as are the old pioneer squatters themselves and their sturdy sons.

These two books should be in every Australian library, and certainly no squatter of the present day should fail to have his Henry Kingsley on his shelves, if only for the benefit of the inquiring English globe-trotter, who may be desirous of knowing how Australia as a community has been evolved.

Kingsley's most popular disciple and follower is "Rolf Boldrewood," whose novels of bush life and incidents have achieved a well-deserved popularity in England, as well as in Australia. His novels are wholesome out-of-doors stories, full of movement and fresh air; although I have heard an eminent Australian judge complain that "Robbery Under Arms" has had a tendency to popularise bushranging among idle "up-country" youths, in the same way that "Jack Sheppard" was said to have increased thieving in London. But, compared with the so-called "Detective Story," in which the author cudgels his brains to invent ingenious crimes, and to depict the devices by which our secret police outwit the criminal, or are outwitted by him, such a book as "Robbery Under Arms" is perfectly wholesome in its moral tendency. "Rolf Boldrewood's" stories, though often very inferior in quality, are all of this class—vigorous and thoroughly Australian, with excellent description of bush scenes. He is not by any means a great or original writer, nor is he in any sense a profound or subtle artist in words; but he deserves his place as the head of the present Australian school of fiction founded on Henry Kingsley.

In my opinion, Mrs. Campbell Praed is a much more artistic novelist, and she has done in her early stories for North Australia what Kingsley and "Rolf Boldrewood" have done for the South. She is *par excellence* the novelist of Queensland. Born in Brisbane, the daughter of Mr. Murray Prior, an early squatter and well-known local politician, Mrs. Campbell Praed from her childhood saw much of the inner political life of the northern colony. No Australian novelist is so political; and the hero of perhaps her finest novel—"Policy and Passion"—"Longleat of Koralbyn," is, in my opinion, the most lifelike picture ever drawn of the typical rough-and-ready Australian statesman of the masterful democratic type such as London recently beheld in the great jubilee procession. As a companion volume to Rolf Boldrewood's "Old Melbourne Memories," I would advise every one interested in the social and political development of Australia to read a little volume of Queensland sketches by Mrs. Praed, entitled "Australian Life: Black and White." The book is plainly autobiographical, and teems with vivid descriptions of colonial life and manners.

Mrs. Campbell Praed has resided for many years in London, but in all her best Australian work there is that unfailing touch of truth which bespeaks one who is "native and to the manner born." In my opinion her early novels of Australian life are distinctly superior to her more up-to-date London society fictions.

Another lady novelist, Mrs. Cross, the wife of a Victorian clergyman, has written many pleasing stories of Australian life and society. Under her now familiar maiden name, "Ada Cambridge," she has indeed become one of the popular lady novelists of the day—a remarkable achievement for one whose novels are always moral and decent.

One could go on naming quite a number of other more or less well-known writers who have found inspiration in Australian wilds, or from the new social conditions of colonial city life. Madame Couvreur, the late correspondent of the London *Times* in Brussels—under her pen name, "Tasma" (which, like that of "Melba," discloses the lady's former habitat)—has written some admirable stories and sketches, both of Tasmania and Australia; Miss Louise Mack of Sydney, too, is clever if imitative; while Miss Ethel Turner, also of Sydney, has made quite a speciality of Australian children, and is altogether a fresh and entertaining writer. Quite a little school of "short story" writers has sprung up recently, of whom Mr. Henry Lawson, "the poet of the Bush," may be considered the head with his admirably graphic sketches, entitled "While the Billy Boils." No writer has turned the rough pioneering of "up-country" farm life to such humorous account as "Steele Rudd"; Mr. Ernest Favenc's tales of exploration, and of the Austral tropics, are often graphic as well as gruesome; while Price Warung's tales of the horrible convict days are always gruesome, and at times graphic. A Sydney writer, Mr. Alexander Montgomery, somewhat on the lines of Mr. Louis Becke, is at times quite his equal; while a novel of North Queensland squatting life has recently appeared in London—"Dinkinbar," by Mr. Herbert MacIlwaine—which almost rivals the best work of Mrs. Praed or "Rolf Boldrewood."

It is somewhat singular that from Henry Kingsley downwards the writers of Australian fiction have given their best work to descriptions of the squatting or pastoral life of the community. The great country of gold-fields and diggers has not produced its Bret Harte. Not one single tale of its myriad mining camps has been written that could for a moment be mentioned beside "Tennessee's Partner" and the "Luck of Roaring Camp," those immortal masterpieces in miniature, compared with which such a book as Rolf Boldrewood's "A Miner's Right," is as heavy as lead.

Having roughly sketched my views on Australian fiction, I propose to bring under your consideration that genuine, if unequal, poet, Adam Lindsay Gordon, whom I rank as the chief figure, and as one of the founders of an Australian literature.

Let me say, once for all, that in making this claim for Gordon I have no wish to overlook or underrate the many other gifted colonial verse writers, some of whom have an undeniable right to be called poets. Kendall, as I have admitted, is often far more artistic, and almost always describes the scenery of his native bush more faithfully than Gordon. Mr. Brunton Stephens, the Queensland poet, in "Convict Once," has shown himself capable of a more sustained effort, and in his lighter verse displays a distinct vein of humour (strange, indeed, some may think in a Scotchman!) which Gordon altogether lacked. I am delighted to know that Mr. Stephens's collected "works" are shortly to be brought out, as I hold he has achieved an undeniable place in Australian literature. Mr. George Gordon M'Crae, a man of fine mind and wide culture, has published at least two epic poems, based on the traditions and mythology of the poor native races whom we have ousted. But you cannot write epics on the Australian blacks; you might as well compose a sonata on a monkey.

Beyond any of these stands Alfred Domett, that remarkable man who suddenly grew wearied of London and wandered off to New Zealand, to the utter surprise of his friend Robert Browning—

"What's become of Waring,
  Since he gave us all the slip,
Chose land-travel or seafaring,
  Boots and chest, or staff and scrip,
Rather than pace up and down
  Any longer, London town?"

This "Waring," otherwise Domett, not only became Prime Minister of New Zealand, in which colony he remained for some thirty years, but on his return to England in 1871 he published his great Maori epic, "Ranolf and Amohia," a poem of marvellous descriptive power, replete with deep philosophic thought; a poem which, I have been informed, no less a personage than the Empress Frederick ranks among the literary glories of her illustrious mother's reign. But for all that, "Ranolf and Amohia" must, I fear, be considered *dead;* no one reads it or quotes from it; nor has it in any way influenced the mind or heart of young New Zealand. I do not even discuss the claims of "Orion" Horne—a true though almost forgotten poet—as he merely lived in Australia a few unsatisfactory years, and while there produced nothing of Australian interest or import.

When we have urged all that can be said with regard to these poets, it will be found, I think, that Adam Lindsay Gordon, at least in the estimation of his fellow-colonists of Australia (who are, after all, the best judges of the matter), stands in a totally different position from any of them. I hold that the highest aim of literature is to reveal human personality; it is the enchanted mirror in which we may catch stray glimpses of the human soul. No one can read a page of Gordon without at once feeling the presence of his powerful individuality.

"Every book," says Robert Louis Stevenson, "is, in an intimate sense, a circular letter to the friends of him who writes it. They alone take his meaning; they find private messages, assurances of love, and expressions of gratitude dropped for them in every corner. The public is but the generous patron who defrays the postage."

It is undeniable that Adam Lindsay Gordon appeals not only, as no other colonial verse-writer does, to Australians, but also to those high-spirited and untamable soldiers of fortune to be found in all lands, wherever the English race has settled. His philosophy of life is perhaps not profound, but it is very moving—

"Life is mostly froth and bubble,
Two things stand like stone—
Kindness in another's trouble,
Courage in your own."

It is the philosophy of the old Border moss-trooper, and of the soldier and comrade-in-arms. Adam Lindsay Gordon, as his name declares, was of Scottish extraction. He came of the "lightsome Lindsays" and the "gallant Gordons," whose daring deeds shine out in so many of the songs and traditions of the North. The clan has given to our empire many a brave heart and stout arm, and in the immortal hero of Khartoum the most noble figure in our modern annals.

The author of "Bush Ballads and Galloping Rhymes" was the son of Captain Adam Gordon, scholar as well as soldier, who married his cousin, Miss Harriet Gordon, a lady of fortune. The future poet first saw the light at Fayal, in the Azores, over sixty years ago. The story of his life has been too often told for me to repeat it; suffice it that after a good education at Cheltenham College, where his father was Professor of Oriental Languages, he, at the age of twenty or twenty-one, found himself in Adelaide, South Australia—strange to say, in 1853, the same year that Henry Kingsley arrived in Victoria—and, like our pioneer novelist, Gordon joined the mounted police. Like Kingsley, too, as a colonist Gordon was a complete failure. He tried his hand at everything; he was, as well as a policeman, a horse-breaker, a landowner, and member of the South Australian Parliament (this as the result of a legacy from the old country); then, crossing over the border into Victoria, he became a livery-stable keeper at Ballarat, and all the while he scribbled verses, and was the best gentleman steeplechase rider in Australia. His poems were written chiefly in the Mount Gambier district of South Australia, on the Victorian border. He published three slender volumes afterwards in Melbourne; but here also, judged from the world's standpoint, he was a failure, for the proceeds did not pay the printer's bill. Finally, utterly broken down, it is said, by his inability to secure the Esslemont estate, in Scotland, to which he had claims, Gordon, worn out with debt and disappointment, blew out his brains on the Brighton beach, near Melbourne, June 24, 1870. He was then well under forty years of age—a sad story, in truth. He left a widow, but no children, having lost his only child in Ballarat.

Gordon was not only the son of a soldier, but came of a race of warriors. No English poet—not Byron or Sir Walter Scott, not even Mr. Kipling—glories more openly in the fighting qualities of the race. If Count Tolstoi be right, and war and patriotism be alike un-Christian, then is the poor "Bush Bard" little better than one of the heathen. For truly, there was in him much of what the pious term the "old *Adam*," which comes out strongly in such lines as those describing the man who rode by his side in the hunting-field, up to and over the stone wall, with the stream on the "take-off" side—

"I remember the laugh that all the while
  On his quiet features played—
So he rode to his death with that careless smile
  In the van of the Light Brigade.

So stricken by Russian grape, the cheer
  Rang out when he toppled back
From the shattered lungs, as merry and clear
  As it did when he roused the pack.

Let never a tear his memory stain,
  Give his ashes never a sigh,
One of many who perished not in vain
  As a type of our chivalry."

Such verses as that rattling English racing ballad, "How we Beat the Favourite," or the pathetic Australian lament, "The Sick Stockrider," are now almost as familiar in London drawing-rooms and on suburban platforms as in the remote sheep-stations or bush shanties of the Antipodes. They are not perhaps of the highest form of art, but they have the qualities which appeal to the mass of mankind. In Australia itself they are rather better known, at least in "up-country" sporting and racing circles, than anything in the Bible or Shakespeare.

Gordon's poems, which were of so little use to him in the battle of life, have indeed now become almost household words in the land of his adoption; and he appeals, as I have said, to a certain class of adventurous men all over the world, as few, if any, of our greater poets do.

Some little time ago, when one of our unending little wars had broken out in Africa, it was reported that the officers of a regiment carried with them into the desert the poems of Gordon. High Indian authorities, such as Sir Mountstuart Grant Duff and Sir Alfred Lyall, bear testimony to Gordon's wide popularity in the remote military stations of Hindustan. It could hardly be otherwise; for the light of battle is in his verse, and Gordon is indeed the laureate of the soldier's true friend—the horse.

You may open Gordon's poems anywhere, at random, and the effect is as though some erratic but masterful genius were confiding to you personally his most intimate thoughts. From an æsthetic point of view, many of his lines, like Byron's, may be poor and halting; but even in his feeblest effort the feeling is borne in upon you that he who wrote it was a *man*, and not a whining, long-haired weakling. "Written as they were," says Marcus Clarke, "at odd times and leisure moments of a stirring and adventurous life, it is not to be wondered at if they are unequal or unfinished. The astonishment of those who knew the man and can gauge the capacity of this city (Melbourne) to foster poetic instinct, is that such work was ever produced here at all."

My own experience in first introducing Gordon to the knowledge of the English public by an article in *Temple Bar*, written some fifteen years ago (February 1884), was suggestive. My little article landed me in a correspondence with some two hundred strangers, all, like Oliver Twist, clamouring "for more," and requesting to be informed where they could procure copies of Gordon's poems. In that article I made in no sense a careful or critical estimate of Gordon as a poet; and I remember that the late Francis Adams—whose untimely death we all deplored—subsequently took me to task for what he considered my excessive eulogy. My astonishment may be imagined when I came to read Mr. Adams's own appreciation, entitled, "The Poetry of Adam Lindsay Gordon," and lighted upon the following passage:—

"What I find so admirable in Gordon, and in almost all his characters, is that they are *men*. I mean *men*, as opposed to dreamers or students. His Lancelot *is* Lancelot, the knight who has lived and loved largely. Lord Tennyson's is not. I must confess that I think that 'The Rhyme of Joyous Garde' is worth all the other 'Idylls of the King,' save 'Lancelot and Elaine' and 'The Passing of Arthur,' put together."

It is perhaps worth pointing out that Adam Lindsay Gordon, whom I consider the national poet of Australia, often falls into curious errors in describing the land of his adoption. I think that this may have arisen from the fact that Gordon's muse was the product of two such very different climes as the South of England and the South of Australia.

None of his verses are more familiar than the Swinburnian dedication to Major Whyte-Melville of the "Bush Ballads and Galloping Rhymes," which begins thus—

"They are rhymes rudely strung with intent less
Of sound than of words,
In lands where bright blossoms are scentless,
And songless bright birds."

As we all know, many of these bright blossoms have correspondingly strong odours, and the very wattle which, in a later stanza, he so beautifully characterises, possesses a special and most exquisite perfume. As to the "songless bright birds," what are we to say to the screech of the cockatoo and the guffaw of the laughing jackass? The truth is, that in writing such verse as this, Gordon, in spite of his disclaimer, is like his master, Swinburne, simply carried away by the rush of sound and the music of the words. Still, with this patent blemish on the very face of it, this "Dedication," as such, is almost unsurpassed. What can be finer than the oft-quoted lines descriptive of the Australian Spring—

"In the Spring, when the wattle-gold trembles
'Twixt shadow and shine,
When each dew-laden air-draught resembles
A long draught of wine;
When the sky-line's blue burnished resistance
Makes deeper the dreamiest distance,
Some song in all hearts hath existence—
Such songs have been mine."

There is a beautiful little lyric of Gordon's called "A Song of Autumn," in which the poet seems to me, if I may say so, to be in England and in Australia at the same time—

> "Where shall we go for our garlands glad
> At the falling of the year,
> When the burnt-up banks are yellow and sad,
> When the boughs are yellow and sere?"

"The burnt-up banks" doubtless came from his later experiences of the dry Australian bush, but the yellow boughs of autumn are very English, while the sad refrain—

> "I go where the last year's lost leaves go
> At the falling of the year,"

was clearly a reminiscence of his earlier life in Gloucestershire, for, as you know, the all-prevailing eucalyptus is an evergreen!

Despite these blemishes, almost every one of Gordon's shorter poems, even when they echo too closely his two masters, Browning and Swinburne, go straight to the heart; in fact, we do not pause to take note of their defects. Swinburne himself has written nothing on the sea finer than some of the lines in Gordon's poem, "The Swimmer," where, if the "form" be Swinburnian, so also is the "force"—

> "I would that with sleepy soft embraces
> The sea would fold me—would find me rest
> In luminous shades of her secret places,
> In depths where her marvels are manifest;
> So the earth beneath her should not discover
> My hidden couch—nor the heaven above her—
> As a strong love shielding a weary lover,
> I would have her shield me with shining breast.
>
> Love of my life! we had lights in season—
> Hard to part from, harder to keep—
> We had strength to labour and souls to reason,
> And seeds to scatter, and fruits to reap.
> Though time estranges and fate disperses,
> We have *had* our loves and our loving-mercies;
> Though the gifts of the light in the end are curses,
> Yet bides the gift of the darkness—sleep!

O brave white horses! you gather and gallop,
  The storm sprite loosens the gusty reins;
Now the stoutest ship were the frailest shallop,
  In your hollow backs, or your high-arched manes,
I would ride as never a man has ridden,
In your sleepy, swirling surges hidden,
To gulfs foreshadowed, through straits forbidden,
  Where no light wearies and no love wanes."

To be quite truthful, one must confess that Australia was a harsh stepmother to poor Gordon. Like all unsuccessful men of genius, he was a very difficult person to help or to befriend. Proud, shy, sensitive, and retiring—how could any one really aid him? And yet it makes one's heart ache to hear of his lonely life in the South Australian bush. The Rev. Tenison Woods, a cultured and sympathetic Roman Catholic priest—whose scientific writings and monumental work, "Australian Exploration and Discovery," should hold a permanent place in the annals of Australia—was almost the only companion of his own class whom Gordon possessed in the colony at that time. The kindly cleric relates how he would ride and talk about the classics (Gordon always carried a pocket Horace in his "jumper") with his friend for hours in the bush, until they pulled up at the homestead of some squatter, where the priest would be received by the family in the best parlour, while the poet would be sent to the men's hut.

One thinks, too, of the young ladies of a certain bush township, who were horrified at Gordon's claim to enter as a "gentleman" rider for the ladies' purse.

Tenison Woods observes: "Gordon was much insulted by the refusal, but I don't think he said a word on the subject except to myself, and what he did say was very characteristic of the man. He remarked that I used to blame him for not mixing more with the people of the district, and said ironically what little he would gain by consorting with such society. It happened, moreover, that the coveted prize fell that year to the son of a squatter, who, a few years previously, had been a publican. It was quite a disappointment to the ladies' committee, who expected the bag to fall into the hands of one who was better known and much more admired. They gave a practical effect to their dissatisfaction by taking the most valuable things out of the bag before it was given to the winner. This Gordon knew, and his comments upon it were very cynical."

However, these trifles could only cause a passing annoyance to so manly a man. It was his persistent failure in everything to which he put his hand which at last wore Gordon completely out. When he left South Australia and passed over the border into Victoria, his hopes seemed for a time to revive. His fame —not as a poet, but as a steeplechaser—had preceded him, and when he won for Major Baker the Cup Steeplechase on Babbler, he became quite a local hero. But such things are not lasting. His livery-stable experiences in Ballarat had been disastrous, and by the time that he was settled near Melbourne, his life-story was almost at an end. It was then that he published his three slender books of verse (after his death bound together into one volume, with Marcus Clarke's masterly Preface); and having an undoubted claim to the Esslemont estate, Gordon commenced to institute legal proceedings for the assertion of his rights. This meant borrowing money at ruinous interest. He and his wife at this time were living in a fisherman's hut on the Brighton beach, some eight or nine miles out of Melbourne, and Gordon, to save the railway fare, used to walk in and out almost every day to consult his lawyers and look at the " wanted " advertisements in the papers. Then came the final crash. By some alteration in the Scottish law of inheritance Gordon's claim to Esslemont was void. This sad news was brought to him by the

June mail, 1870. On 23rd June his new book of poems appeared, but to him this meant only so much more debt in the shape of an unpaid printer's bill. The next morning he rose early, kissed his sleeping wife, then slipped out of the hut with his loaded rifle, and turning into the scrub by Picnic Point, Brighton beach, put an end to his troubled existence by a bullet through his brain.

Of recent years a memorial has been erected over the poet's grave in the Brighton cemetery; it is the old, old story—he wanted bread and they gave him a stone.

Gordon's death took place nearly thirty years ago, and it was in August 1881, getting on for twenty years ago, that I stood beside the grave of Marcus Clarke, who was buried in the Melbourne cemetery when only thirty-four years of age. What has the younger generation of Australia achieved in literature since the death of these two remarkable young Englishmen, for both Clarke and Gordon were Australian only by adoption? I fear that the youthful vigour and ability of the colonies have been displayed on the cricket-field and the mining market rather than in the poorly-remunerated service of the Muses.

A book has been published in London, by the eminent firm of Longmans & Co., entitled "The Development of Australian Literature," written in collaboration by Mr. H. G. Turner and Mr. Alexander Sutherland, of Melbourne. The volume consists of an introductory sketch, followed by biographical articles on Gordon, Kendall, and Clarke. This book is not without distinct merit as a careful compilation, but the manner in which Mr. Sutherland dilates on the weaknesses and foibles, the shortcomings and sins of the two unfortunate Australian poets, is enough to make the late Lord Tennyson turn in his grave. I would advise a little study of the late Laureate's unpublished lines on "Reticence," which are to be found in the Memoir of the great poet. Mr. Turner also displays want of judgment in his severe strictures on a number of Australian authors in London, who have obtained some measure of public recognition —Mr. Farjeon, Mr. Louis Becke, Mr. Guy Boothby, and Mr. Hume Nisbet, for instance—while at the same time he belauds his collaborator for some utterly unknown verse, which he compares favourably with "Enoch Arden." Such criticism as this justly provoked hostile comments in the London press; it is indeed essentially parochial in spirit, with an apparent leaning in the direction of "log-rolling."

Amidst the indiscriminate blame heaped by Messrs. Turner and Sutherland upon these Australian authors in London (whose chief sin, it would appear to be, consists in the fact that they, like Australia's chief singers, musicians, and artists, have sought fame and reward in the metropolis of the empire), it is pleasant to note that they have a good word for Mr. H. B. Marriott Watson's Maori romance, "The Web of the Spider." Mr. Watson, who, Victorian by birth and New Zealander by education, is indeed a prose writer of great charm and distinction; but his best work belongs peculiarly to London and the region of old-world romance.

It might have been as well if, in a book purporting to deal with "The Development of Australian Literature," some adequate estimate had been attempted of the extent to which colonial environment had effected so original a philosophical thinker as the late Charles Henry Pearson, and so able a constitutional historian and economist as the late Dr. William Edward Hearn; nor is adequate justice meted out to Mr. G. W. Rusden, the Australian historian, whose work, despite its superficial defects, is of permanent and enduring value.

With regard to the younger school of "native-born" Australian writers, Mr. Turner contemptuously classifies them as "the *Bulletin* school." In doing so he unconsciously pays the highest tribute to that remarkable Sydney journal. The *Bulletin* may justly lay claim to the distinction that above all other colonial journals it has done its utmost to foster a native school of writers in verse and prose. Nor have its efforts been so barren as Mr. Turner would have us believe. In the case of Mr. Louis Becke, a native of New South Wales, with his strange and romantic experiences as a supercargo in the South Seas, the *Bulletin* first brought to light those vivid sketches, since published under the title, "By Reef and Palm," which won the hearty and outspoken admiration of the late Earl of Pembroke (who knew the South Seas well), and have since achieved a wide popularity in England. It is not Mr. Becke's fault if foolish admirers have declared him to be the superior of R. L. Stevenson; nor should Mr. Turner speak of such a comparison as an "outrage." Mr. Becke's "By Reef and Palm" can quite well stand on its own merits, and though there may be a want of variety in his South Sea sketches, it is impossible not to feel their literary skill and dramatic power.

In the matter of verse, the *Bulletin* has done even more to bring to light unconventional local genius, which would otherwise have remained "mute and inglorious." Mr. A. B. Paterson, known to all *Bulletin* readers as "Banjo," has attained the greatest popularity of any writer of Australian verse, not excepting Gordon. His volume, "The Man from Snowy River," has reached a local sale of eighteen thousand (an unparalleled success), and has been republished in London by Macmillan.

Like Gordon, the new Australian poet is decidedly "horsy," and his verses are said to be the delight and solace of the leisure moments of Lord Rosebery, who has always been an appreciative reader of Australian literature—such as it is! Paterson's poem, "On Kiley's Run," is among the most thoroughly Australian set of verses I know: and those verses have a beauty and pathos of their own, infinitely surpassing the best suburban imitations of Wordsworth and Tennyson. For in literature as in life, nothing is easier than to imitate—to follow some one else's lead—nothing so difficult as to originate. It is not to be wondered at that Messrs. Angus & Robertson, the well-known Sydney publishers, are now announcing a new volume of verse by Australia's most popular living poet.

There are other *Bulletin* poets of less popularity than Paterson, but one of whom is, in my opinion, of more than equal merit. Mr. Henry Lawson, in his volume of verses, "In the Days when the World was Wide," and his graphic book of short bush sketches, "While the Billy Boils," presents us with aspects of Australian life from the standpoint of the "overlander" and the wandering stockman. These two books declare him to be the most original and powerful "native-born" writer Australia has as yet produced. I could name others—the late Barcroft Boake, distinctly an original "Bush bard"; Mr. Victor Daley and Mr. Will. H. Ogilvie, both writers of musical lyrics, which, always finished, attain at times to real excellence; Mr. Edward Dyson, Mr. Roderic Quinn, and Mr. E. J. Brady—all well known to the readers of the extraordinary journal which has fostered them and their kind.

One of the earlier *Bulletin* poets, Mr. John Farrell' who is a reformer as well as a rhymester, and altogether a kind of uncouth Shelley in his political and ethical creeds, once sent a volume of his somewhat violent verse to Lord Tennyson. Tennyson's acknowledgment was eminently characteristic. He wrote: "By every post I receive volumes of verse, and hardly ever a book of prose! I have received your poems, *but, unlike John the Baptist, I cannot live on locusts and wild honey.*"

Yes, that is the defect both of the *Bulletin* and its bards; too much "locusts and wild honey"—an absence of lucidity, an excess of expletives. All the same, I, for one, recognise in these young Australian poets and writers of "the *Bulletin* school" a certain native vigour and originality; they, at least, are "racy of the soil." Outside of this "Bulletin" school, each of the great provinces now boasts some more or less popular local singer, whose verse at times rises to the level of "minor poetry." Victoria claims Miss Jennings Carmichael; South Australia has not only the best all-round literary critic and political writer in Miss C. H. Spence, but a poetess whom the new Governor, Lord Tennyson, went out of his way to praise—Agnes Aheane. By far the best of these, in my judgment, is Mary Hannay Foott, of Queensland, whose "Where the Pelican Builds Her Nest" is not unworthy of Paterson or Lawson.

I frankly admit that the "*literary* output" of Australia is still small—though the number of so-called Australian books may be relatively great—a couple of novels written forty years ago by a half-forgotten English novelist; some half-dozen other stories, including Marcus Clarke's "For the Term of His Natural Life"; and Adam Lindsay Gordon's collected poems. If to these you add selections from Henry Kendall and Mr. Brunton Stephens, and the best of Mr. Lawson's and Mr. Paterson's racy Bush ballads, there is little else to be recognised as distinctively Australian. But in these few strangely assorted volumes and scattered selections I venture to assert that the fair-minded and the far-seeing may possibly discern "The Beginnings of an Australian Literature."

AUSTRALIAN FISHERIES

By F. G. AFLALO

I HAVE been asked to contribute a few words on the little I know, or knew, of the fisheries of our Australian colonies, and, with two reservations, it gives me great pleasure to accede to this request. The first of these is, that I have not been in those parts for five years, and five years mean much in the industrial development of Australian colonies. The second is, that I am in the dark as to the nature of my readers. To those who live at home it would be an easy matter to give some idea of the present state and prospects of the fishing industry in Australia; to those whose home, on the other hand, is in the colonies under notice, it would be preferable to point one or two of the morals of our own inshore fisheries and indicate the best means of profiting in the newly-exploited waters by mistakes that are here past remedy.

Australian fisheries, in the usual old-world sense of the word, scarcely existed when I was in the colonies. That this national neglect of promising sources of food supply and profit should endure is not to be expected. The development of new regions commences, not unnaturally, on land. First, probably, the agriculturist and stock-owner; then the miner. Then, from time to time, the rise of various manufactures. Last of all the sea. The turn of the sea has not yet come, but it is at hand; the silver harvest will follow the golden. Herrings and pilchards, flat-fish, bream, garfish, trumpeter, and many other species unknown north of the Equator await the hand of the spoiler. Already, most interesting trawling experiments have been conducted on the coast of New South Wales, under the direction of Mr. Frank Farnell, and his report to the Chief Secretary, which curiously enough reached me as I was writing these notes, seems most interesting and valuable, and moreover full of promise for the colony's fisheries when the public shall have come better to appreciate their possibilities as a remunerative investment. When outside capital is found, the old mastery of the seas will reassert itself, none the worse for a period of rest, and the fisheries will no longer be left in the hands of Italians, Greeks, and Chinamen. (Against these gentlemen in their own country no one need say a word, but they certainly strike the visitor as somewhat in evidence in some industries that the Anglo-Saxon could better keep in his own hands.) Then the fisheries will provide food and wage. The problem of distribution is one for heads accustomed to such organisation; but once it is solved, the rest is easy.

Those seas are teeming with edible fish, more particularly, of course, opposite the hundreds of leagues of uninhabited coast unbroken by a settlement. Mr. Farnell's report confirms the evidence of my own eyes with regard to the abundance of fish in coastal waters. Even within half a day's steam of Sydney or Brisbane, the quantities of schnapper, morwong, and other excellent table fish continually astonish the angling visitor accustomed to the meagre hauls in depleted inshore waters at home. Granted these are fish of the rocks, against which the trawl, the chief means of supplying the market, would be useless. But Mr. Farnell's report gives evidence of a variety of flat-fish, and, what is of equal importance, of the presence of great banks on which the trawl could be used with admirable results.

It would be idle to deny that there are drawbacks, with which fishermen in England and Scotland have not perhaps to contend. Sharks, though already a scourge in the English Channel, rending the mackerel nets and pilfering the long line of its best fish, are in Australia of dangerous size, and swarm in such numbers that long-lining would, I fancy, be hopeless. At any rate I recollect—on the advice, if memory does not deceive me, of Mr. Farnell himself—sending back home a boulter with 150 hooks, that I had ordered out for experimental purposes. I was assured that the sharks would not leave so much as a swivel on it, and, from what I saw later during my stay, I have no reason to question the correctness of the warning.

The same objection applies, though in lesser degree, to hand-lining. When the sharks were around, I have seen three fish out of every four bitten in half while the fishermen hauled them to the surface. On the other hand, there was many an excellent day of uninterrupted sport, during which these ocean scavengers never once molested us.

Again, as to nets; the drift net would, I fear, be hopeless for this same shark trouble. Even at home, where the blue shark is a mere infant beside the blue pointers of Port Jackson and neighbourhood, drift nets get terribly punished in the pilchard season. And until Mr. Farnell's investigations had laid bare the mysteries of hidden sand-banks, it was generally thought, at any rate three years ago, that there were too many small disconnected reefs to admit of the economic working of the otter trawl. This may, however, be got over. Yet another disadvantage under which Australian fishermen will undoubtedly have to contend is the great summer heat, in which it will be next to impossible to convey fresh fish from any but the nearest grounds, and these, as history shows, soon become exhausted. Even on our own coasts at home, I have known of many a case in which whole cargoes of mackerel and other rapidly decomposing food-fish were rendered unfit for market during the three or four hours' sail—with perhaps an hour becalmed—between the fishing grounds and the quay. How much more serious would be the difficulty under the burning caress of an Australian January sun!

One other matter is, I think, worth mentioning, and that is the importance of not permitting legitimate enthusiasm in a new and interesting industry to run away with discretion. I recollect hearing out there a good deal of dreamy talk on the part of commercial visionaries of the future marvels of the canning industry, and of the vast returns on supplying people at home with Australian fish preserved or tinned by different processes. Potted king-fish and trumpeter were to be a breakfast luxury in all polite circles in the old country. Marinated trevally was to be as indispensable for the *hors d'œuvre* as kangaroo tail for the soup. This is, of course, rubbish. Curiosity will doubtless dictate now and again a flickering demand for any novelty of the kind: and a few thousand tins of kangaroo-tail soup, or, for that matter, of pickled schnapper, might very well find a market. But this is not an industry, and Australians who have been home do not need to be assured that our own salmon and sole and turbot will take a very great deal of supplanting, and that, what is more, there is not the fish yet known in Australian waters that is likely to supplant any one of them. I would not for one moment deny schnapper, black bream, garfish, Hobart trumpeter, Fitzroy perch, and one or two besides—provided they are eaten perfectly fresh—a place among the finest table fish of the world. But tinned fish can never be better than a makeshift for the fresh article, and Australian fishermen should for the next century or two have plenty to do in supplying their own countrymen, without endeavouring to force an inferior tinned article on unappreciative consumers ten thousand miles away. No; it is for the Australian consumer that nature intended Australian fish, and, with more developed fisheries and better means of transit, the consumer would be as well off probably as in any other part of the globe.

In addition to the aforementioned trawling experiments, which Mr. Farnell has promised not to drop, a word must be said of the very praiseworthy and successful attempts to propagate rainbow trout and others of the *salmonidæ* in the rivers and lakes all over the colonies. The ova are obtained from Wellington, New Zealand, and hundreds of thousands are on order at the present time. The extraordinary success attending the introduction of trout in Tasmania, as well as the correspondingly emphatic failures in respect of the salmon itself, are now matters of old history.

A word on the amateur side of the question, and I am done. Angling in most of the colonies means the salt-water fishing, whether on the open ocean or in the creeks and harbours with which that coast is riddled, which has only of late years come to be popular at home. Save in Tasmania, and in a few isolated waters in the southern colonies, fly fishing is practically unknown, though the strides now being made in acclimatisation will soon bring about a change in this respect. The Australian began with sea fishing, and his grandchildren, or rather perhaps their grandchildren, will seek sport on lake and river. With ourselves the reverse is the case. Many of our lakes and rivers are poisoned or fished out. Others are in private hands at enormous rents, and some sportsmen are forced—some even who do not actually prefer it—to get what fishing we may on the sea.

TASMANIA

BY G. COLLINS LEVEY, C.M.G.

It is my desire rather to invite the reader's attention to modern and industrial Tasmania than to dwell upon the discovery and settlement of the island, or the early struggles of the infant colony. But it is difficult to convey a faithful impression of the present condition of the smallest, but perhaps the most stable, of the Australian colonies without saying something about the intrepid men who first made the existence of the island known to the rest of the world.

Abel Jansz Tasman, a Dutch navigator, was the discoverer of Tasmania and New Zealand. In 1642 Anthony Van Diemen, Governor-General of Netherland East Indies, fitted out two ships, the *Zeehan* and *Heemskirk*, for the purpose of exploring the coast of Australia, which had been sighted by previous navigators, and gave the command to Tasman. Tradition is silent about the tonnage of the two vessels on board of which Tasman, with a light heart, sailed for the unknown Southern Seas, but the probability is that they were about the size of an ordinary sailing barge, and that the officers of the Board of Trade would in this latter decade of the nineteenth century condemn them as unseaworthy if it were sought to cross the North Sea in them from London to Rotterdam. As to the sufferings of the unfortunate crews from scurvy and the other maladies from which, at that distant date, seafaring humanity was scarcely ever exempt, history says nothing. Tasman sailed from Batavia, on August 16, 1642, touched at Mauritius in October; sailed October 27, and discovered land at Point Hibbs near Macquarie Harbour, in the neighbourhood of Mount Zeehan on November 24. He anchored at Frederick Hendrik Bay, near Hobart, on December 1, took possession of the country on behalf of Holland, and named it after his patron, Van Diemen. Tasman sighted Storm Bay, Maria Island, which he named after Governor Van Diemen's wife, and Tasman Peninsula, and sailed on December 8 easterly, the last point of Tasmania seen by him being St. Patrick's Head, near the present terminus of the Fingal Railway. On December 13 he anchored near Cape Farewell; at the north-west of the Southern Island of New Zealand; the natives surrounded the vessels, upset a boat belonging to the *Zeehan*, and killed three men. Tasman thought it prudent not to avenge their deaths, and so he named the spot Murderers Bay, which has since been changed to Golden Bay. He sailed to the north, visited the west coast of the Northern Island as far as the Three Kings, and named the Cape at the extreme north-west of the Northern Island Cape Maria Van Diemen, a name which it still retains. Continuing to sail northward he touched at Cocos Island to obtain supplies, and returned to Batavia on June 16, 1643, after an absence of ten months. In 1644 he started on another expedition with three ships, the *Limmen*, the *Zeemeuw*, and the *Brak*. In these he surveyed the Gulf of Carpentaria, and portions of New Guinea and North Australia. No traces are left of these discoveries, and Tasman does not seem to have known that Australia and New Guinea are separate islands. Nothing is known of his subsequent career, and the probability is that he never returned to his native village on the banks of the Zuyder Zee.

But the fame of Tasman's discoveries reached Europe, and the island was visited, in 1772, by

Captain Marion du Fresne, a French navigator, who commanded the ships *Mascaron* and *Castries*. He, like Tasman, anchored in Frederick Hendrik Bay. In 1773, Captain Furneaux, of the British ship *Adventure*, discovered Adventure Bay, near Bruni Island, and sailed along the eastern coast of Tasmania on his way to New Zealand. The great circumnavigator, Captain Cook, accompanied by Captain Clarke, visited Tasmania during the year 1777, and the island was touched at by Bligh in 1788, and again in 1792, when that officer planted some fruit-trees. But none of these navigators went to Tasmania with the intention of forming a settlement. The first people to entertain the idea of permanent colonisation in Tasmania were the French. The visit of Marion du Fresne was made during the reign of Louis XV., when the French court and the French people were thinking of everything rather than of extending their territory. The unfortunate La Perouse, who made a voyage of discovery in 1785, during the reign of Louis XVI., and was lost on a reef in the Southern Seas, never went near Tasmania, but D'Entrecasteaux, who with the ships *Recherche* and *Esperance* was despatched in search of La Pérouse in 1792, during the very midst of the Reign of Terror, anchored in the channel between South Bruni Island and the mainland which now bears his name, and remained there for more than a month. He surveyed the various rivers and harbours in the vicinity, and returning again in 1793 completed his surveys, and explored Norfolk Bay, Frederick Hendrik Bay, and the Derwent, which he named the Rivière du Nord. Next year, in ignorance of what D'Entrecasteaux had done, similar surveys were made by Lieutenant John Hayes of the Bombay navy.

There is some reason to believe that, notwithstanding the domestic troubles from which France at that period was suffering, the Government entertained the idea of forming a settlement in some part of Australia, as a sort of counterpoise to the penal colony which Great Britain had founded in 1788 at Port Jackson. Such at any rate was the opinion of the British officials in the colonies, and they did everything in their power to obtain as much information as possible about the vast continent on the fringe of which they were established, and to plant the British flag in every locality suitable for colonisation. In 1798, Governor Hunter despatched Bass in a whaleboat (in which men nowadays would not care to cross from Sheerness to Southend) to explore the coast to the south of Sydney, and this courageous man, with a crew of six boatmen, rode through the storm-tossed strait which is named after him, and demonstrated that Tasmania was an island. The next year, accompanied by Flinders, who subsequently was the first to circumnavigate Australia, Bass sailed round Tasmania and examined its various harbours. Three years afterwards, in 1800, the French sent another expedition under Baudin, on board the *Géographe* and the *Naturaliste* to sail along the southern coast of New Holland and Tasmania. Baudin did his work very well, so far as the latter was concerned, and made a complete survey of the whole coast-line of Tasmania, with the exception of so much of the west coast as lies between Cape Grim and Port Davey. It is more than probable that it was the knowledge of Baudin's survey that precipitated the colonisation of Tasmania by the Port Jackson officials, the more especially as there were grave doubts, since the discovery that Tasmania was an island, whether, according to the law of nations, it could be regarded as under the jurisdiction of the governor of New South Wales.

It was in 1802 that Governor King despatched the *Cumberland*, a small schooner of 25 tons, under the command of Lieutenant Robbins, to Storm Bay, near the mouth of the Derwent, to fix upon some eligible site for settlement, and to hoist the British flag. Robbins did not carry out his instructions, but he took possession of King's Island in Bass's Strait, visited Port Phillip, and returned to Port Jackson. By this time the home Government had become alive to the wisdom of occupying Tasmania; but before the despatch authorising the formation of a settlement at Port Dalrymple, near the mouth of the Tamar, had reached Sydney, Governor King had commissioned Lieutenant John Bowen to act as commandant and superintendent of a settlement to be established on the Derwent, above the site of the present city of Hobart, and near Risdon Cove. He sailed from Sydney on August 31, 1803, with two ships, the *Lady Nelson*, of 60 tons, and the British whaler *Albion*, 306 tons. Bowen's staff consisted of three officials besides himself; his military force was a lance-corporal and seven privates of the New South Wales corps, and his working population consisted of six free men and twenty-five convicts. They took with them six months' provisions, and had ten head of cattle, fifty sheep, and a few goats, pigs, and fowls. A short time afterwards the population was increased by fifteen additional soldiers and forty-two prisoners. But the settlement made no progress, and when Colonel David Collins, who had been appointed by Governor King to the charge of the Risdon settlement, arrived on February 15, 1804, no land was in cultivation. Colonel Collins moved the camp from Risdon to Sullivan's Cove, near the site of the present city of Hobart, believing that the position was in every respect more desirable. From such small beginnings Tasmania arose. *Sic fortis Etruria crevit.*

It was at Risdon that the first collision took place between the British and the aborigines. It is impossible to decide at this period of time whether the whites or the blacks were the aggressors, for the accounts of the persons who were present at the fight vary materially, and no one ever took the trouble to inquire into the version of the aborigines. But this catastrophe, which resulted in the death of ten or a dozen blacks, was the prelude to a series of conflicts in which, although the lives of many Europeans were sacrificed, the aborigines eventually got the worst of it. It is believed that their numbers were originally about 5000, and for many years they were formidable antagonists; but they gradually dwindled away. In 1830 an attempt was made to drive all of them to one corner of the island, but it failed. In the following year the remains of the tribes, 203 in number, were persuaded to leave the mainland and settle in South Bruni Island, from which they were removed to islands in Bass's Strait. In 1842 there were only 44 aborigines left, and in 1854 they had dwindled to 16. The last pure-blooded Tasmanian woman, Truganini, died in 1876 at the age of 76, and the last man, William Lanne, died in 1869, aged 34. In 1888 a grant of 300 acres of land was made to Fanny Smith, a half-caste, who was the last surviving descendant of the native races on the mainland of Tasmania. There are, however, a considerable number of persons with more or less aboriginal blood in the islands of Bass's Strait.

The fate of the Tasmanian aborigines constitutes a history in the chapter of British colonisation of which our nation has no great reason to be proud. But it is difficult to see what other result could have followed the emigration to Tasmania of a superior people. History teaches us that whenever a strong race comes into contact with a weak one, not physically, for the North American Indians and the Maoris are amongst the finest specimens of the human kind, but one with less power of adapting itself to new surroundings, and assimilating the civilisation of the new-comers, one of three things occurs: the aborigines are either exterminated, as has been the case in many parts of North America, in Tasmania, and is rapidly occurring all over Australasia and Polynesia; or they are enslaved, which is impossible in the case of a race of fierce and bloodthirsty hunters; or the two races amalgamate. This latter may appear to be the most satisfactory solution of the difficulty, and in the early days of Australian colonisation, the various Governments which were always most humane in their treatment of the aborigines, whatever may have been the attitude of individual settlers, did their utmost to encourage legal marriages between members of the two races. In one colony, South Australia, the union was encouraged by a grant of land being made to the white man for the benefit of his dark wife and their progeny. But such marriages were frowned upon by the public opinion of even the lowest class in the community, and the total number celebrated was very small. Irregular connections were much more frequent, and many of the quarrels between the settlers and the aborigines arose from this cause. But half-caste children were almost invariably put to death by the tribe, and those who escaped that fate and grew to maturity found themselves in a most unenviable position; they belonged neither to one race nor the other. As a matter of fact, there are at the present moment only a comparatively small number of half-castes in any part of Australasia; and it may be doubted whether, in the interest of the world at large, it is not better that the savage man should disappear altogether, just as the bison of the North American prairies has been supplanted by Durhams and Herefords, than that there should arise a race of half-breeds such as that which has been established in many portions of South America, by the intermarriage of the Spanish conquistadores and their descendants with the South American Indians. But whatever may be the fate of aboriginal races brought into contact with Latins, their doom, when their country is colonised by the Teutonic and Celtic races, appears to be annihilation, and the process of extinction takes place quite as rapidly if the natives are treated with kindness and gentleness as if they are shot down like wild beasts. If they are encouraged to live among the whites they do not copy our virtues, but they acquire our vices and our diseases, and whisky, smallpox, and measles are far more fatal than the bullet or the sabre. I recollect having a conversation with an American cavalry officer, who had for a long time been stationed in the Far West, and had taken part in several Indian wars. He repeated to me a conversation he had had with a chief, to whom he pointed out the folly of waging war against the United States. "I know," replied the chief, "that my braves are no match for your troopers, and I know that my race is doomed. But we shall live longer if we keep on fighting with you than if we are at peace and drink your firewater. Your soldiers are less to be dreaded than your traders." I have said that the British nation has no great reason to be proud of its treatment of the Tasmanian aborigines. But I feel sure that their fate was unavoidable.

After the arrival of Colonel Collins and the foundation of Hobart, settlement proceeded very rapidly. Port Dalrymple and the neighbourhood of Launceston were settled in 1804, and agriculture was attempted in several localities near Hobart, but for some years the inhabitants suffered great hardships, and in 1807 flour was sold at £200 per ton. Colonel Collins died in 1810, in which year the first newspaper was published. The island was visited in 1812 by General Macquarie, the Governor of New South Wales, who laid out the city of Hobart and named the streets. The position of Lieutenant-Governor, under the Governor-in-Chief who resided at Sydney, was held from 1813 to 1817 by Colonel Davey, and by Colonel Sorell from 1817 to 1823. In 1818 a census was taken, which gave the population of the island at 3240. It was in that year that the first free settlers arrived, and the colony began to make real progress. Up to that time, whatever prosperity it may have enjoyed arose from the expenditure by the Government upon the penal establishments.

The rights of the aborigines to the lands over which they had hunted were never recognised in any portion of Australia, and the whole country was regarded as belonging to the Crown. The same theory was acted upon in Tasmania; but a new system was introduced as to the method by which the Crown granted these lands in fee-simple to private individuals, and it worked so well that it is somewhat surprising that it has not been more generally followed. In the earlier days of British colonisation the Sovereign and his ministers made free grants of land to persons who had interest at Court, or exercised political influence on behalf of the Government, without any stipulations whatever, and it was in this way that large estates were acquired in the North American colonies and in the West Indies. A similar policy was pursued in New South Wales, except that the grants were made on a smaller scale by the local governor, and in almost every instance were confined to persons resident in the colony. In Tasmania the grants were not made to the favourites of the local officials, but upon a well-defined system. Every free immigrant was endowed with a tract of land in proportion to the amount of capital he brought with him to the colony, an acre for every pound, and he was allowed to include in his estimate of his capital the passage money for himself and family, his furniture, his farming stock, and any live animals he brought. The result was that no men took up land unless they were possessed of some capital, and they were not compelled to part with a large portion of their means to pay for their land with the almost invariable result of being obliged to have recourse to the local banks and other financial institutions. When compared with what is termed the Wakefield system, under which the settler had to pay at least twenty shillings per acre for his land, or the modern system in Australia, under which persons with small means or no means at all are encouraged to take up much larger blocks of land than they have the means to work, I think the Tasmanian system possessed many advantages, and it might well be followed should the British Government colonise any tracts of land in Africa which are suitable for agricultural settlement. It is perhaps as well to mention that every settler was allowed the services of a certain number of convicts, termed locally assigned servants, whom he fed and clothed in return for their labour, and thereby relieved the Government of the cost of their supervision and maintenance.

After the arrival of the free settlers, the population rapidly increased, and in 1821 the census gave the number of inhabitants as 7400; the sheep at 128,468; cattle, 34,790; horses, 550; and 14,940 acres of land were under cultivation. Courts of justice were substituted in 1822 for the courts-martial previously in existence. In 1824 Colonel Arthur was appointed Governor, and in 1825 the colony commenced an independent existence.

In 1828, the Van Diemen's Land Company (sheep farmers) commenced operations on a block of 250,000 acres in the north-west part of the island, which was conditionally granted to the company by a charter, on 9th November 1825. The country round Emu

Bay and Circular Head was explored on behalf of the company this year, and an addition of 100,000 acres was made to the company's original grant. About this time, also, another company of capitalists was formed —the Van Diemen's Land Establishment—who received a grant of 40,000 acres of land in the Norfolk Plains district for agricultural and stock-breeding purposes, and large importations of improved breeds of horses, sheep, and cattle took place.

The next important event in the history of Tasmania was the settlement of Port Phillip and Portland Bay, now the colony of Victoria, by persons residing in the northern portion of the island. The Messrs. Henty occupied the country around Portland Bay in 1834; and in 1835 John Batman was appointed by an association of settlers to report upon the general capabilities of Port Phillip as a grazing and agricultural district. He purchased 2,000,000 acres of land from some wandering aboriginals in exchange for a quantity of blankets, knives, looking-glasses, beads, and scissors, and got them to sign a deed of conveyance, which had been prepared prior to his departure from Launceston. As might have been expected, the Sydney Government simply laughed at the transaction, and it was disallowed by the Colonial Office. But Batman's report attracted attention to the fertile lands on the northern shores of Bass's Strait.

Launceston had the honour of originating the two expeditions which first permanently occupied Port Phillip. The first of these—Batman's party—made their headquarters at Indented Head; the second, organised by Mr. J. P. Fawkner, entered the Yarra on the 28th of August 1835, and moored their vessel, the *Enterprise*, to the trees which grew on the banks of the river, where the great city of Melbourne now stands. A brisk trade was soon opened up between the two colonies, and a large migration of Tasmanians, with their flocks, herds, and implements, soon set in in favour of the newly-founded colony. Thus the honour of founding the colony of Victoria is due to Tasmanian enterprise.

At this time the population had grown to 40,172, a considerable proportion of whom were convicts. Gold was discovered in Victoria in 1851, and this event gave a great impetus to the agitation which had commenced several years before for the abolition of transportation, which finally ceased in 1853, while Sir William Denison was governor, and during the same year representative government was introduced. Since that date all modern discoveries and improvements have been gradually introduced into Tasmania, which now boasts of railways, electric telegraphs, gas, electric lighting, telephones, and is connected with the rest of the world by a submarine cable from its northern coast to the mainland of Australia, near Cape Shanck, in Victoria. The name of the island was changed to Tasmania in 1856, the old appellation, Van Diemen's Land, being too much identified with the convict system.

Let us now direct our attention to the principal features of the island whose discovery and history have been so briefly described. Although so near to Australia, and possessing with a few additions the same flora and fauna, the aspect of the two countries is entirely different. Australia possesses no lofty mountains, Mount Kosciusko, 7308 feet, being the highest, and no large rivers. although the Murray, Darling, and Murrumbidgee are long and drain a large area of country. Tasmania, on the other hand, is mountainous, although no mountain is much more than 5000 feet high, and well watered, although no river is of great size. The island is about one-sixth smaller than Ireland, and a little larger than the island of Ceylon. Its length from Cape Grim to South Cape is 210 miles, its greatest breadth 200 miles, and its area about 24,330 square miles, or 15,571,500 acres, exclusive of islands belonging to the colony, which cover an area of 1,206,500 acres, so that the total area is 26,215 square miles. Tasmania has been described as a beautiful, well-watered island, rich in harbours and inlets, traversed by high mountain ranges, full of crags, glens, and ravines of commanding appearance, the basaltic cliffs of some being several hundred feet in perpendicular height. Everywhere on the coast are good anchorages, and many excellent harbours. The interior combines the climate of Brittany or Cornwall, but without their humidity, the beauty of the Apennines, and the fertility of England. Mountain and valley, hill and dale, forests and pasture lands, afford a most pleasing variety. The island is in the form of a heart, and is situated between 40 deg. 40 min. south, and 43 deg. 38 min. south, about one hundred and fifty miles south of the colony of Victoria. Tasmania has over a hundred hills and mountains ranging in altitude from 1000 to more than 5000 feet. A mountain range, chiefly of trap or greenstone formation, traverses the centre of the island from south to north-west, and it was to the extensive and fertile valleys and gently undulating lands eastward of this range that early settlement was chiefly confined. The great range strikes west when within about fifty miles of Bass's Strait, bounding with its precipitous heights the magnificent agricultural lands of the north-west coast. The eastern and south-west coasts are distinguished by long and rugged mountain ridges of quartzose and granitic formation. The highest mountain on the island, Cradle Mountain, is 5069 feet high. There are several extensive lakes situated on the high central table-land—natural reservoirs which are the sources of some of the chief rivers. The largest are the Great Lake, thirteen miles long, with a maximum width of eight miles—area, 28,000 acres; Lake Sorell or Crescent, 17,000 acres; Lake St. Clair, 10,000 acres; Lakes Arthur and Echo, each about 8000 acres. Tasmania is watered by numerous rivers, some of them of considerable size. In the south is the Derwent, on which stands the capital city of Hobart. The estuary of this river forms one of the finest harbours in the Southern Hemisphere. The Tamar, the chief river of the north, on which stands the town of Launceston, is next in importance. It is forty miles long, and formed by the confluence of two rivers, the North and South Esk. It is navigable for vessels of large tonnage. The Davey and Huon rivers in the south, the Pieman and Gordon in the west, are navigable streams. There are sixteen rivers discharging into Bass's Strait, nearly all of which are navigable at their mouth for medium-sized craft, and on the east coast are several river harbours for small vessels. There are fifty-five islands belonging to Tasmania. The Furneaux Group, at the east end of Bass's Strait, comprises an area of 513,000 acres, and includes Flinders Island, Cape Barren Island, Clarke Island, Chappell Island, and Kent's Group.

The climate is salubrious—the death-rate 14.10 per thousand. Observations taken at Hobart give the average temperature of January, the hottest month, at 63 deg., although 100 deg. has occasionally been registered, and of July, which is midwinter, at 45 deg. September, October, and November are spring months, at which time the weather is bright and clear, the mean temperature being 54 deg. December, January, and February are summer months, during which there is little rain: the mean temperature is 62 deg. March, April, and May are autumn months, generally the pleasantest season of the year; the medium temperature then is 55 deg. June, July, and August are winter months: the average temperature is 47 deg. The mean temperature of the year, as estimated from observations extending over thirty-eight years, from 1841 to 1879, is about 55.10 deg. The mean reading of the thermometer during 1888 was at Hobart 54.4 deg., and at Launceston 56.6 deg. The mean at Oatlands, which is almost in the centre of the island, and 1400 feet above the level of the sea, was 51.76 deg., and at Circular Head 55 deg., Low Head, 55.8 deg. The mean number of days on which rain fell in Hobart was 51, the prevailing direction of wind being north-west and south. During 1888 the mean reading of the barometer at Hobart was 29.925 deg. The rainfall for the twelve months ending December 1888, was 18.45 inches. Snow rarely falls even so far south as Hobart, although Mount Wellington, which towers above it 4166 feet, is frequently covered with snow, even during the summer months.

The native animals are for the most part of the same genera as those of the mainland, but the native hyæna and native devil are peculiar to Tasmania, and the waters around and in the interior of the island contain better fish than those found near and in the mainland. All descriptions of European domestic animals and game, as well as salmon and brown trout, have been introduced with success. The forest trees are the same as those found in Victoria, with the addition of the Huon pine, which is largely used for constructive purposes, and the King William pine, which, owing to difficulty of access to its habitat, has not been largely employed.

Until a comparatively short time ago little or nothing was known of the western half of Tasmania, with the exception of the immediate neighbourhood of the sea and the larger rivers. The lake and mountain country was covered with forests, which rendered it almost valueless for agricultural and pastoral purposes, and except in the immediate neighbourhood of the navigable rivers — the Mersey, the Forth, and the

Leven—the timber had no commercial value, and the land would not pay for clearing. The mineral wealth of this large district was not suspected, although coal of fair quality had been found between the Dee and the Mersey rivers in 1850, and gold was found near Fingal in the north-eastern district, and in some other localities in 1852. But the extraordinary richness of the Victorian gold-fields eclipsed all other discoveries. Tasmania, by its proximity to them, was at once most wonderfully affected. All kinds of products reached fabulous prices, and were sent to Victoria in such quantities that the value of total exports in 1851 of £665,790, reached £1,509,883 in 1852, and £1,756,316 in 1853. An extensive emigration of all classes from Tasmania to Victoria at once commenced in alarming numbers. In 1842 it is estimated that there were nearly 40,000 adult males in the colony; but such was the migration to the Victorian gold-fields in 1852, 1853, and 1854, that the adult males left in the colony were less than 22,261.

For many years Tasmania was a country of greybeards and children; the young men and young women, of all classes, as soon as they had attained manhood or womanhood, crossed the strait and entered upon the wider life and the more brilliant prospects which first Victoria and subsequently New South Wales and Queensland opened out to them. But even in its darkest days the fine climate of Tasmania induced a large number of the well-to-do inhabitants of the mainland to spend their summer in the cool and exhilarating atmosphere of the island colony, and the physique of the Australians was constantly rejuvenated by a short residence in Tasmania.

Two circumstances combined to arrest the steady migration of the Tasmanians to the mainland of Australia. The first was the commencement of railways, which enabled produce to be conveyed to the outports at a reasonable rate: the second was the discovery of mineral wealth. In 1860, two expeditions were appointed by the Government to prosecute and search for gold and valuable minerals; in 1868, the first sod of the Launceston and Deloraine Railway was turned by H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh, and in 1871 it was officially opened for traffic by Governor Ducane. From this comparatively small beginning grew the present system of Tasmanian railways, all of which, with the exception of the Emu Bay and Bischoff, 48 miles, and the Zeehan-Dundas Railways, 7¼ miles, are the property of the State. The main artery of communication is the Tasmanian Main Line Railway, 133 miles long, gauge 3 ft. 6 in., from Hobart to Launceston, built by a British company upon a guarantee of 5 per. cent. per annum for thirty years, upon a capital of £650,000. The total cost of construction and equipment was £1,188,136. The Government of Tasmania purchased this line for £1,106,500, payable in 3½ per cent. inscribed Tasmanian bonds. Between Hobart and Launceston there are fourteen intermediate stations, and the journey is performed in six hours. The Launceston and Western Railway, from Launceston to Deloraine, 45 miles, was originally built on a 5 ft. 3 in. gauge; but a third rail has now been laid down, adapting it to the 3 ft. 6 in. Tasmanian gauge. The line from Deloraine to the Mersey at Formby, 37 miles long, was opened in 1885, and is now extended to Ulverstone, 12 miles farther. The other branches are from Launceston to Scottsdale, 46 miles; Parattah to Oatlands, 5 miles; Derwent Valley Railway (from Bridgewater to Glenora), 24 miles; Fingal Railway (Corners to Avoca), 24 miles; Brighton and Apsley, 26 miles. The Emu Bay and the Bischoff Railway (private) is 48 miles long: the Don Tramway, 13 miles; and the Elwick Railway (private), 1 mile; Sorell line, 14 miles; Strahan and Zeehan, 36 miles; Chudleigh to

Deloraine, 12; total, including private lines, 488 miles. Contract surveys have been authorised for lines from Kimberley's Ford to Western Railway, Ulverstone to Emu Bay, Parattah to Tunnack, Antill Ponds to Cressy and Longford, Glenora to Ouse, Scottsdale to Upper Ringarooma. The total expenditure for construction upon all lines open, including the main line, has been £3,689,372; the mileage, 488 miles; average cost per mile, £7560. The gross revenue in 1892 was £195,297, and the working expenses £172,046. The rolling stock was 45 locomotives and 1028 other vehicles.

The leading productive industry of Tasmania is mining. Sixteen years back there was little known and less thought about it; in 1869 it was of such small importance that it was not even mentioned in the colonial statistics. In the following year the export of gold appeared—2141 oz., valued at £7475. In 1887 the export of gold was 37,252 oz.; in 1888, 39,617 oz.; in 1889, 32,232 oz.; in 1890, 23,107 oz.; in 1891, 39,203 oz.; and in 1892, 45,110 oz. In twenty years 673,543 ounces of gold have been exported, valued at £2,600,000. The second great industry is tin mining. In 1872, just twenty-two years ago, this metal was unknown to Tasmanian statistics; in 1873 four tons of tin ore were exported, valued at £220. From that period to the end of 1892 the exports of tin ore and smelted tin represented 60,281 tons, valued at £5,592,615; in 1891 the export was 3174 tons, valued at £290,797. The principal gold-mining regions are contiguous to the east and west banks of the river Tamar, about 35 miles from the town of Launceston; but alluvial gold, which does not always find place in the statistics, has for twelve or fourteen years been continuously obtained in considerable quantities on the river Arthur and the west coast. The tin-mining districts are widely scattered. The first important discovery was in 1879, at the renowned Mount Bischoff, on the north-west coast; this mine has divided nearly two millions of money amongst its shareholders, and has paid much more than a million in the shape of labour, although the original capital was only £30,000. The north-eastern and eastern deposits were next discovered, and opened out an enormous stretch of rich alluvial stanniferous country; and on the extreme west coast lodes of tin-bearing ore have been opened by numerous companies, but, so far, without much practical result. Silver and bismuth have also been found; and the former, through the development of the Mount Zeehan and Mount Dundas fields, now promises to surpass in output both gold and tin. The total output of silver was valued, in 1888, at £5838; 1889, £7044; 1899, £26,487; 1891, £52,284; and 1892, £45,502. Total, £207,155. The coal-fields are extensive, but are not worked to any very great extent, and the output only averages about 50,000 tons per annum. The grand total of mineral production was, in 1892, £518,390.

The mineral wealth of Tasmania is, however, only partially developed; and although persons who invest in Tasmanian mines have to run the risk which necessarily attaches to mining in every part of the globe, there is perhaps no country in which the prospects are more satisfactory and encouraging than they are in the colony which I am now endeavouring to describe. The report of the Secretary of Mines, dated 24th July 1893, contains the following important statement:—

"It is satisfactory to note that, notwithstanding the financial crisis through which the colony is passing, rendering it difficult to obtain money for the purchase of machinery, or to employ labour for developing mining property, the mining industry of the country is not only holding its own, but during the year which has just closed has made a very substantial advance. The value of the output of minerals and metals has exceeded by £40,000 the output for the year 1891–92. Machinery to the value of £35,000 has been imported and erected, and progressive works, such as tramways, shafts, and tunnels, with other works of development, have been carried on with much vigour in various parts of the colony, but notably so on the west coast. In all quarters there is evidence of steady improvement, and there is every reason for believing that at no distant date there will be a large and important increase in the mineral export of the colony.

"The disastrous fall in the price of silver will no doubt have the effect of closing down some of our lower-grade mines; but there will remain many mines rich in lead, which, with the improved and more economical method of working now prevailing, will still be worked at a substantial profit.

"Recent developments at Mount Lyell give promise of most important results. Dr. Ed. Peters, jun., M.D., M.E., an eminent metallurgist of the highest repute, has lately spent some months at the mine. In his report just issued he estimates the quantity of ore in sight at 4,500,000 tons. His figures for the average value of this ore per ton of 2240 lbs. are—Copper, 4½ per cent.; silver, 3 oz.; gold, 2½ dwt. This ore, he asserts, can be worked at a net profit of £1, 10s. 5d. per ton. Dr. Peters concludes his report with the words: 'I will only say, in conclusion, that in the past twenty years I have never seen a mining and metallurgical proposition that promises so certainly to be a great and enduring property as this.' If the practical result comes within measurable distance of what is here foreshadowed, the impetus given to trade throughout the colony by the successful working of this one mine alone will be immense.

"Discoveries of gold in quartz and alluvial have been made at Bell Mount, some 24 miles north-east of Sheffield, which bid fair to be of considerable value. Extensive deposits of tin have been found at Roy's Hill, Brookstead, and Ben Lomond, in good accessible country near Avoca, all of which are favourably reported upon by the Geological Surveyor. Other deposits have also been found at the Iris River, at North-East Dundas, and at Stanley River, on the west coast; whilst the known deposits of wolfram, near the Pieman Heads, and nickel at Hazlewood and near Dundas, are reported as valuable and likely to be profitably worked. An extensive bed of cannel coal has been discovered at Barn Bluff; it is stated to be of good quality and of great value, but its locality is in, at present, difficult country. Other discoveries of various minerals and of minor importance have also been made."

The people of Tasmania anticipate that the results from Mount Lyell will at any rate equal those from Mount Bischoff. All that is required is capital to develop the mine and to construct a railway from the town of Strahan. The Geological Surveyor, Mr Montgomery, has reported at length upon the mine, and from this document I make the following extract:—

"The property is situated on a ridge connecting Mount Owen with Mount Lyell, about 1000 feet above sea-level, and distant by road about 30 miles from the port of Strahan. The road is a fairly good but narrow cart-road for 23 miles, as far as Lynchford, and from here onwards is a sledge-track, very steep in places. The mine is situated on the eastern slope of the range, being at the head of one of the branches of the Linda Creek, an affluent of the King River. The lowest adit and the battery are about 180 feet below the saddle over which the road from Strahan comes in, and the top of the outcrop is about 230 feet above the adit. A route for a railway is now being surveyed from

Strahan to the mine, and I understand that it is intended, if found practicable, to bring it over the saddle to the mine itself.

"The mine was discovered in 1886, gold having been traced up to it from the Linda Valley. On section 14–86 an immense outcrop of hematite was found, and proved to contain gold: this got the name of 'The Iron Blow.' Up till 1890 it was worked with varying success as a gold-mine, the stuff from the outcrop being crushed and amalgamated in an ordinary stamp battery. The workings soon disclosed the existence of a large mass of pyrites standing in close connection with the hematite, and as development proceeded it has become evident that this pyrites really constitutes the main body of the deposit. Analysis having shown it to contain copper, gold, and silver, it was recognised at last that the treatment most suitable for the ore would be the process of smelting for copper, by which all the contained valuable metals would be recovered."

The report of the Secretary of Mines concludes with the following paragraph, which is applicable to other mining countries besides Tasmania:—

"In conclusion, I submit that there is every warrant for asserting that the mining industry of the colony is in a progressive condition, and it is in no way idle to predict that, with the facilities which the anticipated new legislation will afford for ensuring that more attention shall be paid to *boná-fide* mining than to scrip-broking and company-mongering, a great advance will be recorded at the end of the year upon which we are now entering."

That mining in Tasmania is on the whole profitable is shown by the dividends, which in 1891–92 reached £144,195, and in 1892, £121,091.

The constitution of Tasmania resembles that of the other Australasian colonies, inasmuch as the Executive Government is responsible to the Legislature, which consists of a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly, which together are termed the Parliament of Tasmania. The Legislative Council is composed of eighteen members, elected by all natural-born or naturalised subjects of the Crown who possess either a freehold worth £20 a year or a leasehold of £80, all barristers or solicitors on roll of Supreme Court, medical practitioners duly qualified, and all subjects holding a commission or possessing a degree. Each member is elected for six years. The House of Assembly consists of thirty-six members, elected by owners or occupiers of property, or by adult males who are in the receipt of £60 per annum as income, and have continuously resided in Tasmania for twelve months. The Assembly is elected for three years. The Governor, Viscount Gormanston, is by virtue of his office Commander-in-Chief of the troops in the colony, and has a salary of £3500 a year. He is aided by a cabinet of responsible ministers consisting of four members. The defence force consists of 2106 volunteers, and there is constabulary consisting of 305 men.

The population was, in 1892, 153,144, the increase in ten years being 32,310, and there were 80,760 males to 72,574 females. On 1st June 1889, when the population was 144,000, the numbers belonging to the principal religious denominations were: Anglican, 78,058; Roman Catholics, 32,504; Wesleyan Methodists, 10,566; Presbyterians, 13,328; Independents, 5788; and Jews, 336. There are sixteen superior schools or colleges in the colony, with an average attendance of 1320; 240 public elementary schools, with 18,156 scholars on roll; and 101 private schools, with 4420 scholars. Education is compulsory. There were also 582 children attending ragged schools. Technical schools were started in 1888 at Hobart and Launceston, and technical teaching is now extended to other localities. The higher education is under the University of Tasmania, which holds examinations and grants degrees. Elementary education is under the control of a director, working under a ministerial head. There are several valuable scholarships from the lower to the higher schools, and from the higher schools to English universities. The total cost to Government of education in 1892 was £42,745. There are thirty-three public libraries and mechanics' institutes, with 66,000 volumes. There are five daily, four weekly, and four monthly journals.

The revenue for 1892 was £787,764, and the expenditure £919,801. The total amount raised by taxation was £438,136, the rest of the revenue being derived from railways, post and telegraphs, and the rent and sale of Crown lands. The public debt, December 31, 1892, amounted to £7,399,000, or £48, 6s. 2d. per head of the population, which is lower per head than Queensland, South Australia, or New Zealand. The money raised by loans has been expended upon railways, £3,639.491; telegraphs, £113,803; roads, bridges, jetties, and harbours, £1,924,006; public buildings, £623,823; defences, £120,733; and other public works, £683,561. The net sum received on account of the taxes was £7,105 417. The expenditure on the public debt is £308,108 per annum. The principal assets of the Government are the railways, which have cost about 51.23 per cent. of the whole public debt, and 12,100,000 acres of Crown land. Since the commencement of 1892, the public debt has been increased by £1,000,000 sterling, and in 1893 the revenue was insufficient to meet the expenditure by nearly £130,000.

The various municipalities have incurred debts to the amount of £409.132, upon which the interest paid is £16,365 per annum. The total area of the colony is 16,778,000 acres. At the end of 1892, 24,337 persons were directly engaged in agriculture. Of the total area, 4,647,988 acres have been sold or granted to settlers by the Crown, while 630,482 acres have been leased as sheep-runs. In 1892–93 the area under cultivation and permanent grass was 535,433 acres, of which 179,396 acres were under crop, and 356,037 under grasses; wheat occupied 58,897 acres, produce 1,018,550 bushels; oats, 22,976 acres, produce 631,746 bushels; potatoes, 16,535 acres, produce 60,245 tons; hay, 46,070 acres, produce 53,544 tons. Under the head of horticulture 536 acres were sown with hops, yielding 685,031 lbs. of hops. The yield of apples was 503,013 bushels. Fruit culture is of great importance; large quantities of fruit are exported. There were in the colony 31,976 horses, 135,072 head of cattle, 1,623,338 sheep, and 59,267 pigs. No figures are available for the earlier years as regards dairy farming, but in the seven years ending March 1893, there has been an increase of 6508 milch cows, or 22.83 per cent., and the dairy produce for 1893 was valued at £350,130. Tasmania, like Victoria, will become one of the great sources of the butter supply for the United Kingdom.

The imports of late years have considerably declined, and at the present moment the exports largely exceed the imports. In 1890 the imports were £1,897,512, exports, £1,486,992; in 1891 the imports were £1,908,917, and the exports, £1,206,921; in 1892, imports, £1,404,536, exports, £1,179,279; 1893, imports, £877,491, exports, £1,184,566. The principal exports in 1892 were: Wool, £329,585; tin, £290,794; gold, £145,737; fruit, £147,886; silver and lead, £82,647; oats, £30,074; potatoes, £55,486; hides and skins, £44,019; bark, £38,212; and timber, £32,736. About 42.41 per cent. of the importation is by way of Victoria, and 36.18 with the United Kingdom. Of the export trade 40.04 per cent.

is with Victoria, 32.54 with New South Wales, and 23.45 with the United Kingdom.

Tasmania is well provided with main roads. The telegraph system belongs to the Government. At the end of 1892 there were 1856 miles open, 236 stations, and 319,334 messages were sent. There are 382 miles of telephone wire, with exchanges at New Norfolk, Hobart, and Launceston. The revenue from telegrams was £14,494. Newspaper packets and postcards carried in 1892 were 11,968,346, the revenue £54,736, and the expenditure on posts and telegraphs £84,471, so that the whole service was carried on at a loss of about £15,500 per annum.

It would be impossible to deny that Tasmania, like all its neighbours on the mainland of Australia, is suffering a recovery. The decline in the price of silver prevented the development of the Zeehan and Dundas mines, and Tasmania has felt very severely the low value of all descriptions of agricultural and mineral produce. But a reaction has already commenced, and there is every reason to look forward to a long era of prosperity. Tasmania has within her comparatively limited area an infinite number of resources. She has great mineral wealth, a large area of fertile land well adapted for agriculture, and better suited for dairying and fruit-growing than any other part of Australia. And the difference in the seasons—the summer of the southern hemisphere being the winter of the northern—enables the dairymen to supply Great Britain with grass-grown butter at the very season when it is almost impossible to procure it from any portion of the northern hemisphere; and the same is the case with apples and pears, which arrive in London at the period when the European and American varieties are becoming tasteless from having been kept over from the previous autumn.

Tasmania has many resources which are denied to the mainland of Australia. Her unrivalled climate, the beauty of her scenery, and her proximity to Melbourne, which can easily be reached by railway from all parts of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, and Southern Queensland, have made her the Switzerland of Australia, with the additional advantage that she can be visited from the centres of population in the mainland far more easily than the Engadine, the Bernese Oberland, or Lucerne can be reached from London or Berlin. The Swiss farmer, trader, or innkeeper is careless about the harvest or vintage, so long as the "tourist crop" is good, and Switzerland is invaded by the usual number of travellers, with well-lined purses, from all the cities of Europe. Tasmania is beginning to be enriched in a precisely similar manner, and there are few well-to-do families in the southern portions of Australia who do not make arrangements to spend some portion of the summer in the health-giving valleys, the breezy uplands, or on the picturesque mountain sides of Tasmania; and the same causes induce a large residential population of persons of moderate means, retired officers—civil and military, from India—and pensioned Civil servants from all parts of Australia. Life is cheap and agreeable, society is good, cultured, and refined, without extravagance or ostentation, and the educational advantages are at least equal to those of any other portion of Australia.

There are three great sources of wealth which up to the present are undeveloped. Considerable quantities of black wood and Huon pine have been exported to Australia, and the hard wood of Tasmania has been largely employed in building houses, jetties, and wharves in Victoria and New South Wales. But there is no reason why the highly-ornamented woods—the black wood, and Huon and King William pines, the myrtle and the musk—might not be largely employed in this country for furniture, or why the hard woods, such as the red gum and the box, should not be employed for street paving.

There is another great industry which is to-day altogether neglected. There is no country in the world whose waters are better supplied with fish, and as the seas are much colder, the finny inhabitants are far superior in flavour to those which are found in the ocean currents which wash the shores of the Australian mainland. The trumpeter, trevally, rock-cod, and king-fish are equal to the best fish found in the northern hemisphere; the flounder is a formidable rival to the sole, and the cray-fish to the lobster. If the fisheries were properly developed, they might not only furnish the people of Tasmania with a wholesome and nutritious food, but they might establish a lucrative trade with the mainland. The Tasmanians are beginning to realise that fresh butter will preserve its flavour for the whole time occupied on a voyage to England, but they have not yet learned that fish can be packed in ice and shipped to Melbourne, Sydney, and Adelaide without any perceptible deterioration. The salmon-trout and the trout are now thoroughly established in the Tasmanian waters, as may be seen by any one who will take the trouble to visit the Tasmanian Court at the Imperial Institute. But no properly organised attempt has yet been made to secure the harvest with which the Tasmanian shores abound.

Another industry, which in the early days of the colony afforded employment to a large section of the population and constituted a considerable proportion of its exports, was the whale-fishery. For many years shore whaling was carried on at many portions of Tasmania, and at Encounter and Portland Bays on the mainland; the pursuit was exciting, profitable, and popular. Deep-sea whaling was carried on very extensively. In 1838 the produce of the fisheries was valued at £137,000. In 1848, thirty-eight whalers sailed from Hobart; they had a tonnage of 7260 tons, were manned by 1100 men, and were valued at £148,000. The exports of sperm and black oil amounted to about £75,000 a year. But the discovery of gold in 1851, the migration of the adult males to the gold-fields of Victoria and New South Wales, and the large increase in wages, prevented the further development of whaling, and finally destroyed the industry altogether. In 1862, the exports of sperm and black oil were valued at £59,210; in 1872, at £47,574; in 1877, £33,507; in 1882, £13,170; and in 1886 at only £9463.

It is the fashion to assert that whale-fishing is a thing of the past, that the whale is becoming extinct, and that the industry declined in Tasmania for the same reason that the Nantucket and New Bedford fishermen have abandoned the trade, or, in other words, that it did not pay. But I have not been able to find any evidence for this assertion. The Tasmanian whale-fishery was killed by the discovery of gold, the difficulty of inducing men to lead the hard life of a whaler, and the high wages that had to be paid. Now that wages are lower, while the price of whalebone has made it an almost unattainable luxury, there is every reason to believe that whaling might be reintroduced, with great profit and advantage. A number of ships from Dundee visited the Southern Ocean in 1892–93, and vessels from Scotland and Sweden were fishing for whales and seals last January in the Antarctic Ocean. An expert has made a calculation which shows that the business can be conducted at a large profit, and if it can be made to pay from Dundee and Stockholm, there is no reason why Hobart, which is in the very centre of the cruising grounds, should not enjoy the lion's share of the trade. The old whaling ground of Tasmania has had comparative rest for many years, and steam whalers fishing amongst the ice floes, and along the margin of the Antarctic ice-fields would reach a ground which no sailing vessel had ever been able to touch.

An account of Tasmania would be incomplete without some reference to the Exhibition. About twelve months ago a number of enterprising people induced the Government of Tasmania to give its patronage to an Exhibition which is to be held at Hobart next November, and to remain open for six months, during the Australian summer, and at a time when Hobart is crowded with visitors who visit the island capital to avoid the torrid heats of the mainland used as the headquarters of the Australian fleet. The idea caught on, the scheme has been warmly supported in the Australian Colonies, a handsome building in the centre of the Queen's Domain, and near the Battery and the Central Railway Station, has been erected, which with its annexes will cover eleven acres. The proposal has met with great support all over the world, especially in the United States and Canada. The British Government has decided to ask the Queen to appoint a Royal Commission, composed of distinguished personages, under the presidency of the Marquis of Ripon, and a large number of British and Irish manufacturers have signified their intention of taking part in the Exhibition. Nor have the various foreign nations been at all backward in taking advantage of the opening which this Exhibition will afford for obtaining a portion of the lucrative commerce which Great Britain at the present time enjoys with her Australian dependencies. Our manufacturing rivals fully realise that the Hobart Exhibition will be visited by nearly all the large consumers of imported produce, and the purchasers of imported luxuries that are to be found in Australia and France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, and Switzerland will be largely represented on the banks of the Derwent next November. I can only trust that in the peaceful contest for the trade of Australia, victory may alight upon the banners of our own country.

Tasmania is easily reached from all parts of Europe, and especially from Great Britain. Frequent steamers connect Launceston and Hobart with Melbourne and Sydney; the passage from Melbourne to Launceston does not occupy more than eighteen hours, of which at least ten are in smooth water, and the fares are remarkably low, the return tickets in the first class being £1, 15s. in the winter and £2, 10s. in the summer. The passage from Hobart to Melbourne occupies about thirty hours, the return tickets being £4. The Victorian capital can be reached from Great Britain and Italy by the Peninsular and Oriental, the Orient, and several other lines of first-class steamers, from France by the Messageries Maritimes, and from Germany, Belgium, and Italy by the North German Lloyd. The most direct way of reaching Tasmania is by the steamers of the New Zealand Shipping Company, the Shaw Savill, and Albion and other lines which, sailing from Great Britain for New Zealand, make Hobart a port of call. On the homeward passage these steamers do not return to Hobart, but sail to Great Britain *viâ* Cape Horn and Rio de Janeiro. Any traveller desirous to visit the magnificent scenery of New Zealand could break his journey at Hobart, and resume his voyage after a tour through Tasmania, and should he so desire, a trip across the Strait to Melbourne, Adelaide, Sydney, or Brisbane.

I have no desire to touch upon politics, or to discuss the vexed question of Imperial or Australian federation. But most men pretending to any knowledge of statescraft entertain a strong opinion that the connection between the various Australian colonies will become closer in the future than it has been in the past, that the centrifugal force which split the vast country over which the Governor of New South

Wales originally had jurisdiction into half-a-dozen colonies has now spent itself, and that a strong centripetal movement will succeed it. In that case Tasmania will exercise a much greater influence over Australia than she has enjoyed up to the present. Continents have always been, to a large extent, dominated by islands. The Isles of Greece played a part in the destiny of the world altogether disproportioned to their size and population. The wealth and influence of Great Britain are not to be measured by her acreage. And in the case of Tasmania she will have the additional advantage of the most invigorating climate which can be found throughout Australasia, except in the southern island of New Zealand, which is, perhaps, geographically too far removed from the Australian continent to modify its destinies. Hobart has been the city selected for the meetings of the Federal Council, and it is more than probable that it will be the capital of a Federated Australia. The day may come when the policy of the whole of Australasia is directed from Hobart, and it is possible, if ever the prophecies of Sir George Grey are carried out, that the great Anglo-Saxon Celtic Council may sit there in regular sequence after London and Washington, that the naval and military defence of the empire will be decided there, and that in the words of Wentworth—

> "Will Australasia float with flag unfurled
> A new Britannia in another world?"

THE LOST TASMANIAN RACE

By JAMES BONWICK, F.R.G.S.

Tasmania is an island somewhere about the size of Ireland. It has not quite the uniformity that you would observe in Ireland either in physical features, in climate, or in some other particulars. You have, for instance, on the western side an almost impracticable country, a region of huge rocks, boldly built mountains, rolling cascades, dashing rivers, and almost impenetrable scrub, with a very wet climate, even to over a hundred inches of rain. On the other side of this small island you will find a fall of only about twenty inches, or even less, without the ruggedness of feature characterising the western side. The central part is about as charming a country as could be found upon the habitable earth. It is sufficiently picturesque in its physical features—a large prevalence of the volcanic element giving it very much beauty, and a great fertility of soil. As an illustration of fertility, I might mention that in one of my rambles, near Greenponds, I came upon land which had been cropped with wheat for six-and-twenty years in succession without any manure, and the crop was forty bushels to the acre, as the farmer told me. The soil was the result of the decomposition of basaltic rocks, which are so abundant in most parts of the island. Tasmania, however, has not the more modern development of ordinary lava and volcanic ashes, so conspicuous in Victoria, as around the cities of Rome and Naples.

The climate of the central portion is as beautiful as the soil is rich, producing everything that could be grown in this country, and a large number of things that could be grown only in a very much warmer climate than this. The more moderate heat, with a very pleasant atmosphere, has made it the playground of the overwrought or delicate from Melbourne, Sydney, and Brisbane. This grateful kind of climate is not, as may be found in some warm climates, conducing to luxurious ease, but serves as an incentive to exercise and activity. I need not say more about Tasmania except that I wonder more people do not go there from this place, and its not too agreeable climate, to one where they can enjoy a trifle less of the fog characteristic, without the sharpness and severity of the cold that we experience here.

I know Tasmania has been called "the slow colony." Well, I have lived long enough in the world, now that I am an old man, to know that a man may be in a slow country and enjoy a little more than in a faster one; and if he does not put quite so many dollars in his pocket as on the continental side of Australia, he can have a peaceful serenity, a blissful healthiness, and a moderate competence.

Tasmania was first sighted in 1642 by a Dutchman, Tasman, after whom it is called. For a long time it had not another visitor, but some Frenchmen dropped in. There was the discoverer D'Entrecasteaux in 1792, and Commodore Baudin in 1800. Perin was the author of a work on the voyage of the *Géographe* and the *Naturaliste*, brought out in some magnificent volumes, published by order of Napoleon.

Now I come to the subject of the natives. These Frenchmen first of all made us acquainted with the Tasmanians. I fancy there is nobody here who would look with an evil eye upon those highly-advanced views of social politics adopted by these Frenchmen, who went out after the great Revolution, filled with the most romantic ideas of Rousseau and others with respect to savages. If I quote what one of them has written about his interview with our Tasmanians, it may interest you to see that, with all their romance, these men, for the first time almost in history, believed in humanity, and absolutely thought that men might be, and ought to be, brethren. And if you are disposed to laugh a little at the wildness of the Frenchman, you cannot but recognise his affectionate interest in the savages who had not before seen a white man. M. Péron, the writer, observed:—

"The young girl whom I had noticed made herself more and more conspicuous every instant by the softness of her looks, and her affectionate and sparkling expression.

"Ouna, like her parents, was perfectly naked, and appeared little to suspect that one should find in the absolute nudity anything immodest or indecent. Mons. Freycinet, who seated himself beside her, appeared to be more particularly the object of her agreeable attentions; and the least-experienced eye might have been able, in the look of this innocent child of nature, to distinguish the delicate shade which gives to simple playfulness a more serious and reflective character."

He subsequently offered his arm to one of these fair ladies, walked through the forest, and was dreadfully distressed because the poor creature in going through the scrub absolutely tore her naked limbs. He then added—

"This gentle confidence of the people in us; these affectionate evidences of benevolence which they have never ceased to manifest towards us; the frankness of their manners; the touching ingenuousness of their caresses, all concurred to excite within us sentiments of the tenderest interest."

And now about the people. We have got to take a prosaic view of things, because we are English people; we cannot help it. Anyhow, we will consider the physical aspect of these people.

The men had hair on their heads, but the females, in their native condition, had their hair removed by the aid of a flint. One is much after the native state—that was the deprivation of hair altogether. The men had not the hair of the Australians—which was longer, rougher, and in good curls—often with a beard that would delight a Pasha. The Tasmanians, however, had their crisp hair in the form of ringlets, well greased, and coloured with red or yellow ochre.

If you desire to see the best collection of Tasmanian skulls, you would have to go to the Jardin des Plantes at Paris. At the College of Surgeons, London, there are also a few skulls. By the way, they were a thick-headed lot, and could stand an uncommon good hammering—their style of fighting having much to do with club-beating of heads. The eyes are prominent; and they were often of great beauty and brilliancy. The nose I cannot say much for. My old friend Lalla Rookh would not charm you with her nose, which was, like all of her race, decidedly bridgeless. That is a peculiarity which you do not find in the Australians. The chin has a very decided peculiarity. It runs off, so to speak, marking a physical inferiority. The upper jaw in all cases is protruding. They had teeth of magnificent proportions. A dentist told me that of all nationalities whose teeth he had tested, he never saw anything equal to those of the Tasmanians for strength, size, and enamel.

When got up for any festivity, they put on their ornaments—that is, they had shell necklaces. We find similar necklaces in this country in the remains of the Cave men. One of them, called Truganina, presented me with a necklace of iridiscent small shells for the ornamentation of my daughter's hair.

They were powerfully made—superior in point of physical strength to the people on the other side—that is, the Australians. They had abundant stores of animal food in the country about them. This they cooked in an original manner. Catching the kangaroo, they threw it on the fire, allowing it to be only a little warmed through. They had also vegetable roots of various kinds, and, in the season, a large quantity of manna, which dropped from some of their trees, and was exactly like that found in the wilderness of stony Arabia in the olden days.

Their dress is quickly disposed of, being nothing, excepting they had the skins of beasts to cover them when the weather was cold.

A word or two about their arts. Their arts were very simple—very limited. They had weapons, but their weapons were hunting material, and consisted simply of a spear of wood sharpened at the point and heated in the fire, so as to get a hard point. That was their sole weapon in war or hunting. They had neither the Australian boomerang nor the wommera to aid the flight of the spear itself. But we do find that there was a little love of the fine arts, as, in various parts, are sketches remaining on rocks. Some of these represented animals, as the kangaroo and snake; others were imitations of the white men's life—as a sketch of a boat or a horse.

Now as to the origin of these people. A curious thing is that they are not like the Australians, their neighbours. They had no means of getting to them, because they had no boats. It is true a few of these have been found made of bark; and they took a common stick or a spear to use as a paddle across a small stream.

The New Caledonians, a people in Timor, in the interior of Borneo, in Malaya, and in a few other places, had some similarity to the Tasmanians in their physical appearance. There is also a likeness to be discerned among the Dravidians, or mountain tribes of India.

The ladies were, in their wild condition, the slaves of their masters, the men. They had not much choice of their partners; and perhaps occasionally they were treated a little roughly. Anyhow, they were captured after the usual style of wife-capture that existed in very remote times, and which lingers here among us; as the ladies of a family, or connection have a fashion, when the gentleman runs off with the bride, of showing their displeasure at the theft by throwing slippers at his head.

I may perhaps relate a tribal tradition. There was a certain Amboo—a young lady who was a little pestered, as some young ladies are at the present time, if they are beautiful. Anyhow, pointing to a very beautiful tree in the distance, called Telopea—that is, "seen at a distance"—she said, "The one that will bring me that flower off the side of the mountain to-morrow morning shall be my master." Away the young fellows went in pursuit. She hoped that Matui would get it. One after another came to the camp without the flower, but Matui never came. Near where I was living, many years after, some men had to move a rock that had fallen from the side of the mountain, in order to widen the road. Behind that rock they found the skeleton of a man with a flower in his hand.

I must now bring you to the Black War, as it was called—the war between the whites and the blacks—which was very severe in that island, and bravely conducted by the aboriginal people. As you are doubtless aware, the island was first peopled by convicts and their guards—the soldiers and the sailors—not the best material to come in contact with any primitive people. Very soon ruptures took place.

The trouble began—aye, and continued—in connection with the women, who were treated very barbarously. A man told me himself that he knew a fellow that caught hold of a *gin*—that is, a woman—and as she tried to get away from him, he chained her to a log in the front of his hut, and there she had to remain for his pleasure as a captive. The dark-skinned fathers and husbands could not help resenting this occasionally; and if a spear did go through a white fellow, it was because some other white fellow had done a wrong. Tribal people, as you know, visit the sins of an individual upon any member of the tribe offending.

A great deal of trouble arose also through the Bushrangers—men who ran away from their own employers, being the convict servants of masters to whom they had been assigned. In taking the bush, they had to seek their living by robbing the outsettlers. The cruelty of these bushrangers to the poor natives you can easily understand from the rough character of the fellows themselves.

One story I heard, where one of these bushrangers came up to a native and his wife, killed the man, cut off his head, tied a string to it, and compelled the woman to carry it round her neck, while he, with a knife that he had, kept probing her up to his own lair among the mountains.

Sealers also would steal native women, and carry them off as slaves to their homes on the islands of Bass's Strait. Although some of these sealers treated their *gins* well, and there are instances told of their bringing up their half-caste children in a civilised—aye, in a Christian way—yet the majority were a very rough lot indeed.

The stockriders and shepherds were terrible tormentors of these poor blacks, and if these resented the ill treatment, what was their wooden spear compared to the white man's musket?

The war continued. Governor after Governor had, in Public Orders, proclaimed that the natives were under British protection, and that any outrage upon them would be punished the same as though it had been done to whites. The threats, however, were seldom carried into execution. The authorities truly declared that the occasion of the war was the wrong done by the white man to the black.

The artist was once called into requisition to restrain the warlike tribes. A sketch was prepared, and a number of copies made, representing a black with a spear killing a white man. Alongside was the gallows, and there was a black man suspended in due form. On the other side of the picture was the representation of a white man shooting a black man, and the white man was to be seen strung up after the same fashion on another gallows.

Still the war went on, and increased in ferocity. Houses were burnt, people were killed, and desolation spread on all sides. At last the Governor considered the best plan was to have Capture Parties to seize the people, and make them prisoners whenever they could be found. Five pounds was to be given to the man who captured a male or female of adult age, £2 for the capture of a child.

As the outrages still continued, an attempt was made, by means of a cordon of armed men across the island, to drive the naked warriors into a narrow peninsula on the east coast. Six thousand people were employed in this wonderful campaign, and an expenditure of £30,000 was incurred by the colony in carrying it out. I have heard from several of those who were in that Line operation, in 1830, amusing accounts of the failure of this grand expedition. When the liners gained the peninsula, not a single native was found there. The hunted ones had eluded their would-be captors in spite of fires kindled at the night posts. One man, a bricklayer, proposed a plan that met with the Governor's approval. He had before that been intimate with the blacks, and very kind to them. He now offered to go in search of the wild men, and induce them by argument and entreaty to yield. He took a few blacks with him—men and women. The latter were decked out with fine long ribbons, glaring red, to attract attention in the forest, as they were to be the decoys. One cannot sufficiently praise these brave men and women, who went on this errand of mercy into the forest seeking after the bloodthirsty, hunted savages.

Wonderful dangers had to be encountered, and fearful escapes were recorded. They at length came near the dreaded Big River tribe of warriors. George Robinson, the worthy leader, telling the story afterwards, said: "I was left alone, and the blacks were coming on to me; I could hear the ring of their spears. I gave all up, but my trust was in my good friends; I felt they had not forsaken me. So when the blacks came on, whom should I see but Truganina and my other friends, who had got behind among the women; the men in front with their spears. I stood still and waited for them. 'Where is your gun?' cried one of the blacks. 'I have none,' was the reply. At last I saw a sign that I understood. I saw the old women throw up their arms. The old women were the masters of the situation. They threw up their arms, and that meant peace." The men dropped their spears, and came before him.

Then, as Mr. George Robinson says, "to see these poor creatures crying over one another, and asking after their friends long ago—wife, father, mother, child—was sad and pitiable." But such was their confidence in this man—the Conciliator, the man of peace—that they agreed to go with him down to Hobart. "But," said they, "we shall keep our spears; we are freemen, and shall want to hunt by the way." They came down into the town in triumph, these sixteen men, who had kept the colony of thousands at bay.

They were then removed to Flinders Island, in Bass's Strait, where they were looked after; kindly watched over by the Superintendent Robinson. Some grand names were given to them. There were King Leonidas, King Alexander, and King Alfred, Julius Cæsar, and Queen Semiramis.

Although they were allowed much freedom, they could not help grieving over the loss of their old forest homes, and were often seen sitting on the rocks looking over the water to the land they had left. They sank into a melancholy state, and disease made rapid progress among them. I had the sad satisfaction of seeing some of the boys brought down by their kind teacher, Father Clark, as he was called, and of hearing them read passages from the Testament.

So great was the mortality, that the remnant were taken from Flinders Island to Oyster Cove, not far from Hobart, so as to be under the public eye. It was there I had the melancholy pleasure of seeing the miserable little company of one man and a few old women. Not a child remained alive.

These poor creatures were dressed very roughly, squatting about on the dirty floor, with mangy dogs around them eating out of the same dish as the people. They were grossly neglected; my heart was touched. I heard from those who could talk a little English about the bad whites, who used to give them drink on purpose to get them to give them their clothes and blankets. Drink—the curse of the black man, the curse of the white man—all through civilisation, has swept off more than any other cause.

I found at Oyster Cove a very intelligent half-caste woman, the wife of Walter, the solitary black man. She talked good English, and could read and write. She took me into her little place, nicely furnished, with some books on the table, and told me this story. She said, "I had schooling, and when young was looked after. I had a soul once, and I knew it. I have no soul now, for nobody cares for me. They let me and my husband drink."

Knowing that my friend Clark on the death of his wife had gone to spend his last days with his beloved black friends, I asked Mary Ann, the half-caste, to tell me where Father Clark's grave was. She took me to the spot, and burst into tears, saying, "He was a good man; he was the only good man I ever knew." He was, indeed, a lover of the dark race.

Before I left, Walter gave me some stones, called Flinders diamonds, he had brought from the old island home, as a mark of respect for my expression of sympathy for the neglected remnants of a departed race. Alas! the poor fellow some time after fell a victim to drink, finding a watery grave, One after another died. Truganina, the merry one, lived to be the last of the tribes, and she has joined the rest.

May I be excused in applying the lesson to my reader? If you have any opportunity to do an act of kindness to aboriginal people, by your voice or pen, pray do it. Do not content yourself with saying, "They must go, as it is the way of Providence." Let them at least go comfortably to their end, if they have to give place to another race, better, or not. When you have lost one by the grasp of death to whom you have not been so kind as you might have been, the heart may cry again and again, "Would I had loved him more!" And so we should say with these departing and inferior races. Do not let them feel that they have no soul left, but do what you can to make them happy while they stay.

NEW ZEALAND[1]

New Zealand, though one of the best-fitted lands in the world for human habitation, was only discovered by Europeans in the reign of our King Charles I. Even then the Dutch explorer who sighted its lofty coasts did not set foot upon them. The first European to step on its shores did so only when the great American colonies were beginning to fret at the ties which bound them to England. The pioneers of New Zealand colonisation, the missionaries, whalers, and flax and timber traders, did not come upon the scene until the years of Napoleon's decline and fall. Queen Victoria had been on the throne for three years before the Colonial Office was reluctantly compelled to add the islands to an Empire which the official mind regarded as already overgrown. Yet so striking, varied, and attractive are the country's features, so full of bustle, change, and experiment have its few years been, that it is difficult to compress any adequate account of them even into a good-sized volume. All that can be attempted, therefore, in this short article, is a general description of the physical aspect of the islands, and an account of the present condition of their civilisation and social economy as reflected in their political institutions.

The Fortunate Isles.

What is New Zealand like? Let me begin by telling what it is *not* like. It is not very like England. Neither in climate, outline, vegetation, nor colouring do the two countries much resemble each other. Of course, standing in a garden near Christchurch with your feet on a sward of English grasses, with English roses blooming near, English oaks, elms, and ashes in leaf close by, with the English skylark trilling overhead, and English blackbirds stealing your English cherries, you might easily fancy yourself in England, or dreaming. But were you to walk out of the garden far enough to gain a view of the western horizon you would see, many miles across an utterly flat plain, a long high blue wall, and above the top of that another blue wall, and behind that a third barrier. You would notice that the highest barrier was capped or streaked with snow. England shows no such mountain-walls as these, the Southern Alps. Then, were you to turn the other way, and look at the grassy volcanic hills to the east, you would note in their outlines, and in the yellow and brown tints mingling with their green, something un-English. As you went farther afield almost every mile you put behind you would show you less and less likeness to England. Nor does New Zealand in the least recall Australia. The mountains, valleys, forests, birds, coast-line, and, above all, the lakes, rivers, and climate, are as different from those of the great neighbour continent as can well be imagined. The dominating eucalypt of Australia is only known in New Zealand in plantations. Australia is a land of open spaces, for the most part flat or rolling, so vast as to seem endless. It is generally hot and dry. Its forest is park-like. Its trees have a strong family likeness to one another; its prevailing colours are yellow, brown, light-green, and grey. New Zealand is not a vast land. It is but about as large as the United Kingdom, *minus* half Ireland. Its coasts rise steep and high; its long, narrow islands are lonely amid the immense unbroken expanse of the Southern Ocean. Even Australia is 1200 miles off to the north-west, and to the east there is only sea and sky until you come to South America, 4500 miles away.

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[1] Compiled from writings and speeches of the Hon. W. P. Reeves, Agent-General for the Colony, and author of the most recent history of New Zealand, "The Long White Cloud."

The noble forest of New Zealand is a dense jungle, thick and luxuriant as those one reads of in descriptions of the tropics, where the traveller and hunter have to cut their path through tangled thickets and interlacing creepers. The general hue of this forest is not light but dark green—beautifully relieved, it is true, by bright fern-fronds, light-tinted shrubs and crimson or snow-white flowers. Still the undertone is somewhat sombre, and would be more noticeably so but for two things—the abundant sunshine and great variety of species of trees and ferns growing side by side.

New Zealand is by no means a flat country, though there are in it some fair-sized plains, one of which—that of Canterbury—is about as flat a stretch of one hundred miles as is to be found in the world. On the whole, however, the colony is, emphatically, a land of the mountain and the flood, and not only in this, but in the contour of some of its hills, some of its peaks, and coast-line, it shows more than a fanciful resemblance to the West of Scotland. But the New Zealand mountains are, of course, far loftier than anything in Great Britain. In her islands you must expect hill and valley, sometimes mountain and ravine, pinnacle and gorge. The rocky coasts as a rule rise up steeply in mid-ocean, standing out in many places in bold bluffs and lofty precipices. The seas around are not shallow, sleepy, or land-locked, but deep, wide, wind-stirred, flecked with foam, and with their blue surface more often than not lit by brilliant sunshine. The climate and colouring, too, are not only essentially un-British, but differ very widely in different parts of the islands. For New Zealand, though narrow, is long, stretching through thirteen degrees of latitude, and for something like 1100 miles from north to south. Geographically, it is not at the antipodes of England. If you could transport it to the Northern Hemisphere and lay it on the map of Europe, its coldest end would be about at Vienna, its warmest end near the Island of Crete; or bring it farther west and it would stretch from Orleans in France to the city of Fez in Morocco. As might be expected in a mountainous country, lying in the open ocean, the climate of New Zealand is breezy, and, except in two or three districts, moist. It is gloriously healthy and emphatically bright and cheerful. Its prevailing characteristic summed up in one word is—light.

Hot as some of the summer days are, they are seldom sultry enough to breed the heavy, overhanging heat-haze which shrouds the heaven nearer the tropics. Sharp as are the frosts of the winter nights in the central and southern part of the South Island, the days even in midwinter are often radiantly beautiful, giving seven or eight hours of clear pleasant sunshine. It rains heavily in New Zealand, but for the most part the rains are not prolonged. They come in a steady business-like downpour, or in sharp angry squalls; suddenly the rain ceases, the clouds break, and the sun is shining from a blue sky! Fogs and mists are rare and are only passing visitors. High-lying and ocean-girt, our long, slender islands are lands of the sunshine and the sea.

Next to light perhaps the chief characteristic of the country and its climate is variety. Thanks to its great length, the north differs much from the south. Southland is as cool as Northern France, with an occasional bracing southerly wind, but in gardens to the north of Auckland you may stand under olive-trees laden with berries, with orange-trees, figs, and lemon-trees in full bearing close at hand. Exotic palm-trees, mangroves, and the cane-brake grow there easily. All over the North Island, except at high altitudes, and in the more sheltered portions of the South Island, camellias and azaleas bloom in the open air. As for the grape-vine, that may lead to wine-making in both islands—unless our friends the total abstainers grow strong enough to put their foot on the manufacture of alcohol in every form in our already distinctly sober colony: But in New Zealand not only is the north in marked contrast with the south, but the contrast between the east and west is even more sharply defined. As a rule the two coasts are divided by a broad belt of mountainous country.

The rain-bringing winds in New Zealand blow chiefly from the north-west and south-west. The moisture-laden clouds that these bear, rolling up from the ocean, gather and condense against the western flanks of our mountains. Thus on the west of the North Island descends an abundant rainfall which in ages past nourished an unbroken and beautiful forest. On the west of the South Island the rain is more than abundant, and down towards the south-west corner—where the famous Sounds lie—it registers a phenomenal number of inches, something between 110 in. and 160 in. in the year. On the east coast of the same island, on the other hand, the fall is not more than one-fifth of this, sometimes less, is rather irregular, and is followed by drying winds and a bright sunshine.

It is the heavy and often warm rainfall of the west coast that is responsible for the rich luxuriance of the forest growth that nearly everywhere clothes its hillsides, valleys, and the shores of its wonderful gulfs. To this rainfall is due that bright living green in which the pasture of the west coast vies with English meadows. The east coast, on the other hand, is not jungle-clad, but open and grassy, or clothed with bracken. So in the South Island, and for many years in the North Island too, the open east was settled before the forest-covered west, and even now most of our sheep and wool are raised on the eastern side of the Great Divide.

Striking features in New Zealand are the far-reaching prospects over which the eye can travel, the sight and sound of water everywhere, and the glimpses of snow high overhead or far away. Through the sunny lucid atmosphere it is no uncommon thing to see mountain peaks sixty and eighty miles off, diminished in size by distance, but with their outlines quite clean-cut. From great heights you may see much longer distances, especially in very early mornings of still midsummer days.

New Zealand is a land of streams of every size and kind, and these streams and rivers have almost all three qualities in common—they are cold, swift, and clear. Cold and swift they must be, of course, as they descend quickly to the sea from heights more or less great. Clear they all are, except immediately after rain, or when the larger rivers are in flood, or when made turbid by extensive gold-mining operations.

The sun is quite strong enough to make the colonists thankful for this gift of abundant water, and to make the tinkling music of some little forest rivulet, heard long before it is seen through the green thickets, as melodious to the ears of the tired rider as the note of the bell-bird itself. Even pleasanter is the sound and the glitter of water under the summer sunshine to the wayfarer in the open grassy plains or valleys of the east coast. As for the number of our streams—who shall count them? But it is on record that between the mouths of the Mokau and Patea Rivers—a distance which cannot be much more than one hundred miles of coast—no less than eighty-five streams, of which some sixty have their source in the slopes or in the chasms of Mount Egmont, empty themselves into the Tasman Sea. Quite as many more, I should think, flow down from Egmont into larger rivers on the inland side.

He who wishes to see the beauties of our rivers must go inland and see them as they are to be seen in the North Island, winding through untouched valleys, under cliffs hung with drooping ferns and shrubs, clothed with mosses and lichens and shadowed by forests not yet marred by the hand of man. Or, in the South Island, the traveller must go into the Alps to see the torrents boiling and racing at the bottom of frowning gorges.

Doubly interesting, from the medicinal and from the spectacular point of view, is the volcanic region of the centre of the North Island.

How many scores of times has one not been asked whether there is anything left to see now that the pink and white terraces have been overwhelmed. Whereto the answer must be that an intelligent person could spend many weeks there and come away without having seen all. How many hot springs are there? asks one questioner. I do not know. I do not think any one does know. They have never been counted; they are too many. How hot are they? They are of every degree, from, say 60° to 212° Fahr. The chief, or, at any rate, the most noticeable, chemical elements producing effects of colour in the thermal district are sulphur, alum, and silica. To the last-named we owe the frosty snow-white hue of innumerable terraces, banks, and ledges. The alum walls, or so-called caves, are more greyish. It is to the almost rainbow tints of the sulphur pools, springs, and deposits that the springs owe their most brilliant effects. How can I describe them? It is easy to talk about red and yellow and green, but that does not give any notion of the infinite and beautiful gradations. Yellow, yes; everything from orange to pale primrose. Red—that means rose, carmine, cardinal, blood-colour, crimson, port-wine. In the same way you may see all the greens, from the deepest emerald to the palest sea-tints. Then how can I give even the faintest sketch of the inexhaustible variety in which the subterranean forces of fire and water manifest their strength? I can say that there are geysers, solfataras, fumaroles, and mud-volcanoes by the score; but does that make them boil and roar, and writhe, and seethe, and hiss, and snort, and spout, and steam, and gurgle, and splutter? It is useless to attempt to convey any vivid impression of these extraordinary phenomena. In close contrast with them are often the brightest, tenderest fern and leafage, and the volcanic plateau is studded with lakes of the most romantic interest and beauty.

The glory of New Zealand forest scenery consists in its variety and luxuriance. The tall trees grow close together. For the most part their leaves are rather small, but their close neighbourhood prevents this spoiling the effect. The eye wanders over swell after swell, and into cavern after cavern of unbroken foliage. As a rule the lower part of the trunks is branchless; the stems rise up like tall pillars in long colonnades. But this does not mean that they are bare. Climbing ferns, lichens, pendant grasses, air-plants, and orchids drape their trunks with verdure. Long rope-like lianas dangle like cords from their branches to the ground. Around them bushes, shrubs, creepers, and ferns of every size and height combine to make a tangled thicket, filling up and even choking the spaces between trunk and trunk.

The forest trees are evergreens, therefore even in midwinter they are beautiful. The glorious autumnal tints of English woods are not theirs; yet theirs are every shade of green, from the light puriri to the dark totara, from the bronze-hued willow-like leaves of the tawa to the vivid green of the matai, or the soft golden-green of the drooping rimu. Then, again, though the wild ground-flowers of our islands cannot compare in number with those of England or Australia, we are fortunate in flowering creepers, shrubs, and trees, while for variety and delicate beauty our ferns and mosses are unrivalled.

To understand our Alps, and to be competent to describe them, one ought to be a botanist, an alpine-climber, a landscape painter, and a poet. Their especial charm, I think, lies in their showing you at one and the same moment a combination of the sternest grandeur aloft joined with the softest and most luxuriant foliage below. On the west coast the forest climbs to the snow-line, while the snow-line descends as if to meet it. On the western side glaciers come down to within 700 feet of the sea-level; even on the east side the snow-line is some 2000 feet lower than in Switzerland. This means that the wonderful land which lies above that line is easily and quickly accessible. You can easily reach the realm where all is dead, and where ice and snow, rock and water, reign supreme, and where man seems a daring intruder.

Though Aorangi has been ascended to the topmost pinnacle of its 12,349 feet, still the peaks are many which are yet unscaled, and the valleys many which are virtually untrodden. Exploring parties still go out and find new lakes, new passes, and new waterfalls. It is but a few years since the Sutherland Falls, 2000 feet high, were first revealed to civilised man; nor was there ever a region better worth searching than the Southern Alps. Every freshly-found nook and corner gives us new beauties and new interests.

Both the glaciers and lakes are on a grand scale. The Tasman Glacier is eighteen miles long, and more than two miles across at the widest point; the Murchison Glacier is more than ten miles long; the Godley eight. The Hochstetter Fall is a curtain of broken, uneven, fantastic ice coming down 4000 feet on to the Tasman Glacier. Imagine such a spectacle if you can, seen amid the stillness of the High Alps, broken only by the occasional boom and crash of a falling pinnacle of ice.

As for the lakes, Wakatipu is fifty-four miles long, and though its surface is 1000 feet above the sea-level, its profound depth sinks below it. On the sea side of the mountains Milford Sound is 1100 feet deep near its innermost end. When you are in the Sounds the knowledge of the gulfs beneath your feet adds to the effect upon you of the towering mountain-heights, hanging as it were over your head. The quiet and tranquillity which reign in these great arms of the sea are often a delightful change from the rough ocean without, and a change which often comes so suddenly as to seem as quick as the shifting of a theatrical scene. Yet the stillness of the Sounds is not absolute. When it is, or has been, raining—and that is usually the case there—the sides of the precipices are streaked and seamed with waterfalls of every kind and size, from tiny dropping threads to thin gauze-like veils or broad roaring torrents. It is to the rain in the Sounds that are due the ever-changing fairy-like effects of mist and cloud and the mantle of vegetation which clothes every shore and face not too precipitous to support it.

Much—too much—of the wild and singular beauty of the islands of New Zealand must be ruined in the process of settlement. But very much is indestructible. The colonists are awaking to the fact that mere Vandalism is as stupid as it is brutal. Societies are being established for the preservation of scenery. The Government has undertaken to protect the more famous spots. Within recent years three small islands lying off different parts of the mainlands have been reserved as asylums for native birds, and the lovely mountainous territory of the Urewera tribe has been made inalienable by Act of Parliament, so that, so long as the tribe lasts, their ferns, their birds, and their trees shall not vanish from the earth.

THE STATE: LEGISLATIVE EXPERIMENTS: INDUSTRIES.

The drama of New Zealand's history has thus been placed on one of the most favourable stages in the globe, and the Fortunate Isles, as the country has been called, are eminently fitted to be the field of the sincere attempts to ameliorate the social conditions of life which have marked the last decade there. When, however, organised labour began to make its influence felt in this direction, there was nothing novel then in the notion of extending the functions of the State in the hope of benefiting the community or the less fortunate classes of it. Already, in 1890, the State was the largest owner and receiver of rents, and the largest employer of labour. It owned nearly all the railways and all the telegraphs, as it now does the efficient telephone system. It controlled and supported the hospitals and lunatic asylums, and also, by means of local boards and institutions, controlled the whole charitable aid of the country. Under the Land Transfer Act Government officers did nearly all the conveyancing business of the colony. The largest life assurance business in New Zealand was also a Government institution. Upon the Public Trustee devolved not only the care of intestate estates but of estates left to executors unwilling or unable to act, or of private trust estates the administration of which has become the cause of differences amongst those interested in them. He takes charge of and protects the property of lunatics. Any one owning property in the colony may name him an executor. Any one leaving it may appoint him an attorney. In addition he administers large areas of land reserved for certain Maori tribes, and is, in short, the friend of the widow and orphan and of the unbusinesslike inheritor of small property. The State educates the whole of the children of the colony, with the exception of the Roman Catholics, three-fourths of whom do not attend the public schools, and a proportion of the children of the wealthier colonists whose children receive private tuition. The State system is free, secular, and compulsory, and its results have been most satisfactory. Thus the series of political experiments sanctioned by the New Zealand Parliament since 1890 have involved few new departures or startling changes in principle. A democratic constitution has been made more democratic, and the State functions already wide have been made wider. The surprising thing about the legislation of the last decade is the number and degree rather than the nature of the changes brought about and the trials made by the Liberal Labour Party which came into power at the end of 1890 and still retains office. Their victory was due to the wave of socialistic, agrarian, and labour feeling which swept over the English-speaking world at the time, and which reached New Zealand just as plural voting had been finally abolished. Of the numerous laws thus enacted only a short account of a few the effects of which have been plain and immediate can be here given.

Great political battles have been fought over the land laws since the beginning of the eighties. These have mainly centred round the respective advantages of freehold and perpetual leasehold, and round the compulsory repurchase of private land for close settlement. Generally speaking, the Liberals have urged the adoption of the perpetual lease as the main or sole tenure in the future, while the opposite party have advocated that settlers should be allowed to choose their tenure and be leaseholders or freeholders as they please. Many knotty subordinate points have arisen in connection with both these forms. The debates concerning them have been frequent and fierce, and the compromises arrived at curious and interesting. The broad result has been that the sale of the freehold of crown lands has been largely diminished, and that the usual tenure now given is a lease for 999 years at a rent of four per cent. on the prairie value of the land at the time of leasing. This system, though it virtually hands over the unearned increment to the lessee, has the advantage of enabling men of small means to take up land and work it, and, transfers of leases being made through vigilant District Land Boards, land monopoly is checked and occupation for use assured. Meanwhile genuine settlement proceeds apace.

A few years ago the State, by an ingenious and equable law which works almost automatically with the Graduated Land and Income-Tax system, took to itself the power of repurchasing private lands with or without the owner's consent. As a rule, however, there is no difficulty in buying by friendly arrangement between Government and proprietor. In this way a considerable number of large estates, hitherto mainly used for sheep-grazing, have been bought and cut up by the Government for close and more productive settlement.

Moreover, the holding of large estates in individual hands, which at one time threatened to retard the progress of New Zealand as well as that of other colonies, is now counteracted by the system of direct taxation. This is progressive, it is taken off all improvements and laid solely on the bare land values. Small peasant farmers are exempted altogether. Land worth £5000 is subject to a tax of a penny in the pound on the capital value. The tax rises with the value, culminating at threepence in the pound on land of £210,000 or more value. Local rating, however, is based on a different system, though since 1895 local councils may levy their rates on bare land values if they choose. The income-tax is also progressive. Anything up to £300 is exempt. At present incomes between £300 and £1000 pay sixpence in the pound; all above that, one shilling. Companies pay a shilling in the pound on their profits. The rate is fixed annually by Parliament.

The liquor law, passed in 1895, embraces a complete and elaborate system of local option. The licensing districts are coterminous with the Parliamentary electorates, and the triennial licensing poll takes place on the same day as the general election. Every adult male and female may vote: (1) to retain all existing licenses; or (2) to reduce the number of licenses; and (3) to abolish all licenses within the district. A majority of three to two is required to carry No. 3. No compensation is granted to licensed houses thus closed.

The Electoral Act of 1893 provided for universal adult suffrage. In the two general elections which have ensued, the women of the colony have freely exercised their political rights, and if their enfranchisement has not been so immediately salutary to public life as some hoped, it certainly has not been so disastrous to themselves as others predicted.

The labour legislation of the last seven or eight years in New Zealand has principally aimed at regulating the relations of employer and employed. Its general tendency is to ameliorate the conditions of labour, the imported bad old conditions of the Old World, fixed and sanctified by centuries of unquestioning acceptance by workers, or unquestionable imposition by masters. This new and radical legislation achieves its object rather by making social evils impossible than by doctoring them after their outbreak, and "prevention is better than cure" might be written in the preamble of nearly all of the New Zealand labour laws.

The following is a brief account of some of the more important of these measures:—

The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act exists for the purpose of encouraging industrial association and adjusting differences betwen masters and workmen before they reach the stubborn stage of strike and lock-out. Societies consisting of five or more employers, or seven or more workers, may be registered and become subject to the jurisdiction of the Board and Court appointed by the Act. Any such society or any trade-union may bring a disputed case before the local Board of Conciliation, and if the Board fails to effect a settlement, the dispute may be referred to the Central Court of Arbitration, whose award may be enforced in the same way as a Supreme Court award, the amount of the award against an association being limited to £500. No strike or lock-out in connection with organised labour has occurred in the colony since the institution of this law, and about sixty disputes have been settled by it.

The Factories Act is a consolidation of previous factory legislation, with some important innovations. Complete inspection of factories is provided for, the word "factory" in the Act meaning any place in which two or more people are engaged for hire or reward in any handicraft. Children under fourteen years of age may not be employed, and the hours of labour, holidays, &c., of women and youths under sixteen are forty-eight a week, with a half-holiday. Good ventilation and sanitary conditions are insisted on, machinery must be properly guarded, fire-escapes provided, and a minimum overtime wage is enacted. To prevent the "sweating" of employees, articles made, or partly made, in private dwellings or unregistered workshops have to be labelled when offered for sale. The sleeping accommodation provided for shearers is subject to inspection. A woman factory inspector is appointed under the Act, and devotes her attention to the welfare of her sex in the factories of the colony.

The duration of the hours of business in shops and the closing of all shops in towns and boroughs on one half day in each week are regulated by the Shops and Shop-assistants' Act. The half-holiday is appointed in each district by the local Municipal Council. Chemists', fruiterers', and fishmongers' shops, as well as restaurants, are exempted; but each employee in these must have a half-holiday on some day in each week. Hours of work (fifty-four weekly) for women and children are defined; sitting accommodation for women provided for, and the minimum time for meals stated. The working hours, holidays, &c., of clerks in banks and offices are also regulated.

The Employers' Liability Act protects workmen from negligence on the part of employers, provides for compensation for injury, and is similar to Mr. Asquith's Bill.

The Workmen's Wages Act enables a workman to obtain his wages twenty-four hours after they are due, or to legally attach moneys due to the contractor until such wages are paid.

The Truck Act prevents the abuse of paying in goods instead of current coin.

The Contractors' and Workmen's Lien Act gives priority of claim for wages over other service.

The Servants' Registry Offices Act regulates the licensing and fees of registry offices for domestic or farm servants, and subjects such offices to Government inspection.

The Shipping and Seamen's Act does pretty much for the toilers of the sea what the Factories Act does for the worker on *terra firma*.

The Conspiracy Law Amendment Act permits combination of persons in furtherance of trade disputes, provided that any act performed by such combination would not be unlawful if performed by one person. Such action must not include riot, sedition, or crime against the State.

The Wages Attachment Act prevents wages below £2 a week being attached for debt. It does not prevent the suing of workmen for debt in the ordinary course, but it stops a grasping creditor from stepping in before others and seizing wages before they are earned.

The Master and Apprentice Act regulates the conditions of indenture.

Women and boys may not work in coal-mines. The Coal-Mines Act provides for the working of mines with due regard to the health and safety of miners.

The Old Age Pensions law gives a weekly pension to all New Zealanders over sixty-five years of age who have lived for twenty-five years in the colony, are of good character, and do not possess £540 worth of property or enjoy £1 a week income. A person with less than £34 a year of income receives 7s. a week—the maximum pension, but there is a proportional reduction for every £1 of private income over £34.

Because these and other laws are socialistic in tendency, it must not be supposed that there is any strong party of deliberate State-socialists in the colony corresponding to the following of Liebknecht and Bebel in Germany, or even to the English Independent Labour Party. The reforms that have been instituted are the outcome of a belief which is not now the monopoly of one political party. The leaders of the rival parties in New Zealand both admit one main principle—that a young democratic country, still almost free from extremes of wealth and poverty, from class hatreds and fears, and the barriers these create, supplies an appropriate field for safe and rational experiment in the hope of shutting out some of the worst social evils and miseries which afflict great nations alike in the Old World and the New.

The following figures will serve to convey an idea of the growing industrial and commercial importance of the colony. The area of the islands is 104,000 square miles; their population about 800,000. There are nearly 20,000,000 sheep, 1,150,000 cattle, and 250,000 horses. The factories and workshops produce nearly £11,000,000 a year. The annual yield of gold is about £1,250,000, and of coal 800,000 tons. Wool is exported to the value of £4,250,000 annually. Among the exports for 1898 were 2,888,165 frozen sheep and lambs, 68,711 cwts. of cheese, and 96,801 cwts. of butter, £586,767 worth of kauri gum, and £410,677 worth of grain and other agricultural products. The exports for 1898 were valued at £10,517,955, and the imports £8,230,600. The public debt is £46,080,727, the revenue £5,258,228. The State owns over two thousand miles of railway.

THE MAORIS

By HARRY B. VOGEL

Considering the remoteness of New Zealand, and the fact that nothing of late years has happened to bring the natives of the country at all before the public of England, it is not surprising to find that comparatively very little is here, in England, known about them. In the brief space at my disposal it would be impossible for me to deal at all fully with the Maoris of New Zealand. They have been called the Britons of the South, and if that term is meant to convey an idea of exceptional intelligence it is a very appropriate one. So highly are the natives thought of by the settlers themselves that the term "nigger" is never applied to them, and when used by strangers, grates upon the hearing of those who know and respect the Maoris.

As illustrating their intelligence, it seems to be no effort for Maoris to adapt themselves to all phases of civilisation, from the forming amongst themselves of a big Maori parliament with upper and lower houses, a prime minister and a ministry with standing orders and a speaker, down to cards, horse-racing, and even bicycling—for before I left New Zealand I saw a number of natives on bicycles bidding fair to become past-masters in the art of scorching. They read, they write—even the very oldest Maori whose youth was passed in practical savagery can write his name. They are wonderfully musical, and have not only taken to our brass instruments, but have formed bands amongst themselves that can hold their own with most of the white men's bands.

The Maoris, therefore, are by no manner of means a small tribe with merely the curious customs of a savage people. They are old and have a history, although that history is wrapt up beyond all possibility of clear detail in various and varying legends.

New Zealand has, if I may so express it, been discovered more than once.

In the year 1643, over three hundred years ago, Abel Tasman sighted land away and away down in the south of the Southern Ocean. It was a high, rugged, formidable-looking cape, and in honour of the daughter of the Governor of Batavia he named it Cape Maria Van Diemen. Afterwards to the land he had thus discovered was given the name of New Zealand. More than one hundred years later, in 1769 and 1777, Captain Cook not only sailed completely round New Zealand, but made most accurate surveys. He discovered the Strait that divides the country into two great islands, and finally took possession of them for England. Yet neither Cook nor Tasman could claim to be more than the first Europeans who discovered this land.

The people whom they each of them found there were, in fact, themselves the descendants of ancestors who, for reasons lost more or less in legendry, left their own country, and set out on the great ocean that surrounded Hawaiki, their island home, with the intention, or perhaps I ought to say hope, of reaching a land that in some manner or another they had learnt existed in the south, and was likely to prove a spot well suited for them to dwell in. The expedition or migration consisted of thirteen canoes, the name of each of which is preserved to this day. These canoes were great war canoes, each under the command of a high chief. Apparently they kept close company until they arrived well within sight of the looked-for land, and then, either as the result of being separated by stress of weather, or by reason of dissension, the canoes parted, and each crew under their own chief effected a landing, and, routing and killing the inhabitants, took up their permanent abode.

The new-comers were the ancestors of the Maoris, and all that remains to-day of the original inhabitants are a few, and I am sorry to say very fast diminishing number of Morioris (not Maoris) who, living away in the Chatham Islands, managed to escape complete destruction.

Such then in a very few words is an outline of the arrival of the Maoris in New Zealand. From the moment of the separating of the canoes they ceased to exist, if ever they had existed, as one united people. Within New Zealand there never has been anything approaching a nation or a people. No single Maori has ever lived the acknowledged head, nay even the pretended head, of the Maori people. A great effort was made at one time amongst them to arrive at something approaching a monarchy. Some possibly amongst you may remember the visit to England of a New Zealand native named Tawhio, who passed as, or styled himself, the Maori king. In title he perhaps was, but those who know anything whatever of the Maoris, know that there never has been amongst them the least degree of national unity, much less a real monarchy.

It is not my intention—I have not the space—to attempt to dive deeply into the manners and customs of the Maoris. All that I can hope to do is to outline a slight sketch of these people as they were and as they are—as they were with respect to their customs, their habits and their religion, and as they are, with the light, and in some respects I fear the shade, of civilisation upon them. In the first case, referring as I will be to a remote period, I, of course, write from hearsay. In the second I can write of them as I have found them; from being amongst them, sleeping in their whares (or huts), being in their villages, and having, during some three or four years, had a pretty considerable experience amongst them.

In appearance the men are far finer than the women, that is to say, from a European point of view. In colour they are of a copperish hue. I have seen Maoris no darker than an ordinary gipsy, but only very rarely. The hair of the men is almost invariably perfectly black, until through age it becomes white. Generally speaking, it is straight or wavy, and only very, very rarely curly. The men are well made, and frequently are over six feet in height, and generally exceedingly muscular and powerful. Here and there amongst the men, just as amongst Englishmen, you find some who have become extremely stout.

Whilst exceeding stoutness is the exception amongst the men, it is rather the rule amongst the women. It is more than a rule, it is a matter of pride. A slim Maori woman envies her fat friend, and her fat friend feels sorry for the meagre proportions of her companion. A Maori woman is not graceful in any of her movements except perhaps one. Her walk is a waddle, from the thighs downwards. The effect is, that whilst the shoulders and body keep erect and steady, the hips work up and down on either side like a see-saw. Her attitude of rest is a squat, generally with her back against a tree or wall. The one exception, however, that I referred to is in the manipulation of her hands and fingers, which are small, supple, and beautifully made. It is a positive delight to watch a Maori woman busy with her hands.

The hair of Maori women is, as a rule, like that of the men, black. Curiously enough, however, there are a number of women, chiefly around and near Lake

Taupo, in the very heart of the North Island, whom I have seen with hair of a colour I can best describe as chestnut, a sort of cross between golden and auburn. Flat noses are not frequent, but are thought beautiful. The lips are thick, and amongst women are generally tattooed blue.

The Maoris belong to what is known as the Polynesians, a section of the human family that worked its way from the west, through Continental Asia, and thence through the islands of the south. In them are traces of an African origin. In the Maori language we find curious instances of similarity of words with words of the ancient Egyptian language. For instance, Ma, the Egyptian god of truth, in Maori means white, clear or bright. Ra, the god of the sun, or rather the sun deified, in Maori means exactly the same. Again Rui, the Egyptian name for a woman represented holding an ear of corn in her hand, in Maori means to sow, or scatter as seed. This matter is, however, too great to be even touched upon.

Nor is it my intention, when referring to strange old legends or customs of the Maoris, to attempt to trace their origin, or to point out their similarity to the customs, the manners, and the religions of other peoples.

The ancient Maoris—and be it remembered that I am, for the present, dealing with the old time Maoris who arrived in their canoes from Hawaiki and their immediate descendants down to, say, the very commencement of this century—the ancient Maoris had no conception of a Supreme Being. Their religion, their worship, comprised a number of deities, and the difficulty in trying accurately to grasp the religion of the Maoris is to distinguish their deities from their ancestors, their ancestors from their deities. In most cases they were probably one and the same. Moreover, amongst a people so broken up and divided within themselves, there is a hopeless difference in detail in practically all the great legends. In their idea of the origin of the world they went back beyond the creation of the earth and heavens. "Spirit," as it has been expressed by one interpreter of Maori mythology, "being more subtle than matter, arose before it; and thought being supposed to be more so than spirit, the commencement dates with its birth." So far as the deities were concerned, Rangi and Papa—heaven and earth—were the grand-parents of all. Then followed the gods of darkness and then the gods of light.

With the Maori heaven and earth together formed a sphere of which one half (heaven) was a solid opaque body lying over and above the earth, which was absolutely flat. There were several heavens. Some fix it at ten. The first and lowest was separated from the earth by a solid transparent substance, whilst along the under side, next to the earth, the moon and sun glided. Above this transparent crystal pavement was the great store or tank of rain. Beyond that the abode of the winds; beyond that again the home of spirits; the fourth heaven was that of light. The highest of all, and the most glorious, was the home of Rehua. The offspring of Rangi and Papa were first, the Kumara or sweet potato, then the fern, then the god of trees and birds, then the god of fish, and lastly man. The first woman was not born, but was made out of the earth by Arohi Rohi, the quivering heat of the sun and the echo. The various offspring of heaven and earth, of Rangi and Papa, not satisfied with affairs as they found them, conspired together; and eventually they succeeded in separating and cutting apart their two parents, and, as a result, there was space between heaven and earth.

Of all the gods or heroes Maui may be regarded as the hero of the Maori mythology. He it was who fished up the north island of New Zealand, the canoe in which he was fishing at the time with his brothers still resting, according to Maori legendry, on the mist-covered, lowering summit of a lofty, lonely mountain called Hikurangi. Maui and a later god named Tawaki are not infrequently found to be each the hero of the same legend. Following the version as I find Mr. Taylor gives it, Tawaki bears a passing strange resemblance to the Christ of Christianity.

One legend readily recognisable by any one occurs to me. Ra, the great god, was exceeding angry at the actions of those on the earth below. He stamped his foot in his wrath, and, cracking the crystal floor, the rain poured out and flooded the earth. A few only were saved on a raft. On another occasion, being angry, a being (Maui according to some legends, Tawaki according to others, and I am not sure that there are not other claimants), asked and was allowed to intercede, and went down to try and reclaim the wicked people. He was not realised to be a god, until one day he ascended a lofty hill, when those who were near by saw him throw off his vile clothing and clothe himself with lightning. Then they recognised him.

How curiously akin to the Saviour's transfiguration this is I need scarcely point out. On another occasion this deity or god, in journeying, came to a high hill, and walking up found at the top a woman (some legends say his grandmother) sitting by the wayside, blind. He cured her by spitting in the dust and making mud, with which he anointed her eyes. Moreover, we find that he was killed by his brothers. He came to life again, and after his resurrection he climbed up into heaven, cutting the cord by which he had ascended.

Now you must not for a moment imagine that these legends are latterday stories built upon the earliest preaching of missionaries or white men. They date back beyond all manner of doubt to a period far remoter than the advent of the earliest known travellers, and tracing, as we can, similar legends through the islands of the Pacific, we find ourselves once more on the borders of the great problem of the origin of the South Sea Islanders.

The Maori had no places of worship, although there are legends of the existence of a temple, called the Whare-Kura, or red house, upon the island or land from whence they originally came. It was a great meeting-house for all the tribes, until at length (so the story runs) it became a source of discord, and the temple was destroyed, and thenceforth the tribes of the world were no longer at unity. The great priests of the Maoris, the Tohungas, were men of high rank and influence. I was almost tempted to use the word chiefs. It would have landed me in a difficulty. Nothing is more difficult really to comprehend than the exact position of a chief amongst the Maoris.

The greatest war chief of a tribe, the man whose mana or authority was the highest and greatest, was not regarded as so high a chief as the ariki or head, over whom he exercised undisputed authority. The great war chief might have powers infinitely beyond that of the tohunga, and yet apart from the question of religion he was inferior. The tohunga conducted the religious ceremonies, the essence of which amongst the Maori lay in the karakias. These I can only describe as sort of incantations or spells. There were karakias for every conceivable object or action—for fighting, for cooking, for digging, for sowing, for reaping, for everything. The memory of a Maori must have been, and indeed it still is marvellous. They still remember and can tell their genealogy back for generations.

The strangest phase of the Maori religion seems to me to be the curious compromise they were between idolaters and worshippers of a spirit or spirits. They had what they called whakapa-koko. These were very little more than small wooden pegs, with a grotesque head on the top. They were about eighteen inches in height, and the end opposite the head was pointed, so that it could be stuck in the ground. There were no huge idols amongst the Maoris, and for the simple reason that they did not worship the idol itself. These wooden pegs were merely wooden pegs, and to the Maoris were never anything more. To begin with, they never prayed to or besought them until after they were dressed. This dressing consisted of a beard, which was made of bright red feathers of the kaka or parrot, and of a sacred cord bound round the figure. Whilst binding this cord the tohunga would utter his most powerful karakias or spells. Finally, the entire figure was painted with the sacred kura or red. The idol was now ready for the reception of the god who was invoked to lend his presence. Not only was the spirit supposed to enter or be present over and about the whakapa-koko, but it more frequently than not passed into the priest, who became violently and fearfully distorted—in fact, became as one possessed—and whilst in that condition his words were regarded not as his, but as the words of the god or deity in him. The Maoris most strongly aver that they never prayed to the whakapa-koko as such; it was to the spirit that came upon it, or into it, or about it. Modern religions comprehend beliefs not widely differing from this.

The priesthood was a highly-trained profession, as may be imagined. The Maoris were great believers in schools. They had schools for the various rites, for teaching a knowledge of the stars, and for most things except writing. It was unknown. The carving of the Maoris is perhaps the nearest approach to even a knowledge of hieroglyphy. Every style of carving—and there are many different intricate patterns—has a name and a signification, just as have the different forms of tattooing.

In the matter of marriage, polygamy has been in a sense practised amongst the Maoris from all time. They are not strictly monogamous now. I know more than one Maori with more than one wife. At the same time, the first wife was the "matua," the parent, and the others were known as the "birds that followed after." There was no regular marriage ceremony, although, after a man had decided upon a woman for his wife, it was a by no means unpractised custom for other men straightway to dispute his right to take her, and usually the unfortunate woman became the centre of a fierce contest, resulting in her being carried off by the most muscular combatant, as often as not to die of injuries she had received.

The one occupation of all, however, for which the Maori seemed to regard himself born, the one reason apparent to him for his existence, was fighting. Their laws and customs seemed framed for the perpetuity of this occupation, or, as it was to them, pastime. Honour, custom, every influence that weighed with a Maori, was in the direction of rendering it incumbent on him to avenge any insult, and, most of all, any defeat. What applied to the Maori individually applied to him tribally. A tribe worsted in a contest with another tribe had to be avenged. *Utu.* A small word, but the key-note to Maori savagery. *Utu.* It means a hopeless amount; something, I think, scarcely possible to convey to any law-abiding collection of citizens, who have not frequently come into contact with uncivilised, or at best incompletely civilised, people. It means primarily a return, a price paid, a satisfaction, *revenge.*

It means to-day payment or money. But in the old days, even until after the coming of the pakehas, as the white men are called, it was used and obeyed in its fiercest meaning, which demanded the doing by a

Maori unto his foe that, and even more than that which he had had done unto him. The history of the great Maori tribes—and it has been my lot to become very intimately acquainted with the past history of some of the biggest of the tribes in the heart of New Zealand—is one long continual story of war and fighting.

Not so very long ago I had to make a rapid journey in order to arrive at a certain place by a certain time. It so chanced that I had to ride continuously throughout the entire night, and my journey lay along a track that passed not only through dense bush, but also along ranges that rose above a stretch of country, the story of which is one long tale of fighting and bloodshed. It was a beautiful, bright moonlight night, and I could not help, as at times my view from some higher spot on the road extended over the dense black bush, recalling and picturing to myself the scenes those sombre, silent fastnesses had once beheld. Now the stroke of the axe—the bell of civilisation and colonisation—is heard by the rough gnarled forest monarchs. But time was when under their heavy foliage, through the thick undergrowth of ferns, shrubs, and swinging supplejacks, bands of silent, mat-clad savages were stealing, with eyes and ears alert to catch the slightest noise that might betray the presence of a foe, and eagerly intent on avenging to the uttermost some victory achieved over them weeks, months, or even years ago.

They are clothed in mats not reaching below their knees. Their legs and feet are bare. Most, if not all, are tattooed with queer and quaint wonderful patterns. In the hair of the chiefs are stuck feathers, and in their hands are meres, taiahas, and spears. Not until they were conquerors, and had fed upon the bodies of their foes, or until they had been utterly defeated, would they return to their kainga-tuturu (their home). There, if they had been victorious, they would rest, until their enemies, having grown gradually strong again, would enter into their lands, and once more draw them out for more fighting.

The North Island of New Zealand was, and away inland still is, covered with dense forest. Totara, rimu, kahikatia, matai, rata, and in the north kauri, are the chief great forest trees. The undergrowth is thick, and without an axe or slasher hardly penetrable. Vines of several kinds hang from and festoon the trees, the chief and by far the strongest of them being the supplejack. Everywhere there is a thick, soft, lovely carpet of mosses and ferns of many kinds, all rivalling each other in delicacy and beauty. Scattered here and there, and sometimes in great patches, are tree ferns from but a foot or so in height to others ten and fifteen feet high, with great fronds hanging in graceful perfection. In the more open spots are tall cabbage-tree palms, tropical looking, though not perhaps beautiful. On the steep wooded banks of rivers, and up the sides of winding gullies, you find the most beautiful, perhaps, of all New Zealand vegetation, the nikau palm. Throughout the bush, above and about you, you hear the twittering of small birds, the strange peculiar whistle of the tui, and the harsh discordant cry of the kaka, the New Zealand parrot. Now and again you see and hear pigeons on the higher tree tops, whilst away and up, far above the highest tree, floats a hawk.

There are no reptiles in the bush; no poisonous venomous creatures; no wild animals to cause you harm or hurt. It may chance as you pick your way along the narrow track that you hear the rustling of some wild pig. Wounded he would be dangerous; as it is he simply seeks to escape you. He is, as a matter of fact, not truly a denizen of the forest. Captain Cook left pigs with the natives, and to this day the wild bush pig is called a "Captain Cook."

Practically there were no animals, except rats, in the New Zealand bush.

No people I fancy anywhere know their country better than the Maoris always seem to have known theirs. Not a river, not a mountain nor spur nor peak, not a gully nor lake, not even a hummock of land, nor ford nor tiny creek, but has its name, and as often as not its history.

This to the Maori of to-day is a matter of much importance. The law of New Zealand relating to native lands is unspeakably complicated and involved through constant amending and repealing. Suffice for me to say that it has been decreed that all native lands belong to those natives or their descendants who were entitled to them according to native custom in the year 1840. It sounds simple, but when it is realised that the Maori customs, determining the title of an individual to land, were complicated and intricate beyond all belief, it will be understood that such a law as I have mentioned was easier to pass than to administer.

Originally amongst the Maoris the whole face of the country was divided up into a number of tracts or "blocks," as they are usually called, each one with defined boundaries. Each of these blocks, ranging, within my own experience, from twenty to over two hundred thousand acres, are brought before the Native Land Court, and what natives are entitled to interests in them are decided upon, or ascertained, as it is termed, and the extent of each one's interest is determined.

The primary difficulty is that Maoris never had any idea of individual freehold. Each native had an undefined and undefinable share in all the land of his tribe. The history of these blocks of land is therefore largely the history of the Maoris themselves. And when I point out that hearsay evidence is not only allowed, but is necessarily the chief evidence possible, and that a native to justify his claim to be included as one of the owners must not only prove descent from some remote ancestor, who, he alleges, held undisputed sway over the land, but also has to prove the existence of such sway or power, and to do so has to tell and substantiate various accounts of fights and victories, and describe various spots where stood the old kaingas or villages that his ancestor once owned, and point out burial-places and old boundary stones—I repeat, when one reads this one cannot be surprised to learn that a single block of land will take, not only weeks, but months being adjudicated upon; indeed I know of a case in which it actually took eight months to complete but one stage.

Civilisation has, of course, swept away from the Maori all power of exercising his love of fighting. In its place has come a love for Native Land Court litigation. He is never happy unless he has a big case pending; and he will readily sell a thousand pounds' worth of land to fight for a piece, his share of which could not possibly be worth more than a couple of hundreds. He employs lawyers—not infrequently the very best in the colony. He himself is always ready to give evidence, and a Maori giving evidence in a land court regards himself as as deeply responsible as the lawyer. He gives evidence for the primary object of winning his case. Truth, although every witness is first sworn, is a secondary matter.

The Maori of to-day is a law-abiding, happy-go-lucky individual. Very few of them are poor. There is not one subsisting on white men's charity. They will borrow from you as fast as you will lend, and they do not mind asking, but they never repay without your worrying—generally more than once. At the same time a professional beggar, or anything approaching one, is utterly unknown.

The women wear short skirts to their ankles, and jackets buttoned to the throat in shape like an Eton jacket. Generally it is red or yellow, or of some bright colour. Every Maori woman is a past mistress in the art of manipulating a shawl. If she has a child she carries it pig-a-back, holding it on by means of the shawl, and is almost always smoking. Maoris grow their own tobacco, which, whilst not absolutely bad to smoke, is abominable to smell. The women are fond of feathers in their hats, but are not nearly as fond of jewellery as the men.

The men dress invariably in ordinary European dress, usually with riding-breeches or strapped trousers. They wear watch and chain, and, as a rule, a pair of spurs. They ride everywhere, or drive about in buggies. Walking they hate, and I have often and often seen an old Maori, who has had to do some walking about in a town, gravely take off his shoes and carry them in his hand or over his shoulder. If they are old he may leave them at the first place he can, if they are new he likes to let people know it. Most of them, near the towns, speak English.

As I have said the Maori is a most orderly, law-abiding citizen. Drink is his curse, coupled with a reckless disregard for money. There are some Maoris who are strict teetotalers, and others who take in moderation. Others again only when they come into the towns get tipsy, whilst some are confirmed drunkards. In fact the Maori has got beyond the stage of mere childish desire for firewater, and, except in certain districts where the natives are notoriously more given to drink, they are not worse, if as bad as the Europeans. Of billiards they are passionately fond, although they never arrive at very great excellence. At the same time the average Maori plays as well as the average European. Racing they glory in, and they are hospitable to a degree.

No matter at what hour you may arrive at their village or hut, they give you food, and of the very best they have. They will cease their own meal until you have had yours. With the exception of one small part of New Zealand, which I have really no occasion to except, you can travel without the very slightest danger from the natives, unless it is the danger of being over-fed. The fact is that coach roads are being pushed on with enormous rapidity through and across the whole country, and "Cookists" can travel with coupons into places where, with the exception of a small hotel, there are nothing but Maoris. Places that I remember but a short while ago as dense forests, with only a small winding Maori horse-track, now, once or twice a week in the summer, hear the rattle and rush of the coach.

Clad in European clothes, with tin cups to drink out of, tin plates to eat from, and knives and, on special occasions, forks to eat with, with blankets, rugs, even eider-downs to sleep on, a mind so mixed between Christianity and a lingering belief in the superstitions of their forefathers, the Maori of to-day is a curious compound of contradictions.

He is clean, and exceedingly particular in what he eats; he is filthy in his manner of eating it. He builds, or rather has built for him, a European house, and in the drawing-rooms he puts carpets, tables, velvet chairs, even sometimes a piano. In the bedroom he has the furniture of a well-to-do European, with a big brass bedstead and good sheets and bedding, washing-stand, chests of drawers, looking-glass, and everything.

Yet you will find him himself sleeping in a room the floor of which has probably never been, nor is likely to be, scrubbed or cleaned. There is no bedstead, but on the bare board is a mattress, sometimes a spring one, with a couple of pillows, and some rugs and blankets, tumbled and tangled up with odd articles of clothing. A pipe and an old guttered candle stuck in a bottle or tin match-box, are by the pillows; an old stool or chair, and a candle-box form the furniture, and a dog has probably made himself comfortable on the top of a heap of clothing or bedding. There may be a "whareki" (a mat made from flax or cabbage tree) on the floor, old, and chiefly serving as an excuse for hiding more dirt. A piece of wood is more than likely to be smouldering in the open brick fireplace. When eating time comes the meal will most probably prove to be a stew of pork with greens and potatoes, all in the same open tin dish or basin. All the occupants of the room gather round, using their fingers, and taking their pick, just as they may want, from the dish, washing it down the while with weak tea drunk without milk, and sweetened with four or five big teaspoonfuls of sugar. And when you go from this piggery into the room of state, and find an elaborate meal cleanly and carefully prepared for you, obviously at much trouble, you wonder.

Pork and potatoes are their staple food, and Indian corn. Every village has its potato fields, and any quantity of pigs: big pigs and little pigs, fat pigs and lean pigs. Also dogs. They simply swarm. All sizes, all shapes, all hues, and no breeding. Dogs for sheep: dogs for cattle: dogs for wild pig; and none of them worth possessing for either one or other purpose. As you enter a Maori village the curs leap and bark, and perhaps bite at you until, by yells and shouts and sticks and stones, they are driven off. Then for the first time, let me suppose, you see a Maori settlement. It consists of a dozen or twenty huts. One, or possibly two, may be built after the fashion of an English two-roomed cottage. In the parts near the coast where the white people have long resided, the natives sometimes own fine well-built houses. Inland they are still quite content with their native huts. In fact they prefer them. Of such a kind is the "kainga" or village, to which I will assume you have come. You look around and you note the long low-roofed dwellings, each with a tiny door and a diminutive window at one end only. Inside the atmosphere is black and thick. If you peer in you see a number of natives, men, women, and children, all rolled up in blankets. You find standing up impossible. You are nearly choked, and your eyes smart from the smoke that oozes slowly out, through the chinks and cracks in the roof, from the small fire smouldering in the centre of the floor. You see here and there the quaint "patakas" or storehouses, which look like tiny huts, perched on four posts or piles at a height of three feet or so from the ground. You observe at the sides and on the tops of some of the huts or "whares" quaint carvings of impossible beings with still more impossible tongues. You sit presently by the fire, and hear the strange soft language of the Maoris.

And your friend who has guided you here tells you, perchance, now that you are amongst them, of their ways and their habits. You scarcely wonder at the persistence with which they cling to their rough, crude life and manner of living; they seem so unrestrained, so free from care or trouble. But you marvel perhaps at the intelligence of a people who own thousands of sheep, whose women have occasionally been taken as wives by Europeans of education, and have become mistresses of fine houses with carriages and with servants. You hear of the pride that every Maori has in his long line of ancestors; of the endurance and patience of which they are capable, and of their generosity. You hearken to all this and much more; and as you listen you realise that you have come amongst a strange people, unlike even any other quaint and queer black people, and that, much as you may have thought you knew (and being an average individual you knew and know a great amount), you feel there is yet an immense deal of this small world unknown to you.

WOMEN OF AUSTRALASIA

By Mrs. HIRST ALEXANDER

The lives and achievements of Australasian women will, I feel sure, furnish rich theme for many papers and books yet to be written in the centuries to come, when that history has been lived and won, for the absence of which the lusty young colonies at the antipodes are so often twitted and almost scorned, in common with other striplings, having often to bear with its time-wise elders for the irresponsible and withal daily amending fault of its juvenility.

To say that Australasia has no history is, I think, not quite correct. What about the intrepid, fearless explorers and brave pioneers?—a long roll, from Dampier and Cook onward—who sought out new lands, vanquishing the wilderness, undauntedly and successfully surmounting the great difficulties and obstacles to be encountered in the opening up of a new world for the overcrowded population of the British Islands, and adding to the empire a vast continent, teeming with riches, and opulent with all natural means to man's prosperous existence. In fact, powerful to produce almost everything under the sun that man needs or luxury can lust after.

Are not these records parts of a history as worthy of memory and record as the invasion of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons, or of England by the Romans, Danes, and Normans?

The history of Australasia, though short, is not to be despised. It is the record of an enterprising, adventurous people, part of a great race who, vanishing from the cramped home-nest, have gone out to the uttermost parts of the earth to seek their fortunes, and who have there founded new homes, built great cities, established a splendid trade and commerce, and laid the foundations of a new and mighty empire. By their courage, endurance, vigour, and intellectual energy they have prospered and succeeded in making their southern lands a world's wonder.

The Hon. Joseph Chamberlain's words, uttered a few weeks ago, were prophetic words, I am certain, when he spoke of those vast territories which stretch from the tropics to within twenty degrees of the Antarctic circle as "that great group of Australian colonies, whose present greatness and importance give us but a faint indication of the splendid future that awaits them. No man can doubt," he said, "that our vigorous offspring in the Southern Seas are bound, at no distant time, to rival the older civilisations of the Continent of Europe in wealth, in population, and in all the attributes of a great nation."

The young Australians in their short history have much to be proud of, and the history of the grand old motherland, from whence their parents migrated, is as much their heritage as it is that of their fathers and forefathers. Planted in fresh soil, they are scions from the old stock, and in that new country are each acting out the history of the land of their nativity far more distinctively than they could among the thronging millions of Old England.

And what about the women of Australasia? for who shall estimate the incalculable import of women's influence in the building up of a great nation and of a worthy national character?

The women of the present are giving most fair and gracious promise that neither now nor in the future will they do discredit to their pioneer mothers or to their sisters of the old centres of civilisation and culture.

And those brave pioneer mothers! How they roughed it in the old days; put their shoulders to the wheel, and worked side by side with their husbands, toiling from morn till night, turning their hands to anything, living in tents, some of them helping manually even in the building of their own houses; making happy home-nests, and rearing stalwart sons and comely daughters to the nation, thus with their own and their children's prosperity establishing that also of their adopted land.

Of course I am speaking now more particularly of those who went out with little or nothing but their own willing hands and honest hearts to begin the world over again in the new country—not of those who took out capital with them. The latter, though from the exigencies of life under primitive conditions having to put up with makeshifts and comparatively rough living, were still saved much of the hardship, the scraping and difficulties which the unmoneyed pioneers had to go through.

Away in the bush, the newer settlers are, many of them, going through much the same sort of battle at the present moment, to emerge, doubtless, after the first few years of struggle have been won through, into that same haven of comfort and competency which so many of the enterprising, laborious pioneers are now deservedly enjoying. Thousands of women whose names will never be heard of have done splendid work in the development of Britain's Australasian dependencies by their arduous, onerous share in the planting and tending of pure, gracious homes throughout the length and breadth of those fair colonies, and in the bringing up to take their places of children as good, upright, and industrious as themselves, but with more of this world's oil to grease the starting wheels of life than fell to the lot of their parents.

I will speak shortly of the industrial women first. A year or so ago a good many women in New Zealand became applicants for farm lands. Whether they have become successful farmers or not I do not know. There were both married and unmarried women among them. State market-gardening has also been mooted as an occupation for women. Silk-growing and silkworm raising are likely to become ere long settled home industries for women, both in New Zealand and Australia. A number of ladies a year or two ago waited upon the Minister of Mines and Agriculture in New South Wales, to bring under his notice the importance of the subject, and to ask that a well-known sericulturist should be appointed to the management of the New Italy farm, where he should be able to train young women as directors of the silk industry. A women's silk-growing association was then in existence, which intended to form a company, with a capital of £50,000, to carry out the objects of the association.

A joint-stock company was since formed in Sydney to promote the co-operative settlement of women for silk culture. With the raising of silk were to be combined flower-growing, scent-making, and bee-farming.

In regard to the production of scent plants, this industry is greatly encouraged by the Victorian Government, which has a scent farm of its own, where training is obtainable. Three or four acres are quite enough to start on. The returns come in quickly. Much of the labour can be performed by women and children. There are no doubt vast possibilities in these industries.

Several ladies took up land in the irrigation settlements on the river Murray. Here they, like the other irrigation colonists, grew English and other fruits.

I may say that a woman's labour bureau, under Government auspices, has been established in the Government Buildings at Wellington, the capital of New Zealand, with a woman at the head of it.

And now to turn to the cities of Australasia and the employments in which women there engage. Before I go further I had better state that, according to the latest statistics available, there were 235,000 more men than women in Australia. I am not quite sure of the difference in New Zealand, but there also the women are in a minority. Thus the position numerically is all in favour of the women. Outsiders might suppose in this state of society that the demand for employment on the part of women would be small. But such is not the fact. Many thousands of women in the colonies are gaining their own livelihood, and in not a few cases assisting their families.

Women are extensively engaged in the government printing offices, and in the post and telegraph departments. Unlike the American women, their salaries are inferior to those of men in similar positions. This, I think, is an injustice wherever it occurs. Women are engaged also by the large private printing establishments, wholesale stationers and bookbinders of the city. They are employed almost exclusively in the telephone department of the stock exchanges, and by some of the merchants in the same posts. They are extensively engaged in the tram and omnibus companies for counting the money. To a limited extent they are occupied as clerks and private secretaries, more largely as copyists and type-writers. A great number have opened type-writing offices, choosing their rooms where lawyers abound, and are generally kept very busy by these gentlemen and others. A few have gone into mining business. Others, without entering into mining as a business, speculate in the share market. To mention individual cases of women's enterprise in the colonies: a widow and her two daughters have for years carried on the business of a great bonded store, and have added extensive buildings to their premises. Another lady is an importer of agricultural implements, and the drays and lorries bearing her name are to be seen daily in the busy thoroughfares of Melbourne. A third has conducted her deceased husband's large mercantile business for the last twenty years, going in every day to her office as any other merchant would do. Thus she continued to her young children the comforts they had been accustomed to, and gave them the advantages of a thorough education.

In educational callings ladies are prominently represented. Several made fortunes by private school-keeping in the early days when money was plentiful and good schools were scarce. I am sorry to add that some of those ladies in the bank collapses of 1893 lost their fortunes, and have had to turn to work again. But those bank collapses and the mad boom-time which led up to them have taught the colonies a lesson, which bids fair to establish them in the future on a firmer and sounder basis of prosperity than ever before. In the meantime many have suffered, and are still suffering, from that epoch of commercial rottenness, and many women were among the victims.

A large number of trained nurses are yearly graduating from the Australian and New Zealand hospitals, and others are always arriving from England. Milliners and dressmakers do exceedingly well, and as heads of departments in leading shops get very high salaries. Salaries, wages, and emoluments generally are higher in the colonies than in England, but it is only fair to add that clothes and food, for the most part, are not so cheap as in the old country. Rents are higher, too, in the large Australian cities than in London, but the exorbitant house rates and taxes of this metropolis go far to make up the difference; in fact, I think more than balance it, as rents now in the colonies are lower than they were. To one accustomed to the comparatively inconsiderable colonial assessments, the rates and taxes of London are simply appalling.

But this by the way. The industries of the cities which give employment to women are much the same, though perhaps not so various as those in the cities of Great Britain. Women are numerously found in the clothing and other factories, and also as piece-workers at home, and, notwithstanding, wages and pay generally being better than in England, I am afraid *sweating* is not unknown even in Australasia, especially in the *protected* industries. A recent report on the factories of New Zealand by a woman inspector on employments of women states: "The conditions of the women workers in the woollen mills there are, on the whole, highly satisfactory. Skilled hands may earn from £2 and over per week."

I do not know how this may compare with the factory earnings of women in this country—I should think favourably.

For domestic servants the demand is beyond the supply, and the rates of wages are about double those which hold in England.

In regard to the working-classes educationally, all Australasian children receive excellent instruction in the State schools. Education is compulsory, and the educational system is copied from the best models to be found in the old world.

The Melbourne and other working-men's colleges are thrown open to working-women also, and the classes are taken great advantage of by them out of working hours, for cookery, French, freehand drawing, shorthand, elocution, singing, theory of music, voice production, sight-reading, and violin-playing. Besides these, the women students are scattered throughout all the other classes, including those for physiology, geometry, physics, book-keeping, and photography. The only classes where they are not found are the technical classes, in which are taught trades suitable to men only.

The colonies are not hampered with centuries of tradition and condition, and the highest positions in the land are open to all, no matter how humble their origin, who possess the intelligence and capacity to attain to them.

And now to pass in review briefly the women of the wealthy classes, and those who, though not wealthy, are placed above the cares and anxieties of providing for their daily necessities by their own mental or manual labour. In Australasia, as elsewhere, they find their occupations and interests in their own homes and in the gay whirl of society.

Max O'Rell in his "John Bull & Co." speaks very severely of a section of colonial "society" women. He says: "In society in the great towns of Australia I saw plenty of beautiful women; women with lovely faces, surmounting most beautifully-moulded forms; but I think I met there some of the most frivolous women to be found anywhere. Balls, dinners, soirees, calls, garden parties, appear to fill the life of hundreds of them. Such women are quite without originality. Their conversation is neither interesting, entertaining, nor natural. The consequence is that social life has neither the refined elegance and witty vivacity of Paris nor the verve and intellectual animation of Boston and New York. The men are too apt to talk finance, wool, and mutton; the women to talk dress and scandal, discussing the question whether Mrs. So-and-so belongs to this or that 'set.' They are sublime with their 'sets,' even away in little bush towns," and so on.

This is fairly true of a certain would-be fashionable, dwarf-minded minority, and a small minority at that. But I do not think that Australian women have the monopoly of scandal and gossip.

I imagine those to be vices as flagrant in the cities of England, even in Paris, Boston, and New York, as at the Antipodes. Gossips and scandal-mongers are, I fear, rampant wherever money, idleness, and low aims in life dwell together. "Happily," continues Monsieur Blouet, "these have not the whole field to themselves, for there are plenty of people in Australia who, while mixing in society, yet find time to read and think."

What a blessed saving touch in his unflattering picture! Further he says, speaking of Melbourne: "I found there a choice and intelligent society, and a people perhaps more active than those of Sydney. For instance the 'Alliance Française,' which gave us a reception, has nearly five hundred members. The 'Austral Salon,' to whom also I owe a charming afternoon, is composed of ladies and gentlemen, lovers of literature and art, who meet together to read and discuss literary masterpieces. Just as in America, one finds here intellectual life without pedantry." Those societies to which Max O'Rell has been so good as to set the seal of his approval, in the midst of the ocean of frivolity in which he seems occasionally to have lost his Australian social bearings, I may say were both founded by women.

Many ladies among the wealthy and leisured, and also among those who are neither wealthy nor leisured, occupy themselves in charitable and other good works; for so long as sickness, accident, drunkenness, thriftlessness, and sin are in the world, and until workers and employers are in fixed and sympathetic touch, women, and men too, willing to help their fellows, can find plenty to do out there in the colonies, young as they are, as well as here in Old England.

Socially the Australasian woman enjoys all the advantages of her English sisters, with perhaps a little more freedom and independence. Calm selfpossession and the early development of power to assume her place in society are characteristics of the Antipodean girl.

Sir John Suckling thus writes of an Australian girl—

> "She's pretty to walk with,
> And witty to talk with,
> And pleasant, too, to think on."

But I would like to remark that she has another and very sober and serious side to her character, as the perusal of the University Calendars will very notably testify.

At the Colonial Universities the Australian girl has proved that her intellectual capacities are sound and vigorous. It is some twenty years since the first lady passed the matriculation examination of the Melbourne University. Since then the number of young women who have presented themselves at the colonial universities may be counted by thousands, a large proportion of whom have passed successfully. It was not till 1880 that women were admitted to all the corporate privileges of the university. The matriculation examination is equal to junior Cambridge; honours equal to senior Cambridge. Not a few of these ladies continue their studies and take the highest degrees. Many difficulties and objections were placed in the way when women first made application to be admitted as medical students, but by dint of long perseverance on their part, all obstacles have been removed, and they can now prosecute their studies without let or hindrance.

As evidence of how Australian women distinguish themselves in the higher education, I may mention that late records of the Melbourne University show that out of nine scholarships awarded, one was divided between a lady and gentleman, and three others were won by ladies. Out of two Bachelor of Science

Degrees conferred, one was carried off by a woman; out of two Master of Science Degrees conferred, one was also on a woman.

At the Sydney University, among a group of distinguished girls, Miss Eleanor Madeline Whitfeldt took, besides first-class honours, a university medal and two professors' prizes, one being for mental philosophy and *logic*. Imagine a young woman, in competition with the sex supposed to enjoy the monopoly of the reasoning faculty, carrying off the prize for logic!

Women generally marry in the colonies between the ages of eighteen and thirty. They marry at all ages, more or less, but notwithstanding the disproportion of the sex so much in favour of the women, some, as in the old world, do not marry at all.

And now a little about politics, in which progressive women at the Antipodes are much concerned, for they have seen that "every great reform must enter the portal of the law through the portal of politics," and experience has proved to them, as to others elsewhere, that the representations of *non-voters* are disregarded. Mr. Gilbert Parker, another writer on colonial women, but who has a much loftier conception of them than has the author of "John Bull & Co.," says rather unwarily: "They" (the colonial women) "have had a shrewd outlook upon the general question of politics, because they have grown up with the country, and have seen that expediency was behind every public movement, but" (and here comes in the temerity) "first and last, they have had the civic spirit without demanding the civic practice;" and in this non-demand Mr. Parker applauds what he calls their "real" and "primitive" womanliness.

Evidently Mr. Gilbert Parker during his residence at the Antipodes did not associate or even meet with any member of that large band of women, spread throughout Australia and New Zealand, who for so many many years—well on towards twenty—have been working and battling, as so many are here battling in England, for Woman's Suffrage.

Men, especially when short residents in a country, in writing of its women are apt, I think, to take the ladies of their own particular "set" or circle, and create them into representatives of the nation. If to be indifferent to the laws of their country, and the character of the men who make those laws, which so deeply affect the moral and social wellbeing of family life and the community as a whole—if this supineness constitutes "real" and "primitive" womanliness, then I recognise that the women of Australasia possess neither the one nor the other.

But I maintain that it is their very *real* womanliness, and love of justice and righteousness, that have moved them to fight so long, so unweariedly and perseveringly to get the franchise, and their efforts have at last been crowned with success in New Zealand and South Australia; and events foreshadow that the time is not far distant when women will be enfranchised throughout all the Australian Colonies. New Zealand led the way, and South Australia followed, but outran New Zealand by giving complete equality to its women, granting them not only the vote but the right to sit in parliament. The rights were won in spite of the bitterest opposition, and in the teeth of a hostile press. The women asked only for the suffrage, and their friends wanted no more. To their *enemies* they owe the right to sit in parliament and the right to vote if they like through the post-office. Clauses giving them these rights were added to the bill during its passage through the legislature, in the hope that the bill would be defeated by them, but the *hope* was defeated instead, and the women got the right to vote by post, and the entry into the legislature as well as the franchise. As yet I believe no lady has presented herself as a candidate for parliamentary honours. Woman has to accustom herself to the new privilege of exercising her vote before she rushes into senatorial responsibilities. She has to creep before she can walk. A New Zealand lady, however, told me she was quite ready to stand for election as soon as the New Zealand Government added to the franchise the right of its women to enter the legislature. I refer to Mrs. Yates, the ex-mayor of Onehunga (near Auckland), the first lady to attain to mayoral and magisterial dignity in the British empire. Maoriland led in this innovation as well as in the political emancipation of its women.

The galleries of the Australasian Houses of Parliament devoted to the ladies are good, honest, open compartments, whose occupants can see and hear all that is going on without any discomfort of standing, or fear of dislocating their necks in the attempt to get a sight of the august proceedings going on below, such as is the discomposing experience of those who visit that relic of barbarous ages "the cage" at Westminster. But in New Zealand, above all the other colonies, the women have utilised their senatorial liberties. They have made the legislative chambers into a kind of parliamentary drawing-room, to which they repair night after night, many of them scarcely missing once through the session. I have seen at times more women than men in the chamber. There are cloak and tea rooms provided for their special use. They remove wraps and bonnets, and sit at ease knitting, embroidering, or doing some other kind of light needlework, and, as interest dictates, giving eyes and ears to what is going on below on the floor of the house. This home-like occupancy by the women has, I heard, existed from time "immemorial," which means for twenty years or so. *Now* the women and their needlework are as fixed a feature of the New Zealand House of Representatives as are the representatives themselves. Just below the gallery runs a sort of trough, made of green baize. "What is it for?" I asked, on my first visit to the house. "Oh!" was the reply, "it is just to catch anything that may happen to fall from the gallery. Sometimes the ladies drop their thimbles and knitting-needles." I looked over and beheld several bald and shining pates, and quite comprehended the necessity for their protection. I cannot help thinking that these years of woman's abiding presence in legislative halls have had much to do with placing New Zealand in the vanguard of woman's enfranchisement.

When the Woman's Suffrage Bill was passed in New Zealand the newspapers were jubilant over the victory; for, strange to say, nearly all the leading journals of that colony, contrary to those of South Australia, were supporters of the movement. Even those of opposing politics, at daggers drawn on every other question, were at one on the justice and wisdom of conceding the vote to women, and wrote much as to the happy and elevating influences they looked for as the result of the admission of women to the political arena.

I will not relate the story of the battle, but go on to say that the very next day after the bill became law, women began to present themselves at the office of the Registrar of Electors, in the various towns all over the colony, in large numbers for enrolment. At Auckland they were there at 8.30 in the morning, half-an-hour before the door was open. Out of the 120,000 adult women of New Zealand 109,461 enrolled, and out of the latter 90,290 recorded their votes at the quickly-succeeding elections, which falsified utterly the prediction of those who had said that "now that women had got the vote they would do nothing with it." These elections, though the most exciting ever held, were commented upon as being undoubtedly the most orderly and free from drunkenness ever experienced in the country. In many places they were turned into a gala-day. Vehicles, decked with bright flowers, driven by spruce farmers, and laden with their women-folk in holiday attire, gave quite a festive air to the proceedings.

The same interest and activity was displayed by the Maori women, who shared with their white sisters in the new electoral privileges—the natives sending four members to the House of Representatives from their several provinces. I personally witnessed the intense eagerness of the Maori women at a nomination for the eastern Maori electoral district in Napier. From their distant native pahs they swarmed into the town with their husbands, brothers, and sweethearts, and took a prominent part in the proceedings, many of them spending the rest of the day on the pavements, busily canvassing among their friends for votes for their own particular candidate at the forthcoming ballot. A month or so later on, when the election took place, I saw the Maoris pouring into Auckland *en masse*, men and women, with their children and dogs, hastening to the polling-booths to record their votes. And how the emancipated waihines (Maori for women) chattered and beamed and laughed and rose to the height of their new dignities, nearly half the Maori votes registered at Auckland being those of *women*, by whose good aid was returned for their northern district a talented, well-educated young chief, speaking English fluently, and with a power of fine oratory which has often since put the pakeha (white) representatives quite in the shade. The women of the tribes have a vivid and personal interest in the land policy of the colony, receiving as they do their individual share in the distribution of the native land-rents, and in many cases holding large properties of their own. In the native parliament held by the Maoris to consider their own affairs in relation to the policy of the Colonial Government, the women's influence has, since their enfranchisement, been very markedly felt. The dusky ladies have held concurrent parliaments of their own, messengers being continually engaged in running between the two conclaves, the various motions considered by the men being passed to the women, and *vice versâ*.

And now as to the effects of women's franchise in New Zealand. I will give no opinion of my own, but simply quote from those expressed by men of opposite politics after the elections. Mr. Seddon, the Premier, has said on the subject: "Woman's influence on the elections and since has been productive of much good. They are looking well after the interests of the children; the mitigation of the liquor traffic; the alteration of the jail regulations in relation to women inspectors for women, and other vital affairs." He asserted that their vote would make for the purity of the Legislature, that men of shady character would not venture to run the gantlet of women's eyes and criticism. He thought women could see further ahead than men, and was sure that the seal to their right to become legislators in the New Zealand Parliament was coming up the political avenue, and would arrive before long.

The leader of the opposition in the house believed that "the women had done much to purify the house, and their influence would yet be more beneficial in the same direction." An editorial of a powerful journal, supporting the views of the opposition, affirmed as follows: "Possession of the franchise has not in the slightest degree assisted in the development of that hideous creature the 'new woman.' Domestic life has not been disturbed or even ruffled by the female portion of the household possessing votes, and the women in the exercise of their new privileges have shown sound judgment, great discretion, and no small amount of independence of thought. The election followed so close on their enfranchisement that there was little or no time for their influence to show itself in bringing forward candidates. They had to choose amongst those already in the field, and in the vast majority of instances we believe that the preponderance of the woman vote went for the best men amongst those to whom their choice was limited. In several notable instances their votes purified public life by the exclusion of men of undesirable character, who, in a male constituency, would probably have won."

Another student of the elections has said: "It is patent that the express tendency of the female vote is in favour of promoting the solid happiness of the colony, by promoting the solid happiness of the individuals who compose the colony. There can be no doubt that *good character* was by the women *distinctly* preferred to ability, knowledge, or wealth. The requisite, therefore, of reputed integrity—*honesty of purpose*—is a great lesson we learn from the first exercise of the women's franchise in New Zealand."

I will now add somewhat as to the way the women are fitting themselves to their new sphere, and using their influence in means calculated not only to elevate their own sex, but to help all who want help, whether children, women, or men, white or black.

For the purposes of political education and training, which they hold of primary importance to the intelligent use of their power, they have formed classes, and hold regular meetings for instruction in parliamentary usage, the conduct of public meetings, and the carrying on of political organisation, and for the study of the questions of the day, so that they shall fully understand what they are about, and know what they are sending up in the form of petitions for the consideration of the house. A strong plank in the platform of the majority of the leagues is "to recognise *no* political party." In addition to the broad platform generally adopted, the women have already petitioned in regard to compulsory arbitration as the means of settling industrial disputes and preventing strikes; gambling; cruelty to animals under the name of sport; the referendum; taxation on unimproved land values; State ownership of monopolies; the Maori land question—that the Government offer the natives a fair market value for their land, a value which the Maoris complained they were not being offered by the Government; the Hare system of proportional representation; State borrowing, and many other matters of vital interest.

The women like the men will make mistakes, and much of their work must necessarily, at present, be tentative; but the following, from a report of the Canterbury Women's Institute in the South Island of New Zealand, will show broadly the spirit in which I believe the larger number are acting. "Our aim," say these women, "should never be lost sight of. It should be ever towards the uplifting of public opinion in matters pertaining to the elevation and dignity of our country and race. The time must be hastened when the spirit of motherhood shall pervade the world, when with open arms to her gentle bosom she shall gather all her blessed children, and in her mighty power spurn the source of blighted life. The side of the oppressed and suffering has already been taken, and in the future such partisanship *must be much more strongly marked*. Our ranks will then steadily recruit the thinkers among our women. The lesson, hard to be learnt by all of us, is that the interests of others are as important as our own, and that we are in one degree responsible for the sins of the world. We must recognise that every evil deed of ours, no less than every sorrow, impedes the onward course of life."

I think you will grant there is nothing "unwomanly" in the spirit of the aims just quoted.

"Whatever a woman is able to do, that she should do in God's name."

With a cursory notice of some of the pioneers among Australasian women in the spheres of science, art, and literature, the names and fame of some of whom are known in England as well as in the southern lands, I will bring these fugitive remarks to a close.

Dr. E. Constance Stone enjoys the distinction of being the first lady who obtained registration in the Australasian colonies as a qualified medical practitioner. This young doctor is a native of Tasmania, but was a resident of Melbourne when she first decided to make medicine her profession.

The obstacles interposed by masculine conservatism —now happily removed, but at that time (ten years ago) in full opposition—made it impossible for Miss Stone to prosecute her studies in Victoria, so, nothing daunted, she betook herself to America, being guided in her choice by the fact that on making inquiries by letter of the London School of Medicine for Women and the Women's Medical College of Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, the latter replied fully and courteously to her questions, while the former ignored her communication. After taking her M.D. degree at Philadelphia and M.D. and Ch.M. degrees at Toronto, Canada, she visited England, where she enlarged her experience under the clinical instruction given at the Royal Free Hospital and the New Hospital for Women. At the latter institution she was appointed assistant-physician to the out-patients, and in eighteen months won her diploma of Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery at the Hall of the Society of Apothecaries, London. Dr. Stone then returned to Melbourne, where she was received by the Victorian Medical Board of Registration, and has established an excellent practice in that city. I would like to add, to the honour of the profession in Melbourne, that the leading physicians at once called upon Dr. Constance Stone, thus acknowledging her as one of themselves. Further, some of them afterwards called her into consultation; and further still, one of the doctors married her, and they now both practise their profession, running in harness together.

A galaxy of clever women have taken their medical degrees since then, and have settled down to practices, been appointed as hospital physicians, and on royal medical commissions in the colonies. But I would like to speak of one other young lady, who unhappily died just as she had achieved the most brilliant success in London and Vienna, as she stands out a bright and particular example of the pluck, intellect, powers of work, and possibilities there are in Australian girls. I speak of the late Dr. Adela M'Culloch Knight. This lady bore the distinctive honour of being the first Australian woman graduate in medicine of the London University. She was a native of Ballarat, Victoria, and daughter of the Rev. Samuel Knight. Her taste for medical studies developed itself whilst attending physiological lectures at the University of Adelaide, to which city her father had removed. Miss Knight came to England, and entered the preliminary examination of the London University, whose curriculum she had chosen by the advice of Chief-Justice Way. When she arrived, Dr. Ray Lancaster had a preparation-class of fifty-three students (all men) in full swing. On Miss Knight begging to be allowed entrance to the class, the following interesting dialogue took place between her and the class-master:—

"We are half-way through the course; you should have come before," said Dr. Lancaster. "Where do you come from?"

"From Australia. I only arrived yesterday."

"From Australia!" exclaimed the learned doctor, opening wide eyes of astonishment. "Well, that's a long way to come. Are you alone?"

"Yes."

"No friends?"

"Only an Australian lady who knows me."

"Do you intend to sit for the London exam.?" asked Dr. Lancaster, with increased surprise.

"Yes, sir."

"Well, you are a plucky girl. We will do our best for you."

And so the "plucky girl" set to work, and six weeks after went to scan the posted pass-list after the final exam; but, looking modestly in the lower ranks, could not find her name, till, glancing higher and higher, she beheld it heading the list with the *highest* number of marks. Be it remembered again she had only attended the class for half the term, and the others (all men) had possessed the advantage of the whole term.

Two years more of hard work brought Miss Knight her intermediate M.B. degree, and she was again posted first-class. Then for thirty months she prepared for the final exams., which she passed with honours. During this time of study she gave lectures to the new students at one of the medical schools she attended, and she was entrusted with the charge of the Royal Free Hospital an entire week by the house-surgeon, who was obliged to be absent on account of a lawsuit. The very day following her attainment of the M.D. degree, this indefatigable student and worker went into residence as house-surgeon of the Hospital for Women, Marylebone. In gaining her L.S.A. diploma she obtained the highest marks for surgery.

Dr. Knight devoted several months to assisting the celebrated orthopedist, Dr. Hugh Owen Thomas, who wished her to represent his methods in Australia. In addition to her other achievements she took the Helen Prideaux Scholarship, which is awarded to the student who, during her course of preparation, extending over four years, in all examinations, and also in clinical work at the hospitals, most distinguishes herself in the opinion of the medical staff, and of a special committee appointed to make the award.

To attain the object of the scholarship (which is to enable its winner to perfect her studies in gynecology), Dr. Knight, after obtaining the B.S. degree at the London University, proceeded to Vienna, and attached herself to one of the hospitals of that city, intending afterwards to finish at the famous gynecological school of New York. But in the Austrian capital she was struck down in the midst of her beloved but arduous toil with influenza and resultant acute inflammation, and just as she was ready equipped for the work she had set before her, she went down and rose no more.

Her character combined the accuracy of a scientist with the tenderness of a true woman. In this young lady's premature death Australia lost one of the most talented, promising, and useful of her daughters; one who has left a record, short though it is, which will long be held in honour, and pointed to with mournful and lasting regret by her compatriots, whose sorrow mingled in deepest sympathy with that of her bereaved parents, from whom, after the terribly unexpected news of their brilliant daughter's decease—in a foreign land, and remote from all her friends—I received one of the saddest, most pathetic, and heartbroken letters it has ever been my lot to read.

Dr. Stella Mary Taylor, now practising, I believe, in Sydney, figures as the first Australian woman admitted to the privileges of the Edinburgh University. (These ladies studied before the colonial universities had thrown open their doors to women medical students.) She was also one of the first two ladies ever admitted to the meetings of the members and fellows of the Faculty of Physicians and Surgeons at Glasgow.

In the musical world the famous Madame Melba, known familiarly in Melbourne as Mrs. Armstrong or Miss Nellie Mitchell, is a star of the first magnitude, whose triumphs as a European prima donna partake somewhat of the marvellous. But though it almost appeared as if she stepped at a bound into the full blaze of fame, her success was simply the result of great musical capacity, developed by previous years of patient labour and study in her Australian home. She is the daughter of Mr. David Mitchell, the well-known Melbourne contractor, and her brilliant talent had every opportunity of unfolding under the advantages of a thorough musical education. Under one master alone she studied for seven years, and also under other leading colonial teachers for a considerable period. As an instrumentalist she has almost a professional knowledge and execution, acquired by years of work and regular practice under good instruction. Thus was her genius directed and trained, and the solid foundation laid, which after a course of instruction from Madame Marchesi, enabled the gifted Australian, about whom, during her student years, little was heard, to take immediate rank with Europe's greatest musical artists.

Tasmania claims Madame Amy Sherwin, whose sweet and cultured voice has in opera and on the concert platform so often delighted London and provincial audiences. Born amid the sylvan scenes of the Huon River district near Hobart, when quite a girl, and long before she had any thought of music as a profession, she used to ride on a saddleless pony to the post-office, miles and miles away from her father's homestead, for the household mails, and make the mountains and valleys ring with the music of her voice. The settlers along the road always knew when she was coming by the songs and trills that preceded her. It used to be her delight to see how far her voice would carry, and the remarkable carrying qualities of her tones at present she attributes in great measure to these rides and practices through the Tasmanian bush. She had received only a home musical education from her mother and elder sisters (they were a musical family), when the manager of a touring Italian opera company heard the young lady sing, and was so charmed that he immediately offered her an engagement at £10 a week, which, says Madame Sherwin, "seemed to me untold wealth"; and indeed it was a beginning which few vocalists, without a penny as yet spent on their training, are favoured with. She at once earned for herself the title of the "Tasmanian Nightingale." Miss Sherwin afterwards went to America, and was very soon called to fill the place of Madame Albani, who had suddenly been taken ill at Cincinnati, and made a most favourable impression. The young vocalist studied under famous teachers in New York, Milan, and under Madame Marchesi in Paris, making her *début* in London as "Maritana" in the Carl Rosa Company in 1884. Since then her career has been one of success, and she stands high among the representatives of musical art in this great centre of art.

Miss Ada Crossley, of Melbourne, the possessor of a beautiful contralto voice, who not long ago made her *début* before the London public, is coming to the front by leaps and bounds, and is receiving high praise from the most conservative of metropolitan critics. There are several other Australian ladies of great musical talent, not only as vocalists but as instrumentalists and composers, pressing closely on, who will doubtless shortly be heard of.

The climate of Australia, especially in the south, seems to possess qualities for developing the singing tones of the human voice, and is giving rich promise of becoming a producer of sweet singers to charm the world in the future.

And now a word about the painters. Many ladies might be included in the list of those who have done excellent work in the sphere of Australasian art, as interpreted with pencil and brush—as portrait, landscape, and flower painters—but time will only permit me to speak of one or two representative women.

Miss Florence Fuller is the leader of Australasian women portrait painters. Her talent displayed itself while she was quite a child, and at an early age she became a student at the Melbourne National Gallery and an attendant on lectures upon anatomy. At the first exhibition of the Victorian Artists' Society, Miss Fuller won the prize awarded to the best portrait painter under twenty-five years of age. Since then she has been most successful in the special line of art which she has followed, and has executed, as commissions, many portraits of Victoria's public men.

The late Mrs. Birge Harrison was a pioneer among native-born landscape painters, being equally clever in portrait painting. Her pictures have been exhibited and much admired at the Paris Salon, where they were honoured with a place on the "line." After years of study in England and France, and after winning her victories in the metropolis of the latter country, she returned with her husband (who was also an artist) to Australia, where they busied themselves in transferring to canvas Australian scenes and the pastoral life of the country, some of their many sketches appearing in America's leading magazines, thus making more widely known the Antipodean colonies. Speaking of the land of her birth, whose scenery struck her with all the force of newness after her long absence in other countries, Mrs. Harrison thus testifies to the impression the renewal of its acquaintance made upon her: "Nowhere is the air so pure, not even in the Riviera, where eucalypts are planted at every door, and nowhere are its life-giving properties so strong. I am charmed with Australian scenery, so delicate in colour and original in drawing. The weird old trees contorted into a thousand suffering forms, the delicious plains stretching far as the eye can reach, the all-powerful southern sun bathing the earth in an atmosphere of glowing colour, tempt one to forget even the art delights of Paris and Italy."

Mrs. Ellis Rowan, whose exquisite paintings of Australian and New Zealand wild flowers are so well known and admired in the Colonies, in England, and on the Continent, originally took up flower painting as a pastime, while living far away in the New Zealand bush, and is almost entirely self-taught. Mrs. Rowan has searched the colonies far and wide for new treasures. She has wandered into the virgin bush, the Mallee country, climbed the mountains, travelled up the Pioneer, Herbert, and Johnson Rivers, and faced life at Sharks' Bay with no fresh water to drink, and only tinned meats for food, in quest of the flora of her native land. She has brought to light and transferred to lasting view blossoms whose fair beauty is not excelled in the world, and which were hardly known before to exist in the country. "Australians," says this enthusiastic artist, "have no idea of the beauty of their own flowers" —her own terse summing up of the richness of Australasian flora being, "It would take a dozen people each a lifetime to paint its wonderful variety."

This lady took gold medals for her flower paintings, not only at the Colonial exhibitions, but also at those of Calcutta, St. Petersburg, and Amsterdam. At the London Crystal Palace she received a silver medal, the highest award bestowed, besides others too numerous to mention. As the exponent of the tender grace and exquisite colouring of the flora of Australasia, Mrs. Rowan stands at the head of the Antipodean flower painters.

And now as to the writers of Australasia. Before going to the authors and poets, a word must be given to the large number (proportionately) of women journalists in the colonies. Every newspaper of standing has one lady or more on its staff or among its contributors. Many of these also correspond with intercolonial, American, and English periodicals, and all are doing widely varied and, I may safely say, arduous journalistic work.

Of the greater novelists of the day Tasmania has the honour of claiming Mrs. Humphrey Ward, whose fame as an author has become wide as the speech of the English tongue. This talented and earnest-minded lady was born in Hobart, and her mother, Mrs. Arnold, whose maiden name was Sorrell, was *also a native* of the island-colony, and a very clever and beautiful woman. Port Sorrell bears her family name.

Among Australian novelists who have attained an extensive reputation in England as well as at the Antipodes is Mrs. Campbell-Praed, whose voluminous and clever writings exhibit an undeniable talent for character analysis, combined with considerable power in the presentment of intense dramatic situation. Mrs. Praed, the daughter of a Queensland squatter and politician, was born on the Logan River, near Brisbane. It was not till after she married and came to live in London that she began to write; but she tells me that it was her early years of life in Australia that made her a writer. The lonely outdoor life, the strange noises of the bush, the weirdness and mystery of the scenery, the romance and wildness of her native land, entered into her youthful heart and imagination, coloured the whole tone of her thoughts, and are reproduced largely in her writings. Her first novel, "An Australian Heroine," appeared in 1880. In her "Romance of a Station" she found materials in her experiences whilst living in an island off the north coast of Queensland, and the first few chapters are absolute fact. Her descriptions are always from notes taken on the spot. She believes in Flaubert's method:

if you want to sketch a tree, go and stand in front of that tree, and look at it until you see something in it that nobody ever saw before. Mrs. Campbell-Praed has written in collaboration with one of England's eminent authors, Mr. Justin M'Carthy, their first productions being "The Right Honourable" and "The Ladies' Gallery," the latter being dramatised by Mrs. Praed and interpreted on the stage by Mr. and Mrs. Kendal.

Madame Couvreur, who writes under the name of "Tasma," is another colonial fiction writer who has gained a high place in literary circles. She, like Mrs. Humphrey Ward, is a native of Tasmania. Her "Uncle Piper of Pipers' Hill" made her famous in a week. An English man of letters declares it to be "one of the greatest efforts in the whole field of literature," and everything that has come from her pen since has amply justified the praises of her first critic and the verdict of the public.[1]

Mrs. Mannington Caffyn ("Iota"), though not a native of Australia, resided there for several years, and it was in Victoria that her first book, "The Yellow Aster," was written. This novel was written three years before it was published, during a summer sojourn at the seaside, and in the country near Melbourne. So little did the writer think of her production, that the manuscript was thrown away into an outhouse, and there served for a long time as a cat's bed, occupied by the household tabby. It was only at the urgent pressure of her husband, who had read the MS. and was sure there was "something in it," that the author was at last induced to rescue it from the oblivion to which it had been relegated, get it type-written, and send it to a publisher. It at once became a phenomenal success, and was classed among the "New Woman" books of the day—a title, by the way, which Mrs. Caffyn totally and emphatically repudiates for her work. This author's later books have fully sustained her reputation, and one of her latest, "A Comedy in Spasms," is largely coloured by her Australian experiences.

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[1] This lady is deceased since this lecture was delivered.

Mrs. G. F. Cross ("Ada Cambridge"), whose stories have been widely read in Australia, and whose volumes I see on the shelves of the London public libraries, is the wife of a Victorian clergyman, whose work has been nearly all done in the colony where her husband's work lies. "A. C.'s" first Australian novel, "Up the Murray," was published in serial form in 1875. Since then many books have come from her pen, some dozen or more of which have been published in London. Her productions are marked by much literary talent and considerable independence of opinion. Her poem "Unspoken Thoughts" is considered by competent critics to stand in the front ranks of modern poetry.

Of younger writers coming to the front may be classed Miss Mary Gaunt, with her vigorous tales of bush life, and Miss Ethel Turner, author of "Seven Little Australians" and other stories.

Among Australasian verse writers, Miss Jennings Carmichael ranks high. Her poems were last year given to the English public in book form. Miss Carmichael, like Mrs. Campbell-Praed, found in the solemn Australian bush her first inspiration to write. It was in the far wilds of the Gippsland ranges in Victoria that, taking long, lonely walks, with paper and pencil as her only companions in the silence and stillness of the sombre forests, most of her early poems were composed. For pathos, simple and unfeigned, Miss Jennings Carmichael is said to have no rival in Antipodean literature.

There are many sweet versifiers, both of Australia and New Zealand, which the limits of time compel me to omit naming.

Mr. Douglas Sladen, the editor of "Australian Ballads," in his introduction to the volume, states that

"Nearly all Antipodean poetesses are native-born. Most of them exhibit the influence of Adelaide Procter strongly, and that one of them, 'Agnes Neale' (Mrs. Ahean, of Adelaide), may fairly be called the Australian Adelaide Procter."

As an example of the patriotism, pride of country, and belief in a great future for their native land which glows in the heart of Australian-born women, I will quote the last lines of a poem on "Australia," by the last-named writer:—

"Lo! a young world, lo! a strong world, rises in this distant clime,
Destined to increase and strengthen to the very end of time.
Here through veins with young life swelling, rolls the blood that rules the world ;
Here as hers, and dear as honour, England's banner floats unfurled.
Oh, Australia! fair and lovely, empress of the southern sea,
What a glorious fame awaits thee in the future's history!
Land of wealth and land of beauty, tropic suns and arctic snows,
Where the splendid noontide blazes, where the raging storm-wind blows ;
Be thou proud, and be thou daring, ever true to God and man ;
In all evil be to rearward, in all good take thou the van!
Only let thy hands be stainless, let thy life be pure and true,
And a destiny awaits thee such as nations never knew!"

Enough has been said, I hope, to prove that literary and artistic talents are being surely, and neither unworthily nor tardily, developed in the women of Australasia; also to make manifest, notwithstanding their minority as to numbers, that women take a leading part in the drama of life on the stage of the great southern world—that their position is a worthy as well as a prominent one.

It is well that it should be so, and presages favourably for the years to come, for truly on the physical, mental, and moral tone of its women depend in grave measure the future history and national character of the Australasian people.

BRITISH NEW GUINEA

By T. H. HATTON RICHARDS, F.R.G.S.

Late Treasurer of the Possession

New Guinea is generally described as the largest island in the world after Australia. It was discovered in 1511 by Antonio de Abrea, while the Archipelago to the south-east was discovered by the French towards the end of the eighteenth century.

That portion which is known as British New Guinea was annexed as the result of continued representations on the part of Australian statesmen. In the rivalry, however, that existed for supremacy in that great island, the Dutch claimed the whole of that portion lying to the west of the 141st degree of E. longitude. Germany also wished to have a portion of the island. The feeling in Australia was very keen, and this can be very readily understood when one realises the close proximity of so large an island to so important a country as Australia. The earnestness of Queensland was manifested by the Government of that colony sending an officer to New Guinea to annex the country; and accordingly, on the 4th April 1883, Mr. Chester, then police magistrate of Thursday Island, hoisted the British flag at Port Moresby. This act, however, was not upheld by the Imperial Government.

Still the colonies pressed their opinion, and at the Inter-Colonial Conference held in Sydney of the same year, resolutions were passed urging the annexation by Great Britain of, at any rate, some portion of the island; and it being subsequently arranged by the colonies to contribute £15,000 a year towards the expenses of a Protectorate, Admiral Erskine proceeded in H.M.S. *Nelson* to the country, and formally annexed the south-eastern portion of New Guinea, with adjacent islands, on the 6th November 1884. General Sir Peter Scatchley was appointed Special Commissioner for the newly-acquired territory, but very shortly after entering upon his duties he succumbed to malarial fever. He was succeeded after a short interval by the Honourable John Douglas, C.M.G., at present Government Resident of Thursday Island.

At the Colonial Conference held in London in 1887, the Colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria became responsible for the sum of £15,000 a year for ten years, for the purpose of covering the cost of the administration of the territory, if her Majesty's sovereignty was proclaimed. This was agreed to by the Imperial Government, who also consented to contribute towards the expenses alluded to by giving a steam yacht and an annual contribution towards its maintenance. In the same year Queensland passed an act, intituled "An Act to make provision for the indemnification by the Colony of Queensland of her Majesty's Imperial Government against the expenses of the Government of British New Guinea." By this act Queensland became responsible on her own behalf, and that of the other two guaranteeing colonies, for the annual expenditure of £15,000 for ten years from the date when sovereignty should be proclaimed; and in the second schedule to the act lies, I may say, the basis of the government of the possession.

As the result of all these arrangements the Queen's sovereignty was proclaimed by Sir William MacGregor on the 4th September 1888, and the boundaries of the new possession defined. The area so acquired by the Crown is not confined to the mainland of New Guinea.

The Trobriand, Woodlark, D'Entrecasteaux, and Louisiade groups of islands are specially named, and all other islands lying between the 141st and the 155th degrees of east longitude, *but*, as the proclamation goes on to say, "not forming part of the Colony of Queensland." This is due to the fact that the jurisdiction of that colony was extended in 1879 to certain islands in Torres Strait, including a group within three miles of the southern coast of New Guinea. The islands and reefs lying in the Gulf of Papua to the northward of the 8th parallel of S. latitude are also included in the proclamation.

Germany having also annexed a portion of New Guinea, we find the whole of the island, which has, roughly speaking, an area of just over 300,000 square miles, divided between three nations—Holland possessing the largest portion, Great Britain the next, and Germany the smallest.

The head of the Government in British New Guinea is a Lieutenant-Governor under the Governor of Queensland, who is assisted by Executive and Legislative Councils, the members of which are nominated by the Crown.

It will therefore be seen that the position of British New Guinea is exceptional. Certain colonies of Australia pressed for annexation, and evinced their sincerity by agreeing to pay the expenses of a government for ten years. As a return, those colonies are consulted through Queensland in the administration of the possession; while financially their return consists of any unexpended portion of the £15,000 there may be at the end of the year, and all local revenue collected.

We have heard a good deal this year about the loyalty of the colonies. Most deservedly much stress has been laid on the practical evidence we have received of it by the contribution of Cape Colony to

Imperial defence, and which vividly recalled the part taken by Australia in the same cause some years since. But I would ask what greater evidence of loyalty and practical working hand in hand can be desired than that shown years ago, when certain Australian colonies undertook to defray the cost of the government of a British possession for ten years, involving an expenditure of £150,000? The small revenue which would become divisible, it was known, could not amount to much. As a matter of fact, in eight years it amounted to less than £35,000.

The seat of Government is at Port Moresby, and as it is the principal point of the possession, perhaps I may be allowed to give a short description of it. Its position is 9° 27′ S. The locality had been selected by the late Sir Peter Scatchley, chiefly, I believe, because it was the only point where any attempt at permanent civilisation had been made. The London Missionary Society had their headquarters established there for some considerable time, while as regards climate, in comparison with other parts of the possession, it may be regarded as fairly healthy. There is a tolerably good harbour, which is margined by surrounding hills. These hills are covered for the most part with trees, which seem to remind one of the Australian gum. At certain times of the year these hills are very barren, but during the wet season they become very picturesque, for they add a green refreshing landscape to the general contour of the scene. The principal European settlement is to the right on entering the harbour. The houses are built either of wood, corrugated iron, or both. The first thing that strikes the traveller as he approaches Port Moresby is the very mountainous aspect of the country. In the distance can be seen a high range of well-defined mountains seeming to assert their greatness, or perhaps I should say the vastness of the comparatively unknown country. Jagged and notched in their topmost outline, they present a weird front to the person who beholds them for the first time.

The headquarters of the Government being, as I have said, at Port Moresby, the next principal stations are those situated at the eastern and western ends of the possession. In the former a small island called Samarai, and at the latter a spot called Daru, are the points from which the resident magistrates of those districts do their work. In addition there are a few smaller stations in charge of government agents.

It may be appropriate if I here draw attention to the magnitude of the possession that has to be controlled. The area as described by the proclamation of sovereignty, and which includes islands, is about 203,253 square miles. Of this about 86,874 square miles form the mainland, leaving an aqueous area, with numerous islands scattered about, of 116,879 square miles. Bearing in mind that the mainland is in parts very thickly populated, that the chief islands are equally so, and also the distances in many cases very great between the islands and the mainland, and the islands themselves, you may possibly be able to form some vague idea of the vast extent of country to be governed, and some of the difficulties of administration, which are increased by certain exceptional local conditions. The great majority of people have lived, and do live in some parts still, in strange independence of one another. Different dialects, different habits and customs in detail have separated one tribe from another, till they either live in enmity or fear. There have been no recognised chiefs, as in other countries. (Fiji is a good example.) Each district has to be dealt with separately, the people brought together themselves, and confidence in one another established. Such a country could not be governed from an office in Port Moresby, but requires constant travelling and supervision on the part of the Lieutenant-Governor, while it is not the work of a day or a year; it must be gradual. Still there are very few places on the coast, from the British-Dutch boundary on the south and the British-German boundary on the north, where the natives do not know something about the government. Their ideas and conceptions of it may vary according to the opportunities afforded to representatives of the government of visiting certain parts more frequently than others, but the great barrier of ignorance of our intentions and system of control may be said to be breaking, and is broken down in many places. When this is all done, it follows that it will be easier to encourage settlement in those parts brought thoroughly under control. It is not only essential for a good result to the administration of such a country, but of extreme benefit to the present and future settler, who has the way prepared for him, and who has not to combat with difficult native questions which will arise in such new countries, and which it is impossible for him to so well deal with, as an organised body having all through a consistent line of authoritative action.

I do not propose to attempt to go into any details of the numerous expeditions that have been undertaken during the last nine years. Even supposing I had personal cognisance of them all, each would require an afternoon to itself. Suffice it to say that the country has many fine rivers, the largest of which is the Fly, which was ascended by Sir William MacGregor in 1890 for a distance of 610 miles, being some miles farther than the distance attained by Signor D'Albertis in 1876. In the mountainous districts, the Owen Stanley Range was ascended by Sir William MacGregor in 1889, who, with less than six followers, reached the summit, the highest point being 13,121 feet.

And now let me give you a short description of the Papuans.

The Papuan race is not confined to New Guinea, but embraces other adjacent islands; although New Guinea may be said to be the home of this fine people. There is, however, much diversity of manner and habits amongst them, so my remarks will be confined to those with whom I have been brought into contact in my travels.

The Papuan is of medium height and well built. The prevailing colour is a dark chocolate, inclining to black, but quite distinct from the negro. In some places the colour is not quite so dark as in others. The celebrated Tugeri tribe, for instance, that we met seven years ago inside the Dutch territory, and who were last year defeated by Sir William MacGregor, were quite the finest I have seen. The features are large and well formed, the nose broad and prominent, but not flat, and the lips are wide. The hair is thick, and may be either long or short. It also frequently grows in patches. When long, it is often curled or brushed straight up, while in order to prevent it coming over the eyes, it is sometimes shaved about two inches off the forehead. Little hair is grown on the face, and what there is, is often in patches like that on the head.

The natives are practically men and women about the age of twelve years, at which period they frequently marry. In marriage the woman would appear to have very little voice in the matter, the suitor dealing directly with the girl's parents: and if he is considered well off, the girl is sold to him. To constitute a "well-off" man means that he must possess two or three pigs, and a good garden, or a fair share in one. If the suitor cannot pay all at once for the girl, he can do so by degrees. When the girl is married she cuts off all her hair, and so on entering a village one can generally distinguish the married from the unmarried women. The men are industrious in their gardens, but the women are the hardest workers. They commence their work early in the morning, and go out to bring in wood and water, the latter being carried sometimes in jars of their own manufacture, but more generally in unbroken cocoa-nut shells, with a small hole at one end. Each woman will carry about a dozen of these in a net bag on her back by means of a piece of string running round the forehead.

The men are fond of decorating themselves. Their principal ornaments consist of armlets and anklets of shells or plaited grass; necklets of small shells, dogs' teeth, or Job's tears; spindles of shell, bone, or grass are often worn through the septum of the nose, while the lobes of the ears are pierced in such a way as to admit of the insertion of a piece of wood or bamboo. Some of the head-dresses are very gorgeous, and often made of feathers of the bird of Paradise. Both men and women are tattooed, but in the case of the men it is chiefly done when they have taken a human life; the women are marked with very tasteful and often intricate designs.

By nature the Papuans are first-rate agriculturists. They clear the ground, till, drain, and fence it in a most excellent way. Their gardens are really their chief industry, and they are perfect in order and neatness. In the larger gardens can be seen the storehouse in which yams, taro, sweet potatoes, &c., are placed as they are dug. To dig the ground small spades are used, about four feet long; three inches wide at the bottom, and about an inch thick. This narrows up towards the handle, which is round, and about an inch in diameter. It is astonishing the amount of work that can be got through with this primitive implement. Another principal tool the natives use is the stone-axe. This is constructed by getting a small branch with a well-formed crook. To the crook a long thin, evenly-ground stone is lashed in a very ingenious manner, and will last for a considerable time. With this instrument trees can be cut down, canoes built, framework and floors for houses made.

Their weapons vary. In the western portion of the possession those principally used are bows and arrows, which can be used with wonderful accuracy, and at a considerable distance. Sir William MacGregor took pains to ascertain the exact distance these arrows could be effectively shot. After careful measurement, it was found that the arrow used for fighting purposes could be sent 170 yards; with the lighter arrow 196 yards. In some subsequent trials even this distance was increased. In the eastern part of the possession spears and clubs are used, while every man carries a shield. This is often as high as the man himself, and in that case is narrow, but the smaller shield is wider than the long one. They are neatly made, and often tastefully decorated with feathers of the cockatoo. These shields would be useful against their own weapons, but quite the reverse for anything in the form of a bullet. The spears are often long and heavy, and can be used with great accuracy and effect at a good distance.

The native idea of architecture is somewhat primitive in general, though not so in detail. Wherever it is decided to lay out a village no obstacles are allowed, not even that of water. All the houses are built on piles, varying six to ten feet in height from the surface of ground or water. As a rule, on the coast a village will be found wherever coco-nuts will grow, and to the traveller these trees are, therefore, often a great guide, for where he sees them he may expect to come across natives and find fresh water.

The floors of the houses are made of small saplings or roughly-hewn logs, while the sides and roof are thatched with sugar-cane leaves or palms. There is generally a platform, either at the side of the house or projecting at one end. A house will often have an upper room, which is used as a sleeping apartment, and reached by a sort of trap-door in the floor of the second storey. The only light obtainable, therefore, "upstairs" is the very subdued one which finds its way up through the aperture by means of which the upper apartment is reached. A village will consist of any number of houses. The usual number is about fifteen. A strong palisade is often placed round each village, constructed of saplings from three to six inches thick, and twelve to fifteen feet long. These saplings are placed very close together, sunk two or three feet in the ground, and securely lashed to one another. Thus erected, these palisades would withstand the strongest onslaught that could be made by another tribe. The entrances are composed of small gates which slide up and down, and which can be made secure at night. Each village generally has two or three tree-houses with platforms. These are built in the trees, about sixty feet from the ground, and are seldom used for habitation, but for fighting purposes. In them are kept reserve stores of weapons and food, and in times of warfare they are a decided advantage to those who hold them. In the western portion of the possession the houses are somewhat different. They are much larger, and capable of holding many families. It is not an uncommon thing for a house to be 200 feet long, while one was seen, about fifty miles from the mouth of the Fly River, measuring 520 feet long and 30 feet wide.

The character of the Papuan is infinitely better than is generally supposed. They have a keen sense of justice, and possess good traits in their disposition, which tend to make them a comparatively easy people to get on with, *if* they are approached in the right spirit. Amongst themselves they are very affectionate. I have seen some very heart-rending instances of this. Most decidedly they are not bloodthirsty, and the thrilling tales one hears of cannibalism should always be received with great caution—unless coming from an authorised source—while one should also be slow to place credence in tales of so-called savagery, without knowing what has happened in the past (perhaps years ago) to lead up to what might appear, without the knowledge of both sides of the story, to be acts of inhumanity. The Government have found the natives to be useful workers. The constabulary force, which is about sixty strong, is mainly composed of natives of the possession, and they appear to respect the trust reposed in them, while in moments of difficulty and danger they have been proved to behave admirably.

The climate of British New Guinea is moist, enervating, and must be regarded as unhealthy, and the early hardships so often attendant on opening up a new country have certainly not tended to make it less so to those who have had to endure them. Malarial fever is the principal and most troublesome ailment. It may be possible to fight against it for some time, but it will come sooner or later. Its attacks are often sudden, without any premonitory symptoms, while it will often lie dormant in the system, and not appear till one has left the country. Those who travel about are more susceptible. A lengthened residence does not seem to acclimatise one. The man who has been ten or fifteen years in the country is just as liable to suffer from it as the man who has been there the same number of days, weeks, or months. Albeit, the death-rate from fever is extremely low. Possibly, however, its worst feature is that there appears to be no finality to it, either in or out of the possession. It leaves traces which may be answerable for anything. Still there is no great reason why the climate should not improve in the future, as the place becomes more civilised and opened up, and better means exist to enable one to contend with it. When I was there, fresh food was almost unknown; nearly everything had to be imported in tins. You will readily understand, therefore, that this fact in itself is sufficient to render one less able to fight against other elements.

The prevailing winds are from the north-west and south-east. The former often commence in December, and continue till April, after which the south-east comes in. It is at this change of the season when the place is the most unhealthy. According to the latest official report to hand, the highest mean temperature for the year ended 30th June 1896, at Port Moresby, was 88 degrees, while the lowest was 83 degrees. During the same year there was a rainfall of 32.15 inches, as against 40.11 inches for the previous corresponding twelve months.

In British New Guinea there are four missionary bodies at work, and extremely good work they do. Although the Roman Catholics made a start in the Woodlark Islands as far back as 1847, that mission was a failure in consequence of many of their numbers being murdered, while others died of fever. That body made another start in 1885, and are doing good work. But any one who knows British New Guinea must concede that the premier position is held by the London Missionary Society, and of that body it is impossible to say too much. The Wesleyans commenced operations in 1891, and are making rapid strides. Later in the same year the Church of England started a mission, but I am afraid that body has not been so successful as its best friends would have wished.

Each mission has its own sphere of action, all work most harmoniously together, and their united aims being identical with many of those of the Government, all bodies work hand in hand.

That the missions have done good there can be no doubt. From a statistical point perhaps there is not so much to show as even they would most desire. Still the progress has been steady, and much good has been done by that civilising influence which accompanies the teacher of religion.

Among the principal articles of export may be mentioned copra, gold, béche-de-mer, pearl-shell, sandalwood, and curiosities. The total value of exports for the year ended 30th June 1896 was £19,401, but these figures by no means include all the gold exported, as a large quantity is sent out of the country which is never reported to the customs.

The imports to the possession consist chiefly of food-stuffs, hardware, drapery, and clothing; the total value of imports for the year ended 30th June 1896 was £34,521.

The local revenue for that same year, and which was derived principally from customs dues, was £6547, which, as I have already told you, is divisible among the guaranteeing colonies.

The principal trade is with the east end of the possession, and from Samarai is the largest portion of revenue derived.

In Australia the nearest ports for trading purposes and mails are Cooktown and Thursday Island. A regular mail service exists by means of a sailing vessel, which, leaving Cooktown, proceeds to Samarai, thence to Port Moresby, and then to Thursday Island, calling at intermediate ports when necessary. In British New Guinea the ports of entry are Port Moresby, Samarai in the east end, and Daru in the west.

And now I may say a few words of a general character.

For the land speculator British New Guinea has no opening, but there is absolutely no reason why the country should not receive its share of attention as a likely place for settlement, though in considering this question certain facts must be borne in mind. British New Guinea is unique in more ways than one. The wealth of any country without commercial prosperity must depend upon the condition on which its lands are occupied and made use of. For instance, in Australia the present and future welfare depends on the use which is made of the land, of which nearly every foot is available. In British New Guinea, however, a good deal of the land is already occupied, well tenanted, and industriously tilled by a highly intelligent race of people. It is, moreover, the policy of the Government that the title of the present occupants shall be respected. Let me give you an illustration. If the Government becomes desirous for any purpose of its own to acquire land from the natives, it is purchased from them, if available, and it is then formally transferred to the Crown. The only exception to this is in favour of waste or vacant lands. Our holding of this country is therefore strengthened by the fact that we regard the title of previous occupation.

At the same time, there is a great variety of land available for agricultural settlement, and as far as is practicable, every inducement is given by the Government to the *bonâ fide* settler. All that legislation can do has been and is being done, but so far the attention to the country has been rather disappointing. Land may be found for almost every tropical product, but not in the vast areas that are dealt with in Australia for instance. To the man with experience and a little capital, who chooses a moderate quantity of land with care and prudence, after personal inspection, good results should follow. He would find two great things in his favour. First, the country is never visited by cyclones, which so frequently in other parts of the world lay waste lands cultivated at great expense, and thus very often destroy the results which should and would otherwise accrue to the labour of years. Secondly, with care and tact on his part, he should always be able to obtain a plentiful supply of good labour at an extremely moderate rate. But the man who goes to British New Guinea must be prepared to rough it, in the truest sense of the word; be ready to put his hands to anything, and to wait patiently for the fruit of his labours.

It will be seen that the country has resources. I grant you that on a few occasions doubts have been raised on this point, but as far as I can gather, these come from members of disappointed expeditions, who have proceeded to the country without attaining phenomenal results in a short space of time, and so give vent to the opinion that "the game is not worth the candle." Well, I have said that the task of colonising British New Guinea is not the work of a day, and that the man who goes there to settle must work for that which he hopes to attain. In some countries more than in others great suffering and endurance is undergone, and great perseverance needed, and, alas! very often great loss of life. Heaven knows the settlement of our West African colonies has been and is attended with a most regrettable loss of many valuable lives, and much sorrow and misery has been thrust into many a home; but the work, wherever it may be, has to be proceeded with, and fortunately we have always men who, nothing daunted, face with courage and perseverance the good and necessary work, and who carry their lives in their hands, as the soldier who faces the risk of death in the protection of the interests of his country.

In New Guinea the chief difficulty to be encountered is the one of climate, but beyond this there is really nothing that cannot be overcome; while as regards climate, I have already said I think this may improve in time as the possession is opened up by settlement, and it becomes possible to use the hilly portion of the country for purposes of change. Of course the primary care in a new country like the one we are considering, and which is, as I have said before, so exceptional in its conditions, is to get on well with the natives. In British New Guinea this would, to a great extent, depend on the settler. The people must be treated fairly and honourably and with consideration, not as a race supposed to have less feeling or intellect than ourselves, simply because they are of a darker colour, but regarded as fellow-creatures, possessing an equal sense of fairness. And here let me quote an extract from a speech delivered by Sir Walter Hely-Hutchinson at Buluwayo at a banquet given in connection with the festivities on the occasion of the opening of the Buluwayo Railway, and which was reported in the London papers. Sir Walter said: "The brain of Africa is white, the sinew is black. Labour is the cry. To the teeming thousands of natives we must look for the development of our resources. It behoves us, therefore, to use the power we possess with kindly firmness and sympathetic interest. All South African problems must be solved by South Africa herself. With the abolition of barriers, and with the free interchange of products, racial controversies should pass into oblivion, and be absorbed in future peace and goodwill." Many of those sentiments might well be applied to British New Guinea and to those who settle there.

In conclusion, let me commend British New Guinea to earnest consideration, for I am convinced, that even if we do not live to see it, the country is in time bound to take an important position amongst the vast possessions of her Majesty. For the present we may rest content in the knowledge that the welfare of all her Majesty's colonies could not be in safer hands than those of the present Secretary of State; while as regards Australia, we may rest assured that as she has been so practically loyal in the past, so she will not be found wanting in the future.

Naturally all those interested in British New Guinea hope that it may be found possible to continue in some shape or form the work started and carried on by Sir William MacGregor. No country has ever been more fortunate in its first administrator, and without actual knowledge of the place and its difficulties, it is hard to realise the great work he has done, and is doing. The last nine years of his life have been devoted solely, and without any thought of his health or strength, to the existing and future welfare of British New Guinea, and speaking as one with some small practical knowledge of his work, I can honestly say I know no man of whom it may be more truly said—

> "He holds no parley with unmanly fears;
> When duty bids he confidently steers,
> Facing a thousand dangers at her call,
> And trusting in his God, surmounts them all."

THE ISLANDS OF THE WESTERN PACIFIC

By BASIL THOMSON

In a series of papers on the British Empire, it is not strictly accurate to include an account of the islands of the South-Western Pacific, for of the numerous groups that lie between Australia and 130° east longitude England possesses but six dependencies. Time was when she might have had them all for the taking, and, seeing that the influence of Australia and New Zealand must inevitably make itself felt throughout the island groups in their neighbourhood, posterity may some day blame her bitterly for her neglect of opportunities. Since, however, the commercial importance of the islands still belongs to the far future, and our vast empire can ill afford to be weighted with unremunerative dependencies, there is much to be said for the policy of self-denial.

The history of the discovery of the islands begins with Magellan's celebrated voyage in December 1520, in which he discovered the Ladrones. The earliest chart in which any islands appear south of the Equator is that of Ortelius' *Theatrum Orbis Terrarum*, 1592, where the two uninhabited islands discovered by Magellan appear as St. Pedro and Tiburon. Their position varies so much in the different accounts of the voyage that they are difficult to identify, but they may have been Palmerston and Isabella islands. A few unimportant discoveries followed in subsequent Spanish voyages from the New World, but it was not until Mendaña's famous expedition in 1567 that any of the large groups became known to Europeans. Of this voyage we have two manuscript accounts by Gallego, the pilot, and Catoira, the purser, both of which will shortly be translated and published by the Hakluyt Society. Steering a westerly course to the northward of the large groups, Mendaña discovered one of the Union group and the Solomon Islands, and stayed long enough among the latter to build a small boat and examine a large extent of the coast-line. He found gold among the natives, and springing to the conclusion that they were the Ophir of Scripture, named them after King Solomon. I have examined Gallego's MS. in the library of Lord Amherst of Hackney, to whom it belongs, and it is remarkable to notice that the natives of the Solomons have not altered in one single particular during the past three hundred years. The loss of the Solomon Islands is one among many of the romances of the South Seas. Voyage after voyage was undertaken to find them; group after group was discovered in the vain search, but, owing to the error in the longitude assigned to them by Mendaña, geographers began to doubt their existence, and they came at last to be almost omitted from the charts. Mendaña himself, in a second voyage undertaken in 1595, failed to find them, though he discovered both the Marquesas, and another of the Union group, which he named "Isla de Gente Hermosa" (The Isle of Handsome People). They were lost to geographers until Surville, a French navigator, rediscovered them on October 7, 1769. In 1606 Quiros, who had been pilot in Mendaña's second voyage, but who now commanded an expedition of his own, discovered Tahiti, which he named Sagittaria, and the northern islands of the New Hebrides, which he believed to be part of a great southern continent. With him the discoveries of the Spaniards give place to those of the Dutch.

In 1616 the Dutch navigators, Schouten and Le Maire, discovered the most northerly islands of the Tonga group, Nuiatobutabu and Niuafo'ou, and the little outlying Polynesian island, Futuna. Had their course lain a few degrees to the southward they would have encountered the main groups of Tonga and Fiji, but these they left for their greater countryman, Abel Tasman. Early in the seventeenth century the Dutch East India Company began to cast covetous eyes upon the trade of the Spanish East Indies, and Van Diemen, the Viceroy at Batavia, was instructed to push forward discoveries to the eastward. He selected Tasman to command the expedition, which set forth early in 1642. Considering the defective instruments, the cumbrous ships of his time, and the myriad dangers of these reef-strewn and uncharted seas, no voyage of discovery has been prosecuted with so happy a mingling of skill and good fortune. He discovered New Zealand, Tonga, Australia, Tasmania, the northern islands of the Fiji group, besides numerous outlying islands that had escaped the Spanish navigators. Acting upon their policy of commercial exclusiveness, the Dutch East India Company kept the result of his discoveries secret. A map was constructed on the floor of their Staadhouse, and his MS. was consigned to the Royal Library of the Hague, together with the curious charts and sketches with which he had illustrated it. He appears to have acted with a humanity towards the natives that was much in advance of his time, but being a rough sailor he lacked, unfortunately, the literary skill of our own navigator Cook, and his account of the natives is too meagre to be of much historical value. Nevertheless, the traditions of his visit are still preserved among the Tongans, in common with the name of the king who entertained him. Tasman's Journal lay buried for nearly two centuries. In 1860 a mutilated edition was published in Dutch, and it is only within the last few years that a complete edition has been undertaken by M. Fleeres, the Royal Librarian of the Hague. With Roggewein, who treated the natives of Easter Island with savage barbarity, the Dutch discoveries close.

The discoveries of the eighteenth century belong to English and French navigators. In 1767 Wallis revisited Tahiti and discovered Uea or Wallis Island. In the following year the French admiral, De Bougainville, discovered the main islands of the Samoan group, and the Louisiades.

In the middle of the last century our greatest geographer was Dalrymple. Having made an exhaustive study of the voyages of the Spanish and Dutch navigators, he became convinced of the existence of a vast Southern Continent. In the light of fuller knowledge it is pathetic to read his admirably reasoned arguments, his marshalled array of evidence, which were to be blown to the winds by the crude test of sailing a ship over the site of his Continent. There is not in all the history of science a more striking instance of the errors to which deductive reasoning is prone. By all the laws of scientific deduction there should have been a Southern Continent stretching from Australia to the Pole, and there was not. But Dalrymple and his followers brought pressure to bear on the Admiralty to put their theory to the test, and the result was the fitting out of Captain Cook's famous expedition. We all know how he set that question at rest for ever.

His discoveries included the Cook or Raratongan group, the Loyalty Islands, Savage Island, and Hawaii or the Sandwich Islands, where he lost his life through over-confidence in the disposition of the natives. But his real services lay in the enormous additions he made to hydrography, and to our knowledge of the social state of the natives. Hawaii lies geographically outside the limits of this paper, but before dismissing the subject it should be mentioned that recent investigations tend to show that Cook was not the first European to land there. Native tradition, according to Fornander, records two distinct European visits to the island. The former of these was a shipwreck, about the year 1527. The survivors were washed ashore, to intermarry with the natives. As two of Saavedra's ships were lost by a storm near Hawaii in that year, Hawaiian writers believe the wrecked vessel to have been one of them. The second visit is less doubtful. In 1555 Juan Gaetana sailed his galleons through a group which he named Isles de Mesa (Table Islands), and thenceforward Hawaii begins to appear in the early charts.

The exaggerated praise that has been bestowed on Cook as a benefactor to the natives has led to equally unjust attacks upon him by writers on Hawaii. The truth, as usual, lies midway between the two. He was a plain bluff English seaman, enlightened when compared with the naval officers of his time, but sharing with them something of the coarseness and callousness of the age. His success lay in his unrivalled power of managing men. He was the first navigator who understood the art of fighting scurvy by careful rationing, and so far from carrying pigs to New Zealand and the islands, as a popular fallacy maintains, he drained every island he touched at of all the fresh provisions the natives could be induced to part with. His visits were a tax upon, rather than a boon to, the inhabitants: his dealings with the natives were marked by severe justice rather than by indulgent leniency. His judgment of their character was not at fault in Hawaii alone. The people whom he named the "Friendly Islanders" had formed, we now know, an elaborate plot to murder him and seize his ships, which only failed through a disagreement among the chiefs regarding the moment for its execution. But his courage, his excellent seamanship, his great achievements, and his tragic end have justly raised him and his scientific colleague, Sir Joseph Banks, to a foremost place in the roll of the great navigators of history.

With Cook's third voyage all the great groups of the Pacific except one became known to Europeans. By a strange chance Fiji, the largest of all, had escaped every navigator. Tasman, it is true, had sighted Taviuni, on the north-eastern limit of the group, but, striking on one of its dangerous shoals, had stood away without sighting the great and populous islands that lay behind it. Cook touched at Vatoa, the southernmost of the islands, and in Tonga he met many of the natives, from whom he gathered much information regarding their country, which he reserved for a later opportunity in the cruise that ended so fatally on 14th February 1777. Though it is still doubtful whether some trading vessel from Manilla or the East Indies did not visit the group for sandalwood without leaving any record, it is generally agreed that the first visit of an European is connected with one of the two great romances of the South Seas —the mutiny of the *Bounty.* The other was the mystery that veiled the fate of La Pérouse.

Cook's voyages awakened the greatest interest among continental geographers, and the French Government resolved not to be outdone. In 1788, the government of Louis XVI. was still effective, though the storm-clouds of revolution that were so soon to burst upon it were gathering. The frigates *Astrolabe* and *Boussole* were splendidly equipped despite the national bankruptcy, and the Count de la Pérouse was placed in command, with orders to pursue scientific discovery in the South Seas. For a time all went well. In Samoa, it is true, a boat's crew was treacherously cut off by the natives, but before he neared the shores of Australia he had collected a mass of valuable scientific information. On 26th January 1788, Governor Phillip, who had arrived the year before with the first batch of convicts that were to form the nucleus of the great Australian Colonies, was astonished to see two great frigates, flying the French colours, beating into Botany Bay. He boarded them, and accepted from the hands of La Pérouse a packet of papers which he promised to forward to France by the first ship sailing for Europe. The Frenchmen stayed a month to refresh, and on 15th March they spread their sails and glided majestically seaward, never again to be seen by the eyes of men of their own race. The French Monarchy fell, the country was drenched with blood, the republic was fighting Europe for its life, but La Pérouse was not forgotten. His papers reached their destination. The National Assembly voted a handsome sum for publishing them in a style worthy of the country, and another naval expedition was despatched under the command of "Citizen" D'Entrecasteaux to search for the lost ships. Though the Revolution had swept away all the national institutions, there was to be no break in the continuity of enlightened scientific research. D'Entrecasteaux's journal is very curious reading. There were "Citizen-Captains," "Citizen-Lieutenants," "Citizen-Seamen," but in practice the Citizen-Captain did not scruple on occasion to flog the Citizen-Seaman when he deserved it.

They discovered the D'Entrecasteaux group on the eastern extremity of New Guinea, they followed up false scents, but they never found La Pérouse. As with Sir John Franklin, the mystery that hid the fate of the unfortunate navigator was more prolific in discovery than his successful return could have been. And yet, had D'Entrecasteaux steered a more southerly course he would have brought La Pérouse and many of his ships' company home alive. Their fate would never have been known but for a romantic accident. In 1813, the East Indiaman *Hunter* became embroiled with the natives on the Bua coast in Fiji, and a party from the ship led by Peter Dillon, an Irishman, were surrounded by the infuriated natives, who killed and ate some of them before the eyes of the rest. They escaped by a clever stratagem, bringing with them Bushart, a Prussian, and his native wife. This man at his own request was set down at Tucopia in the Santa Cruz group, the next island they touched at.

In a subsequent voyage in 1826, Dillon put into this island to see whether his old comrade-in-arms was still alive. His quick eye noted in the hand of one of the natives who boarded the ship a silver sword-hilt, engraved with a coronet and the letter "P." The fellow had obtained it, he said, in barter from Vanikoro, an island to the westward, where the people had a store of such articles taken long ago from two great ships that were cast up on their reefs. On his return to Calcutta, Dillon did not rest until he had persuaded the East India Company to give him a ship in which to follow up the clue. But for contrary winds he would have touched at Vanikoro at the time, and would have found one survivor of the disaster. In the shallow water on the reefs he saw the guns of the lost frigates; from the natives he obtained a mass of relics; among the forest trees he found the plantation on which the poor French sailors had supported life. From the natives he gleaned the story: how in a terrific hurricane the two great ships had crashed upon the reef; how the one had fired her guns at them, and had paid for it with the slaughter of her entire company—this, we may guess, was the vessel of La Pérouse, who, since the loss of his boat's crew in Samoa, had been bitterly hostile to the natives—and the other had waved clothes in token of peace, and had been rewarded with their friendship; how the white men had built another vessel from the wreckage, in which they sailed away, none knew whither; and how two had stayed behind, the one to die three years before Dillon's visit, and the other to leave the island a year later with the entire tribe with which he was living, without leaving behind him any clue to his destination. Dillon sent back the relics to France, where he was rewarded with the order of the Legion of Honour. What became of the little schooner and her crew we shall never now know.

The other great romance of the Pacific is better known. Late in 1788, Lieutenant Bligh, who had served with Captain Cook, was despatched in the *Bounty* to carry bread-fruit plants from Tahiti to the West Indies. The expedition was doomed to disaster from the first. The commander was a man of harsh and ungovernable temper, the officers were incompetent, the men were demoralised by a protracted stay of no less than three months at Tahiti. On the voyage home, when close to Tofoa in Tonga, Fletcher Christian, one of the officers, enraged by Bligh's insults, led the crew to mutiny, and Bligh was set adrift in the launch with such of the crew as cared to join him. The rest set the *Bounty's* course for Tahiti, where they quarrelled, Christian's party carrying the ship to the lonely island of Pitcairn, where they broke her up, and settled down with Tahitian wives, to be discovered many years afterwards, when only one of the original mutineers survived. The case of Bligh had seemed to them so desperate that it was equivalent to the death they had not dared to inflict. The boat voyage of 2000 miles is one of the most remarkable feats in naval history. At the outset one of his men was murdered by the natives of Tofoa. He passed through the centre of the Fiji group, coasting along the northern shore of Viti-levu, and passing out by the Round Island Channel, where he was chased by two canoes. He reached the Great Barrier reef of Queensland; passed through Torres Strait, and made Timor, whence he found his way to England. The Admiralty lost no time. In 1791, Captain Edward Edwards was despatched in the frigate *Pandora* to search for and arrest the mutineers. At Tahiti he found and arrested twenty-four of the mutineers, including two midshipmen, and securing them in a roundhouse, called in irony "Pandora's Box," he cruised among the islands in search of the party that had left in the *Bounty*. At Palmerston Island he found a spar that had belonged to the missing ship, but as they had sailed eastward, and he was travelling westward, it is not surprising that he discovered no other clue.[1] The *Pandora* was wrecked on the Queensland coast, but Edwards reached England eventually with such of the mutineers as had survived the wreck and a party of convicts who had escaped from Botany Bay. It was shown in the court-martial that he had treated his prisoners with great inhumanity. Four of them were executed, but Peter Heywood, one of the midshipmen, was respited, and lived to rise to the rank of admiral.

When the present century opened Europeans were living on most of the large islands, but being only deserters from passing ships, they were mere hangers-on to the native chiefs, without political or social influence. In 1799, the London Missionary Society sent out a number of artisan missionaries in the ship *Duff* to Tahiti, the Marquesas, and Tonga. The Tahitian party prospered from the first, but the other two missions made no headway, and were abandoned.

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[1] A wretched account of this interesting voyage, now exceedingly rare, was published by the surgeon, Hamilton, but I have lately discovered among the Admiralty records Edwards's MS. report of the voyage, which contains so much interesting matter that I hope some day to publish it.

The real colonisation of the South Seas dates from the era of the whaling-ships that began to frequent the South Seas early in the present century. They set out with their holds filled with provisions, and, if they were unlucky in whaling, would stay out until the crew had consumed all but a bare sufficiency to take them home. Their crews, recruited from the scum that loafed about the drinking dens of the Chilian ports, seized eagerly upon every opportunity for escaping the hard life by desertion, and when tired of life in one island, they would "sign on" in the next whaler that called, to repeat the desertion at another island. The natives thus acquired their first knowledge of Europeans from the most evil specimens of the race, and the morals of the whaling ports soon became incredibly corrupt. The beach-comber, as this loafing white was termed, when no drink was to be had, turned his hand to politics, joined in the native wars with his musket, and acted as middleman in the traffic between the natives and their visitors. A brisk trade in firearms sprang up, and the tribes that held the port of call began to extend their borders and form conquering confederations. They were followed by the missionaries, who, while destroying the influence of the uneducated beach-comber, yielded in their turn to the temptation to dabble in politics. In overturning the religious system of the natives, they destroyed much of the social polity which depended upon it without putting anything in its place, for the social laws of England and America, which they tried to inculcate, were ludicrously ill suited to a race with the instincts of primitive man thick upon it. Between the foreign diseases for which they knew no remedy, the vices of the beach-combers, and the virtuous iconoclasm of the missionaries, the natives began to decrease. In nearly every island the first visit of Europeans was followed by the outbreak of an epidemic, although the visitors were themselves free from disease. Ailments such as measles and whooping-cough, which we regard as trivial, were with them devastating plagues; and in view of the disasters which strangers had brought upon them, it was astonishing that they treated their visitors so kindly.

About 1850, the real stream of immigration began to flow. Increasing trade with the islands brought traders and planters to take the place of the beachcombers, and to supply labourers for the plantations the "Kanaka" labour trade sprang into existence. The political power in the larger groups passed to the Europeans, and the native government, except in name, ceased to exist.

The periods of discovery and settlement thus fall naturally into centuries. The sixteenth century belongs to the Spanish, the seventeenth to the Dutch, the eighteenth to the English, and the nineteenth to the missionaries and whalers and traders of all nations.

It is in the numberless unrecorded voyages at the beginning of this century that so many tragedies and romances are hidden. From time to time a chance letter, an entry in a log-book, sounds an echo of deeds more tragic and romantic than any that we know in the records of the old buccaneers in the Caribbean Sea.

The British Empire in the South Seas promised to be much larger than it now is. Our flag was hoisted over Tahiti, over Hawaii, over New Caledonia, and over German New Guinea, none of which now belong to us, for our policy has been a policy of reluctance to acquire territory. Open markets and coaling stations were not thought of thirty years ago. Empire was regarded as a profitless responsibility until competitors began to support us. In 1860 we declined the offer of Fiji, though we were driven to accept it fourteen years later. But within the last fifteen years we have hoisted our flag over all the unoccupied islands that can be of any use to us.

THE NATIVES.

The inhabitants of the South Sea Islands belong to two great families, the Malayo-Polynesians and the Melanesians, of totally distinct physical type. The Polynesians inhabit all the large groups lying east of Fiji, with the exception of the atolls about the Equator, which are inhabited by a third family, the Micronesians, who are related to them. Thus Tahiti, Hawaii, Raratonga (Cook group), New Zealand, Samoa, and Tonga are Polynesian.

The Melanesian islands are the Solomons, Loyalty, New Hebrides, Louisiade, New Britain, and New Ireland, and Fiji is the meeting-ground of the two races. Here and there in Melanesia there are islands colonised by Polynesian castaways, who resemble the Melanesians in appearance but speak a Polynesian dialect. New Guinea belongs to another race, the Papuan. The Polynesian race is so homogeneous that the languages of all the islands may be almost said to be identical. The differences consist for the most part in the substitution of consonants, L for R, H for S, K for T, and experience has shown that these variations may be effected in a single generation.[1] A Tongan, whom I took to New Zealand, found little difficulty in making himself understood by the Maoris. Tradition and mythology point to a common origin at no very remote date, and Maori and Hawaiian tradition suggests that there was at one time frequent intercourse between the groups in craft superior to the canoes in use at the time of European discovery. All the tribes trace their origin to the mythical land, Bulotu, and the exact position of this place is still the subject of controversy. No doubt it was a real place, and the tradition that the founders of the race were driven out in a local disturbance is actual history. But though the balance of evidence goes to place it in the Malay Archipelago, there are still some who cling to the theory that the Polynesians are migrants from the American continent.

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[1] Thus in Samoa, despite the efforts of the missionaries, it has become fashionable among the young people to pronounce every T as K.

In physique the Polynesians are muscular and well proportioned, of an olive complexion, inclining to reddish yellow, that may best be compared to *café-au-lait*. Their limbs are fleshy though well proportioned, and the chiefs of both sexes are prone to corpulency. Their hair is naturally black and wavy, but frequent cleansing with lime dyes it a tawny brown like sealskin. Their faces are generally pleasant, and sometimes beautiful, especially in the men, who might often be taken as models by a sculptor. There are no negro characteristics in the pure Polynesian.

Their political institutions were generally government by a hereditary chief, but his powers varied with the physical conformation of the island. In mountainous islands, such as the Marquesas, where each tribe lived in its own ravine shut in by inaccessible ridges, every tribe was at war with its neighbours, and the chief's authority was bounded by the confines of his own ravine; in flat islands such as Tonga, his power extended throughout the group. You need, in fact, only examine a map of an island to guess correctly at its politics. In some of the islands the autocratic idea had developed into the dual of the spiritual and temporal authorities, like the Mikado and the Shogun of Japan. At some period in their history the supreme chief had found it prudent to delegate his power to a relation, on whom popular disfavour could vent itself while he sat secure in the enjoyment of superstitious honours without the responsibilities of government. In succeeding generations the temporal chief encroached on the spiritual until the latter grew to be a mere earthly representative of the gods to whom periodical offerings were due, but from whom no interference with mundane affairs would be tolerated. Among no people in the world is noble birth held in such esteem. The supreme chief represented the blood of the common ancestor in its purest form, and no man could rise above the station to which he was born. In Hawaii, as in Siam and elsewhere, the chief often married his half-sister in order that the royal blood might not be diluted. Rank derived through the mother was more accounted of than rank inherited from the father, and this was less a relic of matriarchal institutions than of the fact that in a race of dissolute habits maternity was infinitely less doubtful than paternity.

The mythology of the Polynesians was remote ancestor worship. Recent studies seem to prove this conclusively. The principal gods were once men about whose deeds fancy had wrought a tissue of myths. The chiefs lived again in Bulotu, and interfered in human affairs. Propitiatory offerings were therefore made at their tombs, which, under the name of *marae* or *malae*, were the only temples. There was a priesthood with well-defined privileges, and these personified the ancient gods in the form of diminutive idols, which they consulted as oracles, putting the politic answer into their mouths. The common herd had no souls. The offerings consisted of food—pigs, yams, and the like—but at times of urgent entreaty, such as the sickness of a great chief, children were strangled at the *malae*. The chief public ceremonials were the presentation of first-fruits, and the lifting of the *tabu*.

The *tabu* was the ever-present expression of religion. The word means "forbidden" Certain acts were permanently *tabu*, such as the perpetual ban that lay upon the Marquesan woman against entering a canoe. Persons were *tabu*—sacred to the gods, and might not be touched. Those who touched a corpse were *tabu* until they had cleansed themselves by expiation. And in Tonga it was the habit to avert the nemesis of a possible infringement of the *tabu* by pressing the feet of a superior against the abdomen, a custom that became so irksome to the chiefs that one king of Tonga consecrated a vessel given to him by Tasman as a substitute for his feet. A *tabu* could be laid upon some article of food that was growing scarce, and until it was taken off none dared use it. The Polynesian went through life steering clear of the *tabu*. It was in the air he breathed, in the things he touched and ate, and he only escaped its restrictions in the grave. For the penalty of breaking it was death by disease of the liver, and in Tonga it was the common practice to open bodies slain in war to see whether they had been virtuous. It was the source of the chief's power, and their engine of government. Every great chief was believed to have *mana*, a sort of spiritual exhalation that invested his every word and deed with power, and withered up the plebeian who incautiously approached him. The *tabu* and the *mana* correspond to the *juju* of Benin.

In their form of government, no less than in their physical characteristics, the Melanesian is the antithesis of the Polynesian. As the word Melanesian implies, his complexion is dark-brown inclining to black, with a dull sooty tinge in the skin. His hair is frizzy and matted. He is muscular, but shorter and more squat than the Polynesian, and there is great variety of type among the different islands. His language, too, though derived from common roots, is subject to wider variations. The Melanesian is still in the infancy of human development; the Polynesian is grown to manhood. In Melanesia there are no great chiefs nor powerful confederations. The chiefs govern through a council of the elders of the tribe in which every warrior has some voice. Each little tribal unit is a miniature republic with manhood suffrage. The Melanesians are more warlike and more savage than the Polynesians, and infinitely more primitive. They are a museum of primitive institutions. To go from Tonga to the New Hebrides is to travel back several centuries, to pass from the society of men into the society of schoolboys. They have neither social polish nor pride of birth, and whereas few Polynesians can be found to bind themselves as labourers for Europeans, the Melanesians will readily indenture themselves to the plantations of Samoa, Fiji, and Queensland; and after working faithfully and adopting many European habits, they go back to their islands and straightway revert to their original savagery until the next labour schooner snaps them up. Their familiarity with Europeans has not facilitated intercourse with them. It is now unsafe to land at some islands where Cook was received with perfect friendliness. Outrages upon unarmed vessels, that have long been impossible in Polynesia, still occur occasionally in the western groups. Yet they have many good points. While, with the exception of the Maoris, the Polynesians show little artistic skill, the Melanesians show a marked talent for sculpture. They are very industrious, both as planters and workmen. Their women are more moral than the Polynesian women; their men show a quicker aptitude for acquiring foreign handicrafts. But they are decreasing even more rapidly than the Polynesians, partly from the former depopulation of their islands by the labour trade, partly from the European diseases introduced by returning labourers.

The former population of the islands is very difficult to estimate. The Marquesans and the Fijians were apparently decreasing when they first came under the observation of Europeans, but great epidemics introduced by passing ships had already decimated them. Moreover, like the Aztecs at the time of Cortes' conquest, they had but recently developed intertribal warfare to a pitch unknown before. As far as can be judged from what is known of the present population, compared with the accounts of early voyagers, the inhabitants of all the South Sea Islands, including Hawaii and New Zealand, never numbered more than a million and a quarter. They have shrunk now to something less than half a million. Apart from the main evil of imported disease, the causes of this decrease vary with the island. In Tahiti and Hawaii they are drink and licentiousness; in Tonga and Samoa, a low birth-rate; in Fiji, where the birth-rate is very high, it is infant mortality owing to the insouciance of the mothers; in the Solomons and New Hebrides, the decay of customary law under the influence of the labour trade. But in the atoll islands on the Equator, inhabited by the race called Micronesians, the population is increasing so far out of proportion to the food supply that the people have recourse to artificial restraints, and no woman is allowed to have more than five children. Nations, like individuals, can be stricken with a wasting disease through a sudden change of environment, and perhaps, like individuals, they may become acclimatised to their changed conditions. The position of the Maoris, who have fallen to 40,000 and now seem to be stationary, inspire hope that a similar minimum may be reached by the other perishing races. Otherwise Polynesians and Melanesians alike will pass into history as examples of the relentless triumph of the great, irresistible, and conquering white race.

Last year was the centenary of the Missions to the South Seas of which we have heard so much, both good and evil. They began with Polynesia. In 1797 certain philanthropists in England, inflamed by Captain Cook's account of the Polynesians, despatched a band of artisan missionaries in the ship *Duff*, to teach the gospel and the arts and crafts to the heathen. The idea of employing craftsmen who would gain an influence by their skill was excellent in itself; it failed through the ignorance and tactlessness of the agents chosen, and this is not surprising seeing how difficult it must have been in those perilous days to find volunteers possessed of the qualities of skill, high courage, and true piety. With our century of experience we can see the mistakes now—that the missionaries kept too much together, that they were slow in learning the language, that they owned too much of the property most coveted by the natives. Of the three missions they planted—on Tahiti, the Marquesas, and Tonga—only that of Tahiti survived, and a second voyage of the *Duff* was cut short by a French privateer. Gradually the missions spread westward. Americans exploited Hawaii: the London Missionary Society, led by Williams, overspread Polynesia, the French Roman Catholics disputing some of the ground with them; the Wesleyans, establishing themselves in Tonga in 1822, embraced Fiji, whence, in the last decade, they have sent out emissaries to New Britain and the D'Entrecasteaux. Bishop Selwyn, meanwhile, had pitched the headquarters of the Church of England Mission in Norfolk Island, whither they bring promising converts to undergo a course of teaching in their training school before constituting them teachers to their own people. The Presbyterians divide Melanesia with them. I have neither the inclination nor the space to discuss here the thorny question of the value of missions. They were astonishingly successful in the South Seas, because they had none of the great Oriental faiths to displace, and no well-organised and hostile priesthood to overthrow them. If they won over the chiefs the people followed like a flock of sheep, and the adhesions of the chiefs were often mere political moves to secure the support of the Europeans in their intertribal quarrels. Even when professing Christianity the natives did not believe their own gods to be false gods—rather that it was convenient to discontinue for a season the presentation of offerings to them. How could they be false gods when they were their own ancestors, of whose existence upon earth there could be no shadow of doubt? Nevertheless, the influence of the missionaries waxed with every year.

The Polynesians are born orators, and here was a faith that permitted the meanest of them to declaim from the pulpit, though under the old order he had been born to silence. For this reason the Wesleyans, with their hierarchy of native ministers, catechists, and local preachers, have prospered more than the Roman Catholics, who may not delegate the functions of their priests. With power came power's temptations. The chiefs would do what they were told to do: the missionaries could pull any wire they chose to pull. They were good, well-meaning, narrow-minded men; there was much in native polity that did not accord with the political ideas in which they had been reared. Men worked without a money wage. They were serfs, and must be liberated. The king governed autocratically: as he hoped for salvation he must resign his power to representatives of the people. There must be written laws, and law-courts to administer them, and prisons wherein to detain the condemned of the law-courts. Every man must have but one wife, and lapses from chastity must be sternly repressed. Hence it came that the police and the courts exalted the seventh commandment above the other nine, and the new sins of hypocrisy and scandal-mongering were brought into being. There were also scandals about the means taken to collect money for the mission, which do not concern us, since they had no ill effect upon the natives themselves.

Yet, though the missionaries have hastened the decay of the best features of the native polity, they were doomed already. The beach-comber and the trader had seen to that, and, quite apart from the religious aspect of the question, it is probable that the missions have saved the natives from a worse moral anarchy than that through which they are now passing. The new order had to come, and they have done much to alleviate the worst features of the transition.

The influence of the missions in Polynesia has passed its youth, and is now waning, and for this they have themselves to blame. There was no division of territory. The Roman Catholics were last in the field, and on their coming ensued a war of mutual recrimination and reprisal. The natives rushed joyfully into the fray, and showed a marked aptitude for theological polemics, that frequently degenerated into persecution. The result might have been foreseen. Some of the mud thrown by both sides stuck. There were frequent desertions from one sect to the other. Wesleyanism was no longer the creed of the superior race. There were other white men, quite as learned as the Wesleyans, who declared it to be false. The natives even started little schisms of their own.

The methods of the various missions differ. The Wesleyans live among the natives with their families, receiving £200 a year, with an annual allowance for each child. The Roman Catholics live with the utmost frugality upon £30 a year, and collect very little money from their adherents. The Church of England clergy, who have unhealthy fever-haunted islands to deal with, live at Norfolk Island, and pay periodical visits to their native resident teachers. The Wesleyans inculcate abstention from *kava*, and even tobacco; the Anglicans and Catholics, on the contrary, encourage harmless indulgence and amusement.

Most of the South Sea Islands have now been appropriated. France, much against the will of its inhabitants, has taken Tahiti, the Marquesas, and New Caledonia, the last being a convict colony; Germany holds the Marshalls, the Northern Solomons, and a strip on the northern coast of New Guinea, but without making much attempt to govern them. The Americans hold Hawaii; and England has Fiji, the Gilbert and Ellice groups, the Raratongan or Cook group, part of the Solomons, the Louisiade, and D'Entrecasteaux groups, South-Eastern New Guinea, and Norfolk Island, besides a number of small islands annexed with a view to future cable stations. Tonga is independent under its own native government; Samoa is nominally the same, but the strings of the native government are manipulated by the representatives of England, Germany, and the United States, an arrangement which all agree in condemning, but none will remedy by relinquishing their claim. The New Hebrides are not yet actually appropriated. The French have cast covetous eyes upon them, but the well-founded objections of Australians to have another penal settlement so near their shores have hitherto sufficed to restrain them.

There is settled government throughout Polynesia. In the Melanesian groups, however, the Protectorates are nominal. The Solomons and New Hebrides are patrolled by English ships of war, whose captains have the judicial powers of Deputy Commissioners under the Governor of Fiji, who is *ex-officio* High Commissioner, but their jurisdiction does not cover offences committed by subjects of other nations. They punish outrages committed by the natives on Europeans by arresting the ringleader when he can be caught, or bombarding the village when he cannot, but there is no system of native government. The European population of these islands can almost be counted upon the fingers. The climate is malarious, and where there is no European settlement, it is impossible to make a government self-supporting. There are few plantations, the Europeans being all engaged in trading with the natives, and, considering the extraordinary fertility of the soil, and the three centuries that have elapsed since Mendaña's discovery, it seems probable that the climate will prove a barrier to colonisation for many years to come. Fiji and the islands to the eastward are free from malaria, and Europeans of both sexes there live to a great age. The climate is a little hotter than an English summer, and the damp heat of the rainy season is trying, but Europeans can do any kind of work except field-labour.

The commercial prosperity of the islands lies in the future. Every kind of tropical produce thrives luxuriantly, but the market for tropical produce is overstocked. The two sugar-producing groups, Fiji and Hawaii, are suffering from the Sugar Bounties, for both have had to import their labourers—the former from India and the latter from Japan. The second great staple, copra, or dried cocoa-nut from which the oil is pressed for candle-making, has to compete with copra grown nearer to the European markets. Coffee has been nearly destroyed by the leaf disease; tea and tobacco, though they are of excellent quality, have not yet become known to European buyers. And bananas, in which a very profitable trade had sprung up with Australia and New Zealand, have lately developed a mysterious disease which has baffled every attempt at scientific treatment.

The future of the islands is bound up with the future of Australasia. When the population of Australia attains ten millions the problem of a market will vanish. Tropical Queensland, hampered with labour difficulties that will not affect the islands, will not suffice for the demand for sugar, tea, and fruit, and while there will be no rush of prosperity, there will be a steady increase in wealth and comfort. I do not think the European population will ever be large. For many generations the islands will be holiday resorts. Europeans will conduct the business of the towns and manage the plantations; but the subordinate posts and the country trade will be in the hands of coloured people, Indians, natives, and Chinese. The population will undergo great changes. Little by little the natives will disappear as a distinct race, and a mixed race, a blend between all the races that now inhabit the islands, will take their place. The process of miscegenation has already begun, and commercial prosperity attracting men of every race to the seats of commerce will accelerate it enormously.

The form of government will change. At this moment only one island in the Western Pacific is fortified, namely, New Caledonia, and in the event of a war with France, it would lie at the mercy of our Australian squadron, who already possess detailed plans of its defences. Tahiti and the Marquesas would also pass to us. Already the German New Guinea Company, the only German colony in which any attempt at government has been undertaken, is weary of its bargain. The Germans, excellent colonists as they are under a foreign flag, are utterly wanting in the knack of administering colonies of their own, and we may look forward confidently to the day when they will be glad to resign their possession in the Pacific whenever an opportunity arrives for doing so without sacrificing prestige. England is the only power that has succeeded in establishing a self-supporting colony in the South Seas, and in governing and training the natives without a single soldier or a ship of war in the islands; and Englishmen are the only Europeans who seem able to win the respect and affection of the natives. The destinies of the islands are at one with the destinies of Australia, and after the federation of Australasia must come the administration of Polynesia by Australasia. New Zealand already governs the Cook group, Queensland, British New Guinea. It is only a question of time when the other English possessions fall into their hands. It will not come in our day, for the pledges England has given to the natives of Fiji forbid the handing over of that colony in this generation, but come it must by a natural process, even if an European war does not cut a shorter road.

In the meantime the romance of the South Seas will remain untouched. The trader, the beach-comber, and the native will still be as Robert Louis Stevenson, Lord Pembroke, and Mr. Louis Becke have drawn them. The glorious scenery of the isles of reef and palm will remain unspoiled.

APPENDIX

AUSTRALASIA

Old manuscript charts, bearing date 1531 and 1542, mark a land agreeing to Australia as Jave la Grande, and there is little doubt that Australia must have been discovered by the Portuguese between 1507–29. The French appear to have visited it, but to the Dutch belongs the credit of making the country known. About 1606 the Dutch ship *Dvyphen* (Dove) from Java, entered the Gulf of Carpentaria, and some of the crew who landed were killed by the natives—the same vessel, in 1606, sighted Cape York. In 1616, Dirk Hartog coasted on the north-west; he was followed by Zaachen in 1618, and Captain Jan Edels in 1619. In 1642, Abel Jansen Tasman discovered Tasmania and New Zealand. In 1664, the continent was named New Holland by the Dutch Government. In 1699, Captain Dampier (the first Englishman who trod Australian soil) landed on the north-west coast of Western Australia. In 1770, Captain Cook visited New Zealand. In 1788, the first settlement in Australia was formed at Botany Bay. In 1791, Captain Vancouver explored the south coast. In 1801, Baudin and Freycinet (two Frenchmen) explored the south-west coast of West Australia. In 1803, Tasmania or Van Diemen's Land was first settled as a penal colony. In 1825, Queensland (Moreton Bay) was settled. The Swan River Settlement was made in 1829, and in 1851 became a penal settlement, and continued so until 1868. Victoria (Port Phillip) was colonised in 1834, South Australia in 1836, and New Zealand in 1838. In 1840, New Zealand was made a distinct colony. Fiji was ceded to Great Britain in 1874. In 1887 the formal annexation of the Kermadec Islands was made; the Suwarrow Group in 1889; the Gilbert Islands and Marshall Islands in 1892. In

1893 a British protectorate was proclaimed over Solomon Islands, and in 1900 over the Tonga Islands.

Each of the several Australian colonies must be considered in many respects as a distinct province, having its own government, local laws, and fiscal duties. They all possess responsible government, and the form of government is a modification of the British Constitution. The Governor represents the Queen, and is appointed by the Crown; the House of Lords is represented by the Legislative Council, either nominated or elected; the House of Commons by the Legislative Assembly, elected by the people. The Imperial laws are in force unless superseded by local enactments, which, however, must receive the Queen's assent. The franchise amounts almost to manhood suffrage. Women's parliamentary suffrage has been granted in New Zealand and South Australia.

	Upper House.				Lower House.		
	Number of Members.	Manner of Appointment.	Term.	Electors.	Members.	Electors.	Term of Years.
New South Wales	69	Nominated by Governor	Life	...	125	324,338	3
Victoria	48	Elected	6 years	129,920	95	252,582	3
Queensland . . .	42	Nominated	Life	...	72	97,046	3
South Australia .	24	Elected	6 years	47,151	54	152,391	3
Western Australia	24	..	6 ,,	...	44	21,810	4
Tasmania	19	..	6 ,,	9,359	38	34.528	3
New Zealand .	26	Nominated[1]	Life	...	70	339,230	3
	20	Elected	7 years	...	4 Maoris	13,008	3

The electoral rolls are made up annually in New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania; quarterly in Western Australia; bi-monthly in Queensland; de-cennially in South Australia. In all cases, however, there is at least an annual revision. In New South Wales every elector must apply for enrolment; in Victoria and Tasmania enrolment is from ratepayers' roll, and for non-ratepayers by application: in Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and New Zealand by application. In South Australia and New Zealand women have the franchise, and may be members of both Houses.

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[1] Prior to 1891, when future appointments were made tenable for seven years only.

There is in all the Colonies an excess of bout 12½ per cent. of the male population; in Western Australia, however, it amounts to more than double. The Chinese are represented by over 40,000, but they are on the decrease. There are about 100,000 aborigines. The press is represented by about 1000 newspapers. In nearly every township a Public Library, Mechanic's Institute, or School of Arts is to be found.

There is no State Church, but as regards numbers the Episcopalians are the dominant body; the Roman Catholics come next.

Education is free, or nearly so, compulsory, and secular; and in some cases to the absolute exclusion of Bible reading. There are five universities—Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, New Zealand, and Otago; the first four confer degrees. In all the capitals are large botanical gardens maintained by the State. There are in the different colonies a regular, a militia, and a volunteer force. By the Australian Naval Force Act of 1887 a fleet of five fast cruisers and two torpedo gunboats have been equipped for the Australian seas. The total subsidy from the seven colonies was £126,000. The cruisers are now growing obsolete.

In 1885 the Federal Council of Australasia was constituted, at the instance of Victoria, for the purpose of dealing with matters of common Australian interest; and since its foundation there have been eight sessions. New South Wales and New Zealand have not joined the Council, and Western Australia was not represented at the fourth session; South Australia was represented only at the third, Fiji only at the first. At the sixth session an address to the Queen was adopted, praying for the appointment of an Australasian Representative on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council Bench. Chief-Justice Way of South Australia was so appointed, and proceeded to England in 1897 to assume the duties of his office.

In 1895, at the instance of the Hon. G. H. Reid, Premier of New South Wales, a Conference of Premiers of all the Australasian Colonies, except New Zealand, was held in Hobart, to consider the subject of federation. An enabling Bill was drafted and agreed to, as a type of Bill suitable for giving effect to the resolution of the Conference. Further conferences of Premiers were held in Sydney, 1896; Hobart, 1897; Melbourne, 1898. At the first all except West Australia and

New Zealand attended; at the second, all; at the third, all except New Zealand were represented. In 1899 a referendum to the electors was made in all the Australian Colonies except Western Australia, with the following majorities for federation:—

New South Wales	24,679
Victoria	142,848
Queensland	7,492
South Australia	47,929
Tasmania	12,646

And on May 31, 1900, the majority in Western Australia was 22,111, on a poll of 60,908.

The Australasian Federation Bill having passed through the Imperial Parliament, the Queen gave her Royal assent on 9th July 1900, and appointed Lord Hopetoun Governor-General.

New South Wales.—This part of the Australian coast is said to have been discovered by the Portuguese and Dutch navigators in the seventeenth century. Captain Cook, after landing an astronomical party at Tahiti, explored the coast in 1770, and gave it the name of New South Wales, from its fancied resemblance to South Wales (United Kingdom), and took possession in the name of the King of England. The natives were not friendly, and prevented a landing at Cape Howe. The first settlement was made in 1788, as a convict station, at Port Jackson (Botany Bay), under Captain Phillip, when 1030 persons were landed. Sydney, the capital, was so named after Viscount Sydney, the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The settlement of New South Wales originally included the whole of the eastern portion of the continent. Merino sheep were introduced in 1797. The first newspaper was established in 1803. The passage into the interior through the Blue Mountains was not made until 1813. Moreton Bay was settled in 1824, and made a separate colony in 1859, under the name of Queensland. Convicts ceased to arrive in 1841. Gold was discovered in 1851. Victoria was settled in 1836, and made a separate colony in 1851.

Education is under the control of the Minister of Public Instruction. Teachers are civil servants. The school fee is 3d. per week, which includes a free pass on railway to school, if necessary. The education is compulsory from six to fourteen, and undenominational. The University of Sydney has power to grant degrees.

The constitution of New South Wales vests the Government in a Governor representing the Crown, and a Parliament of two Houses, the first called the Legislative Council, and the second the Legislative Assembly. The Governor is appointed by the Home Authorities for five years, and paid by the Colonial Government; he has the power of assenting or otherwise to Acts of Parliament, appointing the members to the Legislative Council, proroguing and summoning Parliament, and dissolving the House of Assembly. The Legislative Council consists of an unlimited number of members, appointed for life, who are unpaid. The Council now consists of sixty-nine members. The Legislative Assembly consists of 125 members, elected by manhood suffrage for 125 consituencies. Elections are on the the same day, and by ballot, and there is one man one vote. The Assembly lasts for three years. Members are paid £300 per annum, and are allowed a free pass on all railways and tram-lines throughout the Colony. The first Legislative Council dates from 1824. It was enlarged and made elective in 1842, and Responsible Government was established in 1855.

The dependencies of New South Wales are—

Pitcairn Island was discovered by Carteret in 1767, and remained uninhabited until 1780, when it was occupied by the mutineers of H.M.S. *Bounty*, with some women from Otaheite. Nothing was known of their existence until 1808. In 1856 the population became too large for the resources of the island, and the inhabitants, to the number of 192, were removed, at their own request, to Norfolk Island, but 40 returned. The population in 1879 was ninety.

Norfolk Island is the chief of a group discovered by Captain Cook in 1774. They remained uninhabited until 1788, when a penal settlement was formed there from Botany Bay. This was removed in 1855, and in 1856 the inhabitants of Pitcairn Island were brought to the group. There is a resident magistrate.

Lord Howe Island is administered by a visiting magistrate from Sydney.

VICTORIA—It is thought that Captain Cook with his crew, in 1770, were the first Europeans who sighted any portion of the land now called Victoria. Upon his return to England he reported the eastern part of Australia to be suitable for colonisation. The first Europeans who trod the soil were Mr. Clarke and some of the crew of the *Sydney Cove*, who were driven ashore south of Cape Howe. Although a settlement was made at Port Jackson in 1788, nothing was done to explore the western shores. George Bass, a surgeon of the Royal Navy, in a whale-boat manned by six seamen, passed Cape Howe, rounded Wilson's Promontory, and entered Western Port on June 4, 1798, but did not discover Port Phillip Bay, which was first entered on January 5, 1802, by Lieut. John Murray in command of the armed brig, *Lady Nelson*. In October 1803, an unsuccessful attempt was made by Lieut.-Col. David Collins to colonise Port Phillip with convicts. Twenty years later two explorers, Hume and Hovell, made their way overland from Sydney and gave a satisfactory account of the country, and a convict establishment was founded on Western Port Bay, but soon abandoned. The first permanent settlement in Victoria was made at Portland Bay by Edward Henty from Van Diemen's Land on November 19, 1834. The capital was founded at the northern end of Port Phillip Bay by two parties from Van Diemen's Land, one led by John Batman, who landed on May 29, 1835, and the other led by John Pascoe Fawkner, who arrived at the site of Melbourne on 28th August 1835. These parties were met by Major Mitchell, who entered from the North from New South Wales, and his report of the land brought many ship-loads of immigrants. Captain Wm. Lonsdale was sent from Sydney in 1836 to take charge of the district. In 1837 Sir Richard Bourke visited and named the metropolis Melbourne. A Lieut.-Governor was appointed on July 1, 1851, and it became a separate colony under the name of Victoria. Gold was soon after found, and on November 23, 1855, a new constitution giving responsible government was proclaimed. The Government consists of a Governor, appointed by the Crown, aided in the conduct of public affairs by responsible ministers. There is a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. The members for the Legislative Council are elected for six years. Some electoral provinces return three, others four members. In each district one member retires every two years, and, where there are four members, there is an additional election every six years. There is a property qualification for members and electors. Members are unpaid. The members for the Legislative Assembly are elected for three years by ballot. There is manhood suffrage. Members receive £300 per annum. All but about one per cent. of the area of Victoria is divided into urban or rural municipal boards to which women are eligible.

The education is secular, compulsory from six to thirteen years of age, and free.

QUEENSLAND.—Captain Cook landed in Moreton Bay in 1770; but the Brisbane River was not discovered until 1823, by Oxley, who named it after Sir T. Brisbane, the Governor of New South Wales, and the Moreton Bay Settlement was formed from New South Wales in 1824. The Darling Downs were explored in 1828, and squatters began to settle; but the territory was not thrown open to colonisation until 1842. Leichhardt explored the country in 1845–7, and Kennedy in the York Peninsula, in 1847. It was separated from New South Wales on December 10, 1859, and became a separate Colony, under the name of Queensland—having responsible government from the first.

The *Government* consists of a Governor and two Houses. The Legislative Council, which is unlimited, consists of members nominated by the Governor for life. The present number is forty-two. The members are unpaid, but they receive a free railway pass. The Legislative Assembly consists of members elected for three years; they receive £300 per annum and a free railway pass, and nomination travelling expenses.

Education.—The central administration is vested in the Secretary for Public Instruction, and is carried out through the medium of travelling Inspectors. Schools are free and unsectarian.

BRITISH NEW GUINEA.—The island of New Guinea was discovered in 1511 by Antonio de Abrea. The whole of the island to the west of 141° E. long. is claimed by the Dutch as suzerains of the Sultan of Tidore. The Dutch have not as yet taken any steps to settle their part of the island, and raid from it into the British possessions have done much harm. The portion to the eastward of 141° E. long., and to the north of British New Guinea, belongs to the German Empire. The Germans have established a government in their district, and have started several industries. The south-eastern portion was annexed by the Government of Queensland on April 4, 1883, to prevent it being taken by some foreign power; and on the Australasian Colonies agreeing to guarantee £15,000 a year to meet the cost, the Imperial Government proclaimed a Protectorate on November 6, 1884, over the south-east coast of New Guinea and the adjacent islands. The Colony was annexed to the Crown in 1888, the Colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland guaranteeing £15,000 a year, for ten years, for defraying the cost of administration. The local revenue raised is paid over to Queensland for distribution to the guaranteeing colonies.

The possession has the constitution of a Crown Colony. There was no form of government among the native population. A certain measure of influence is being created now by a few men, acting under Government authority, and the gradual creation of a force of village policemen. Legislation is effected by means of a local legislature, named by the Crown; and consisting, with one exception, of officers of the Government. The drafts of laws are submitted to the Governor of Queensland, and that Colony, with New South Wales and Victoria, exercises, with the Secretary of State for the Colonies, a supervision over the affairs of the Possession. The education is in the hands of missionary societies.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.—The south coast was surveyed by Flinders in 1802, and Sturt in 1829 discovered the Murray River. The South Australian Company, upon Wakefield's principles, was formed in England in 1834, and the early settlements were formed at Kangaroo Island and Adelaide in 1836. In this year Captain John Hindmarsh planted the British flag at Glenelg, and South Australia began its career as a British Colony. Responsible government was established in 1856. The northern territory was added to the Colony in 1861 and 1863.

Government.—There is a Governor and two Houses of Parliament. The Legislative Council is elected for six years; members are at least thirty years of age and paid £200 per annum. House of Assembly is elected for three years; members are paid £200 per annum. Women can vote for members of both Houses. There are thirty-three municipalities. The governing body consists of Mayors (Alderman for Adelaide), and Councillors.

Education is secular (Bible not excluded), compulsory, and free. Adelaide has a University with the power of granting degrees.

In the northern territory there are many Chinese.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA. — Although the western coast had frequently been visited by Portuguese and Dutch voyagers after the discovery by Menezes in 1527, it was not until it became a British possession that it attracted much attention. In 1697, the entrance to the Swan River was discovered. In 1791, Vancouver discovered King George's Sound. In 1825, the Governor of New South Wales sent a detachment of soldiers to King George's Sound, which was the first permanent settlement, consisting of a detachment of the 39th Regiment and a number of convicts, seventy-five persons in all. In 1827, Captain James Stirling surveyed the coast from King George's Sound to the Swan River. In 1829, Captain (Sir Charles) Fremantle took possession of the territory. In June 1829, Captain (Sir James) Stirling founded the Colony of Western Australia, and the towns of Perth and Fremantle, and was appointed Lieutenant-Governor. Large grants of land were made to early settlers. In 1850, the colony was in a languishing condition, and its inhabitants petitioned that it might be made a penal settlement, and convicts were sent up to 1868, 9718 convicts in all. Since 1868 none have been sent, and in 1886 only forty Imperial prisoners remained. The convict establishment was transferred to the Colonial Government on March 31, 1886.

Government.—Previous to 1890 the constitution consisted of a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council composed of the principal officers of the Government, and the Governor had power to appoint two unofficial members. There was also a Legislative Council, consisting of the Executive Council (with the exception of the Colonial Treasurer), 5 nominees of the Governor, and 17 elected members. A responsible

Government was granted in October 1890, and consists of the Governor and two elective Houses.

Legislative Council of 24 members is elected for six years. Members must be thirty years of age, resident for two years in colony; natural-born subjects of Her Majesty, or naturalised for five years. Electors must be twenty-one years of age, and be possessed of £100 freehold estate, or householder of £25 annual value.

Legislative Assembly consists of 44 members, elected for four years. Electors must be twenty-one years of age.

Local Government.—Municipal Elective Councils exist in towns not exceeding 1000, with one chairman and six councillors; 1000 to 5000, a mayor and nine councillors; above 5000, a mayor and three councillors for each ward.

Education.—Government secular schools exist all over the Colony under the supervision of the Minister of Education, assisted by elected district boards. There are compulsory clauses, but they are not enforced. There is a board of management appointed by the Governor, which deals with all matters connected with the aborigines.

Tasmania was discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator, Abel Jan Tasman, who named it Van Diemen's Land, after the Governor-General of Dutch East Indies, by which name it was known until 1856. In 1772, Captain Marion du Fresne, a French navigator, landed at Frederick Hendrik Bay, but having a poor opinion of its productiveness, soon left.

Captain Cook landed at Adventure Bay in 1777. It was visited by Lieutenant Blight in 1792. It was not discovered to be an island until 1797. In 1802 the French Exploring Expedition examined the eastern coast. It was taken possession of by England in 1803, and made auxiliary to the penal settlement at Botany Bay. The first free immigrants arrived in 1816, and the last convicts in 1853. Responsible government was introduced in 1856.

Government.—There is a Governor and two Houses of Parliament. The Legislative Council consists of members elected for six years old from day of his election. Members must be thirty years old, and naturalised. Electors, small property qualification.

House of Assembly is elected by ballot for three years.

Education is compulsory, and free only to those unable to pay fees. There is non-sectarian religious instruction.

New Zealand was discovered in 1642 by the Dutch navigator Tasman, who, however, did not land. In 1769, Captain Cook visited at and explored its coast. Traders and whalers called here chiefly from Australia. In 1840, the native chiefs ceded the sovereignty of New Zealand to the British Crown by the Treaty of Waitangi. The Aborigines (Maoris), a branch of the Polynesian race, according to tradition, came to New Zealand about 600 years ago from the Sandwich Islands. They are divided into about twenty different clans. There have been two Maori wars, 1845–48, 1860–70; but fully half the clans have always been friendly to the English, and many fought on its side.

Constitution.—The country was at first a dependency of New South Wales, but was separated in 1842. The settlement was largely effected by the New Zealand Company, whose royal charter was surrendered in 1850. Down to 1847 the Executive and Legislative Councils were both nominated by the Governor; in that year a constitutional form of government was established, with the colony divided into six, subsequently increased to nine, provinces, each governed by a Superintendent and Provincial Council, elected by household suffrage. In 1876 the provincial system was abolished: powers previously exercised by superintendents and provincial officers are now exercised by the Governor or by Local Boards. The provincial system being abolished, provision was made for the division of the colony into counties and boroughs, and the necessary machinery for their self-government was provided.

The General Assembly was established in 1852, consisting of the Governor, a Legislative Council, and House of Representatives. The Governor is assisted by an Executive Council, composed of responsible ministers of the colony. The Legislative Councillors are appointed by the Governor, and up to 1891 held their seats for life; from that time future appointments were to be for seven years. Members are paid £150 a year. The members of the House of Representatives are chosen by electors possessing a liberal franchise; each elector is qualified to become a member. There are 74, including four Maori members (elected by the natives). Members are paid £240 per annum. In 1893, women were qualified as electors. One adult one vote. In 1863, the control of native affairs was removed from the Imperial to the Colonial Government. In 1865, the seat of government was removed from Auckland to Wellington. For local government the colony is divided into 97 municipalities and 81 counties; the latter is subdivided into 242 road districts and 40 town districts.

Education.—The central administration is vested in a Minister of Education, and the local control is in the hands of educational boards and of school committees. Schools are free, non-sectarian, and education is compulsory. The University of New Zealand confers degrees.

Fiji.—The principal inhabited islands are Viti Levu, Vanua Levu, Taviuni, Kada, Kadavu, Koro, Gan, Ovalan, Rotumah.

The islands were discovered by Tasman in 1643, and visited by Captain Cook in 1769. Missionaries settled in Fiji in 1835, and, after a time, met with great success. In 1859 Thakombau, the most powerful chief of Fiji, offered the sovereignty of the islands to Great Britain; the offer was declined by the Duke of Newcastle in 1862. About this time, owing to the American Civil War, a number of Europeans settled in Fiji for the purpose of cotton cultivation, and in June 1871, certain Englishmen set up a Fijian Government, with Thakombau as king. A constitution was agreed upon, and a parliament elected, but it was not a success. In 1874 Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of New South Wales, successfully negotiated with Thakombau, Maafu, and other chiefs for the annexation of Fiji.

Rotumah was discovered by the *Pandora* in 1793, when searching for the mutineers of the *Bounty*. In 1879 the three principal Rotumah chiefs offered the island and the islets of Hattana, Hoflua, and Waya to Great Britain, and they were annexed on May 13, 1881. A European commissioner resides on the island, and is (under the Governor of Fiji) the chief executor and judicial authority in Rotumah. The island is divided into seven districts, over each of which a chief rules.

Constitution.—The Executive Council consists of the Governor and four official members; the Legislative Council of Governor, six official, and six non-official nominated members. A large share of self-government has been conceded to the natives, with their system of village and district councils—the regulations recommended by these bodies, have, however, to receive the sanction of the legislative councils. Education is free.

Western Pacific.—The High Commissioner for the Western Pacific, assisted by deputies, has jurisdiction in accordance with an order of Council, 1893, for carrying out the provision of the Pacific Islanders Protection Acts of 1872, 1875, and to settle disputes between British subjects living in those islands. The jurisdiction of the High Commissioner extends over all the Western Pacific not included in the limits of Fiji, Queensland, or New South Wales, or the jurisdiction of any civilised Power, and includes the southern Solomon Islands, New Hebrides, Samoa Islands, Tonga, and various groups in Melanesia.

Many of the facts and statistics in this Appendix are gathered from the "Colonial Office Hand-Book," *published by* Messrs. Harrison & Sons, *to whom the editor and publishers of* the "British Empire Series" *desire to express their grateful obligation.*

THE END

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