Sa 5

THE BRITISH EMPIRE AT HOME AND ABROAD



The British Empire

At Home and Abroad



92

AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH: SIGNING DEED OF FEDERATION

n1123

AUSTRALIAN COMMONWEALTH

The illustration represents the formal inauguration of the newest nation in the world—the Commonwealth of Australia—in the signing of the oath of allegiance to Queen Victoria, by the Governor-General and the Ministers of the new federation of states. At this august ceremony, which took place at Sydney on January 1st, 1901, in a pavilion specially erected in the Centennial Park, the chief parts were taken by the Earl of Hopetoun (Governor-General), the Hon. E. Barton (Premier of the Commonwealth), Sir W. Lyne (Premier of New South Wales), Sir F. Darley (Lieut.-Gov. of N.S.W.), Sir John Forrest (Premier of Western Australia), and Admiral Pearson, commanding on the Australian Station. The table upon which the oaths were signed was the one used by the Queen when she gave her assent to the Commonwealth Constitution. Lord Hopetoun, when he took the oaths, stood upon a stone with six sides representing the six federating states. A vast crowd of persons, including 10,000 school-children, viewed the proceedings from the park-terraces. Botany Bay, with the exact spot of Captain Cook's first landing in 1770, was in full view from the adjacent high ground.

21125



The British Empire

At Home and Abroad

G. B. Colonial

An Account of its Origin, Progress, and Present Position
With full Descriptions of
Canada, Australasia, South Africa, India, and
Other Colonies and Dependencies

BY

EDGAR SANDERSON

M.A. (CANTAB.)

AUTHOR OF "HISTORY OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE" "OUTLINES OF THE WORLD'S HISTORY", ETC.

WITH MANY ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS





NEW EDITION

Greatly Enlarged and brought down to the Beginning of
the Twentieth Century

Vol. VI

LONDON

THE GRESHAM PUBLISHING COMPANY

34 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND.

CONTENTS.

VOL. VI.

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

	Page
Australian Federation	*Frontis.* 383
Negroes at work in a Sugar-cane Plantation in Jamaica	16
King Edward VII	30
Trinidad Coolies at work in a Cane-field	57
"Black Thursday", February 6th, 1851	92
King Watching the Last Moments of Burke	116
Attack on a Gold Escort	132
Sir Henry Parkes	143
Sir George Grey	200
Cattle-mustering in Queensland	220
Queen Alexandra	256
A Maori War-dance	294
A Sheep Station on Canterbury Plains	316
A Camel-caravan—Western Australia	353
Lord Hopetoun	387
Map of West Indies, British Guiana, Central America, and part of Columbia	1
Map of Australia and New Zealand	87

BOOK VI.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER XI.—West Indies.

Extent and population of the British West Indian islands—Effects of negro emancipation—Decline of the sugar trade—Growth of new products. The Bahamas—Barbados—Jamaica, and its dependencies the Turks and Caicos Islands, Cayman Islands, and the Morant and Pedro Cays. The Leeward Islands: Antigua, with Barbuda and Redonda—St. Christopher or St. Kitts—Nevis—Anguilla—Dominica—Montserrat. The Virgin Islands: Tortola, Virgin Gorda—Anegada. Sombrero. The Windward Islands: Grenada, its Government, Climate, and Industry—Grenadines—St. Vincent, its great Volcanic Eruption—St. Lucia, Picturesque Beauty, Coaling Station—Trinidad, "The Land of the Humming-Bird", Picton's Firm Administration, Coolie Immigration, Unsurpassed Scenery, Varied and Increasing Population, Agricultural Products—Tobago - - - - - - - - - 1

CHAPTER XII.—Bermuda, British Honduras, British Guiana.

Extent and population of Bermuda—Physical features—Delightful climate of Main Island—Trade—Naval Establishments—Hamilton Port—Administration—Education—Communication—Revenue. Boundaries, area, and population of British Honduras—Physical

Page

geography and climate—Mahogany, logwood, and other products—Belize city—Communication—Trade—Revenue—Administration—Education. Early exploration of BRITISH GUIANA—Settlement by the Dutch—Ceded to Britain—Agitation among the Slaves—Case of John Smith the missionary—His cruel treatment and death—Brutality of the governor—Intolerance of the slave-owners—Boundaries and population of the country—Geographical features—Flora and fauna—Rivers—Climate—Products—Gold-mining—Trade—Administration—Education—Revenue—Communication—Georgetown city—New Amsterdam - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 65

BOOK VII.—BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AUSTRALASIA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.—AUSTRALIA: GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

Vast progress of the Australian colonies—Area and coast-line—Physical features—Mountains—Table-lands and deserts—Rivers and lakes—Climate—Droughts and floods—Mineral wealth—Absence of food-producing plants—Changes effected—Native Vegetation—Animal life—Description of the aborigines - - - - - - - - - - - - - 87

CHAPTER II.—EXPLORATION.

Difficulties of exploration—Discoveries of Oxley and Allan Cunningham—of Ovens and Currie—of Hume and Hovell—Captain Sturt and Major Mitchell—Expeditions of Eyre, M'Millan, Leichhardt, and Kennedy—John M'D. Stuart, Burke, and Wills—John King found among the natives—Landsborough and M'Kinlay - - - - - - - - - - - 102

CHAPTER III.—NEW SOUTH WALES: HISTORY FROM 1801 TO 1851.

Administration of Governor King—Progress—Governor Bligh deposed—Improvements under Governor Macquarie—Exploration—Sir Thomas M. Brisbane and Sir Ralph Darling—Governor Bourke—Agitation for representative institutions—A popular Legislative Council established—Financial depression—Improved condition of the colony—A new constitution—Discovery of gold—Mr. Edward H. Hargreaves, the pioneer of gold-mining in the colony—The gold-fever described—Rapid rise of towns—Measures adopted to preserve law and order - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 118

CHAPTER IV.—NEW SOUTH WALES—*Continued.* HISTORY FROM 1851 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Condition of the colony in 1861—Political changes—A new Land Act passed—Bush-ranging—Daring exploits of the Kelly gang or "iron-clad bush-rangers"—Increasing prosperity of the colony—Sir Hercules Robinson—International Exhibition at Sydney—Colonial troops sent to the Soudan—Governorship of Lord Carrington—Chinese immigration prohibited—Proposals for Australasian federation - - - - - - - - - 130

CHAPTER V.—NEW SOUTH WALES—*Continued.* SCENERY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Area and population of the colony—Climate—Coast-line—Surface of the land—The river Darling—Port Jackson or Sydney Harbour—Political constitution—Ecclesiastical affairs—Educational system—Administration of justice—Exceptions from the law of England—Industries—The wool trade—Squatter life—Statistics of pastoral progress—Agriculture—Cultivation of the sugar-cane and vine—Minerals—Manufactures—Internal communications—Roads and railways—Telegraph and postal systems—Intercolonial and foreign trade—Lines of ocean steamers—Financial affairs—Customs-duties—Sydney described—Newcastle, Maitland, Parramatta, Bathurst, Bourke, Goulburn, and other towns - - - - - 143

Page

CHAPTER VI.—VICTORIA. HISTORY TO THE PRESENT TIME: GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early settlement—Self-government granted—Separated from New South Wales—Discovery of Gold—Increase of population—A new constitution established—Political conflicts—Constitutional changes—Progress of the colony—Political divisions—Religion—Port Phillip—The mountain-system—Scenery—Rivers—Climate—Industries—Irrigation work—Mildura town—Mineral wealth—Manufactures—Trade—Internal communication—Telegraph and postal services—Ecclesiastical affairs—Education—Courts of justice—Revenue—Customs-duties—Public debt—Constitution of the Victorian parliament—Melbourne and its suburbs described—Geelong, Ballarat, and other towns - - - - - - - - - 168

CHAPTER VII.—SOUTH AUSTRALIA: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early explorations—First colonization—The South Australian Land and Colonization Company—Establishment of the colony proclaimed—Quarrels of the officials—Governor Grey—Rapid development—Discovery of copper—Governorship of Sir Henry Young—Responsible government introduced—The overland telegraph—Financial depression—The changes of fifty years—Boundaries, area, and population of the colony—Religion—Climate—Coast-line—Mountain ranges and vast plains—Adelaide described—Railway engineering. The NORTHERN TERRITORY—Palmerston town—Rivers—Climate. Chief industries—Trade—Railways—System of Government—Education—Administration of justice—Revenue—Customs-duties—Public debt - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 197

CHAPTER VIII.—QUEENSLAND: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early history of Moreton Bay—Increase of free colonists—Queensland constituted—Discovery of gold, copper, tin, and coal—Importation of coolies—The Mount Morgan Mine—Bold policy of Sir Thomas M'Ilwraith—Proposed annexation of New Guinea—Sir Samuel Griffith—The disastrous floods of 1893—Area and physical features—Rivers—Climate—Population—Aborigines—Religious denominations—Features of the coast—Political divisions—Industries—Value of the forests—Live stock—Manufactures—Exports and imports—Mineral wealth—Brisbane—Ipswich and other towns—Means of communication—Railways, telegraphs, and postal system—Lines of steamers—Government—Education—Revenue and import duties—Public expenditure and debt—Assisted immigration—The trade in South Sea Islanders - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 218

CHAPTER IX.—WESTERN AUSTRALIA: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early navigators on the west coast of Australia—First settlement—A colony founded at Swan River—Unsuitable immigrants—Characteristics of the colonists—Depressed condition of the colony in 1846—Convict-labour—Improvements under Sir F. A. Weld—Explorations—Agitation for responsible government—Career of Sir Frederick N. Broome—Becomes self-governing—Marvellous yield of gold—Rapid rise of Coolgardie—Boundaries and area of the colony—Its physical features—Climate—Population—King George's Sound—Character and products of the soil—Valuable timber-trees—Growth of cereals and the vine—Live stock—Exports and imports—Railways—The telegraph and telephone—Lines of steamers and postal-system—Government—Education—Revenue and public debt - - - - - 241

CHAPTER X.—TASMANIA: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

The name changed to Tasmania—Original settlers—Discovery of the island—First British occupation—A penal settlement—Growth of Hobart—Troubles with bush-rangers and the natives—Martial law—Mr. Robinson's successful efforts to conciliate the natives—Progress—Sir John Franklin governor—The convict question—Norfolk Island—Transportation abolished—Gold discovery—Self-government granted—The coast-line and islands—Mountains—Rivers—Mount Wellington—Beautiful scenery—Lakes—Climate—Fauna and flora

Page

—Mineral wealth—Population—Agriculture—Manufactures—Roads and railways—Telegraph and telephone—Lines of steamers—Exports and imports—Shipping—Hobart—Launceston—Political divisions—Government—Education—Diminution of the criminal element—Revenue, expenditure, and public debt - - - - - - - - - 260

CHAPTER XI.—NEW ZEALAND: HISTORY.

New Zealand discovered—Rediscovered—Origin of the Maori race—Religion and language—Their present position—Intercourse between New Zealand and New South Wales—Ruatara visits England—Rev. Mr. Marsden's mission—Tragedy of the "*Boyd* massacre"—A brave Maori chief—Abortive attempts at colonization—Captain Hobson's proposals—Contemplated annexation to New South Wales—A legislative and executive council established—Augustus Selwyn, first Bishop of New Zealand—Captain Grey appointed governor—He defeats the Maoris—Submission of the chiefs—Formation of "New Zealand Fencibles"—Progress of the colony under Governor Grey—Conflicts with the natives—Te Kooti—Bravery of the Maoris—Discovery of gold—Local government established - - - - 289

CHAPTER XII.—NEW ZEALAND—*Continued.* GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, TOWNS, STATISTICS, AND DEPENDENCIES.

Geographical position and extent—North Island—South Island—Climate—Fauna—Flora—Mineral wealth—Scenery and towns of North Island—Auckland city—Napier city—Gisborne, Palmerston, Wanganui, New Plymouth, and other towns—Wellington—Towns in South Island—Its scenery—Christchurch, Dunedin, Invercargill, &c.—Stewart Island—Population of New Zealand—Political divisions—Religious denominations—Education—Justice—Manufactures—Character of the soil—Agriculture—Distribution of the land—Exports and imports—Shipping—Roads, railways, and telegraphs—Government and representation—Revenue—Customs-duties—Expenditure—Public debt—General prosperity—Islands attached to the colony - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - 314

CHAPTER XIII.—AUSTRALASIA: MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS.

Introduction of foreign fauna—Sparrows and rabbits—Value of the camel—Exports—Dairy-farming in New Zealand—Australasian literature—Poetry—The drama—Works of fiction, &c.—History—Colenso and Aimé Murray—The newspaper press—Painting and sculpture—Music—Men eminent in science—Popular amusements—Australasian and Imperial federation—Colonial defence—Naval and military forces—Australian Commonwealth - - - 352

CHAPTER XIV.—AUSTRALASIA—*Concluded.* FIJI, NEW GUINEA (BRITISH), PACIFIC SPORADES.

Principal islands of the FIJI group—Early visits to the islands—Arrival of missionaries—Cession to Great Britain—Services of Sir John Thurston—Government—Education—Industries and trade—Revenue, expenditure, and debt—Means of communication. BRITISH NEW GUINEA—Position and main features—Its various tribes—Early voyagers—British occupation—Dutch and German possessions—Effects of British rule—Trade. NORFOLK ISLAND group—Inhabitants of Pitcairn Island transferred—Head-quarters of the Melanesian Mission 393

CHAPTER XV.—SOUTH ATLANTIC ISLANDS.—CONCLUSION.

Ascension Island—St. Helena—Tristan Da Cunha—Falkland Islands—Concluding review—Growth of the Empire since the days of Elizabeth—Importance of her colonial possessions to the mother-country—The Royal Colonial and the Imperial Institutes—Influence of the Colonial and Indian Exhibition of 1886—A statesman's warning—Britain's wisest policy - 411


WEST INDIES
BRITISH GUIANA
CENTRAL AMERICA
VENEZUELA
and part of
COLOMBIA.
BY W. J. TURNER, F.R.G.S.
British Miles.
Kilometres.
Railways
GULF OF MEXICO
CARIBBEAN SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Florida
Cuba
Jamaica
Yucatan
Guatemala
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Panama
Colombia
Ecuador
Tropic of Cancer
Yucatan Channel
Florida Channel
Gulf of Darien
Bay of Panama
Isla de Pinos
Nassau
Havana
Kingston
Belize
Progresso
Merida
Campeachy
Ascension B.
Espiritu B.
Coxumel I.
Chetumal B.
Ambergris Cay
Turneffe I.
Rugtan I.
Truxillo
Caratasca Lagoon
C. Gracias a Dios
Old Providence I.
St. Andrews I.
Pearl Lagoon
Bluefields
Lake Nicaragua
Monkey Pt.
Greytown or S. Juan del Norte
Mosquito Gulf
Puerto Limon
Chiriqui Lagoon
Escudo de Veragua
Chagres
Porto Bello
C. S. Blas
Panama
Perlas Is.
Cartagena
Sabanalarga
Baranquilla
Santa Marta
Maracaibo
Gulf of Venezuela
Puerto Cabello
La Guayra
Barcelona
Cumana
Trinidad
Margarita I.
Tortugas Is.
Key West
Florida Reefs
Bahama Is.
Andros Islands
Exuma Islands
Cayman Brac
Grand Cayman
Lit. Cayman
Jamaica (Br.)
Montego
Falmouth
Kingston
Pedro Cays
Morant Cays
Beacon Cay
Old Providence I. (to Colombia)
St. Andrews I. (to Colombia)
Malpelo I.
Gorgona I.
Buenaventura
Choco B.
Gulf of Ancon
Esmeraldas
C. S. Francisco
Tumaco
Pasto
Popayan
Cali
Medellin
Antioquia
Cupica B.
Coqui B.
C. Corrientes
Baudo
Atrato R.
Magdalena R.
Cauca R.
Orinoco R.
Longitude W.
95
90
85
80
25
20
15
10
5



Turner & Shawe, London.

OUR EMPIRE
AT HOME AND ABROAD.

BOOK VI.—*Continued.*

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER XI.

West Indies.

Extent and population of the British West Indian islands—Effects of negro-emancipation—Decline of the sugar-trade—Growth of new products. The Bahamas—Barbados—Jamaica, and its dependencies the Turks and Caicos Islands, Cayman Islands, and the Morant and Pedro Cays. The Leeward Islands: Antigua, with Barbuda and Redonda—St. Christopher or St. Kitts—Nevis—Anguilla—Dominica—Montserrat. The Virgin Islands: Tortola, Virgin Gorda—Anegada. Sombrero. The hurricanes of 1898 and 1899. The Windward Islands: Grenada, its government, climate, and industry—Grenadines—St. Vincent, its great volcanic eruption—St. Lucia, picturesque beauty, coaling station—Trinidad, "The Land of the Humming-bird", Picton's firm administration, coolie immigration, unsurpassed scenery, varied and increasing population, agricultural products—Tobago.

Before dealing in detail with our West Indian colonies, of which we have already given the history from the date of discovery down to 1801, it may be well to make a few general statements concerning these British possessions. The British West Indies fall into six groups, as regards government. These are (1) Bahamas, (2) Barbados, (3) Jamaica and dependencies, (4) Leeward Islands, (5) Windward Islands, (6) Trinidad with Tobago. Their importance is not dependent upon area or population. The whole of the British West Indies together make up only 12,175 square miles, or less than one-fourth of England. The whole population is only about 1,400,000, or one-fourth of "Greater London", the district within 15 miles radius from Charing Cross. Of these, apart from Trinidad, with her large French element, not five per cent are whites, the vast majority being people of negro race, pure or mixed,

with many thousands of Asiatic coolies, and a few thousands of mixed non-negro blood. The islands have greatly suffered for many years from various causes, the chief of which have been dependence upon a single staple product—the sugar-cane and its derivatives, molasses and rum; a lack of labour, and a want of enterprise and energy in the landed proprietors. The negro-emancipation of 1834, which took complete effect four years later, was a serious blow to the sugar-interest. The blacks, to a large extent, declined to work steadily and regularly for wages received, preferring to depend, for the trifling needs of a "loafer's" life in such a climate, upon the natural products that required no toil, combined with what they could gain from the earth by one or two days' work per week. The next blow came from the promoters of free trade when they equalized the duties on slave-grown sugar with those on the article produced by free labour. Another step towards the ruin of West Indian sugar capitalists was made in the enormous increase of manufacture in Europe from the beet-root. The land in our tropical colonies beyond the Atlantic was, to a large extent, thrown out of cultivation. Worst of all, the estate-owners, in most cases, until recent years, failed to accept the inevitable in a becoming spirit, and to set themselves to the production, from soils that are well suited for many growths besides the sugar-cane, of articles that would bring a profit when their staple had failed them. From these and other causes we had, in our West Indian colonies, the unwonted and unwelcome spectacle, for many years, of degeneration and decay in commercial prosperity. Some statistics for the whole six groups of islands will, however, show the importance of their commerce in the closing years of the nineteenth century. For the year ending March 31st, 1898, the total revenue was £1,188,260, of which above £895,000 was obtained from customs. The imports, for the same year, reached the value of £6,323,413, goods worth £1,839,980 being obtained from Great Britain. The exports, for the same period, were worth £5,657,391, of which Great Britain received the value of £1,283,413. In the year 1898 the total tonnage entered and cleared in the foreign trade of West Indian ports was 9,167,767, of which 7,239,354 was British. Of late, a good prospect has arisen for the islands in the growth of new products, with tillage carried on by labour imported from other tropical or sub-

tropical regions. We shall see that sugar has been largely replaced by cacao (cocoa) and other articles of commercial value, and that in the West Indies, as elsewhere, energy and enterprise may have their due reward. For example, in Dominica, where sugar was formerly the staple industry, the chief products are now coffee, cocoa, lime-juice, and essential oils. Grenada has long ceased to be a sugar-producing colony, and has therefore not suffered so severely as many other islands from the depreciation in the value of cane-sugar, being dependent mainly upon cocoa, while attention has been directed with some success to the cultivation of coffee, kola-nut, nutmeg, cloves, pepper, vanilla, cardamoms, and cocoa-nuts. Jamaica's chief crop is no longer sugar, but the largest British West Indian Island has turned, in the products of her soil, to oranges and bananas, coffee, cocoa, ginger, pimento, and dyewoods, with some recent planting of cinchona.

In the earliest days of the twentieth century, a vigorous effort for the development of British trade with the West Indies was due to the able and energetic Colonial Secretary, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and the enterprise of the great firm of ship-owners, Messrs Elder, Dempster, & Co. The institution of this "Imperial Direct West Indian Mail Service" was a recognition of the facts that the prosperity and interests of British colonies and dependencies are inseparably bound up with those of the mother-country, and that if Great Britain is to maintain her naval supremacy, it will be through the instrumentality of her mercantile marine, which largely depends on the thoroughness and stability of her colonial trading. The establishment of the new line of steamships, destined to furnish a direct passenger-service to Jamaica, and to open up a regular fruit-traffic, hitherto in the hands of American ship-owners, was thus an enterprise whose success is of national importance. We have seen that Bristol was in past times very largely concerned in the West Indian trade, and Avonmouth, her modern port, was fitly chosen as the point of departure in February, 1901, of the first steamer, the *Port Morant*, 2900 tons register, of the new line.

In another way, the West Indian islands are worthy of our notice as presenting a striking political contrast to our American and Australasian territories. Instead of advance, there has been actual political retrogression, due to the emancipation which,

in course of time, conferred rights of citizenship on the negroes. These men, emotional and uninstructed, were unfit for the use of representative institutions, and in some of the islands the legislative assemblies formerly chosen by the white population have given way to bodies wholly or partially nominated by the Crown.

The *Bahamas* were formerly called *Lucayos* from the Spanish *Los Cayos, The Islets* or *Rocks*, the term appearing also in *Caicos* or *The Keys*, one of the island-groups geographically, not now politically, connected with them. These most northerly of our West Indian possessions extend for nearly 600 miles, from about 21½ to 27½ degrees north latitude, in a north-westerly direction, between the eastern extremity of Cuba and the south-east of Florida. Lying from about 72½ to 79 degrees west longitude, and composed of coral and of shell hardened into limestone, the group rests mainly on two shoals—the Great Bank to the south and the Little Bank to the north—and comprises about 20 inhabited islands; over 650 islets or *cays* (keys), which are rocky and sandy spots, some having a few trees, and many but a few feet above sea-level; and nearly 2400 mere reefs or rocks. The total area is about 5450 square miles, chiefly in the larger islands Great (or Grand) Bahama and Abaco; Andros, New Providence, and Eleuthera; Exuma, St. Salvador, Watling Island, and Rum Cay; Long, Crooked, and Acklin Islands; Mayaguana and Great Inagua, coming in this order from north to south. The coralline and shelly surface, thinly covered with vegetable mould, has much fertility from the retention of moisture by the porous rock. The temperature has a range from 57 to about 110 degrees Fahrenheit, with a mean of 75, and the winter or least rainy season, from October to May, affords a climate so healthy and agreeable that the islands are then much frequented by visitors from Canada and the United States, many of whom are seeking relief in pulmonary disease. The annual rainfall of about 45 inches comes chiefly between June and October. There have been, at long intervals, notably in October, 1866, and September, 1883, destructive cyclones. During the nineteenth century, the only historical events were the emancipation, some tropical incidents of the above character, and the sudden rise of commercial prosperity during the American Civil War, connected with the "blockade-running" which has been elsewhere described. The islands, long,

narrow, reef-like formations, nowhere rising above 230 feet from sea-level, are devoid of any natural charms of scenery save what are supplied by rich tropical vegetation, a brilliant atmosphere, colouring of rare beauty, walks in flower-decked woods, and boating-trips from isle to isle through waters of a transparency revealing endless submarine attractions.

The population, in 1891, was 47,565, of whom about one-fourth were of European descent, and three-fourths of negro race. In religion, the Wesleyans and Baptists nearly double the adherents of the Church of England, disestablished in 1869, and now in charge of the Bishop of Nassau and about a score of clergy, some of whom are supported by the S. P. G., or Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. There are few Presbyterians, and still fewer Roman Catholics, the latter being ministered to by a priest of the Order of St. Benedict. The vegetable productions of the Bahamas, with or without tillage, include excellent pasture, Guinea-corn (a kind of millet), maize, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, tamarinds, pimento, and coco-nuts. The sugar-cane, as a commercial product, and cotton, are almost things of the past, though in 1891 a few hundred pounds' worth of the latter was exported. The chief products of the soil, in commercial importance, are fruit and the fibre of a plant called sisal. In 1895, pine-apples, fresh and tinned, were exported to a value of over £60,000, and oranges, lemons and other fruit had a value, in 1895, of over £6000. Sisal hemp derives its name from Sisal, a port on the north-west coast of Yucatan, the native home, in Central America, of this valuable material for ship-cables, from its power of resisting the action of sea-water. Of long natural growth in the Bahamas, where the people regarded it as a mere weed, it has now become an object of cultivation and of export to the United States in the form of fibre admirably suited for the manufacture of sacking. This culture promises to become, under a government-bounty of ½*d.* per lb. on exportation in bulk, a staple industry of the islands. The plant ripens in the third year, and produces from 15 to 20 annual crops on the same stock. More than 20,000 acres are now under this growth, with many millions of plants. The encouragement of this tillage is mainly due to Sir Henry Blake, Governor from 1884 to 1887, and to his successor Sir Ambrose Shea. The breeding of cattle, once flourishing, has greatly declined, meat being now imported from the States;

and the formerly important industry of salt-making, largely carried on by evaporation in works at Inagua, Exuma, and other islands, has been crippled by the high American import-duty. The sponge-fishery is of some importance, the value of the produce in 1895 having exceeded £67,500; shells, pearls, and ambergris are also obtained. This last substance, much used in perfumery, being a morbid secretion from the intestinal canal of the spermaceti whale, is found floating on the seas near the coast in lumps of from half an ounce to 100 lbs. in weight, or is picked up from the shore. The value of this fatty ashen-gray product much exceeds that of gold, fetching as it does about £6 per ounce.

The capital, *Nassau*, on New Providence island, is the centre of trade, with a population of 11,000. In the winter season, there is abundant social gaiety, taking the form of private theatricals and dinner-parties, dances and lawn-tennis, rides and drives, fishing and boating-trips. An excellent hotel is maintained by the colonial government, and the atmosphere of the place has a marvellous effect upon delicate people, especially on those who are suffering from nervous diseases, so that patients who have been carefully carried ashore to the hotel or to lodgings may be seen, within a few weeks, walking about unaided in full enjoyment of life. The place is, in fact, a paradise of tranquillity and balmy air. A joint-stock bank was opened in 1889, and a Post Office Savings Bank is also in operation. The islands have no railway or internal telegraph, and there are few good roads except in New Providence. In 1892, a cable from Nassau to Florida opened communication by wire with the outside world. With a penny internal postage, the charge for half-ounce letters to the British Isles is 2½*d.*, and 4*d.* to all other parts, and a parcel-post has been established with Great Britain and Ireland and with the United States. A good mail-service runs fortnightly from Nassau to New York (3½ days' voyage) in winter, and there are monthly mail-steamers in summer to Liverpool and New York, with regular steamers throughout the year to Florida and Cuba. Lighthouses are kept up on several of the islands by the Imperial Government, at an annual charge of about £10,000. The revenue of the Bahamas, in 1898, amounted to nearly £87,000, chiefly derived from rather high customs-duties on some imported goods; from export-duties on the guano obtained in some of the islets; and from an *ad valorem* export-charge of 1½

per cent levied on articles imported free of duty. The expenditure, in 1898, was £64,148, including the charge on a public debt somewhat exceeding £118,000 in that year. The exports, in 1898, had the value of £174,860, and the imports, in the same year, were worth £238,336. Executive rule is conducted by a Governor and a Council of 9 members, and the Legislature consists of the Governor, a Legislative Council of 8 members nominated by the Crown, and a House of Assembly of 29 members chosen by electors under a small property-qualification for the franchise. In 1895, the educational system, controlled by a board of the Governor's appointment, with compulsory attendance for pupils in the town of Nassau, showed 32 Church of England schools, with over 1700 learners; 29 private schools, with nearly 1100; 41 Government schools, free and unsectarian, with over 5400 learners on the rolls, and 9 aided schools with an attendance of 820 pupils, the government-grant amounting to £4800. A School of Art, which is making good progress, was established at Nassau in 1883, chiefly for the purpose of encouraging and teaching several industries connected with the natural products of the islands.

From the Bahamas we pass to *Barbados*, the most easterly of the West Indian Islands, lying at 59½ degrees west longitude and about 13 degrees north latitude. The island is 21 miles long from north to south, and about 14½ miles in extreme breadth, diminishing towards the north so as to assume the shape of a pear. With an area of 166 square miles, or 106,470 acres, and a present population of over 188,000 inhabitants, or 1130 to the square mile, and having no less than 100,000 acres under cultivation, Barbados is by far the most densely populated and best tilled island in the West Indies. The natural rate of increase is rapid, showing about 7400 births in 1895 to about 4560 deaths. Since 1851 the number of people has grown from 136,000 to its present total, in spite of a visitation of cholera (1854), which is believed to have carried off 20,000, and of a large migration of labouring people to other islands. In 1881, there were about 16,000 whites to 156,000 coloured people, and 100 females to every 82 males. In religious faith, the vast majority (156,500) are adherents of the Anglican Church, with about 14,500 Wesleyans (Methodists), 6800 Moravians, 800 Roman Catholics, and a score of Jews. Grants of £11,600 are made by the Government to these denomi-

nations in proportion to numbers. Taking up the history of the island in the nineteenth century, we first note the hurricane of October 21st, 1817, which smote Barbados at the same time as it was severely felt at St. Lucia, Dominica, Martinique, and St. Vincent. Several vessels were driven ashore at Bridgetown, Barbados, without loss of life, by the southerly wind, but the effects were not comparable to those of the great storm in 1780 which destroyed the lives of over 4000 persons and property exceeding one million sterling in value. In April of the following year, 1818, a serious negro-rising occurred at the south-west of the island, the slaves beginning, in large numbers, to plunder houses and to burn the sugar-plantations. Martial law was proclaimed, and the garrison-troops, with the island militia, attacked the insurgents, many of whom were killed on the spot, and more still executed after trial, to the total number of nearly 1000. In one parish, twenty estates had been laid waste. A large part of the negroes supported the masters, and aided in subduing the disaffected portion of the slaves, who had been stirred to action by interference of the Home-Government with the colonial legislature, and by false reports that freedom had been granted by the king and Parliament of Great Britain, and was being withheld by the slave-owners. Five years more passed away, and trouble arose from the opposite quarter of the social system, the slaveholding party. The emancipationists in the House of Commons, led by Mr. Thomas Fowell Buxton, were becoming very active, and though Mr. Canning, who was then in charge of the Foreign Office, opposed abolition, the Home-Government sent out a circular to the authorities in the West Indies, ordering the immediate stoppage of the flogging of slave-women, and of the use of the whip in the field. The slaveholders read the doom of slavery in this document, and their apprehensions of a negro-rising were stirred. The only tumult that came, however, was caused by a low class of white freemen who attacked and destroyed the chapel of a missionary named Shrewsbury, and caused him to quit the island in fear for his life. His alleged offence consisted in having sent home to his employers the true statement that the lowest class of whites in Barbados was composed of ignorant and depraved men. The Governor issued a proclamation offering a reward for the apprehension of any of the rioters, to which the

slave-owning party responded by threats of vengeance on informers, and by a warning that no missionaries must set foot in Barbados.

When the long-threatened emancipation came, in 1834, upon the slave-owners of our West Indian colonies, the effects in Barbados upon the staple industry of sugar-making were very different from those in most other islands. During the succeeding half-century, the revenue rose from £21,000 to about £158,000; the imports increased from £481,000 to £1,156,000, and the exports from £408,000 to £1,319,000. The result was mainly due to abundance of population combined with scarcity of land. The negroes could not become "squatters" on unreclaimed lands, and were, to their great advantage, compelled to work with diligence for wages or to starve. The natural consequence is seen in the present condition of the Barbadian coloured people as an industrious, prudent, thrifty, and prosperous race, in favourable contrast to some of the whites. The people, as a whole, are shrewd and clever, and, as regards the negro-population we may observe that a pure-blooded black has risen to be first Attorney-General and then Chief Justice, proving the want of any original or congenital difference of capacity between the blacks and the whites. Returning for a moment to the subject of hurricanes, the West Indian plague of man and his works, we find that in 1831 a storm of extreme violence killed nearly 1600 people in Barbados, and destroyed property to the value of over £1,600,000. The riots of 1876 were caused by the proposed confederation of the Windward Islands. Several lives were lost in the tumult, and considerable damage to property occurred. The jealous feeling aroused in Barbadian hearts by the prospect of amalgamation with the group of which their island had been the head and the seat of government, was finally dispelled in 1885, when Barbados was separated from the other Windward Islands, and made a distinct colony.

The coast of Barbados is little broken, being guarded from the full effect of the sea's violence by an almost complete barrier of coral reefs, extending in some parts, with great danger to shipping, for nearly 3 miles from the land. The only harbour is at Carlisle Bay, on the south-west, and this is an open roadstead, much exposed to winds from that quarter. An inner haven is protected by the Mole Head. Inside the reefs, the coast, except at two points, shows a long line of sandy beach. Much of the

land is coralline in structure, with sandstones, clays, and infusorial earths (a flinty deposit) in the north-east. Much of the interior is hilly, having ranges sweeping inland from the east coast, with the highest summit, Mount Hillaby, attaining 1104 feet above sea-level. A lower range runs down the western coast. The climate is of a remarkably equable character, with a temperature rarely sinking below 70 degrees or reaching higher than 90. The average rainfall, spread over the year, with the later months as those of most moisture, is about 60 inches. Shocks of earthquake are sometimes felt, and the thunder-storms are frequent and severe. Yellow-fever is not unknown, but the island, on the whole, is healthy, the heat being tempered by the breezes from the sea. There are no special fauna or flora in this thickly-peopled land, now devoid of forests and tilled to the resemblance of a great well-tended garden. A fine water-supply, obtained mostly from springs by boring, favours both cleanliness and cultivation, and the advancement of civilization in this happy region, where the labourer can do well for himself and family on wages of one shilling per day, with tenpence for any of his women-folk, is proved by the institution of life and fire insurance, railroads and tramways, water and gas companies, and by the common use of the telephone in and near the capital.

The prosperity of Barbados has of late years suffered from the low price of sugar, the chief product, for which about 30,000 acres are yearly planted with canes. In 1898, the yield from some hundreds of sugar-works was only 53,575 hogsheads, as against over 85,000 in 1890. In this latter year, about 52,000 puncheons of molasses, mostly sent to Canada, were also made, and there is a considerable distillation of rum. The only other industry of any importance is the fisheries which employ over 370 boats and 1000 men and boys. Lobsters and crayfish are plentiful among the coral-reefs, and a rich food-supply is obtained in the eggs or roe of sea-urchins. The chief catch is, however, that of the delicious and very abundant flying-fish, systematically taken at Barbados alone. From 6 to 12 inches in length, with a nearly quadrangular body, and making a favourite haunt of the blue depths of sea off the steep shore-line reefs of the island, this fish, the most popular food of Barbados, is caught in enormous numbers, with shallow nets suspended from a wooden hoop a yard

in diameter, from shoals attracted by bait. A boat-load of 7000 to 8000 fish is often quickly obtained from a single "school" of flying-fish, and a glut in the market makes prices fall to a penny per dozen.

The island has of late years taken the place of the Danish island, St. Thomas, as the centre of West Indian steamer-traffic, and is the chief port of call for sailing-vessels in search of freight in the Caribbean Sea. The imports, with a value, in 1898, of £1,058,855, consist chiefly of breadstuffs and other provisions from the United States; dried fish and timber from Canada and Newfoundland; and manufactured goods of all kinds from the British Isles. The exports, worth £769,231 in 1898, were chiefly composed of raw sugar to the value of about £150,000, molasses £92,416, and re-exported flour, rice, and dried fish. Besides the Colonial Bank, with 13 branches in the West Indies, and deposits exceeding 2 millions sterling, there is a Government savings-bank with nearly 11,300 depositors to the amount of £180,580. There are nearly 500 miles of roads in the island, and a railway of 24 miles runs from the capital, Bridgetown, through the southern districts and along the east coast. The fortnightly Royal Mail steamers from Southampton, and weekly steamers from Liverpool by the West Indian and Pacific or the Harrison line afford ready communication with Europe, and fortnightly steamers arrive from New York. There is direct cable communication viâ St. Vincent with the other West Indies, America, and Europe. *Bridgetown*, occupying much of the shore of Carlisle Bay, on the south-west coast, has a population of about 21,000, with the usual public buildings, and with barracks and arsenal for the garrison of 32 officers and about 820 non-commissioned officers and men, in this head-quarters for our European troops in the West Indies. A police-force of 320 officers and men provides for the internal peace of the colony. There are several large villages or little towns, of which Speightstown, on the north-west coast, contains about 1500 inhabitants.

The ruling power consists of a Governor, an "Executive Committee" composed of the officer commanding the troops, the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and other persons nominated by the Crown, with one member of the Legislative Council, and four members of the House of Assembly, nominated by the

Governor. The duties of this body include the preparation of estimates, and the introduction of Government-bills and of all money-votes. The Legislative Council of 9 members is appointed by the Crown, and the House of Assembly, of 24 members, is chosen yearly by about 4500 voters with a moderate franchise. Barbados thus possesses representative institutions, with the "Chartist" point of annual parliaments, but not the "responsible government" of our greater colonies. The revenue, in 1898, amounted to £182,582, mainly obtained from customs-duties, against an expenditure over £175,000 and a public debt of about £414,000. A very satisfactory feature in this colony is the state of education, which is, for elementary instruction, under Government control through a central Board appointed by the Governor, with local School Committees assisting the clergyman of the district. In 1898, 175 primary schools had nearly 14,800 pupils in average attendance, with public grants of over £10,800, and the work of these institutions is supplemented by several second-grade and first-grade schools for boys and girls. Among these latter we find Harrison College, Bridgetown, an old foundation supported by the legislature, with a good staff of graduates as masters, and a Professor of Chemistry and Agricultural Science. Four "Barbados Scholarships", each annually worth £175, established by the Education Board, and endowed by the colonial funds, are tenable for four years at Oxford or Cambridge. Queen's College, a first-grade girls' school with over 100 pupils, was opened in 1883. The foundation of the famous Codrington College has been noticed in our early history of the island. At this excellent institution, affiliated to Durham University in 1875, and administered by the S. P. G., as trustees of General Codrington's will, a large proportion of the clergy in the Windward Isles, under the rule of the Bishop of Barbados (whose see was created in 1824) have received their education. It is the only place in the West Indies which provides a university training, and is endowed with several theological scholarships (of £30 annual value) from the College funds, and with four "Island Scholarships" of £40 each per annum, paid by the Colonial Treasury, and confined to natives or sons of native Barbadians. The buildings are situated below the bold escarpment of a hill on the eastern coast rising about 800 feet above sea-level, being themselves at an altitude of 300 feet on

a level plateau, within a mile of the shore, in a secluded, restful, healthy spot which faces the trade-winds borne over 3000 miles of ocean. More than once a hurricane has laid the estate in ruins, and the flooring of the college-chapel still bears marks of the storm which, in 1831, hurled roof and cupola crashing down upon the slabs of black and white marble. Since 1830, Codrington College has been the Alma Mater of most youths in the best West Indian families. A long avenue of palms, the finest of which, over 80 feet high, survived the hurricane of 1831, leads up to the grey-stone college-buildings of the Georgian period, surrounded by the tennis-lawns and by the cricket-ground, beyond a grove of mahogany-trees, where the students play matches against "elevens" of the island or of the garrison. The interior, with its chapel and hall, and its library scented with old books, and the students' life and garb, have a peculiar charm, in a tropical region, for the visitor whose early manhood was passed in one of the ancient universities of the home-country.

JAMAICA, the largest, most populous, and most important of our West Indian colonies, is situated about 90 miles south of the eastern end of Cuba, between 17° 43′ and 18° 32′ north latitude, and from 76° 11′ to 78° 20′ west longitude. Extending east and west for 144 miles, and with breadth varying from 21 to 50 miles, the island has an area of about 4200 sq. miles, and a population, by the census of 1891, of 639,500, of whom 306,000 were males. The whites, at that time, numbered 14,700; the coloured people or half-breeds were 122,000; and over 488,000 were blacks. The remainder were composed of above 10,000 East Indians (coolies), a few hundred Chinese, and over 3600 "not specified" persons. Natural increase and immigration have now brought the numbers to over 718,000. In religious faith, about 42,000 were, in 1897, returned as adherents of the Anglican Church; 2400 as members of the Church of Scotland; 9300 as Roman Catholics; 24,400 as Methodists; 34,000 as Baptists, nearly 11,250 as "Presbyterian Church"; and 16,000 as Moravians. In all the above cases, except as regards the Church of England, the families of the "members" must be added. The natural rate of increase is indicated by the births and deaths for 1897–98, the former having numbered 28,447, the latter 16,474.

Jamaican history during the nineteenth century includes much matter of considerable interest and importance. In the earlier years

of this period, prior to the abolition, in 1807, of the slave-trade to the British dominions abroad, the planters largely imported negroes from West Africa, the number of slaves thus obtained having amounted to nearly 87,000 for the last eight years of the iniquitous traffic, and at the date of the stoppage of importation the island contained about 324,000 slaves. From that time forward, the planters felt themselves overshadowed by coming emancipation, and restlessness quickly developed into fierce opposition to all steps in that direction. In 1823, the Legislative Assembly, when it was required by the Home-government to take measures for improving the condition of the slaves, repudiated the right of the Imperial Parliament to interfere in the internal affairs of the island. Six years later, we find the Imperial authorities, through Lord Belmore, the Governor, demanding amendment of the Slave Code from the Legislative Assembly, and in 1830, when further urgency was used in this behalf, one member of the Jamaican Legislature moved that the Imperial proposals should be burned by the common hangman, while another, bidding his fellows disregard the recommendations sent from London, asserted that the colonial militia was quite equal to coping with the forces of Great Britain. A year more passed away, and, with slave-emancipation in full view, many planters were threatening to transfer their allegiance to the United States. Language of this kind, coupled with an eager desire for the freedom which was now almost within their grasp, was quite sufficient to stir the negroes to action, and at the close of 1831 there was a servile insurrection, causing the loss of many lives and the destruction of property to an amount exceeding £600,000. When the blow at last fell upon the planters, they were in no wise appeased by the sum of about 6 millions sterling received as their share of compensation for the loss of property in the negroes to be freed by the Act of 1833. The original term of apprenticeship, a modified emancipation, was shortened, and on August 1st, 1838, the whole of the negroes became absolutely their own masters. Then came to pass that which had been confidently predicted by opponents of the great philanthropic measure. The planting interest was practically ruined through lack of labour. The free negroes, as already mentioned, would not work regularly for pay. The community was plunged into a disorderly and dangerous condition of affairs. The proprietors of land, with the agents, managers or overseers, and

middlemen, were greatly reduced in means, and the negroes had been turned from well-fed and, as a rule, well-treated slave-labourers, into ignorant, idle, and impoverished freemen. It was the height of absurdity to concede representative and constitutional rights to such persons. The experiment failed, and the negroes were soon complaining that offices in the magistracy were not more frequently conferred upon them. From 1839 to 1842 the government of Jamaica was held by Sir Charles, afterwards Lord, Metcalfe, whom we have already seen both in British India and Canada. His friend Macaulay, in the epitaph composed in 1847, claims for Metcalfe that "in Jamaica, still convulsed by a social revolution, his prudence calmed the evil passions which long suffering had engendered in one class and long domination in another". This good service did not prevent his successor, Lord Elgin, who was Governor from 1842 till the spring of 1846, from being confronted by great difficulties. That eminent statesman and colonial ruler, whom we have met in Canada, China, and India, found himself called upon to deal with a mockery of representative government, in which the local Legislature was a democratic oligarchy, chiefly composed of the overseers of estates, men who had no abiding pecuniary interest in the country. It was Lord Elgin's hard task to restore hope in a sorely depressed community, and to strive at once for the moral improvement of the population, and for a revival of economical prosperity. A well-devised system of duties did much to redress the financial balance, and the Governor aimed at moral and social progress for the emancipated blacks through the action of the planters who had lately been their owners. Under his auspices, in 1845, the first body of coolies arrived from India to work on the estates, and machinery was, for the first time, applied to the production of sugar. The Governor's object in promoting this improvement was to create a demand for skilled labour which might induce the negroes to acquire much-needed education. On leaving Jamaica early in 1846, Lord Elgin had at least pointed out a way towards the renewal of prosperous days for the "Land of Springs".

Another blow fell on the sugar-planters when, in 1846, Lord John Russell's government equalized the duties on colonial and foreign produce, whether it were raised by free- or by slave-labour, and forced Jamaican planters to compete on equal terms with those of Brazil. Renewed depression, at the very moment of revival,

postponed prosperity for many years. The coffee and sugar plantations relapsed into mere jungle; the bridges were broken down for lack of due repairs; many of the roads became almost impassable. The largest town, Kingston, presented the discreditable and deplorable spectacle of a place once prosperous gone to decay. From 1847 to 1853 a legislative deadlock existed through the rejection, by the Council, of the Bills which, session after session, were passed by the Assembly for financial retrenchment, and under the rule of Sir Henry Barkly, who was Governor from 1853 to 1857, a modified form of responsible government was introduced. The negro-population, meanwhile, had yearly become more troublesome to the whites. The blacks were rapidly growing in numbers; the white population, at the best, was stationary. The self-assertive spirit of the majority wished to suppress coolie-immigration as tending to keep down the wages for which they, the West Indian blacks, could by no means be depended on to work. They sought to become landholders without payment of rent; they were beginning to obtain ascendency in the official life of the island; the more violent of their agitators clamoured for the expulsion of all the white people.

After many disturbances, partly due to disputes concerning the possession of "back lands" which the owners of some large estates had allowed to run waste, a crisis occurred in 1865. Three years previously, Mr. Edward John Eyre had been appointed Governor. This gentleman, a native of Yorkshire, born in 1815, emigrated to Sydney in 1833, and became Resident Magistrate and "Protector of the Aborigines" in the Lower Murray district. He then won distinction as an Australian explorer, and, after spending some time in England, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor, in 1847, of South Island, New Zealand. In 1853, Mr. Eyre became Governor of St. Vincent, and afterwards Lieutenant-Governor of the Leeward Islands. He had always borne a character for justice and humanity in his treatment of native races, but was now to earn a reputation for cruel and lawless severity in punishing the negroes of Jamaica for the part played by some of their class in what was rather a riot than an insurrection, much less an organized and general rebellion. It was early in October, 1865, that serious trouble arose. Negro agitators had taken up the cause of real or supposed wrongs, and one of these men, named Paul Bogle, was charged with promoting disturbances in behalf of a negro brought to trial before the magis-

NEGROES AT WORK IN A SUGAR-CANE PLANTATION IN JAMAICA

The sugar of commerce is obtained, to a large extent at least, from a tall broad-leaved plant, the stem of which is filled with a spongy tissue containing the juice. In the West Indies this plant is propagated by cuttings from the stem, these cuttings being planted in trenches. The young plants send up shoots, which, when they are about 10 feet high, are cut down by the negroes (as in the illustration) and taken to the factory, where the stems are crushed and the juice boiled. This juice is so nutritive, that during the sugar harvest every creature, whether man or beast, who partakes freely of it attains the highest degree of health and vigour.



NEGROES AT WORK IN A SUGAR-CANE PLANTATION
IN JAMAICA.

trates at Morant Bay, a small town on the south-east coast. An attempt to arrest Bogle was met by forcible resistance from the blacks, who overpowered the police. Three days later, a large number of negroes assembled in front of the court-house where the magistrates were sitting. The local volunteers were there drawn up; the Riot Act was read; some stones were thrown, and then some negroes fell under the bullets of the troops. A fierce attack made by the mob overcame the small force, and the court-house was set on fire; eighteen persons, including the chief magistrate, were killed, while thirty or more were wounded. An attempt at insurrection was promptly crushed by the arrival of 100 regular soldiers despatched by the Governor. Then the county of Surrey, the eastern of the three, with Middlesex in the centre, and Cornwall on the west, into which Jamaica is divided, was placed under martial law, with the exception of the city of Kingston, and for some weeks British troops were employed in the work of indiscriminate hanging, flogging men and women, and burning the houses of coloured people. Between 400 and 500 persons were put to death, and more than 600 were cruelly flogged. A thousand houses were burned during this reign of terror. The most prominent victim of the Governor's vengeance was Mr. Gordon, a mulatto member of the House of Assembly. He was a Baptist minister of fair education, ability, and means, a strong supporter of the cause of the negroes, a thorn in the side of the British authorities, a leader of the Opposition in the Assembly, ever contending for the blacks against the whites. A warrant was issued for Gordon's arrest at his place of business in Kingston, and, learning this fact, he surrendered himself to the commander of the troops. At Kingston he was safe from martial law, and the Governor placed him on board a man-of-war which transported the prisoner to Morant Bay. He was there tried for high treason by a court composed of two young naval lieutenants and an ensign in one of the Queen's West India regiments. Found guilty by this tribunal and sentenced to death, Mr. Gordon was hanged on October 23rd, after approval of the decision by the commanding officer at Morant Bay, and confirmation of all the proceedings by the Governor. This judicial murder was in all points worthy of the Stuart age in the British Isles. The removal of the prisoner from Kingston to Morant Bay was illegal; his trial before a court composed of both naval and

military officers was illegal; and, according to the expressed view of Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn, presiding at the Central Criminal Court in 1867, there was no evidence to connect the prisoner with conspiracy or insurrection. Public opinion in Great Britain was much divided, philanthropists, headed by John Stuart Mill, vainly prosecuting Eyre for "murder", and the admirers of forcible and energetic measures, led by Thomas Carlyle, contending that he had saved Jamaica from ruin at the hands of "negro rebels".

The Colonial Secretary, Mr., afterwards Lord, Cardwell, suspended the Governor from his functions, and sent out a commission of inquiry to Jamaica. The president was Sir Henry Storks, Governor of Malta, and the other members were Mr. Russell Gurney, Recorder of the City of London, and Mr. Maule, Recorder of Leeds. In April, 1866, these gentlemen reported that the punishments inflicted were excessive; that death had been inflicted with needless frequency; that some of the floggings were barbarously cruel; and that the burning of houses was wanton and cruel. As concerned Mr. Eyre's own action, the commissioners held that though he had displayed vigour and skill in staying insurrection at the outset, yet that martial law was too long maintained, and that no proof of Gordon's complicity existed. Hereupon Mr. Eyre was removed from his post, and retired into private life. In 1872, a vote of the House of Commons, carried by a large majority, repaid to him the expenses incurred in defending himself against the several prosecutions instituted by the "Jamaica Committee" of Mill and his supporters. Thus ended what we may well hope will prove the last of more than thirty recorded negro troubles or outbreaks in Jamaica.

A speedy result of the proceedings in 1865 was the abolition of the representative form of rule in the colony, after an existence of two hundred years. Along with the Governor, the Jamaican constitution had been suspended, and it was afterwards abolished by an Act of its own Legislature which received the assent of the Crown. An Order in Council of June, 1866, established a Legislative Council of six official and six non-official members, each increased to eight in 1878, and to nine in 1881. Three years later, by Order in Council of May, 1884, an amount of representative rule was infused into the "Crown colony" system. The Legislative Council, with the Governor and five official members, and not

more than six nominated by the Crown or its representative, now includes fourteen elected members representing as many electoral districts, chosen on a property qualification for the franchise. A Privy Council, with the usual powers and functions of an executive council, assists the Governor. The Legislative Council must be dissolved, at latest, at the end of five years from the last election. We may observe that in 1888 the register showed 22,660 voters out of a population exceeding 600,000. It is pleasant to be able to record that an age of improvement for Jamaica began soon after the establishment of the new system of rule. Crime has lessened; education has advanced among the ever-growing black population, many of whom, having acquired small holdings, are profitably engaged in fruit-culture. Irrigation has brought new land into cultivation, and in 1876 Jamaica products made a good show at the Philadelphia Exhibition, as they did ten years later at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition in London. New roads have been made, harbours have been constructed, and some of the forsaken sugar-estates have been taken in hand by the capitalist-refugees from Cuba. The negroes are now described as a fairly industrious and law-abiding community, among whom extreme poverty is a thing unknown.

Volcanic in origin, and largely formed of limestone, Jamaica presents, on the coast and inland, scenes of bold and picturesque beauty, rich in all the varied charms of nature at her brightest and her best. The shores have, at many points, mountains rising abruptly from the sea, here in the terrific grandeur of bare rocky surface, there richly clad in vegetation from base to summit. There are excellent harbours on every side of the island, the finest of which is the deep, capacious, almost landlocked haven of Kingston, on the south-east. The interior is very mountainous, with a main ridge running east and west, and many minor chains, some parallel to the chief range, and others jutting out to north-west and south-east, so that the greater part of the island is composed of hills and valleys. The eastern end is almost filled by the grand Blue Mountains, the highest part of the main ridge, varying in height from 5000 to 6000 feet, and having a peak of about 7400. The name of the island is well earned by the many mineral springs, and by nearly 120 rivers and streams that come down from the mountains to the sea, being mostly useless for traffic from their

brief, steep, and broken course, though Black River, on the south-west, admits small craft for a distance of thirty miles. In the centre of the island, to the north of the chief range, Roaring River has its name from its numerous beautiful waterfalls. There are many grand caverns and deep natural excavations in the limestone rock, and the traveller from any less picturesque country is delighted by the infinitely varied beauty and grandeur of woods and streams, mountain-glens and fertile vales, rich-hued rocks and countless cascades, tropical vegetation with its gorgeous flowers and stately palms, vividly set forth in the clearest air, beneath a sky of the deepest blue that the heavens display. On the southern shore, the plain of Liguanea extends for about thirty miles, with an average breadth of four or five, and to the north of this, with a range of low hills between, is the plain of Vere. The most fertile parts of Jamaica, where the chief sugar-estates lie, are the valleys at the foot of the Blue Mountains. The climate, on the whole, is healthy, but, from the nature of the region, cannot be described as if it were uniform. There are many varieties due to insular position, in which a tropical sun is tempered by the sea-breezes, and to differences of level from the moist hot coast to inland plateaus and the higher mountains whither invalids come from the United States to enjoy the cool salubrious air. At Kingston, the temperature has a mean of 80° for the year, varying little from 90° in the day to 70° at night. For each 300 feet of ascent from the sea-level, the thermometer falls about 1°, so that a speedy change can be obtained by an upland ride. At the height of nearly 5000 feet, in one hill-station, the mean for February, the coolest month, is about 55°, while for June it is nearly 75°, these figures giving the extreme range. A great variety is seen in the rainfall at different points. The average for all Jamaica, as taken at about forty stations, is nearly 67 inches, but the extremes vary from about 31 inches to nearly 200 inches at Blue Mountain Peak, while the average at Kingston is about 38 inches. Epidemics have become very rare since improved sanitation existed in the towns. There are two chief wet seasons. The spring rains, from the middle of April into May, are generally in the form of showers, and then the weather is dry for some weeks. The heavy summer-rains come in June or July, and last for about two months, during which the enormous downpour of a storm is heralded by great

and sultry heat, with perfect stillness of the air, until clouds rapidly form over the sky, and, giving forth a terrific thunder-peal, discharge, when a few hours have elapsed, torrents accompanied by almost ceaseless thunder and lightning. Day by day, for a space of two to three hours, and sometimes without a break for some days and nights, the same effort of nature occurs. The autumn has its rainy time, in October and November, but the downfall is not very great, and thunder and lightning are usually absent. The rains in the mountain-region are earlier, heavier, and more frequent than in the valleys and on the coast.

The fauna includes no dangerous animals or poisonous snakes. There is an abundant show of harmless serpents, and several species of lizards are found, of which the "great Iguana" is used for food. Land-crabs and tortoises are also eaten. Parrots, pigeons, guinea-fowl, and many kinds of aquatic birds and song-birds charm the eye with brilliant hues or the ear with tuneful sounds, or furnish sport for the gun. The dwellers in the low-lands have to contend with ants, mosquitoes, sand-flies, and the detestable ticks. These insect-plagues have much increased through the destruction of lizards, harmless snakes, and small birds by the ichneumon or mongoose, a long-bodied digitigrade carnivorous creature. The animal was introduced by the planters to clear away the rats that infested the sugar-fields, but, after excellent service in that direction, it became a pest in destroying poultry, and the reptiles and birds that were doing good work in an island too richly abounding in specimens for the entomologist. The vegetation is of a very luxuriant and varied character. The timber of the primeval forests, quickly vanishing under cutting which makes conservation and re-planting very desirable, includes many valuable trees, some producing rare cabinet woods. Logwood and mahogany, fustic, lignum vitæ, and ebony, with coco-nut and other palms, are found. The chief wild growths are cactuses of various kinds, countless varieties of orchids and ferns, spices and dye-woods, medicinal plants, roots, and seeds, Guinea grass, and flowers valuable for the distillation of essential oils used in perfumery. This natural wealth, still little used in many cases, comprises ginger and pimento, spikenard and cochineal, liquorice and arrowroot, castor-oil nuts and vanilla, pepper of many kinds, jalap and ipecacuanha, cassia and senna. Among the vast abund-

ance of tropical or sub-tropical fruits are the pine-apple and mango, shaddock and custard-apple, banana and tamarind, orange and lemon, coco-nut and date, bread-fruit and plantain, mulberry and olive. Melons, plums, grapes, figs, and pears; and, in suitable spots among the mountains, cherries, peaches, and strawberries are grown. Peas and beans, potatoes and yams, cassava and many kinds of salad, are of ready growth, with maize more luxuriant than that of the southern United States. The mineral resources of Jamaica, yet almost wholly undeveloped, include silver and gold, tin and lead, copper and cobalt, platinum, porphyry, granite, white and coloured marbles, beautiful crystals, agates, and a few emeralds and sapphires. The coast-waters teem with excellent fish, some of which might well replace as food the large amount of salted cod and herring now imported from Nova Scotia.

Passing on to the chief and almost sole industry, the tillage of the soil, we find that, whereas the island contains about 2,700,000 acres, above 365,000 acres are useless for agriculture, as consisting of swamps, rocks, and inaccessible territory. Of the more than 2,300,000 acres open to tillage, about 164,000 were being cultivated in 1898, with an increase of acreage since the previous year. In the south and east the land is chiefly devoted to sugar-cane, coffee, vegetables, and fruits. Cane is grown on about 27,000 acres, coffee on 23,000; bananas have 23,400 acres, coco-nut palms, nearly 12,000, ground provisions, 77,000, and about 1700 acres are given to the cacao-tree. In the north and west, the ground under human care chiefly produces Guinea grass (123,000 acres), a very valuable pasture-forage, or consists of common pasture (304,000 acres) or of common pasture interspersed with pimento-trees (62,400 acres). The sugar-production of the island is somewhat increasing after a decline, and the coffee-trade is flourishing. The finest rum in the world, in diminished quantity, still comes from Jamaica, and ginger and pimento are of growing importance in her commerce. One of the most remarkable products is pimento, exported for the year ending March 31st, 1896, to the amount of nearly 11 million lbs., with a value of £90,000. Otherwise known as "allspice", from a supposed resemblance in flavour to mingled nutmeg, cinnamon, and cloves, and also as "Jamaica pepper", the pimento of commerce, valuable both in cookery and medicine, and furnished to the world by Jamaica alone, is the dried berry of a

very beautiful tree. Growing to the height of 20 to 30 feet, with straight white trunk and a much-branching head of deep-green shining oval leaves about 4 inches long, the tree is wreathed in April with masses of pale white flowers, diffusing a rich aromatic odour far and wide, with thousands of small wood-bees humming around, and with countless tiny insects, a rich feast for the birds, crawling among the petals. In August the berries are gathered green, by breaking off the branches and dropping them to the ground, where women and children strip the spice from the stem. The tree thus roughly treated soon puts forth new shoots, and bears a better crop for the more extensive breakage. The harvest of pimento presents a picturesque scene in its gangs of negro-pickers, the women and girls in turbans of red and white stuff, with the black iron pot for cooking the family meal, and calabashes or gourds for carrying water from the owner's house into the plantation. The berries are dried by the sun on the "barbecues" or great stone terraces of the estate, being turned over from time to time with rakes or brooms of the fan-palm, until six or seven days' heat has completed the "curing".

The most notable and satisfactory recent development in Jamaican history is the revived prosperity due to the production of fruit. In bananas, a minor industry has now attained the rank of a staple product. In 1874, the export value of this delicious and wholesome article was almost nothing; in 1879, the banana-trade was producing nearly £33,000 a-year; for the year ending March 31st, 1896, it had the value of £316,560, showing a nearly tenfold growth. In the same period, the value of exported cocoa-nuts rose from £13,000 to nearly £38,000. Oranges and pine-apples to considerable value are raised. In connection with the banana-growing, we have the gratifying and, for the inward peace and prosperity of the island, the important fact that it puts ready money to the amount of at least £200,000 annually into the possession of small cultivators, the negro heads of families chiefly engaged in the culture. All classes of the community have felt the benefit of the banana-trade, and increased imports have improved the resources of the Government for public works and other undertakings. In 1899, there were nearly 55,000 holdings of land below 5 acres in area, against about 14,500 holdings between 5 and 50 acres, while all estates or rented holdings between 50

and 1500 acres or upwards numbered about 3000. The total exports (year ending March 31st, 1896) of this grandly fertile colony had the value of £1,873,105, about 28 per cent going to the British Isles, and 40 per cent to the United States. In order of value, the chief exports were bananas, as above given; logwood, £359,000; coffee, £284,820; raw sugar, £195,450; rum, £164,000; pimento, as above stated; ginger, £50,328; and coco-nuts, as above. In the same year the imports from all countries were worth £2,288,940, of which goods to the value of £1,106,177 came from the United Kingdom; the next largest amounts being from the United States and British North America. The chief items of expenditure were about £277,600 for cotton manufactures; £291,000 for corn (rice, &c.), flour and bread; £166,000 for fish, wet and dried; £131,000 for drapery; £58,800 for boots and shoes; £62,000 for ale and beer; £63,500 for lumber; £40,000 for butter; £39,850 for hardware and cutlery; £46,840 for woollen goods; £31,000 for pork; £35,000 for soap, and £50,400 for coals and coke.

The chief towns of Jamaica are Kingston, Spanish Town, Montego Bay, Port Maria, Falmouth, Savanna-la-Mar, and Port Royal. *Kingston*, the capital, being by far the largest place in the island, as well as the seat of government, has been already mentioned as lying in a fine haven on the south-east coast. Distant six miles from Port Royal, which is on the tongue of land to the south, the commercial centre of Jamaica is approached thence by a well-buoyed channel from 6 to 9 fathoms in depth, and has good anchoring-ground in from 5 to 10 fathoms for any number of ships, with from 12 to 24 feet of water at the wharves. The city replaced Spanish Town as capital in 1872; in 1880 the place suffered much from a violent hurricane, and two years later it was almost destroyed by fire. In the Old Church, the public building of most interest, Benbow lies buried. With a good water-supply and drainage, Kingston also has gas-lighted streets and tramcars. The population is about 48,500. *Spanish Town* (5700 people) is about sixteen miles west of the capital, lying inland; *Montego Bay*, on the north-west coast, contains about 5000 inhabitants; *Port Maria*, on the north-east coast, has nearly 7000; *Falmouth*, east of Montego Bay, about 3000; *Savanna-la-Mar*, on south-west coast, 3000; the now decayed *Port Royal*, ruined by the

earthquake of 1692, as already recorded, is a naval station of some 1200 inhabitants. For local government, there are Parochial Boards, elected by those who vote for members of the Legislative Council, in the town of Kingston and thirteen other parishes. These bodies have the control of roads, markets, sanitation, poor relief, and water-works, expending a revenue received from the direct taxation on land, houses, horses, carriages, and other matters in their several parishes. The colonial revenue, mainly obtained from import-duties on food-stuffs, alcohol, and manufactured goods, from a heavy excise on rum, and from licences and stamps, amounted to £748,514 in 1898, with an expenditure of £752,742, and a public debt of £2,074,000, of which above half has been incurred for railways. The means of communication comprise about 185 miles of railway in the centre and south; 1420 miles of inland telegraph; mail-coaches between the chief points not yet connected by steam-traffic, and weekly steamers to the chief ports round the island. Daily posts, or a service three times a week, convey half-ounce letters at a penny rate. Foreign communication is maintained by the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company's boats to Southampton, the "West India and Pacific" steamers to Liverpool, the boats of the "London Line", those of the Clyde Line to Glasgow, steamers to the United States, other West India isles, Halifax, and Demerara; and by cables to Europe, Cuba, and Central America. There is a parcels-post to the British Isles, the United States, and the other British West Indies. Education is not in a very advanced condition. For higher instruction the colonists are mainly dependent on the Barbados college above described, and on a "high school" near Kingston. In 1899, the 893 Government elementary schools had an average attendance of about 57,000 among 170,000 children of school age, between 5 and 15 years. The grant amounts to about £52,000, and there are two training-colleges, for male and female teachers. There are also some free schools, denominational high schools, and industrial establishments. The financial system includes the Colonial Bank, the Bank of Nova Scotia, and a Government Savings Bank with deposits, at 3 per cent interest, exceeding £492,000; the currency is British gold and silver, United States and Spanish gold, and Jamaica nickel pence. There is no "established church"; Anglicans are in charge of the Bishop of Jamaica, Roman Catholics of a

"Vicar Apostolic" as prelate. Public health is supervised by an "island medical service" of district-officers paid by the Government to attend sick paupers, parochial hospitals and alms-houses, the constabulary force, and the prisoners (975 at the end of 1895) in jail. The judicial establishment comprises a High Court of Justice, circuit-courts, and petty-sessions of resident magistrates throughout the island. Public defence is intrusted to an Imperial garrison (West India regiments) of about 1620 officers and men, with fortifications and batteries at various points, and to a "volunteer militia" numbering about 760 officers and men. The police force is composed of about 2300 officers and men. Returning for a moment to the intellectual condition of the negroes, we find that, by the census of 1891, out of the whole population of about 640,000, under 178,000 could read and write, and 114,500 could read only; in other words, more than half the people were wholly illiterate.

The *Turks* and *Caicos Islands*, two south-easterly groups in the Bahamas, have been since 1874 a political dependency of Jamaica, governed by a Commissioner and a Legislative Board of five members appointed by the Crown. Of about 30 "cays" or islands, with a total area of 224 sq. miles, the largest, *Grand Caicos*, is 20 miles long by 6 miles broad; the most important and populous, having the seat of government at a town of 1900 people, is *Grand Turk*, 7 miles in length by 2 in breadth. The population, 4750 in 1891 for the whole of the groups, is of mixed European and African descent, mainly connected with the Bermudas, and all of English speech. Only six of the islands have inhabitants, and all are uninvaded by such appliances of civilization as railways, telegraphs, paper currency, public debt, and internal postage. The very mixed currency includes coinage of Great Britain, the United States, Spanish America, Mexico, Colombia, and the Jamaica nickel. The equable and healthy climate is one in which the tropical heat is tempered by sea-breezes; the chief wants are those of fresh provisions and good water, the soil lying low and being usually barren. The rain-fall, occurring between October and February, was 23 inches in 1895. Seven elementary, free, unsectarian schools have an average attendance of 728 children; Grand Turk possesses a public library and reading-room, with a weekly newspaper. Communication with the outer world is obtained through sailing-vessels from Grand Turk, a port of registry with 48 ships of a total tonnage

of 6000 tons; by monthly steamers to Jamaica and Halifax, and every three weeks to New York and Hayti. The nearest telegraph-cable is at Hayti, 165 miles away. Sponges collected on the Caicos Bank are sent to Nassau, and a recent cultivation of *pita*, or sisal hemp, has a prospect of success. The only industry of any importance at present, however, is the "salt-raking" mentioned in a previous section of this work as undertaken from Bermuda early in the eighteenth century. The salt has excellent "curing" properties for meat and fish, and is yearly exported, to the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, to the amount of 2 million bushels, worth about £31,000.

Other dependencies of Jamaica are the Cayman Islands, and the little groups styled the Morant Cays and Pedro Cays. The *Caymans* consist of three fertile coral islands to the north-west of Jamaica, with a total area of 225 sq. miles and a population of over 4300. *Grand Cayman*, 17 miles long, and from 4 to 7 miles in breadth, sends coco-nuts and turtle to Jamaica in schooners which bring back flour and other necessaries. The soil produces sugar-cane and ground-foods apart from corn, and has good pasturage for the cattle which are reared. The group, discovered by Columbus, and by him called "Tortugas" from the abundance of turtle, the present chief product, was occupied by the British shortly after the conquest of Jamaica. Little Cayman and Cayman Brac, the other two islands, adjoining each other at about 70 miles north-east of Grand Cayman, are each 9 or 10 miles long by 1 in breadth, with a few hundreds of people, mostly whites. Affairs in the group are managed by the "Justices and Vestry", composed of magistrates appointed by the Governor of Jamaica, and vestrymen elected by the people. The *Morant Cays* and *Pedro Cays*, annexed by Great Britain in 1862 and 1863, and attached to Jamaica in 1882, are groups, respectively of three and four small islands, the former lying about 33 miles south-east of Morant Point, the eastern extremity of Jamaica, and the latter nearly 50 miles south-west of Portland Point, the southern extremity of the island. Both are rented for the collection of guano and sea-birds' eggs and for the catching of turtle.

The LEEWARD ISLANDS belonging to Great Britain comprise Antigua (with Barbuda and Redonda); St. Christopher (or St. Kitts), with Nevis and Anguilla; Dominica; Montserrat; and

some of the Virgin Islands, with Sombrero. By an act of 1871, the whole were made into one federal colony, divided into five Presidencies as given above. Each Presidency has its local Legislative and Executive Councils, and the federation is ruled by a Governor, aided by an Executive Council nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of twenty members, ten nominated by the Crown and ten elected by the local Councils. The nominated members consist of the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, the Auditor-General, and the President of St. Kitts-Nevis, with five unofficial members, one from each of the island-councils, and another President chosen by the Governor. The Council, constituted for not more than three years, meets once a year at St. John, in Antigua, for a session of two to four weeks' duration. The expenses of the federal establishments are shared by the Presidencies in amounts proportioned to population. Dealing first with the colony as a whole, we observe that in 1891 the population was nearly 128,000, of whom about 5000 were whites, over 23,000 coloured people, and nearly 100,000 were blacks. In 1881, the population of nearly 123,000 included 33,000 Anglicans, under the Bishop of Antigua and a "Co-adjutor Bishop"; 29,000 Roman Catholics, 30,000 Wesleyans, and 17,000 Moravians. Elementary education is given in denominational schools, with grants in aid from the local revenues of the several islands. In 1898, besides private schools, grammar-schools in Antigua, St. Kitts and Dominica, and a technical school in Montserrat, there were 137 aided schools, with 25,200 pupils. The climate of the islands varies, but is usually dry and fairly salubrious. The average rainfall of Antigua is 30 inches, the other islands having about double this amount in the rainy season from August to December. In regard to financial matters, the Colonial Bank has branches in Antigua, Dominica, and St. Kitts, and the Virgin Islands use the notes of the Danish Bank of St. Thomas. Government savings-banks have deposits of nearly £60,000. The usual currency is British silver, with some British, United States, and Spanish gold. There are no railways or internal telegraphs, but Antigua and St. Kitts have complete telephone systems. Steam-communication with the British Isles and the other West Indies is carried on by the vessels of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company to and from Southampton, and there are fortnightly steamers of other lines to

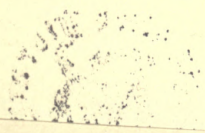
the United States and British North America. A fast steamer, with good accommodation for passengers, and supported by the colonial government, runs between the various islands of the federation. Dominica, St. Kitts, and Antigua are connected by telegraph-cables with the Windward Islands, the United States, and Europe. There is local penny-postage for half-ounce letters, and the Postal Union charge of 2½*d.* for the same weight to the British Isles. No Imperial garrison is stationed on the islands, but small local forces (yeomanry cavalry and artillery) exist at Antigua and St. Kitts. The whole area of the colony is 701 sq. miles.

Antigua, with an area of 108 sq. miles, and a population, along with its dependencies Barbuda and Redonda (together 62½ sq. miles), of about 37,000, of whom about 1800 are whites, lies in 61° 45′ west longitude, and just above 17° north latitude, at about the middle of the Leeward Islands, before they sweep round from a northerly to a north-westerly course. The island has a circuit of 54 miles, and the coast, deeply indented at many points by bays and creeks, is rendered dangerous to navigators by a border of islets, rocks, and shoals. With a length of 28 miles and about half that width, the surface is generally low-lying, though one hill attains a height of 1330 feet. A total lack of rivers and a scarcity of springs cause frequent droughts, a disadvantage which the government now seeks to meet by the conservation of supplies derived from the very variable rainfall. The olden forest has been almost cleared away, a fact to which the want of moisture is partly due. Historical events, in the nineteenth century, are confined to the decay of the sugar-industry, as in other islands, caused by the emancipation of the slaves, and to destructive earthquakes occurring in 1843 and 1874. Antigua has also had her full share of the hurricanes which, from time to time, ravage that region of the tropical world. The negroes are fairly industrious in field-labour, but, being very unthrifty, seldom rise to a higher position, as has been the case with recent Portuguese immigrants who, beginning as labourers, became in numerous cases small shop-keepers, and in some instances very wealthy men. The blacks, as a class, are orderly and quiet, but ignorant and very troublesome under the influence of alcoholic drink. The 20,000 acres now under tillage, comprised in about 100 estates, are chiefly devoted

to sugar-cane and pine-apples. In 1895 the exports, mainly of sugar and molasses, had a total value of £87,000, of which nearly all went to the United States and the Canadian Dominion. The imports of provisions and manufactured goods, worth nearly £145,000, were to the extent of £57,540 from the British Isles. In 1895, a revenue of £44,348, chiefly from import duties, faced an expenditure of £70,221 and a public debt of £138,000 (in 1890). Much of the land, under depression of the sugar-industry, lapsed into "bush", but enterprise and capital devoted to the rich volcanic soil, with areas of clay and marl, might raise profitable crops of cotton and fibrous plants. The capital, both of the island and of the federal colony, *St. John*, is a place of 10,000 people on the north-west coast, picturesquely situated on a slope towards a safe and capacious bay, with water only deep enough for vessels of moderate tonnage. English Harbour, with the small town of *Falmouth*, has deeper water with an excellent dockyard. The haven is really an extinct crater, entered through a narrow passage between low cliffs composed of ash and volcanic boulder, with the inner shore presenting caves eaten out of gray lava and ash, and rock of black lava dipping sheer into water several fathoms in depth. Ironclads can anchor close to the cliffs, which have an abundant growth of aloes in their arid clefts and crannies. A Governor or President, a Crown-appointed Executive Council, and a Legislative Council of 24 members, half official and nominated, half elected, on a fairly high property or tenancy franchise, by about 350 voters in 11 electoral districts, form the ruling body of Antigua. *Barbuda*, lying 23 miles north of Antigua, is a coral-formed island, beset by reefs, and is 10 miles long by 8 broad, with an area of 62 sq. miles, and a population of 600. The place is very flat, with a large lagoon on the west, separated from the sea by a spit of sand; most of the surface is covered with dense forest, containing some of the wild deer now rare in the West Indies. The fertile soil produces good pasture for cattle which are sent to Antigua; the mineral products are salt and phosphates of lime worked by a private firm who lease the island from the Crown. Poultry are also reared for sale in neighbouring islands, and some corn, pepper, and tobacco are grown. *Redonda*, 25 miles south-west of Antigua, is a mere rock, 1 mile long by half a mile broad, rising to the height of 1000 feet, but has lately proved com-

KING EDWARD VII

Edward the Seventh, King of Great Britain and Ireland, Emperor of India, was born at Buckingham Palace on November 9th, 1841, eldest son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. After careful education under private tutors, the young Prince of Wales spent one session at Edinburgh University, a year at Oxford, and some terms at Cambridge. He visited the United States and Canada in 1860, and travelled with Dean Stanley in the East in 1862. On March 10th, 1863, he married the Princess Alexandra of Denmark, and became father of two sons and three daughters. In 1871, the Prince had an almost fatal attack of typhoid fever, his recovery being celebrated with great enthusiasm and a special service at St. Paul's Cathedral on February 27th, 1872. In 1875–76 he had a lengthy tour in India. As a lover of sport (twice winner of the Derby Stakes), an active supporter of many charitable works, and a gracious gentleman, the Prince of Wales, on January 22nd, 1901, after bearing that title far longer than any of his predecessors, was welcomed to the throne with the fairest hope of and firmest belief in his success as a monarch, amidst the universal mourning for his beloved mother.





From a Photograph by W. & D. DOWNEY. 93

KING EDWARD VII

Legislative Library

mercially valuable for its mines of phosphate of alumina, worked by a company paying a royalty of 6*d.* per ton, and exporting about 7000 tons yearly to the United States.

The Presidency of St. Christopher (St. Kitts), Nevis, and Anguilla, had in 1891 a total population of nearly 48,000. *St. Christopher* or *St. Kitts*, lying about 25 miles north-west of Antigua, is 23 miles long by 5½ miles in greatest width, with an area of 68 sq. miles, and about 31,000 inhabitants. The appearance of the island is very picturesque, as the land sweeps up from the shore, first slowly, then rapidly and steeply, into a range of lofty rugged mountains, traversing the greater part of the oval surface from south-east to north-west, and culminating in Mount Misery, over 4000 feet above sea-level. On the south-west, between the mountains and the sea, the isolated conical Brimstone Hill towers up for 750 feet. The higher slopes of the mountains are grass-clad, and the summits are crowned with ironwood, Spanish ash, white box and other trees. The only wild creatures are the agouti, a small brownish-yellow rodent allied to the guinea-pig; the tortoise, and a breed of small monkeys in the hills and woods, which do mischief to the higher plantations. Horned cattle, sheep, and pigs, bred in the island, furnish meat of a fair quality, and there is an abundant supply of excellent fish. At the south-east of St. Kitts is a long neck of untilled land, rising into conical hills covered with grass, cacti, and mimosa; below them lie salt-ponds about 2 miles in circumference, from which about 14,000 barrels of salt are annually obtained. The island is of volcanic origin, Mount Misery being a pyramid of black lava, below which lies a deep hollow, walled in by precipices whose fissures emit steam and sulphur fumes. The whole soils of the island have been formed by the lava and ash ejected from this volcanic focus, carried down to the lowland by tropical rains, and of great fertility and easily worked by the hoe and plough. The climate is very healthy and agreeable, with a range of 78 to 84 degrees. The occasional droughts, severely felt by so porous a soil, are the only drawback to the very advanced, scientific, and industrious tillage of the land by people who, using the hoe wherever a foothold may be had on the slopes, push their cane-fields up the sides of the hills, and liberally use native and foreign manures. About 16,000 acres are given to the sugar-cane, the making of the sugar being now per-

formed by the steam-power that has replaced the old wind and cattle mills. Sweet-potatoes, arrowroot, cassava or manioc, ground-nuts, coffee, tobacco, and various fruits are also grown. One main macadamized road, 30 miles long, runs round the island, which possesses no harbours, commerce being conducted at two road-steads for large vessels. The capital, *Basseterre*, with about 7000 people, lies on the seaboard of a spacious and fertile plain below the semicircular chief range of mountains. The other towns are Old Road and Sandy Point. In 1895, the value of all exports in sugar, molasses, and rum, from St. Kitts and Nevis, was about £140,500, of which the British Isles had only £9350 worth, most of the sugar going to the United States. On the whole imports, provisions and manufactured goods worth £172,280, the British share was £65,538. With a public debt of £74,650, the revenue of the three islands in 1895 was £43,200, mostly from import-duties, against an expenditure of about £56,000. The Presidency, with a Governor, has an Executive Council nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of 10 official and 10 nominated unofficial members.

Nevis, a round island with an area of 50 sq. miles, and a population (1891) just exceeding 13,000, lies 2 miles south-east of St. Christopher. A large part of the surface is occupied by a mountain of volcanic origin, with a wooded ancient crater rising in a conical peak to 3200 feet, and by two lower hills to right and left. The lava and ash, sliding down in concave slopes of fertile soil, have made about 16,000 acres, or half the whole area, fit for tillage. The slave-emancipation dealt more severely with this island than with any other of our West Indian colonies. A complete collapse of credit was followed by drought and pestilence, and for many years Nevis was a ruined spot of British territory. About 1865 the introduction of fresh capital, well employed, brought a revival of prosperity. All labour is engaged at good wages (2*s.* 8*d.* per day) for that region; many former paid-workmen have become small proprietors; and the island, where the soil is chiefly devoted to the sugar-cane, with some small growth of delicious tangerine oranges and of limes, is a model of modest prosperity in both public and private finance. Communication with St. Kitts is carried on between Basseterre, 12 miles distant, and *Charlestown*, the capital of Nevis, situated on a wide bay in

the north-west, at the foot of the mountain. The population is 1600; this little "port of registry", in 1891, possessed one vessel, of 136 tons register. Drought is the chief foe of the island-planters, who mainly depend for supplies of necessary moisture on the mountain-springs.

Anguilla ("little snake", from its long winding shape) lies about 60 miles north of St. Kitts, from which it is separated by the French island, St. Bartholomew, and the Dutch-French island, St. Martin, near to its southern shore. Sixteen miles long, and from three to one and a half in breadth, Anguilla has an area of 35 sq. miles and 3700 inhabitants, including about 100 whites. The surface is very flat, and has extensive pasture for the ponies and cattle. Phosphate of lime, and salt obtained from a lake in the centre of the island, are exported. Garden-stock is raised, and sold at the Danish island of St. Thomas, about 120 miles to the west. The place is very healthy; tillage is hampered by a deficiency of water. The revenue of about £550, derived from import-duties and licences, just balances the expenditure. A stipendiary magistrate, appointed by the Crown, and a vestry of four nominated members (including the magistrate, who presides) and three elected members, exercise rule; justice in criminal and civil affairs is administered at the magistrate's court and a small debt court, subject to the Supreme Court of the Leeward Islands. The place has been in British possession since 1650, and has no history save certain inroads of the French during the great war. To the north-west lie Anguilla's dependencies *The Dogs*, and off the north-east coast is another islet, Anguilletta, or "little Anguilla".

Dominica, the largest and most southerly of the British Leeward Islands, lies between 15° 20′ and 15° 45′ north latitude, and 61° 13′ and 61° 30′ west longitude, midway between the French islands Guadeloupe, due north, and Martinique, south-east. Running north and south, with a central bend to north-west, the island, about 29 miles long, and 16 in extreme width, has an area of 291 sq. miles, and a population of nearly 27,000, mostly negroes. The three or four hundred whites are chiefly of French origin, and two-thirds of the people speak a French *patois*. There are also about 300 Caribs, rapidly being absorbed by the black element. The religion is mainly Roman Catholic; the Anglicans are under

the Bishop of Antigua. The low death-rate of under 16 per thousand as annual average proves the healthiness of the climate, with a yearly mean of 79 degrees on the coast, and a rainfall, distributed throughout the year, of 83 inches. In the early years of the nineteenth century, Dominica saw some stirring events. In 1805, the French, under Villeneuve as admiral, and General La Grange, landed in force on each flank of Roseau, the capital. A brave defence was made by the regular troops and the island-militia, but the town was accidentally burned, and the inhabitants were forced to surrender, paying £12,000 to the invaders as ransom, while the soldiers retreated to a strong position on the other side of the island. The enemy then abandoned their conquest. This disaster was followed in 1806 by a hurricane of most destructive violence. The subsequent history of the island, after a course of peaceful development, has been marked by a decline of prosperity in strong contrast to the condition of her flourishing neighbours Martinique and Guadeloupe. In the later Georgian period, there were large exports of coffee, sugar, molasses and rum, but the decline of price in sugar, and the lack of the capital, enterprise, energy, and skill needful to make new products pay, have made Dominica a comparative failure among our West Indian isles. Long political unrest preceded a change in the constitution of the local Legislature in 1866. After the federal union of 1872, little improvement occurred, and in October, 1894, on the grounds that the island had long ceased to be prosperous or the people contented, the Colonial Secretary, the Marquis of Ripon, conferred a larger measure of autonomy in local affairs. A resident officer was appointed as "Administrator", and the Legislative Assembly was re-constituted as one composed of 7 elected members, 4 nominated unofficial, and 3 nominated official members. At the same time, the sum of £30,000 was to be raised by loan to pay off the floating debt, and other reforms were made in the system of rule.

Volcanic origin is abundantly shown by the existence of many "solfataras", or craters emitting sulphureous gases, steam, and other vapours, with large accumulations of sulphur lying around. In 1880 there was a great eruption of volcanic ash from the "Boiling Lake", of unknown depth, at the southern end of the island, and the lake was thereby almost destroyed, along with 6 square miles

of forest. The appearance of Dominica is truly magnificent to the eye of a voyager approaching any part of its hundred miles of coast. A dark irregular mass of mountains, in a chain that extends over the whole length of the island, covering nearly half the surface, and attaining at one point a height exceeding 6000 feet, presents deep ravines with overhanging cliffs, noble forests and luxuriant vegetation of the tropical class, with shining vales and clear running streams in the narrow region between the hills and the sea. From the shore to the mountain-tops, at most points, nearly all is verdure of diverse hues. Deep bays here and there indent the bold rocky coast, and high ranges of cliffs, on the north-eastern or windward side, broken by valleys and ravines, rise steeply from the water's edge. Beautiful to the traveller and the artist, the rugged character of the country has been a great impediment to the settlers in so warm a climate, confining tillage generally to the coast-line and the lower slopes of the hills. Of late years, something has been done to remedy the want of inland-communications, especially in the centre of the island, where a break in the mountain-system affords a fine tract of well-watered land above 30 square miles in extent. It is remarkable that the forest-clad interior, supplying a rich field of investigation for the botanist, remains almost as unknown ground as when Columbus first sighted the island. There is an abundance of valuable timber for useful and ornamental purposes, of which logwood, various hard woods, satin and other cabinet woods, are exported to some extent. Game exists in plenty, and the many rivers and streams have a wealth of fish. Wild bees, of European origin, furnish large supplies of honey and wax. Most of the peasants are breeders of poultry, and the ample supply of fresh meat and vegetables renders living cheap.

The fertile soil, alluvial in the bottoms of the larger valleys, and a clayey loam of decomposed rock in other parts, is the material of the chief industry—the tillage which produces sugar, cacao, fruit, coffee, limes, and some ginger, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, arrowroot and cassava, the flour of this last being largely used for food by all classes in Dominica, Guadeloupe, and Martinique. Cacao presents a good prospect as an article of commerce, and the export of lime-juice is increasing. The chief export in 1801 was coffee, but great havoc was wrought by insects, and it is only of late years that the more vigorous Liberian species has been found

capable of resisting the plague. There is an export of oranges to New York, and a luxuriant growth of bananas, pine-apples, cocoanuts, and other tropical fruits. Some essential oils are made in the island, and sent to the States and the British Isles, and the bay-rum now so much used by perfumers and hairdressers as exported from the Danish island of St. Thomas, is mostly made in Dominica by distillation from the leaves of the pimento or allspice. There are handicrafts in basket-work and making of canoes by hollowing out trees, both derived from the Caribs; in making sacks from the fan-palm and in coarse pottery. The chief town is *Roseau*, on the south-west coast, with a population of about 4500. The revenue, in 1895, was £22,859, against an expenditure of £27,100. The exports, in 1895, had a value of £39,470, an improvement since 1891; of the whole amount, about one-half went to the British Isles. The imports, in the same year, with a steadily increasing value, reached £69,790, of which goods worth £30,000 went out from the United Kingdom.

Montserrat, the most charming, as many aver, and probably the most healthy island of the Antilles, lies 27 miles south-west of Antigua. With a length of 11 miles, and a breadth of 7, the island has an area of 32 sq. miles, and a population (1891) of 11,762. Most of the people are of the Anglican Church, with a few hundred Roman Catholics, and about 2500 Wesleyans. The only historical note for Montserrat in the nineteenth century is the very satisfactory progress made since 1870, when an enlightened and enterprising firm of Quaker gentlemen, the Messrs. Sturge, established a large plantation of limes and a manufactory of lime-juice. From that time the island entered on a new course of improvement and prosperity. The zigzag roads, up hill and down glen, of the mountainous land, have been macadamized, and drained by masonry culverts and surface-work. The sugar-works have, on most estates, had the old windmills and cattle-mills replaced by steam-machinery. The population has grown from the proved salubrity of the climate and the establishment of a class of small freeholders of land. The Government have shown a wise liberality in providing free medical attendance and medicines for all labourers' children under ten years of age, and for all needy persons above sixty, and in founding a very good system of elementary education with liberal grants from the public funds.

This rugged little territory mainly consists of a cluster of volcanic mountain-tops rising to a height of 3000 feet in Souffrière Hill at the south. There are several peaks above 2500 feet among the chain which displays dense primeval forest on the upper slopes and summit, and landscape of rare charm in the varied greens of the cultivated slopes, chiefly on the western and south-eastern sides of the island, covered with sugar-canes, Guinea grass, and limes. At some points, variety is given to the view by precipitous sides and deep ravines. The temperature has an annual range from 72 to 84 degrees; the rainfall is about 56 inches up to 500 feet, increasing to 80 inches at higher levels. The terrible storm of 1899 is noticed below. The fertile soil, varying from light sandy loam to stiff clay, contains a large element of iron, and, tilled equally by the hoe and plough with care and skill, produces, in addition to the canes and limes, all the chief West Indian fruits and vegetables. The palm which produces the "mountain cabbage", a rival of asparagus in delicate flavour, grows freely on the hills, and the forests afford valuable drugs such as sarsaparilla, quassia, and cascarilla bark, a tonic and astringent. The chief commercial products are sugar, molasses, rum, and lime-juice. This last article is of the highest reputation, supplied to the extent, some years ago, of 100,000 gallons, all shipped to a single firm in Liverpool by the Montserrat Company, the chief proprietors in this line, who have now above 1000 acres of lime-trees, mostly in the north of the island. The bulk of trade is about equally divided between the British Isles and the United States. In 1895, the total exports had the value of £17,390, of which nearly £11,000 worth went to the United Kingdom. The imports of breadstuffs, hardware, machinery, household sundries, and pine-timber exceeded £22,700, of which about £10,000 was due to the home-country. The revenue, in 1895, was £7125, with an expenditure of £10,700 and a public debt of over £18,000. The government is in charge of the Resident Magistrate, also a Commissioner of the Supreme Court whose three judges go on circuit to each island of the Leeward federation. He is assisted by a Legislative Council of not more than six members, official and unofficial, nominated by the Crown. The chief town, *Plymouth*, with a population of about 1500, lies on the south-west coast, on the shore of an open roadstead with good anchorage. Springs afford an

excellent supply of water, which is furnished to ships at a moderate charge.

The group called the *Virgin Islands*, about fifty in number, lie at the north-western extremity of the Lesser Antilles, in about 19° north latitude, and 65° west longitude. Denmark holds St. Thomas, St. John, and Ste. Croix (or Santa Cruz); Spain possesses Bieque or Crab Island, and Culebra. Of the thirty-two islands or so that belong to the British Empire, the chief are Tortola, Virgin Gorda, Anegada, Peter's Island, Salt Island, and Jost Van Dyke, the whole British possessions having an area of 58 sq. miles, with a population (1891, diminished from 5287 in 1881) of 4639. A few score only of these are whites, the vast majority being negroes or "coloured people". The only recent history connected with this thick-lying archipelago of islets and rocks is the occurrence of two hurricanes. On October 29th, 1867, a fearful storm blew from 11 in the morning till 3 in the afternoon, with considerable loss of life to the people, and almost utter destruction of buildings and tillage. At the chief town, two-thirds of the houses were blown down; the jail, church, Wesleyan chapel, pier, school-house, hospital, and poor-house were ruined; the trees and crops were swept away or rendered useless. In August, 1871, the islands again suffered very severely from a like visitation, and have never fully recovered from these disasters.

With a lower average temperature, and a more healthy climate, than most of the West Indies; a generally rugged surface, partly covered with forests that contain mahogany, fustic, and other useful trees; having excellent pasturage for cows, sheep, and goats, and an abundant growth of Guinea-grass on the hill-sides; the British Virgin Islands, less popularly known than almost all other parts of the Empire, have a solitary and neglected existence, communicating with outward civilization only by the small sailing-craft which carry on a little trade with the Danish islands, and come in touch at St. Thomas with the vessels of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company. There is a little growth of cotton and sugar-cane; some fishing; a modest rearing of poultry and cattle; a small production of charcoal in the woods. The sugar-cane growth of former days, carried on with great toil expended on the rocky hill-sides of Tortola and Virgin Gorda, came to an end, as a commercial industry, with the lowering of prices in the middle of

the nineteenth century. The inhabitants of the group are now the productions most worthy of remark, for their qualities and their social condition. These blacks and coloured folk are the finest men in the whole of the West Indies, bringing great credit to the emancipation plan of allowing human beings, as free agents, to work out their own economical and social regeneration. They are the owners, as peasant-proprietors, of most of the land, and there are few that do not possess some soil and stock. Working for themselves, they produce what is their own; they enjoy a modest honourably independent position, generally as far removed from pauperism as from affluence; they dwell in comfortable homes; they dress well in their hours of ease; they contribute to the support of the church. In manners and in natural intelligence, the Virgin Islanders under the rule of the Queen surpass most of the West Indian coloured people, and, by the constant practice of navigation amongst the dangerous reefs and currents of surrounding seas, the men have become daring, hardy, and skilful mariners who would be most valuable in our West Indian squadron.

Tortola, with an area of 26 sq. miles, is wholly made up of hills, some rising above 1500 feet above sea-level. The capital of the group, *Roadtown*, with about 400 people, and a score of registered vessels, having a total of 800 to 900 tons, lies on the south coast. *Virgin Gorda*, 10 sq. miles in area, is hilly and barren at its eastern end. *Anegada*, the most northerly of the group, 18 miles north of Virgin Gorda, is a low-lying isle of coral formation, 12 miles long by over 2 in breadth, with a population of about 300. Some cattle and sheep are reared for the markets of St. Thomas. Mariners are now warned of their approach to the dangers of the reefs which beset Anegada by a lighthouse on the island of *Sombrero*, to the east. This little British possession, not attached to any group in a political sense, has very large and valuable deposits of phosphate of lime. The only inhabitants are Board of Trade officials connected with the lighthouse, maintained at a yearly cost of over £500 on this prominent islet, lying directly in the track of navigators from the Lesser Antilles to the Bahamas. The exports of the Virgin Islands, in 1895, had a value of £3818; the imports, chiefly of food-stuffs, were worth £4576. The revenue (£1533 in 1895) is mainly derived from a high and unpopular duty on food-

imports; the expenditure was, in the same year, nearly £2000. The government, under that of the Leeward Islands, and a local "administrator", is vested in a small official Executive Council, and a Legislative Council of mixed official and non-official nominated members.

In September, 1898, the West Indies were visited by one of the most fearful hurricanes on record. From Saturday, Sept. 10th, to Monday, Sept. 12th, the storm swept over Barbados, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, the Grenadines, St. Christopher (St. Kitts), Nevis, Montserrat, Anguilla, and Barbuda. At Barbados, the wind, with a velocity reaching 75 miles per hour, shook the strongest stone buildings to the base. Bridgetown was a mere wreck, with nearly every tree blown down, and demolished and roofless houses in all quarters. In the island throughout, 11,400 labourers' houses were destroyed; and nearly 5000 damaged. The personal damage included 112 persons killed, and 260 cases of injury treated in the hospitals. Many vessels were wrecked, many more blown out to sea. At St. Lucia, which was affected only by the fringe of the hurricane, "Niagaras of water", in the words of an eye-witness, combined with the wind, destroyed much of the cane and cocoa crops. St. Vincent was devastated, with the loss of about 300 lives, and damage estimated at £140,000 in the ruin of churches, chapels, schools, labourers' huts, stock, crops, wharves and other property. St. Kitts, Nevis, Montserrat, Anguilla, and Barbuda suffered much under the diminished force of the storm, chiefly from damage to jetties, roads, and other public works, with the wreck of houses and crops at the last two islands. Supplies for relief of immediate needs were quickly sent from adjacent British possessions. The Lord Mayor of London opened a "Mansion House Fund" by which a large sum was raised, and the Colonial authorities at home, and benevolent persons in New York and elsewhere, afforded substantial aid. A like calamity befel Montserrat on August 7th, 1899. The island had not yet recovered from the effects of a hurricane in November, 1896, when it was subjected to still more serious loss. The little territory was utterly devastated, with the loss of nearly 100 lives, and the destruction of every church and chapel, most other buildings, and the standing crops. Serious damage was caused by the same storm at St. Kitts and Nevis.

The WINDWARD ISLANDS, in the official sense, as an administrative group, now consist of St. Lucia, St. Vincent, the Grenadines (half under St. Vincent, half under Grenada) and Grenada, lying in this order, from north to south-west, between Martinique and Trinidad, and in from 12° to 14° north latitude. Geographically, Barbados and Tobago belong to the group, but the former, as we have seen, became a separate colony in 1885, and Tobago, four years later, was politically annexed to Trinidad. The total area of the present political group is about 525 sq. miles, with a population (1898) of about 154,000, of whom only about one-twentieth are whites. The rest are blacks or coloured people, except a few Caribs in St. Vincent, and a few thousands of Indian coolies in the various chief islands. Ruled by one Governor, the islands have their separate institutions, laws, revenue, and tariff, but share in the benefits of the Court of Appeal (the chief justices of the several islands and of Barbados) and of a common audit-system, with occasional combination of funds and efforts for purposes involving a common interest. The language spoken is English in St. Vincent and generally among the educated people, but in Grenada and St. Lucia the prevailing tongue is a French *patois*. The legal currency is British sterling, with Spanish and United States gold coinage. The Colonial Bank, with branches in the larger islands, issues five-dollar notes, and there are savings-banks (about 1800 depositors and nearly £14,000 balances in 1893) at Grenada and St. Lucia. There are no railways nor internal telegraphs; the government have a telephone-line connecting the chief towns in Grenada. There is cable-communication with Europe and with the other West Indies; and in 1899 the "Penny Post Agreement" established the charge of 1*d.* per ½ oz. for letters to and from the British Isles and most of our colonies, with 1*d.* for post-cards, and ½*d.* per 2 oz. for newspapers. The inter-colonial steamers run in connection with those from Southampton to Barbados, and there are fortnightly boats from Grenada to New York and London, and monthly steamers to several other ports. We may here note some matters of recent occurrence concerning the Windward Islands, along with other British West Indian possessions in the seas between North and South America. The decline of prosperity in connection with the sugar-industry caused the appointment of a Royal Commission to

inquire into the condition of the West Indian sugar-growing colonies. The general conclusions formulated by this body were, that the sugar-industry in those islands is in danger of great reduction, and, in some cases, of extinction, not on account of mismanagement, but from the competition of sugar-growing countries assisted by bounties; that in several of the islands there is no other industry which could profitably take its place, and that the total or partial extinction of the industry would seriously affect the condition of the labouring classes, and reduce the revenues of the colonies, in many cases, below an amount sufficient to meet the cost of administration. Amongst the measures of relief adopted, advances to the extent of £663,000 were made under the Colonial Loans Act (1899). Of this amount, St. Vincent received £50,000 for "hurricane-losses", as above described, and large tracts of Crown-lands, which had hitherto remained untilled, were in that island allotted in small holdings to peasant-proprietors.

Grenada, the most southerly of the group now under review, is about 60 miles from the northern coast of South America, and runs due north, from the line of 12 degrees north latitude, for 21 miles, with a maximum breadth of 12 miles. The area is 133 sq. miles; the population, over 62,600 in 1898, showing a large increase (above 40 per cent) since 1881, is mostly blacks, with more than 2000 coolie labourers from the East Indies. This picturesque, mountainous, volcanic island has ridges of hills covered with brushwood and forest, and a range that runs from north to south, with peaks sometimes reaching an altitude of over 3000 feet, and having some ancient craters now transformed into lakes. The country abounds in streams and mineral springs, and the soil has the usual fertility of the West Indies. For the wonders of tropical vegetation in the West Indies, especially on the large scale seen in Trinidad, we may here refer readers, once for all, to Charles Kingsley's excellent and enthusiastic book *At Last*, which also contains much geological matter and references to the fauna of the islands. Of the hill-lakes the beautiful Grand Etang, on the summit of a mountain-ridge, lies 1740 feet above the sea, surrounded by bamboos and tree-ferns. The south-eastern coast is low-lying and swampy.

Ruled as a Crown colony, under a constitution set forth in Letters Patent of March, 1885, Grenada has a Governor (in charge

of all these Windward Isles); a Legislative Council, nominated by him, of six official members, and seven unofficial members nominated by the Crown; and an Executive Council of five members, including the Governor, the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Treasurer. Each little town has an elective Board for local affairs, and the island, divided into six parishes, possesses an excellent system of roads now kept in thorough repair, including about 40 miles of highway, and a network of by-ways. In religious affairs, the Anglicans are under the Bishop of Barbados; there are numerous Roman Catholics, and some Presbyterians and Wesleyans. Education is in a fairly satisfactory condition, with 38 Government and aided elementary schools in 1899, containing over 8300 pupils; a grammar-school for boys, partly supported from public funds, and a school for the secondary education of girls. Most of the elementary schools are under the local management of the different sects; of the central Board of Education, nominated by the Governor, half the members are Roman Catholics.

The climate is, on the whole, of a character highly favourable to the health, comfort, and safety of the inhabitants. As in all other tropical islands, it is damp and hot during the wet season, but the temperature is equable, yellow-fever is almost unknown, and the island lies outside the range of hurricanes. The average mean temperature is 79 degrees, and the rainfall somewhat exceeds 80 inches. During the six "winter" months, from November to May, the weather is delightful, and the place is then a great health-resort for people from Trinidad, who in Grenada enjoy a restorative air and good sea-bathing. In 1896, the births were 2450 against 1184 deaths. The fauna include opossums, iguanas, agoutis, and armadilloes, abounding in the woods, and largely used as food by the negro population; a large number of turtle, one article of export; several kinds of wild pigeons, and migratory birds such as wild ducks and plovers. Goats, sheep, pigs, and poultry, reared on the island, supply fresh meat. The forests contain valuable timber—mahogany, the gigantic locust-tree, with tough close-grained wood, and the white cedar, with vanilla and some gum-yielding trees.

The chief industry is, of course, the tillage of the soil, and the recent features in production are the decline in sugar; the vast

increase of cocoa (cacao), the quality of which comes next to that of Trinidad, among the West India islands; and the larger growth of cotton and spices, the latter including cloves and vanilla, pepper and cardamoms, and, especially, nutmegs. The export of spices, for instance, grew from a value of under £3500 in 1880, to more than £22,000 in 1898. The fruit-trade is also becoming important in the markets of Barbados, Trinidad, and New York, and comprises coco-nuts and mangoes, with tropical fruits of almost every kind. Some products, in this line, of temperate climes have been introduced with success, including raspberries, strawberries, and apples. The plants and roots used for home-food consist of yams, sweet-potatoes, pigeon-peas, plantains, Indian corn, manioc, bread-fruit, and others. Turning to the chief commercial growths, we find that, in 1892, of the 20,418 acres under cultivation, sugar-cane was growing on only 911, while 11,115 were devoted to cocoa (cacao)-trees, 1812 to cotton, and 1343 acres to spices. In 1898, over 9 million pounds weight of cocoa were shipped, with a value of nearly £228,000, against little more than half the amount in 1880. Other exports comprise Indian corn, cotton and cotton-seed, ground-nuts, hides and skins, whale-oil, obtained from "fish" caught around the Grenadines, and live stock as above mentioned. Trade is carried on with the neighbouring islands and Venezuela, with the United States, and, very largely, with the British Isles. Timber, in great demand for new houses needed by an increasing population, bread-stuffs, and salt meat, come from the States; manufactured goods in textiles and hardware, from Great Britain. The total exports in 1898, had a value of £257,000, of which about £243,500 are accounted for by the United Kingdom. Of imports to the worth of over £210,000, the British Isles sent out £98,626. The revenue, mainly obtained by import duties, was £62,875 in 1898, with an expenditure of £57,612, and a public debt exceeding £127,000. *St. George*, the capital, as seat of government for all these Windward Isles, and also the chief port, lies on the south-west side of Grenada, in the middle of a large sandy-bottomed bay, safe from storms, with an inner spacious landlocked harbour on the eastern side. The little city of 5000 people is seen scrambling up the hillside with red roofs and church spires, among cacao and bread-fruit trees, and with garden-girt villas leading the eye up to the large and handsome Government

House, behind which one green hill after another rises towards the peak of Mount Maitland, 1700 feet in height. The place was originally built by the French, with the name of Port Royal, changed to St. George on the cession of Grenada in 1763. The five stone-built forts on the surrounding hills have been dismantled since 1854, when the regular forces were removed from the island; the chief of these structures, Fort George, is now used as a barrack for the police force.

The *Grenadines* are a line of islands, about 300 in number, and varying in size from 600 to nearly 8000 acres, running for sixty miles northward from Grenada to St. Vincent. Bare of wood, and edged with cliffs and streaks of red and gray rock, they rise a few hundred feet out of very deep sea. The inhabitants are chiefly a quiet and prosperous race of small proprietors or yeomen, raising and exporting live stock and vegetable products, conveyed to the larger islands in coasters of their own building. The southern islands of the group are attached politically to Grenada, and of these the chief is Carriacou, with an area of nearly 7000 acres and a population of about 6000. The chief island connected with St. Vincent is Becquia, in the north of the Grenadines; it is somewhat larger than Carriacou.

The beautiful *St. Vincent*, an irregular oblong in shape, broader in the northern than in the southern half, lies about 70 miles north-north-east of Grenada, and 100 miles due west of Barbados. Eighteen miles long, and eleven in extreme breadth, it has an area of 132 sq. miles, with a population (1898) just exceeding 46,000, of whom about 2450 were whites, and 31,000 blacks, the residue being mainly coloured people and East Indian coolies. The history of the island in the nineteenth century involves nothing worthy of mention save the great eruption of 1812; the decline of sugar-production due to the slave-emancipation of 1838, to the admission in British ports of slave-grown sugar, in 1846, at the same tariff as the West Indian article, and to a fall of prices in more recent years; and the establishment, in 1878, after previous changes in the constitutional system, of the island's rule as a "Crown colony" instead of by representative government. The mention of "eruption" has already stated the volcanic origin and character of St. Vincent. From north to south runs a chain of densely-wooded mountains with peaks from 3000 to 4000 feet in height. The chief crater,

styled the Soufrière (sulphur-mine) as in other West Indian islands, lies in the north of this range, which sends off spurs on each side, dividing the island into a series of beautiful and fertile valleys running east and west to the coast. The southern part of the chain ends in Mount St. Andrew, 2500 feet in height, overlooking a fine bay and the chief town. The many streams are small, except when they are swollen by the heavy rains in the season between May and February, the average annual fall being 100 inches. At this time thunder-storms are of frequent occurrence, and the prevailing wind is from the north-east. In spite of humidity and the tropical heat, the climate is one of the most healthy in the West Indies. The only wild animals are some hogs and agoutis; the little rivers abound in a fish called "mountain-mullet", somewhat like the grayling in flavour; the sea has abundant and excellent fish, a small species of whale, 20 to 30 feet in length, and a race of sharks which, it seems, do not care for human flesh, and never attack men upset from the island-boats in the many sudden fierce squalls rushing down from the hills.

The pride of St. Vincent, in the way of scenery, is the magnificent Soufrière, one of the finest and largest craters in the world, with its edge at a height of about 3700 feet in the north-west of the island. The road thither up the mountain-side is adorned with flowers of many species, especially with bignonias and orchids; it passes amidst groves of splendid tree-ferns up to a wild and windy, cool and rainy, treeless region, clothed with fern and small red-blossomed "scrub", and with rich broad-bladed grass, covering a surface of cinders that yield to the tourist's tread. Close to the top, on one side of the crater-edge, two huge flat oval slabs, about 200 feet long, and 30 feet high, profusely adorned with ferns, seem to stand sentinel over the vast chasm out of which they were volcanically blown. One step forward, and the grandeur of the Soufrière bursts all at once on the eye. Near a thousand feet below, beneath a ring of awful cliff, lies a circular lake three miles in circumference, formed by an eruption in 1718 which blew into the skies the great ash-cone then rising in a gracefully tapering form for many hundreds of feet above the surrounding crater-lips, studded with trees and flowers amidst which the songs of countless birds made music in one of nature's noblest gardens. No bottom has been reached by soundings in the water that, to the spectator

above, gleams in the sunshine with a grass-green hue, while waves that are crested with snowy foam are moving across the surface dead against the wind, and breaking, noiselessly to the distant ear, on the shore below. All sides of the vast abyss are one glorious fernery, broken only for about a mile on the south by a forest of small, leafless, black, dead trees killed by the "Little Eruption" of 1814. The new crater formed two years previously has a smooth grassy bottom higher in level than the lake, with a triangular pond of transparent water fed by a tiny stream. The sides of this later vent are mostly black and charred, and the two craters are separated by a knife-edge of rock over 700 feet in height.

The historic "Great Eruption" of 1812 was a most convincing proof of the part played by volcanic action in the sterner work of nature's forces. For the two years prior to March, 1812, a great internal pressure upon the earth's crust had been seeking some outlet, and causing an agitation of sea and land over an area half as large as Europe, from the Azores to the West Indies and the coast of Venezuela, and from the Cordillera chain of New Grenada to the valleys of the Mississippi and the Ohio. These earthquakings reached their height of violence in the terrible catastrophe of March 26th, 1812, the day on which, in that year, Holy Thursday fell, when the people of Caracas, the capital of Venezuela, were assembled in the churches, and the troops were drawn up and the processions formed to honour the occasion, beneath a serene and blazing sky. Then, in an instant, in the twinkling of an eye, came the tragedy described in the pages of Humboldt. The troops, in one minute of earthquake, were crushed to death by the fall of their barracks; the worshippers were buried in the ruins of their churches; the houses fell in and fell out, smiting to death the home-stayers and people in the streets. The whole loss of life reached from 10,000 to 12,000, the former being Humboldt's estimate. A month or more had elapsed at mourning Caracas, when the survivors were startled, on April 30th, by a subterranean noise resembling frequent discharges of the largest cannon. No shock was felt, but the sound was heard over a space of 4000 square leagues, from Martinique and Guadeloupe to the Llanos or grassy plains of the Orinoco. Preparations were made to resist a foe supposed to be advancing with heavy cannon. The cause of the portentous noise was afterwards found to lie five hundred miles

away. The citizens of Caracas had really heard the sounds of their own deliverance from all further mischief. The long-silent Soufrière of St. Vincent had opened again, and relieved the interior pressure of imprisoned steam. It was on April 27th, 1812, that a negro boy herding cattle on the mountain-side saw stone after stone falling near him. Believing that other boys were pelting him from the cliffs above, he began to return the fire, when a thicker shower, with some stones that no human hand could wield, made the lad run for his life, leaving the cattle to their fate, while a column of black cloud arose from the crater, composed of dust and ash and stone. For three days and nights the mountain roared. The greater part of the island was covered with ashes that buried the crops, broke branches from the trees, and spread destruction from which some estates never recovered. At Barbados, on May 1st, when the clock struck six, no light of the morning sun could be seen, and the darkness grew thicker as the hours sped away, while a slow and silent rain of impalpable dust was falling over the whole island. Terror seized the souls of blacks and whites, and the churches were filled with trembling, sobbing, and praying crowds. A dead silence reigned in nature's realm save for the crashing of the branches snapped by the weight of clammy dust. The trade-wind had utterly ceased; the roar of the surf on the shore was at an end. About an hour after noon the veil of darkness was lifted and a lurid sunlight came in from the horizon while blackness was dominant overhead. By degrees the dust-cloud drifted away, and the Barbadians, beneath the full light of the sun, saw their island inches deep in black and, as it proved, fertilizing matter. The trade-wind blew again out of the east, and the noise of the surf rose again on the beach. The arrival of the dust from St. Vincent in Barbados, against a strong easterly breeze, across 100 miles of sea, shows the force of explosions in the Soufrière which drove the material several miles into the air, above the region of the trade-wind, into a higher stratum where an opposite current could convey it in an easterly direction.

The one great industry of St. Vincent is the tillage which, still producing some sugar-cane (with its extracts, rum and molasses), raises cocoa, spices, and excellent arrowroot in the valleys and on the fertile slopes of the hills. About 13,000 acres, or one-sixth of

the whole area, are under cultivation, a large portion being in the hands of three firms. The negroes are, in large numbers, "squatters" on the unoccupied Crown-lands. Valuable timber is obtained from the forests. About 80 miles of highway run round the island, but on the leeward (western) side most of the traffic is by boat. The exports, in 1898, were worth nearly £45,000, of which the British Isles took produce to the value of about £14,000. The imports, worth about £88,300, were obtained from the United Kingdom to a value of nearly £28,000. The revenue, chiefly derived from import duties, with export charges on sugar, molasses, rum, arrow-root, cacao, and cotton, was £27,361 in 1898, against a somewhat larger expenditure, with a public debt exceeding £17,000. The rule of the island is in the hands of an "Administrator and Colonial Secretary", with a Legislative Council of four official and four nominated unofficial members. Over 40 elementary schools, one supported by Government, with 20 Anglican, 16 Wesleyan, and 4 Roman Catholic schools, have about 7500 children on the rolls. A grammar-school, for secondary education, is aided by an annual grant of £100. *Kingstown*, the capital, is situated on the shore of an extensive bay at the south-western extremity of the island. The usual government buildings and the hospital are of good architecture. The population is about 4600, and, as a port of registry, the place had, in 1891, 28 vessels of 693 tons.

St. Lucia, lying 21 miles north-north-east of St. Vincent, is the largest of the Windward Islands, being about 35 miles long and 15 in greatest breadth, with an irregular oval circuit of 150 miles, and an area of 233 square miles. The population, in 1898, numbered 48,000, of whom by far the majority were blacks or half-breeds, with about 2500 East Indian coolies and less than a thousand whites. The white population is, to a large extent, of French origin, and most of the inhabitants speak a French *patois*, but the use of English is now extending. The island has unjustly had the repute of general unhealthiness, which quality is confined to certain small localities between the hills, yearly improving as the woodland gives way to tillage. The tropical heat, rarely exceeding 80° from December to April, is much tempered by the fine continuous breeze of the "trades". Great regard is paid to the public health in the provision of hospitals in all the towns and of dispensaries in

all the larger villages, with gratuitous medical advice and remedies. For the twenty years 1869–89 the average death-rate fell below 25 per 1000, and in 1898, with 1858 births, there were but 1214 deaths.

The history of St. Lucia having been already given down to the commencement of the nineteenth century, we have only to note that the island was long in recovering from the troubles that preceded the final British conquest; that there were severe epidemics of cholera and small-pox many years ago; and that the system of rule according to the law and ordinances of the old French monarchy is now superseded by a code of civil law, framed upon the principles of the ancient law of the island, modified to suit existing circumstances, and established in 1879; by the statute law of the colony, consolidated in 1889; and by jury-trial for criminal cases in the Superior Court. A judge and three magistrates administer the law, and the general government is in charge of an Administrator subordinate to the Governor-in-chief of the Windward Islands, with an Executive Council and a Legislative Council nominated by the Crown. For educational purposes, grants of £625 are yearly made to each of two bodies—the Roman Catholic priests, and the trustees of the Lady Mico charity. In 1898, there were 8 Protestant and 31 Roman Catholic schools, with a total of 5280 pupils, the whole Government grant exceeding £2600. There is a "Canadian mission to Indian immigrants", maintaining three schools for the children of the coolie labourers.

Among all the West Indian islands, St. Lucia is unsurpassed for picturesque beauty. The voyager approaching the south-western end sees two cone-shaped mountains, or vast obelisks of rock, called The Pitons (the general French name for conical hills in the West Indies), rising sheer out of deep sea, a mile apart, to the heights of 2680 and 2710 feet. Between them lies a charming little bay, and behind them verdant wooded slopes rise toward the Soufrière, an ever-active volcanic crater, 2 miles eastward of The Pitons, and 1000 feet above the sea. Covering an area of about 3 acres, this outlet of subterranean forces is crusted over with sulphur, alum, cinders, and other volcanic matter, in the midst of which are boiling springs, some of clear water, others of black liquid rising 2 or 3 feet in the air and emitting thick clouds of most offensive sulphurous steam. Viewed from any side, the island

presents the beauty and grandeur of mingled mountains, valleys, and forests, the latter displaying to those who penetrate their recesses all the glories of palms and ferns, orchids, creeping plants, and birds of gorgeous hues. The chief mountains, densely covered with wood, extend from north to south over the centre of the island, which is watered by countless rivers and brooks that, after the profuse tropical rains, come down with a rush that wrenches up trees and brushwood, and brings masses of rock and soil upon the roads and fields below. In the north and the south are two beautiful plains, partly covered with swamp overgrown with aquatic plants, the haunt of water-fowl and other game. The chief valleys run east and west from the central chain of hills, and all are composed of very fertile soil that produces tropical corn and edible roots and vegetables in great variety, supplies rich pasturage for cattle, and is capable of bearing cotton and many kinds of fibrous plants, along with tobacco, spices, and coffee. Justice has never been done to the rich natural resources of the island, which sorely needs capital, enterprise, agricultural skill, and improved communications between the interior, where much land lies unreclaimed, and the coast-line. Sugar, rum, and molasses, cocoa, and logwood are the chief commercial products. There are four large central factories, fitted with the best modern machinery, and turning out sugar in pure white crystals. The exports, in 1898, were worth about £166,500, of which over £11,000 in value went to the British Isles. The imports, including coal for steamships, amounted in value to nearly £272,000, goods worth nearly £141,000 being received from the United Kingdom. The revenue, mainly from the import duties, as in our other West Indian isles, was £67,628 in 1898, with an expenditure of over £60,900, and a public debt, in 1898, of £189,580, mostly incurred through improvements in the harbour of the capital and chief port. This place, *Castries*, had its name in 1785 from the French colonial minister of the day, and lies on the north-west coast, with a natural harbour entered by a passage 600 yards across between two headlands. The port is one of the safest and most spacious in the Antilles, and has recently been made of great interest and value by the Imperial Government's choice of Castries as the chief coaling-station for the West Indian squadron. The port has been dredged out to a mean depth of 30 feet, and has excellent quays beside

which the largest vessels can anchor. Many foreign steamers and men-of-war, as well as British ships, take in coal at the wharves, and the harbour is now defended by strong fortifications. The town has about 7000 inhabitants. The little town of Soufrière, on the coast near the mountain, contains about 2000 people.

TRINIDAD, called Iëre by the Indians, or "The Land of the Humming-bird", from the number and variety of the tiny charming feathered gems there flitting from flower to flower, is a really fine colonial possession of the British crown. Most southern of the Lesser Antilles, and largest, next to Jamaica, of the British West India islands, it lies off the north-east of Venezuela, in 10° 3′ to 10° 50′ north latitude, and about 61° to 62° west longitude, with its southern coast facing some of the mouths of the Orinoco. Nearly rectangular in shape, the island sends out a longish horn on the north-west, and a much longer one on the south-west, towards the coast of Venezuela, thereby inclosing the Gulf of Paria. About 50 miles long, and 32 miles in average breadth, Trinidad has an area of 1754 sq. miles, with a population, in 1898, just exceeding 260,000. At one point, the islands off the north-west horn of Trinidad are but 7 miles from the projecting part of Venezuela, but the distance across the Gulf of Paria is, in general, far greater.

We take up, first, the history of Trinidad after the final cession to Great Britain in 1802. Picton's firm and able administration from 1797 till 1803 so greatly benefited the island that the population, under his rule, grew from under 18,000 to nearly 30,000, and the annual exports of sugar rose from 75,000 cwts. to about double that amount. For the next ten years, the colony was ruled by military men. It was then seen that a progressive civil administration was needed, and in June, 1813, Sir Ralph Woodford, Bart., took over the government from General Munroe. The new ruler, then only in his twenty-ninth year, was a most active, excellent, and energetic man, searching with his own eyes into everything in Trinidad, and learning the wants, views, and feelings of all classes of the community. The social and moral state of the island was transformed under the influence of Woodford's admirable life, character, precept, and counsel. We have a very unusual display of character and view of duty in a colonial governor when we find him, in November, 1823, issuing a proclamation to the people,

expressed in the most dignified and solemn words, wherein he exhorts all the king's subjects to a punctual observance of the Sabbath, and a regular and devout attendance at the places of worship, and "requires and commands all Persons in place of authority, to give good example, by a virtuous life, to the end that all ill habits and practices may be reformed, and that Religion, Piety, and Morality may flourish and increase, to the Honour of God, and the prosperity of the Land". The schools were brought under state supervision, and an excellent code of "Rules for Schools" was issued. Tillage and trade were encouraged, and the internal and external methods of communication were improved. To the care and good taste of Sir Ralph Woodford Port-of-Spain owed her wide and regular streets, and the two beautiful squares, and it was he who formed the famous Botanic Gardens at St. Ann's. In 1817, the "Trinidad Steam-Boat Company" was formed under his auspices, and conducted to success, the steamer *Woodford*, which began to run between Port-of-Spain and San Fernando in December, 1818, being the first that ever plied in West Indian waters, and that only six years after the *Comet* began to run on the Clyde. This model of a colonial ruler, quitting the island on sick-leave in April, 1828, died at sea in the middle of May.

After complete slave-emancipation in 1838, Trinidad had her full share of the mischief wrought by that measure, and already explained in reference to other islands. Brought to the verge of ruin in 1844, she was saved by the vigorous promotion of coolie immigration from the East Indies. This provision of labour for the sugar-plantations, rendered needful by the idleness of the negroes, was largely due to the energy of the Governor, Lord Harris, who arrived in May, 1846, and of Mr. Warner, C.B., attorney-general. The system has been continued, with great benefit, down to the present day. The governorship of Lord Harris, continuing for seven years, was also made notable by his institution of a system of primary education, and by the introduction of municipal rule. He had confidence in the great natural resources and wonderful capabilities of the colony, and, with a deep interest in the material and moral welfare of the people, he ruled with marked ability and success. Sir Arthur Gordon, who was Governor from 1867 to 1870, was of great service through his bold

and enlightened policy in creating by legal measures a body of small proprietors who had previously been mere squatters. The cultivation of cocoa, and other industries, were thus promoted, and Trinidad, under the influence of low prices for sugar, has been saved from the disastrous effects of reliance upon a single staple. Sir William Robinson, Governor from 1885 to 1891, zealously furthered the development of the agricultural resources of the colony, establishing District Boards, with a Central Board, sitting in Port-of-Spain, and instituting exhibitions with prizes as a stimulus to the cultivation of a greater variety of products. His administration is specially remarkable for the impetus given to the fruit-trade between Trinidad and the United States. A direct line of steamers for that purpose, with an annual subsidy from the government, was established. The annual revenue of the Crown property increased, under Sir W. Robinson's rule, from about £1600 to nearly £32,000, and in 1892 the total amount exceeded £37,000, nearly meeting the entire charge of the public debt. He also introduced a fortnightly service of steamers round the island. Sir Frederick Napier Broome became Governor in August, 1891, and showed an active interest in the prosperity of Trinidad by encouraging the occupation of Crown-lands, and by applying to the Colonial Secretary, in 1893, for his sanction to a loan of half a million sterling "for opening up the island by railways". The present ruler is Sir H. Jerningham, K.C.M.G.

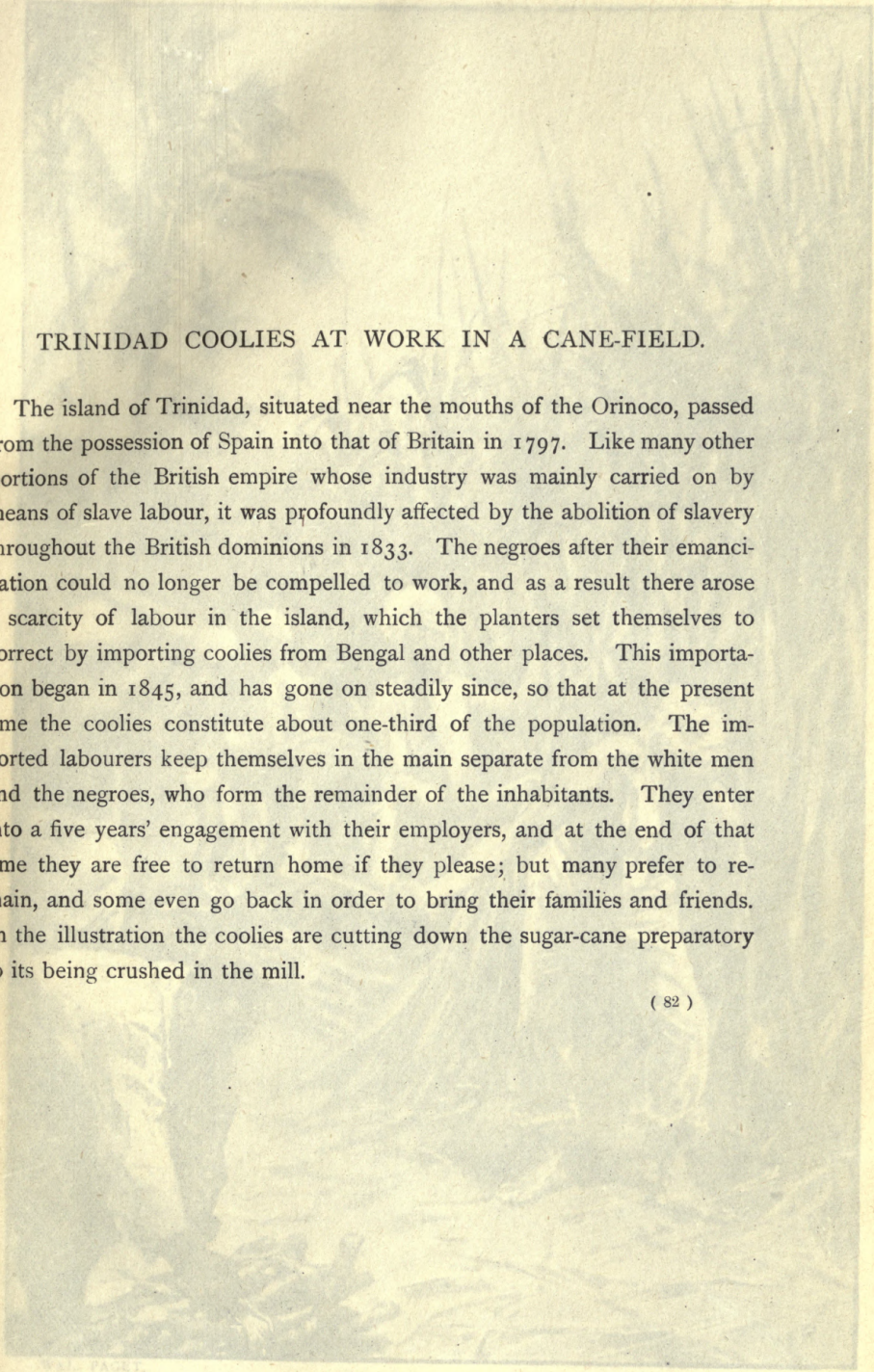
The natural beauty of Trinidad gives her a high rank, in this respect, among the islands, not only of the West Indies, but of the world. The northern coast is rocky throughout, and the eastern side, partly edged by hills, and at one place, by some miles of swamp, is ever beaten by a dangerous surf; the southern coast is generally steep, and only on the western side is there any good natural harbour. On that coast, however, between Trinidad and the mainland of South America, the landlocked Gulf of Paria affords abundance of secure anchorage. Groves of palm-trees and luxuriant forests are seen sweeping down to the sea-side, and the precipitous part of the coast, at many places, clothed to the top with foliage, shows not merely shrubs, but forest-trees, with grand spreading branches, huge trunks, and leaves of brilliant hue, growing out from among the rocks with little apparent soil for their mechanical support or their nourishment. With much level or undulating ground, the island is

crossed, from east to west, roughly speaking, by three ranges of hills, varying from 600 to 3100 feet in height, forest-clad, and deeply cut by countless ravines. The most northerly range of mountains, with a peak called Tucuche exceeding 3000 feet, fringes the coast, and throws out many spurs to the south. The central chain, not quite continuous, runs south-west from Manzanilla Point, on the east coast, to near San Fernando, on the Gulf of Paria. The southern range traverses nearly all the country near to the sea. The plains are watered by numerous rivers, all running east or west, none large or navigable. In spite of a near approach to the equator, with a mean temperature of 78° in the cool season, and of 86° in the hot time, and an average rainfall of about 66 inches, chiefly in July, August, and September, the climate is healthy for abstemious and prudent Europeans. The mornings have a peculiar charm in the rapid transition from darkness to light, preluded by the cries of birds and croaking of frogs. At half-past five comes the first glimmer of light; in fifteen minutes, full daylight seems to have arrived; in a few minutes more, the sun's rim appears, and the dew on the leaves is radiant as gems; the golden light shoots far into the woods; the small birds chirp and flutter, the parrots scream, the monkeys chatter, the bees are humming, and butterflies of expansive wings and most gorgeous colours flutter through the air or rest on the flowers. The coolness of the night has refreshed all living creatures of the vegetable and animal worlds, and the agreeable chill of dawn is succeeded by warmth and sunshine that give almost magical rapidity of growth to the glorious vegetation of a tropical isle.

The scenery is unsurpassed for variety and beauty of foliage and flowers, the landscapes being adorned with a rich and rare profusion of form and colour that defy description, and compel us, for lack of space, to refer readers to the pages of Charles Kingsley (*At Last*) and Anthony Trollope (*The West Indies and the Spanish Main*). The slopes, covered to the summit with luxuriant forest-growth, form a wavy sea of woodland, displaying in the brilliant sunlight and clear air an ever-changing diversity of shades from the lightest green to the richest russet brown, lit up here and there by dense clusters of bright yellow or blazing crimson tree-flowers. The valleys abound in crystal streams, rising high up in the hills, rushing now through a narrow gorge, then twisting and turning, and

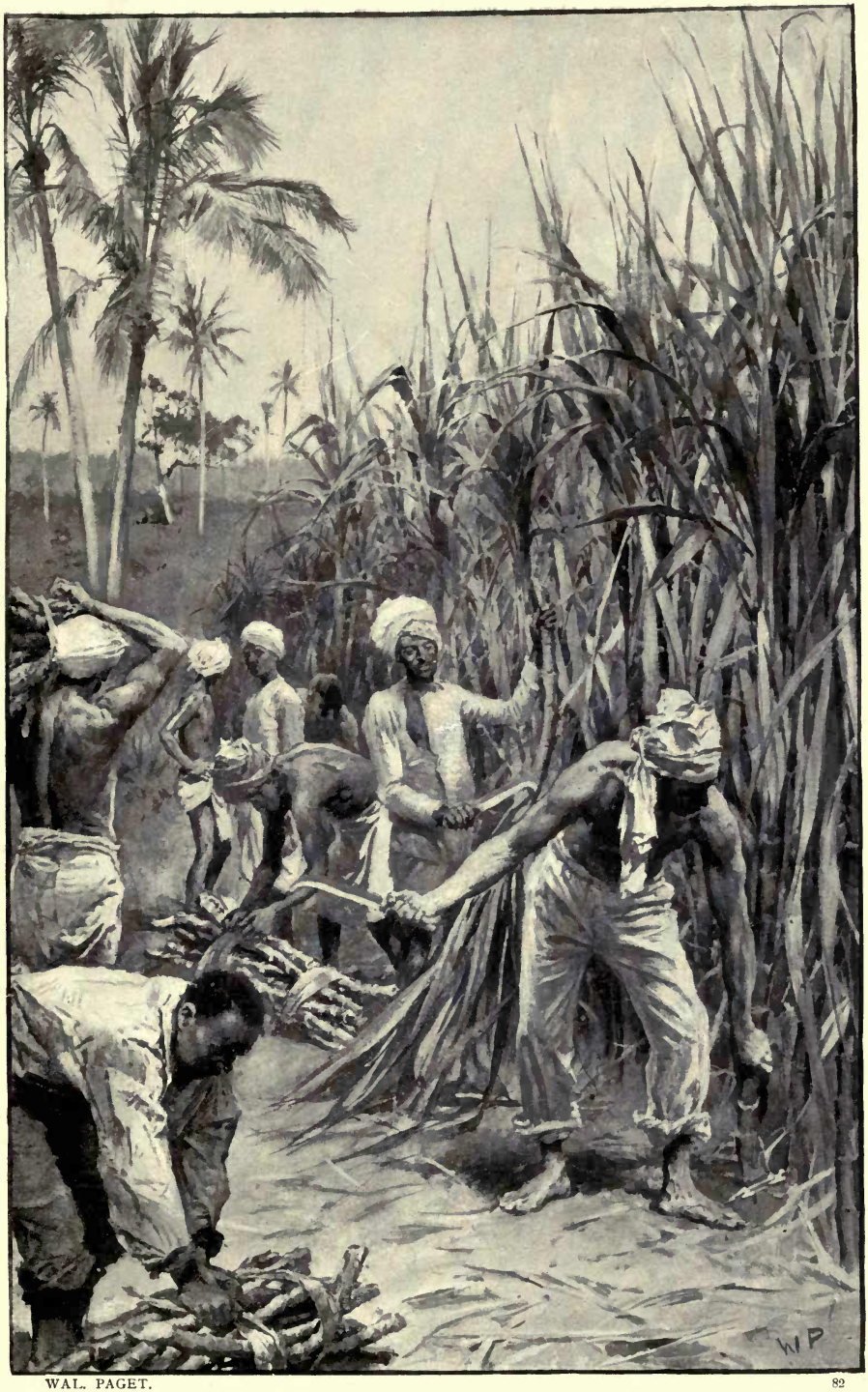
widening out into gentle shallow rivulets, rippling in music over pebbly beds. The Diego Martin valley, about nine miles from Port of Spain, in the north-west, has a most picturesque waterfall, the stream of which, after several descents higher up, falls down into what is called the "Blue Basin". The apparent tint of the water is probably due to extreme clearness caused by filtration through mica slate, lime, and other earthy matter in upper regions of the mountain-side. The Maraccas Valley, below Tucuche, the culminating peak of the island, has the finest of all West Indian cascades in the *Chorro* or Waterfall, 340 feet in sheer descent. Amidst virgin forest, with flowering shrubs and plants of richest blooms, from a perpendicular wall of solid rock the stream comes down, splitting in the air and producing a constant shower that spreads delicious coolness around. Nearly the whole surface of the natural wall is covered with plants, including ferns and mosses, the red flowers of the *Pitcairnia*, various nettles, and scattered *Begonias*. Among the other sights of the island is the *Cocal*, with its long stretch of fourteen miles of coco palms, and the Atlantic surge from the east ever roaring on the shore.

The famous Pitch Lake lies near La Brea Point, on the south-west coast, and gives a name to the village there from the Spanish "la brea", or "pitch". This unique natural phenomenon is a great surprise to those who have imagined a liquid expanse like coal-black soup. It is really like an area of asphalt paving, over 100 acres in extent, intersected by ruts, narrow chasms or channels, filled with water. The surface is firm enough, in almost every part, to bear the weight of the horses and carts loaded by the diggers. For nearly four miles in this district the shore is formed of pitch, and large black masses appearing like rocks are in reality bodies of asphalt. The whole soil rests on immense strata of this substance, which bursts up, in the gardens of the village and elsewhere, either in detached pieces or in extended sheets or layers of several tons in weight, in many cases, by a very gradual process, causing the buildings to decline from the perpendicular. The ground slopes upward from the sea to the lake, which lies at about 140 feet above the Gulf of Paria. Pine-apples of matchless quality grow in the bituminous soil. The surface of the lake displays pools of fresh water, with trees and bushes at intervals, and a constant movement, caused by the generation of gases, is observed. Beautiful birds and insects



TRINIDAD COOLIES AT WORK IN A CANE-FIELD.

The island of Trinidad, situated near the mouths of the Orinoco, passed from the possession of Spain into that of Britain in 1797. Like many other portions of the British empire whose industry was mainly carried on by means of slave labour, it was profoundly affected by the abolition of slavery throughout the British dominions in 1833. The negroes after their emancipation could no longer be compelled to work, and as a result there arose a scarcity of labour in the island, which the planters set themselves to correct by importing coolies from Bengal and other places. This importation began in 1845, and has gone on steadily since, so that at the present time the coolies constitute about one-third of the population. The imported labourers keep themselves in the main separate from the white men and the negroes, who form the remainder of the inhabitants. They enter into a five years' engagement with their employers, and at the end of that time they are free to return home if they please; but many prefer to remain, and some even go back in order to bring their families and friends. In the illustration the coolies are cutting down the sugar-cane preparatory to its being crushed in the mill.



WAL. PAGET. 82

TRINIDAD COOLIES AT WORK IN A CANE-FIELD.

flit about the clumps of vegetation half floating in this Stygian expanse, near the borders of the lake; the central part, over 50 acres in extent, contains what is called "the place of supply", the part where the asphalt is still oozing up. For full particulars we may refer our readers to an interesting paper in *Chambers's Journal* for January, 1895. It is since 1875 that the asphalt furnished by this wonderful and, as it seems, inexhaustible reservoir of pitch, has attained a considerable value in the markets of the world. The void made by removal is quickly filled, and whereas in 1888 about 45,000 tons were exported—three-fifths to the United States and the rest to Europe—in 1898 this amount had risen to 100,208 tons, worth £105,000, and affording to the colony, in "royalty" and export-duty, a revenue of £34,000 a year.

There are people from many nations in Trinidad. The population (260,000) of 1898 showed an increase of 59,000, or about 25 per cent since the 1891 census. The natural increase gave only a small percentage of this, the rest being due to immigration. Of these immigrants above half were coolies from the East Indies, and about the same number came mainly from the neighbouring British West Indies, a sure sign of rapidly-growing prosperity. Of the whole population, about one-half were native-born, and about one-half were of foreign birth. Of the former, nearly one-quarter were of almost pure East Indian descent, the children and grandchildren of coolies; the other portion being chiefly of mixed African descent, with a small minority of persons of pure European or American blood, and a still smaller number of mixed Indian or Chinese race. Of the foreign-born inhabitants, over 50,000 were natives of the East Indies; 40,000 of the British West Indies; about 1300 of the foreign West Indies; over 2300 were Europeans; and the rest were natives of the United States, Canada, Venezuela, Africa, and China. The coolie or East Indian element is thus very large, numbering 80,000, or nearly one-third of the whole population. The first "coolie-ship" arrived from India in 1845, and the system is now thoroughly organized on a basis which affords a free passage to Trinidad, under an agreement providing for five years' industrial service at the current rate of wages, with a free passage back to India, if it be desired, after five years' further residence on the island. A minimum rate of wages is guaranteed, with gratuitous medical attendance, hospital-room, and many other minor advantages. This

immigration has been very beneficial both to the colony and to the coolies. In 1896, over 40,000 acres of land were owned by East Indian labourers or their descendants, and of the total of £158,000 deposited in the Government Savings-banks, nearly £67,000 was coolie property, in addition to savings, amounting to £124,000, carried back to India by the people who returned thither during the previous ten years, as well as nearly £20,000 sent home to their friends in the East. The 40,000 foreign-born natives of the British West Indies, mentioned above, are nearly all black and coloured immigrants, chiefly mechanics, domestic servants, and labourers, from Grenada, St. Vincent, and Barbados. The negroes, or African section of the people, are fast dying out, having decreased from 8000 in 1851 to less than 2000 in 1896, more than half of these being over 60 years of age. Amidst the mixture of tongues in such an island, including a general use of English, the French lower classes speak the *patois* peculiar to the West Indies.

The chief products of the very fertile soil are indicated by the figures concerning the areas under different growths. Of the whole surface, estimated at 1,120,000 acres, there were, in 1898, about 205,000 acres under cultivation. Of these, 57,000 acres were given to sugar-cane; 104,000 to cacao (cocoa) and coffee; 18,500 to ground provisions; and 14,000 to coco-nut palms; 10,000 acres consist of pasture. The chief commercial vegetable products may be given as sugar, molasses, rum, cacao, fruit, coco-nuts, and coco-fibre, sugar and cacao having a large predominance. For home use, arrow-root, tobacco, coffee, ginger, bitters, and spices are also produced. The exported fruit consists mainly of oranges, bananas, pine-apples, and limes.

The revival of the sugar-industry, due to the importation of coolie labour as above indicated, was at first such that exports, from 11,000 tons in 1840, reached over 53,000 tons in 1896, with nearly two million gallons of molasses. The appearance of a field of sugar-canes, during the "arrowing" or flowering time, is very beautiful. On jointed stems from 6 to 14 feet in height, and from 1 to 1½ inches thick, rises the "arrow" or unjointed flowering-stalk, ending in a tuft of soft silky flowers. The pith of the jointed stem, of open cellular structure, is the part containing the sugary juice, which is squeezed out in powerful mills with three rollers having a combined slow rolling and sliding motion, acting

on the canes placed lengthwise between them. The juice is then highly heated, clarified with lime and chemicals, run through filters, and finally concentrated and crystallized in the process called "pan-boiling". The average yield of an acre of sugar-canes is from 2500 to 3000 lbs. of sugar. The "usine" (French for factory, mill, or works) of the Colonial Company at St. Madeleine, near the west coast, is one of the largest in the world, and unsurpassed in the West Indies. Fitted with the best modern machinery and supplied with the electric light, the place is connected by rail and tramways with the Company's estates, and with the sea at San Fernando.

The second staple of Trinidad is cocoa, or, more properly, cacao, named by Linnæus "Theobroma", or "food of the gods". The tree is an evergreen growing to the height of 15 to 25 feet, with drooping bright green leaves of oblong shape, from 8 to 20 inches in length. The flowers, in tufts or clusters, are very small, with five yellow petals on a rose-hued cup, and they grow off the trunk and thicker parts of the boughs, with stalks only an inch long. The fruit resembles a vegetable marrow in shape, but is more pointed and elongated at the end, and is from 7 to 9 inches long, and 3 to 4 inches wide, with colour varying from bright yellow to red and purple, according to season. Each fruit-pod contains from 20 to 40 seeds, embedded in a soft pinky-white acid pulp, and it is from these seeds or cocoa-beans that the cocoa-nibs of commerce are produced by shelling and bruising. The appearance of a cacao plantation is very beautiful, with the shady trees themselves overshadowed by the *Bois immortel*, called in South America *La Madre del Cacao* or Cacao-Mother, from its service in protecting the trees from the fiercest heat of the sun, and with a vista of the yellow flowers, or of the ruddy fruit hanging in thousands beneath the canopy of green. Cacao has been a product of Trinidad since the middle of the seventeenth century. In 1725, the people were reduced to the greatest misery by the total destruction of the trees through some disease. The restoration of the culture was followed, after British occupation, by such an increase in production that the exports of cacao rose from 29,000 cwts. in 1840 to a value exceeding £812,000 in 1898. The money-value of the export of sugar, in the same year, exceeded £603,000, and of molasses, £16,590.

Among other commodities, above 42,000 gallons of fine Angostura bitters, worth £42,000, are annually made in the large factory at Port-of-Spain. The coco-palms, growing luxuriantly all along the sandy shore of the southern and eastern coasts, supplied for export, in 1896, nearly fifteen millions of nuts, to the value of over £36,000. The chief town and seat of government is *Port-of-Spain*, with a population of about 34,000. This place was one of the finest towns in the West Indies until early in March, 1895, when the principal business quarter was destroyed by fire, with loss estimated at four millions of dollars. The place was almost utterly ruined by the like cause in 1808. The preservation, in the recent instance, of the rest of the town was mainly due to the efforts of blue-jackets from Her Majesty's sloop *Buzzard*, and of the crews of three United States war-ships then in harbour. The town is pleasantly situated on a semicircular plain of gentle slope near the north-east corner of the Gulf of Paria. Two chief open spaces are Marine Square and Brunswick Square, the former being really a beautiful avenue about 100 feet wide, planted on each side with noble forest-trees, and running across the whole breadth of the southern part of the town. On the north, the *Savana*, or Queen's Park, contains over 200 acres of almost level grass, belted by great umbrageous trees, and is described by Kingsley as "a public park and race-ground such as neither London nor Paris can boast". The Governor's residence, erected in 1875, of dressed native limestone, is a palatial building that cost between £40,000 and £50,000. The Anglican and Roman Catholic cathedrals are fine buildings, as also are the Colonial Hospital and the Police Barracks. The city and suburbs have seven other Roman Catholic and three Anglican churches, three Wesleyan chapels, and two Presbyterian kirks, with a Baptist and a Moravian place of worship. The Roman Catholics are under a "Monsignor", Archbishop of Port-of-Spain; the Anglicans under the Bishop of Trinidad. The Public Library, founded in 1851, has 20,000 volumes; the Victoria Institute and Museum, opened in 1892, commemorates the Queen's jubilee. The city is supplied with 4 miles of tramway and a complete telephone-system. As a "port of registry", the place had in 1891 329 ships and small craft, with a total of 7760 tons. The local government is in the hands of a mayor and elective municipal council, the chief revenue being

derived from rates. There is a volunteer force of about 750 men —infantry, cavalry, and field-artillery—and the peace of the island is preserved by a police force of about 480 men. *San Fernando*, founded by the Spanish governor Chacon in 1786, and named after Ferdinand, eldest son of Carlos IV. of Spain, lies about 30 miles south of the capital, at the foot of a hill on the eastern side of the Gulf of Paria. It is connected with Port-of-Spain by road and rail, and is the commercial outlet of the chief sugar-district of Trinidad. The present town dates only from 1818, when the original place was completely destroyed by fire, and the commercial part of the restored town perished in the same way in 1883. The rebuilding brought great improvements, and the present borough population, in charge of a mayor and council, is about 7000. *Arima*, the only other municipal town, 16 miles east of Port-of-Spain, is the centre of one of the chief cacao-districts, and is a well-built spacious place of 4000 inhabitants, at the foot of the northern range of hills. There is a railway thence to the capital, communicating with the line to San Fernando.

The internal and external means of communication include steamers plying three times a week from Port-of-Spain to San Fernando, and to Cedros, at the south-western point of the island; about 50 post-offices, with penny inland postage; telegraph cables to British Guiana and Grenada, and to Europe viâ the United States; 57 miles of internal railway and 166 of telegraph, all in the hands of the Government; and 35 steamers every month to and from New York, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Southampton, Havre, Marseilles, Amsterdam, London, Liverpool, and Glasgow. A local firm, with a Government subsidy of £5000 a year, recently started a fortnightly service to New York in connection with the fruit-trade, passing round the island and then touching at Tobago. The exports for 1898 amounted in value to £2,310,000, of which the worth of £713,000 went to the United Kingdom. The imports consisted mainly of textile goods, dried and pickled fish, flour, hardware and machinery, leather, lumber (pitch-pine and white pine), pickled and salted meat, and rice, with a total value of £2,283,056, of which goods worth £796,359 came from the British Isles. About one-fourth of all the trade is carried on with the United States. The revenue, amounting to over £615,000 in 1898, is derived from import duties, and from export duties on

sugar and molasses, coffee and rum, cocoa and asphalt. The expenditure, in the same year, was a little more than £611,000, including the charges of a public debt of £911,211. British silver and bronze form the coinage in general use, with United States and Spanish gold. The Colonial Bank has a branch at Port-of Spain, and the Government Savings-banks, in 1897, held about £230,000 from 10,768 depositors.

The colony is ruled by a Governor, with an Executive Council of seven members, and a Legislative Council (the Governor being president) of nine official and eleven unofficial members, all nominated by the Crown. Elementary education is conducted in about 190 schools, of which 65 are secular, supported by the government and by the payment of a small fee, the rest being denominational schools, aided by the public funds. About 22,500 pupils were on the books in 1896. From the government schools there are annually open to competition three free admissions, tenable for three years, to the Queen's Royal College, a secular institution, which shares with the affiliated Roman Catholic college in four exhibitions or scholarships each of £150 yearly value, tenable for three years at some university or other scientific educational institution in the British Empire. There are also "Model Schools", training-colleges for male and female teachers, many private schools, and 15 estate-schools, with about 500 pupils, under the Presbyterian Coolie Mission.

Tobago, annexed to Trinidad since January 1st, 1889, lies near 20 miles to the north-east. With a length of 28 miles, and a maximum breadth of 7½, the island has an area of 114 square miles, or about 73,000 acres, of which nearly one-seventh is under tillage. The population, in 1898, was 21,000, of whom only about 100 are Europeans, the vast majority being of negro or mixed race. The physical aspect is irregular and picturesque, as the land rises steeply from the sea in the north-east and gradually slopes to the south-west, with conical hills and spurs connected by an interior ridge that attains a height of 1900 feet above sea-level. Deep and narrow ravines lead from the higher ground to small plains of alluvial soil, the whole island being well watered by streams rising in the hills. Fordable in the hot season, and swollen by the rains to the size of rivers, these waters nowhere admit even a boat for navigation. The tropical heat, with a mean

of 81° at sea-level, is tempered by the sea-breezes, and the island lies out of the hurricane range. The climate is healthy, the island having only few and small miasmatic lagoons or swamps, and serious epidemics are unknown. Above half the surface of Tobago is covered with forest, much of which contains valuable timber that has been wholly neglected as an article of trade, chiefly from the lack of roads for conveyance, and of depth of water in the streams to bring down cut wood as we have seen it in the Canadian lumber districts. The domestic animals include horses, horned cattle, and small sheep giving well-flavoured meat. Poultry and fish abound, and the rich variety of saurian reptiles, from small lizards up to alligators, includes the iguana, eagerly eaten by the negroes and regarded as a delicacy by many whites. Deer, peccaries, agoutis, raccoons, squirrels, rats, and various birds are found.

The chief articles of production and export are sugar, rum, molasses, coco-nuts, and live stock, with a value, in 1896, of about £10,765, the imports being worth nearly £14,000, of which goods to the value of above two-thirds of the amount came from the British Isles. The revenue, in 1896, chiefly from import duties, was £9321, with an expenditure just exceeding £9200 and a public debt of £9500. *Scarborough*, the chief town, lies at the base of a hill, 425 feet in height, on the south-west coast, and has a population of 1400. Plymouth, a village of 800 people, is on the north-west coast, five miles from Scarborough, having good anchorage in Courland Bay. The island was ruled, from 1889 till 1899, by a commissioner appointed by the Governor of Trinidad, and assisted by a financial board of five members, two nominated and three elected by the people. Anglican, Moravian and Wesleyan religious bodies maintain 20 government-aided schools with about 2300 pupils.

By an Order in Council of October 20th, 1898, it was provided that the Island of Tobago should become a Ward of the "United Colony of Trinidad and Tobago"; that the revenue, expenditure, and debt of Tobago should be merged in those of the United Colony; that the debt due from Tobago to Trinidad should be cancelled; that (with a few specified exceptions) the laws of Trinidad should operate in the smaller island, and those of Tobago cease to operate so far as they conflicted with the laws of Trinidad;

and that all future Ordinances of the Legislature of the Colony should extend to Tobago, with the proviso that the Legislature should be able to enact special and local ordinances and regulations applicable to Tobago as distinguished from the rest of the Colony. The post of "Commissioner for Tobago" ceased to exist, and the post of Warden and Magistrate was created. Various other changes have been made in the direction of reducing the establishments, and further reductions will be made when the claims of existing officers permit.

CHAPTER XII.

BERMUDA, BRITISH HONDURAS, BRITISH GUIANA.

Extent and population of BERMUDA or The Bermudas—Physical features of the islands—Delightful climate of Main Island—Trade—Important naval establishments—Hamilton port—Administration—Education—Communication—Revenue. Boundaries, area, and population of BRITISH HONDURAS or Belize—Physical geography and climate—Mahogany, logwood, and other products—Belize city—Communication—Trade—Revenue—Administration—Education. Early exploration of BRITISH GUIANA or Demerara—Its settlement by the Dutch—Ceded to Britain in 1814—Agitation among the slaves—Case of John Smith the missionary—His cruel treatment and death—Brutality of the Governor, General Murray—Its effect in forwarding the anti-slavery cause—Intolerance of the slave-owners—Boundaries and population of the country—Geographical features—Flora and fauna—Rivers—Climate—Products—Gold-mining—Trade—Administration—Education—Revenue—Communication—Georgetown city—New Amsterdam or Berbice.

The colony called BERMUDA or THE BERMUDAS lies in about 32° north latitude, and 65° west longitude, at a distance of 580 miles east of Cape Hatteras in North Carolina; 730 miles from Halifax, Nova Scotia; 680 from New York, 800 from the nearest West Indies, and nearly 3000 miles from Liverpool. This lonely, low-lying archipelago of about 300 islets, above two-thirds of which are mere rocks and reefs, with less than 20 inhabited islands, has a total area of 20 square miles, or 12,000 acres, with a population, in 1898, of about 16,000, of whom over one-third were whites and the rest negroes and coloured people. In religion, about two-thirds of both races belong to the Anglican Church, under the spiritual rule of the "Bishop of Newfoundland and Bermuda", while the rest are chiefly Roman Catholics, Wesleyans and Presbyterians. The history of the islands, during the nineteenth century, is comprised in the facts that in July, 1813, a third of the houses were destroyed, and the shipping driven ashore, by a hurricane; that the repeal of the Navigation Laws, the introduction of steam, and the substitution of steel and iron for wood in ship-building, made an end of the profitable ship-construction and carrying-trade mentioned in an early part of this work; that, after being an important convict-depôt for some years, the colony ceased to be so in 1862; and that, in the later decades of the Victorian age, Bermuda has become a very valuable naval station and fortress, holding a position of commanding strength between Canada and our West Indian possessions.

The islands are geographically and geologically interesting as the most northerly of the coral constructions known as Atolls, which consist of a more or less continuous ring of coral rock surrounding a central lagoon. In the Bermudas we have an atoll of modified form. Over a space about 16 miles in length by 5 in breadth, the islands run, from north-east to south-west, in an irregular oval ring that is incomplete on the north-western side. Countless sunken reefs and submarine sand-hills at once afford protection against attack from external foes, and give intricacy and peril to internal navigation. The largest piece of land, called "Main Island", is about 14 miles long by a mile in average width, and contains 9000 acres of surface, or three-fourths of the whole area of the group. The highest point is but 240 feet above sea-level, and much of the surface consists of stony ground partly covered with scanty herbage and a scattered growth of stunted cedars, or of wide brackish marshes overgrown with coarse grass, rushes, and mangrove-jungle. About 1000 acres have a fertile soil which, as we shall see, is turned by the people to excellent account. The climate, most agreeable and healthy for all except consumptive persons, may be described as a continuous succession of spring and summer, always moist and ever mild, with an annual rainfall of 60 inches, evenly spread over the year, and a temperature that never falls below 40° Fahrenheit, and rarely exceeds 85°, while the summer heat is moderated by the Atlantic breezes. The trees are never devoid of green; the birds are singing throughout the year; no venomous reptiles are found in any part; and the region enjoys nearly all the advantages, marred by none of the ills, of both the tropical and the temperate zones. Harvests of maize are reaped in June and December; oranges, lemons, bananas, and many European fruits are grown. The other chief islands are St. George's, St. David's, Cooper's Island, Smith's Island, and Nonsuch, at the north-east, and Somerset, Watford, Ireland, Boaz, Elizabeth and Tucker's Islands in the south-west, the two latter being in the spacious landlocked harbour called Great Sound, formed by the southern turn of the oval ring. Among the other numerous beautiful bays and creeks of considerable size and depth of water are Harrington Sound, at the north of Main Island, and Castle Harbour, south of St. George's and St. David's Islands. Communication is largely carried on by water, but, with a single

Legislative Library

break between Somerset and Watford Islands, there is a continuous line of road, bridge, and causeway, along the whole chain of the larger inhabited islands, for a distance of about 22 miles. A country-drive along the excellent roads will show the visitor stately palm-trees with their beauteous plumes, noble tamarinds, pink clouds of oleander, the red blaze of pomegranate blossoms, bamboos 40 feet high, flag-lances 10 feet in height growing thickly in the marshes, and forests containing palmetto, cedar, and a tree called "red-wood", peculiar to these islands. The Bermudas have now become a favourite winter resort for people from the United States and Canada, for whom large hotels and shops have been provided at the two chief towns.

The trade of Bermuda depends wholly, as regards exports, on the early production, favoured by the entire absence of frosts, of vegetables for the New York market, where the crops of potatoes, onions, tomatoes, beet-root, and other growths command prices that enable the tillers of Bermuda to take matters easily during the summer months. The ground lies fallow until preparation is needed for the produce that is to be shipped off between the following March and June. Arrowroot is also much cultivated, but little attempt is made to grow the food that can be imported more cheaply from the States than it could be raised in occupying the precious soil that is a market-garden for the wealthy New Yorkers. Corn, flour, meat, and nearly all the vegetables that are consumed in the islands come from the United States, while horses, cattle, clothing, furniture, and every kind of necessary goods are imported thence, or from the Canadian Dominion, or the British Isles. In 1898, the value of exported onions reached nearly £59,000; the lily-bulbs were worth £15,452; the potatoes, over £19,900. The whole exports, in 1898, exceeded £113,900 in value, of which but £4041, mostly arrowroot, went to the British Isles. Of the imports, worth £351,000 in the same year, articles worth £104,970, exclusive of government stores, came from the United Kingdom.

The maritime and naval importance of Bermuda have been already indicated. In the north, the harbour of St. George, formerly the capital, is a haven possessing a good depth of water and safe anchorage for many large sailing ships and steamers seeking shelter, in stormy weather, from the western Atlantic.

The chief channel through the outer line of reefs is that called "The Narrows", passing round the eastern and northern sides of St. George's Island, at about half a mile from the shore. Two miles long, and very tortuous and narrow, it is commanded throughout, with its approaches at each end, by many batteries of very heavy guns behind casemated iron shields. The dockyard and other naval establishments are on Ireland Island; Boaz and Watford Islands, between that and Somerset Island, are given up to military depôts and the garrison of Imperial troops, numbering 1500 officers and men, and including two batteries of artillery; one company of fortress, and another of submarine mining engineers; and one battalion of infantry. The admiralty establishment has about 1200 men, and is remarkable for the famous floating dock, constructed at North Woolwich, on the Thames, and towed out to its destination in 1869. This great piece of naval engineering, having 8000 tons of iron in its length of 381 feet, breadth of 124, and depth of 53, can lift an ironclad of over 10,000 tons. Bermuda is now, in fact, a naval stronghold and arsenal of the first class, rivalling Halifax in importance as a station for our fleet in North American waters, and of great value for our ships of war in the West Indies.

The seat of government and chief commercial port is *Hamilton*, at about the north centre of Main Island, situated on a safe and convenient harbour approached, from the Great Sound, by an inlet nearly three miles long. With a population of 1300, the little town is governed, like St. George's, by a mayor and a corporation of three aldermen and five councillors, and possesses a very good public library. There, as elsewhere throughout the islands, the visitor's eye is struck by the whiteness of the buildings and the roads, all composed of the coral, coarse and porous in grain, like white sugar, which forms the substance of Bermuda, with a thin crust of soil atop. Everywhere from amongst the foliage and flowers, and in charming contrast with the greens and browns and blues of the sea, the neatest and whitest of cottages shine forth, made of blocks of coral hewn out of the hillsides, and covered with a hard coat of thick whitewash that leaves no sign of crack or seam from the base-stones to the top of the chimneys, often made in graceful and picturesque shapes. The roads are formed by cutting down for a few inches into the solid white coral, or for many feet,

where a hill intervenes, and they wind in and out, away from the towns, with an endless variety of picturesque scenes on a small scale. The colony is ruled by a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council of six members, four official, two unofficial, nominated by the Crown; by a nominated Legislative Council of nine members, three of whom are officials; and by a Legislative Assembly of thirty-six members, chosen by about 1160 electors, with a freehold-property qualification, from the nine parishes into which the islands are divided. Education is controlled by a Board, consisting of the governor and eight other members of his nomination, with local managing bodies. The peculiarity of the system is that the elementary schools are private institutions, charging fees, but aided by the public funds, with compulsory attendance in the twenty-two schools, containing about 1200 pupils. There are other schools receiving no help from the government. There are two banks at Hamilton, and the Government Savings-banks have in charge over £19,000 from about 930 depositors. British currency, weights and measures are in use. The telegraphs for internal use comprise 15 miles of cable and 36 miles of land-line, and a private telephone company has about 200 subscribers. A cable to Halifax, laid in July, 1890, gives speedy communication with the rest of the world, and there are fortnightly steamers between the islands and New York; monthly mails to Halifax, Turks Island, and Jamaica; and monthly steamers between St. John, New Brunswick, and the West Indies, touch both on outward and homeward trips at Bermuda. The revenue, mostly from customs-duties, was about £38,900 in 1898, with an expenditure of £39,100; and a public debt of £45,600.

British Honduras, or Belize, lies in Central America, on the western coast of the Caribbean Sea, 660 miles from Jamaica, between 16 and 18½ degrees north latitude, and 87° 50′ and 89° 10′ west longitude. Bounded on the east by the Bay of Honduras, on the north by Mexico, and on the south and west by Guatemala, it is about the size of Wales, having an area of 7562 square miles, including Turneffe, St. George's, English, and other Cays or islands to the east. The history of the territory down to 1801 having been already given, we have only to note the occurrence of certain troubles, now settled, with Indians on the borders; the establishment of the colony, as a dependency of Jamaica, in 1862, and its

separation therefrom, as an independent colony, in 1884. Prior to 1862, the country had been merely a British settlement on what was once Spanish territory, and had no definite status as a colonial possession. The population, in 1898, numbered about 35,000, composed of about 450 whites, and of coloured people including aboriginal Indians, Caribs, negroes, East Indians and Chinese. The Bishop of Jamaica is in charge of members of the Anglican Church; the Roman Catholics are under their Bishop of Honduras. The land rises by degrees from the usual low and swampy coast of Central America, with many lagoons surrounded by a dense growth of mangrove and other tropical trees. In the north there is a plain about 1000 square miles in area; in the west and south-west are successive hills and valleys, at some distance inland, with the Cockscomb Range, running east and west, attaining a height of nearly 4000 feet. In the south is prairie covered with pines, scrub, and wiry grass. Near the western frontier, in a country not explored by its British possessors until 1879, lies an open undulating grassy district of splendid pasturage, with ancient Indian ruins of large stone buildings. There are small streams in the south, running into the Caribbean Sea; in the centre is the Sibun or Jabon, of considerable size; to the north of this comes Belize or Old River, flowing north-east for 100 miles, with some large cascades; then New River, running almost due north, with large lakes on the course of the main stream and tributaries; and, northwards again, the Hondo, a large river forming the boundary between the colony and the Yucatan district or province of Mexico. The river, at one point, divides into branches that meet again, inclosing Albion Island, 26 square miles in area. The three last are navigable for some distance by vessels of light draught. The climate is hot and damp, with an average temperature of 78°, and an annual rainfall, chiefly between May and November, of about 85 inches at Belize. There are endemic fevers of no great severity or danger, and epidemic disease is rare. A sea-breeze tempers the force of the tropical sun, and the country cannot be called unhealthy for that region of the world.

The colony is still only in its infancy, as regards development by cultivation of a fertile soil that will produce anything to which a tropical climate is suited. Bananas and plantains, mostly raised by small growers holding lands on lease from the Crown, are being

shipped at a profit to New Orleans. Cocoa (cacao) plantations are being formed; the cane-fields producing sugar cover about 1500 acres, and coffee-shrubs, in some places, give enormous crops. The whole area under tillage does not exceed 100 square miles, and a staple product of British Honduras is now, as of old, the mahogany of the forests on the banks of the larger rivers, a great tract still untouched by the axe lying to the north of the river Belize. The noble tree producing this valuable timber grows from 80 to 100 feet in height and attains a great size in the trunk, with wood usually sound throughout. Its worth for cabinet-work, in hardness and beauty of grain, was first shown in the British Isles, about the end of the seventeenth century, by a maker named Wollaston, who received some of the timber brought from the West Indies as ballast. The growth of the tree is very slow, three centuries being needed to make it fit for commercial purposes. A log 17 feet long has been known to measure 5½ feet each way at the squared end, weighing 17 tons in its 514 cubical feet of wood, and such a mass as this has fetched £1000 to cut up thin for veneering. The large branches have a closer grain, and veins of richer hue and variety than the trunk. In British Honduras the cutters are chiefly negroes descended from the former slaves in the colony, and, living in camps near the rivers, they take the logs down to the water, in the coolness of the night, with picturesque torchlight processions of timber-wains drawn by long teams of oxen, amid wild forest scenery resounding with the clang of the team-chains, the crack of the whips, and the guttural cries of the men. The rivers, swollen by the periodical rains, float the logs down for many miles, with gangs of the lumberers following in flat-bottomed canoes, in order to free the timber from the branches of overhanging trees or from other obstacles. Near the river-mouth, the floating matter is stopped by a boom, and then each gang, selecting its own cuttings by the marks on the log-ends, forms them into large rafts for conveyance to the shipping-wharves of the owners. Among other valuable trees in the woods are cedar, rose-wood, fustic, lignum-vitæ, ironwood, red and white pine, india-rubber and gutta-percha trees, with sarsaparilla, cochineal-cactus, indigo, and many other useful plants and shrubs. The other chief commercial timber, now surpassing mahogany in export-value, is log-wood, which is the dark, red, hard close-grained heart-wood of a tree

which grows from 20 to 50 feet in height, and, being fit for cutting at ten years of age, occurs in inexhaustible abundance in the low swampy lands of the north and east. Its value for dyeing purposes, especially in giving a black hue to textile fabrics and to ink, is well known. The needs of British Honduras for a prosperous development of her great resources are capital, labour, and easy means of communication between the interior and the coast-line. At present, the traffic is mainly conducted by water, on the rivers and along the coast.

Corosal, a postal station on the north coast, near the mouth of New River, has a population of about 1600; some distance up the river are the postal station San Estevan, and the town of Orange Walk, with nearly 2000 inhabitants. On the east coast, from the centre to the south, are the little towns (postal stations) of Stann Creek (1645 people), All Pines, Monkey River, and Punta Gorda. The capital, *Belize*, containing about 7000 people, lies on the coast at the mouth of the Belize or Old River, being the chief port of the colony, and a general depôt for British goods supplied to Central America. There are no railways or telegraphs; external communication is afforded by weekly mail-steamers to New Orleans; steamers every three weeks to New York and Costa Rica; about every five weeks, to the West Indies and thence to London; and monthly to Colon (or, Aspinwall), on the Isthmus of Panama, and to Liverpool. The distance from London is nearly 5000 miles, the time of passage being 25 days, or 16 days by way of the United States. The best method of telegraphic despatch to Europe and the world at large is by New Orleans, 900 miles from Belize, though the town of Livingston, in Guatemala, one day's run by steamer from Belize, is the nearest point in wire-connection with Europe. The exports, chiefly in mahogany (7½ million cubic feet in 1898), logwood (nearly 24,000 tons in same year), fruit, sugar, coco-nuts, and india-rubber, had a total value, in 1898, of £256,000, of which produce worth £170,600 was sent to Great Britain. The imports, in 1898, in cotton goods and hardware, malt liquors, spirits, tea, tobacco, and wines, were worth over £249,000, of which £84,000 was due to the British Isles. Nearly all the other trade is done with the United States. The United States gold dollar is the standard, the British sov. being reckoned at 4 dols. 86 cents. Silver half-dollars and smaller coins with

British half-crowns and shillings, and Mexican dollars, are circulated. The revenue, mainly from import duties, licenses, land-tax, excise, and the Crown-lands let or sold, amounted in 1896 to £55,000, with an expenditure of £60,000 and a public debt of £33,500, and of £9000 for improvements in the town and harbour of Belize. A Government Savings-bank, with branches at Corosal and Orange Walk, has about 25,000 gold dollars on deposit at 3 per cent. The government consists of a Governor, with an Executive Council of seven official and non-official members nominated by the Crown, and a Legislative Council of three official and five unofficial members, also nominated. English Common Law, modified by colonial ordinances, is in force. The schools, of which 45 existed in 1898, with over 3000 children in average attendance, are denominational institutions, duly inspected, and assisted by a public grant of 14,449 dollars in the year mentioned.

In BRITISH GUIANA (or DEMERARA), we have a colony which has not yet appeared in our pages. The name "Guiana" carries us back to the fascinating times of Elizabethan and early Stuart exploration and adventure, when the typical hero of that age, Sir Walter Raleigh, went forth thither to search, in a fabled "El Dorado", for the golden city of Manoa, and, sailing up the Orinoco in 1595, saw the splendours of tropical vegetation, and found some of the auriferous quartz which, in the Victorian age, is returning, as we shall see, a good reward for labour. Early in 1596, his *Discovery of the large, rich, and beautiful Empire of Guiana* was a noble specimen of English prose-writing. The Spanish navigators Alonzo de Ojeda, in 1499, and Vicente Pinzon, in 1500, seem to have first explored the coasts, but it was not until the earlier part of the seventeenth century that any attempt at European settlement was made, when the Dutch, after one or two failures, established themselves on an island at the confluence of two chief tributaries of the Essequibo River. In 1626, the Dutch West India Company, with a charter granting a monopoly of trade in that region, made a settlement at Berbice, and gradually extended their hold upon the country. By 1652, some English adventurers had founded a settlement on the Surinam river, and built the town of Paramaribo, now the capital of Dutch Guiana. About twenty years before this, the French were at Cayenne, and their settlement, along with the Dutch possessions, was at times occupied by the English during

war among the three nations in Europe. In 1667, the Paramaribo colony was given up to Holland by the Treaty of Breda, and the territory which now forms British Guiana, along with distinct colonies which the Hollanders made on the Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice rivers, remained in their hands without interruption until 1781, when they were occupied in turns by British and French forces, to be restored to Holland, by the Treaty of Versailles, in 1783. Again taken by our forces in 1796, and restored in 1802, at the Peace of Amiens, they were retaken by the British in 1803, and the portion forming British Guiana was finally ceded to our possession in 1814. We may here note that Berbice, at first administered as a separate colony, was incorporated with the rest of British Guiana in 1831.

The period of Dutch occupation is not of any great interest, and only concerns us for the forms of government then prevailing, which have left their mark upon the existing constitution. It is of more importance to observe that, in Dutch times, cotton was the principal crop, only one estate, out of about one hundred on the coast between the Demerara and Berbice rivers, being planted with sugar-cane. Sugar took the place of cotton on the great development of the latter product in the United States, and in 1816 the colony, with Berbice, contained above 100,000 negro slaves, with about 8000 free persons, coloured and white. The mention of slavery brings us to one of the most disgraceful episodes in all our colonial history. When Mr. Canning, in 1823, being then Foreign Secretary, carried in the House of Commons his resolutions concerning negro slavery, which were followed by the circular enjoining a milder treatment of the slaves in the West Indies and in British Guiana, a great stir of feeling was caused, as we have seen, among the slave-holders in those territories of the Crown. In Demerara, the circular was received with outward deference by the members of the government, and the "Court of Policy", a body transmitted from the Dutch constitution, and having both executive and legislative functions, passed regulations in accordance with the instructions received from the authorities in England. Pains were taken to conceal the whole matter from the negroes, and a suspicion arose that emancipation, granted in England, was being wrongfully withheld by their masters. The feeling was such that it is almost certain that a general rising and massacre

of whites would have taken place but for the strong influence won by an Independent missionary, John Smith, who, during seven years of devoted work in the colony, had been training his negro converts to habits of order, industry, submission, and peace. Religious work had been otherwise greatly neglected, and there was only one Episcopalian clergyman. The Governor, General Murray, had been recently talking largely about "making head against the sectaries", among whom he included the Dutch Lutherans and the Scottish Presbyterians, the Methodist and the Independent missionaries—all, in fact, except the one Episcopalian body. In pursuance of this bigoted policy, he had issued a monstrous proclamation or decree, forbidding the negroes to attend public worship, except under sanction of a pass from their owners, who were under no obligation to grant the same. Then the slaves rose in just wrath, and, shedding no drop of blood, imprisoned many whites and put some of them in the stocks. This insurrection began on August 18th, 1823; on the 19th, martial law was proclaimed; on the 20th, the movement was ended, without loss of life to any of the whites, while above 200 negroes were killed and wounded by the troops in the first instance, 47 were executed, and many more were subjected to barbarous flogging, often exceeding 1000 lashes.

The Governor kept the colony under martial law for five months, and Mr. Smith, the missionary, was brought to trial. The Episcopalian clergyman, to his honour, would give no aid to tyranny, but plainly declared his conviction that nothing but the influence exerted by the prisoner, in proclaiming and fixing the principles of the gospel of peace, had "prevented a dreadful effusion of blood, and saved the lives of those very persons who are now, I shudder to write it, seeking his". The mode and conduct of Mr. Smith's trial were full of illegalities, and he was convicted on the evidence of three negroes who afterwards confessed that they had been induced to allege what was wholly false. He was charged with having incited the slaves to revolt, and with minor offences, and was sentenced to death, subject to the final decision of the home government. Mr. (afterwards Lord) Brougham declared in the House of Commons that the trial of the missionary "was intended to bring on an issue between the system of the slave-law and the instruction of the negroes". This was, in

truth, the cause in question, and John Smith was its martyr. The British government rescinded the court-martial's sentence of death, but decreed the prisoner's banishment from the colony. When this decision arrived at Demerara, the victim had escaped from his tormentors. He died on February 6th, 1824, having been an invalid at the time of his arrest, and then brought to his grave by the hardships which he endured, for two months before trial, in apartments of which one was under the roof, exposed to burning heat, and the other on the ground, fetid from the stagnant water visible under the boards of the floor. The conduct of the Governor, General Murray, was consistent throughout in its brutal violation of common humanity and decency. During Mr. Smith's detention before trial, his medical attendants had in vain declared that nothing could save his life but removal to better quarters. He was not allowed to have a change of linen, nor the attendance of a friend to relieve the cares of his worn and wearied wife. The funeral was ordered to take place at dead of night, that no negroes might attend, and the widow and her friend, Mrs. Elliot, were prevented by threats of imprisonment from following the coffin. They were forced to precede it to the grave, and there receive it, borne by two negroes with a single lantern, and attended only by the clergyman, Mr. Austin, whose testimony in the dead man's favour has been given. Two negro members of his congregation, a carpenter and a bricklayer, wished to mark the spot where their pastor lay, but by official orders the brickwork was broken up, the rails were torn down, and the place was left without visible memorial. The missionary-martyr, judicially murdered by British "officers and gentlemen" of Christian profession, did not die, as no real martyr does, in vain. The proceedings at Demerara became an object-lesson on slavery, studied in the United Kingdom from the Shetlands to the Scilly Isles, full of eloquent denunciation of wrong, and from that day the cause of slavery in the British Empire was doomed. The spirit engendered by the vile institution was clearly revealed within a few days of Mr. Smith's death. That event, as we have seen, occurred on February 6th, 1824, and on the 24th a public meeting of Demerara slave-owners passed resolutions for petitioning the Court of Policy "to expel all missionaries from the colony, and to pass a law prohibiting their admission for the future". The government paper, in the same month, blamed

the planters for not having "spoken out in time, and warned the first advocates of missions and education that they would not be suffered to enlighten the slaves, who were by law the property of the land-owners, until they could demonstrate that when they (the slaves) were made religious and knowing, they would still continue to be slaves". The same enlightened writer also protested against the practice, perpetrated by poor Smith in his chapel, of "addressing a promiscuous audience of black or coloured people, bond and free, by the endearing appellation of 'My brethren and sisters'". When slave-owning was thus presented to British minds and hearts; when those whom Christianity recognized as brethren and sisters were deliberately denied their birthright of knowledge and religious fellowship, the end of slavery in the British Empire drew near.

It is a relief to turn from the doings of man to the works of God in British Guiana, and give some account of the country's physical features. This sole British possession on the continent of South America, lying between 1° and 9° north latitude, and about 57° to 62° west longitude, according to British claims disputed by Venezuela, is bounded on the north and north-east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by Dutch Guiana, from which it is separated by the river Corentyn; on the south by Brazil, and on the west by Brazil and Venezuela. According to the boundary recently settled on the side of Venezuela and Brazil, the area is now estimated at about 120,000 square miles. The population, which has much increased since 1871, when the census showed 193,500, now exceeds 285,000, including about 10,000 aboriginal Indians of various tribes. In 1891, the census showed 2533 persons born in Europe; nearly 100,000 negroes; 12,160 Portuguese, chiefly from Madeira and the Azores in origin; 105,500 East Indians, mostly coolies; and about 3700 Chinese. The remainder were creoles (natives of European blood), and people of mixed race. The Portuguese are descended from immigrants who, between 1835 and 1845, replaced slave-labour on the plantations after the emancipation of the negroes. Portuguese labour was afterwards supplanted by that of coolies, and the Portuguese creoles are now chiefly employed in retail trade. In the year 1896, nearly 127,000 persons were engaged in tillage, and of these over 90,000 lived on sugar-estates. The immigration of coolies from the East Indies is con-

ducted, in their interest, on the same regulations as those which we have seen in Trinidad, and they form an industrious and thriving class of the community. The Indians are mostly engaged in fishing, hunting, and raising crops of cassava and yams which, with the fish and game, furnish their food.

The country is divisible, for geographical description, into three zones. Nearest the sea is a belt of alluvial soil, in many places lying below high-water mark, with the plantations protected by dykes or dams both from the waters of the ocean and from rain-floods on the plains in the rear. There are canals both for drainage and for the transport of canes to the mills, and thence of the finished sugar and other extracts to the sea. This alluvial fringe, with sand-banks and mangrove-swamp skirting the Atlantic, varies in width from 10 to 40 miles, and includes the only territory yet under tillage. Then, as the traveller goes inland, he comes to an undulating savannah region, with the average height of 150 feet above sea-level; after this is the upland or plateau of mountain and forest, with chains from 3000 to 3500 feet high, and a rich variety of splendid and valuable trees, in a region hitherto little explored. Wood most suitable for house and ship construction abounds, with timber of exquisite grain for cabinet-work. The luxuriant vegetation includes trees, shrubs, and plants furnishing many kinds of valuable gums, balsams, oils, and drugs; numerous tropical food-plants; a wonderful variety of creepers, ferns, tree-ferns, and flowers, especially orchids that often form a canopy stretching far along the tops of the forest-trees, and the noble *Victoria regia* lily. The *fauna* includes agoutis, monkeys, ant-bears, squirrels, opossums, deer, pumas, and jaguars, with a rich variety of birds—eagles and vultures, owls and nightjars, humming-birds and orioles, toucans and trogons, kingfishers, parrots, curassows, sandpipers, bitterns, herons, divers and ducks. Insects and reptiles swarm, and the sea and inland waters abound in fish. Among the physical features must be named the mountain Roraima, on the mid-western border, first ascended in 1884. This table-topped, isolated, sandstone elevation of about 8600 feet first slopes gradually upwards, starting from 2500 feet above sea-level, the height of the plateau on which it stands, and then at about 6000 feet it shoots up for over 2000 feet more in a stupendous perpendicular cliff, over which many cascades descend. British Guiana is well provided with rivers, the

chief of which, lying from east to west and north-west, are the Corentyn (half belonging to Dutch Guiana), the Berbice, the Demerara, and the Essequibo, with its tributaries, joining it near the mouth, the Mazaruni and Cuyuni. The Corentyn has an estuary 25 miles wide, and is navigable for about 150 miles by boats only, the mouth, like that of the other rivers, being partly choked by the mud-banks of deposit brought down from the upper country, while rapids and cascades obstruct navigation at some distance up their courses. The Essequibo, about 620 miles in length, rises in mountains only 46 miles north of the equator, and has an estuary 15 miles wide, with many fertile islands therein. Navigable for but 35 miles from the sea, the river passes through grand forest scenery, and has many cataracts, while one of its affluents, the Potaro, can show the magnificent Kaieteur Fall, discovered in 1870, with a sheer descent of nearly 750 feet. The hot and moist, but not unhealthy climate, varying according to height above sea-level, has near the coast, in the only settled districts, a range from 70° to 95°, but the average is from 80° to 84°, a heat usually much tempered by sea-breezes. The annual rainfall, occurring from December to February and from April to August, ranges from 75 to 100 inches.

The commercial products of Guiana, of any considerable value, are easily stated—sugar and gold. The great predominance of the sugar-cane, as an article of tillage, is marked by the fact that, of 155,000 acres under cultivation in 1899, sugar-estates occupied nearly 68,000 acres, distributed over sixty-one properties, lying on the banks of the great rivers and their tributaries, and on the alluvial islands in their channels. Above half of the whole area devoted to sugar lies in the county or district called Demerara, whence the name of "Demerara crystals" for the beautiful brown sugar produced in British Guiana by the use of the most modern machinery and the best processes. The export of sugar has somewhat declined in recent years, but is still very large, the country ranking next to Mauritius in this respect among British possessions. For the year ending March 31st, 1899, British Guiana exported 1,932,960 cwts., worth £1,041,000. In addition to this amount of sugar, the country also sent out above £144,700 value in rum, £11,970 in molasses, £28,324 in gums, and nearly £24,000 in timber and charcoal. With regard to gold, it is

remarkable that only in the most recent times has the wealth of Guiana, above three centuries ago extolled in this respect by Indian tradition, been demonstrated by actual discovery. The Dutch settlers seem not to have searched for gold, and, in the palmy days of the sugar-trade, the British conquerors of the land were satisfied with the golden profits derived from the canes. Not until 1884 did a few men go into the interior, and procure precious metal to an export-amount of 250 ounces. Two years later, this had grown to over 6500 ounces; in 1888, to 14,570; in 1890, to 62,600; and in the year ending March 31st, 1899, to nearly 113,000 ounces, worth about £415,000, and paying a "royalty" amounting to nearly £17,000. In the ten years from 1886 to 1896 inclusive, the colony shipped to England gold worth about £2,796,000. About 8000 labourers are employed in the hilly gold region, far away from the swamps of the coast. The importance of the industry has caused the construction of a railway, open since the beginning of 1897, between the Demerara and the Essequibo Rivers, so as to avoid the rapids on the latter, and giving easy access to the country along its upper reaches, where the gold-diggings are found, with several quartz-crushing mills at work. The advantages enjoyed by the gold-mining interest of British Guiana are unsurpassed in any country producing the metal in paying quantities. The water-carriage enables goods to be delivered at the mine-landings on the Demerara river at a cost of £3 per ton from London, against charges, in gold-producing countries having only land-conveyance, varying from £25 to £160 per ton. The supply of pure water in the Guiana gold districts is beyond all requirements, and in some cases affords power for working the stamp-batteries, sawing timber, and furnishing electric light. All the wood needed for mining grows on the spot, and is of the best quality, saving cost and carriage to the gold-workers. The South African average yield per ton is about 12 dwt.; a recent assay of Guiana quartz has given over five times that return.

In the year ending March 31st, 1899, the total exports of the colony were worth about £1,673,000, of which the value of £782,167 went to the United Kingdom. The imports for the same year, chiefly in flour (£139,000), linen, cotton and woollen goods (£192,000), machinery (£49,000), manures (£76,400), lumber (£31,500), dried fish (£57,270), coals (£37,000), malt

liquor (£24,000), pork (£27,700), rice (£105,600), and oils (£29,477), reached a total of 1,371,412 pounds sterling. A third of the trade is done with the United States, and most of the residue with India, Canada, and the West Indies.

The colony is divided into three counties or districts, Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, following the coast-line from north to south, with eighteen parishes under the spiritual charge of clergy of the Anglican Church or of the Church of Scotland. The form of government, as before hinted, bears traces of its Dutch origin. The Governor is assisted by a "Court of Policy", and a "Combined Court". The functions of an Executive and of a Legislative Council and House of Assembly were vested in the Governor and the Court of Policy until 1892, the Court being, up to that date, composed of five official and five non-official members, the latter being elected for three years by a "College of Electors" or "Kiezers", composed of seven members returned by voters in the five electoral districts—Demerara, City of Georgetown, Essequibo, New Amsterdam, and Berbice. These electoral divisions also chose six financial representatives, elected for two years, and the Combined Court, consisting of the Court of Policy and the above six financial representatives, had control of all laws and ordinances concerning taxation and finance. An Act of 1892 made considerable changes in this cumbrous system. Administrative functions are now exercised by the Governor and an Executive Council. The Court of Policy consists of the Governor, seven official, and eight elected members. The College of Electors has ceased to exist, and the elective members of the Court of Policy are chosen by the direct vote of the people, under a moderate ownership, tenancy, annual income, or direct taxation franchise now qualifying about 2400 registered electors. The Combined Court is still composed of the Court of Policy and of the six elected financial representatives, and retains its powers of imposing the colonial taxes and auditing the public accounts, and of freely discussing the annual estimates prepared by the Court of Policy, which has now become a purely legislative body. In civil cases, the Roman-Dutch law, modified by Orders in Council and by local enactments, is in force; the criminal law is British, except for the absence of a grand jury. Municipal government is found in the mayor and town-council of Georgetown, and in a "board of superintendence"

at New Amsterdam, and local rule is also administered in about a score of "incorporated" villages. Anglican Church members of the population are supervised by the Bishop of British Guiana, who is "Primate of the Province of the West Indies"; the Portuguese and other Roman Catholics are under the spiritual control of the "Vicar Apostolic of Demerara". Elementary education is afforded in about 209 "aided" schools, chiefly denominational, with about 28,700 pupils and total grants of over £21,000, in 1899. An Inspector of Schools has central control, and there are local managers, usually the religious ministers. Higher education is conducted in a Government college at Georgetown, with a scholarship annually awarded, £200 in yearly value, tenable for three years at an English university.

Accounts are kept in dollars and cents; the currency includes British sterling and United States gold coins, with Spanish and Mexican gold, and some surviving small circulation of guilders (1*s.* 4*d.* each), half-guilders, and one-eighths or "bits". The "Colonial" and the "British Guiana" banks have their chief offices at Georgetown, with branches at New Amsterdam; at those towns and some smaller places there are Government savings-banks, and Post-office banks are open at nine money-order offices, the depositors at all these institutions numbering, at the close of 1898, about 20,000, with £294,668 to the credit of the thrifty. The revenue for the year 1899, chiefly derived from customs and licences, was £525,865, against an expenditure of £525,387, of which nearly one-tenth was due to public works. The public debt, at the same time, exceeded £975,500, including a large sum for debts of public bodies guaranteed by the colony. The system of internal communications, in addition to the waterways provided by the rivers in their lower course, includes good roads, some small canals connected with the Demerara River, and a railway 21 miles long, from Georgetown to Mahaica, on the coast to the south-east. There are some hundreds of miles of postal telegraph, telephone, and short cables, the latter in connection with a cable to Trinidad, giving communication with Europe and the United States. The inland postal system is well organized and cheap, with a two-cent or 1*d.* postage for 1-oz. letters within the colony, and a parcels post to the United Kingdom and the West Indies. Local steamers ply between Georgetown, New Amsterdam, and some places on

the rivers. The country has steam-traffic to and from foreign ports by the fortnightly mail-boats of the Royal Mail Steam Packet line from Southampton; the monthly Compagnie Générale Transatlantique between France and the West Indies; a monthly Dutch line from Holland and Havre; Scrutton's "Direct Line" boats from London (3900 miles) and the Clyde, every three weeks and monthly; and the Atlantic and West India Line boats from New York every six weeks.

The commercial capital and seat of government, *Georgetown*, was founded by the Dutch in 1774, under the name of "Stabrock", and lies on the right bank, near the mouth, of Demerara River. The city, having a population (1891) of 53,000, is handsomely built, with clean wide streets, intersecting each other at right angles, some having wide canals in the centre, bordered by avenues of palms. The houses have a picturesque appearance, in brightly painted wood, with roof of slate or galvanized iron, and verandahs around for shelter from the sun. Generally raised on piles a few feet above the soil, they lie detached in gardens, bright with flowers, and are embosomed in tropical foliage, amongst which that of the cabbage-palm and coco-nut is conspicuous. The public buildings include the Governor's residence and the official and parliamentary edifices; the cathedral, Queen's College, a museum and library. The place has two markets, an ice-house, several hospitals, and botanical gardens, with a supply of drinking-water from artesian wells. The sea-wall of stone forms a pleasant promenade; at the entrance of the good harbour are a lighthouse —an octagonal tower, 100 feet high—and some defensive works. A large police-force keeps internal order in the colony; there is no Imperial garrison, and the only trained men to be mustered against foreign assailants are the members of small volunteer-corps. *New Amsterdam*, or Berbice, on the east bank of the Berbice River, had in 1891 a population of about 9000, and is a Dutch-built town, intersected by canals, with houses mostly of wood or bamboo, each surrounded, with its garden, by a ditch filling and emptying with the tide that thus performs scavenger's work of great utility in such a climate.

The dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the western boundary-line between British and Venezuelan Guiana has been recently settled, after going on for more than half a

century. In 1887, it had become so acute that the British minister received his passports, and diplomatic relations were thus broken off. Our Government had always asserted and maintained their right to the territory within what is called "the Schomburgk line", a boundary laid down by the eminent Prussian explorer and scientist, Sir Robert Hermann Schomburgk, who was leader of an exploring expedition in Guiana in 1835. On January 1st, 1837, while he was ascending the Berbice River, he discovered the magnificent aquatic plant, the *Victoria Regia* lily, named by him from the young lady who soon afterwards became Queen of Great Britain. In 1840, Schomburgk surveyed the colony for the British Government, and was knighted in recognition of his valuable services.

The worthless and contemptible organization known as the Government of Venezuela, a country which has been for many years in a chaotic and anarchical condition from a constant succession of revolutionary movements, indulged in some petty provocations towards the great Power who was her neighbour in South America. In 1895, a Venezuelan force crossed the "Schomburgk line", assaulted Mr. Francis, a British subject, and made prisoners of a small detachment of British Guiana police stationed at Uruan, on the upper reaches of the Cuyuni River. The police were soon released, and due apology, with compensation to the officers and men, and to Mr. Francis, was rendered by the Venezuelan authorities. In June, 1896, a party of workmen under Mr. W. A. Harrison, Government Surveyor, were molested by Venezuelan soldiers while they were engaged on the survey of a Government line for a road to one of the tributaries of the Cuyuni. The place where this occurred was well within the "Schomburgk line". Mr. Harrison, arrested by the troops, was conveyed by boat up the Cuyuni to the Eldorado station, opposite the British outpost at Uruan. He was released on the intervention of the British officer in charge, and taken to Georgetown suffering from a severe attack of malarial fever incurred during his detention. The Venezuelan Government, for this outrage, was compelled to pay £1000 as compensation to Mr. Harrison.

It was in the same year, 1896, that the boundary-question assumed an acute form owing to the existence, within the disputed area, of large tracts of auriferous territory of unknown,

but assuredly of very considerable value. The Government of the United States intervened at this juncture, and arbitration concerning the territory in dispute was agreed upon by the British and Venezuelan Governments in a treaty signed on February 2nd, 1897, at Washington. This document arranged that four arbitrators, two for each side, should be appointed, with the requirement that the four should choose a fifth as president within three months, or submit to the choice of a fifth by one of the most accomplished of European sovereigns, Oscar II. of Sweden and Norway, who has often acted as an efficient arbitrator on international questions.

The Venezuelan arbitration-matter was slow in its progress, but satisfactory in its issue. In the course of 1897 the "ratifications" of the treaty were exchanged. The submission of the printed cases and arguments on each side of the question, as provided by the treaty, was completed by the close of 1898. The Court of Arbitration, or arbitral tribunal, constituted by the treaty, was composed of two judges of the High Court of England, and two judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, the president being M. de Martens, Councillor of the Russian Empire. In January, 1899, a preliminary meeting of the tribunal was held in Paris, for the purpose of arranging procedure. On June 15th the full court assembled, Great Britain being represented by the late Lord Russell of Killowen, Lord Chief Justice of England, and Lord Justice Henn-Collins, the members nominated by the Privy Council; for the United States (in other words, in the interests of Venezuela), the members nominated by the Supreme Court were the Hon. Melville Fuller, Chief Justice, and Mr. Justice Brewer. Of these, Lord Russell had taken the place of the late Lord Herschell, ex-Chancellor of England, whose name stands in the treaty, and who had died at Washington during the adjustment of the preliminaries.

The early sittings of the court were interrupted by the frequent absence of the President, whose presence was required at the great "Peace Conference" then proceeding at the Hague. With these exceptions the Court sat *de die in diem* from June 15th to the end of September, 1899. The Attorney-General of England, Sir Richard Webster, opened the argument for Great Britain in a speech which lasted for thirteen days, in the course of which he

put in the most material documents out of the vast masses of evidence that had been accumulated. Mr. Mallet Prevost, one of the American counsel, replied with a claim that Venezuela was entitled, by virtue of the early Spanish possession, to all the territory as far as the Essequibo River as her eastern boundary. He was followed by Mr. Soley, who dealt with the events of the nineteenth century only. About twenty days were occupied by the speeches of these two advocates for Venezuela. Sir Robert Reid, ex-Attorney-General (in 1894, when Lord Rosebery was Prime Minister), replying for Great Britain, delivered a short but clear and incisive argument. We may here note that the Republic of Venezuela had always persisted in claiming almost the whole of the old Dutch colony of Essequibo, and had declined to consider any reasonable compromise. This extreme claim to the line of the Essequibo was always balanced by Great Britain's extreme claim to the whole basin of the western tributaries of the Essequibo. There was, however, a great difference of demeanour—one honourable to Great Britain—in the proceedings before the arbitrators. The great Power, following the precedent set by successive Secretaries of State, forbore to press her extreme claim. The Venezuelan counsel argued for the utmost that the Republic had always claimed. The British counsel relied broadly upon Schomburgk's line as representing the fair and natural boundary between the Colony and the Republic.

As we have above stated, the proceedings in arbitration between Great Britain and Venezuela were tedious, but the result was wonderful. Both the disputing parties left the court of arbitration satisfied with the award made on October 3rd, 1899. Great Britain had, substantially, her cherished "Schomburgk line". Venezuela got some auriferous territory. The line indicated by the award starts from the coast at Point Playa, instead of at the mouth of the Amakuru, so that Barima Point and the lower course of the Barima River are assigned to Venezuela. The other point of divergence from the British claim was at the Cuyuni River, where, instead of following the river to its head-waters, the boundary ascends the Wenamu, thus assigning to Venezuela the Cuyuni gold-fields. The area formerly claimed by the Republic, but now definitely assigned to Great Britain, amounts to about 60,000 square miles.


AUSTRALIA
& NEW ZEALAND.
BY J. BARTHOLOMEW, F.R.G.S.
British Miles
Kilometres
Cables and Telegraphs
Railways
Note
British Possessions coloured
French " "
Portuguese " "
Dutch " "
German " "
Independent Islands "
INDIAN OCEAN
TIMOR SEA
ARAFURA SEA
FLORES SEA
Gulf of Carpentaria
Great Australian Bight
Great Victoria Desert
Great Sandy Desert
Nullarbor Plain
Northern Territory of South Australia
Western Australia
Queensland
New South Wales
Victoria
TASMANIA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
PAPUA NEW GUINEA
Timor
Sumba or Sandalwood I.
Flores
Sumbawa
Lombok
Bali
Celebes
Macassar
Salayer I.
Kabaena
Buton
Moena
Banda Sea
Serwatty Is.
Timber Is. or Timor Laut
Arrou Is.
Fredk Henry I.
C. Valsche
Torres Str.
Pr. of Wales Is.
Endeavour Str.
Cape York Peninsula
Batavia R.
Duyfhen Pt.
Wellesley Is.
Pellew Is.
Groote Eylandt
Melville I.
Bathurst I.
Melville B.
Arnhem B.
Van Diemen Gulf
Port Darwin
Port Essington
Cobourg Pen.
Liverpool R.
Clarence Str.
Timor Sea
Ashmore Is.
Cartier I.
Scott Reef
Roebuck B.
Broome
Lagrange B.
Buccaneer Archipelago
Collier B.
Bigge I.
York Sound
Brunswick B.
Wyndham
Mt Lechhardt
Daly Waters Sta.
Victoria R.
Fitzroy R.
Sturt Cr.
Tennants Cr. Sta.
Mt Wilson annexed provisionally to
Mt Blyth
Alstralia
Mt Kinlay
Mt Castor
Mt Mt Entrye
Mt Muller
Mt Manning
Mt Leichhardt
Central Mt Stuart
Mt Macpherson
Mt Donnell Ra.
Mt Flora
Mt Henry
Burke Cr.
Burke R.
Windorah
Mt Unapproachable
L. Macdonald
L. Amadeus
Stevenson Pt.
Alfred Mary Range
Mt Augustus
Mt Laboucher
Weld Spr.
L. Augusta
Mt Bruce
Mt Ophthalmia
Northern District
Kimberley District
Henels District
King Sound
Derby
Broome
Lacepede Is.
Barrow I.
Dampier Archipelago
Onslow
Exmouth
N. West C.
Pt Coates
C. Anderson
C. Cuvier
Dorre I.
Barrow I.
Bernier I.
Dirk Hartog I.
Shark Bay
Steep Pt.
Gantheaume B.
Houtman or Abrolhos Rocks
Geraldine Mine
Northampton
Victoria Range
Geelvink Chan.
L. Austin
L. Moore
L. Barlee
L. Monger
Perth
Fremantle
Rottnest I.
Mt William
Geographe B.
C. Naturaliste
Busselton
C. Leeuwin
Flinders B.
Pt D'Entrecasteaux
Irwin Inlet
King George Sd.
Albany
Doubtful Is.
Recherche Archp.
Esperance B.
Russell Ra.
Salt Lakes
Dover Pt.
Port Eucla
Eastern District
Mt Jackson
Mt Weld
L. Carey
Dry Salt Lakes
Queen Victoria Spr.
Coolgardie
Kalgoorlie
Boe
L. Lefroy
L. Cowan
Cow Cowing L.
Smith Ra.
Breton B.
Mt Ford
York
R. Avon
Williamsburg
Jerramungup
Stirling Ra.
Mt Barker
Salt Lakes
Lake Gairdner
Lake Torrens
Eyre's Penn.
Port Augusta
Spencer Gulf
Gulf St Vincent
Kangaroo I.
Encounter B.
C. Bernouilli
Robe Tn.
Grey Tn.
Discovery B.
C. Bridgewater
Portland
Warrnambool
C. Otway
Port Elliot
Goolwa
Murray R.
Murray Mouth
Lake Alexandrina
Lake Albert
Coorong
Kingston
Meningie
Millicent
Mt Gambier
Port MacDonnell
Port Fairy
Belfast
Geelong
Melbourne
Port Phillip B.
Western Port
Wilsons Prom.
Cape Otway
Portland B.
Cape Nelson
Cape Bridgewater
Cape Grim
Macquarie Harbour
Hunter I.
Circular Head
Port Sorell
Port Dalrymple
Launceston
Tamar R.
George Town
Port Arthur
Tasman Pen.
Frederick Henry B.
Storm B.
Maria I.
Oyster Bay
Great Swanport
Schouten I.
Freycinet Pen.
Swan I.
Banks Str.
Flinders I.
Furneaux Is.
Kent Group
Hogan Group
Curtis I.
Hunter I.
Three Hummock I.
Robbins I.
Pieman R.
Mt Lyell
Mt Zeehan
Macquarie Harbour
Port Davey
Bathurst Harbour
Mt Direction
Mt Wellington
Mt Barrow
Mt Cameron
Mt Victoria
Mt Arthur
Mt Roland
Mt Claude
Mt Cradle
Mt Ossa
Mt Pelion
Mt Olympus
Mt Gell
Mt Humboldt
Mt Sorell
Mt Direction
Mt Wellington
Mt Barrow
Mt Cameron
Mt Victoria
Mt Arthur
Mt Roland
Mt Claude
Mt Cradle
Mt Ossa
Mt Pelion
Mt Olympus
Mt Gell
Mt Humboldt
Mt Sorell
Longitude E
J-2.


150
155
160
165
170
175
180
175
Huon G.
C. Ward Hunt
Hericote Bay
D'Entrecasteaux Is
S. Langley Mt.
Woodlark I.
Table B.
China Strait
St. Aignan I.
South East I.
Rossel I.
C. Deliverance
Louisiade Arch.o
Bougainville
Choiseul
SOLOMON
Isabel I.
New Georgia I.
Gower I.
Cdstrolabe
Stewart Is
Murray
Malayta I.
L. Guadalcanar
San Christoval I.
Bellona I.
Rennell I.
Kennedy I.
Santa Cruz (Nitendi)
Swallow Is
Ste Cruz Is
Pandora Reef
Tapua Is
Vanikoro (La Perouse)
Anouda I.
Torres Is
Tucopia
Vanua Lava
Banks Is
St. Maria
Star Peak I.
Aurora I.
Espiritu Santo
Pentecost I.
Malicolo
NEW HEBRIDES
Ambrym I.
Api I.
Huon Is
D'Entrecasteaux Reef
Bampton Shoal
Aron Is
Sandwich I. or Lifat
Sandy I.
Lebert I.
Belaltea
Eromanga
Tanna
Erronan
Low Is
Ureat
Loyalty Is
Lifu I.
Annatom
NEW CALEDONIA
Mare
Noumea (Port de France)
Tropic of Capricorn
I. of Pines
Walpole I.
Hunter I.
St Matthew
Sandy C.
Gt Sandy I.
Wide B.
Lagoon B.
Moreton B.
Capel Bk
Moreton I.
Stradbroke I.
Pt Danger
C. Byron
Middleton Shoal
Shoal B. & Clarence R.
Solitary Is
Trial B. & McLeay R.
Sea View
Port Macquarie
B. Manning
I.d Howe I.
Norfolk I.
Phillip I.
Port Stephens
Newcastle & Hunter R.
Broken B. & Hawkesbury R.
SYDNEY & Port Jackson
Botany B.
Wollongong
Shoalhaven R.
Jervis B.
Bateman B.
Eden & Twofold B.
C. Howe
Rosaretta Reef
Three Kings
C. Maria Van Diemen
C. North or Pari
Doubtless B.
Hokianga B.
Kaipara Har.
Manukau Har.
Kaiaraki G.
Gt Barrier I.
North Island
Thames
Mayor I.
Bay of Plenty
C. Edgecumbe
New Plymouth
Mt Egmont & C.
East C.
Open B.
Poverty B.
Hawkes B.
Napier
C. Farewell
Wanganui
Cloudy B.
C. Palliser
C. Turnagain
Wellington
Westport
Greymouth
Hokitika
South Island
Cascade Pt
Milford Sd
Doubtful Inlet
Preservation Inlet
West C.
Dunedin
Invercargill
Stewart I.
N. Rocks
S. Rocks
Chatham Is (Warrekauri)
Pitt I.
OCEAN
SEA
CORAL
TASMAN
AUSTRALIA
NEW SOUTH WALES
Wellington
Turner Inlet
C. Wilson
Flinders I.
Furneaux Is
C. Barren I.
Banks Str.
Launceston
Tamar
Freycinet Penin.a
Oyster B.
Maria I.
Tasman Penin.a
Storm B.
Schouten I.
Entrecasteaux Chan.
Osprey Reef
Flattery
Tribulation
Hinchinbrook I.
Palm I.
Halifax B.
Rowes Bay
Upstart C.
Port Denison
Bowen
Cumberland B.
Repulse B.
Palmerston
Northumberland Is
Broad Sound
Shoalwater B.
C. Townshend
Port Bowen
Keppel B.
Curtis I.
Port Curtis
Bustard B.
Wide B.
Tennyson
Brisbane
Ipswich
Logan R.
Moreton B.
Stradbroke I.
Pt Danger
Tweed R.
Richmond R.
Clarence R.
Solitary Is
Port Macquarie
Manning R.
Hunter R.
Newcastle
Port Stephens
Sydney
Botany B.
Wollongong
Shoalhaven R.
Jervis B.
Bateman B.
Twofold B.
C. Howe

BOOK VII.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN AUSTRALASIA IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

CHAPTER I.

AUSTRALIA: GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

Vast progress of the Australian colonies in the nineteenth century—Recent works on their history—Area and coast-line of the island-continent—The Great Barrier Reef—Physical features of the land—Mountains—The Great Dividing Range—Table-lands and deserts—Rivers and lakes—Geological formation—Climate—Uncertainty of the rainfall—Damage by droughts and floods—Mineral wealth—Absence of food-producing plants—Changes effected by the colonists—Unique native vegetation—Brushes, woodlands, and scrubs—Animal life—Prevalence of marsupial mammals—Birds—The emu and lyre-bird—Parrot tribe—Reptiles—Fishes—The dugong—Insects—Description of the aborigines—Their gradual extermination.

In an early section of this work we left New South Wales, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, as our sole colonial possession in Australasian waters. In 1801 the country, with a history ranging over but twelve years of chequered fortunes, contained only about seven thousand Europeans, mostly convicts of the male sex, with a few hundreds of free emigrants devoted to tillage and sheep-farming, and aided in their toils by convict-labour. A century of time passes away, and in the seventh decade of the Victorian age we find Australia alone, apart from Tasmania and New Zealand, containing five separate colonies, with a total population reaching 3½ millions. The chief towns of the greater of these colonies have become stately cities, rivalling or surpassing the minor European capitals in size and splendour, and equalling the greatest cities of the world in the essentials of material development and civilization. The science and art, the religion and culture, the sports and amusements, the manufactures, trades, and commerce of the British Isles re-appear on the other side of the globe, with our institutions of every kind—parliamentary, municipal, educational, financial, and philanthropic. Under new conditions of climate and other physical surroundings, a new type of character is being evolved in the Australian descendants of

British and Irish forefathers who crossed the seas to found new homes beneath the Southern Cross in the earlier decades of the nineteenth century. No detailed account can here be given of the successive steps by which this great result of energy and enterprise in creating an Australasian Britain has been attained. The names of some leading men will appear in the course of our narrative; for the work and career of the pioneers of progress, and of the able and energetic men who, in every department of political and social life, have done good work for their Australasian fellow-countrymen, we refer readers to special recent works on Australian history, and to those excellent and valuable books, *Hutchinson's Australasian Encyclopaedia*, by Mr. G. C. Levey, C.M.G., and the *Dictionary of Australasian Biography* (Hutchinson & Co.) by Mr. Philip Mennell, F.R.G.S. It may be remarked that Tasmania and New Zealand, as well as Australia proper, are included in the scope of these works, which deal with every place, person, and event of note in the Australasian colonies from the time of first settlement to the year 1892. We now proceed to a brief physical description of Australia, followed by some account of the exploration which, in the course of years, made the vast region known to others than the aborigines, and prepared the way for colonization.

Australia, washed on the north-west, west, and south by the Indian Ocean, and on the east by the South Pacific, is by far the largest island in the world, and, being in area only one-fourth less than Europe, and about twenty-five times as large as the British Isles, may be fairly described as a continent. With a total land-surface of nearly three millions of square miles, or nearly 1,900 millions of statute acres, this enormous territory has an extreme length, north to south, between 10 degrees 40 min. and 39 degrees S. lat., of 1970 miles, from Cape York to Wilson's Promontory, in Victoria. The breadth, west to east, between 113 degrees and 153 E. long., covers about 2400 miles from Steep Point, opposite Dirk Hartog's Island, in Western Australia, to Point Cartwright, in Queensland. No continent, save Africa, has a coast-line so little broken by gulfs and bays, the whole seaboard extending only for about 7750 miles. The most remarkable geographical feature in Australian waters is an astonishing example of the work done by the polypes, jelly-like in structure, popularly called "coral insects". The Great Barrier Reef, really a series of coral-reefs,

extends southwards, along the east of the great island, for over 1250 miles, from its origin in Torres Straits, close to New Guinea, to its termination opposite the coast of Queensland, in 24 degrees S. latitude. First made known to mariners in 1770, when, as we saw in an early section of this work, Captain Cook's ship, the *Endeavour*, was almost lost by striking on some sharp coral rocks, the Barrier Reef runs roughly parallel to the coast of Queensland, at a distance varying from 20 to 90 miles. The sides of this vast series of submarine structures are precipitous, and within a few yards of the rocks soundings show nearly 300 fathoms. Only few safe openings for ships are found throughout the whole length, and the reefs thus furnish a natural breakwater against the mighty surges of the Pacific. The "inner route", an ocean-area estimated to cover 80,000 geographical square miles, is a tranquil inland sea, traversed by the largest steamers for most of the year with open portholes and on an even keel. The surface of the reef is usually submerged at high water, but at low tide is nearly level with the sea, strewn with masses of black coral rock, to which Flinders gave the name of "negro-heads". Here and there the rocks are covered by banks of drifted sand upon which a few stunted, wind-beaten bushes maintain a bare existence. The Barrier Reefs, awful in one view, and beautiful in another, present at once, in the outer and inner waters, the spectacle of a cemetery and a pleasure-lake. Upon the outer rampart the Pacific swell crashes with terrible force and thunderous din, filling the air with spray and vapour, and at some points, on the ocean side, the skeletons of ships lie fixed on the rocks in whose lower crevices of coral the bones of wrecked mariners repose. On the inner side, residents of the Queensland coast-towns make boat-excursions to the reefs and gaze on the beauties and the wonders of a vast aquarium. Striped and frilled fishes glide in shoals amidst branching coral and waving-sea-weed. The bêche-de-mer (trepang, or sea-slugs, or sea-cucumbers), like soft leathery bags of various shapes and sizes, are seen creeping on the submerged knolls. Many-tinted shells strew the patches of sand, and sharks, fiercely eyeing the bold intruders on their domain, cruise in the deeper rifts of the coral.

It is not only for her size, eleven times greater than that of Borneo, and fifteen times as large as that of Madagascar, that Australia is entitled to be called a "continent" rather than an

"island". The conformation of surface, with the high elevations lying around the coasts and not central; the varieties of climate, and of plants and animals, are rather continental than insular. As regards its surface, Australia resembles a dish of irregular shape, being depressed towards the centre and raised along the edges. Mountains and table-lands are more pronounced features of the east side of the continent than of the west side, so far as that region is yet known. From Cape York on the north to Wilson's Promontory on the south, the Great Dividing Range, with scarcely any important break in its entire length, runs at an average distance of 30 miles, varying at some points to 60 miles, from the sea on the east. This range forms the watershed between the rivers flowing into the Pacific and those which, with a westerly course, join the great system of inland drainage sending the waters of the eastern half of the continent either northwards into the great Gulf of Carpentaria, or, in far larger amount, to the sea on the south-eastern coast. The average height of the mountains in this chain may be 3000 feet, with many elevations, in Queensland, exceeding 4000 feet, and, in the same colony, with one peak of 5400. In New South Wales, branches of the main chain, variously called the New England, the Liverpool, the Blue Mountain Ranges, and by other names, have many heights of between 4000 and 5000 feet, and Mount Kosciusko, probably the highest point of the Australian continent, attains an elevation of 7308 feet, about 700 feet below the line of perpetual snow in that latitude. Many peaks in the great mountain-knot lying between the 36th and 37th parallels of south latitude exceed 6000 feet in height. In the south-east of Australia, the colony of Victoria is traversed by a range running from east to west, at a distance from 60 to 70 miles from the sea, and known, in the eastern portion, as the Australian Alps, having many elevations from 4000 to over 6000 feet. South Australia has three ranges with mountains varying from 2000 to over 3000 feet, and the three distinct parallel ranges of Western Australia attain about the same heights.

The table-lands on the eastern side of the Great Dividing Range, with an average height of 2500 feet, descend rapidly and, in many places, very steeply to the coast. On the west side, a gradual decline brings the land gently down to the interior level. The descent to the coast presents many scenes of grandeur or of

picturesque beauty in mountain and valley, ravine and waterfall. Westwards from the table-land, for many hundreds of miles, vast level plains extend, largely consisting of rich deep black soil, covered in wet seasons with luxuriant vegetation. These plains form the main geographical feature of eastern Australia in their occupation of many hundreds of thousands of square miles in the colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and South Australia. The western half of the continent, so far as it has yet been revealed by explorers, largely consists of deserts and "scrubs". In both these classes of country, water is either absent or very scarce. The deserts are either devoid of vegetation or clothed only with a coarse spiny grass that cuts like knives, and affords no sustenance to cattle or horses. The scrubs are composed of a dense growth of shrubs and low trees, only to be penetrated, at many points, by the vigorous use of the axe.

The drainage-system, in general, may be said to consist of but two slopes, one towards the sea, the other towards the interior. The rivers on the east coast have generally short courses, owing to the proximity of their sources, in the mountain-chain, to the sea. Some of these streams, however, as the Fitzroy, the Clarence, the Hunter, and the Hawkesbury, become far longer and more important from the fact of their upper courses being parallel to the Dividing Range and to the coast. Some other rivers entering the sea on the north, south, and west will be hereafter noticed, but the only rivers in Australia that attain continental size are the Murray and the Darling. Both of these belong to the system of inland drainage, and together they have a basin of nearly half a million square miles. From its rise in the Australian Alps to its termination in Lake Alexandrina on the south coast, whence its waters reach the sea, the Murray has a length of 1300 miles. Of its chief tributaries, the Darling, flowing from the north-east, through the whole of New South Wales, has a length of over 2500 miles. The Lachlan flows south-west for over 700 miles before it joins the Murrumbidgee, of at least equal length, at a point 40 miles above the place where their united waters flow into the Murray. Most of the internal rivers are small and intermittent in their supply of water, rising in some elevated tract and ending, after a brief course, either in some lake, or disappearing in swamps or in desolate sandy wastes. We may here note that such rivers are

often styled "creeks", by transfer of a term usually applied to a small tidal inlet of the sea. Heavy rains cause their shallow beds to overflow with water passing beyond the ill-defined banks, and submerging the low-lying land along their courses. Apart from lagoons lying along the coast, Australia has many lakes in various parts of her vast area. A few contain fresh water, but the majority are salt, of which the largest are Lakes Gairdner, Torrens, Eyre, and Amadeus, in South Australia. The largest fresh-water lake yet discovered is Lake George, in New South Wales, with an area of about 40 square miles, lying at an elevation of over 2000 feet above sea-level. Without any attempt to enter on the geological formation of Australia, mainly Palæozoic and Tertiary, with Mesozoic or Secondary structure in large areas of Queensland, we may note the existence of numerous extinct volcanoes, with craters now presenting beautiful lakes. This is especially the case in the south-east of South Australia, and in Victoria, where a large part of the soil is volcanic, scores of extinct volcanoes may be seen near Ballarat.

The climate of Australia, varying as regards temperature with the latitude and elevation above sea-level, is warm, dry, healthy, and rich in amount of sunshine. It is generally cooler in summer and warmer in winter than that of countries situated at like distances from the equator in the northern hemisphere. Intense heat is sometimes brought by winds, and the thermometer has been known to reach 131 degrees in the shade. In the higher districts ice and snow are common in the winter, from May to October, but only on two occasions has snow fallen in Sydney or Melbourne. A memorable day of great heat throughout Australia, known as "Black Thursday", came on February 6th, 1851, when the thermometer rose to 117 degrees in the shade, and terrible bush-fires occurred near Port Phillip. The ashes from a conflagration in the forests near Mount Macedon fell in the streets of Melbourne, 40 miles away, and even out at sea. A large area of country was laid waste, with great loss of human life and destruction of horned cattle, sheep, and farm buildings. The rainy season, within the tropics, is in summer, from November to April; outside the tropics, rain falls almost wholly in winter. The eastern side of the continent, having the chief mountains, both for extent and height, has the heaviest rainfall, through the moisture brought by the winds

BLACK THURSDAY.

The climate of Australia is hot and dry, and, as a rule, pleasant and healthy; but some parts, especially in the south, are at times visited by scorching winds from the interior. These winds are usually preceded by very fine weather with a falling barometer, and during their continuance the temperature becomes so high as to be oppressive and injurious not only to man, but also to cattle, sheep, and crops. They are most severe in Victoria, where they commonly last a whole day, and are followed by cold and very violent south winds. The extreme dryness of the hot winds tends to lessen their ill effects on human beings, for most people can stand a higher temperature when the air is dry than when it is moist. Nevertheless they have resulted in loss of life and destruction of crops at various times, notably on the sixth of February, 1851. On that day, known as Black Thursday, a temperature of 117 degrees in the shade was registered, and the intense heat produced bush-fires near Port Phillip. Enormous damage was done to live stock, farm-buildings, and crops, and a large number of persons lost their lives. The ashes from a conflagration in the forests near Mount Macedon fell in the streets of Melbourne, nearly 40 miles away, and even out at sea. The illustration shows colonists fleeing before an advancing bush-fire.



STANLEY. L. WOOD. 84

"BLACK THURSDAY", FEBRUARY 6th, 1851.

from the Pacific. The rainfall decreases, as a rule, in proportion to the distance from the eastern coast. Thus, Sydney has an average amount of 50 inches per year; Bathurst, about 100 miles from the sea, has only 23 inches; and Wentworth, nearly 500 miles inland, has only 14 inches in the year. Melbourne and Adelaide have respectively 25 and 20 inches of annual rainfall, and on the Queensland coast the annual amount varies from 40 to 80 inches. Taking the colonies separately, we find that the average rainfall is, in New South Wales, 25 inches; Victoria, 32 inches; South Australia, 20 inches; Queensland, 27 inches, and Western Australia, 23 inches. The far interior, with a probable average of 10 inches, viewed in connection with the relative areas of the colonies, gives a mean rainfall for the whole of Australia of 21 inches, the average, for the whole of Europe, being 15½ inches.

The worst feature in the Australian climate is the uncertainty and inequality of the rainfall, causing mischievous and distressing alternations of drought and flood. These visitations are, happily, of somewhat rare occurrence, and seldom affect very large areas at once. The ordinary scarcity of rain inland renders most of the rivers, with the notable exception of the Murray, intermittent. For months together they shrink into straggling water-holes, with or without a connecting thread of stream. The Murray itself is navigable only at certain seasons of the year. On the other hand, most parts of the continent are liable to rains so abundant as to occasion floods from the inability of the ordinary channels, with their very slight slope, to carry off the water so swiftly deposited. As remedies for droughts, irrigation-works, storage of water within dams, and the sinking of wells, are being yearly more extensively employed. We may note that, on the interior plains, the limited rainfall is largely absorbed by a very porous soil, and this fact has much to do with the shrinkage of the rivers. The water, however, which thus fails to be carried off to the sea, is stored by nature in her underground reservoirs, only needing to be tapped for the yield of abundant supplies. Dealing first with droughts, we find that the total absence of water, and the withering of vegetation, have in some years destroyed vast numbers of sheep and cattle, the most recent instances being in 1884 and 1888, in which latter year the whole continent suffered from one of the worst droughts ever known. In South Australia the amount of rainfall was less

than in any year since the foundation of the colony, and some places had less than an inch of rain. At two stations only a quarter of an inch fell between January 1st and December 10th, and the drought only fairly broke up on the last day of the year. New South Wales, the northern districts of Victoria, and Queensland suffered very much, but less severely than the sister-colony. At such times, with the ground like iron and the sky like brass, the hapless Australian farmer, as tiller of the soil or stock-keeper, can do no work in garden or field, and must either sit in idleness at home or go forth and watch the grass withering and the water drying up, and the sheep and cattle dying by inches in dumb despair. The plains, for hundreds of miles, become bare, dusty, red-brown wastes, with no leaf nor grass, nor rush nor reed to relieve the traveller's wearied eye. Of disastrous floods we may note those which have occurred in the valleys of the Hawkesbury, Hunter, and Murrumbidgee. At Gundagai, a small mining and agricultural town on the last river, in June, 1852, only 7 buildings remained out of 78, and 89 persons were drowned out of a population of 250.

The mineral wealth of Australia, to be dealt with under the separate colonies, includes gold, silver, iron, copper, tin, lead, quicksilver, antimony, coal, granite, marble, limestone, sandstone, and many kinds of precious stones, among which are found the garnet, topaz, sapphire, ruby, and diamond, as rare specimens of little commercial value. As regards the vegetable kingdom, the history of colonization presents us with no more striking contrast than the Australia of the past and of the present day, in respect to products capable of sustaining human life. For long ages, in the words of one of her sweetest poets, Australia lay an "unsown garden fenced by sea-crags sterile", a vast region ranged over by scanty tribes of dusky aborigines all but destitute of mind and soul. And then!—the hour of destiny struck, and the fair sunlit soil began to send forth growths that Australia had never known, and, as the years rolled on to fill up the first century of her new existence, ever more vivid and more valuable was the change effected by European enterprise and energy and capital and skill. In the former state of the continent, nothing is so surprising as the almost total absence of food-producing plants from so vast an area of the earth's surface. Besides the nardoo, a plant allied to the

ferns, the spore-cases of which supply a poorly nutritious food; the roots of certain plants of the orchid tribe, now locally called "yams"; and the seeds of a species of pine-tree, there was hardly a vegetable growth on the continent yielding suitable sustenance, in any quantity, for human beings. There was no indigenous root like the potato; no grain equal to the poorest of the cereals; no fruit to be compared even to the gooseberry in nutritive power. The Australia of the close of the nineteenth century bears, in temperate regions, every kind of cereals and of edible plants and roots known to Europe or America, and the chief European grasses used as fodder. All the fruits of Europe thrive, while the northern districts produce every fruit found in the tropics save the cocoa-nut. Cotton and sugar, as we shall see, are among the products of Queensland, and most of the colonies have home-grown tobacco of fair quality.

The native vegetation of Australia is almost unique. In the north may be found plants belonging to classes which abound in the tropical regions of India and the Malay islands, and in the south certain natural orders are common which are also abundant in South Africa. With these exceptions, the plants of Australia are different from those of every other quarter of the globe, and the vegetation of West Australia widely differs from that of the eastern part of the continent. The species of vegetation, far more numerous than those of Europe, include above nine thousand flowering plants, of which the grandest are the Warratah of New South Wales with its large crimson flower, and a gigantic lily, rising to a height of 10 or 12 feet, and bearing at the top a very large dark-red bloom. Some of the orchids are remarkable for beauty or singularity of shape. The ferns are famous for their abundance and beauty, the grand tree-ferns being now often visible in our conservatories. Dealing with the vegetation on a large scale, we may refer in turns to "brushes", "woodlands", and "scrubs". Brushes, or masses of dense and luxuriant vegetation resembling the "jungle" of tropical countries, are found in Australia on the seaward side of the Dividing Range, or on the alluvial soil of river-banks, or on the rich soil of mountain-valleys and ravines. The plants and trees are almost wholly evergreens, with foliage varied in tint and arrangement, and thus free from the monotony found in much of the Australian tree-vegetation, with its uniform sombre

olive tint on both the upper and under surface of the leaves, and with an usually vertical direction of growth in the foliage, allowing a freer entrance to the blazing summer sun. Various kinds of the eucalyptus, known as blue, red, and white gum-trees, with stems of great girth, and rising to heights varying from 150 to over 400 feet, tower above the general level. They are usually destitute of branches until near the top, and the foliage is there thin and scanty in proportion to the size of the trees. Rivalling the gums in height and thickness are large-leaved figs, having crowns that spread wide in thick and abundant leafage. Below these appear the palms and the "nettles", the latter being trees that often rise 50 feet from the ground, with large light-green leaves noxious to touch. The tree-ferns, from 10 to 30 feet in height, come next below, and all are bound together with the pliable stems of creepers. The stringy-bark, iron bark, and messmate are other eucalypts of the hundred or more species of trees that are found in the brush, among which the noble cedar, with wood closely resembling mahogany, is conspicuous. The brilliancy of colouring in the flowers of tree and shrub is very remarkable. Among over 300 species of acacias or "wattles" that are indigenous to Australia, many have lovely yellow blossoms, generally fragrant. The "flame-tree", with its clusters of red flowers, can be seen miles out at sea as it grows in masses on the Illawarra Mountains, 50 miles south of Sydney. The "fire-tree" of West Australia blazes with blossoms of orange hue, and one of the Queensland trees shows a mass, 50 feet in height, of orange-tipped crimson stamens.

"Woodlands" are open tracts of land, usually clothed with grass, and having large trees with little undergrowth. It is here that the various kinds of eucalyptus most abound, affording the monotonous aspect that has caused some to describe Australia as "the land of the dreary eucalyptus". In moist or swampy ground, the place of the eucalyptus is taken by various kinds of trees known to the colonists as "tea-trees", furnishing a hard timber, almost imperishable in the ground for fence-posts and piles. They are of the same natural order as the "gum-trees", and next to them, as characteristic of Australia, come the casuarinas, called "oaks" in the colonies, but often really dark green, pine-looking trees belonging to an almost extinct class, abounding in the forests of former ages, as proved by the remains frequently found in coal. "Scrubs" is the term applied

to tracts of land thickly covered with bushes and shrubs. In some places, scrubs are composed almost entirely of plants belonging to one family. Of this kind are the mallee scrubs, in which the plant is a dwarf kind of eucalyptus, covering an area larger than Wales on the lower course of the Murray; and the detested mulga scrubs, deriving their name and character from a dense growth of thorny acacias. Usually, however, the vegetation of the scrubs comprises a large number of shrubby plants of different orders, with occasional gums and tea-trees. The most beautiful of the indigenous wild flowers are often displayed on these thorny and prickly growths, impenetrable save by the use of the axe or of fire after long drought. The "grass-tree" is another Australian production, having a thick round stem, from the top of which springs a tuft of long, pointed, and sharp-edged leaves. Out of this tuft shoots up a long, straight, round stalk, from 3 to 5 feet in length, and having about a foot of the upper portion densely covered with small white star-like flowers.

The fauna, or zoology, or animal life of Australia is even more remarkable than the vegetation. Scarcely any of the Australian animals are found in other countries, and none of the animals common in other countries lying at no great distance find representatives in Australia. The mammalia consist almost wholly of marsupials, the pouch-bearing creatures carrying their young before them in a pendent pouch or purse. This order of animals is indigenous, in other regions of the world, only in North America, and there is found only in one family. One marsupial, indeed, occurs in the Malay Archipelago, and New Guinea has several closely allied to those of Australia. It is notable, also, that the fossil remains of quadrupeds which have been discovered in Australia are almost all marsupials, some being equal in bulk to the hippopotamus and the rhinoceros. It seems as if, for countless ages, this wonderful continent had been so isolated from the rest of the world that no interchange of plants or animals could take place. The only native mammals that are not marsupials are some bats and flying-foxes, some species of rats and mice, and the dingo or native dog, almost the sole representative, in Australia, of the carnivorous animals. It is impossible here even to mention all the names of the marsupial creatures that occupy the position taken, in other regions of the world, by the *Ungulata* or hoofed quadrupeds,

the rodents or gnawers, the carnivora, the ant-eaters, the insect-eating animals, and the monkeys and lemurs. The hoofed ruminants of other parts of the world may be said to be represented in Australia by kangaroos and allied creatures; the beavers and other gnawing animals by wombats; the true cats and other carnivora by native cats, with habits like those of the English stoat; the jackals and wolves by the thylacine or marsupial wolf; the insectivora by the small insect-eating marsupials; and the arboreal monkeys and lemurs by the phalangers or Australian opossums and the koalas or native bears. We must refer our readers to special zoological or Australian works for those strange mammals of the lowest order—not represented either by living or by known fossil forms in any other quarter of the world—the duck-bill platypus or ornithorhynchus, and the echidna or porcupine ant-eater.

The birds of Australia, peculiar in both the presence and in the total absence of certain species, surpass those of all other temperate and sub-tropical climates for fineness of shape and beautiful plumage. The species, as known, exceed six hundred, including many varieties of the splendid cockatoos, parrots, and parroquets. As a rule, the same orders of birds as are indigenous there may also be found in other parts of the world, but there are certain kinds which may be deemed peculiarly Australian, owing to some remarkable feature of structure, habits, or colour. The emu, now rare, attains from 6 to 8 feet in height; has merely rudimentary wings, with three-toed feet adapted for running; and is a timid, harmless creature, living chiefly on vegetable food. The lyre-bird, with its two outer tail-feathers curved so as to resemble an ancient lyre, is an imitative song-bird, known as the "native" or "brush" pheasant. The "brush-turkeys" deposit their eggs, to be hatched by the heat of fermentation, in large mounds of dead leaves and decaying vegetation. There are many doves and pigeons; above sixty species of the parrot tribe, from the great Black Cockatoo to the diminutive Grass Parakeet; and several kinds of Kingfishers, of which one large species is known, from its loud, continuous, laughing, and braying note as the Laughing Jackass, and also as "the settler's clock", from the regularity of its call at dawn and dusk. The rapacious birds include an eagle, working havoc on lambs, and many hawks and owls. The black swan, pelican, and wild ducks are common, and the smaller birds include finches, robins, swallows,

and wrens, some of them having a pretty song, and the robin being marked by its ruddy breast. On the coasts there are hosts of sea-birds, as the albatross, various kinds of gulls, divers, and penguins.

The reptiles of Australia number about 250 species, from the crocodile, 30 feet long, to tiny frogs, differing in their qualities from the edible turtle to venomous snakes, of which five, including the brown-banded snake and the broad-scaled snake, are dangerous to man. Diamond and carpet snakes belong to the family of pythons or rock snakes, killing their prey by constriction. There are also countless lizards and frogs. The Australian seas are richer in fish than the fresh waters, the finest of whose produce is a species of perch, oddly styled the "Murray cod" by the colonists; of this valuable fish specimens weighing 80 pounds have been taken. Among the multitudes of salt-water fishes those chiefly used for food are the schnapper, whiting, bream, mullet, and gar-fish. Twenty species of sharks, some attaining a length of 12 feet, infest the seas. Among the marine animals are whales and seals, and the peculiar dugong, a warm-blooded mammal, from 10 to 20 feet long, known also as the sea-cow, taken off Queensland for the sake of its flesh, which resembles beef, and for the valuable oil extracted therefrom. It feeds on sea-weed, is gregarious, and very fond of its young; it is pursued in boats and killed by spearing. Cray-fish and oysters, shrimps and prawns abound, and are much used as food. In the sea to the north the pearl-oyster and trepang are plentiful. The numerous insects include a spider called tarantula, a huge hairy creature with a venomous bite; the centipede, scorpion, many species of beetles, grasshoppers, cicadas (wrongly called "locusts" by the colonists), bees, ants (including the so-called "white ant", so destructive to wood), and most obnoxious swarms of mosquitoes and other flies in the warmer districts.

Turning now to the aborigines, or Australian natives, we find the whole continent inhabited by one isolated, peculiar race, widely removed from Papuans, Malays, and negroes. When the country was first discovered, the natives, dark coffee-brown in hue, were a finer race than their descendants, being at least equal in stature to Europeans, active and robust, with deep chests, thin lower limbs, an upright carriage, and easy, graceful gait. They were possessed of very keen sight, rendering them unsurpassed as trackers of

animals and men. Excellent in all matters requiring the exercise of the senses, they were in other respects savages of a low type, very deficient in all that concerns thought or abstract ideas, without architecture, pottery, weaving, or religion, and destitute of words to express such notions as "God", "right", "love", and "five". Their morality is chiefly concerned with the notion of property, their wives or "gins" being included in the chattels for the stealing of which a definite punishment is awarded. The "black-fellows" are, however, capable of loyal affection and gratitude, and the hospitality, to be hereafter mentioned, which the wretched tribes of Cooper's Creek showed to the last survivor of Burke's expedition should always be remembered. Old men and old women are abandoned to death by starvation. Male children are regarded with parental affection; women are treated with a general brutality. Thrift is a thing unknown, and a life spent in wandering is supported by food derived from animals, reptiles, insects, roots, seeds, and leaves. The only dwellings, and those of a temporary character, are "gunyahs" composed of branches and boughs, or of sheets of bark stripped from the trees. The skins of opossums and other animals form the only clothing during the winter of colder districts. Spears, and clubs of solid heavy timber, were the usual weapons for hunting and war, with the famous and very ingenious boomerang, a missile of hard wood, bent in a curve, flat on one side, convex on the other, with a sharp edge along the convexity of the curve. Flung with the convex edge forward and the flat side down, by a strong quick jerk, and with a backward movement of the hand, the missile rises slowly in the air, whirling round and round, and describing a curved line of progress until it reaches a height of 50 or 60 yards, when it begins to return, and finally alights near the thrower's feet or at some yards in his rear. It is said that this surprising motion, unknown in any other projectile, is produced by the action of the air on the convex side, lifting the instrument by means similar to the wind's action on the oblique bars in the sails of a mill. The sweep of the boomerang can be varied at will, and no two paths of flight exactly agree.

The number of the natives in the great island-continent was always small, a fact mainly due to the aridity of the climate on all but the eastern coast, and the consequent lack of food for people

who knew not how to cultivate the soil. The estimates concerning the number of those who were existing rather more than a century ago, when the first European settlement arose, have varied between one million and about a sixth of that number. It is supposed that there may be about 200,000 at the present day, but it is certain that they are rapidly diminishing and that the race will at no distant time become extinct. Their history provides one of the best and fullest illustrations of the principle embodied in the phrase "survival of the fittest". The Australian aborigines, in contact with British convicts, men steeped in every crime, and turned loose in the land, became the victims, in the first place, of imported cruelty and vice. When honest settlers arrived, and land was occupied for tillage and sheep-farming, the natives, resenting the seizure of soil which they regarded as their own, became cattle-stealers, and thus incurred, in some places, partial or utter extermination. Boomerang, waddy or club, and spear were no match for firearms. When the animals on which they depended for food were displaced by sheep and cattle, the blacks, in many cases, became the creatures of the whites, the recipients of their charity, hangers-on about townships and "stations", eking out existence by begging and doing odd jobs. The governments of the different colonies have for many years shown a kindly spirit to the descendants of the original possessors of the soil, making annual distributions of blankets and other necessaries. Missionaries have, with little success, striven to raise and enlighten outlying native tribes amidst difficulties due to their low type of intellect, their wandering habits, their traditional instincts, and the evil example too often set them by the rougher settlers. The fondness for rum has had much to do with degradation and diminution of the black-fellows and their "gins", loafing about hotels, clad in wonderful assortments of the cast-off clothing of whites, and begging "bacca" and sixpences from all comers. There are some who do good work as cattlemen, shepherds, and general helps about the stations, and as mounted troopers and trackers in the police-force many do splendid service in hunting down criminals who have escaped to the bush. The day is fast coming when, save for the presence of half-breeds, the memory of the Australian natives will linger only in the liquid music of the native names which everywhere dot the map of the sunny southern land.

CHAPTER II.

EXPLORATION.

Difficulties of Australian exploration—Discoveries of Oxley and Allan Cunningham—of Ovens and Currie—of Hume and Hovell—Expeditions under Captain Sturt and Major Mitchell—A solitary dwelling—Sufferings of an exploring party—Expeditions of Eyre, M'Millan, Leichhardt, and Kennedy—John M'D. Stuart crosses the continent from south to north—Tragical enterprise of Burke and Wills—Relief party sent under Alfred W. Howitt—John King found among the natives—Posthumous honours accorded to Burke and Wills — Expeditions under Landsborough and M'Kinlay.

The history of Australian exploration is a record of man's enterprise, suffering, and general success in conflict with the natural obstacles presented by vast regions scantily furnished with food and water, and only to be traversed by arduous exertion in tugging at the oar, or by toilsome marches over sandy or thorny or "scrubby" deserts, under a burning sun, while horses and camels, the only means of transport, perished from hunger and thirst, and the hardy pioneers themselves sometimes encountered the same terrible doom. The African explorer has found his chief enemies in pestilential air, savage men, and ferocious beasts; the Australian traveller, with some demands upon active courage in conflict with human foes, has been usually called to simple, stern, endurance under conditions of the most trying character. Leaving aside, until we come to the history of New South Wales, the passage of settlement beyond the Blue Mountains, we first note the discoveries made by Oxley, Cunningham, Hume, and Hovell, between 1817 and 1828. John Oxley, a naval lieutenant who became Surveyor-General of New South Wales in 1812, set out from Sydney in April 1817, and in the course of a four months' journey traced the course of the river Lachlan for about 500 miles, in a westerly direction, until it was lost in a marshy region. Among the small party of Oxley's comrades was the distinguished botanist Allan Cunningham, to whom the world owes its first knowledge of Australian flora. Born at Wimbledon, in Surrey, in 1791, and trained at Kew Gardens for his scientific work, Cunningham, after a botanical trip to South America, arrived at Sydney in 1814, and died there a quarter of a century later, his health broken by the hardships endured in his journeys of exploration. The walk of

many weeks along and around the course of the Lachlan included a passage from hilly regions of woodland and rich meadow into a more level country where tall mountain-trees gave place to stunted shrubs, until the travellers came out on a great plain, filled with dreary swamps, where the eye could see naught but a dismal sea of waving reeds. The explorers changed their course only after forcing their way for miles through the reeds and over oozy mud into which they sank almost to the knees at every step. After passing round the great swamp and again striking the course of the river, a second marshy region compelled a return to the settled country. In 1818 Oxley went over much of the course of the Macquarie river, and discovered the river Hastings. In 1823, the same explorer found the river which he named the Brisbane, and Major Ovens and Captain Currie discovered the Murrumbidgee. In 1823 and 1827 Cunningham made his way to the famous pastoral and tillage regions known as the Liverpool Plains and the Darling Downs, thus opening up extensive and valuable territory for the uses of the sheep-farmer and the agriculturist of rising New South Wales.

Hamilton Hume and Captain Hovell were the first to explore the noble country in the interior of what became the colony of Victoria. Hume, described by an Australian historian as "a splendid bushman", was born at Parramatta in 1797, and, having a passion for exploration, and an intrepid, energetic, and determined nature, he started as a traveller at seventeen years of age, exploring the Berrima district, and making, between 1816 and 1824, many journeys inland, whereby he opened up the Yass and Goulburn Plains districts, with much other territory, and earned as his reward a valuable grant of land. Hovell, born at Great Yarmouth in 1786, and bred to the sea, was a bold and resolute man who became a captain in the mercantile marine, and arrived at Sydney in 1813, trading for some years on the coast and with New Zealand. After some experience as an explorer in New South Wales, he joined Hume, in October, 1824, as co-leader of a party of six convict servants, with provisions carried in two carts drawn by oxen. Setting out from Lake George, the travellers came to the banks of the Murrumbidgee, then greatly swollen by recent rains. A boat for transit was lacking, but Hume and one of the convicts named Boyd swam the river, carrying a rope between their teeth.

The carts, loaded with the goods, were covered with tarpaulin and then towed across; the other men and oxen, lastly, reached the further bank by swimming. A region too rugged for the carts compelled the adventurers to abandon them and load the oxen with their provisions. The snow-capped peaks of the range afterwards called the Australian Alps were seen as they travelled on through hilly country, beneath the shade of wide-spread forests. On November 17th, the river Murray was crossed at the site of Albury by means of boats constructed, on the spot, of wickerwork and covered with tarpaulin. The rivers Ovens and Goulburn were next discovered and crossed, and after many weary days the party came out at Port Phillip, on the south-east coast, at the point where now stands the town of Geelong. Hume's careful and sagacious observations of the route by which they had come enabled him to lead the party rapidly and safely back to Sydney, which was reached after an absence of sixteen weeks. The discoveries made by Oxley, Cunningham, Hume, and Hovell had greatly increased the knowledge of the interior, and subsequent journeys were, for a time, divested of the keen interest with which the settlers, eager to enlarge their pasture-grounds, regarded the early efforts to find good land beyond the Great Dividing Range.

In the history of Australian exploration, a very high place must be assigned to Captain Charles Sturt, who went out to Sydney with his regiment, the 39th Foot, and was selected by Governor Darling to head an expedition for further research in the interior of New South Wales. There was a theory afloat concerning the existence of a great central lake receiving the waters of the Macquarie, Lachlan, Murrumbidgee, and other large rivers, and it was desired to settle this question. With Hume as second in command, two soldiers and six convicts, Sturt set forth from Sydney in November, 1828, and made his way to the Macquarie. A two-years' drought was found to have made its waters too shallow for the portable boats, and the travellers trudged along the banks of the stream until they reached the place where Oxley had been stopped by the swampy region. A marsh, however, no longer existed there. The heat had baked the clay hard, and the far-stretching reeds were withered under the glare of the sun. No exertion enabled the explorers to make much progress through the reeds, where the hot and pestilent air was almost suffocating

and the only sound heard was the bittern's distant boom. Striking thence to the west, they came upon a plain and discovered, in February, 1829, a river named by Sturt the Darling, in the Governor's honour. After following its course for about 100 miles, the expedition returned to Sydney, with information that dispelled all belief in a great inland sea. In 1830, Sturt, with a party of eight convicts, and accompanied by Mr. (afterwards Sir George) Macleay, embarked on the Murrumbidgee in a whale-boat, and passing down to its junction with the Lachlan and then with the Murray, was borne along the great river, discovering on the way the mouth of the Darling. Rowing by day and encamping by night on the river-banks, the party were exposed to some risk from suspicious natives, who often gathered in crowds several hundreds strong. Sturt, however, a man as kindly as he was courageous, enterprising, and shrewd, one who, in his latest days, could justly declare that he had never caused the death of a "black-fellow", kept the peace by his pleasant demeanour and tact. When the twilight found the little encampment surrounded by dark figures, the captain joined in their sports, and Macleay won high favour by his comic songs, accompanied by gestures and grimaces which raised roars of laughter from the dusky crowd. The explorers, on the thirty-third day of their historic voyage, reached a sheet of water 30 miles long and 15 wide, which Sturt called Lake Alexandrina, after the princess who became Queen Victoria. The passage to the ocean, at the southern end, was blocked up by a great bar of sand, and the voyagers were forced to turn their boat round and face the current of the Murray for a return-journey of a thousand miles. Hard work with the oars, at which Sturt took his full share of toil, was needed, and food was failing as they entered the Murrumbidgee. The utmost hardship was endured through labour, with scanty food, beneath the heat of a midsummer sun, and they only reached settled districts and received succour when some of the party were becoming insane from physical suffering. We shall meet Sturt again in the course of this narrative.

The next traveller who sought to fill up the blanks in the map of Australia was Major (afterwards Sir Thomas Livingstone) Mitchell, a native of Stirlingshire, who served in the Peninsular War and became, in 1827, Surveyor-General of New South Wales.

His first effort as an explorer, on an expedition starting from Sydney in November, 1831, took him and some of his party of fifteen convicts to the Darling. While the Major was ahead, his camp of stores, in the rear, was surprised by the blacks, who speared the two men left in charge, and carried off the cattle and most of the goods. Lack of supplies soon compelled a return to the coast. Again, in March, 1835, Mitchell started with a strong party, but this attempt ended in a partial failure through native hostility, causing the death by murder of Richard Cunningham, a botanist like his brother Allan. Much territory had, however, been examined between the Darling and Bogan rivers, and the following March, 1836, saw the explorer again afoot towards the Darling and the Murray. After traversing a great extent of new country, and some fighting with the natives, Mitchell found and named the Grampians, and the river Glenelg. On this the party embarked in boats which they had carried with them. The scenery along this stream was charming. From the banks hung down luxuriant festoons of creepers, trailing amongst the eddies of the current, and partly hiding beautiful grottos wrought out by the action of the water on the pure white limestone. Through verdant valleys and round hills of abrupt sides the river wound its way until the voyagers towards the sea were stopped by the bar at the mouth of the Glenelg. They had reached the coast near Portland Bay, about 150 miles west of Port Phillip, and were surprised to see a neat cottage on the shore, with a small schooner in front at anchor. This was the lonely dwelling of the brothers Henty, who had crossed from Tasmania and founded a whaling station at Portland Bay. The magnificent country through which Mitchell and his men had passed in this quarter was styled by the discoverer "Australia Felix". The party then returned to Sydney after a journey of 2400 miles, making great additions to geographical knowledge. Ten years later, this accomplished and energetic man, knighted in 1839 and honoured by the University of Oxford with the degree of D.C.L., passed far beyond the upper Darling into a sub-tropical region, and discovered the Barcoo, or Victoria, river. In its lower course this stream was called Cooper's Creek by its discoverer in that region, Captain Sturt.

There are few things more strange and terrible in the history of exploration than the hardships encountered by that great

traveller and his comrades in 1844 and the following year. Under the auspices of Lord Stanley, the Colonial Secretary in England, Sturt undertook to conduct an expedition to the heart of Australia. In May, 1844, a well-equipped party of sixteen persons under his command started from the banks of the Darling river, near its junction with the Murray, and journeyed north-west as far as Cooper's Creek. The draughtsman of the party was Mr. J. M'Douall Stuart, who received, in this expedition, a splendid training for his future work as an explorer. After leaving the river-bank for the interior, through a dead level of desert, Sturt came to the hills by him called Stanley Range, in the extreme west of New South Wales, and now also known as the Barrier Range, with the highest peak, Mount Lyell, reaching 2000 feet. Great care was now needed in the advance through unknown territory. The expedition included 11 horses, 30 bullocks, and 200 sheep, and water for so many mouths could with difficulty be obtained. It was necessary for the leader always to ride forward and find a "creek" or pond with a sufficient supply, as the next place of encampment, before allowing the main body of men and animals to quit the water which they had reached. During the winter (our summer), some of the creeks were fairly supplied with water, but the summer of 1844, one of the hottest in Australian records, was upon them in October, and, while the burning sand scorched the feet of the men, and split the horses' hoofs, the water in every creek and pool was dried up. Death from thirst was before the travellers when a creek was found in a rocky glen, whose waters seemed to have a constant flow. For six months Sturt and his men were forced to remain in this haven of refuge, surrounded by country in which they could not move backwards or forwards, or in any direction, from lack of water. The heat, sometimes rising to 130 degrees in the shade, became such as to dry up the ink, split the combs, make the lead drop out of their pencils, and render the finger-nails as brittle as glass. They were at last compelled to excavate an underground chamber in order to escape the furnace-glow on the surface. Mr. Poole, the surveyor, died of scurvy, and all the members of the party had grown thin and weak, when the winter-rains gave them release, and enabled them to move forward to the north. Their journey ended in a region covered with hills of red sand, amid lagoons of salt and

bitter water. On the approach of summer, in the later months of 1845, the threatened lack of water compelled a return to Adelaide, which was reached after an absence of nineteen months. In one of the excursions made on this great journey, Sturt discovered the fine river called Cooper's Creek. The daring and hardy explorer suffered the loss of his eyesight from the glare of the burning sands.

We now proceed to notice the famous names of Eyre, Leichhardt, M'Millan, and Kennedy. Mr. Edward John Eyre, born in 1815, son of a Yorkshire clergyman, emigrated to Sydney in 1833, became a sheep-farmer on the lower course of the Murray, and was appointed a magistrate and "Protector of Aborigines". Taking an interest in exploration, he was selected, in 1840, by the government of South Australia, to lead a party of five Europeans and three natives into the interior. In June, a start was made from Adelaide, with horses for transport and a small flock of sheep for food. At the head of Spencer Gulf a three months' supply of provisions was received from a vessel despatched for the purpose. In the journey to the north, Lakes Torrens and Eyre were discovered, reduced at that time by the previous summer's heat to sheets of salt-encrusted mud. Lack of water compelled a return to Spencer Gulf, and then an attempt was made to reach West Australia along the sea-coast. With an Englishman named Baxter and three blacks a start was made in March, 1841, and great toil was endured in the scramble along the tops of rough cliffs from 300 to 600 feet above sea-level, with sandy desert stretching far inland. Much suffering was due to scarcity of water; some of the horses perished, and others were eaten as food fell short. Baxter wished to return, but Eyre persisted, and the end came for the former when two of the blacks, during Eyre's absence at night in search of straying horses, shot his friend, plundered the stores, and made their escape. The other black, Wylie, remained faithful to Eyre, who was obliged to leave Baxter's body, wrapped in a blanket, lying on rocky ground where no grave could be dug. After many more weary days of travel towards King George's Sound, Eyre and Wylie obtained fresh food and an eleven days' welcome rest on board a French whaler that lay off the coast. The travellers then, in three weeks' journey, made their way to the little town of Albany, and returned by sea to Adelaide, where they

arrived after an absence of more than twelve months. Eyre was the first explorer who faced the dangers of the Australian desert. Angus M'Millan, born in Skye in 1810, went to Sydney in 1830, and became overseer on a brother Scot's station in New South Wales. His services as an explorer include the first examination, in 1840, of the fine country called Gippsland, in the south-east of the colony of Victoria.

The discoveries made by Allan Cunningham had extended over the northern parts of New South Wales and the southern districts of Queensland. All the north-eastern parts of the continent were still unexplored when an intrepid young Prussian botanist, Ludwig Leichhardt, undertook the task, after four years' residence in New South Wales. Starting from Brisbane in August, 1844, with a party of six Europeans and two natives, he journeyed through a country of noble forests and fine pasture-lands to the Gulf of Carpentaria. Many large rivers—the Fitzroy, the Burdekin, the Mitchell, and the Gilbert—with some of their tributaries, were discovered and explored, and in December, 1845, after the loss of one Englishman at the hands of natives, the party came out, in what is now the "Northern Territory", at Port Essington, a fine harbour in the centre of the northern coast, and thence took ship for Sydney. The announcement of Leichhardt's discovery of so much valuable territory was received with the utmost enthusiasm, and the government awarded him the sum of £1000, while £1500, raised by public subscription, was distributed among his followers. In the first days of 1848, Leichhardt again set out from Moreton Bay, with a small party of Europeans and two blacks, intending to devote two years to a journey of exploration, through the centre of the continent, to the Swan River. In a few weeks' time a letter was received at Sydney, dated by the explorer from a point about 300 miles west of Brisbane. Leichhardt therein described himself as in good spirits and full of hope, and purposing to strike northwards to the Gulf of Carpentaria and thence west and south-west for the Swan River. From that time to the present day nothing has ever been heard of Leichhardt or his comrades. All expeditions sent in search of traces, the last despatched in 1865 at the cost of the ladies of Melbourne, utterly failed in their object. Edmund Kennedy, second in command of Major Mitchell's expedition in 1845, was another brave man who lost his life in the

cause of Australian exploration. After Mitchell's return, he had remained to prove that the Barcoo or Victoria river was only the higher part of Cooper's Creek, which, after a course of about 1200 miles, loses its waters in the broad marshes of Lake Eyre. In 1848, Kennedy was sent to survey the country in York Peninsula, and, starting with twelve men from Rockingham Bay, in the north of Queensland, he encountered great difficulties in the tropical region which was traversed. Dense jungles of prickly shrubs impeded the course and lacerated the flesh of the travellers, and vast swamps had to be rounded, or crossed with much risk and delay. Kennedy, desiring to avoid these hardships save for himself and three of the party, left eight of his comrades at Weymouth Bay, intending to call for them on his way back in the schooner that was to meet him at Cape York. Within a few miles of that point, one of the party, accidentally wounded by a gun-shot, was left behind under the care of two of the white men, and the leader, with his faithful black servant, Jackey, started to obtain help from the schooner. Their steps were closely followed by a tribe of natives, lurking among the forest-trees, and Kennedy, in spite of the utmost watchfulness, at last fell pierced from behind by a spear. A shot from Jackey caused the flight of the blacks, and then the native servant, weeping bitterly as he held up his dying master's head, received his papers and last commands. After laying the body in a shallow grave, dug with a tomahawk among the trees, and covered with branches, Jackey proceeded along a creek, walking with his head alone above water, to the schooner at the Cape. This was one of the most tragical of exploring adventures in Australian history. The man wounded by a gun-shot, and the two left behind with him, were never seen or heard of again by Europeans; and the eight men left at Weymouth Bay, after much trouble with the natives, had been reduced, by starvation and disease, to only two before relief arrived.

For many other exploring expeditions we must refer our readers to the works on Australasia above named, or to special books on Australian exploration, or to the magnificent three-volume *Picturesque Atlas of Australasia*, edited by Dr. Garran, Member of the Legislative Council of New South Wales. We cannot, however, dismiss this subject without some account of Stuart, Burke, and Wills. John M'Douall Stuart arrived in South Australia in 1839,

and acquired, as we have seen, valuable "bush" experience, in 1844, as draughtsman with Captain Sturt's expedition. In 1859 he was employed by a number of "squatters" in South Australia to search out new land for the flocks and herds, and finding a passage between Lakes Eyre and Torrens, he discovered a fine pastoral territory beyond the desert which Eyre had failed to penetrate. In the meantime, the South Australian government offered a reward of £2000 to the first man who should succeed in traversing the continent from south to north. Stuart resolved to attempt the feat, and in 1860, with but two companions, he travelled from Adelaide to within 400 miles of Van Diemen's Gulf on the north coast, when hostile natives compelled the party to return. On the way he discovered and named the hill called Central Mount Stuart, and planted the British flag on its summit, within two miles of the exact centre of the continent, in 21° 50′ south latitude and 133° 30′ east longitude. In January, 1861, he was again in the field for a second attempt, and, following exactly the same route, with twelve comrades, he arrived within 250 miles of his destination, when return was forced on him by lack of food. In 1862, a third enterprise, along the same course, was crowned with success, and Stuart reached Van Diemen's Gulf on July 24th, having rendered to Australia the distinguished service of marking out the practicable route across the continent, through a fairly continuous, if narrow, belt of upland and stream, which was used, ten years later, for the great line of trans-Australian telegraph wires. He returned to Adelaide to find that he was not the first man who had crossed the continent from south to north. He entered the capital of South Australia, by a remarkable coincidence, on the very day when Howitt's mournful party arrived there, on their way to Melbourne, bearing the remains of Burke and Wills, who had all but reached the Gulf of Carpentaria in February, 1861. The South Australian government, however, gave pleasure to all admirers of heroism and perseverance by paying over to Stuart the promised reward, with a large grant of land for seven years rent-free, in consideration of the courage which had been displayed, and of his nearness to success in the two first expeditions. The Home Government, in consequence of Stuart's success, placed the Northern Territory under the control of South Australia. The great explorer was further rewarded with the gold medal of the

Royal Geographical Society, who also presented him with a watch. He returned to England and died there in June, 1869.

The most tragical enterprise in all Australian exploration was that conducted by Burke and Wills. On August 20th, 1860, a long train of explorers and their baggage-animals set out from the Royal Park of Melbourne, with the leader, Robert O'Hara Burke, heading the procession on a small gray horse. The expedition was composed of fourteen persons, including Mr. G. J. Landells as second in command, W. J. Wills as surveyor and astronomer, T. Beckler as medical officer and botanist, L. Becker as artist and naturalist, and nine assistants in various capacities. The most interesting and remarkable feature in the procession was the twenty-seven camels, animals now first seen in Australia, expressly brought from India by Landells, with John King, a young Irish soldier of the 70th Foot, and three Hindoo drivers. There were also twenty-three horses, with forage, wagons, food, stores, and medicine. Never was any expedition more completely organized, and never did any body of men go forth with better prospects of success. The heavy charges, amounting to over £13,000, were borne by the Victorian Government, the Royal Society (then the "Philosophical Institute") of Victoria, and by private subscribers, the chief of whom, to the amount of £1000, was Mr. Ambrose Kyte, a Melbourne citizen. Burke, born in co. Galway, Ireland, in 1821, belonged to a younger branch of the famous Burkes or De Burghs. After education in Belgium, he entered the Austrian army and attained the rank of captain. In 1848 he joined the Royal Irish Constabulary, and in 1853 he emigrated to Tasmania, whence he flitted to Victoria, and became an inspector of police. William John Wills, son of a medical man at Totnes, in Devonshire, was born there in 1834, and emigrated to Victoria in 1852, becoming first a shepherd, then a surveyor, and finally assistant to Professor Neumayer at Melbourne Observatory. The party left the Park at Melbourne, after a short speech from the Mayor, wishing them God-speed. The explorers gave a final hand-shake to their friends, and then, amid the ringing cheers of thousands of spectators, the long and picturesque line moved forward. The instructions furnished to Burke directed him to make Cooper's Creek his base of operations; to form a depôt there, and then to explore the country lying between that and the Gulf of Carpentaria. The journey through the settled

country, as far as the Murrumbidgee, passed without notable incident. Then the long series of misfortunes and mistakes began. On the banks of the river, quarrels arose. Landells resigned his post, and returned to Melbourne with several members of the party. An unhappy choice of a substitute for Landells then gave charge of the camels to a most incompetent and dilatory man named Wright, a plausible person picked up by Burke at a sheep-station on the Darling river. On October 19th, Burke, Wills, and six men, including John King, with half the camels and horses, set out from Menindie, on the Darling, leaving Wright behind with instructions to follow them up in due course. On November 11th, the advance-party were at Cooper's Creek, where they found fine pastures and plenty of water. After a long wait, Wright did not appear, and Burke resolved to push forward for the sea on the north. Four men, with six camels and twelve horses, were left behind at Cooper's Creek, with instructions to remain there for three months, and on December 16th, 1860, Burke and Wills, with John King and another man named Gray, set forth into the wilds, with some horses and camels, carrying provisions intended to last for three months. We quit them for the moment to note, without comment, the simple fact that Wright, left at Menindie on October 19th, did not move forward from that place until January 27th, 1861, and did not arrive at Cooper's Creek until early in May, having lost, on the way, Becker, the artist and naturalist, and two other men, by death from scurvy. The four men left behind at Cooper's Creek on December 16th, 1860, after waiting the return of Burke and Wills for four months and four days, quitted the depôt on April 21st, 1861, meeting Wright as he slowly came forward to the Creek.

We now give details of the suffering that befell Burke, Wills, King, and Gray as they pushed across the continent with what one historian describes as "heroic determination and injudicious speed". It is believed that Burke, at Menindie, had received some hint of M'Douall Stuart's intended expedition, and was eager to anticipate him in the achievement of crossing Australia from south to north. However that may be, it is certain that the haste of the journey had something to do, in the physical exhaustion which it produced, with the tragical result. On January 7th, 1861, they came within the tropics, and on February 10th, after passing through forests of boxwood, alternating with plains well-watered and richly covered

with grass, the party came to the banks of the Flinders river, and, with their provisions now more than half exhausted, hurried on towards the sea, in the Gulf of Carpentaria, with such speed that some camels died of fatigue. Burke and Wills, leaving King and Gray behind, pressed on, with only one horse to carry a small supply of food. The horse was soon left behind, inextricably bogged in swampy ground, and, when they were at last almost without provisions, the explorers had to return, from the tidal part of the river, without actually having sight of the sea. Half-starved, Wills and Burke rejoined Gray and King, and the four men slowly moved southwards, greatly weakened by the previous hasty travel under a tropical sun. The provisions began to fail towards the end of March, and the flesh of a camel and a horse were consumed. On April 16th Gray died of exhaustion, and the other three could scarcely totter along. Five days later, Burke, Wills, and King reached the depôt at Cooper's Creek, to find the place deserted, as we saw above. On a tree was the direction cut, "Dig three feet westward", and a chest was found, with a small supply of food, and a letter stating that the party had left that very morning. Nothing more pitiful can be conceived than the succession of mistakes and mishaps which ensued. The party going southwards from Cooper's Creek moved in so leisurely a fashion that, if Burke, Wills, and King, after their hearty supper on the food from the chest, and a night's rest, had hurried on, they would easily have overtaken their comrades. On the other hand, if Burke and his two companions had stayed on, with a view to complete restoration of their strength, for some days less than three weeks at Cooper's Creek, living, as a last resource, on the flesh of the two camels there found, they would have been rescued by the arrival of the other party from the south. These men, after meeting Wright and his people from Menindie, returned with them to Cooper's Creek, in the hope of finding Burke, Wills, and their other two comrades. The depôt was reached on May 8th, but no thought was taken about digging to see if the chest had been disturbed. Had this been done, a letter from Burke would have been found stating the course pursued. The luckless three, Burke, Wills, and King, could then have been followed, overtaken, and saved. The party led by Wright, seeing no cause for further delay, and believing that the others had perished on the northern journey, finally left Cooper's Creek for home.

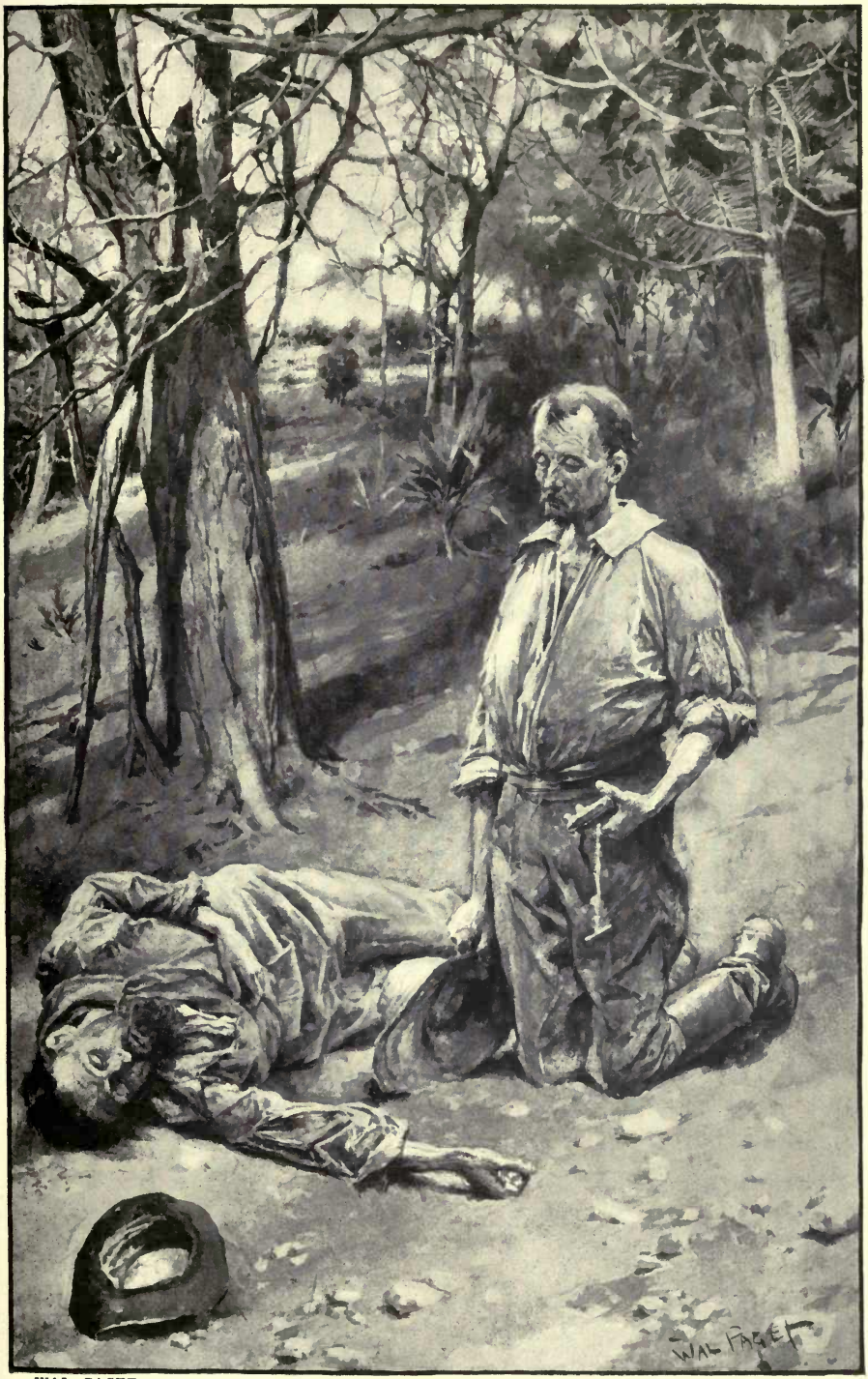
On April 24th, the three men, Burke and his comrades, started down Cooper's Creek, making for a large sheep-station on the road to Adelaide, now a much nearer point than Melbourne. This plan, on which Burke insisted, was adopted with fatal results. Wills had strongly urged a return to Melbourne, by way of Menindie, on the Darling, for, as he said, "we know the road, and are sure of water all the way". It is obvious that they would thus have met Wright's party. The point at which they were first aiming was Mount Hopeless, where the sheep-station lay. They came into a fearfully barren country, following the creek until it was lost in marshes. The two camels were killed for food, and the doomed travellers, daily growing weaker, gave in at last and retraced their steps when they were within 50 miles of Mount Hopeless, and would have seen its summit peering above the horizon, if they had gone a few miles further. The party again reached the fresh water and grassy banks of Cooper's Creek, at a point away from the depôt, with provisions for only a day or two left, and then Burke and King set out to find a native encampment. They were successful in this search, and, after a kindly reception, were shown how to prepare for food the seeds of a plant called nardoo. With this information they returned to Wills, and for a few days the three men just sustained life in this fashion. On May 30th, at Burke's suggestion, Wills made his way back to the depôt on Cooper's Creek, but saw no traces of the recent visit made by Wright's party. On his way back to rejoin Burke and King, he fell in with a native camp and had a good feast of fish, being kindly treated for four days until his strength was somewhat restored. He then set out to bring his friends to enjoy the same hospitality, but he was some days in reaching them, and when, with journeying made slow by weakness, the three arrived at the place, the natives had gone elsewhere. For a short time longer, the unhappy men struggled to sustain life on the very short supplies of nardoo seed which their lack of skill and their weakness permitted them to prepare. The diary kept by Wills has shorter and shorter entries: the fight with starvation needs all his little strength. "His legs", we learn, "become so weak that he can barely crawl out of the hut." "Unless relief comes, he cannot last more than a fortnight." Then his mind seems to wander, and frequent blunders occur. The last words written by the dying man were that "he was waiting; like Mr.

Micawber, for something to turn up, and that, though starving on nardoo seed was by no means unpleasant, yet he would prefer to have a little fat and sugar mixed with it". With such serene heroism and humorous spirit did Wills face death incurred in the cause of Australian exploration. The end, for him, was now close at hand. The inclemency of winter, at its height for Australia in the month of June, and the lack of protection in scanty clothes, had combined with starvation and fatigue to wear out the last remnant of physical strength. Burke, in desperation, set out with King to find a party of natives as the last resource against death from hunger. They laid Wills down gently within the hut, placing at his side nardoo-cake enough to last him for some days. He then gave his watch to Burke and a letter addressed to his father, and the two men, pressing his hands, saw him alive for the last time. In the utter silence of the wilds, the brave man drew his last breath, on some day in the last week of June, 1861. Two days later, Burke lay down and died of exhaustion, after handing his watch and pocket-book to King, for his friends in Melbourne, and, at his desire, the body was left lying on the ground, with a pistol in the right hand. King, stumbling on, came upon a native encampment where the blacks, by neglect, had left a bag of nardoo, sufficient to last one man for a fortnight. He returned to the hut where Wills had been left, found him dead, and buried his body in the sand. He then set forth with his only chance of life dependent on meeting with some friendly natives.

We must now see what was occurring in Melbourne, many hundreds of miles from these scenes of suffering and death. About the middle of June, Wright's party reached the Darling river, and sent despatches to the Exploration Committee in Melbourne, explaining the position of affairs. Five relief parties, when the news was spread abroad, were sent out from the different colonies. Victoria, by good right, was first in the field, and it was her expedition that succeeded in the object which all had in view. The father of Wills was anxious himself to conduct a search-party, but the command of the expedition starting from Melbourne was given to Mr. Alfred William Howitt, afterwards Secretary for Mines in Victoria. This son of William and Mary Howitt, the charming writers on rural English subjects, had already won reputation as a fearless, able, and energetic bushman. With a strong

KING WATCHING THE LAST MOMENTS OF BURKE.

There are few more tragic chapters in the whole history of exploration than that relating to the expedition sent out from Melbourne in 1860, under Robert O'Hara Burke, to make the journey from the south of Australia to the Gulf of Carpentaria. Subsidized by the Victorian Government, and liberally equipped in every respect, it started with excellent prospects of success; but various causes combined to make it a series of disasters. Cooper's Creek in the interior was taken as a base of operations, and starting from thence Burke and Wills (his second in command) were able to reach the northern coast district. On returning to their depôt, along with King, who had only gone part of the distance, they found it deserted by the party whom they had left. They then ill-advisedly set out in the direction of the South Australian settlements, but were compelled to return by want of water, and the friendly help of some natives only served to prolong for a little the sufferings of two of them. First Wills and then Burke succumbed; but King was rescued by Howitt's relief expedition in September, 1861. The object of the expedition had been partially accomplished, for the ill-fated men had crossed Australia from south to north, and had all but reached the sea, having traversed a great extent of country previously unknown.



WAL. PAGET. 83

KING WATCHING THE LAST MOMENTS OF BURKE.

party of assistants, Howitt arrived at the oft-named depôt on Cooper's Creek, on September 8th, 1861. On a Sunday morning, just a week later, the searchers were going along the banks of a creek, when they came upon a party of natives among whom was an emaciated white man. He said, in reply to a question from Mr. Welch, the surveyor to the relief expedition, "Who, in the name of wonder, are you?"—"I am King, sir, the last man of the exploring expedition." He told his story, and it was then found that he had been living among the aborigines since the middle of July. The remains of Wills and Burke were then found and decently buried, and the kindly blacks were rewarded by presents of knives, tomahawks, necklaces, mirrors, and other articles. Gay pieces of ribbon were fastened round the black heads of the children, and the whole tribe moved away rejoicing in the fifty pounds of sugar distributed among them. The expedition, accompanied by King, arrived back in Melbourne on November 28th, 1861. Public feeling demanded the recovery of the bodies of Burke and Wills, and a second expedition, also under Mr. Howitt, brought them to the capital of Victoria in the last days of 1862. A lying-in-state for twenty days, and a public funeral on January 21st, 1863, were the last honours accorded to the two brave explorers, save the colossal joint statues modelled and cast in bronze by the hands of Charles Summers, the eminent Melbourne sculptor, and erected afterwards in that city, with a plinth commemorating, in bronze bas-reliefs, the more important incidents of their wanderings. At the little Devonshire town on the mid-course of the beautiful river Dart, an obelisk does honour to her distinguished son, the gallant and gentle Wills. A pension was bestowed on Wills' mother by the Victorian government, and sums of money were awarded to his sisters. King also received a handsome pension until his death in 1872, and Burke's nearest of kin had good awards of public funds. In concluding the subject of Australian exploration, we may note the services rendered by other expeditions in search of Burke and Wills, under Landsborough from Queensland, and M'Kinlay from South Australia. Great additions were made to public knowledge of the interior of the continent, and large areas of country, previously believed to be deserts, were opened up for pastoral settlement.

CHAPTER III.

NEW SOUTH WALES. HISTORY FROM 1801 TO 1851.

Administration of Governor King—Progress of the Colony—The New South Wales Corps—Governor Bligh deposed—Improvements under Governor Macquarie—Exploration across the Blue Mountains—Sir Thomas M. Brisbane and Sir Ralph Darling, governors—The Bush-ranging Act passed—Popular rule of Governor Bourke—His new arrangements for the sale of land—Systematic transportation abolished—Agitation for representative institutions—William C. Wentworth and Dr. Lang—A popular Legislative Council established—Financial depression under Governor Gipps—A new trade introduced—Mr. Wakefield's system of industrial emigration—Improved condition of the colony—A new constitution granted—Discovery of gold in 1851—Researches of Count de Strzelecki and Mr. Clarke the "father of Australian geology"—Mr. Edward H. Hargraves, the pioneer of gold-mining in the colony—The gold-fever described—Methods of obtaining the gold—Rapid rise of towns—Measures adopted to preserve law and order.

We resume the history of New South Wales with the appointment, at the close of the year 1800, of Captain King as Governor. We have seen this able and energetic man as founder, in 1788, of the first settlement at Norfolk Island, whence he was summoned to take charge of the Australian colony, still chiefly composed of convicts hard to control, and almost impossible to reform into industry and good conduct. During his five years' tenure of office much progress was made in agricultural affairs. The production of wool was extending, and fresh land was being taken up by settlers on the fertile banks of the Hawkesbury and Nepean rivers. Sydney Cove received shipping from all parts of the world, and vessels were fitted out for whaling and sealing in the southern seas. Schools and churches were built, but the moral and material progress of the colony was much checked by the baneful influence exerted by the officers of the New South Wales Corps through their practical monopoly of articles of merchandise, and especially through their sale of rum to the emancipated convicts and the immigrants. In 1806, when King left New South Wales, the population was nearly 10,000, of whom above half were adult males, and 1700 adult females. Of the 166,000 acres of occupied land, about 12,000 were being tilled, and 145,000 were under pasture. The live stock of the colonists comprised over 2000 horned cattle, 10,000 sheep, 500 horses, 7000 pigs and 2000 goats, these figures including Van Diemen's Land and Norfolk Island.

Works for spinning wool and flax had been started; coal had been found at the place thence called Newcastle, at the mouth of the Hunter river, and salt was being made in "pans" there and at Sydney. The colony of Australia was thus fairly launched on her career. The governorship of King's successor, Captain Bligh, from August 1806 to January 1808, may be briefly despatched. This man was the notorious person whose brutal severity as captain caused the mutiny on board the *Bounty* frigate in 1789. He was not without kindly feeling, and received the special thanks of the home authorities for his exertions in alleviating, in 1806, the distress of settlers in the Hawkesbury district who were ruined by a flood. He was, however, devoid of tact and conciliation, and his severe methods of rule, applied not only to the convicts, but to the free settlers, soon caused great discontent. It is certain, on the other hand, that the hostility of the officers of the New South Wales Corps was largely due to his prompt and summary measures in dealing with their iniquitous trade in rum. At last, early in 1808, he was deposed by the use of military force, and permitted to go to Tasmania, whence he returned to England. Major Johnstone, the commandant of the Corps, and ringleader in the movement for ridding the colony of Bligh, was dismissed from the service, and on January 1st, 1810, Colonel (afterwards Major-General) Lachlan Macquarie, of the 73rd Regiment, took up his duties as Governor.

Macquarie's twelve years of rule were distinguished by vigorous and successful efforts to improve the means of internal communication and to develop the resources of the country. It was he who built the first lighthouse, that at the South Head; he established a market at Parramatta, founded the towns of Bathurst and Newcastle, laid the foundation-stone of the first public school, and built the first Benevolent Asylum. It may be fairly said that, under his auspices, New South Wales was transformed from a penal settlement into a colony, and financial progress is evinced by the foundation of the first banking institution, the Bank of New South Wales. Macquarie's main achievement was that of expanding the bounds by the construction of a road across the Blue Mountains, the practical demolition of the barrier which had hitherto hemmed in the free settlers, and shut them out from the rich near interior of the great land where "The world was all

before them, where to choose Their place of rest, and Providence their guide". The governor's chief delight lay in making roads. On his arrival in the colony, he found existing but forty-five miles of what were little better than bush-tracks; when he quitted his post, over 300 miles of substantial roads stretched in all directions from Sydney. Many persons had in vain striven to cross the Blue Mountains. The only one who had succeeded in penetrating far into the wild, rugged region was a gentleman named Caley, who stopped at the edge of a precipice which he could find no way of descending. In 1813, Lieutenant Lawson, accompanied by two settlers named Blaxland and Wentworth, with four servants, horses, and dogs, made a new attempt at exploration in that difficult country. Starting on May 11th, with provisions for six weeks, the adventurous party went into the ranges, cleared their way through thick "scrub", clambered up and down precipitous places, passed over gloomy chasms and through thickly-wooded ravines, and in twenty days' time, after a journey of fifty miles, they reached fine grass-land and then returned to Sydney. On the way back, they found that by keeping on the crest of a long spur, the passage through the mountains could be far more easily made, and the Governor, on their report, caused the pass to be carefully surveyed. On receipt of a favourable opinion, Macquarie ordered the work to be at once taken in hand by convict labour. Through fifty miles of rugged country, where many chasms had to be bridged, and solid rock to be cut away, the construction of a road went on, and in less than 15 months a good carriage highway from Sydney, across the Blue Mountains, to the beautiful plains on the west, enabled the Governor to take Mrs. Macquarie on a trip to the fine pasture-lands where he founded a settlement and named it Bathurst, after Lord Bathurst, Secretary of State. Many squatters quickly emerged from the limited space between Sydney and the sea, and, driving their flocks and herds before them, settled down in the fine district of the Macquarie and Lachlan rivers. This great work was finished in April, 1815.

We may here observe that Macquarie adopted the policy of administering New South Wales mainly as a convict settlement, the purport of which was to reform the prisoners and enable them to rise. After serving his sentence, or receiving a pardon, a con-

vict was to be admitted on equal terms into society and the public service. The free settlers were offended at this conduct of affairs, and an inquiry made by a Special Commissioner led to Macquarie's recall in 1821. Circumstances had been too strong for the Governor's views as to the purpose for which territory had been occupied in New South Wales. The cessation, in 1815, of the great war which had continued, with little intermission, from the first establishment of the colony, gave the people of Great Britain leisure to think about their possessions in Australasia, and, in spite of Macquarie's quiet and persistent discouragement of immigration, free settlers continued to arrive and to occupy land.

Macquarie's successor, who became General Sir Thomas Macdougall Brisbane, Baronet, G.C.B., was descended from an ancient Ayrshire family, and served with high distinction under Wellington in the Peninsular War. He made his four years' tenure of office memorable by the encouragement of immigration, and by the aid which he rendered to settlers in grants of land, and in the assignment to them, as servants, of as many convicts as they were able to employ. The colony thus grew fast in the possession of rich flocks and herds, and, while the area of cleared land was doubled, and the export of wool multiplied fivefold, the moral condition of affairs was improved by the breaking-up of the costly government farms, and the scattering among the free settlers of the convicts who had once lived together in large numbers. This Governor also introduced good breeds of horses at his own expense. He was not successful in acquiring popularity, or in his financial administration, and the fine old soldier, a man of the highest character, and, as we shall see, of no mean acquirements in science, was recalled in 1825. We must note an important change, due to the home government, in the grant of some constitutional rule, in place of the former arbitrary sway of governors responsible only to the Colonial Office in London. An Act of 1823 created a Legislative Council of seven members, including the chief officials. These members were nominated by the Crown, but this measure was really the dawn of freedom for British subjects in Australasia.

From December 1825 till 1831, the post of Governor was held by another military man, Lieut.-General Sir Ralph Darling, G.C.B., a martinet of painfully precise and methodical habits, with a devo-

tion to minute details which caused neglect of more important affairs. He became very unpopular through his despotic proceedings, and consequent embroilment with the public press, and his difficulties were enhanced by a depressed state of agricultural and financial affairs, due to a long period of drought, and to a mania for speculative joint-stock companies. In 1828, an Act of the British Parliament enlarged the Legislative Council to fifteen members. The Bush-ranging Act, passed by the Council in 1830, dealt with a great and growing evil, under which, in the Bathurst district, a party of over fifty escaped convicts fought a pitched drawn battle with a large body of settlers. The police were then attacked by the desperate ruffians, and some of them were killed. After another indecisive conflict, the whole gang were forced to surrender to soldiers of the 39th Regiment sent from Sydney. Ten of the prisoners were hanged, and a most salutary effect was produced by severe measures of repression which included the arrest, without warrant, of suspected persons; the use of search-warrants for arms concealed in houses, and the execution, on the third day after conviction, of robbers and house-breakers.

The rule of General Sir Richard Bourke, K.C.B., from 1831 to 1837, was a notable period in the history of the rising colony. Warmly welcomed by those who had suffered, as they declared in their address, from "an inveterate system of misgovernment", the new administrator of affairs so acquitted himself that the colonists, for years after his departure, used to talk of him as "good old Governor Bourke". This most able and popular of all the Sydney governors, a man full of energy, and endowed with sound judgment, firmness of character, and a frank and hearty manner, was an Irish land-owner and Peninsular veteran who had already gained two years' experience as Lieut.-Governor of the Cape of Good Hope. His services are stated in eulogistic terms on the monument erected to his memory at Sydney. We there learn that he was the first who systematically applied the vast resources of the colony to the benefit of the people; that he was the first governor to publish satisfactory accounts of public receipts and expenditure; that he vastly increased the revenue, and used the surplus to promote immigration; that he established religious equality on a just and firm basis, and sought to provide for all, without distinction of sect, a sound and adequate system of national education; that he founded

savings-banks; was the warm friend of the liberty of the press; extended trial by jury; and by these and many other measures for the moral, religious, and general improvement of all classes, raised the colony to unexampled prosperity. One of Bourke's most important services was connected with the land question. The system of free grants had been attended with many abuses. People having influence with the Sydney officials soon found themselves possessors of a portion of the soil; other immigrants of the best quality for a new country met with much difficulty and delay. The new arrangement of affairs provided for the sale by auction of all vacant land in settled districts, at an upset price of five shillings per acre. The large sum of money yearly received from the sale of land enabled the government to resume the practice, which had been laid aside in 1818, of assisting poor people in the British Isles to emigrate to Australia. At the same time, squatters who had settled beyond the surveyed districts, and had no legal title to their sheep-runs, were secured in the peaceable occupation of land by the payment of a moderate rent, proportioned to the number of sheep which their holdings could support. This tenancy was to continue until such time as the land might be required for sale, and the new regulation did much for the stability of "squatting" interests in New South Wales. The close of Governor Bourke's tenure of office is of much interest as nearly coinciding with the accession of Queen Victoria. The progress of the colony which he had so well ruled is proved by the facts that, on his resignation in December, 1837, the population had grown to nearly 77,000 persons, of whom over 25,000 were male, and over 2500, female convicts, either under punishment or who had served their sentence; the imports much exceeded a million sterling in value, and the exports were approaching £700,000.

Early in 1838 a new Governor arrived in Sir George Gipps, another Peninsular veteran, a man of great ability and most upright character, very diligent in business and devoted to the welfare of those whom he ruled, but rendered somewhat unpopular by an imperious and arbitrary method of advancing to the goal which he had in view. In 1838 came the cessation of the system of assigning convicts as servants to settlers, and two years later an Order in Council abolished systematic transportation to the colony, though it was not finally extinguished until some years later. The rising

free community had long been demanding representative institutions, the leaders in this agitation being those distinguished Australian patriots and political pioneers, William Charles Wentworth and Dr. Lang. Wentworth, son of a Dublin surgeon who became medical officer at Norfolk Island, was born there in 1793, and, after early education in England, went out to Sydney and, as we have seen, joined Blaxland and Lawson in the successful attempt to cross the Blue Mountains. He then returned to England, published a work on New South Wales, and went through the curriculum of Cambridge University, where, in 1823, he was placed second to the brilliant Winthrop Mackworth Praed in competition for the Chancellor's Medal for an English poem on "Australasia". In 1824, Mr. Wentworth joined the Sydney bar, practised with great success, went largely into "squatting", started the *Australian* newspaper, and, having established his reputation as a speaker and writer, became the leading man in the "Patriotic Association", which was formed to promote the claims of the colonists to civil and political privileges similar to those enjoyed by other British subjects. Always the fearless opponent of the arbitrary rule of some of the military Governors, Wentworth, in 1830, at a public meeting in Sydney, carried an amendment to an address of congratulation to William the Fourth on his accession, and in addition to the stereotyped loyal phrases, called for the extension "to the only colony of Britain bereft of the rights of Britons, of a full participation of the benefits and privileges of the British Constitution". John Dunmore Lang, born at Greenock in 1799, graduated at Glasgow University, and received the degree of D.D. in 1825. Two years prior to this he had become minister of the Scottish National Church in Sydney, where he received a warm welcome from his fellow-countrymen, and had the honour of introducing the Presbyterian church and school system into Australia. His distinguished career did not end until August, 1878, when he was accorded the tribute of a public funeral. This very able, public-spirited, liberal-minded, energetic and disinterested citizen of New South Wales was an ardent supporter of immigration, making frequent visits to England in that behalf, and in 1836 he took out thence a supply of suitable ministers for the Presbyterian Church, with schoolmasters and other settlers, numbering with their families about three hundred persons.

It was in 1842 that the efforts of Wentworth, Lang, and their supporters met with some success. An Act was passed, and on January 1st, 1843, the measure came into force which provided for the establishment of a Legislative Council of 36 members, of whom six were to be officials, six nominees of the Governor, and twenty-four appointed by popular election. Lang and Wentworth were, of course, among the first representatives elected by the people to the Council which met in Sydney in the following August, Mr. Robert Lowe (long afterwards Viscount Sherbrooke) being one of the Crown nominees. The Port Phillip district, for which Dr. Lang was one of six members thereto assigned, soon began to agitate for the separation which was, as we shall see, carried into effect some years later. It was the fate of Governor Gipps to incur unpopularity among colonists suffering from troubles largely due to their own imprudence. From 1841 to 1846, when he left the colony, there was severe financial depression caused by previous excessive speculation in land; by the loss of funds from the home-country once expended on the convict-system; and by the substitution of paid free labour for that of the convicts. Trade and industry were in a state of collapse; property in land and stock fell greatly in value, and the Bank of Australia failed, with liabilities reaching a quarter of a million. Some relief was afforded by a colonial law which legalized liens on wool and mortgages of stock, and by measures in aid of the shareholders of the bank, who, under unlimited liability, were threatened with ruin. In this time of trouble, when squatters were forced to sell their sheep in a glutted market, so that animals which had been bought for 30*s.* were gladly disposed of for 1*s.* 6*d.*, and a large flock was sold in Sydney at sixpence per head, an ingenious settler did far more than any legislative devices to restore prosperity to the afflicted colonists. Mr. O'Brien, a squatter on the river Yass, about 200 miles south-west of Sydney, discovered that sheep could be turned to other uses than for wool and food. In the fashion long pursued in Russia, he boiled down the carcases of his sheep for the fat, and thus started a large and lucrative trade in tallow, of which each animal produced about six shillings' worth. An export trade to Europe arose, and tallow, with the hides of cattle, became a regular source of colonial wealth.

In 1846 Sir George Gipps, glad to retire from a harassing task, was succeeded by Sir Charles Fitzroy, a man of good temper,

moderation, and tact, who had acquired previous experience in colonial rule as Governor of Prince Edward's Island and of Antigua. Before he arrived on his new scene of duty in New South Wales, a revival of prosperity had begun. Free emigration and extension of settlements inland had given new life to the colony, and railways, and steam-traffic with the home-country, were being mooted. The great want of the colony was free labour, to obtain which various devices had been tried in the past. Free grants of land, and the bounty system of paying so much a head to every immigrant, had alike failed. Some relief came in the adoption of the Wakefield system, advocated by the famous Edward Gibbon Wakefield, whom we have seen in connection with Lord Durham in Canada. It was in 1833 that Wakefield, in his *View of the Art of Colonization*, denounced the method of free grants of land, and urged the sale of the public lands at a fair upset price, and the use of the proceeds for the promotion of industrial emigration. Money was yearly sent by the colonial government to a Board of Emigration Commissioners in London, who selected and despatched emigrants to New South Wales, paying half the passage-money and offering loans to mechanics. For some years onwards from 1838 the lack of new settlers and free labourers was at its worst, and during the stagnant days from 1841 to 1846 there was hardly any immigration at all. In 1847, the arrival of labour began to improve in amount, and the discovery of gold a few years later brought a rush of new-comers from all parts of the world, and for ever ended the difficulty. In 1849, after a brief revival in the interest of squatters who found that convicts, "assigned" as servants, made good shepherds and stockmen, transportation of convicts to New South Wales finally ceased.

Before describing the all-important discovery of gold, we may deal with some notable events of the period during which Sir Charles Fitzroy held rule. In July, 1850, the first sod of the first Australian railway, a line from Sydney to Goulburn, was turned by Mrs. Keith Stuart, the Governor's daughter. In the same year, the Port Phillip district of New South Wales became a separate colony. In 1852, the University of Sydney, chiefly due to the exertions of Wentworth, was opened "as a national institution for the secular education of all classes and denominations". The following year saw the sanction of the Crown given to the establishment at Sydney

of a branch of the Royal Mint, the building being opened in 1855. Just before the departure of Sir Charles Fitzroy in January, 1855, a new constitution, under an Act of the British Parliament, had been granted to New South Wales, establishing full responsible government, with an Upper House nominated by the Crown. The measure was watched through Parliament by its chief promoter, Wentworth, who made the voyage to London for the purpose, accompanied by the Colonial Secretary of New South Wales, Mr. (afterwards Sir) Edward Deas Thomson. Thus did the colony become at last a nation.

The new system of rule was inaugurated by Fitzroy's successor, Sir William T. Denison, who had for some years been at the head of affairs in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania). He was a resolute, painstaking, able man, who did good service in the initiation of responsible government, as a system under which the representative of the Crown was to reign but not govern, following the advice of his cabinet of ministers in all but certain matters reserved for settlement at home as being affairs of imperial concern. We may here at once state that the internal history of Australian politics, as regards party struggles, disputed questions, successive ministries and so forth, alike in New South Wales and the other colonies, lies outside the scope of the present work. For information on these points we refer our readers to special Australian histories, and to such works as the *Dictionary of Australasian Biography* already named, and *Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History*, by Sir Henry Parkes, G.C.M.G., formerly Premier of New South Wales.

The year of the "Great Exhibition", 1851, was that made specially memorable in the annals of Australia by the discovery of gold, an event which had so vast an effect upon the fortunes of the British colonial empire in the southern hemisphere. The revelation of mineral treasures surpassing in value those obtained by Europeans in Mexico and Peru in and after the days of Cortes and Pizarro, but hitherto lying hidden in the soil of the great island-continent, was the opening of a new and most exciting chapter in the romance of history. A fresh animation was given to industry by a vast augmentation of the metallic currency of the world; an outflow of population to Australia from other quarters of the globe set in; and we may regard the discovery of gold in

New South Wales and, above all, in Victoria, viewed in its ultimate results, as marking an epoch in the progress of the human race. The existence of the most precious of metals in the mountain district of the south-east had long been suspected and, in a slight measure, demonstrated by scientific observers and chance discoveries. In 1839, the eminent scientist and explorer, Count de Strzelecki, a Polish noble who became K.C.M.G. and F.R.S., as a British subject, for his services and attainments, discovered gold-bearing quartz at a point about 200 miles west of Sydney. Two years later, the Rev. William Branwhite Clarke, a clergyman of the Anglican Church who had emigrated to Sydney in 1839, confidently asserted the existence of gold, from geological and mineralogical evidences. As a student at Cambridge University, Mr. Clarke had attended the geological lectures of Professor Sedgwick, and he pursued the study with such zeal and success as to earn the letters F.R.S. and the title of "the father of Australian geology". He also found specimens of gold in the Vale of Clwyd, below the Blue Mountains, but both the count and the clergyman were induced to keep silence on the subject by the Governor, Sir George Gipps, who dreaded the effect of exciting the cupidity of the convicts and free labourers. It is remarkable that both Mr. Clarke and Sir Roderick Murchison confidently predicted metallic wealth in that part of Australia from the close geological resemblance of the Blue Mountains to the Ural chain in Russia. Between 1844 and 1849 specimens of gold were found in the Port Phillip district, one of them being a nugget weighing 10 ounces. The discovery of gold in California at the close of 1848 drew many Australians to the western shores of the United States. Among these voyagers was the man who, though he was far from being the first discoverer of Australian gold, is now regarded as the actual starter of the gold-mining industry in Australia. Edward Hammond Hargraves, born at Gosport in 1816, emigrated to New South Wales in 1832, and was soon engaged in pastoral pursuits. Well-nigh ruined as a squatter by droughts occurring in the period between 1844 and 1848, he went to California in the hope of retrieving his losses on the Pacific slopes of another continent. He did not obtain much of what he there sought, but he did acquire the practical knowledge which, on his return to Sydney, in 1851, enabled him to discover gold, in

Summerhill Creek, beyond the Blue Mountains, on February 12th of that notable year. A few small specks of gold were found by him in four out of five panfuls of soil taken from a bank of red earth and clay. After a careful examination of the surrounding district, over a large area, and the attainment of like results from washing, Hargraves made his way to Sydney with several ounces of gold, and the Government geologist, in May, 1851, confirmed his report after a personal inspection. The discoverer was rewarded by various grants amounting, in all, to £15,000, as the pioneer of an industry which, throughout Australia, has produced gold to a value far exceeding 300 millions of pounds sterling. The discoveries of gold in the new colony of Victoria, much more important than those made in New South Wales, are hereafter described. The rush which was made to the scene of Hargraves' discoveries may be well imagined. Five days after the announcement was publicly made, on May 14th, 1851, the Summerhill valley had 400 persons at work, stooping over the creek in a row about a mile long, each man having a dish in his hand, and busily engaged in washing the earth for gold. A week later, a thousand men were on the spot, and excitement spread far and wide when lumps of gold were found worth £200, the forerunners of famous nuggets which, in New South Wales and Victoria, ranged in value from £4000 to £10,000. The almost simultaneous finding of gold to great values in Victoria added to the gold-fever which was carried through the world, and, while in Australia itself workmen abandoned their previous employment, shepherds deserted their flocks, shopkeepers closed their "stores", and sailors left ships in harbour without a crew, the south-eastern shores of the new auriferous continent were sought from Europe by men of every class—Cornish miners, University graduates, mechanics, clerks, younger sons of good families, Polish, French, and German political refugees, and adventurers of every nation. Asia, for her part, sent forth thousands of Chinamen to dig and wash for a share of the spoil. In course of time, the work of the early diggers, as individuals or in small parties, among the upper alluvial deposits, was succeeded by toil that needed capital for sinking deep shafts to ancient river-beds or auriferous drifts, with the employment of pumping and hoisting machinery. This new phase of gold-mining was succeeded by the costly method of

crushing auriferous quartz in rocky regions where the gold was found richly at great depths. In this style of work, the capital employed amounted to millions sterling, and in one Victorian mine the crust of the earth has been pierced to a depth exceeding 2400 feet. Some Australian towns owe their origin to the gold-fields. The tents and huts of the early miners were succeeded by substantial buildings; an irregular encampment became a well-built town, and the town grew into a handsome city with the appliances and resources of modern civilization, the centre of a district rich in agriculture, horticulture, pastoral industry, and manufacturing enterprise of varied character. The disappointments of diggers hoping to win riches within a week or a month of arrival at the scene of new finds of gold; the wild extravagance of successful men; the mingling of misery and mirth, ruin and riotous excess, are the materials of an oft-told tale of the Australian diggings. In New South Wales, Bathurst, Braidwood, Ophir, and the Turon river were among the earliest localities to furnish abundant gold. The government soon adopted measures for the preservation of law and order at the diggings, in the appointment of a commissioner to act as a magistrate in each locality, assisted by a body of police; and in requiring diggers to take out licenses, with payment at the rate of 30*s.* per month, in order to have a legal right to the gold obtained from a particular "claim" or area of ground.

CHAPTER IV.

NEW SOUTH WALES—*Continued.* HISTORY FROM 1851 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Condition of the colony in 1861—Political changes—A new Land Act passed—Bush-ranging—Robbing a gold escort—"Sticking up" a station—An atrocious deed—A desperate gang broken up—Daring exploits of the Kelly gang or "iron-clad bush-rangers"—Their final destruction—Increasing prosperity of the colony—Sir Hercules Robinson a popular governor—International Exhibition at Sydney in 1879—Colonial troops sent to the Soudan—Popular governorship of Lord Carrington—Chinese immigration prohibited—Proposals for Australasian federation.

The separation of Port Phillip district from New South Wales reduced the population of the latter colony by one-fourth, and her wealth by fully one-third, and for a year or two prosperity was checked through the lack of labour for all modes of industry save gold-mining.

The true source of permanent wealth lay in the production of wool, and we may observe that the yield of gold in New South Wales, never great as compared with that of Victoria, in no year except 1852 produced more than the value of two millions sterling. A large majority of the men who had been drawn away in the first rush for gold by degrees returned to their usual avocations, and the colony entered on a career of steady success based upon her vast pastoral resources. In 1857, the population of Sydney, including the suburbs, exceeded 80,000; the horned cattle were approaching 2¼ millions; the sheep exceeded 8 millions. The census of 1861 showed a population, for the whole colony, of 358,000. The Governorship was at this time assumed, and held from 1861 to 1867, by Sir John Young (afterwards Governor-General of Canada and Lord Lisgar), an Irish baronet who had been Chief Secretary for Ireland and Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Islands. He was an able, successful, and popular ruler, holding the balance fairly between different parties, an example which has, on the whole, been well followed by his successors in New South Wales. The representative institutions of the colony had already, under Sir William Denison, been developed, in a democratic sense, by the introduction of vote by ballot; by the increase of the number of representatives in the Lower House, or Legislative Assembly, from 54 to 80; and by the extension of the franchise to every adult male of six months' residence in any electorate. Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, and Tasmania had been connected by telegraphic wires, and in 1858 the colony of Queensland had sprung into existence by the separation of the Moreton Bay district from New South Wales. Under Sir John Young, the important Land Act caused large tracts of soil to be brought under cultivation by the facilities afforded to men of small capital for acquiring possession of farms on easy terms. This measure was very strongly opposed in the Legislative Council, or Upper House of Crown nominees, chiefly consisting of large "squatters", holding "runs" rented from the State, and liable, under the new legislation, to have fertile portions of land selected for purchase by new-comers. A long agitation on this subject had been carried on throughout the Australian colonies, and like legislation in all of them followed the Land Act of New South Wales. It was at this time also that political disabilities, long maintained by jealousy on the part of the descendants of free

settlers, were finally abolished for those who had sprung from convict ancestors. Progress was made in railway construction, and the condition of country roads was improved.

We must now give some account of a temporary evil element in the social condition of the colony, the "bush-ranging" or robbery with violence, practised in the country districts, originally by run-away convicts sent from the British Isles, and afterwards taken up by criminal adventurers born in Australia, men familiar with the mountains and forests, good horsemen and excellent shots, formidable foes alike to the outlying settlers whom they harassed by their depredations, and to the police who sought their capture. In order to give a fair view of this interesting and picturesque subject, which has almost a literature of its own, we shall deal with its various phases of highway robbery, "sticking up" houses, and robbing towns and banks, passing for one or two scenes into the neighbouring colony of Victoria. We have seen that in 1830 a large gang of desperate men was finally dealt with by military force, and bush-ranging on this scale ceased under the operation of the strong Act which was renewed in 1834. Robbery on the high-way, in the usual sense of the words, was never rife in Australia, from the lack of travellers bearing on their persons large sums of money or other valuables. Payments were invariably made by cheque, and it was only with the discovery of gold that an opening was afforded for profitable work in this direction. The transport of the precious metal from the diggings to the great coast-towns for deposit in the banks or for exportation caused bands of ruffians to attack the gold-escorts of mounted and armed police, in some instances with success due to well-planned ambush and rare audacity. At a wooded point of the road by which the coach must pass trees were cut down by the ruffians to block the way, while their horses were kept concealed in readiness for escape with the booty, and from a dozen to a score of men with loaded rifles were hidden behind rocks and stumps affording a view of the approaching party. The two troopers riding in front of the four-horse "drag" carrying the escort-gold, with its guard of four armed men on the box and in the body of the drag, and two mounted men bringing up the rear, are brought to a halt by the felled trees. One man dismounts to see if aught can be done to remove the obstacle, and the coach drives up close so that the advance-guard

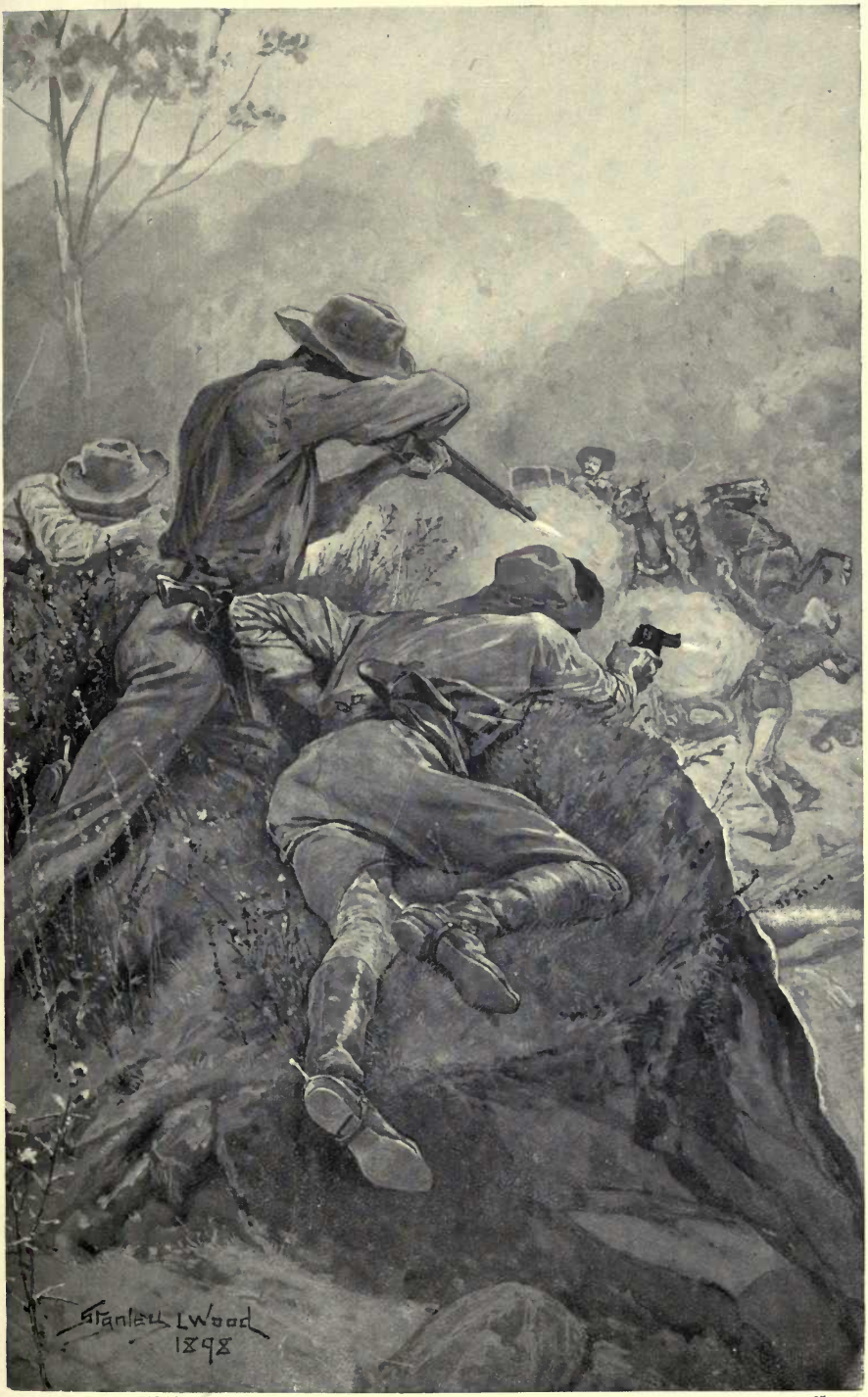
ATTACK ON A GOLD ESCORT.

The form of highway robbery known in Australia as bushranging first became common about the time of the discovery of gold in 1851. Before that period several gangs of escaped convicts had committed depredations, but those with whom the Governments had to deal after that time were natives of Australia, brave, thoroughly acquainted with the country, and splendid marksmen. They blocked with trees the road by which a gold escort must pass; and whilst the police were seeking to remove the obstruction they were fired at from an ambush and easily overpowered. The robbers on seizing the booty would ride off at full speed in different directions, ready to organize another raid in a very short time. About 1862 a bushranging epidemic broke out in New South Wales, and it was only with very great difficulty that it was suppressed. The evil was finally brought to an end in 1880 by the capture of the notorious and daring Kelly gang of "iron-clad bushrangers", four miscreants who chiefly engaged in the robbery of banks and large stations, and for four years set the law and police at defiance.

Legislative Library

ATTACK ON A GOLD ESCORT.

The form of highway robbery known in Australia as bushranging first became common about the time of the discovery of gold in 1851. Before that period several gangs of escaped convicts had committed depredations, but those with whom the Governments had to deal after that time were natives of Australia, bravo, thoroughly acquainted with the country, and splendid marksmen. They blocked with trees the road by which a gold escort must pass; and whilst the police were seeking to remove the obstruction they were fired at from an ambush and easily overpowered. The robbers on seizing the booty would ride off at full speed in different directions, ready to organize another raid in a very short time. About 1862 a bushranging epidemic broke out in New South Wales, and it was only with very great difficulty that it was suppressed. The evil was finally brought to an end in 1880 by the capture of the notorious and daring Kelly gang of "iron-clad bushrangers", four miscreants who chiefly engaged in the robbery of banks and large stations, and for four years set the law and police at defiance.



STANLEY L. WOOD.

ATTACK ON A GOLD ESCORT.

and the main body are an easy mark for the hidden robbers. Their leader's cry of "Fire!" brings a volley of bullets with a crack and crash redoubled by the rocks around; the driver falls like a log from the box; the troopers lie dead or wounded in the road; and the mounted men from the rear gallop up to find the bush-rangers cutting the traces of the team as they madly plunge, and letting the horses go. They are soon disposed of by the fire of the robbers; the locker in the centre of the coach is opened; the square boxes of gold are forced; the canvas bags, all labelled and weighed, each containing 1000 ounces, are seized; the spoil is divided amongst the gang; the pack-horses are brought up from the place of hiding, and the plunderers vanish at full speed, by different routes, to places of refuge known only to themselves and to a few terrorized or sympathizing people. The speed of the horses ridden by some of the bush-rangers enabled them to appear, within a brief space of time, at far-distant points, and the same gang who on one day robbed a settler's station in one district would be "sticking up" another, a hundred miles off, within twenty-four hours. The efforts of the police were often baffled by this rapid movement, and there were some squatters who, in fear of personal and deadly vengeance from the marauders, were backward in helping the troopers' work.

The "sticking up" of a station, save for the victims of such a deed, was sometimes almost ludicrous in its sheer coolness, completeness, and daring. In daylight, while the squatter and his family, as evening draws on, are gathered in converse after the labours of the day, a man with a revolver raised in his right hand, steps in at the French window from the verandah lit up by the rays of the sinking sun. The house is "stuck up". Every outlet is guarded; sentinels are posted to give warning of any perilous approach; the horses of the dismounted gang are held in readiness for instant flight, or have been exchanged, if they are wearied by a long journey, for the best animals in the stock-yard or stable. Resistance to the cocked revolvers of five or six robbers is a vain thought, and all valuables in money or trinkets are quietly handed over to the foe. A meal is furnished for the strangers, and they pass an hour or two in consuming the best eatables, liquors, and cigars which the house affords, while the lady and her daughters, if they are wise and gifted with sufficient nerve, do their best to please the bush-rangers with piano and song. Then the robbers

mount and ride away, carrying off, amongst other booty, the squatter's best suits of clothes and a selection of his firearms, which may include the last new thing in repeating rifles. Such were the men whom it was the task, well accomplished in course of time, of the brave, energetic, and crafty Australian mounted police to hunt down to extermination.

One instance will show the difficulties and dangers encountered by these able and daring officers of the law. In 1866 a whole district in the southern part of New South Wales, having an area nearly as large as Ireland, was held in a state of terror by a desperate gang of bush-rangers, headed by two brothers named Clarke. These men contrived to elude all the vigilance and activity of a police force in the district numbering three times the usual body employed. Their system of "bush telegraph", in which women and girls conveyed intelligence by word of mouth, was arranged and maintained with wonderful completeness and success. There were some small settlers who were known to afford shelter to members of the band, and the efforts of the police were constantly foiled in stratagem and outstripped in speed. Mr. (afterwards Sir Henry) Parkes, the Colonial Secretary, deeply feeling his responsibility for the lawless condition of affairs, accepted the offer of John Carroll, an ex-policeman, and at that time a jail warder, who had abundant experience in dealing with criminals. This able and enterprising man undertook to form a special party for the capture of the Clarkes and their associates, and was intrusted with the command of three men chosen by himself, the body being made independent of the regular police, and secretly accredited to certain magistrates in the district infested by the bush-rangers. They took the field on September 22nd, 1866, and pitched a camp about 1½ miles from the Clarkes' house, under the guise of surveyors. Two of the party paid visits to the house, and formed an acquaintance with Mrs. Clarke and her daughters, having no reason to suppose that their real character and business had become matters of suspicion. Their proceedings, however, were closely watched by the girls, and the pretence of surveying failed of its purpose. Early in October, Carroll had to report to Mr. Parkes that he and his comrades, on returning to camp about six in the evening, were fired on from various directions, amid thick darkness lighted only by the glare of their camp-fire. Their assailants, thus guided in

their aim, were lying on the ground sheltered behind trees. Carroll and his men returned the fire, and started in pursuit, driving the villains from position to position, in opposite directions, until firing ceased without any of the police having been struck, though one of the party had been forced to return to the tent and to place himself within the range of the firelight in order to secure some ammunition left behind. For three months, Carroll and his men moved about as a surveying party in the wild Tingera district, using every effort to entrap the outlaws. There can be no doubt, from the tragical issue, that for the ninety days and nights succeeding the skirmish in the woods, the constables who were tracking the bush-rangers were being more closely watched and tracked themselves. On January 10th, 1867, in a township called Jindera, nearly 400 miles south-west of Sydney, all four men were shot dead by the robbers, firing from ambush behind some trees. The bodies were not rifled of money or other property, but on Carroll's breast a bank-note, not corresponding with those in his possession, was pinned in mockery of his expected reward.

The terror felt by all honest men in the district was intensified by this atrocious deed. Traders went forth on their business journeys under cover of night, and a feeling of insecurity filled every house. In this state of affairs, Mr. Parkes, on a journey for public business, came across a constable named Wright, forming a part of his official escort. He was struck by the man's smart appearance, and by his keenness of observation for every slight circumstance along the road, and he asked him to undertake the charge of a picked body of police for the capture of the Clarke gang. This selection of the Colonial Secretary's had the happiest effect. In a short space of time, Wright and his men tracked the leaders, Tommy and Johnny Clarke, to a lonely hut where they were harboured. The place was surrounded, and for some hours shots were exchanged by the police and the ruffians thus brought to bay. The constables then closed in, and the two brothers were taken, brought to Sydney, tried, convicted, and hanged. Other arrests and convictions made an end of the worst gang of bush-rangers that ever troubled New South Wales.

This narrative of crime closes with some account of the deeds and destruction of the Kelly gang, or "iron-clad bush-rangers",

four men who for two years, from 1878 to 1880, set at defiance the law, government, and police of New South Wales and Victoria. Rewards amounting to £8000, or £2000 per head, were long in vain offered for their capture, and the sum of £115,000 was expended on special efforts before the end in view was attained. Those who desire full particulars of the extraordinary career of these matchless ruffians will find them in the exciting book entitled *The Last of the Bush-rangers*, by Mr. Francis Augustus Hare, police-magistrate and formerly Superintendent of Victorian Police. Ned Kelly, the leader, born near Melbourne in 1854, was a known horse-stealer from his youth. His brother Dan Kelly, seven years younger, was a thorough specimen of a juvenile scoundrel. Steve Hart, born in 1860, was a professional horse-thief, and Joe Byrne, an evil-doer from his early days, was but twenty-one years old when the quartet of precocious villains first, in 1878, became notorious in the two colonies. In October of that year Sergeant Kennedy and three other mounted constables were scouring the hills called the Wombat Ranges, in search of the Kelly gang stated to be there in hiding. Taken by surprise by the cunning outlaws, three of the party were ultimately shot dead, the fourth making a lucky escape, after surrender, by leaping into the saddle of one of his comrades' horses which bolted when the rider, Kennedy, had dismounted to carry on the fight. The Kelly gang flew at high game in their contest with the powers of law and order, and, disdaining petty crime, swooped on large "stations", small towns, and banks. Their proceedings in the township of Euroa, about 90 miles north-east of Melbourne, were marked by marvellous audacity and success. About noon on December 18th, 1878, the four men appeared at a homestead, and, with cocked revolvers, demanded food for themselves and their horses from Mr. and Mrs. Fitzgerald, the people in charge for the owner of the estate. As the station hands came in to dinner, they were seized and shut up in a detached storehouse. At five o'clock Mr. Macauley, the manager, arrived, and was added to the number of prisoners. A travelling merchant, with a wagon of clothing and other articles, was the next person locked up. During the night, the captives in the barn, supplied with food, were carefully guarded by the armed marauders mounting sentry by turns. On the following morning, four men who called at the station were seized,

and the next step was the destruction of telegraphic communication by the cutting down of the posts and wires of the line, carried along the railway running past the farm buildings. While the outlaws were thus engaged, four railway "gangers" came up, and, being promptly seized and shut up in the barn, raised the number of male prisoners to twenty or more. At half-past three, the two Kellys and Steve Hart started for the town of Euroa, a place three miles distant, with about 300 people, on the main line of railway from Sydney to Melbourne. Joe Byrne, left in sole charge of the prisoners, not only kept them safe in hand, but locked up with them a telegraph repairer who alighted from a train that stopped when the break-down of posts and wires was observed. At Euroa, Ned Kelly obtained admission to the bank, after business hours, by an urgent request for cash to meet a cheque of Mr. Macauley's, the manager at the "stuck-up" station. The premises were then seized; the tills were robbed of nearly £400 in cash, and the safe, opened by the cashier at Ned Kelly's order, afforded plunder to the extent of £1500 in notes, £300 in gold, £90 in silver, and about 30 ounces of gold-dust. The three men, in order to prevent an alarm from being raised too soon for their escape, then carried off, in two wagons and the manager's gig, all the inmates of the bank, including the manager himself, his wife, his mother-in-law, seven children, two maid-servants, and two clerks. On arrival at the station, the men prisoners were locked up in the barn with the rest, the women and children being allowed to stroll about the place, and the four bush-rangers rode away with their spoil, after partaking of a hearty meal. When the manager and his household reached Euroa at midnight, they found the inhabitants still ignorant of the "sticking up" and robbery of the bank. After this unparalleled exploit, two months elapsed without any further news of the famous Kelly gang.

On February 9th, 1879, the two officers in charge of the police station just outside Jerilderie, a small town on the railway, 412 miles south-west of Sydney, and on the territory of New South Wales, were aroused at midnight by some one calling out that their immediate presence was demanded by a great disturbance in the town. On opening the door, they were promptly seized by the four armed members of the band, deprived of their weapons, and locked up in their own watch-house. On the next morning,

Sunday, Joe Byrne accompanied the wife of one constable to the little church, and stayed with her while she prepared it, according to her custom, for service, lest her absence should cause inquiries to be made. He then conducted her back to the police station, and the rest of the day passed peacefully away. At eleven o'clock on Monday morning, the four men went into the town, the two Kellys on foot in police uniforms, and Hart and Byrne on horseback. They had chosen the *Royal Hotel* as their base of operations, and, marching boldly in with revolvers ready for action, they proclaimed who they were, and locked the landlord, servants, and all guests in the house, in one of the rooms. The bank, in charge of a manager, an accountant, and a clerk, was then "stuck up" and robbed, in the contents of the office tills and the safe, of about £2150. At six o'clock on the summer's evening the outlaws went their way, Byrne leading a pack-horse with plunder of various kinds. The Murray river was crossed, and the Kelly gang returned, no man hindering, in safety to their retreat in the mountains of Victoria.

The governments of the two colonies, along with the bank proprietors, now raised the reward for the capture of these brigands to the large total sum of £8000. The police gained over to their cause one of the principal "agents" or abettors of the gang, a young fellow named Aaron Sherritt, sweetheart of Joe Byrne's sister. For several weeks, amid hardships from cold on frosty nights when caution prevented the lighting of a fire, Superintendent Hare and a party of police kept watch amongst the rocks above Byrne's mother's house, a solitary dwelling in the hills, whither Sherritt assured them that the bush-rangers, sooner or later, would come. All their trouble was thrown away through a very slight lack of care, and the vigilance of old Mrs. Byrne. Her keen eye detected the glitter of an empty sardine-tin amongst the rocks. She then crept through the "bush" and walked straight into the police-camp to the surprise and chagrin of its occupants. The treachery of Sherritt was, on June 26th, 1880, punished by Joe Byrne, who, accompanied by Dan Kelly, went to the house where he was living with his newly-married wife (not Byrne's sister), and shot him dead. This event occurred on a Saturday night, and we now come to the last scenes in this strange, eventful history.

On the next morning, Sunday, June 27th, Ned Kelly and Steve Hart, the other two members of the gang, presented themselves early at the house of a railway repairer named Reardon, at Glenrowan, a village, with a railway-station, 135 miles north-east of Melbourne. He and several of his mates were then ordered to get their tools, march down the line, and tear up the rails at a point where the railway ran along the top of a high embankment. The object of the desperate villains was to destroy, with its occupants, the special train which they knew would be sent out with a party of police, when the news of Sherritt's murder reached Melbourne. The workmen, with loaded pistols at their heads, were forced to take up the rails, and were then conducted to the *Glenrowan Hotel*, a small wooden building, and kept under guard. At this time Dan Kelly and Byrne arrived, having galloped across country from the scene of their murderous work at Sherritt's house. All the people of Glenrowan, sixty-three in number, including the police officer of the little hamlet, were then forced to come to the hotel, and the outlaws waited events on the line of railway. They had, however, at last undertaken a task beyond their power in striving to keep perfect watch over so many persons. A special train, with a strong body of police and native "trackers", was on its way, but the cruel eagerness of the bush-rangers, and the fears of the imprisoned people, all excited to the utmost degree by the distant sound of the approaching train, had no response in the form of the expected crash and cry. The village schoolmaster had made his escape from the hotel, and stopped the train a mile from the station by a danger-signal contrived with a candle and a scarlet scarf held in front. This was the first news which the police had of the gang's presence at Glenrowan. Up to the station the line was safe, and the village constable, who also escaped, hurried thither when he heard the train stop. He met Mr. Hare and the police running up towards the hotel, where utter darkness now prevailed. At about sixteen yards' range, a shot from the verandah disabled the Superintendent's left hand. A regular siege then began, and Ned Kelly's voice was heard in defiance "Fire away, you beggars, you can do us no harm!" The bullets of the police went crashing from all sides through the frail walls of the building, and several of the hapless prisoners were wounded, while the screams of the women and children added

to the din and terror of the conflict. The steady fire of the assailants drove the bush-rangers from the verandah into the house; reinforcements of police arrived, and a heavy volley gave a speedily mortal wound to Joe Byrne. A careful watch was kept through the night, to prevent the escape of any of the gang, and just before dawn a fresh sensation arose. A tall figure came through the twilight gloom into the midst of the police, and opened fire with a revolver. For half an hour nine policemen emptied their firearms upon the solitary foe at short range, repeatedly hitting him, and causing him to stagger, but still their fire was returned, until one of the officers stepped up close and fired two shots into his legs. He then fell and was disarmed, and was found to be Ned Kelly, clad in iron armour on his head, chest, back, and sides, composed of metal hammered out of ploughshares, weighing in all nearly 100 lbs. The head-piece resembled an iron pot with a narrow slit for the eyes. Dan Kelly and Steve Hart were left in the hotel, whence most of the townspeople now rushed forth. It was June 28th, and until one o'clock in the day an incessant fire against the house was kept up by the police, who, in their disgust at the long resistance made, telegraphed to Melbourne for a field-piece to batter the hotel to pieces. This weapon was actually despatched from the capital, but before it could arrive, the matter was ended by setting fire to the building. As the flames and smoke arose, the police rushed in to save a wounded townsman lying inside, and brought him out, with the dead body of Joe Byrne. Dan Kelly and Steve Hart were seen lying dead on the floor—how slain, none can tell. The place was burned to the ground, and their charred bodies, armour-cased, like those of their comrades, were then found. Ned Kelly, cured of his wounds, was hanged at Melbourne, and thus ended the career of the most notorious and desperate criminals of Australian history.

The records of New South Wales, in her later years, present little save a continuity of peaceful progress. The increase of tillage and pastoral industry has been such that, at the close of the nineteenth century there were yearly raised over nine million bushels of wheat, six million bushels of maize, 333,000 tons of hay, lucerne, and other grasses, and nearly eight million dozens of oranges. There were over 41 millions of sheep, with a corre-

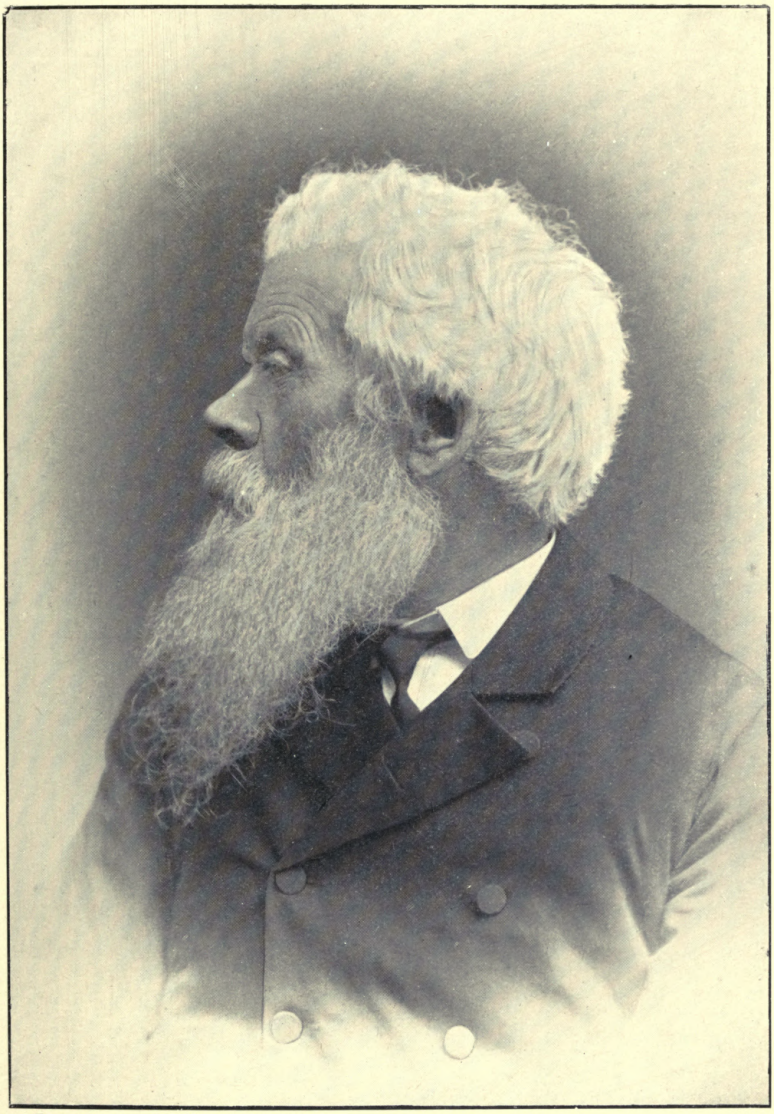
sponding export of wool. In January, 1868, the Earl of Belmore, an Irish representative peer, who had held a minor post in Mr. Disraeli's first ministry, assumed office as Governor. The census of 1871 showed a population exceeding half a million; the revenue and expenditure were then each of about 3 millions; the imports were approaching 10 millions, and the exports had a value of 11¼ millions. Railways and telegraph wires were being greatly extended, and the manufactures of the colony assumed the prominent position in Australia still retained, and only surpassed by Victoria. Sir Hercules Robinson succeeded Lord Belmore in June, 1872, and was for nearly seven years a very popular Governor, displaying admirable tact and ability in dealing with political affairs as a constitutional ruler. He had the advantage of previous experience in administration and especially in colonial matters as an Irish Commissioner, a West Indian and then a Hong Kong governor, and as Governor of Ceylon from 1865 to 1871. This Irish gentleman's patronage of the turf and personal share in sport as an owner of race-horses did him no harm in the estimation of most inhabitants of New South Wales. In August, 1879, his successor, Lord Augustus Loftus, arrived in Sydney. The new Governor was previously distinguished as a diplomatist in the highest posts at the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and St. Petersburg. His first important duty was that of inaugurating the first International Exhibition held in Australia. A beautiful building on the brow of the hill between Sydney Cove and Farm Cove displayed, to the viewer from the harbour waters, a dome and fluttering flags rising above the luxuriant foliage of the Botanic Gardens. The structure, regarded with fondness and pride by the people of New South Wales, as one that proclaimed to the world that the colony was taking her place as a full-grown nation, was destroyed by fire shortly after serving its special purpose. The Exhibition, an enterprise undertaken by the government after successful annual shows held by the Agricultural Society, gave ample proofs of the colony's progress in her special industries, and attracted competitive displays of goods from almost all civilized countries. The expenditure of a quarter of a million sterling was held to be well incurred in making known the resources of New South Wales, and causing an increase of foreign trade.

The despatch of a colonial contingent of troops to aid the British

forces in the Soudan, in 1885, was chiefly due to the Governor and to Mr. W. B. Dalley, the acting Premier. A great impression was made on the British public by this display of loyal feeling in Australia, and from that time forth the value of the colonial empire seemed to be better understood, and the then undecided question of Imperial Federation came to the front. The naval defence of the empire was viewed in a new light, and the interest taken in the Indian and Colonial Exhibition, held in London in the following year, was much increased. As a note of progress, we may observe that the census of 1880 showed the population as numbering over 751,000, of whom 411,000 were males, and 340,000 females. In the same year, railway communication with Melbourne was completed, and in 1883 the mineral wealth of the colony was largely increased in the discovery of silver deposits on the western frontier. At the close of 1885 the most popular of all recent Australian rulers appeared in the person of Lord Carrington, a British peer of very ancient lineage on the side of his mother, a daughter of Lord Willoughby de Eresby, joint hereditary Lord Great Chamberlain of England. He had sat for some years in the House of Commons as a Liberal member, before succeeding to the peerage in 1868, but his reputation, up to 1885, was mainly one belonging, with a high character, to a man of society and pleasure. His appointment as Governor of New South Wales was partly due to a long-expressed dissatisfaction, on the part of the Australian colonies, with rulers of the official type. They demanded that future viceroys should be men of a class to whom the higher prizes of British political life were held to be open. It was difficult to comply literally with such a requirement, and the Colonial Office in London decided on a compromise. In the appointment of Lord Carrington, the Secretary of State induced the Crown to go outside the official class, and, regarding the post of colonial governor in Australia as mainly a social one, to select a man of superior wealth and social position. The duties of the office, thus viewed, were performed by Lord and Lady Carrington with unfailing skill and charm, and they left New South Wales in 1890 amongst expressions of esteem and regret without any parallel in Australian history. Lord Carrington's period of rule was marked, in 1888, by the completion of railway communication with Queensland, and by an enthusiastic celebration, in the same year, of the centenary of the

SIR HENRY PARKES

Sir Henry Parkes, K.C.M.G., justly styled "the Grand Old Man of Australia", was born in 1815, at Stoneleigh, Warwickshire, son of a small farmer. In 1839 he landed at Sydney, and, through dire poverty, working on a ropewalk, toiling in a brickyard, bearing the hardships of a "bush" life, the brave self-taught man fought his way upwards to eminence as a journalist, and founded the paper known as *The Empire*, which he ably edited from 1850 to 1857. In 1854 he was elected to the New South Wales Assembly, and in 1856, when responsible government had been established, he became a member of the Legislative Council, or Upper House. In 1871 he became Prime Minister, and held the same office five times in all during his long and honourable career. As a statesman of advanced views, he rendered eminent services in founding the land-system of the great colony, in promoting popular education, organizing local defence, suppressing "bush-rangers", placing finance, fiscal policy, the railway-system, and public works, on a sound footing, and, above all, in furthering the great cause of Australasian and Imperial Federation. His own work was reviewed in his *Fifty Years in the Making of Australian History*. He left office a poorer man than he had entered it, and ended his noble life in April, 1896.



From a Photograph by ELLIOTT & FRY

SIR HENRY PARKES

colony. The influx of Chinese aroused great agitation, and laws were passed which practically prohibited immigration from "the celestial empire". In 1889 Sir Henry Parkes, the premier, gave his adhesion to the movement for Australian federation, and New South Wales was represented at the Conference held at Melbourne in the following year. Early in 1891 the Earl of Jersey, a grandson, by his mother's side, of the great Sir Robert Peel, arrived in Sydney as the new Governor. Lord Jersey had been, for two years in his earlier life, a lord-in-waiting to the Queen, and also held office as Paymaster-General in Lord Salisbury's second ministry. In March and April, 1891, representatives of all the Australasian colonies met at Sydney, and agreed to a constitution for a "Commonwealth of Australia", to be referred, in the first instance, to the colonial legislatures. For his brief period of office Lord Jersey was a popular Governor. He resigned his post early in 1893, and was succeeded by Sir Robert Duff, a Scottish Liberal M.P. of thirty years' standing, and a Civil Lord of the Admiralty. On his death soon after arrival in the colony, he was succeeded by Viscount Hampden, son of a former Speaker of the House of Commons. In January, 1899, Earl Beauchamp, K.C.M.G. became Governor.

CHAPTER V.

NEW SOUTH WALES—*Continued.*

SCENERY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Area and population of the colony—Climate—Coast-line—Surface of the land—The river Darling—Scenery of the coast and country—Govett's Leap—The Nepean and Hawkesbury rivers—The Jenolan Caves—Port Jackson or Sydney Harbour—Political constitution of the colony—Ecclesiastical affairs—Educational system—Administration of justice—Exceptions from the law of England—The Torrens Real Property Act—Industries—The wool trade—Squatter life—Extent of holdings—Statistics of pastoral progress—Agriculture—Cultivation of the sugar-cane and vine—Minerals—Gold and silver mining—Working of other metals—Extensive coal production—Manufactures—Internal communications—Roads and railways—Zigzag railway across the Blue Mountains—Telegraph and postal systems—Intercolonial and foreign trade—Lines of ocean steamers—Financial affairs—Customs-duties—Sydney, the capital, described—Newcastle, Maitland, Parramatta, Bathurst, Bourke, Goulburn, and other towns.

In considering New South Wales, the reader must imagine a country more than six times as large as England (without

Wales), having an area just exceeding 311,000 sq. miles, and a population officially estimated, on June 30th, 1899, as 1,357,050, composed of 725,900 males and 631,150 females. The census of 1891 showed that 64 per cent of the inhabitants were natives of the colony; 7½ per cent of other Australasian colonies; over 13 per cent English, over 6½ per cent Irish, 3¼ per cent Scottish, the remainder being, in order of numbers, "other foreigners" (*i.e.* not Chinese or Germans), Chinese, Germans, aborigines, and Welsh. During the ten years ending 1896 the increase in population was above 277,310, towards which the excess of births over deaths contributed more than 85 per cent, the remainder being due to immigration, which in the year above named brought about 62,700 people, against an emigration of about 62,500. The country is an irregular four-sided figure, with an extreme length of 900 miles, and a greatest breadth of 850 miles, the average being 500 miles of length and breadth. The boundaries are seen in a glance at the map, with the chief geographical features which, along with the climate, fauna, and flora, have been dealt with in our general account of Australia. We may note, however, as a main characteristic of the climate of New South Wales, as of Australia in general, the abundance of sunshine. The "gray days" of northern countries are there almost unknown; clouds seldom obscure the sky save when they bring rain, and when that has ceased to fall, the clouds disappear and the sun shines forth with undimmed brilliancy. The dryness and purity of the air afford a climate as enjoyable as that of Algiers, the one disadvantage being the hot winds which sometimes occur in summer, never lasting for more than three days, lulling at night and raging in the forenoon like the blast of a furnace. On the coast we observe that there are no very large indentations and no conspicuous projections. Cape Byron is remarkable as the most easterly point of the continent; St. George's Head and Green Cape for their prominence, and Cape Howe as the southern extremity of the colony. The largest inlet is Jervis Bay, in latitude 35° s. Few natural harbours exist, and, with the exception of Port Jackson, all are so inclosed with mountainous or unproductive country as to be of little value for trade, some which are very safe for shipping being difficult of access from the landward side for the transport of produce from the richer districts. The estuaries of the rivers are in some cases obstructed by sand-

bars, but form outlets for the produce of the country. The surface of New South Wales may be regarded in three distinct portions—the coast district, a narrow strip of undulating and generally fertile country crossed at intervals by mountain ridges, between which are river-valleys of greater or less extent; the table-lands, surmounted by the highest mountains of the colony; and the great inland plains. The Darling River and its affluents drain almost all the western slope, and, though it is robbed of its name after its junction with the Murray near the 34th parallel of south latitude and the 142nd meridian of east longitude, the Darling is really the great river of the continent; measuring 2500 miles in length from its most distant sources to the sea; flowing (at first under the name of the Barwan or Barwon) for about 1100 miles within New South Wales; and draining an area of about 300,000 sq. miles; facts which entitle it to rank amongst the great rivers of the world.

In describing some parts of the scenery in this vast territory, we note that the coast-line of about 800 miles, though it is not, as already stated, one of deep indentations, has abundant interest and beauty in its changes from cliffs to sandy beaches and from headlands to little bays; in the varied hues of vegetation and of geologic strata; in the rapid succession of little outports with their beacons and coasting craft, and in the varied outline of the mountainous background as the hills rise and fall, advance and retire. Among the salient features is Point Perpendicular, on the northern entrance of Jervis Bay, a steep, stern cliff, rising sheer from the water to 300 feet in height, with a storm-beaten summit, bare of tree or bush. The South Head, at the entrance of Port Jackson, is a striking object, with the white tower of its lighthouse perched 300 feet up, showing at night a revolving electric light visible, in clear weather, for over 30 miles. The estuary of the Hawkesbury River affords a beautiful scene in Broken Bay, with fiords of deep water, dark and still, overshadowed by cliffs from 500 to 600 feet in height, varied by beaches of deep red or reddish-brown colour, set off by background foliage of dark green. The mouth of the Clarence River is another fine opening, with a deep stream navigable and half a mile in width for 70 miles up from the Pacific waters. In the Blue Mountains, now becoming the great sanatorium of Sydney, with the railroad conveying invalids to any height up to 3500 feet, the Wentworth Falls, or Great Falls, make a descent of 1000 feet in

three cascades, having at their base a tall point which looks, from above, like a bank of moss half hidden by the mist from broken water. In the Valley of the Grose, amidst the wildest scenery of mountain and gum-forest, is the grand gorge containing the fall called Govett's Leap, from the name of the surveyor who discovered the glorious natural picture. From a ledge of gray rock the visitor looks down into a gulf whose floor, clothed with a great forest, undulates like the face of a rolling, unbroken sea. The tree-tops are 1200 feet below, and beneath them, unheard from the distance, runs the Grose River, with an occasional glimpse of the tree-ferns on its banks, or of silvery flashes of its water rushing over a rocky bed, revealed through gaps in the trees made by the force of its floods after heavy rains. The water of Govett's Leap descends for 520 feet, in summer being but a thin veil of spray and transparent liquid shining upon the surface of brown rock decked in every nook and cranny with fern-leaves of bright, delicate green. The falling stream breaks on a ledge at the foot of the cliff, to lose itself in a bank of ferns on the edge of the forest. There are countless more cascades, and many grand mountain-gulfs in the huge rocky mass of hill and forest that lies within sight of great and populous Sydney.

The Nepean River and its tributaries, flowing northwards on the way to join the noble stream called the Hawkesbury in its lower reaches, almost encircle the metropolitan county of Cumberland. The whole of this river-system is of great interest in the history of New South Wales. On one point of the Nepean is the Camden district, to which the cattle that escaped from the first settlement made their way as the best grazing-ground near Sydney. Lower down, from Penrith to Richmond and Windsor, is a broad valley with rich alluvial soil, and this was the first agricultural land farmed by the early settlers. The sandstone gorges in the upper parts of the Nepean country contain the pure tributary streams of that river which furnish the capital with its supply of water. The lower course of the Hawkesbury is the Rhine of Australia, the romantic river of the tourist and the artist, the favourite haunt of the yachtsman. At the point where the river merges into the estuary, the great bridge of the Newcastle railway crosses the stream. Bold cliffs rise up 300 feet from the water's edge, with faces of weather-worn sandstone showing many tints of red and brown, and above

these tower great hills, forest-clad from base to summit, all perfectly mirrored in the liquid surface below. It is a fair scene of land and water that is here displayed, indescribable in the beauty of atmospheric effects, of light and shade, from dawn to sunset beneath an Australian sky. One tributary of the Hunter is the Paterson, a beautiful little river running through rich red soil, of fertility that grows well-bearing vines, luxuriant fig-trees and pomegranates, with melons lying thick around their roots.

We turn now to another specimen of Nature's work in New South Wales. In several parts of the colony there are limestone caverns remarkable for beauty of structure, and highly interesting to the geologist for fossil remains. Of these, by far the most striking and accessible, and the best explored, are the Jenolan Caves, one of the great sights of the country, in a deep valley 113 miles west of Sydney. The caves lie in a limestone belt from 200 to 400 yards in width running right across the valley, and were formed by streams working out for themselves subterranean channels. Nothing in this class of natural structure is more marvellous for grandeur, beauty of form and hue, variety and size. Many great caves have been fully explored, and are open to tourists, for whom guides are provided, the whole series of wondrous scenes being displayed by the electric light. At one point, a domed roof larger than that of St. Peter's has huge masses of rock hanging down like a skirt of gigantic garments, fossilized into a dull gray stone, tinged with dark red and green from impregnations of iron and copper. In the chamber styled "the Woolshed", the stalagmites formed by dropping water have assumed the shape of fleeces of various sizes, from the tiny fairy-like to the colossal, hanging on benches or spread upon the floor, and looking, in the flickering light of the candles, as soft as newly-shorn wool. Another cave is rich in "shawls" of the same material, hanging from the roof, draping the walls, and enfolding the alabaster columns of a great central formation resembling a reredos. Of purest marble and alabaster, tinted by the native ores of the hills, the "shawls" droop from the rocks in lengths from 3 inches to 6 feet, and from an eighth to half an inch in thickness. With the light of the magnesium-lamp behind them, they are semi-transparent, showing delicate tints of pink and white, of pale yellow and apricot, with cross-bands of deep orange, red, and brown. The "Jewel Casket" cave has crystals and beautiful forms of miniature

pinnacles and spires. The right-hand branch of the "Imperial Cave" is a succession of bewildering scenes of beauty in grottoes large and small, displaying all the treasures of Nature's craft in stalactite and stalagmite formation. We must pause, however, and leave the rest to be imagined from such titles as the "Confectioner's Shop", the "Crystal City", the "Queen's Jewels", the "Diamond Wall", the "Bridal Veil", the "Crystal Palace", the "Hall of the Kings", and many more. A large separate work, with profuse illustrations, could only convey a faint idea of the countless wonders and charms of the Jenolan Caves.

Any detailed description of Port Jackson or Sydney Harbour, with its 100 miles of coast-line, and 150 bays or coves, is beyond our scope. A full account would have to deal with many varieties of beauty, of nature left unadorned or improved by art—with rocky islets, sandy beaches, sometimes milky white; with bold cliffs and verdant slopes; with palatial mansions, picturesque villas, and secluded picnic haunts; with the foliage and flowers of orchards and orange-groves, creepers of most gorgeous hues, the richest growth of climbing roses, bananas and plantains, cedars, hibiscus, flame-trees, and vines budding in spring with tender green, purple in autumn with mellow clusters. The uses of commerce and defence make a varied and picturesque display of frowning batteries and busy wharves; of countless vessels, large and small, under steam and sail, including great ocean-liners and men-of-war; of tall massive wool stores, docks and engineering works; while the architect claims the quarry of fine-grained sandstone that furnishes material for the best new buildings of the splendid capital of New South Wales. The grand expanse of landlocked water, stretching for about twenty miles inland, with branches in every direction, is a rival to those of Rio de Janeiro and the Bay of San Francisco. The entrance varies from 2¼ miles to 1¼ in width, the lowest depth of water at low tide being 22 feet in the eastern channel and 26 feet in the western. The hills which form the general outline often rise to a height of 200 to 250 feet, with terraces of ground showing a lower level at other points, and many smooth sandy beaches. The brilliant writer who, under the *nom de guerre* of Rolf Boldrewood, has rendered such service to British readers who can never, with their own eyes, behold Australian scenery or Australian life, is enthusiastic in his

description of "the noblest, safest, most picturesque harbour in the southern hemisphere, in the British possessions, in the known world". In the midsummer season of December, when showers have refreshed the groves and gardens which line the shores and heights, the glades are emerald green between the flower thickets; the air is heavy with perfumes; and the scene at evening is superb in tropical beauty such as, if it were placed on canvas with absolute fidelity, would be condemned by some critics as false to nature in its richness of colour. The numberless tiny headlands, covered with wood or greensward, have shining waveless bays nestling between them, like havens for fairy fleets. "The tall araucarias stand columnar on every height, giving dignity and ordered beauty to the landscape. The white walls of stately mansions and trim villas gleam freshly bright among the dim woods, shining like Grecian temples in the olden days of earth's glory; while, as the western sky becomes gradually empurpled and aflame with the gorgeous pageantry of the dying sun, an unearthly brilliancy appears to illumine the scene, more akin to theatrical effects of light and colour than the mere summer splendour of the hour." We turn perforce to other and more prosaic themes.

In dealing with the institutions of a country which, in general, simply reproduces, in religion, politics, education, and social affairs, the familiar condition of the British Isles, we need do little more than note any points of difference which occur. The legislative power is vested in a Parliament of two Houses—the Legislative Council of 69 members (at the end of 1899) appointed by the Crown for life, and the Legislative Assembly of 125 members, one each for as many electorates, with no property qualification nor plural voting. The members are paid £300 per annum; the parliaments are triennial. Every male subject 21 years of age is qualified to vote after a residence of one year in the colony and three months in his electoral district. Elections all take place on one and the same day. In 1898 nearly 325,000 electors, or above 24 per cent of the population, were enrolled, and of the existing electors over 56 per cent voted at the general election of 1898. The chief executive power lies, of course, with the Governor, who is also commander-in-chief of all the troops. He is assisted by a cabinet of ten ministers, among whom we note three Secretaries for Lands, Public Works, and Mines and Agriculture, a "Minister of Justice", and a

Minister of Public Instruction, Industry, and Labour. Local government exists in about 75 boroughs and 107 municipal districts, in addition to the City of Sydney, and the proportion of fully settled country to the whole great territory is shown by the facts that, while the population residing within municipal areas much exceeds one-half of the whole, the incorporated portion of the colony is only about 2760 square miles, or about 113th part of the whole area. There are 71 police districts, with land, registration, educational, and other divisions, but the only permanent territorial division is that into 141 counties, and into parishes. These last, however, have no significance for administrative purposes, and are useful only in connection with the survey and description of land. We may note that in 1887 a Forest Conservation Department was created in the government, having charge of twenty-one State forests covering about 98,000 acres, and of over 1000 timber reserves, covering an area of nearly 5,500,000 acres. A revenue is derived from royalties and licenses for timber-cutting, the value of wood sawn in 1894 exceeding three-quarters of a million sterling.

In regard to religious profession, we find that the census of 1891 gave the Anglican Church 503,000 adherents, with 333 clergy. This body, by far the largest of the denominations, is ruled in ecclesiastical affairs by six bishops, those of Sydney, Bathurst, Goulburn, Grafton and Armidale, Newcastle, and Riverina, the latter being a new diocese formed in a large tract of pastoral country in the south, bordered by the Murray River. The Bishop of Sydney is Metropolitan, and Primate of Australia and Tasmania. Each diocese has its own Synod and Church Society, controlling the temporalities of a body which, since the Act of 1862 abolishing State aid to religion, is supported on the voluntary system. The method of administering ecclesiastical patronage generally may be gathered by reference to the Sydney diocese. The see is divided into 79 parishes, and the patronage of 48 is vested in the Bishop, and of the remaining 31 in a "Board of Nominators", composed of two representatives of the Synod, and three others elected by the parishioners. The bishops are appointed by the respective synods of each diocese, and the bishops of Australia nominate the metropolitan, for consecration by the Archbishop of Canterbury. Every fifth year the Australian Convocation, or General Synod, meets at Sydney, and is composed of

the bishops of Australia and Tasmania, and of clerical and lay representatives from each diocesan synod. The Roman Catholics of New South Wales, in 1891, numbered 287,000 with 295 clergy, under the spiritual sway of seven bishops and of the Cardinal Archbishop of Sydney, who is also Primate of Australasia. Next in point of numbers come the Presbyterians, with 109,000 lay people and 156 clergy; the Wesleyans, with 87,500 and 133 respectively; the Congregationalists or Independents, with 24,000 and 65; "other Methodists" (than Wesleyans), with 22,500 lay people and 34 ministers; Baptists, with 13,000 and 32; and about 75,000 of many other sects or of none, including about 5500 Jews.

The educational system is well organized on lines resembling those of the home country. The University of Sydney, affiliated to Oxford in 1888, is endowed with £5000 a year from the public funds, and has received great further aid from special votes and private donations, the chief of which was the noble bequest of Mr. John Henry Challis, which became applicable for the endowment of a number of new "chairs" or professorships, on his widow's death in 1888, to the amount of £180,000. The university, to which the theological colleges of St. Paul (Anglican), St. John (Roman Catholic), and St. Andrew (Presbyterian) are affiliated, has the power of granting degrees in arts, medicine, science, and law. There is a good provision of high schools for both sexes, with 956 private schools, and among the institutions aided by the State are the Sydney Grammar School, four industrial schools, and one for the deaf, dumb, and blind. The total expenditure on State Schools in 1898 exceeded £656,000, chiefly devoted to the primary schools spread all over the settled country, including "half-time schools" and "house-to-house schools". These last are a special feature in the system, providing itinerant teachers in a land with so widely scattered a population, free railway-passes being also granted to children who are compelled to attend schools at a distance from their homes. The whole system is "undenominational", and the expense is entirely defrayed from the public revenue, except for the small fee of 3*d.* per week. Evening schools exist for adults of neglected education. Compulsory attendance up to fourteen years is one feature of the Act of 1880, but the great majority of parents highly prize the benefit provided for their children. A State system of technical instruction was

instituted in 1883, on the principle laid down by the City of London guilds, and proficient students receive certificates as "industrial experts". Excellent progress in this respect is being made, and liberal grants are yearly received from Parliament. To sum up, the State schools of every class, in 1898, numbered 2817 with 4759 teachers, and an average attendance of 141,723 among 227,561 children enrolled. The private schools were 956, with 58,179 pupils and 3269 teachers, of which numbers 312 schools, 1573 teachers, and 38,463 pupils were Roman Catholic. As regards religious instruction, this may be given in the schools by appointed teachers of any denomination during a certain hour of the school-time, and there are about 2000 Sunday-schools in towns and villages, with over 12,000 male and female teachers, and about 120,000 scholars, in charge of the four leading religious bodies. In this, as in all the chief Australasian colonies, the means of culture for all classes of society include libraries, museums, mechanics' institutes, art galleries, and schools of art under various names and forms.

The administration of justice resembles that of England, with a Supreme Court composed of a Chief-Justice and six assistant judges; trial by jury for all persons charged with offences liable to over six months' imprisonment; courts of magistrates, quarter-sessions, circuit-courts in the chief towns twice yearly, stipendiary magistrates in the police-courts of the metropolitan district, police-magistrates and justices of the peace in the country. The licensing of houses for the sale of alcoholic liquors is in the hands of magistrates specially appointed. Courts of Divorce, Admiralty, and Bankruptcy are presided over by Justices of the Supreme Court. The law of the Australian colonies is in substance identical with that of England, but there are important exceptions to be noted. In criminal matters, capital punishment is inflicted, in New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania, not only for murder, but for attempts at murder, rape, and one other offence. In all the Australasian colonies, marriage with a deceased wife's sister is a legal union. In New South Wales and Victoria, the law of primogeniture has been abolished. In every Australian colony, the Torrens Real Property Act, adopted in various forms, has cheapened and facilitated the transfer of land and tenements. Inestimable benefit has been derived from this admirable measure, specially applicable

to new countries where titles are easily traced. The author, who had to contend with severe and prolonged opposition from the legal profession, was Sir Robert Richard Torrens, K.C.M.G., a native of Cork (1814) and son of one of the founders of South Australia. In 1857, Torrens became Premier and Treasurer of that colony for a short time, and then, as member for Adelaide in the first Legislative Assembly of South Australia, he succeeded in carrying the bill which substituted title by registration, in the case of real property, for title by deed. He then resigned his seat in parliament to undertake the headship of the department charged with carrying out the Act, and, after one or two amendments in details, his foresight and energy were rewarded by its easy working. It was owing, in a great degree, to Torrens' expositions and efforts that the measure was adopted in the other colonies of Australasia, where many thousands of small land-owners have thus been enabled to secure their holdings.

The main source of wealth in New South Wales has been and is the pastoral industry, for the production of sheep above all, with a view to their fleeces rather than to their flesh. The growth of wool was the first and largest factor in the development of Australia, and the wool-trade had established our colonial dominions in that quarter of the world on a sound commercial basis, long before the days when the discovery of gold gave so great a new impetus to material progress. The rise of the industry, mainly through the efforts of Captain Macarthur, has been given in an early stage of this work. In 1825, an enterprising member of the early Legislative Council, Mr. Richard Jones, brought out a fine flock of Saxony sheep to the colony, and in subsequent years other animals were imported from famous stud flocks in France and Spain. The value of the inland climate in the western country, as favouring the growth of a finer fleece, was discovered, and a new type of wool, the Australian, was produced, in softer, brighter, more elastic, less dense but longer, material than that of the original merino flocks. Enterprise, energy, and sound judgment here, as in other lines of business, have had a rich reward, and the Australian merino now produces the best wool for manufacture of any sheep in the world. The records and descriptions of Australian life frequently present us with the terms "squatting" and "squatter". The word, in England, was associated with settling on a

common, and in Australia the first plan was to grant common grazing rights over a large area, by lease, to a group of settlers. When this system was found to be too restricted for the rapidly increasing flocks, letters of occupation were granted to some persons, so as to allow them to range beyond the prescribed limits. We have seen the gradual development of the land-system by method of sale, and the security of tenure granted to the squatters, who must be regarded as graziers or holders of large sheep-walks. In the earlier days of the colony, the life of a squatter was a rough one, and his pursuit of wealth was attended with other difficulties than those arising from alternations of drought and flood. The buildings of the homestead comprised a wooden house for the residence of the squatter and his family, with four or five rooms lined with lath and plaster, a verandah in front, into which one room opened, and a "lean-to" in the rear. An adjacent hut was used as a kitchen, and scattered about were other wooden edifices, of split slabs or of logs, serving as stores and as houses for the station hands, and for the shearers in clipping-time. Outside the paddock-fence, a quarter of a mile away in the forest, an immense building, heavily roofed with logs and bark, was the wool-shed, with the pressing apparatus, and around were the needful yards for the management of the sheep in driving them into the shed, and in branding and other matters. Such would be the appearance of an up-country station representing ten thousand sheep and a few hundred head of cattle. Severe losses were sometimes suffered in the stealing of large "mobs" of cattle by audacious robbers of the bush-ranging class, who drove them off from the back parts of a large "run", and took them away to Adelaide or Melbourne, disposed of them there, and returned to New South Wales by sea. On a smaller scale of plunder, cattle ready for killing were taken, slaughtered, and salted down, the head and feet being boiled to prevent recognition by the brands or natural marks. In other cases, unbranded cattle and calves would be appropriated by a dishonest settler through the simple process of branding with his own recognized mark. The squatting industry grew and flourished. One of the finest pastoral districts of the colony is found in the Liverpool Plains of the north-east, ten million acres of rich volcanic soil, sloping away from the coastal range towards the Darling. The large scale of farming in New South Wales appears from the

figures concerning the extent of holdings in 1899. With over 15,880 little farms having from one to fifteen acres, over 28,540 from 16 to 200 acres, nearly 8600 from 201 to 400, over 7820 from 401 to 1000 acres, there were about 2650 persons engaged in pastoral or agricultural industry, or both combined, holding from 1000 to 2000 acres; more than 2120 farmers with from 2001 to 10,000, and 671 owners or tenants of 10,001 acres and upwards. The total land area of the colony being about 196 millions of acres, the amount occupied under leases of various kinds, at the end of 1898, exceeded 127½ million acres, and the total land alienated was about 46,000,000 acres, the proceeds from land-sales from 1862 to 1897 having reached the sum of 43 millions sterling. The progress of New South Wales in pastoral industry during the reign of Queen Victoria is shown in some comparative statistics. In 1840, there were under 5 million sheep; in 1899, there were 41¼ millions. In the same period, the number of horned cattle rose from 900,000 to nearly 2¼ millions; of horses, from 56,000 to about half a million. In regard to these last, we may observe that our army in India largely draws from New South Wales remounts for the cavalry regiments. The dairy-farming noticed in another place, and the new trade in beef, is soundly based upon the best breeds of cattle, such as the Shorthorn, Devon, Hereford, Ayrshire, Blackpolled, and Channel Island stock.

When we turn to the tillage of the colony, or agricultural industry, we find a vast difference as compared with sheep-farming. In 1899, only about 2,206,000 acres of ground, or little more than 88th part of the area, were under cultivation, mostly in holdings of less than 500 acres. The chief cereals grown are wheat and maize, the product of the former, for the year ending March 31st, 1899, being 9¼ million bushels on 1,319,000 acres; of the latter, over 6 million bushels on 193,000 acres. Maize, only produced largely in Queensland among the other Australian colonies, is in New South Wales an easy and certain crop, raised throughout the coast districts as far south as the 36th parallel of latitude. In the year above given, 278,000 bushels of oats were grown on about 20,000 acres, with 64,000 bushels of barley, both being chiefly used as fodder. Lucerne is a most luxuriant crop, and mangold-wurzel, turnips, and pumpkins are used for the artificial feeding of the choicest cattle. The yield of potatoes, as above, was about 62,000

tons on 28,000 acres. The growth of sugar has now become considerable. In 1863 but 2 acres of canes were to be seen in New South Wales; in 1899, 24,759 acres of cane, on the banks of the northern rivers, yielded over 289,000 tons of canes. The cultivation of the vine is fast becoming an important matter. Large districts are suitable in soil, climate, and aspect for the growth of the vines introduced in 1831, as a first serious attempt at the production of wine, from France and from the Rhenish vineyards. This parent stock of the vines now growing in New South Wales has, in course of time, so far succeeded that, in the year ending March, 1899, 8078 acres of vineyard produced about 845,000 gallons of wine. All the fruits of Europe are grown with success; oranges are largely exported to the neighbouring colonies. The gardens are gay with flowers dear to the sight of British visitors in the violet, pansy, wallflower, sweet-william, mignonette, candytuft, lupin, nasturtium, convolvulus, and rose. The camelia reaches a large size, and is rich in blooms; the geranium is like a bush, and flowers during most of the year.

The minerals of the colony are its chief source of wealth next to its pastoral products. High authorities believe the mineral treasures to be almost inexhaustible. The auriferous area is known to amount to 70,000 sq. miles, of which one-half is included within gold-fields that have been actually worked. The total value of gold coined or exported, from its discovery in 1851 to 1899 exceeded 47¾ millions sterling, and of late years the product, after a great decline since 1875, has begun to increase again, the returns for 1899 showing about 509,000 ounces, worth £1,937,000. Better methods of treating the auriferous pyrites, and more capital, are needed for the development of gold-mining, especially in the working of quartz veins. Silver has recently assumed great importance. Rich veins were found at Sunny Corner and Mitchell's Creek, on the western slope of the Blue Mountains, about 130 miles from Sydney, but the great "silver boom" of New South Wales came with discoveries made far away, on the south-western frontier, in the hill-country called the Barrier Ranges, nearly 900 miles from the capital. A wild rush was made for the mines at Broken Hills, and thousands of acres were soon pegged out into "claims". Scores of companies were started, most of which soon collapsed, but there was abundance of good ore for

those who knew how to find it, and the town of Silverton has arisen and flourished on the new scene of industry. The yield of silver, in 1889, in a district 50 miles long and about half as wide, was worth 1¾ millions sterling. Railway communication with Adelaide, in South Australia, soon provided for the shipment of the silver ore, and reduced the previous enormous cost of carrying food, forage, and material to the scene of operations. In 1898, the total value of pure silver and of silver-lead ore obtained in the colony was nearly 1¾ millions; the whole value obtained to the end of 1898 was over 25¾ millions. Excellent iron ore abounds in the districts west and south of Sydney, but has not been worked at a profit, though it has been found in close proximity to coal and limestone. Copper-mining has been more successful; the chief area of production lies in districts between the Lachlan and Darling rivers, with a value exceeding 4½ millions to the end of 1898. The northern table-land is rich in tin, the value of ingots exported in 1896 exceeding £152,000. The total value of the product of tin since the mines were opened in 1872 has been £6,292,056. It is, however, in the king of minerals, coal, that we have the most important mining industry of New South Wales. In 1863, little more than 300 tons were raised; in 1884, the output was about 2¾ million tons; up to the end of 1898, the whole quantity raised in the colony had reached nearly 85 million tons, valued at about 34¼ millions sterling. The mineral is of excellent quality for smelting, gas, household, and steam purposes, and the exports to San Francisco, New Zealand, India, eastern Asia, South Australia, and Tasmania amounted, in 1893, to 1,840,000 tons of coal and coke, worth £820,000, in addition to the large amount consumed in the colony. Nearly the whole of the coast region is a vast coal-field, extending into and, in some points, beyond the Great Dividing Range, the chief seats of the industry being in the lower valley of the Hunter river, and in the Illawarra district, south of Sydney. In 1898 there were 91 coal-mines in the colony, employing 10,250 men, and the quantity raised in that year exceeded 4,706,000 tons, worth nearly £1,272,000. The capabilities of New South Wales in coal-production may be estimated from the facts that the known coal-area exceeds 24,000 square miles, while Great Britain, with her enormous output, has only about 4000 square miles of coal-fields.

As might be expected from the abundance of natural products, and the sparse population compared with the territorial size of the country, New South Wales has, at present, no high place among manufacturing regions. There are, however, many important industries of this class, the chief of which are concerned with the preparation of foods and drinks; metal-works and machinery; building materials; clothing and textile fabrics; paper, printing, and bookbinding; vehicles, harness, and saddlery; and the treating of raw pastoral products. The first-mentioned of these includes the manufacture of flour, malt, biscuits, and maizena from the various kinds of grain; the preparation of preserved meats; wine-making, and brewing. The returns of 1898 show the existence of 2839 factories or works, employing nearly 53,000 hands, with an invested capital of nearly 18 millions. In connection with the toilers in this and other industries, it is satisfactory to note the deposits in the hundreds of saving-banks, including those under government control. In 1898, these sums amounted to about 9½ millions, belonging to about 242,360 depositors, an average of nearly £40 per head of these thrifty persons.

We deal next with the important subject of internal communications. Without giving figures as to the many thousands of miles of government-roads in the various forms of efficiency denoted by "metalled, gravelled, or ballasted", "formed and drained", and simply "cleared", we may state that here, as in Australasia generally, great attention has been paid to road-making. Under the Wakefield system, one-half the net proceeds of the sale and rental of the crown-lands was devoted to the construction of highways for traffic; and the country roads in our colonies on the Pacific are usually much better than those of most new countries, and especially than the rude tracks of the United States. Three main lines run north, west, and south from Sydney, and from these, minor roads branch off in all directions, covering the whole country with a net-work of highways, the formation of which required cutting through hills, filling up swamps, and the construction of bridges over rivers and creeks. The earliest coaches were strong carts drawn by one or two horses. Next came mail-coaches of the English fashion, and the great development brought by gold-discovery caused the introduction of long low vehicles like those used in Mexico and California. An enterprising American named

Cobb introduced carriages of this class into all parts of Australia and New Zealand, and "Cobb's coaches" still hold their own in districts not possessed of railway communication. The larger towns throughout Australasia are provided with vehicles for hire of the classes with which we are familiar in Great Britain. Sydney and the suburbs have many miles of Government tramways worked by steam motors, with one steep gradient served by a cable-tram.

Australia, as we have seen, is very deficient in navigable rivers as means of internal communication, and it is for this reason that the utmost energy has been displayed in furnishing the various colonies with good highways and with railways. Nearly the whole railway-system is in the hands of Government. In New South Wales, the main trunk-lines are the Great Northern, Great Western, and Great Southern. The first of these runs from Sydney, by Newcastle, to join the Queensland system, traversing a total distance of nearly 500 miles. The line taps the chief coal district, the agricultural valley of the Hunter, and the rich pastoral country of New England, in the north-east. The river Hawkesbury is crossed by the longest bridge in Australasia, 2896 feet long. After climbing the Liverpool ranges, the line enters the hilly New England, the highest point, near Ben Lomond, being 4500 feet above sea-level. The Great Western line crosses the Blue Mountains by two of the finest railway-works of the world, the Zigzag and the Great Zigzag, ascending the hilly region on the east, and descending it on the west. A great viaduct, in a long valley named Knapsack Gully, carries the rails where the trains run higher than the tops of the tallest trees. Then a steep and rocky incline, 700 feet in height, is crossed by a series of zigzags cut in the rock so that the trains run first to the left, rising upon a slight incline, and then reverse and proceed to the right; again to the left, and so on until the summit is reached. The line afterwards runs along the top of the ridge, gradually rising until, at 88 miles from Sydney, and 50 miles from the first zigzags at Lapstone Hill, it reaches the culminating point of the system, 3658 feet above sea-level. The work throughout, due to Mr. John Whitton, Engineer-in-chief of the New South Wales railways, as designer, and to Mr. Patrick Higgins, as contractor, was one of great boldness and skill. At one point, where a great rocky mass, above a tunnel already bored, seemed likely to crush downwards

upon the excavation, the whole dangerous mass was split in pieces by the explosion of 3½ tons of gunpowder placed at intervals in the tunnel, and fired by Lady Belmore, the Governor's wife, through wires connected with a galvanic battery. The operation of firing the mines was made a public spectacle. With a dull and rumbling sound the rock heaved slowly upward, and then settled back into its place, covered with rolling clouds of dust and smoke, and broken into masses which workmen could remove, leaving a clear course for laying the rails. The descent from the Blue Mountains to the Lithgow Valley involved the construction of zigzags to a greater extent than on the eastern side. The total excavations caused the removal of over three million cubic yards of material, of which nearly 1,800,000 were solid rock, and the cost of the whole work exceeded £800,000. The carriages of the railways are usually on the American principle, and sleeping-cars are attached to long-distance trains. When the Western line has crossed the Blue Mountains, it proceeds by way of Bathurst and Dubbo to Bourke, 503 miles from Sydney. The Great Southern runs from the capital, by Goulburn and Wagga Wagga, to Albury, 388 miles from Sydney, and there joins the Victorian line to Melbourne. There are many subsidiary lines and branches, and the whole extent of railway open for traffic in June, 1899, was 2707 miles, constructed and equipped at a cost of nearly 38 millions sterling. The inland telegraphs, as in all the Australasian colonies, have been constructed and are worked by the Government, and every important township is included in the system, the total length of telegraph and telephone open in 1899 being just over 13,240 miles. The postal system is well organized, with penny postage, for half-ounce letters, in the town; 2*d.* for the same weight within the colony or Australasia; and 2½*d.* to the United Kingdom, British Colonies, and "Postal Union" countries.

The intercolonial trade of New South Wales includes the import of bananas and of copra, or dried and broken cocoa-nut kernel for the extraction of oil, from Fiji; sugar from Queensland; potatoes from New Zealand; fruit and hops from Tasmania; flour and manufactured goods from Victoria; wheat and flour from South Australia. In 1898, a year showing a considerable revival in trade from the three previous years, the total value of imports was about 24½ millions sterling; of this amount articles worth over 7¾ millions,

mainly in bullion and coin, iron and textile manufactures, came from the British Isles, the rest of the foreign trade consisting of tea and silk from China, rice and coffee from India and the Malay Islands, sugar from Mauritius, tobacco, kerosene, hardware and various manufactures from the United States. In the same year, the total value of exports, exceeding all previous years in the colony's history, was nearly 28 millions sterling, of which above 7¾ millions' worth of goods went to the United Kingdom. The export of hides, skins, and leather, with some decrease in later years, nearly reached £550,000; of tallow, with a less than halved value compared with a previous year, the worth exceeded £506,000; the chief article of export, wool, reached nearly 9½ millions, a value only exceeded in few previous years. The British Isles took, in 1898, about 153 millions of pounds weight of wool, worth nearly 5½ millions, out of the total export of 281 million pounds weight; the chief other British imports were tin, silver ore, tallow, and leather. Nearly 7 million tons of shipping entered and cleared from the colony's ports in 1898, exclusive of the coasting trade; of this vast amount British vessels had nearly 6 millions of tons. It is worth while to observe that less than one-fifth of the tonnage consisted of sailing-vessels, a proportion which holds in the case of our colonies and foreign countries in general, while in some cases steam-tonnage is even far more predominant. It is needless to give details concerning the great lines of ocean steamers running between Sydney and all the important commercial countries on the globe—the P. and O., Orient, and other large companies in Great Britain, among which the Cunard line communicate by way of New York and San Francisco; the Messageries Maritimes and others of less note. Large and powerful steamers run between Sydney and Melbourne, Brisbane, New Zealand, Fiji, Tasmania, the United States, and southern and eastern Asia; submarine cables also connect Australia with every part of the civilized world by various routes direct and indirect.

In regard to financial affairs, we find that the colony, for the year ending June 30th, 1899, had a gross public revenue a little exceeding 9¾ millions. Of this amount nearly one-half was derived from the "services". which include railways, tramways, post, and telegraphs. Excise, stamp-duties, and licenses afforded 1¼ millions; a large amount comes from the customs-duties

which, in the above year, afforded £1,259,237. The tariffs include import-duties of 10 to 15 per cent of value on certain yarns, woven fabrics, and apparel in linen, silk, wool, and fur; of 10*s.* per ton on pig-iron, 40*s.* per ton on bars, sheets, and corrugated iron; 30*s.* per ton on wire-netting, and 40*s.* per ton on various forms of iron manufactures. Earthenware, porcelain, glass, glassware, leather and leathern goods pay from 10 to 15 per cent *ad valorem*; candles are mulcted in 15*s.* per cwt.; soap, and articles of food and drink, except tea and raw coffee, are also taxed; books are free, with writing and printing paper; brown and wrapping paper pay 3*s.* per cwt., and other paper, 10 per cent. The land-revenue for 1899 was above two millions sterling. The expenditure for 1898–99 (12 months) amounted to £9,734,200, a sum devoted chiefly to public works and services of various kinds, railways and tramways, interest on debt, public instruction, post and telegraphs. The public debt, in 1899, was over 63¾ millions, bearing interest, on an average, of nearly 3¾ per cent. Fully 80 per cent of the debt has been incurred for the construction and provision of railways, tramways, telegraphs, water-supply, sewerage, docks and wharves, with a net return of about 3 per cent on the cost. At the close of 1898, the total wealth of the colony, public and private, was estimated at nearly 550 millions sterling. The subject of defence is remitted to later pages dealing with the Australasian colonies as a whole.

SYDNEY, the seat of government for New South Wales, and the greatest commercial place in Australasia, is the oldest city in that part of the world, the only one which has entered upon the second century of its history under European civilization. The city proper lies on the south shore of Port Jackson, at a distance of about four miles from the entrance; the suburbs, some of which are separate municipalities, extend for several miles to the south, south-west, and east, and are partly found on the opposite north shore of Port Jackson. The whole contain a population of about 426,000 The most important of the many bays, with their miles of water-frontage and wharves, are Sydney Cove, or Circular Quay, used by the vessels of the P. and O., Orient, and other great steamship companies, and Darling Harbour. The commercial supremacy of the place is indicated by the fact that, in 1890, 5666 vessels, with an aggregate of nearly 4¼ millions tonnage, entered or left the port. Some of the

main streets, paved with wooden blocks and cubes, are very fine. The most spacious and handsome public buildings are the Post-Office; the noble Town Hall, containing the largest organ in the world; the University, the finest building in Australasia, standing on a commanding height, in the centre of a "domain" of about 150 acres, with a chief façade 500 feet in length, and with its Great Hall exceeded in size by only two in the British Isles; the metropolitan cathedral of St. Andrew, in the later Perpendicular style; and the Roman Catholic Cathedral of St. Mary. There is an old quarter of the town, partly inhabited by Chinese; this has irregular, narrow streets. The inconvenience of the hasty original plan is still found in the inferior access to the harbour frontage, and in the steepness of all the roadways leading from the water's edge. There is now an excellent drainage system to a distant outfall in the sea outside Port Jackson. Water is brought, by works that cost two millions sterling, from a distance of 60 miles in the mountain gorges. One of the finest residential roadways, equal in its frontage to any in the world, is Macquarie Street, close to the commercial centre of Sydney, and overlooking the Domain, with the Parliament Houses, Mint, and Government House, beyond which are seen the harbour and the fleet of outgoing and incoming vessels, while the sea-breeze comes up fresh and cool. The suburban extension is such that there are continuous townships to Parramatta, 14 miles away, thickly settled for 8 miles, as far as Homebush. The people of the capital are greatly favoured in having at command a variety of climate by the rapid rise of the railways leaving the city. The south coast line attains, 20 miles away, an elevation of 720 feet, and the line running northwards to Newcastle rises nearly 600 feet in about the same distance.

Among the notable sights of Sydney for the British visitor are the markets in Christmas week, with the people dressed in light summer costume, and the stalls heaped with summer produce of fruit and flowers. The gay-coloured scarves and handkerchiefs of the fancy stalls are displayed by vendors catering for the tastes of a prosperous people who have departed from old-world, cold-clime notions under the influence of a semi-tropical sky. The effect of new conditions of life is shown at once in dress, appearance, and manners. The sons and grandsons of the earlier

generation have been affected by climate in physique, physiognomy, and tastes, and in the youths from the farms and market-gardens near the capital we see a tall, thin, sunburnt race, often dark-eyed and dark-haired, matching well in hue with their oranges, melons, and grapes, and showing their fondness for rich colours in bright-blue or green veils around their soft felt hats, in the crimson sashes twisted about their waists, and in gorgeous cravats. The mile-long stream of people in the crowded promenade of George Street on Saturday night shows, among types chiefly Australian, a mixture of nationalities in German settlers, French and Italian vine-growers, and Asiatics from the ships alongside the quay at the end of the street, including dark-hued Arab stokers from Aden, in frocks of dingy blue, red scarves, and parti-coloured caps; shiny-brown natives of Madras and Bombay, gaily dressed in crimson, blue, and gold, selling carved and polished sticks, silver filigree and ivory work, and rich-coloured scarves and kerchiefs from Eastern looms; Chinamen and black boys from North Queensland complete the picture. Among the many public recreation grounds of Sydney, the Botanic Gardens, touching the shore of Farm Cove, hold the highest place for beauty due to artistic skill and abundant growth of trees, shrubs, and flowers of various climes. Hyde Park and Moore Park, the latter having a good zoological collection, are other delightful resorts. In 1887, the Centennial Park was opened, covering an area of 780 acres, and making the total area of the ground reserved for public use amount to over 1500 acres. The streets and wharves are well lit with gas and electricity, and public amusement, instruction, and recreation find ample resources in theatres, a free library, an art gallery, a museum, and other institutions, while philanthropy displays her orphan and other asylums, and many other charitable and benevolent institutions. The grand cricket-ground forms part of an inclosed area of 12 acres, and has seats for 5000 people, and standing room for 20,000 more. Bicycle contests and athletic sports of all kinds are held within the same inclosure, and there are tennis-courts both grassed and asphalted. The Agricultural Society have in this quarter of the city stalls for the display of stock, and there is a good circular track for trotting matches. The Randwick race-course, to the south of the town, has a fine grand-stand, and all the needful appliances

for first-class meetings. Outside Port Jackson, on the open Pacific, at Bondi, Coogee, and Botany Bays, are beaches reserved for public use as bathing-places and picnic-grounds. We must not forget the National Park, the northern boundary of which lies about 15 miles south of Sydney. This reserve of 36,300 acres lies on the south side of the spacious sea-inlet called Port Hacking, and includes an infinite variety of charms in its 56 square miles of space. There are broad plateaus on the heights for military camps and manœuvres; little glens and grassy plots by the sea; fine forest growth and luxuriant semi-tropical plants on the upper reaches of the Hacking river.

Newcastle, lying on the coast to the south of the estuary of the Hunter river, is the prosperous centre of a great coal-mining district where we find, among the smaller towns, the familiar names of Wallsend and Stockton. The place has a population of about 15,000 in its own municipal area, but adjoining towns double this number. The district has also shipbuilding, lime-burning, steam-sawing, copper-smelting, engineering works, soap-factories, wool-washing, and several other industries. As a port, the city of Newcastle ranks next to Sydney, annually shipping over two million tons of coal, and sending cargoes of wool, from the northern districts, direct to Europe. As a proof of the rich variety of resources in New South Wales, we may mention that the alluvial soil on the flats bordering the Hunter estuary, near Maitland, about 20 miles from Newcastle, produces yearly five or six crops of lucerne, and often fetches, in the land-market, £100 per acre. *Maitland, East* and *West*, practically form one town of about 12,000 inhabitants. Up the valley of the Hunter and its tributary the Paterson are many thriving settlements and little towns, with crops of wheat, maize, tobacco, and grapes, and a large pastoral industry. *Armidale*, the cathedral town of the Anglican bishop of the north, and of a Roman Catholic prelate, lies at the height of 3300 feet above the sea, with a population of over 10,000 in the city and district. The climate and soil are such as to furnish the finest European fruits, and the adjacent mountains abound in wild and picturesque scenes. *Grafton*, the chief town of the north, with about 6000 people, lies on the Clarence river, about 45 miles from the sea, in a sugar-growing district, with prosperous squatters to the west.

Returning to the south we find *Parramatta*, the oldest settlement save Sydney, lying at the head of that farthest-reaching arm of Port Jackson which is called the Parramatta River. With the adjacent town of *Granville*, the junction where the main line of railway diverges to the south and west, the population exceeds 15,000. The place has an old-fashioned air, and possesses, in the old King's School, an episcopal institution founded in 1832, one of the best schools in the colony, pupils of which have in many cases taken the highest rank in the social, professional, and political life of Australia. The park is beautiful with pines grown from cones that came from Norfolk Island, Italy, California, Norway, and Scotland, and with English oaks and willows, grown from acorns and slips taken out in 1800. *Windsor*, the oldest country-town next to Parramatta, has, for Australia, a venerable air in its ivy-covered brick walls. In the western district, *Mudgee*, lying amongst fine grazing land, shows us the beginning of true bush life. The place was settled above sixty years ago, and, having a climate and soil like those of the eastern valleys of the Himalayas—the cradle of the merino race of sheep—the table-lands of Spain, and the highlands of Algiers, it is noted for the fine breed of merinos dear to Australian flock-masters. The sheep are small, but the fleece is dense and the staple fine, and is purchased for the most delicate fabrics of French looms, sometimes at the price of 4*s*. per pound.

Bathurst, the capital of the west, on the banks of the Macquarie river, has above 10,000 inhabitants. The place and district were once famous for gold-fields now little worked. There are some fine public buildings in the Anglican and Roman Catholic cathedrals, and the hospital, and good educational establishments in All Saints' Grammar School, the Roman Catholic College of St. Stanislaus, the public elementary school, and the school of arts. The climate, at 2300 feet above sea-level, is cool and agreeable. *Orange*, lying high up among grassy hills, overlooked by mountains which are snow-capped for several months of the year, has a very English look in its farms and vegetation. The temperate clime does not permit the growth of the magnolias and oleanders of Sydney gardens, but there are hawthorn hedges, and currants and gooseberries come to perfection. Thence, going north-west by rail, we come to *Wellington*, *Dubbo*, and other pleasant little

towns in agricultural and pastoral country, and so out upon wide plains where salt-bush abounds, with the beautiful myall tree, having willow-like pendent boughs, a dark trunk, leaves of silver olive hue, and an odour, from broken branches, sweet as violets or new-mown hay. Far away again to the north-west the railway brings the traveller to *Bourke*, on the Darling river, a town of historic fame in the pastoral life of Australia, displaying still the old type of squatters, drovers, shepherds, and stockmen. The place lies on the left or southern bank of the river, in a dead level stretching away for many miles. The large buildings—churches, hospitals, schools, banks, and chief hotels—are of brick; the shops and private houses are of galvanized iron or of wood. The unmetalled roads vary in covering between fine black dust and deep sticky mud. There is a large traffic, by river and rail, in live stock for Sydney, and in goods for the supply of a vast outlying region.

South from Sydney, on the railway to Goulburn, lies *Liverpool*, with the best paper-mill in Australia; Moore College, a training institution for ministers of the Anglican Church; and a large benevolent asylum for old men—worn-out sheep-shearers, cattle-drovers, and early explorers of the vast continent. *Picton*, 53 miles from the capital, at an elevation of over 500 feet, is a favourite health resort, with a hospital for consumptive patients. The line rises sharply to the table-land, through long, deep cuttings, until, near Berrima, a great penal station for prisoners on the silent system, it reaches 2300 feet above sea-level. Near Moss Vale, a few miles further on, are the fine Fitzroy Falls, with three chief and several smaller cascades, the first cataract, in rainy seasons, showing a large volume of water flowing over a bluff at the head of a gorge, half a mile wide, 1000 feet in depth, and many miles in length. The district near the falls is a public reserve for the benefit of tourists, and is in charge of a care-taker. A few miles away from Moss Vale is the Governor's summer residence, in a region now becoming known for dairy-farming, whereby, at one place, a fine herd of Ayrshire cows supply daily milk to Sydney. The well-built town of *Goulburn*, with about 12,000 people, has fine Anglican and Roman Catholic cathedrals, and handsome churches of the Presbyterians, Wesleyans, and Primitive Methodists. It lies about 2000 feet above sea-level, in a district

noted for the breeding of excellent horses, cattle, and merino sheep. Lakes George and Bathurst, and a chain of ponds, afford an ample water supply, and there are important manufactures—tanning, leather-work, brewing, flour-mills—in the city. From Goulburn the railway passes west and south to the frontier of Victoria at *Albury*, on the Murray, near which is a growth of grapes yearly producing 60,000 gallons of wine.

CHAPTER VI.

VICTORIA.

HISTORY TO 1898: GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early settlement of the colony—Enterprise of the Brothers Henty—The founder of Melbourne—Its small beginnings—A measure of self-government granted—The colony separated from New South Wales—Discovery of gold—Vast increase of the population—Insurrection among the gold-diggers—A new constitution established—Political conflicts—A tariff-bill passed—Education Act—Renewed contests between the Legislative Assembly and the Council—The Melbourne Exhibitions of 1880 and 1888—Constitutional changes—Progress of the colony—Its boundaries, area, and population—Political divisions—Religion—Features of the coast-line—Port Phillip—The mountain-system—Scenery—Lakes—Surface of the land—Rivers—Climate—Pastoral and agricultural industries—Cereal and other crops—Importance of the grape-culture—Extensive irrigation work—Mildura town—Growth of fruit and vegetables—Mineral wealth—Manufactures—Trade—Internal communication—Railways—Telegraph and postal services—Ecclesiastical affairs—Schools and libraries—Education—Courts of justice—Revenue—Customs-duties—Public debt—Constitution of the Victorian parliament—Melbourne, the capital, and its suburbs, described—Geelong, Ballarat, Mount Macedon, Bendigo, and other towns.

In February, 1802, Lieutenant Murray, commanding the war-brig *Lady Nelson*, entered Port Phillip, and was charmed with the scenery of that fine harbour. He assumed formal possession of the country for the British sovereign, and soon sailed away. A few weeks later, Flinders sailed between the Heads into the bay, and on his return to Sydney made such a report to Governor King that he wrote home urging the Duke of Portland to have a settlement made on the shore of Port Phillip, mainly to anticipate the French, who were known to be hankering after possessions in that quarter. Two officials were sent out from Sydney to report, and on January 30th, 1803, they discovered and entered the river Yarra Yarra. The home-government now resolved to form a settlement, and in

October of the same year two ships, with about 300 male convicts, a few women, some free settlers, and 50 officers and men of the Royal Marines, under Lieutenant-Governor Collins, entered Port Phillip. He reported against the country as unsuitable for a colonial establishment, and Lord Hobart, the Secretary of State in charge of the colonies, transferred the expedition to Van Diemen's Land. For twenty years thenceforward, the interior of the country remained unknown to white men. At last, in October, 1824, Mr. Hamilton Hume, starting under the auspices of Sir Thomas Brisbane, Governor of New South Wales, made his way, as we have seen, overland across the Murray river, and on December 17th reached the shore near the site of Geelong. The four brothers Edward, Stephen, Francis and John Henty were the first who made a permanent settlement in the region which was to become the famous colony Victoria. These enterprising sons of Mr. Thomas Henty, a Sussex farmer and banker who emigrated to Van Diemen's Land, settled on Portland Bay in and after November, 1834. It was Edward Henty who led the way from the country afterwards called Tasmania; who put together the first plough that ever broke Victorian soil, and welded with his own hands the chains by which it was drawn. There was no house within five hundred miles of his abode, and he had some difficulty at first in dealing with the wild blacks of the region. Farm-servants, live stock, agricultural implements, and stores were conveyed from Launceston, in Van Diemen's Land, and a great pastoral enterprise was afterwards started with merino sheep brought from England. The sum of £10,000 was expended by the Hentys in erecting farm-buildings, and a new colony was fairly launched on its career, remaining for many years the "Port Phillip District" of New South Wales. A native of London, John Pascoe Fawkner, afterwards a member of the first Legislative Council of the colony, arrived from Launceston in October, 1835, and became the real founder of Melbourne in the buildings erected on the north side of the Yarra, where he started a farm with 500 sheep and 50 cattle. In the following year, at the request of the settlers, a resident magistrate was sent from Sydney to Port Phillip, as the place was beginning to grow in population and wealth. At the close of 1836, there were 186 males and 38 females; Wesleyan ministers and missionaries started religious services;

a blacksmith's forge was set up, land was tilled, and in March, 1837, just before Queen Victoria came to the throne, the first flock of sheep brought overland arrived from New South Wales. Ground for a regular town was then surveyed, and Sir Richard Bourke, the Governor at Sydney, came thence to inspect the condition of affairs. The city of Melbourne had fairly begun its course, with a name derived from that of the British premier. Williamstown was also laid out, and Geelong, a designation corrupted from a native name. Before the close of 1837, the *James Watt*, the first steamer that ever entered Hobson's Bay, came in from Sydney, and an overland mail, carried on horseback by a daring stock-rider, John Bourke, was instituted between Sydney and Melbourne.

In these early days, bushrangers or escaped convicts gave trouble, and in April, 1838, a large body of natives slew eight out of a party of fifteen Europeans in charge of cattle crossing the country. Newspapers, banks, and the first post-office, were started, and a mail-cart began to run between Melbourne and Geelong. The first Roman Catholic priest and the first Presbyterian minister arrived; the Melbourne Club was opened, a Commissioner of Crown Lands was appointed, and 200 immigrants came by sea from Sydney. In October, 1839, Mr. C. J. Latrobe appeared on the scene as "Superintendent of the Port Phillip District", and a resident judge was appointed. By the end of 1840, villages had arisen along the road from Melbourne towards Sydney, and the formation of police-stations rendered the route fairly safe. In 1842, the Port Phillip people received a measure of self-government in being empowered by Act to send representatives to the Legislative Council of New South Wales, and Melbourne, at the same time, was made a municipal town. As early as 1844, the inhabitants of the new colony were aiming at separation from New South Wales, but the motion to that effect was decisively rejected in the Council at Sydney, one of its main supporters being Mr. Robert Lowe, afterwards Viscount Sherbrooke, who was fast rising into eminence, as an emigrant from England after a brilliant career at Oxford University. The Port Phillip colonists had not, however, long to wait before their object was attained. The Queen first allowed the Port Phillip District to be styled "Victoria", and in August, 1850, an Act of Parliament made it a separate colony, with Mr. Latrobe as the first Governor.

A memorable time was close at hand. The first man who discovered gold in the colony was Mr. W. Campbell, who came on some of the metal, near Clunes, in March, 1850, but suppressed the fact until July, 1851, when William Esmond, a miner returned from California, discovered gold in the same district. Thousands of men were soon at work around Clunes and Ballarat, and on the creeks in the valley of the river Loddon, in the north-central part of the colony. Civil servants, police, domestics, even jail-warders, vanished from their scenes of duty; society was, for the time, dissolved. Before the close of the year, more than 10 tons of gold, worth about 1¼ millions sterling, had been obtained from the Victorian gold-fields. The colony at once entered on a new phase of existence, and most rapid progress was made. Within six months of the known discovery of gold, in July, 1851, the population had been increased by 15,000 immigrants; in 1852, nearly 100,000 were added to the number, and in 1852–55, about a quarter of a million. By the end of 1860, gold worth nearly 100 millions had been found, and the population of Victoria exceeded half a million.

In June, 1854, Sir Charles Hotham reached Melbourne as successor to Mr. Latrobe. The new representative of the Crown was a distinguished naval officer who had also served on various diplomatic missions. With no special ability for his work in Victoria, he found serious trouble awaiting him in the office of Governor. The Legislative Council, composed of 10 nominated and 20 elected members, had imposed on gold-diggers a license-fee of 30*s.* per month. The license could not be transferred, and could only be used within half a mile of the police-camp where it was issued. The police-force at the diggings included many rash young men, and great irritation was caused by their vexatious and tyrannical behaviour towards the miners. An agitation arose amongst the diggers at Bendigo, in the Loddon district, in 1853, and the stir soon spread to other gold-fields. The Government, instead of adopting a conciliatory attitude, issued an order for still harsher methods to be employed in hunting down unlicensed diggers, and, after various provocations to the miners, causing serious disorder, it became needful to despatch some infantry of the 40th Regiment from Melbourne to Ballarat. The soldiers arrived there on November 28th, and the diggers, after attacking them with volleys of stones, followed them to their camp, whence a strong sortie of police drove

off the rioters. Two days later, a new "digger-hunt" was organized by the authorities, and the troops turned out to support the police. A regular battle ensued when the insurgents stockaded themselves at Eureka Creek, near Ballarat, under the command of an emigrant named Peter Lalor, son of an Irish M.P. Captain Thomas, in command of the soldiers, and Captain Pasley, in charge of the police, attacked the fortified position at daybreak on December 4th, with about 300 men, of whom one-third were mounted infantry and police. The defenders of the stockade were inferior in number, and many of them were but imperfectly armed. In an engagement which lasted for about half an hour, Captain Wise, of the 40th Regiment, was mortally, and Lieutenant Paul, of the 12th Regiment, severely wounded; the troops had 6 men killed and a dozen disabled. The entrenchments were finally carried at the point of the bayonet, when it was found that Lalor was lying on the ground severely wounded. He escaped with the loss of his left arm, and, afterwards evading the police, he became, when matters had quieted down, representative for Ballarat in the Legislative Council, and rose, in later days, to the position of Speaker in the Legislative Assembly of Victoria. Nearly 30 of the insurgents were killed, many were wounded, and 125 prisoners were taken. When reinforcements arrived from Melbourne, martial law was proclaimed in the Ballarat district; but there was a strong display of public feeling in favour of the rioters, and the jury acquitted the thirteen men who were put on trial for high treason at Melbourne. An amnesty was then granted by the Crown authorities, and all trouble was ended by changes in the licensing-law. This was the only instance of rebellion or insurrection throughout Australian history.

At the close of 1855, Sir Charles Hotham died, just after the proclamation of a new constitution for Victoria, under an Act of the Imperial Parliament. Responsible government, with two elective chambers, was now established. It was not till December, 1856, that Sir Henry Barkley arrived as successor to Hotham. The new Governor was a man of Scottish origin, being only son of a native of Ross-shire, who became an eminent merchant in London. Sir Henry had sat for some years in the British Parliament as a supporter of Sir Robert Peel, and had gained colonial experience as Governor of British Guiana and of Jamaica. In his new post he acquired popularity and public esteem. During

his seven years' tenure of office, manhood suffrage and vote by ballot were introduced, and the property qualification for members was abolished. State aid to religion came to an end, and large areas of land were thrown open, in amounts not exceeding one square mile, or 640 acres for each person, to be occupied by colonists or emigrants as agricultural or pastoral farmers. From 1863 to 1866 the Governorship was held by Sir Charles Darling, a nephew of the former ruler of New South Wales, under whom he served for some years as secretary. He had passed many years in the West Indies as holder of various appointments, including the Governorship of Jamaica. His term of office in Victoria was a much-troubled time. The Legislative Assembly, and a majority of the voters, were in favour of a protective fiscal policy: a large and influential minority, and the Legislative Council, supported freedom of trade. As a special instance of Parliamentary conflicts in our Australasian colonies, we may give some particulars of what occurred in Victoria at this time. A Bill imposing protection duties at the custom-house was passed by the Lower House or Assembly, and was rejected by the Upper House or Council. In imitation of tactics adopted by a party in the British House of Commons under William the Third, the Lower House in Victoria "tacked" their protection bill on to the Appropriation Bill (Supply), and the Council again threw out the measure. The Government then proceeded to collect the protective customs duties on the sole authority of the Legislative Assembly, and the Executive Council, or Ministry, with the approval of Sir Charles Darling, borrowed money for the public service from one of the banks. The Supreme Court declared the collection of customs-duties, on the Assembly's sole resolution, to be illegal, and in the next session the Tariff Bill, or measure for protective duties, was again passed by the Assembly and thrown out by the Council or Upper House. After a dissolution, the new Assembly contained 58 "Protectionists" and 20 "Free-traders". The Tariff Bill, carried a third time, was a third time rejected. The struggle continued; the Ministry resigned; a new Ministry came into office; the salaries and wages of all persons in government employ were ten weeks in arrear. At last, the Legislative Council and the Assembly came to terms, and the Tariff Bill, in a modified form, was passed.

Sir Charles was recalled to England for having failed to be neutral in the constitutional dispute, and was succeeded, in August, 1866, by Viscount Canterbury, a title which he inherited, on his brother's death, three years later, being theretofore known as Sir J. H. T. Manners-Sutton.

The new Governor, second son of the first Viscount Canterbury, Speaker of the House of Commons from 1817 to 1834, had been Under-Secretary for the Home Department, under Sir Robert Peel, from 1841 to 1846, and had then acquired colonial experience as Lieut.-Governor of New Brunswick and Governor of Trinidad. During his seven years' term of office, from 1866 to 1873, Lord Canterbury showed much ability and tact. There was a lull in party warfare after the struggle which had established the supremacy of the Legislative Assembly in financial affairs, and the colony prospered in the agricultural, pastoral, and manufacturing industries, aided by the development of railways. In 1872, the important Education Act was passed, abolishing the previous systems, both national and denominational, and establishing free, secular, and compulsory instruction up to a certain standard. The number of schools and teachers, and the amount of average attendance of children, were increased, in the course of twelve years, by about 75 per cent. Another question had been coming to the front, that concerning the payment of members, a matter desired by the working-men of the colony, who wished to see themselves represented in parliament by a fair number of men of their own class. A new contest arose between the two Houses about the time when Lord Canterbury, in 1873, was succeeded in office by Sir George F. Bowen, an Irish gentleman who, after a distinguished career at Oxford, became in succession President of Corfu University, Chief-Secretary of the Ionian Islands, Governor of Queensland, and Governor of New Zealand. The members of the Legislative Assembly had been paid for three years, when the Legislative Council made a difficulty. There were no funds for the payment of public servants, as the Council set aside the Appropriation Bill to which the ministry "tacked" the proposal for paying the members, instead of passing a special bill. In January, 1878, the *Gazette* announced the dismissal of all heads of departments, county-court judges, mines' courts judges, police-magistrates, insolvency-courts' judges, and other

officials. A "panic" arose from this extreme proceeding of the Executive or Ministry, and business was greatly injured. The Council then passed a separate bill for paying members, and the Appropriation Bill, for "supplies" of public money to meet the expenses of government, and the crisis, in that respect, came to an end. The Assembly then attacked the Council, or Upper House, by a measure depriving that body of most of its political powers. The bill was thrown out, and an appeal was made to the Colonial Office at home. The Secretary of State declined to interfere, and practically told the colonials of Victoria to settle their own constitutional contests.

Matters then became comparatively quiet, in prospect of the coming Exhibition. There had been local exhibitions at Melbourne in 1854 and 1861, and competitive intercolonial shows in 1866, 1872, and 1875. In 1879, Sir George Bowen was succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby, who had sat for some years in the House of Commons, and had ruled in colonies as Lieut.-Governor of Nova Scotia, and as Governor, first of Queensland, and then of New Zealand. A quarter of a million sterling was expended on erecting and equipping the fine cruciform building, in the Carlton Gardens, for the Melbourne International Exhibition, opened on October 1st, 1880, in the spring-time of the Australian year. The building, 500 feet in length, has a dome 220 feet high, and two towers, each of 100 feet; the east and west sides are each 460 feet long. The dome rises above the point where the naves and transepts intersect. An organ, made by a local builder, was constructed at a cost of £5000. The Sydney Exhibition of 1879 had first fairly revealed the Australian colonies, their importance, prosperity, and resources, to most of the people of Europe, and had given a prospect of the great new markets opening beyond the seas for European manufactures and luxuries. All the chief European nations were represented in the grand display of goods, with the United States, India, China, Japan, and all the Australasian colonies. Statuary, pictures, and water-colours from the chief European centres of art were also largely shown. The native-born population of the colony had a great revelation made to them in the display of European products, and much improvement of colonial taste came in household furniture and decoration. Local faculties were stimulated, and new British and foreign houses

of business were opened in Melbourne for the supply of new colonial demands of refinement and luxury. The Exhibition remained open for seven months, until May, 1881, and was visited by 1,310,000 people. The main building was then consigned to the care of trustees for purposes of popular instruction and recreation. We may here note that seven years later, in 1888, a much larger show than the former one included a fine collection of pictures, a grand display of machinery, educational courts, and excellent orchestral music.

In 1881, an important constitutional change was made in the raising of the number of the Legislative Council, or Upper House, from thirty to forty-two members, with a lower property qualification, a briefer tenure of office, and a wider electoral basis. The Council, after this democratic innovation, was to be elected by all persons having £10 annual freehold value, or £25 annual leasehold. Great public measures were also passed for a Harbour Trust, and for the vesting of all railway administration in the hands of three Commissioners. The chairman, Mr. Speight, a man of great ability and experience on the staff of the Midland Railway, was procured from England. Since that time, the railway-lines have been a financial success, affording a small surplus towards general revenue, after meeting interest on the loans for construction, and defraying all the working expenses. All the public services of the colony have now been placed in the hands of non-political Commissioners, so as to remove patronage out of the power of ministries. In July, 1884, Sir Henry Brougham Loch, a Scottish gentleman of wide experience as a military officer in India and elsewhere; as a diplomatist in China and Japan; in the Home Department in London; and as Governor of the Isle of Man, became the Governor of this colony in succession to Lord Normanby. His services in the colony, until his retirement nearly five years later, were highly appreciated by those whom he ruled. In 1886, fifty years after the foundation of the colony, the population numbered one million, and Melbourne and the suburbs contained about 300,000 inhabitants. In 1889, the Earl of Hopetoun, a Scottish noble of superior gifts of manner and tact, who had been a lord-in-waiting to the Queen, and Lord High Commissioner to the Church of Scotland, entered on a five years' tenure of office as Governor, and won much popularity during

that period. His successor was Lord Brassey, a nobleman of vast wealth, who sat for many years in the House of Commons, and has displayed much ability and intelligence in naval and maritime matters as a Civil Lord of the Admiralty, as Secretary to the Admiralty, as a writer on naval and commercial subjects, and as a veteran yachtsman on board his famous *Sunbeam*, the vessel which conveyed him to his new sphere of duty in the (European) summer of 1895.

The recent history of the colony involves some events of a disastrous character. At the close of November, 1897, a cyclone, described as "a terrific dust-storm", swept over the Wimmera district, in the north-west, wrecking several towns, with the destruction of many churches and prominent buildings. On November 21st, the worst conflagration that ever occurred in Melbourne, the most destructive, indeed, ever known in any Australian town, destroyed property worth about a million sterling.

This trouble was quickly followed by another of the same class, partly due to the intense heat of the Victorian summer of 1897–98, which will be remembered as having partially disabled the British team of cricketers then visiting Australia. The country was in the condition when "bush-fires" are to be most dreaded, and during the week ending with January 15th, 1898, the beautiful south-eastern district called Gippsland, with large tracts of range and forest, became a prey. The greatest destruction of property occurred among the holdings along the Great Southern Railway and the Gippsland line and its branches, though bush-fires also raged in other parts of the colony along the Dividing Range. In Gippsland, a prosperous dairying-district became an appalling scene of desolation, misery, and want, swept clean of all except tall, gaunt tree-trunks, charred from root to crown, and the frizzled-up bodies of horses, cows, pigs, and poultry; of wallabies (the smaller kangaroos), bandicoots, and snakes. Burnt-out settlers sat despairing by their ruined homes, sometimes mourning over victims of the fire. Many heroic deeds of rescue were performed. One thrilling incident of the week was the passage of a train, empty of travellers, through a burning forest and over burning bridges, the engine-driver being resolved, at all risks, to make his way to his own and the guard's family, who were "on the other side of the danger". The flames were tearing like a tornado

across the line, leaping from tree to tree, and as the train passed through at full speed long tongues of fire, shooting up under the boiler and round the wheels, more than once caught the clothing of the driver and fireman. This terrible disaster had its origin in fires made for clearing the "bush" by settlers, and the smouldering embers, blazing up again under the action of the wind, brought ruin on a region made dry as tinder by the heat. Prompt measures for relief were taken by the Victorian government and by contributors to charitable funds.

Victoria, the smallest colony on the mainland of Australia, and the youngest, with the exception of Queensland, in independent political existence, is bounded on the north by New South Wales, on the south by the ocean and Bass Strait, and on the west by South Australia. With an extreme length, from east to west, of 420 miles, and a breadth varying from 150 to 250 miles, the country is almost equal in size to the island of Great Britain, having an area of 88,198 square miles, or nearly 56½ million acres. The population, as officially estimated on June 30th, 1899, was then 1,177,000, comprising about 596,000 males, and 579,000 females. The number of Chinese and aborigines, respectively 9377 and 565 by the census of 1891, has much decreased during the last ten years. In 1891, 97 per cent of the population were British subjects by birth; native Victorians formed 63 per cent; nearly 80,000 were natives of the other Australasian colonies; 163,000 of England and Wales; over 85,000 were Irish, and 50,660 were of Scottish origin. About three-fifths of the whole people live in towns. The colony is divided into 37 counties, greatly varying in size. For purposes of local administration there were, in 1898, about 60 urban and 150 rural municipalities, the former being "cities", "towns", or "boroughs", not exceeding 9 square miles in area, and the latter, called "shires", being portions of territory containing rateable property that will yield an annual revenue of £500. In religious profession, in 1891, about 75 per cent of the people were "Protestants", thus divided:—Episcopalians, 417,000; Presbyterians, 167,000; Methodists, 158,000; other Protestants, 94,600. The Roman Catholics formed 22 per cent of the whole population, or 248,600; the Jews were 6460, or ½ per cent of the whole; the remainder, of various creeds or none, numbered about 48,500, including a few thousand Buddhists and Confucians

of the pig-tailed race. There is no State Church, nor has there been any State assistance to any denomination since 1875.

The most remarkable features in the 600 miles of the Victorian coast-line are, taking them in order from east to west, the Ninety-Mile Beach; Corner Inlet; Wilson's Promontory; Western Port Bay, with Phillip and French Islands; Cape Schank; Port Phillip Bay; Cape Otway; Portland Bay; Cape Nelson; and Cape Bridgewater. The Ninety Mile Beach, really of much greater extent than its name indicates, is a narrow sand-bar, dividing the sea from a long line of narrow lagoons, stretching for 60 miles south-west. The entrance to Corner Inlet, an oblong expanse 15 miles long by 10 in breadth, is almost blocked by an archipelago of islands large and small. The grand Wilson's Promontory, the most southerly point of the continent of Australia, is the extremity of a granitic peninsula, 24 miles long by 9 in average width, covered by a mass of mountains with some peaks exceeding 2500 feet in height. The lighthouse on the headland rises about 400 feet above sea-level, warning the mariner from the perils of the storm-beaten rocky coast. After the coast-line has turned south-west, Waratah Bay displays its handsome crescent-shaped contour. Western Port is a very spacious double inlet, the outer one opening into a circular expanse half-filled by French Island. An iron-bound coast running due west leads to Cape Schank with its commanding lighthouse, whence the shore turns north-west in a long line of sand hummocks and dunes to the entrance of Port Phillip. This noble sheet of sea-water, 40 miles across, of roughly triangular shape, with an area of 700 square miles, has an entrance over 2¼ miles wide between the Heads at Point Nepean and Point Lonsdale. There are three minor bays within the great inlet—Hobson's Bay, on the north, the anchorage for Melbourne; Geelong Bay, a narrow western arm; and Corio Bay, the anchorage for Geelong, at the south-western end of Geelong Bay. The scenery has no special charm. On the western coast of Port Phillip there is a long low line of sandy beach, with a broken ridge of scrub. On the south and east the shore is more picturesque, with miniature bays and a fine background of wooded hills near Sorrento and Mornington. After the voyager has passed the Nine Mile Beach, a narrow white riband of sand, a succession of sea-side villages and towns, in-

cluding a Mentone and a Brighton, lead on northwards to St. Kilda, the fine suburb of Melbourne.

Running south-westwards from the entrance to Port Phillip, we find the coast, with a hundred or more "creeks" discharging their currents into the sea, assuming a grander character. A rugged landwall of 300 feet in height extends for 60 miles, with only two places where it is possible to land; this line of cliff is backed by hills reaching nearly 2000 feet, splendidly wooded with blue gums and beech, blackwood and tree-ferns, and much other timber and foliage of the finest Australian types. Cape Otway, an imposing headland 3 miles broad, has a lighthouse crowning its western extremity. Far westwards again, as we near the border of South Australia, after coasting along a little-explored region heavily wooded, of thick tangled undergrowth, deep ravines, and icy-cold springs, we reach the fine Portland Bay, having an entrance 30 miles across, and running 5 or 6 miles inland, while the coast curves round in a south-easterly sweep to the bold Point Danger. There it turns westwards again to rugged Cape Nelson, with its lighthouse on a huge platform of jutting rock. Cape Bridgewater, rising about 450 feet above sea-level, lies amongst coast scenery of romantic and savage grandeur in rocky masses, and caves hollowed out through the ages by the force of storm-driven seas from the icy south.

The mountain system consists chiefly of a portion of the Great Dividing Range already described, running mainly east and west in Victoria, with branches to north and south, and many outlying isolated hills. The highest ground is in the north-east, where many summits exceed 5000 feet, and the culminating point of the country, Mount Bogong, attains 6508. There are also many elevations of over 4000 feet. The scenery in summer, in the Mount Bogong part of the range, is rich in the variety and verdure of deep ravines and moist valleys, and has a winter grandeur in its many mountain-tops clothed with dazzling snow. Nothing can surpass the charms derived from perfection of form in the hills, and from changes of colour, according to the season, the hour of the day, and the cloud effects, in this most lonely and lovely mountain region. Among the hundred lakes of the colony, about twenty are salt or brackish, of which the largest, Lakes King, Victoria, and Wellington, lie inside the Ninety Mile Beach. Lake

Tyers, on the coast to the east of the above, is a much smaller and beautiful sheet of water with very irregular outline and lofty banks clothed with leafage to the top, and abounding in exquisite inlets and scenes having every kind of sylvan charm. Among the finest cascades are the Erskine Falls, on the river of the same name in the south-west, with rugged rocks, rich foliage, and a fine down-dashing volume of water. The Trentham Falls, near a mining settlement 2200 feet above the sea, about 65 miles north-west of Melbourne, are fine in winter-flood of the river Coliban, which then descends for 90 feet over a broad ledge of rugged rock, amid trees and shrubs of vivid and perennial verdure then seen through a veil of silvery mist. Steavenson Falls, on the river so-named in Gippsland, present a magnificent sight in winter, as the mountain torrent descends for hundreds of feet in successive cataracts through a deep ravine made umbrageous and verdant by stately trees, graceful tree-ferns, and intermingled creepers and shrubs, amid rocks almost coal-black in contrast with the snowy spray.

In many points the surface of Victoria resembles that of New South Wales, though the natural features are upon a less extensive scale. There are a coast district, a table-land through which runs a dividing chain, and some interior plains. As these are included in a far smaller territory than that of the sister colony, they cause the surface to be more varied. The coast district is mostly undulating, with an average breadth of 40 miles, and the eastern portion is the most level. The river system is very simple. There are two principal slopes, one to the north into the Murray river, the other to the south into the ocean. The Dividing Range is the watershed. The chief Victorian tributaries of the Murray are the Mitta Mitta, the Ovens, the Goulburn, the Campaspe, and the Loddon. Of these the most important is the Goulburn, very picturesque in its upper course, passing by many towns, and having a length of nearly 350 miles. The Loddon has a course of 225 miles. The Avoca (160 miles) flows north into a lake, and the Wimmera, 230 miles long, empties itself into the large salt Lake Hindmarsh. On the southern slope, the Snowy River, partly in New South Wales, enters the sea west of Cape Howe; the Latrobe falls into Lake Wellington; the Yarra Yarra, 150 miles long, into Hobson's Bay; the Glenelg, after a course of

280 miles, falls into the ocean between Capes Northumberland and Bridgewater. The climate, one of the most healthy and enjoyable in the world, greatly resembles that of New South Wales. At Melbourne, the mean temperature of the year is about 56°; the rainfall being about 26 inches. North of the Dividing Range the temperature is somewhat higher and the rainfall less. Gippsland, the beautiful south-eastern district, well-watered, fertile in soil, and generally cooler in climate than most other parts of Victoria, was once densely wooded in the west and south-west, but much land has now been cleared and is tilled for root and grain crops, while the central district is richly grassed. This "garden of Victoria" supplies the capital and other towns with much of the animal and vegetable food there consumed. The Murray District lies between the Dividing Chain and the Murray River, and is mainly pastoral in character, with some tillage and much mineral wealth. The Loddon District, west of the Murray District, is chiefly pastoral, with much gold in the southern part. The north-west portion of the colony, also mainly in pasture, forms the Wimmera District. The flora and fauna of Victoria are identical with those of the southern part of New South Wales, except that in the animal kingdom the platypus and lyre-bird are more common, and in the vegetable world the tree-fern is more abundant, while the cedar and cabbage-tree palm are very rare.

The mainsprings of prosperity in this colony are the pastoral and agricultural industries. Some of the land in the western plains is better adapted than any other territory in the world for the growth of fine wool. The soil which has been cleared of primeval forest is extremely rich, and Victoria stands at the head of the Australasian colonies in the value and extent of her crops. Up to the end of 1899 about 23 million acres of crown-lands had been granted and sold, of which above two million acres were, at that date, producing wheat to the amount of 19 million bushels; 48,000 acres grew over 1,110,000 bushels of barley; 266,000 acres under oats furnished over 5½ million bushels; about 9750 acres gave 560,000 bushels of maize; 41,000 acres of potato ground yielded 147,000 tons; and 27,600 acres of vineyards furnished large supplies of wine and table grapes; the return of wine and raisins for the year 1898–99 was respectively 2,000,000 gallons and 13,220 cwts. There are large

crops of hay and artificial grasses; all the common European fruits are grown, and culinary vegetables in such abundance as to leave a surplus for exportation to neighbouring colonies. Peas and beans, hops and tobacco are also produced. The growth of grapes for wine production, and for table use both as fresh fruit and as raisins, is now important. The pioneers of viticulture in Victoria were two natives of Switzerland, Hubert and Paul de Castella, brothers who emigrated to the colony, where the latter planted the first Victorian vineyard, in 1856, at Yering cattle station. Some of the Australian wines are very favourably known. At the Melbourne Exhibition of 1881, Messrs. de Castella (Hubert) and Rowan, of St. Hubert's Vineyard, in Victoria, carried off the "grand prize" of £800 offered by the Emperor of Germany to "an exhibitor . . . promoting art and industry as shown by the high qualities of the goods manufactured", and at Bordeaux, the home of the French wine-industry, some medals were awarded for specimens shown, in 1882, by seventy Australian wine-growers. In regard to pastoral wealth in Victoria, we find that the colony, in March, 1895, contained about 432,000 horses, over 1,833,000 horned cattle, nearly 13,200,000 sheep; 337,000 was the number of pigs.

Returning now to the subject of tillage, we find this colony taking an honourable and, in a continent subject to drought, a very useful lead in the important matter of irrigation. The name of Mildura, a town on the Murray river, 340 miles north-west of Melbourne, is closely connected with the inauguration of a great fruit-producing industry in the establishment of Australia's first "irrigation colony", a form of enterprise which, welcomed in every part of Victoria as likely to enrich the country with a new territory, in five years' time transformed a mere wilderness of mallee scrub into a delightful region of well-ordered orchards and vineyards. The word is the native term for "red earth", describing the soil throughout the settlement made in a district where the land lay valueless and untouched, so bare that even rabbits were dying by hundreds on the parched ground. It was a rare opportunity for the display of energy and skill, and these forces were applied with remarkable success. In 1886, mainly through the efforts of Mr. Alfred Deakin, Chief Secretary and Commissioner of Water Supply, the Victorian Legislature passed an Act providing for a national system of irrigation. The same gentleman, born at Melbourne in

1856, and a member of the Victorian bar, had in 1883 carried a "Water Conservation Act", the first measure ever passed in Australia for public irrigation on a large scale. The great immediate outcome of Mr. Deakin's irrigation-policy was the arrangement which the Victorian government made, in 1887, with the two brothers George and William Benjamin Chaffey, natives of the Province of Ontario, Canada, who had for some years been successful irrigators in Southern California, emigrating to Australia in 1886. The Chaffeys, in 1887, secured 250,000 acres of land on the banks of the Murray, on condition of spending, within twenty years, the sum of £300,000 on improvements, and of paying £200,000, in that time, for the whole area. The contract bound them to make an outlay of £33,000 in the first five years. So rapid was the success obtained, and so bright the prospect, that in far less than the above time, or up to June, 1891, £275,000 had been disbursed on the new Mildura settlement, in addition to improvements, made by settlers themselves, to the estimated value of £100,000.

In 1894, the town of Mildura contained a number of handsome buildings in brick — churches and stores, public offices and dwelling-houses, with an agricultural college fully endowed by setting aside one-fifteenth of the whole value of the land. The main street, Deakin Avenue, is planted for 5 miles with ornamental trees; parallel to this, on both sides, run other roadways, crossed by long streets at right angles. The town-sites extend about a mile back from the Murray, and are bounded by suburban allotments, beyond which ten-acre blocks run back for 9 or 10 miles, the highest water-channel being about 90 feet above the summer-level of the river. Hundreds of miles of main and subsidiary channels are supplied with water from a dozen pumping-stations, with plant ranging from 200 to 1000 horse-power, the largest having four centrifugal pumps each raising 10,000 gallons per minute. The landscape of this delightful region is dotted over with settlers' homes of every description and size, from handsome mansions with every modern convenience and comfort to small tenements of wood and corrugated iron. These are erected amongst orchards, vineyards, and fruit-gardens in every stage of progress, tilled by fruit-growing experts from California, Anglo-Indians, emigrants from South Africa, and from the other Austral-

asian colonies, and by English, Scottish, and Irish settlers of good class, including many sons of English country gentlemen. The production of raisins, dried in the sun as the method which alone preserves the aroma and flavour of the grapes, is a leading industry, and this fruit is sold at 1*s.* per pound in the local market. The apricots, peaches, and figs are of high quality, and orange- and lemon-trees bear heavily at two years of age. The combination of excellence in soil, climate, and weather with skill and care in cultivation has produced marvellous results in return for capital expended. In eleven weeks after planting, ripe apricots have been gathered from the trees, and a crop of some tons' weight of grapes has been given, within two years of planting, by a ten-acre lot of vines. Tomatoes, potatoes, and every kind of vegetable, with lucerne, hay, and sorghum or durra or Indian millet, are produced, the last three furnishing full supplies for horses and cattle. A large canning trade in fruit for export has arisen, and the settlement is again on the high-road to enduring prosperity, after a temporary financial failure due to mismanagement, without any fault of the settlers. Under the Acts of 1883 and 1886, about thirty local "Irrigation and Water Supply Trusts", constituted by the Governor in Council, composed of members elected by the ratepayers, and having jurisdiction over more than 3 million acres of land, are dealing with the soil in other parts of the colony.

The mineral wealth of Victoria still lies chiefly in gold, the value of which, up to the end of 1898, had exceeded 250 millions sterling, with a present annual output of about 3½ millions, giving employment to over 30,000 miners, of whom 2700 are Chinese. Silver, tin, copper, iron, lead, zinc, antimony, and coal are also found, but have not been worked to any great extent. In the amount and value of her manufactures, Victoria surpasses all the other Australian colonies, giving employment to over 52,700 "hands", with an invested capital of about 19 millions, in flour-mills, breweries, brickyards and potteries; tanneries and wool-washing works; woollen mills for textile work in tweed, cloth, flannel and blankets; soap and candle works; tobacco manufactories, distilleries, paper and stationery works, machinery and tools, carriages, harness, furniture, chemicals, and many other branches of industry both for home-supply and for export. For 1898 the total imports had a value exceeding 16¾ millions sterling, of which

goods worth nearly 6¼ millions came from the United Kingdom, chiefly in manufactured articles; 7½ millions of imports were received from other Australian colonies, and £735,000 worth from India, Ceylon, and other British possessions, the bulk of the remaining import trade being conducted with the United States, Java and the Philippine Islands, Germany, China, Sweden and Norway, and Belgium. In the same year, the total exports amounted to nearly 16 millions sterling, of which the United Kingdom accounted for £6,740,420, mainly in wool, gold (coined and in bullion), hides and leather, and tallow; while the other Australian colonies took produce and goods worth over 6½ millions, the remainder belonging chiefly to France (over ¾ million), Germany, Belgium, and the United States. The importance of the pastoral industry is shown by the fact that in 1898 the value of exported wool was over 4 millions; the butter export, in the year 1896, was worth £874,710, and flour and grain exceeded £350,000. The commerce of the colony employed, in 1898, over 4¾ millions tonnage of shipping "entered and cleared" (exclusive of the coasting trade), of which over 4 millions were in British vessels.

As regards internal communication, the Murray is the chief navigable river, and forms a highway of trade for the whole of the colony north of the Dividing Range. The vessels which ply on its waters are small steamers, towing after them, on the upward voyage, barges laden with various stores, and returning with vessels conveying wool and other products. The only other navigable stream is the Yarra Yarra, enabling ships of considerable size to reach the business quarter of the capital. The railway system is very well developed, belonging wholly to the State, extending to the remotest parts of the colony, and comprising, in June, 1898, over 3120 miles of road, with a working expenditure of £1,646,000 and receipts of £2,608,896, affording about 2½ per cent on an expended capital of above 38 millions, chiefly derived from loans. With branches in all directions, the chief lines are the Northern, from Melbourne to Echuca, on the Murray, 156 miles; the North-eastern, Melbourne to Wodonga, 187 miles; the Eastern, Melbourne to Sale (in Gippsland), 128 miles; the Western, by Geelong, Ballarat, and Ararat, to the South Australian frontier, a distance of 313 miles. There are over 6500 miles of telegraph, with double that length of wires and nearly 800 stations, and

telephones are also much employed. The postage rate for town and country is 1*d.* for letters under half an ounce, with a 2*d.* inter-colonial charge for same weight, and 2½*d.* to the United Kingdom and countries within the Postal Union.

The Anglican Church is under the local control of the Bishops of Melbourne and of Ballarat; the Church of Rome is subject to five prelates, at the head of whom is an Archbishop of Melbourne. The arrangements for education closely resemble those of New South Wales. The Melbourne University, with buildings opened in 1855, has a yearly income of about £12,250 from the public revenue, and is both an examining and a teaching body, with a royal charter empowering it to grant degrees in all faculties except divinity. There are three affiliated colleges, respectively Anglican, Presbyterian, and Wesleyan, and the School of Mines at Ballarat is also attached to the university. Victoria takes the lead of all the Australian colonies in secondary education, conducted in numerous and efficient private colleges and schools, much resorted to by pupils from other parts of the continent. There are many technological schools under the control of the Educational Department, including working-men's colleges, schools of arts and of mines, and two agricultural colleges. The public library of Melbourne contains about 512,000 volumes, including a large number of pamphlets and "parts". Every leading town is provided with a public library or a mechanics' institute, the whole number exceeding 420 in 1898, with a total (exclusive of the Melbourne collection) of more than 560,000 volumes. The public instruction given at the primary schools is strictly secular, compulsory between the ages of six and thirteen, free for ordinary subjects, and so well conducted in over 1870 schools, with 4618 teachers, and an average attendance of 135,000 children out of 238,000 on the roll, that the census of 1891 showed 95¾ per cent of persons above fifteen years as able to read and write, while only about 2 per cent were entirely illiterate. The total cost of public (primary) education in the year 1895–96 was nearly £600,000, exclusive of expenditure on school buildings; 12 exhibitions, annually worth £40, and tenable for four years; and 100 scholarships, of the yearly value of £10, tenable for three years; are annually given to the ablest pupils for their further education at the private colleges or "grammar-schools" or at the university. The system of public justice includes

a Supreme Court, with a Chief Justice and five assistant judges; courts of general and petty sessions, county-courts, courts of insolvency, mines, and licensing.

The revenue, for the year ending June 30th, 1898, in a time of great commercial depression, was very nearly 7 millions sterling, having exceeded, in 1889 and 1890, 8½ millions. The receipts are derived chiefly from customs-duties (about £1,840,000), profits on railways (over £962,800), crown-lands and land-tax, duties on estates, stamp-duty and excise. The protective tariff for imported goods includes 25 per cent *ad valorem* on woven silk, 35 per cent on jute matting, 35 to 40 per cent on heavy woollen goods, 50 per cent on woollen apparel, 35 per cent on many iron wares, 35 per cent on some machinery, 45 per cent on many leathern wares, payments on china and glass, about 19*s.* per cwt. on candles, heavy duties on soap, bacon and hams, and butter, 1*s.* per gallon on beer, 15*s.* per gallon on spirits and sparkling wines, 12*s.* per gallon on other wines, and charges on cigars (6*s.* per lb.), manufactured tobacco (3*s.* per lb.), and stationery, with £3 per ton on scrap-iron. The public expenditure for the same year was nearly 6¾ millions, chiefly on interest of debt; railways, telegraphs, and postal service; public instruction; public works; charitable institutions, defences, police, civil service and judicial administration. The outstanding public debt, on June 30th, 1899, was just below 48½ millions sterling; over 36½ millions has been borrowed for the construction of railways, nearly 7½ millions for water-works, £1,105,000 for State school-buildings, and £1,850,000 for other public works. The rate of interest averages 4 per cent. The estimated total value of rateable property in the colony, in 1897, exceeded 170 millions sterling, with an annual value of over ten millions. In the same year, there were 381 post-office and 37 general savings-banks, with over 8 millions of pounds belonging to about 338,000 depositors.

The Victorian parliament consists of two Chambers. The Legislative Council, of 48 members, of whom about one-third must retire every two years, is elected by voters with a small property or tenancy qualification, except they be graduates of British universities, matriculated students of the Melbourne University, ministers of religion, certificated schoolmasters, lawyers, medical practitioners, or officers of the army and navy not on active service. Members

of the Council must have estate of the annual value of £100. The Legislative Assembly (95 members) is elected for three years by universal manhood suffrage. No minister of religion may sit in either body. The members of the Assembly are paid at the rate of £300 a year for expenses, and members of both Houses have free passes over all the railways. The Governor is assisted by a cabinet, ministry, or executive council of 12 members, at least 4 of whom must be either in the Legislative Council or the Assembly, but not more than 8 can be at any one time members of the Assembly. These high officials include a "Minister of Mines, Railways, and Water Supply", a "Minister of Defence", "Agriculture and Public Works", and Ministers of "Lands", "Education and Customs", and a "Postmaster-General". The Premier fills the office of "Chief Secretary".

MELBOURNE, the capital of Victoria, as both the seat of government and the commercial centre, is in itself a city of about 75,000 inhabitants, but taken, like London in the usual sense of the word, as an aggregation of towns within a radius of 10 miles from the General Post-office, the place contains about half a million people, or more than two-fifths of the whole population of the colony, and disputes with Buenos Ayres the honour of being the largest and most important town in the Southern Hemisphere. The chief municipalities which make up "Greater Melbourne" are *North Melbourne*, *Fitzroy*, *Collingwood*, *Richmond*, *Prahran*, *South Melbourne*, *Brunswick*, *St. Kilda*, *Port Melbourne*, *Footscray*, *Williamstown*, *Essendon*, and *Hawthorn*, with populations varying from 15,000 to over 40,000, all the towns being connected by good roads and cable tramways. The mansions in the various residential suburbs such as Toorak, St. Kilda, Kew, South Yarra, Hawthorn, and Brighton, would grace any city in the world, and the Victorian capital is remarkably rich in the beauty and extent of its public gardens and parks, above a dozen in number, and containing a total area of nearly 4500 acres, out of the entire space, 60,000 acres, covered by the city and suburbs. The position of the city, much of which, in its suburban parts, lies on marshy land at a low level, has hitherto caused the drainage to be very defective, but a complete scheme for proper disposal of the sewage is now being carried out by the Metropolitan Board of Works at an estimated cost of five millions sterling. The lighting, with gas and electricity, and

the paving, are excellent. The water-supply, admirable in abundance and puality, is mainly derived from the Yan Yean reservoir, in a township nearly 600 feet above sea-level, about 20 miles north-east of Melbourne. The south side of a valley was closed up by the formation of an embankment 3159 feet long, 31 feet high, and varying in width from 20 feet at top to 170 feet at bottom. A river, well named the Plenty, was then diverted into the space, forming a lake, 1330 acres in area, and 25 feet in greatest depth. This gigantic work, executed at a cost of 1½ millions sterling, has a capacity of 6400 million gallons.

Noticing first some of the suburbs of Melbourne, as we approach by sea the northern extremity of Port Phillip, we find on the eastern shore *St. Kilda*, a borough of 25,000 people, with terraces, stately detached houses, a fine esplanade, a sea-front 3 miles in length, and bathing-places securely fenced in from sharks. This charming town is a place of residence for thousands of the most prosperous citizens. On entering Hobson's Bay, we have on the western shore *Williamstown*, with about 18,000 inhabitants, the outlying port where the largest European steamers receive and discharge passengers and cargo, in a situation made advantageous by the depth of water and the sheltered position of the wharves. The Alfred Graving Dock is a very spacious one, adapted for the largest vessels. There are railway workshops and factories, and the usual business connected with a seaport and an arsenal. On the opposite or north-eastern shore of Hobson's Bay lies *Port Melbourne* (about 15,000 people), formerly known as "Sandridge", having a retail trade connected with the shipping, and joined to the city by a railway 2 miles in length, the first ever constructed in Victoria. The approach to Melbourne proper by the narrow river Yarra has been vastly improved in recent years by the widening of the channel, the extension of the wharfage, the action of many powerful dredgers, and by the cutting of a canal across an awkward bend of the river bank. The scene is busy with traffic in all kinds of sea-borne goods connected with foreign and intercolonial trade, save wool and wheat, which are shipped at Williamstown. As the city is neared, the air becomes filled with the clang of hammers, the whirr of machinery, the panting of steam-engines, and the hissing of circular saws from the factories, workshops, and yards. Flinders Street West, at

the water's edge, has an enormous business conducted on the ordinary roadway, double tramways, and a railway, and is lined on one side by coal-yards, wood-yards, warehouses, shops, and taverns. The Yarra is crossed by several bridges, including the fine Prince's Bridge, of three wrought-iron arches each 100 feet in span, the whole structure, with approaches, having a length of 550 feet and a width of 150. The city is laid out on the chess-board plan, with streets, the chief about 100 feet wide, intersecting at right angles. Collins Street, paved with asphalt and planted with trees, is one of imposing architecture, being lined on each side by tall, massive, and ornate buildings, chiefly banks, offices, warehouses, shops and hotels. Bourke Street corresponds to the London Strand, containing the chief theatres and music-halls and many shops; it is, however, three times as wide and four times as long as the famous thoroughfare of the world's chief city.

The Protestant Cathedral, ill placed among warehouses that hem it in on every side, is a fine specimen of Middle Pointed Gothic, 246 feet long, and 93 feet wide, having two towers each 127 feet high, and a central tower 40 feet square, with a spire rising to 260 feet. The Congregational Church is a fine adaptation, in parti-coloured brick, of the Romanesque style, and the Scots Church, the architectural gem of Collins Street, is a good stone specimen of Early English, with a graceful spire above 200 feet in height. It is due, in a large measure, to the admirable energy, skill, and integrity of Melbourne's municipal rulers, that a town whose streets, about sixty years ago, were mere bush-tracks, has been transformed into a place whose thoroughfares are as well paved, lighted, and watched, as those of London, Paris, or Vienna. This great Australasian capital also owes much to the munificence of leading citizens. The Ormond (Presbyterian) College, one of the finest educational structures south of the equator, was erected at the expense of Mr. Francis Ormond, a native of Aberdeen, who went out to Victoria at an early age, and became a successful squatter, and a member of the Legislative Council. The charge thus incurred amounted to £40,000, in addition to £2500 paid to the endowment fund. Mr. Ormond was also largely instrumental in founding the Working-Men's College, which has been vastly successful in technical education, and had, in 1889, 2000 names on the roll of students. Before his

death in the above year, the same benefactor endowed a chair of music in Melbourne University, at the cost of £20,000, and by his will and codicils bequeathed £40,000, in amounts of £5000 for each, to eight Melbourne Asylums and Hospitals for the sick, orphans, deaf and dumb, blind, sailors, and sick children; £40,000 to the Ormond College, £10,000 to the Working-Men's College, £20,000, in four sums of £5000, to as many hospitals and asylums at Geelong and Ballarat; and some thousands more to various religious and educational institutions. The Wilson Hall, a notable adjunct of Melbourne University, was erected, at the cost of nearly £40,000, by Sir Samuel Wilson, a native of Ireland, who became a miner at the Victorian gold-diggings in 1852, and then a successful sheep-farmer, and a member of the Legislative Council. He returned to England, sat for some years in the House of Commons, and became tenant of Hughenden Manor, famous as the residence of Lord Beaconsfield.

Returning now to the architectural adornments of Melbourne, we note the Town Hall, completed in 1870, of mingled Classic and Renaissance style, with a grand double front at the corner of Collins Street, a mansard roof, a clock tower 140 feet in height, and a hall 174 feet long, 74 feet wide, and 63 feet high, furnished with a fine organ—the whole structure having cost above £100,000. The Roman Catholic Cathedral of St. Patrick has a noble site on the crown of a hill, and is a splendid triple-spired structure in Geometrical Decorated English Gothic, the central tower and spire rising to a height of 330 feet. Inside the walls, the building is 345 feet long, with transepts of 160 feet, and a height of 92 feet to the ridge of the main roof. The Houses of Parliament form one of the most magnificent buildings in Australasia, in the Roman-Doric style, covering an area nearly 320 feet square, and completed in 1891 at the cost of about a million sterling. The Exhibition Building, in the Carlton Gardens, and the General Post Office are conspicuous among the public buildings. The noble public library has been already mentioned, and on the same "reserve", or public domain, are the national art gallery and the technological museum. All three institutions, governed by a body of trustees, are well supported by a state endowment. Among the open spaces for health and recreation are the beautiful Fitzroy Gardens (64 acres); Yarra Park, the scene of cricket and other athletic

sports; the Friendly Societies Gardens; the Royal Park (between 200 and 300 acres), which includes the Zoological Gardens of 50 acres; Studley Park (300 acres); and Kew Park (396 acres). Albert Park, of 570 acres, contains an extensive natural lagoon, deepened and widened for boating and yachting, and has grounds for cricket, football, polo, and lacrosse. This resort, in the southern suburbs, contains the "Rotten Row" of Melbourne, for the drives of fashionable folk, and is the most valuable of the numerous "lungs" of the capital. The Botanical Gardens, of about 100 acres, beautifully formed by nature with undulations of the ground, have a valley containing a lake of 8 acres, and display very beautiful, varied, and valuable specimens of native and foreign flora. Government House, of no special architectural merit, is nobly placed on a hill commanding views that embrace the city and suburbs, Port Phillip Bay, and a horizon mostly of mountain ranges. Such is some account of the great metropolis of Victoria, a city of public palaces and superb warehouses, shops, and private mansions; rich in institutions of commerce, charity, education and art; abreast of the old great cities of the world in all characteristics of civilization; all developed in the space of sixty years from a little township on the banks of the Yarra, a settlement which had the name of "Beargrass", and consisted of only thirteen buildings, three composed of weather-board, two of slate, and eight huts put together of turf.

Victoria possesses a larger number of towns worthy of the name than any other Australian colony, and this is a special feature of Victorian social and political life. Of late years, however, the growth of provincial towns has been somewhat arrested, and the population has become more and more concentrated in and near Melbourne. *Geelong*, 45 miles south-west of the capital, has about 25,000 people, and is beautifully placed in a natural amphitheatre rising from the edge of Corio Bay, being girt on the landward side with a zone of bowery suburbs composed of pretty villages and cottages amidst flowers and shrubs, while the higher ground shows many handsome mansions, the Scotch College, the Roman Catholic Orphanage, and the Convent of St. Augustine. The place is one of the prettiest in the colony, on the south side of the bay, which curves round with picturesque outline into the miniature capes Point Lillias and Point Henry on the north and south of the

entrance from Port Phillip. The broad streets leading to the water slope down from south to north, intersected by equally spacious thoroughfares running east and west. The public edifices are numerous and often handsome. A tree-planted esplanade connects the town with the botanical gardens of 120 acres, situated on a promontory and containing the largest and finest fernery in Australia. Cathedral-like in shape, height, and size, being cruciform, with three aisles, the structure has, beneath its central dome, a fountain springing from rock-work adorned with ferns, and having its encircling rim jewelled with water-lilies. The columns supporting the arched roof are entwined with creepers. There are two other public parks, and Jeffery's Garden, at Newtown, in the outskirts, has a noble collection of roses in 400 varieties. The town is famous in Australia for its woollen manufactures, and promised, in early days, to become the capital of the colony, but railway extension carried traffic past the place, and it is now rather notable for peace and beauty than for commercial activity. Just inside the entrance to Port Phillip, the little town of *Queenscliff*, on the peninsula to the south of Geelong Harbour, is a favourite summer resort of Melbourne people in the hot season from November to April. One of its charms is the view afforded of the large ships that pass in and out of the gateway of the colony to the number of over two hundred in a week, about sixty of which are noble steamers of the P. and O., the Orient, the Messageries, and the Norddeutscher lines, the rest being steamers trading to and from Sydney, Adelaide, Hobart, and New Zealand, vessels scarcely less splendid in appearance and size. The spectacle is completed by grand sailing-ships built at Glasgow and Aberdeen, as they pass in heavy-laden with merchandise. The entrance to Port Phillip is guarded by heavy guns at Queenscliff and at Point Nepean on the opposite shore.

About 160 miles westwards from Melbourne by rail is *Warrnambool*, on the coast, a town of 7000 people, much sought by invalids for its mild climate and wholesome air. A great trade is carried on in potatoes, grown in this district to great advantage, and a few miles off lie the chief dairy-farm and cheese-factory of Victoria. There are several large public parks, botanical gardens, a fine race-course, and excellent sea-bathing. *Ballarat*, containing about 45,000 people, lies 100 miles by railway north-

west of Melbourne, and is the second largest town in the colony. Situated on the most important gold-field, a great railway-centre, and an important station on the main line to Adelaide, the place has the advantages of a bracing and healthy climate, fine forests near at hand, and a fertile soil all around. The town soon became self-supporting, and now contains large flour-mills, breweries, and woollen factories, with some of the greatest iron-foundries and engineering works in the colony, one of which has sent out about 250 locomotives, now at work on the State railways. The streets are worthy of the importance of the city. The noble boulevard called Sturt Street, one of the finest in the southern hemisphere, has a double avenue of trees in the centre, with well-kept roads between them and the footways. The public buildings are fine, and the streets are lit with electric lamps; the drainage and water-supply are excellent. Great skill and liberality have been used in laying out the city of gold. It covers so large an area in proportion to population that every little house, save in the chief business streets, has its acre or half-acre of ground, with garden in front and rear. The thoroughfares display pines from Los Angeles, in California, and from the Caucasus, along with British oaks and elms and limes, and the tall factory-chimneys and the shafts of mines are intermingled with cedars of Lebanon, deodars or Himalayan cedars, stately eucalypti, the arbutus, the acacia, and the blackthorn. Among the many places of worship are the grand Gothic R. C. Cathedral, St. Patrick's; St. Andrew's Presbyterian Church, a very fine structure; the Wesleyan Church, and the noble Anglican Cathedral. The city is "Ballarat West"; Ballarat East is a separate borough, a fine spacious place like its neighbour, with flourishing factories. A mile to the north of Ballarat city is the beautiful Lake Wendouree, 600 acres in extent, a sheet of water created by human skill and labour out of a mere reedy swamp. Studded with wooded islands, surrounded by a carriage-drive, well stocked with native and foreign fish, frequented by wild-fowl, and furnished with several steamers and hundreds of sailing and rowing boats, plying for hire, the lake is a charming summer-resort, with botanic gardens and the ornamental forest close at hand. Not far away from Ballarat, to the north, are the active gold-working towns of *Creswick* and *Clunes*. *Maryborough*, about 800 feet above sea-level, at 140 miles from

the capital by way of Ballarat, is another prosperous gold-mining centre among reefs of quartz, and contains a population of about 6000, with thrice that number in the district.

In the Central District we find *Mount Macedon*, a spur of the Great Dividing Range, here about 3300 feet in height. This region, having a cool night-temperature at the hottest season, and an endless variety of romantic scenery, is a place of summer residence for many wealthy Melbourne citizens. The southern slopes of the mountain are dotted with villas commanding noble prospects. *Daylesford*, about 2000 feet above sea-level, surrounded by fine mountain scenery, has valuable mineral springs, and botanical gardens occupying an unique position on the summit of Wombat Hill, a round isolated mountain of rich chocolate soil, 2300 feet high, planted with groves of pine, cedar, laurel, juniper, and other trees, so placed as to leave the visitor's view to range over a most extensive prospect of ridge after ridge of hills in every direction, resembling the billows of an ocean solidified amidst a raging storm. Between the long waves are seen green plains and fertile bottom-lands under tillage. The gardens and orchards of this volcanic soil are rich in all the English fruits, and send to the Melbourne markets large supplies of strawberries, raspberries, black currants and other produce. The third town of the colony in population is *Bendigo*, about 100 miles by railway north of Melbourne, and containing 41,000 inhabitants. The place lies on the upper part of Bendigo Creek and its tributaries, in one of the earliest and most famous gold-fields. The region contains about 300 well-defined auriferous reefs, and having a gold-bearing area of 1100 square miles, it has produced, from only a few thousand acres of the whole surface, about 70 million pounds' worth of the metal, won from shafts of which some descend more than 2000 feet. The city has 100 miles of tree-planted streets, beautiful gardens (Rosalind Park) of 60 acres, fine public buildings, 30 churches and chapels, and great industries in iron, brewing, tanning, pottery, bricks and tiles, and carriage-building. The place is the same as the "Bendigo" of early gold-digging days. The Eastern District has the heaviest rainfall and some of the grandest mountain-scenery, with sylvan solitudes of exquisite charm in their solemn cloisters of columnar trees, beneath whose long-drawn aisles of verdure are avenues of tree-ferns overarching

ice-cold streamlets with their feathery fronds. Many settlements of wood-cutters and of tillers of the soil are seen by the railway traveller in this country, but there are no large towns. *Beechworth*, *Mansfield*, and *Walhalla* are centres of important mining-districts; *Euroa* of a pastoral region.

CHAPTER VII.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early explorations of the coast—First colonization of the territory in 1836—The South Australian Land and Colonization Company—Failure of its land schemes—Establishment of the colony proclaimed—Quarrels of the officials—Difficulties of Governor Gawler—Able administration of Governor Grey—Rapid development of the colony—Discovery of copper—The mines of Burra Burra, Wallaroo, and Moonta—Governorship of Sir Henry Young—His measures to escape a financial crisis—Responsible government introduced—Land reform—The Northern Territory added to the colony—The overland telegraph established—Its route from Melbourne to London—Construction of public works—Financial depression in 1886—The changes of fifty years—Adelaide Exhibition of 1887—Boundaries, area, and population of the colony—Religion—Climate—Coast-line—Mountain ranges and vast plains—Adelaide, the capital, and its suburban towns described—Railway engineering—Mount Gambier, Gawler, Endunda, Port Augusta, and other towns—Proposed transcontinental railway. The NORTHERN TERRITORY—Palmerston town—Rivers—Climate. Chief industries of South Australia—Manufactures—Trade—Railways—System of Government—Education—Administration of justice—Revenue—Customs-duties—Public debt.

It was in December, 1800, that Lieutenant Grant, of the *Lady Nelson*, was the first European, so far as is known, to see any part of the southern coast of what is now South Australia. He sighted Cape Northumberland, on a voyage to Tasmania, guiding his course by information furnished by Flinders. In 1802, as we have seen, Flinders explored the southern coast of the island-continent, carefully examining Spencer's and St. Vincent Gulfs, and meeting, in Encounter Bay, the French expedition under Baudin already referred to. Several names on the map, between Encounter Bay and Cape Northumberland, as Lacepede and Rivoli Bays, and Capes Bernouilli and Buffon, are the memorials of French discovery in this quarter. Franklin Harbour, on the west coast of Spencer's Gulf, commemorates one of Flinders' midshipmen, afterwards the famous Arctic voyager, Sir John

Franklin. Kangaroo Island was much visited, in those early days, by whaling and sealing ships, and the first white settlers in South Australia were seamen who deserted from these vessels. The explorations made by Captain Sturt at a later time have been recorded, and we come, in 1836, to the first colonization of the territory which enjoys the distinction of having never received any convict-immigrants. The discoveries made by Sturt had attracted much attention in England among people who desired to see a colony founded in Australia independent of New South Wales, and on a different principle from that which had prevailed, of granting large blocks of land to settlers who had no means of cultivating great holdings or of stocking extensive pastoral areas, and paying for the needful labour. The South Australian Land and Colonization Company received from the home government the control of all the lands in the colony, on condition of sale to settlers at not less than 12*s.* per acre, a price afterwards increased to 20*s.* Under the "Wakefield system" adopted by the company, the proceeds of sales, divided into the "Immigration Moiety" and the "Crown Moiety", were to be devoted to the importation of young men and women as farm-labourers and servants, in the pay of the wealthier colonists, and to the construction of roads, bridges, and other public works. Nothing is more dreary than the details of the failure of flattering schemes. The Wakefield system broke down simply because the ladies and gentlemen who went out from England as owners of estates and employers of labour shrank from the trouble and hardships involved in developing the resources of a new country, and, clustering in the little capital, instead of going forth upon the land, began to speculate and gamble in town-lots. It was on December 28th, 1836, that Captain Hindmarsh, the first Governor, proclaimed the establishment of the colony of South Australia, at the spot, on the shore of Holdfast Bay, where the town of Glenelg now stands. On that midsummer's day, under the shade of the historic "old gum-tree", about half a mile from the beach, the royal proclamation was read in presence of about 200 settlers, the Union Jack was hoisted, the guns of H. M. S. *Buffalo*, at anchor in the bay, were fired, a party of marines shot off a musket-volley, and rounds of cheers were given, followed by a cold luncheon spread under the trees, with patriotic toasts and "God save the King". The site of a town was afterwards marked

out near the foot of the Mount Lofty range of hills, and Adelaide, named from the very popular wife of the reigning sovereign, began to exist.

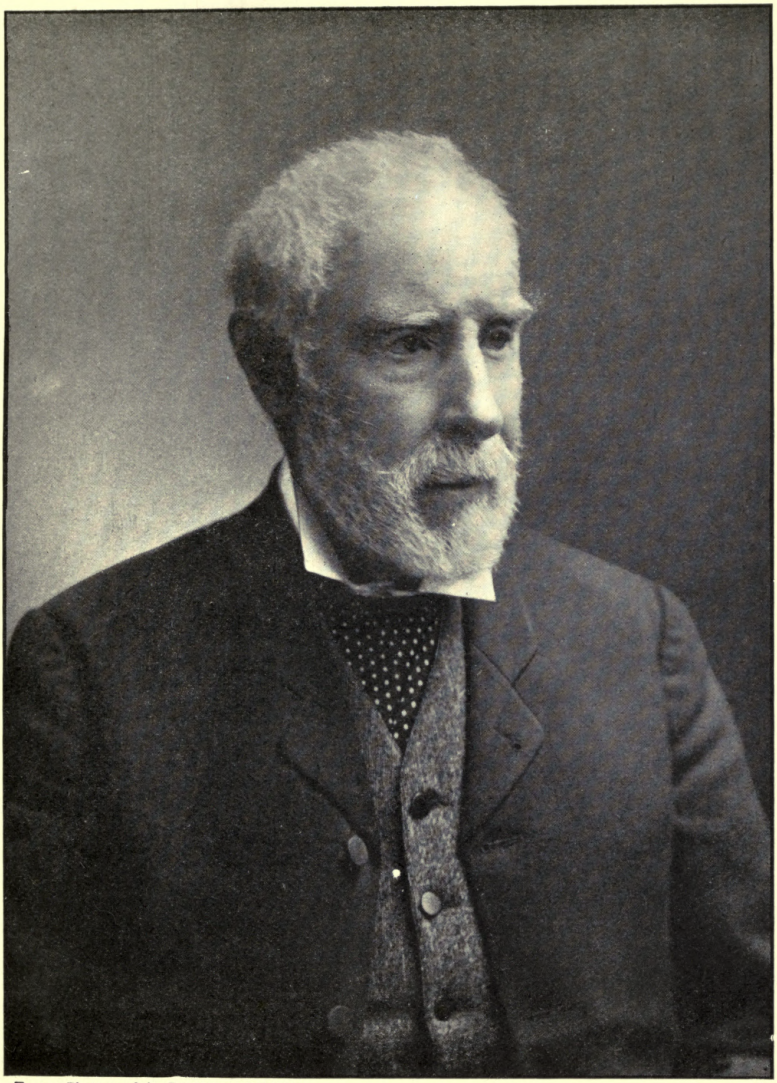
The first trouble came from the dual system of government, quarrels having arisen between Mr. Fisher, the Resident Commissioner for Crown Lands, and Captain Hindmarsh, a naval veteran who had served under Nelson at the Nile and Trafalgar. In October 1838, Mr. Fisher was superseded, and the Governor was recalled to England, and succeeded by Colonel Gawler, a man whose service included the leadership of a "forlorn hope" at Badajoz, and the command of a company at Waterloo. Gawler was a resolute and adventurous man who did his utmost to cope with the difficulties which confronted him on his arrival in the colony. A considerable number of emigrants from England, who had come out in expectation of employment which was not provided, were face to face with starvation in a country where no food was being produced from the soil, and the price of imported provisions had increased fourfold. The Governor took energetic measures. After settling the land-lots, and putting the owners on them, according to the terms of sale, he found employment for the destitute among the 6000 inhabitants of the struggling colony in a series of government works. A good road was made between Adelaide and its port, wharves were formed, and much of the miasmatic swamp was drained. A Government House, Custom-house, hospital, barracks, jail, warehouses, and other buildings, in substantial style, arose, and most of the Governor's private fortune was expended in the payment of wages. In spite of the arrangement that the colony should be self-supporting, Gawler persuaded merchants in England to send out provisions and clothing for the poorest colonists, making payment in drafts on the British Treasury to the amount of above £150,000. Of this amount, nearly half was repudiated by the authorities at home, and when the merchants pressed for payment, the colony was declared insolvent, with liabilities to the amount of £300,000. In May, 1841, the Colonial Secretary removed Colonel Gawler from his post. He left the colony with a population of 12,000, and with a prospect of better days in the fact that 2500 acres were under tillage, and 200,000 sheep on the pasture lands. The sheep had been introduced by enterprising young squatters of New South Wales, who had driven

their flocks overland in defiance of the then somewhat numerous blacks and of the toilsome journey. The difficulties of the colony's position were removed under Gawler's successor, Captain George Grey, the distinguished colonial ruler already seen in these pages.

In the course of three years, the new ruler, by unflinching economy, reduced the annual expenditure from over £100,000 to about one-third of that amount. He opened up the rural districts by making roads, and persuaded the poorer settlers to take employment with the farmers and squatters who were now developing the resources of a fertile country. As a resolute opponent of the aristocratic Wakefield system, he enabled people to become possessed of land at very moderate prices, so that in 1843 about 20,000 acres were under tillage, the greater part being devoted to wheat, and, before he left the colony in 1845, the settlers were not only supplying the wants of South Australia, but were exporting 200,000 bushels of corn at cheap rates to the neighbouring colonies, and had then a surplus of 150,000 bushels which they could neither sell nor use. Rarely indeed has so rapid a development of a new country's natural wealth, or so sudden an accession of prosperity, been witnessed in colonial history. The colony had then above 30,000 acres under crop, and the settlers possessed 30,000 horned cattle, 2150 horses, and 450,000 sheep. The future of the colony was further assured in the discovery of copper at Kapunda, about 40 miles north-east of Adelaide, in 1842, by a man named Dutton, overseer to Captain Bagot, a squatter. In searching for some sheep which had strayed into the bush, Dutton observed a bright green rock jutting from the earth, and, having broken off a small piece, he took it to his employer. The specimen proved to be malachite, containing copper in combination with water and carbonic dioxide. The wily pair kept a quiet tongue, and then, as partners in the venture, bought eighty acres of apparently worthless land for as many pounds, and started copper-mining with a first year's yield worth £4000, a second year's of £10,000, and a continued prosperity which enabled each to make a handsome fortune, and then sell the property to an English company. Another discovery, made in 1845, caused copper to become, for many years, to South Australia, what gold was to her neighbour Victoria. At a spot about 100 miles north of Adelaide, a shepherd named Pickitt found some very rich specimens of copper ore. In great haste, when the news

SIR GEORGE GREY

The Right Hon. Sir George Grey, K.C.B., one of the greatest of British colonial governors, was born at Lisbon in 1812, son of Lieutenant-colonel Grey, killed at the storming of Badajoz. A man typical of much that is best and strongest in our race, a manful fighter for our ideals—justice, peace, and freedom, Grey won his first fame as an Australian explorer, and in 1841, in his twenty-ninth year, was appointed the first Governor of South Australia. In succession he afterwards became Governor of New Zealand (1846–54), with marvellous success; Governor of Cape Colony (1854–61), where he rendered eminent service to the Empire; and again Governor of New Zealand (1861–67), where he succeeded in ending a war with the natives. After a visit to England, Sir George Grey lived for a few years in retirement near Auckland (N.Z.) and then, plunging into the politics of his adopted country, he became a popular orator, party-leader, and, in 1877, Premier of New Zealand, in which office he carried much useful legislation. In 1884 he resigned his office, and, spending his last years in England, he closed his long and distinguished life in September, 1898, at South Kensington.



From a Photograph by RUSSELL & SONS. 95

SIR GEORGE GREY

Legislative Library

arrived, a company was formed in Adelaide. Ten thousand acres were purchased at the place, called by the natives Burra Burra; the first shot, fired on September 29th, blasted away a mass of rich ore, and in six years' time 80,000 tons were shipped to England, yielding a profit of about £440,000. The gold rush to Victoria caused a stoppage of the working for a time, but it was afterwards resumed, and the famous mine, until the supposed exhaustion of the lodes, and the cessation of work, in 1877, furnished ore to the total value of five millions sterling. The dividends, for several years after the first working of the mine, reached 800 per cent per annum on the shareholders' outlay. The effect of this great mineral discovery upon the fortunes of the colony was immediate and striking. The lonely Burra Burra moorland became a scene bustling with miners brought from Cornwall, noisy with the sounds of engines, pumps, and forges. Acres of land were covered with the company's warehouses and offices, and behind these were seen huge mounds of blue, green, and dark-red ores of copper. The roads were being ever worn by the passage of hundreds of teams, each consisting of eight bullocks, drawing the wagons that conveyed the ore for shipment. In order to complete the subject of mineral wealth in South Australia, we may note the great discovery of copper made in 1860 on sheep-stations at the head of Yorke Peninsula, near the eastern shore of Spencer Gulf. Near Wallaroo, about 120 miles north-west of Adelaide, and, in 1861, at Moonta, a few miles nearer to the capital, ore was discovered which proved so abundant that a whole generation has passed away without any signs of exhaustion. In 1889 the yearly profit of the Wallaroo mines had reached nearly £40,000, and the Moonta mines, in amount of ore, far exceeded the yield at Wallaroo.

With the arrival of Grey as Governor, the rule of the Commissioners came to an end, and South Australia was, for a time, a "Crown colony". The public debt was provided for by a loan, and the new ruler administered affairs with the firmness, ability, and courage which were conspicuous in his character. Expenses were, as already noted, severely retrenched, new taxes were imposed, and all opposition was borne down by his overmastering will. The revival of business caused by the growth of the agricultural, pastoral, and mining industries brought many thousands of immigrants; wages rose, commerce grew, and the prosperity of the

colony was established on a firm basis. Grey's successor, Colonel Robe, an officer of the old school, upright, kind-hearted, and hospitable, but obstinately adhering to antiquated methods, annoyed the colonists by attempts to impose a royalty on minerals, and to subsidize the various religious bodies, a policy contrary to the principles on which the colony was founded. He was recalled in 1848, and succeeded by Sir Henry Young, son of a Governor of Prince Edward Island. The new Governor was a man of great vigour combined with moderation, and earnestly strove to promote the benefit of the colonists, having already gained experience as an official in the West Indies, and as Lieutenant-Governor in the eastern province at the Cape. His period of office in South Australia, from August, 1848 to December, 1854, was one of importance in various ways. By 1850 the population numbered 63,000; the sheep were over three-quarters of a million; about 65,000 acres of land were tilled; and the exports were approaching half a million in annual value. In the following year, a serious check to prosperity came with the rush to the Victorian gold-diggings. Business almost collapsed for lack of labour. The streets of Adelaide were deserted, and in the rural districts whole villages were left without other dwellers than women and children. All kinds of securities swiftly declined in value, and a financial crisis had arrived, when the Governor took the bold step of causing the now partially elective Legislative Council to pass an Act making gold by weight, in the form of small stamped ingots, a legal tender at the fixed standard-value of £3, 12*s.* per ounce. The banks were thus enabled to meet their engagements at a time when the rush to the gold-fields had carried off nearly all the coinage of the country. At the same time, an efficient armed escort for the rough gold obtained at the mines was provided on the overland route from Victoria, where gold was worth only about £2, 15*s.* per ounce. Many of the diggers preferred to send away their gold by this route rather than to Melbourne, and South Australia thus enjoyed some of the advantages of a gold-producing country. The higher price of gold in the colony also induced many of the fortunate diggers to invest their surplus earnings in South Australian land, and to become farmers when they were tired of mining. When the first excitement had abated, and large numbers of the South Australians returned to their former avoca-

tions, the colony benefited much by the market opened for its wheat and flour among the vast crowds on the Victorian gold-fields, and the former prosperous state of affairs was resumed with rapid augmentation.

On the transference of Governor Young to Tasmania, rule was assumed by Sir Richard MacDonnell, son of the Provost of Trinity College, Dublin. He became a member first of the Irish, then of the English bar, Chief-justice at the Gambia, and then Governor in succession of that colony, and of St. Lucia and of St. Vincent, in the West Indies. For nearly seven years he held power in South Australia, from June, 1855 to March, 1862, and one of his first important duties was that of inaugurating the "responsible government", with full representative institutions, which superseded the Legislature composed of 8 nominee and 16 elective members. At the time (October, 1856) when a democratic form of government came into operation, the population just exceeded 100,000, who were thus, with admirable reliance upon their loyalty, prudence, and intelligence, placed in control of a region amounting, before the annexation of the Northern Territory, to about 300 millions of acres, or above nine times the area of England. The city of Adelaide had its corporation, set aside by Governor Grey, revived, and district-councils for local government were established throughout the settled territory, under the general control of the ratepayers. MacDonnell proved himself to be an energetic, liberal-minded, and popular ruler. During his term of office the first railways of the colony, from Adelaide to the port, and the lines to Gawler and Kapunda, were opened, and telegraphy was introduced by the energetic and able "Astronomer and Superintendent of Telegraphs for South Australia", Mr. Charles Todd, F.R.S., a native of London, and for some time an assistant at the Observatories of Greenwich and Cambridge, whom we shall see again in these pages. In 1858 came the great reform involved in Torrens' Real Property Act, already described in connection with New South Wales. To this period also belong the explorations, narrated in another section, of McDouall Stuart and Major Warburton.

One of the most popular of all Governors of South Australia was Sir Dominic Daly, a native of Galway, who had acquired great colonial experience as a high official (Secretary, Member of Council, and Lieutenant-Governor) in Canada and the West Indies.

He was the only Roman Catholic that ever held office, and enjoyed universal esteem from his assumption of power in March, 1862, until his lamented death six years later. During this period of great progress the vast region once called Alexandra Land, now known as the Northern Territory, was added, extending the colony to the sea on the north; Port Darwin or Palmerston became the capital of the new region thus annexed in 1864. In February, 1869, a new Governor arrived in Sir James Fergusson, an Ayrshire baronet, educated at Rugby and at Oxford, an Inkerman hero, long M.P. for his native county, and an Under-Secretary (India and Home Department) in the ministries of Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli. During his term of office, ending in February, 1873, the continent of Australia was placed in swift communication with the mother-country and the whole of the civilized world by that great engineering work, the overland-telegraph. In 1870 Mr. Charles Todd was appointed Postmaster-General, and the work of constructing the trans-continental line of wires was forthwith taken in hand. The British-Australian Telegraph Company had offered to lay a submarine cable from Singapore to Port Darwin (Palmerston), on the northern coast, 1975 miles distant from Adelaide, along a route of which much had been traversed by McDouall Stuart in his explorations. More than 800 miles, however, had never been seen by any white man when the survey for the overland line was made. Much of the country was destitute of trees for making telegraph-poles, and in this region 19,000 iron posts, carted through rocky deserts and over sand-hills, were used. Mr. Todd divided the whole length into three sections, taking the central portion into his own hands, and intrusting the two others to contractors. The central and southern portions were, with wonderful energy, soon completed, but the northern section caused much difficulty and delay. The horses died, provisions failed, and the enterprise at first collapsed in that quarter. The Government then sent a fresh expedition to the north. Wells were dug at intervals along the route, and great teams of bullocks were employed to carry the needful provisions and materials to the different working-stations, but this attempt also failed, and when the day arrived, January 1st, 1872, on which the South Australian authorities had undertaken to have their work completed, there were no wires to meet the cable already laid to Port Darwin. Action for damages was threatened by the Com-

pany, and Mr. Todd went in person to superintend the third and successful attempt. On August 22nd the wires met at Central Mount Stuart, and the Postmaster-General, seated on the ground, and working a pocket-instrument, received messages of congratulation from the Governor, the foreign consuls, and friends in the other colonies. A flaw in the submarine cable prevented communication with England until October, but on the second day of that month, the Lord-mayor of London, standing at one end of the line, sent his hearty congratulations through 13,500 miles of wire to the Mayor of Adelaide, who conversed with him from the other extremity. The whole grand work had occupied 28 months. Taking Melbourne as the starting-point in Australia, we will see how that city talks to London by a route of 13,695 miles, of which 4408 miles are land-lines, and 9287 miles consist of cables. Repeated at the many points now stated, the message goes from Melbourne to Mount Gambier, a corporate town and railway-station in the south-east of South Australia, 300 miles from the capital of Victoria. Thence it is flashed in succession to Adelaide (270 miles); to Port Augusta (eastern shore of Spencer Gulf, 200 miles); to Alice Springs (in the Northern Territory, 1036 miles); to Port Darwin (898 miles); to Banyuwangi (east coast of Java, 1150 miles); to Batavia (north-west coast of Java, 480 miles); to Singapore, 553; to Penang, 399; to Madras, 1280; to Bombay, 650; to Aden, 1662; Suez, 1346; Alexandria, 224; Malta, 828; Gibraltar, 1008; Falmouth, 1061, and from Falmouth to London, 350 miles. In order to deal finally with Mr. Todd's achievements, we record here that in 1877 a telegraph-line of 980 miles, through very difficult country, along the barren coast on which we saw that Eyre so nearly perished, was completed from Adelaide to Perth, in Western Australia.

From 1873 to 1877 the Governor of South Australia was Sir Anthony Musgrave, a man of abundant experience as a high official and ruler in the West Indies, Newfoundland, and British Columbia. His term of office was marked by a spirited policy in public works, the construction and improvement of roads, railways, tramways, telegraphs, and harbours, involving a heavy outlay met by substantial fiscal returns. In 1876, the population of the colony had grown to about 226,000, while the imports exceeded 4½ millions sterling, and the exports were above 4¾ millions. Between 1873 and 1880, the railways were extended from 200 miles to nearly 700 open for

traffic, with 320 miles in course of construction. From October, 1877, to February, 1883, the post of Governor was held by Major-General Sir William Jervois, an officer of Royal Engineers who had served with much ability and distinction at the Cape; as Inspector-General of Fortifications on the War Office staff in London; as secretary to Committees and Commissions on national defence; in fortification-work in England, Alderney, Malta, Gibraltar, the Canadian Dominion, Bermuda, India, and Burma, and as Governor of the Straits Settlements. The selection of such a man for high office in Australasia was due to the fact that the subject of colonial defences was then one of anxious consideration with the authorities at home. The work of Sir William Jervois in South Australia, and elsewhere in the southern hemisphere, in this respect, will be referred to in a coming chapter of this record. Under the able administration of this popular Governor great general advance was made, and, in particular, a new system of national primary education was established. Jervois' successor, Sir William C. F. Robinson, who held office from February, 1883, to March, 1889, was a younger brother of that veteran Colonial ruler, Sir Hercules Robinson, under whom he served in the West Indies and at Hong Kong, afterwards holding many colonial ruling appointments in the west and east of the Empire, as well as the Governorship of Western Australia from 1874 to 1877 and from 1880 to 1883. This very able and experienced Governor was most energetic and successful in his six-years' rule of South Australia. Much advance was made with public works of lasting benefit to the country, and schemes for the storage of water, irrigation, sanitation, and forestry were started. During the year 1887 alone, 900,000 trees were planted by the Government. In 1886, the Jubilee of the colony was to be celebrated by the opening, at Adelaide, of an International Exhibition. The time of this intended celebration proved to be one of great financial depression in the colony. Harvests had failed for lack of rain, and much stock died under the same drought. Prices of produce had fallen; mines were closed; and there was a great reaction from rash speculations in land. The Commercial Bank failed; joint-stock companies collapsed. Parliament had passed the Bill for the expenses of the Exhibition when this disastrous state of affairs arose, and, under the influence of panic, the measure was repealed. The scheme was, however,

speedily revived when private liberality created a guarantee fund for the charges of the Exhibition, which was postponed until the following year. At the Jubilee celebrations held in December, 1886, there were persons present who could remember the site of the city of Adelaide as covered with trees. Fifty years had passed away and a population, risen in numbers from one or two hundred to above 300,000 was in possession of a territory containing 2½ million acres under corn-crops; great mineral resources; millions of sheep, hundreds of thousands of horned cattle and horses, and having annual imports and exports respectively, in 1886, of nearly five and about 4½ millions sterling. The sand-tracks, with their bog-holes, had become good high-roads, and the post-cart and bullock-drag were now set aside, on the main lines of communication, for 2000 miles of railway, with 10,000 miles of telegraph-wires. Another Jubilee was close at hand. The year 1887 brought a revival of prosperity. An early and abundant rainfall cheered the hearts of the agriculturists and sheep-farmers. On June 20th and 21st, Queen Victoria's completion of the fiftieth year of her reign was made the occasion of great rejoicings throughout the colony, and at the very hour when, on June 21st, the Royal procession was on its way to Westminster Abbey, the Governor opened the Adelaide Exhibition, which became a great success for variety, extent, and beautiful display, and did much to draw attention to the resources of the colony. In 1889, Sir William Robinson was succeeded by the Earl of Kintore, a Scottish noble of ancient lineage, educated at Eton and at Trinity College, Cambridge, who had been a lord-in-waiting to the Queen and captain of the Yeomen of the Guard. Under his rule the colony continued to prosper. In October, 1895, the Earl was succeeded as Governor by Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, Bart, K.C.M.G. In February, 1899, Lord Tennyson, K.C.M.G., son of the famous poet, became Governor.

South Australia would be more fitly styled "Central" or "Mid" Australia, since the annexation to South Australia proper, by Letters Patent in 1863, of the Northern Territory, extended the bounds from the 26th parallel of south laditude to the sea on the north coast of Australia, and raised the area of the colony from about 300,000 to over 900,000 square miles. It thus stretches over 27 degrees of latitude, more than a third lying within the tropics. The population, in 1899, was 363,000, all in

South Australia proper, except about 5000. Of the above, about 187,000 were males. Between 1881 and 1891 the aborigines decreased in number from over 6000, in settled districts, to about one-half; in the latter year, there were nearly 4000 adult Chinese, almost wholly in the Northern Territory. The increase of population, from about 280,000 in 1881, is chiefly due to a great excess of births over deaths, the immigration by sea only slightly exceeding the emigration by the same route. In point of religious profession, the census of 1891 showed nearly 90,000 adherents of the Anglican Church, under the spiritual charge of the Bishop of Adelaide, holder of a see endowed by the munificence of the Baroness Burdett-Coutts; 47,000 Roman Catholics, under the Archbishop of Adelaide and the Bishop of Port Augusta; 49,000 Wesleyans; over 23,000 Lutherans (German colonists); 18,000 Presbyterians; 17,500 Baptists; 11,600 Methodists; nearly 16,000 Bible Christians; nearly 12,000 Congregationalists or Independents, and about 850 Jews. It will be seen that South Australia is remarkable for variety in religious belief. All forms of religion are on a level before the law, no State aid being given to any sect. With many varieties of rainfall and temperature in so vast an area, the climate of the settled portion, the south-east of the colony, is healthy in spite of great summer heat, and may be compared to that of central Italy and Sicily; the average rainfall at Adelaide is 21 inches, with much variation from year to year. There are no rivers of any importance in the south except the Murray, and the country is not well watered in comparison with Victoria and New South Wales.

The southern coast-line, from the frontier of Victoria to Western Australia, is broken, in its extent of about 2000 miles, westwards by the Great Australian Bight and by Streaky and other bays; in the east, by the two large gulfs, Spencer's and St. Vincent, and by the two peninsulas Eyria (Eyre's Peninsula) and Yorke. The estuary of the Murray and Encounter Bay lie further east again, with a projection ending in Cape Jervis. The coast is, in general, high and rocky, but in some places low and swampy, as on the shore of Encounter Bay, where a narrow lagoon called Coorong Lake runs south-east, from near the Murray mouth, parallel with the coast for 100 miles. The islands both in the south and on the coast of the Northern Territory, with the coast-

line of the latter region, need no mention beyond a reference to the map. We turn to some account of the interior, with a description of the towns.

From Cape Jervis, at the southern extremity of St. Vincent Gulf, mountain ranges run almost due north for 200 miles, with their culminating point in Mount Lofty, near Adelaide, 2334 feet above sea-level. The system consists of parallel chains, with wide grassy valleys and fertile plains, the hills being clothed with splendid varieties of eucalyptus. The southern part of the colony is watered by streamlets in every gully. The Flinders Range extends far inland from near the head of Spencer's Gulf, and has several peaks over 3000 feet high. Far to the west of Port Augusta, the Gawler ranges have an elevation of 2000 feet, and the interior has several mountain chains. Eastwards of the Mount Lofty ranges vast plains stretch away to Victoria and New South Wales. The only navigable river is the Murray, spreading out into great expanses of water as it nears the coast, and entering the ocean at Encounter Bay. The interior waters, both lakes and intermittent streams, have been already referred to in the general description of Australia and in the history of exploration. They are of no value, interest, or scenic beauty, but the interior is not by any means the mere stony desert spoken of by the earlier explorers, and the area of good sheep country is found to be considerable.

The voyager to ADELAIDE steams for about 50 miles up the east side of St. Vincent Gulf, past rugged cliffs and picturesque bays lined with cliffs or sand-hills, to Glenelg, if he be aboard a P. and O. liner, or, by Orient or Messageries boats, to Largs Bay, and so reaches the capital by road or rail. The city, divided into two portions by a belt of park-lands, through which the river Torrens, spanned by five massive iron bridges, runs in winding course, is beautifully situated on a plateau about 170 feet above the sea, from which it is distant about 6 miles, with the Mount Lofty Range as a fine background to east and south. The northern and smaller portion of the municipality, *North Adelaide*, is a great residential suburb of irregular shape; the real metropolis, *South Adelaide*, is almost exactly a parallelogram covering above 1000 acres. Both parts are laid out in chess-board style, with broad, well-paved, and mostly tree-lined streets cutting each

other at right angles. South Adelaide has a central and four other squares, symmetrically placed towards the corners of the area. The banks of the river are planted with ornamental trees, and a portion of the stream has been dammed to form a winding lake nearly 2 miles in length, as a place for boating and for illuminated flotillas at night on occasions of public rejoicing. The city is the best-drained place in Australasia, has an excellent supply of water, tramways for locomotion, and brilliant lighting with electricity and gas. The public recreation-grounds, including the Botanic Gardens of 40 acres, and Adelaide Oval, on the river bank, one of the finest cricket-grounds in the world, are extensive and charming. Rundle Street, Hindley Street, and King William Street are the chief thoroughfares, with handsome shops and other commercial buildings. There are some manufactures of woollen, leather, earthenware, and iron, but the chief importance of Adelaide, with a population, including all suburbs, of about 144,000, is based upon its position as the seat of government and as the great emporium of goods for the whole vast territory of South Australia. The new Parliament Houses, of colonial marble, were erected at a cost of £100,000. The Art Gallery, Public Library, and Museum, are under one roof. The Post-office is a splendid structure in the Italian style, built of freestone, with frontages of 150 feet and 160 feet to King William Street and Victoria Square. Its tower, called the Victoria, 158 feet high, has musical chimes, and from a platform at the summit gives a magnificent view of the city, the hills, the plains, and the sea. The Albert Tower, with a fine peal of bells, surmounts the Town Hall. King William Street, 132 feet wide, with broad flagged footpaths, passes through Victoria Square, in the centre of the city, for the whole width from north to south, and is declared by much-travelled judges of such matters to be the finest thoroughfare south of the equator. The Arcade connecting Grenfell and Rundle Streets is a lofty and elegant structure, electrically-lit at night, and is said to be unrivalled for size and beauty in the British Isles, or America, or Australasia. The numerous spires have caused Adelaide to be styled "the city of churches", while the display in its glorious Botanic Garden and other resorts has led others to call it a "city of gardens and flowers".

The metropolis of South Australia is girdled by suburban towns extending for miles in every direction, with an excellent service of

trams and trains to convey the citizens either to the sea or to the uplands. *Port Adelaide*, 7½ miles to the north, is the chief shipping-place of the colony, on an estuary now having 17 feet of water at low-tide over the bar, and 22 feet beside the wharves which present nearly three miles of frontage. There are also a dock of 5 acres and a graving-dock, with extensive warehouses, and all the appliances of a first-rate port, including a well-managed Seamen's Home. *Glenelg* and *Brighton*, to the south-west of Adelaide, are the two favourite seaside resorts of the citizens. On the east, visitors from London find familiar names in the populous and attractive suburbs *Kensington* and *Norwood*; farther out is the beautiful Waterfall Gully, in a valley with prolific gardens, and having three cascades in wooded dells amidst broad-leaved and maidenhair ferns, mosses and lichens, and graceful trees. A few miles away, the Auldana vineyard of 120 acres, at about 600 feet above sea-level, produces white and red wines which gained the highest prize for Australian wine at the Melbourne International Exhibition.

The hill-country along the coast near Adelaide has abundant charms of towering cliffs, rugged rocks, dark ravines, vine-clad slopes, wooded heights, and green valleys. The viceregal summer residence on Marble Hill commands a noble prospect of scenery both soft and stern, and near Summertown, a village ten miles east of Adelaide, the hills are clothed with fine forest trees beneath which grow masses of heath; the rugged ridges glow with the brilliant pink and crimson, white and spotted, flowers of various kinds of epacris, a heath-like shrub or small tree, while hundreds of acres of orchards display, according to the season, a ravishing spectacle of blossoms or fruit. In this region of delightful climate and charming scenery there are scores of villages and tiny towns, each with its church and school and assembly-hall, its post-office and telegraph-station, and the hills are dotted over with the country-residences of colonial magnates and Adelaide merchants. To an Englishman's eye the roads are made beautiful by their bordering for miles of great blackberry hedges, and by the sight of British oaks and elms, and of laurustinus and laurel replacing the native undergrowth as the ground is cleared around the mansions. Fruits, flowers, and vegetables of every kind come to perfection for the markets of the capital.

The railway southward over the hills is a fine specimen of

engineering work, with two iron viaducts, of 360 feet in length and 107 feet in height, and of 260 feet long by 79 high, crossing a grand double ravine amid romantic scenery of steep, partly-wooded hills. The line climbs by a zigzag to a height of over 1600 feet at about 20 miles from Adelaide. At 60 miles from the city, it crosses the Murray by one of the finest bridges in the colonies. The river is there about 200 yards wide, but the left bank has an extensive swamp, and the iron structure that carries the railway across all has a total length of 1980 feet, with a width of 22 feet for carriage-road and railway-lines, besides 10 feet for two footways. The bridge, with 5 spans each of 120 feet, carrying the road 33 feet above the water, and 23 spans of 60 feet each above the swamp, contains nearly 2000 tons of wrought, and about 2200 tons of cast iron, the total cost being £125,000. Towards the Victorian border, in the south-east, is a sportsman's paradise of lagoons and meres with millions of wild-fowl. Near Narracoorte, about 65 miles north of Mount Gambier, is a series of caves rivalling those of Jenolan in interest and beauty, if not in extent. *Mount Gambier*, a town of about 3000 people, lying near the coast nearly 300 miles south-east of Adelaide, is the centre of a district which may be called the garden of the colony, where a rich, black, friable mould, with a volcanic subsoil, produces English grasses, shrubs, flowers, trees, fruits, hops, and potatoes in wonderful luxuriance and amount. Between the town and Port Macdonnell a scene of great beauty presents itself in the crater of an extinct volcano, a nearly circular basin of broken outline, almost a mile across, with precipitous sides 300 feet in depth, the rocky walls adorned with shrubs from the topmost verge to the edge of a placid lake below, blue as the sky, clear as crystal, and in some places from 300 to 400 feet deep.

Running northwards by rail from Adelaide, the traveller passes to *Gawler*, 24 miles away, over a plain which is mainly a great wheat-field with no obstruction to the plough save the wire-fences, a few uncleared patches of scrub, and the plantations around the homesteads. Some of the finest wheat in the world is grown in this district. Gawler, with a population of 3000, is a handsome little town, with foundries, saw-mills, factories for coach-building and for agricultural implements; a beautiful park, fine churches, and excellent shops. Farther north, a territory large enough for a European

kingdom contains many flourishing settlements of German agriculturists, who grow abundant grapes and other fruits, and have, with settlers of other races, above 40,000 acres under wheat. *Endunda*, about 70 miles north of Adelaide, is the centre of a vast pastoral district, and is situated at the culminating point between the capital and the Murray, 1350 feet above sea-level. Far to the north, westwards of the Murray, and east and north of St. Vincent and Spencer Gulfs, agricultural and pastoral settlements extend, with some mining towns already described. The little town of *Clare*, on the road to Burra Burra, is the centre of a district with abundant wheat-tillage, and many sheep and cattle stations. At about 150 miles from Adelaide, the railway attains its highest point, nearly 2000 feet above the sea, and passes out on bare and windy uplands, partly tilled. Between Petersburg, 154 miles north of Adelaide, and Port Pirie, to the west, near the head of Spencer's Gulf, are rich agricultural districts and several flourishing little towns. *Port Pirie*, the chief shipping place for the northern districts, has a large export of wheat. At 260 miles from the capital, the traveller arrives at *Quorn*, at the point of junction with the intended transcontinental railway from Port Augusta, at the head of Spencer's Gulf.

Port Augusta seems designed by nature to be the entrepôt and emporium for an interior country of vast extent, where the land is occupied, for hundreds of miles to east, west, and north, and the amount of imports and exports must steadily increase. There is a channel 150 feet wide, with 18 feet depth at low water, cut to the railway-wharf, where the transcontinental line begins. The railway penetrates the Flinders Range through a tortuous and rugged defile, and at about 100 miles from Port Augusta comes out upon a region of stony plain, with little vegetation save "salt-bush", some scrub, and a few gum-trees. To the west, the vision is limited only by the convexity of the globe; to the east appear the bare, fantastic peaks of the Flinders Range, rich in minerals, and abounding in scenes both of rugged grandeur and bewitching beauty in rocky pinnacles, verdant vales, and glassy lakelets. The line turns westwards to pass round the southern end of Lake Eyre, through a country containing the curious "mound-springs", conical hillocks occurring singly and in groups, natural artesian wells of water sometimes useful for drinking and irrigation, sometimes warm

or impregnated with mineral substances. At about 450 miles from Port Augusta, as the railway continues to bridge a region impracticable for any other mode of conveyance, it passes out upon the vast interior where the telegraph-line alone keeps an open thoroughfare through the heart of the continent, and supplies tiny centres of civilization in its stations. Save for the lack of society, the conditions of life are by no means unpleasant at some of these localities. *Alice Springs*, 1036 miles from Adelaide, has a mean temperature of 70 degrees, with a rainfall of 12 inches, and is prettily situated on the banks of a river issuing from the MacDonnell Range, to the north. The valley stretches far to east and west, bounded to the south by a grand wall of towering cliffs, with natural gateways and gorges at many points. Exploration is still enlarging our knowledge of the great interior composed of stony and sandy wastes, grassy plains, mountain-chains, and extensive lakes receiving inland rivers, some of which are hundreds of miles in length, to soak away into subterranean reservoirs or to evaporate beneath the rays of a tropical sun.

In dealing with the NORTHERN TERRITORY, we find Port Darwin, with outer and inner "heads", the latter about two miles apart, to be a Port Jackson of the north for depth of water, extent, and safe anchorage for ships. Seven miles in breadth, this great harbour has three main branches running far inland. *Palmerston*, the chief town of Northern Territory, is well placed on the eastern shore, with good public buildings of stone, and other edifices of wood and iron, sixty feet above the sea, the white roofs showing well against masses of tropical foliage. Vessels of the Eastern Australian Steam Navigation Company and "British India" steamers are the large craft calling at a jetty 1120 feet in length, connected with the railway running inland to the mining district. The place is intensely hot, and has a population of about 800 Europeans, with a far larger number of Chinese, much engaged in fishing, gardening, tailoring, washing, and carpentry. Pine-apples and bananas are abundantly grown. The country for 150 miles east and west of the telegraph-line ending at Palmerston has been explored, and has many ranges of well-wooded hills, with numerous rivers and streams. The flora is, of course, tropical, and the fauna include the bower-bird and jungle pheasant. The gold-mining from alluvial diggings and from reefs, along the southern half of the railway running

south-east to Pine Creek, 145 miles from Palmerston, is now mostly abandoned to Chinese, having produced about five tons of gold up to 1887; the yield for 1898 exceeded 29,000 ounces. Some copper, silver, and tin are also obtained. Half the whole area of the territory is now held under squatting license, and 171,000 square miles are stocked with over 350,000 horned cattle, over 64,000 sheep, and over 15,000 horses. Some of the fine rivers—the Roper, the Liverpool, the Adelaide, the South and East Alligator, the Daly, the Victoria, and the Fitzmaurice—swarm with fish and water-fowl, and have lovely tropical scenery on the banks. The climate, very hot and with 65 inches of annual rainfall at Palmerston, is not suited to Europeans, and commercial progress seems to depend on Asiatic immigration.

The chief industries of South Australia, as in the other colonies, are in tillage and pasture. About 34 millions of acres are inclosed, and of these, in 1898, about 1,788,000 acres were under wheat, producing 8,778,900 bushels; 17,000 acres under barley (234,000 bushels); 25,820 growing oats (304,000 bushels); 6650 acres with potatoes (14,440 tons); and over 19,150 acres in vineyards, producing about 1,081,000 gallons of wine. As regards wheat, the country, exporting large quantities of corn and flour to the other colonies in that quarter, may be styled the granary of Australia. At *Renmark*, on the banks of the Murray, about 140 miles north-east of Adelaide, is an irrigation-colony exactly like that already described at Mildura, in Victoria. Thriving settlements have there arisen for the production of fruit. The pastoral value of the colony is shown by the returns for 1898, which give, for South Australia proper, about 162,000 horses, 260,000 horned cattle, and over 5 million sheep. Manufactures, in 1898, employed about 14,240 people. The total exports for 1898 had a value of over 6¾ millions sterling, including £1,175,000 in bullion and specie, £245,000 in copper, over £235,000 in flour, £16,000 in wheat, £78,000 in wine, and nearly a million sterling (35 million lbs. weight) in wool. Of the above, produce to the value of over 1¾ millions was sent to the British Isles. The imports, in the same year, had a total value of nearly 6¼ millions, chiefly in bullion and specie, iron (£281,000), coals and other fuel (nearly ¼ million), and manufactured goods, with groceries and oilmen's stores, timber, and wool sent down the Murray for exportation. Of the above,

nearly 2 millions sterling in value came from the United Kingdom. Of the whole trade of South Australia, 95 per cent is carried on with the British Isles and with the other Australian colonies. Of the total tonnage (about 3,318,000), exclusive of coasting trade, "entered" and "cleared" in 1896, nearly 2¾ million tons were British vessels. The colony had, in 1897, including the line lately noticed in the Northern Territory, 1868 miles of railway open for traffic, bringing a profit of 5 per cent to the Government. The Great Northern line, or transcontinental railway, extended in 1895 from Adelaide to Quorn (234 miles) and thence as far as Oodnadatta, on the overland telegraph line, a point 450 miles from Quorn, or nearly 700 from Adelaide. There are many branches to various settlements and ports. The 5865 miles of telegraph (and telephone), with over 14,000 miles of wire, include the overland line already described. As a recent member of the Postal Union, South Australia has a 2½*d.* postage for half-ounce letters to and from the United Kingdom and most other countries, with a 2*d.* postage for Australasia. In addition to the usual banking system for commercial affairs, there are Government savings-banks which, in June, 1899, had over 100,760 depositors, with £3,258,000 standing to their credit.

With the exception of the Northern Territory, which is ruled by a "Resident", assisted by a small staff of officials, South Australia has a system of government almost exactly resembling that of Victoria. The Parliament has two Houses, of which the Legislative Council consists of 24 members, elected by voters with a small freehold, leasehold, or rental qualification; every three years the 8 members first on the roll retire, and two new members are chosen by each of the four districts into which the colony is divided for this purpose. The House of Assembly, of 54 members, is elected for three years, under manhood suffrage, by the voters of 27 districts. In 1896 the number of registered electors was over 138,000. Voting for members of both houses is by ballot, and judges and ministers of religion are ineligible. Members of the Council and of the Assembly receive each £200 a year, with a free pass over government railways. The executive power is vested in the Governor and an Executive Council or Ministry of six responsible members, including one for Education and Agriculture combined. Local government is in the hands of 33

municipalities and 141 district councils, the latter having municipal powers. The 42 counties are merely blocks of country thrown open for tillage. A complete system of public instruction is established, secular and compulsory up to a certain standard, with Government "exhibitions" and scholarships leading to the higher schools and the University. Teachers are paid, in the elementary schools, partly from Government grants secured by lands set apart for the purpose, and partly by fees. A good feature is a somewhat extensive and systematic use of military drill. The University of Adelaide, founded in 1872, owes its existence to the munificence of two leading colonists, Sir Walter Watson Hughes, a native of Pittenweem, the little Fifeshire seaport, who acquired great wealth from the Moonta, Wallaroo and Yorke's Peninsula Copper Mines; and Sir Thomas Elder, another Scot, born at Kirkcaldy, who emigrated to South Australia in 1854, was a chief promoter of the Moonta mines, a breeder of first-class horses, and a member of the Legislative Council. They each contributed £20,000 to the founding of the institution now endowed with £50,000 and 50,000 acres of land; authorized to grant degrees in arts, law, music, medicine, and sciences; open to female students; and privileged to nominate annually one student to the Royal Military College at Sandhurst. The usual arrangements exist for the administration of justice in a Supreme Court, courts of vice-admiralty, and insolvency, and circuit, local, and police magistrates' courts. At the end of 1898 the prisons of the colony contained only 131 males and 14 females, a far smaller proportion than in Victoria or New South Wales, which, in the year 1896, had respectively 1109 males and 186 females, and 2354 prisoners of both sexes, out of populations in each case less than four times that of South Australia. The public revenue, for the year ending June 30th, 1899, amounted (apart from £31,673 from Northern Territory) to £2,665,477, mainly derived from customs-duties and excise, railways, post and telegraphs, and public lands. As in Victoria and New South Wales, the custom-house levies duties, varying from 10 to over 100 per cent *ad valorem* on manufactured goods, articles of food and drink, oils, metals, and tobacco. The expenditure for the same year, excluding £132,000 for Northern Territory, a little exceeded £2,632,000, mainly devoted to public works, railways, interest on a public debt of £24,431,600, and administrative charges. Three-fourths of the

debt has been incurred for railways, telegraphs, and water-works, the net earnings of which exceed the interest payable on loans. The history of the colony, and the statements and figures that have been adduced, are convincing testimony of what can be effected, in the space of sixty years, by British energy and skill, enterprise and toil, patience and endurance, in creating a new country rich in corn and wine, fruits and fleeces, out of a wilderness where a few wandering savages did not cultivate a rod of ground.

CHAPTER VIII.

QUEENSLAND: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS TOWNS.

Early history of Moreton Bay—At first a penal settlement—Arrival of the Brothers Leslie—Gradual increase of free colonists—Colony of Queensland constituted—Its first premier Sir Robert Herbert—Progress of pastoral industry—Discovery of gold, copper, tin, and coal—Importation of coolies—The Mount Morgan mine—Progress of the colony—Bold policy of Sir Thomas M'Ilwraith—Proposed annexation of New Guinea—Sir Samuel Griffith—Important services of Commander Heath—The disastrous floods of 1893—Area and physical features of the country—Rivers—Climate—Population—Aborigines—Religious denominations—Features of the coast-country—The Barron Falls—Thursday Island and Port Kennedy—Political divisions of the colony—Pastoral and agricultural industries—Growth of fruit, sugar, &c.—Value of the forests—Live stock—Manufactures—Exports and imports—Mineral wealth—Brisbane, the capital—Ipswich, Toowoomba, Maryborough, Gympie, Rockhampton, Mackay, and other towns—Means of communication—Railways, telegraphs, and postal system—Lines of steamers—Government—Education—Revenue and import duties—Public expenditure and debt—Assisted immigration—The trade in Kanakas or South Sea Islanders.

The history of QUEENSLAND, formerly known as the Moreton Bay district of New South Wales, began with the discovery, in 1770, of the inlet named by Captain Cook after his friend the Earl of Moreton, President of the Royal Society. He hoisted the English colours, claiming for his sovereign the whole eastern coast-line of Australia, at the group thence named Possession Isles, off the north-eastern point, and on August 13th he reached Cape York, as already recorded in an early stage of this work. In 1802, Flinders, on his second voyage of exploration in that quarter, discovered Port Curtis, just above the 24th parallel of south latitude. The record remains a blank until Oxley's discovery, already mentioned, of the great river flowing into Moreton Bay,

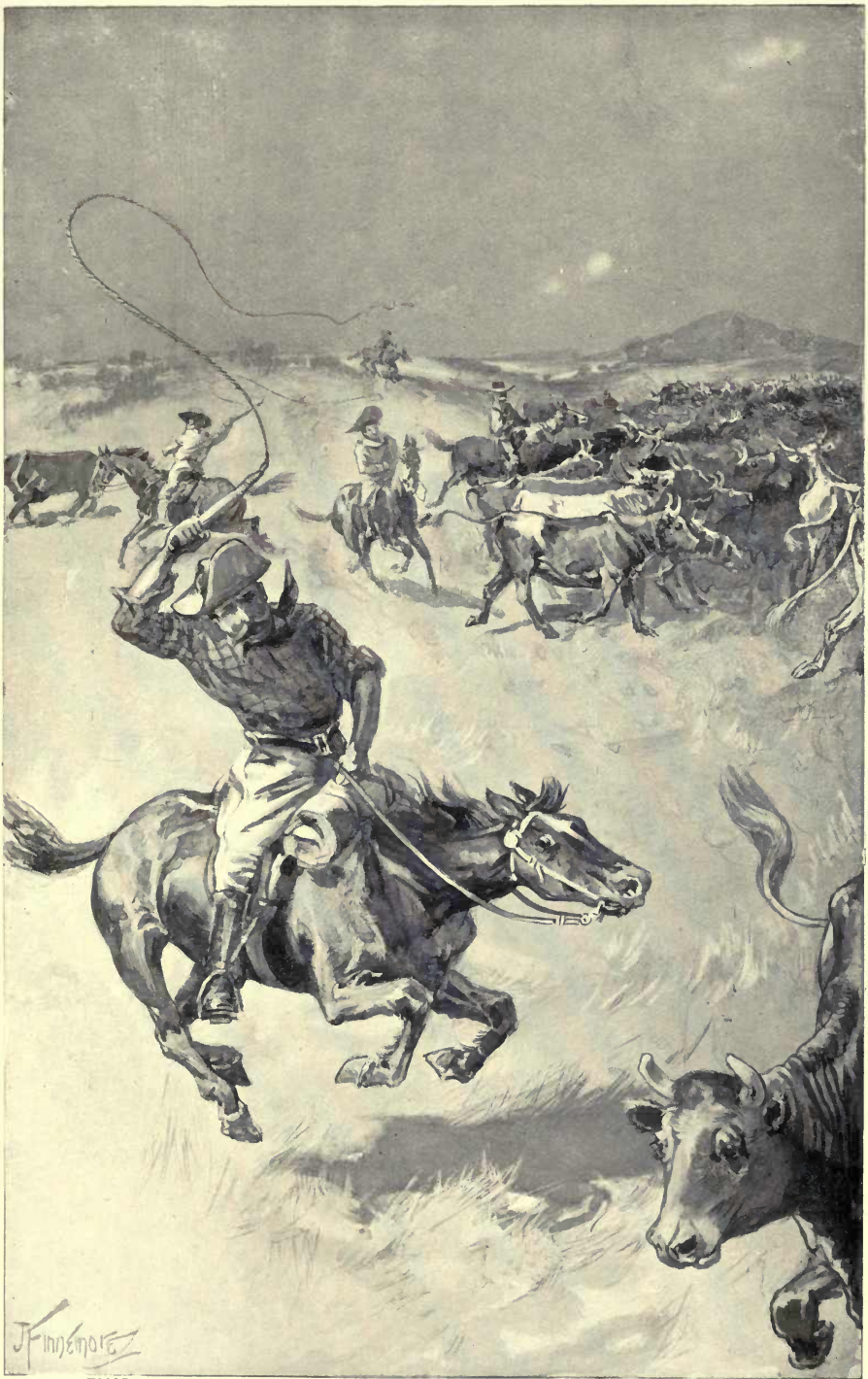
named by him after Sir Thomas Brisbane, Governor of New South Wales, then our only Australian colony; and the establishment in the following year, 1824, of a small penal settlement, for convicts from New South Wales, at a point on the new-found river. In 1825, Captain Logan, of the 57th Regiment, went from Sydney to take charge of the little colony, then numbering under 50 persons. He exercised a very stern discipline over the doubly-convicted prisoners committed to his care, and was energetic in building, in clearing the ground, in tillage, and in exploration. The discovery of the Darling Downs, in 1829, by Allan Cunningham, has been noticed above. In 1830, a body of 1000 convicts, with 100 soldiers as their guard, arrived from the south to swell the number of dwellers at Moreton Bay. In the same year, Captain Logan, while he was engaged on exploring, was murdered, probably by convicts of his party, though the crime was long attributed to the natives. The earlier history of Queensland is, indeed, by no means pleasant. The brutal floggings inflicted upon convicts were followed, in the earlier days of settlement, by conflict with the natives in which the government troopers shot down the aborigines by scores, and two shepherds did not shrink from poisoning them, on a large scale, by presents of flour in which arsenic had been freely intermingled. In 1839, the town of Brisbane was laid out, and, a year later, when the convicts had been almost all withdrawn, a new chapter of Australian history in that region was opened by the arrival of a true colonizing element in the person of the brothers Leslie, friends of Cunningham. These enterprising men, pushing forward from the south with their stock of over 5000 sheep, had with them about two dozen "assigned" convicts, or "ticket-of-leavers", excellent men in work and conduct, as Mr. Patrick Leslie declared. Their installation on the Darling Downs was followed by the arrival of other squatters, by land and by sea, from New South Wales, and in 1844, there were more than 40 "stations" or homesteads within 50 miles of Brisbane, and a good export of wool had begun from a new colony, or colonial district, containing nearly 500 free settlers, 660 horses, over 13,000 cattle, and 200,000 sheep. Queensland, as she was to be named, was fairly started on her prosperous career. In 1841, a new form of rule had begun in the appointment of Captain Wickham, R.N., as Superintendent, and of two "Crown-

lands Commissioners" for Moreton Bay and Darling Downs. Two years later, the four settled districts, namely, the two above and "Macquarie" and "Upper Hunter", sent one joint representative to the Legislative Council at Sydney. The explorations made by Leichhardt and Kennedy opened up much country within a few years from this time. The first ship-load of immigrants from Europe direct brought 240 new settlers in 1848, and Dr. Lang, the able and energetic Scot whom we have met in the history of New South Wales, did much towards introducing some hundreds more.

It was in 1859, when the population of "Moreton Bay District" numbered about 25,000, that, after many years of agitation to that end, the independent colony of Queensland was constituted, receiving almost at once representative institutions and responsible government, under the viceregal control of Sir George Bowen, whose career in other quarters has been seen in the history of Victoria. Brisbane, then containing 7000 inhabitants, became the capital of the new colony. The political organization was successfully started on its work by the Governor, with the valuable assistance of his Colonial Secretary, Mr. (afterwards Sir Robert) Herbert, a scion of the Earl of Carnarvon's family; a gentleman who had a few years previously closed a most brilliant career at the University of Oxford, and was to become the first Premier of Queensland, and then, for more than twenty years, a very valuable official at home as Under-Secretary of State at the Colonial Office in Downing Street. The pastoral industry which here, as in the other Australian colonies, was the early basis of prosperity, had now become such that about 1300 "runs", spreading far to north and west, had live stock represented by 23,500 horses, 433,000 horned cattle, and more than 3,000,000 sheep. In 1858, there had been a discovery of gold in the north on the banks of the Fitzroy River, and about 15,000 diggers were quickly attracted to the region. The supply, however, soon gave out, and the starving crowd was, to a large extent, rescued in vessels sent by the governments of Victoria and New South Wales. A few energetic persons who remained to till the fertile soil became the founders of the town of Rockhampton. A lack of suitable labour for purposes of tillage caused an importation of coolies from Polynesia and China, to be employed in the cultivation of sugar, cotton, and other tropical or sub-tropical products. Legislation

CATTLE-MUSTERING IN QUEENSLAND.

The colony of Queensland, constituted in 1859, is more varied in its natural features and productions than some of the other Australian colonies. Its climate is hotter than that of either New South Wales or Victoria, but is not on the whole considered less healthy. Sugar and cotton as well as cereals are among its cultivated plants, and gold-mining is an important industry. The industry most distinctive of the colony, however, is the breeding of cattle. On the lower, hotter, and better-watered plains, as well as in the higher and more inland country, large numbers of cattle are reared. In some portions of the colony the grass is poor, but in these places salt-bush, an excellent food for cattle, usually abounds; and indeed Queensland is by far the most important of the Australian colonies in respect of cattle-breeding. The number of sheep in the colony is about twenty millions, and the number of cattle about seven millions; and thus, whilst Queensland holds a high place among the other colonies in sheep-rearing, it contains more cattle than all of them put together.



CATTLE-MUSTERING IN QUEENSLAND.

was soon needed to cope with the abuses of a system which was becoming little better than a slave-trade.

Sir George Bowen, in January, 1868, left the colony for New Zealand, and the following year showed a population of about 110,000, with revenue and expenditure each exceeding three-quarters of a million. Railways and telegraph-wires were now in operation, and a new impulse had been given to progress by rich discoveries of gold. In 1867, an auriferous region of large extent was found at Gympie, about 120 miles north of Brisbane, and this event was followed by the working of other gold-fields, including the enormously valuable Mount Morgan mine, near Rockhampton, a remarkable instance of loss of fortune through failure to look below the surface. In the midst of the district where, in 1858, the miners were starving by thousands for lack of sufficient return for their labour, a young squatter bought a block of 640 acres from the government. It lay on a rocky hill, and the soil was so barren that he was glad to sell it for a pound per acre to three brothers named Morgan. In their hands, it proved to contain one of the rarest things in the mineral world, a reef 600 feet long, 300 wide, and of unknown depth, composed of ironstone most richly impregnated with gold. From lack of suitable processes for "saving" the gold found thus combined, the Morgans disposed of the property to those who, with others, have obtained from the hill at the least seven millions' worth of gold, at the rate of from three to twelve ounces per ton of ore. In 1872, while fresh finds of gold were being often made, rich deposits of copper and tin were discovered respectively in the north and the south, and coal was found and has been worked in large amount. No special notice is needed by the Governorships of Sir George Bowen's successors Colonel Blackall (1868–1871), the Marquis of Normanby (1871–1874), Sir William Cairns (1875–1877), and Sir Arthur Kennedy (1877–1883). The colony, like her Australian sisters, has had her drawbacks to prosperity, from time to time, in the shape of droughts and financial panics, but nothing has long interfered with progress due to the development of natural resources unrivalled on the Australian continent for variety and abundance. The colony was, by degrees, thoroughly explored; railways were ever extended as new regions were opened up. In 1870, the number of holdings for sheep and cattle exceeded 2200, with over 83,000 horses, 1,800,000

horned beasts, and 8,000,000 sheep. This number of sheep was decreased, within the next decade, by 2½ millions, as it was found that much of the land thus occupied was unsuitable; but in 1880 the "runs" had increased to 6600, with nearly 180,000 horses, and over 3,000,000 cattle. Steady and substantial progress has been made since 1883, in spite of severe droughts in 1884–5 and 1888, and heavy floods in 1887.

Among the more prominent statesmen of Queensland we find Sir Thomas M'Ilwraith, a native of Ayr, and a student of Glasgow University, who emigrated to Victoria in 1854, and was largely employed as an engineer on the railway works of that colony. In 1870 he settled in Queensland, where he became a member of the Legislative Assembly and Minister for Public Works and Mines. In 1879 M'Ilwraith rose to the position of Premier, and became specially prominent in April, 1883, by his annexation of New Guinea, a bold step which was unanimously approved by the Australasian colonies, and, with general indignation, disallowed by the timorous incompetence of Lord Derby, the Colonial Secretary in London. The way was thus thrown open for German intervention, and Germany was, through interference with the statesmanlike action of Sir Thomas M'Ilwraith and his colonial supporters, enabled to gain a foothold in New Guinea and the Western Pacific. The Intercolonial Convention, warmly supported by M'Ilwraith as an advocate of Australasian unity, was one consequence of these events. In 1888, Sir Thomas was again Premier (holding the offices of Chief Secretary and Colonial Treasurer), and then, with the support of the Colonial Office at home, he gained a victory over the Governor, Sir Anthony Musgrave (in office from 1883 to 1888), in a contest wherein the Queensland statesman insisted that the representative of the Crown had no choice but to follow ministerial advice as to the exercise of the prerogative of mercy in the case of convicted criminals. On the death of Sir Anthony in 1888, M'Ilwraith claimed that the Queensland Cabinet should be consulted by the Imperial authorities as to the appointment of a successor, and in this case, though Lord Knutsford, the Colonial Secretary, refused to admit the principle, the formal protest of Sir Thomas caused a deadlock which ended in the voluntary retirement of the Colonial Office nominee, Sir Henry Blake, within a short time from his arrival in Queensland. General Sir Henry

Norman, a distinguished Indian officer in the second Sikh war and the Sepoy Mutiny, became Governor in 1889, after experience for some years as Governor of Jamaica. Another Queensland Premier, Sir Samuel Griffith, at different times an opponent and a colleague of M'Ilwraith, was born at Merthyr Tydvil, and emigrated to Queensland (then the "Moreton Bay District") at an early age, in 1854. From the Brisbane bar he entered Parliament in 1872, and soon held office as Attorney-General. In this capacity he carried a stringent and valuable Insolvency Bill, and became Minister of Education after rendering the further service of instituting, under a measure of his introduction, a free, secular, and compulsory system of State instruction. In 1883, Sir Samuel became Premier, after the defeat of M'Ilwraith and his colleagues by a large majority on their policy favouring the importation of coolie-labour for the purpose of working the sugar-plantations of northern Queensland. The new ministry carried a Licensing Bill which embodied the principle of "local option" without compensation, and they also contributed to the national security by a Defence Act. Sir Samuel Griffith has been, like M'Ilwraith, a strong supporter of Australian Federation, and took a prominent part, in 1887, in the proceedings of the Colonial Conference held in London. The other services of this distinguished Queenslander include codifications of law on certain subjects.

In another line of action, mention is due to the energy and skill of Commander Heath, a native of Norfolk, who entered the royal navy at an early age, and was much employed in surveys on the western Pacific station before he became, in 1860, Marine Surveyor of Queensland and a member of the Pilot Board. In this and higher capacities, including the chairmanship of the Marine Board (1869), he rendered services which may be estimated by facts relating to the years 1860 and 1890, the date of his retirement. In the former year, the new colony had but one lighthouse and one light-ship, both in Moreton Bay. When Heath gave up his charge, the long line of coast was illuminated for mariners by thirty-five lighthouses, six light-ships, and about 160 smaller beacons. Eighteen ports were open with a thousand miles of buoyed and beaconed channels, including the intricate navigation of the passage through the coral waters of the inner route, described above in connection with the famous Barrier Reef.

The chief event in the recent history of Queensland was the disaster due to floods in the south-eastern part of the colony, which occurred in the early days of February, 1893. Nothing in the history of Australia ever equalled, in this kind, the mischief wrought in the valleys of the Brisbane and Bremer rivers through a downpour of which dwellers in the British Isles can form slight conception. For seven days and nights, without intermission, the rain came down in sheets that quickly filled every gully, whence torrents rushed to swell the water-courses and so send a deluge over the land. The towns of Gympie and Maryborough, respectively 116 and 170 miles north of Brisbane, suffered severely. Ipswich, 23 miles west of the capital, was badly flooded. The country around Toowoomba, on the Darling Downs, about 80 miles further west than Ipswich, presented a scene of utter desolation. The most severe loss was incurred at Brisbane, where the river rose nearly 10 feet higher than during the calamitous floods of January, 1890, and, covering the low-lying suburb of working-class people, in the district called Fortitude Valley, to the depth of 50 feet, demolished several factories, and above 500 houses, which were there chiefly built of the native hard woods, with shingle roofs, the structures being raised on short trunks of timber, metal-capped, in order to preserve them from the ravages of "white ants". Around three, and sometimes four, sides of the house a verandah runs, wide enough to serve as a place for meals in the hot season. Such buildings could offer no resistance to so mighty a flood, and were forthwith swept away with serious loss of life. Some of the chief thoroughfares of the city proper, on higher ground, were flooded. Six miles above the capital, the railway-bridge spanning the Brisbane at Indooroopilly fell with a thunderous roar, and its piers and girders were swept away. The crowning mischief came when communication between North and South Brisbane was cut off by the demolition of the massive and magnificent Victoria Bridge, an iron swing structure on the lattice-girder principle, 1080 feet long, which took over nine years in building at a cost of a quarter of a million sterling. The scene at this point was one of terrible interest for many hours before the event. Above a hundred houses and great sheds, between the afternoon of Saturday, February 4th, and Sunday night, were borne down upon the bridge and crushed to pieces. In one case,

six men in a row, hanging on to a floating house, and uttering wild cries for help which it was impossible to afford, perished in the waters as the house was hurled against one of the piers. The Stanley Street swimming-baths dragged their four anchors, and drifted on to the bridge, to be instantly broken up. Live stock, farm produce, furniture, fencing, trees, pieces of land held together by reeds and scrub as floating islets, were carried down the swift stream and out to sea. Wreckage piled up against the lattice-work of the bridge impeded the free flow of the water on the south side, and the rush in the deep channel on the north increased in speed. The crisis came at about four o'clock on the morning of Tuesday, February 7th, when there was a vast accumulation of iron and wood from houses, trees, and other objects. The destruction of the bridge started from the centre and worked its way to the north bank. With seven separate crashes, girder after girder, lattice after lattice, canted up, turned a somersault, and was engulfed in the boiling flood, while the water dashed up to a height of 30 to 40 feet and descended in spray rendered snow-like by the rays of a brilliant moon. The wreckage was released and borne away seawards with terrific force, and in a few moments a clear stream appeared for half the distance across the river, and the southern half of the noble Victoria Bridge stood up sheer, ghastly, and gaunt in its survival where so much had been swept away. In September, a temporary wooden bridge was opened for traffic, and an entirely new structure, at an estimated cost, including approaches, of about £112,000, has now been completed.

Queensland, occupying the north-eastern portion of the Australian continent, and including many adjacent islands in the Pacific Ocean and the Gulf of Carpentaria, and lying between the 11th and 29th parallels of south latitude, and the 138th and 154th meridians of east longitude, has a maximum length of 1300 miles from north to south, and an extreme width of about 800 miles, with an area of nearly 670,000 square miles, making it about five and a half times as large as the United Kingdom. In its main features the surface of the country resembles that of New South Wales, and may be divided into the Coast District, the Table-land, and the Interior Plains. It is upon the first of these, lying between the sea on the east, and a backbone of mountains running parallel thereto at an average distance of 50 miles, that settlement has

mainly taken place. The table-land, with an average elevation of less than 2000 feet, extending northward as far as the 16th parallel of south latitude, lies westward of the mountains, with a gradual slope towards the interior, and here the open downs and plains are often composed of the richest black soil, covered with herbage of the finest fattening quality. The eastern side of the mountain-belt has many ridges, and is thickly timbered with the *eucalypti* peculiar to that part of the world. The volcanic element is strongly marked in the geological structure of Queensland, and is a source of the large area of fertile soil; basalts and lavas abound in the hilly districts, and there are hundreds of well-defined extinct craters, some about 4000 feet above sea-level, surrounded by sheets of lava and masses of volcanic ashes. In the south-west are sandy and stony tracts which may be termed deserts: near the Gulf of Carpentaria the land becomes marly in character, producing the "salt-bush" and other salsolaceous vegetation which furnishes food to horned cattle and sheep.

The country is fairly well watered. Most of the rivers rising in the coast ranges or on the table-land, and flowing into the Pacific, have short and rapid courses, but there are some which run for considerable distances parallel to the coast either on the table-land or in longitudinal valleys among the coast ranges. The most conspicuous of these longer rivers is the Burdekin. The Fitzroy has a similar course; the Burnett, Brisbane, and Mary are the other chief streams on the east. On the northern slope, to the Gulf of Carpentaria, the Flinders and the Mitchell are the largest rivers. On the interior slope, we have already seen, in the history of exploration, the Barcoo, or Cooper's Creek, flowing south and west into Lake Eyre. The other streams in this part of the colony are tributaries of the Darling, including the Paroo, the Warrego, the Maranoa, and the Condamine, which last may be considered the chief source of the Darling. The change of name, at different parts of a river's course, is an Australian peculiarity. The Condamine, for instance, rises in the dividing chain about 60 miles from the sea, and, flowing north-westerly for 250 miles, turning west and south, and being joined by the Maranoa, becomes known as the Balonne. Further south, this is exchanged for "Culgoa", under which title the river enters New South Wales.

In a country of which two-thirds lies within the tropics, there

must be a wide variety of climate. The northern portion has a dry heat reaching 108 degrees, rendered tolerable by a certain exhilarating quality of the atmosphere. The wet season, extending from Christmas to March, there gives a rainfall of 90 to 100 inches; the rest of the year is dry, with a pure air and a cloudless sky. For seven months the weather is most enjoyable, and has been well compared with that prevailing in Madeira. In the sub-tropical zone of Queensland the climate resembles that of New South Wales, but is somewhat warmer. The mean annual temperature of the coast district is about 70 degrees, with an annual rainfall of 50 inches. The diminution of temperature and rainfall on the table-land shows respectively 62 degrees and 32 inches. The great plains of the interior have a mean annual temperature of 80 degrees and a rainfall ranging from 10 to 20 inches according to position and distance from the sea. The whole country is happily free from the hot winds which, in the southern colonies, are so injurious to vegetation and so disagreeable to human beings. The general salubrity of the climate is signally proved by a low death-rate, a high birth-rate, and immunity from the scourges of contagious diseases and pulmonary maladies.

The population, at the end of 1899, was estimated at just over 498,000; the census of April, 1891, showed about 224,000 males and 170,000 females. Increase is due almost entirely to excess of births over deaths; the immigration (18,765 in 1896) being almost balanced by emigration (16,824 in the same year). Of the total population (393,700) according to the above census, about 177,000 were natives of Queensland; 77,000 of England; 43,000 of Ireland; 22,400 of Scotland. Above 28,000 were born in other Australian colonies, chiefly in New South Wales and Victoria; about 15,000 were natives of Germany, over 3000 of Denmark, and there were nearly 2000 Norwegians and Swedes. Over 8500 Chinese, of whom only 47 were females, were chiefly engaged in the gold mines, and nearly 9500, including 826 females, were returned as "Polynesians". No return is made of the aborigines, principally found in the unsettled territory; they are of the wildest and fiercest character among Australian natives, and, in some cases, undoubtedly cannibals; the estimates of number vary so widely as from 12,000 to 70,000. The religious denominations, of which none is supported by the State (except in grants of land,

free of taxation, made to the chief bodies prior to 1861), comprised, in 1891, about 142,500 members of the Anglican Church, spiritually ruled by the Bishops of Brisbane and of North Queensland; 92,700 Roman Catholics, under the Archbishop of Brisbane and two bishops; 45,600 Presbyterians; 21,000 Wesleyans; 23,380 Lutherans; 10,250 Baptists; nearly 29,000 of other Christian sects; 800 Jews; about 17,500 Mohammedans and Pagans; and over 11,000 of other faiths or of none.

On and near the Queensland coast, in voyaging from south to north, the first feature worthy of remark is Point Danger, named by Captain Cook, with its seething jumble of breakers telling of jagged submarine reefs. Moreton Bay, with its entrance between two islands, Moreton and Stradbroke, is a sheet of water 60 miles in length, from north to south, receiving four navigable rivers, including the Brisbane. The scenery has few attractions, the shores in general presenting more of mud and mangroves than of sand. At the extremity of the bay, however, furthest from Brisbane, the watering-place of *Southport*, with a very fine hotel and many villas, has a narrow sandy beach of almost dazzling whiteness, washed by the most limpid water, and is the favourite seaside resort of citizens from the capital. The shallow and tepid waters of Wide Bay and Hervey's Bay are favourite haunts of that curious mammal, the dugong, killed for the sake of its oil, most valuable in medicinal use, and for its delicious flesh having, in different parts of the body, the flavour of the best pork and beef and veal. Port Curtis is a splendid harbour, fenced by two islands from the waves and winds. Cape Capricorn is a bold promontory now crowned by a lighthouse, and was named by Cook from the fact of lying almost exactly on the tropical line. Keppel Bay receives the turbid waters of the great Fitzroy River. Cape Clinton is a fine headland, with ground from 400 to 500 feet in height, on the south side of Port Bowen, a deep inlet with good shelter, discovered by Flinders. Whitsunday Pass is a channel between Whitsunday Island and the mainland. It presents a surface of the calmest sea-water, winding between lofty hills clothed to the summit with a profusion of pines and jungle of creeping plants. There are many such passages on the northward course among the islets inside the Great Barrier Reef described in the earlier part of this section of our work, and they give a peculiar charm to the coasting

voyage. Port Denison has in its sheltered basin the little town of *Bowen*, one of the prettiest and most picturesque places on the Queensland coast, planted on undulating ridges gently sloping to the sea.

Still sailing northwards, the voyager past the majestic masses of the great coast range reaches the channel called Hinchinbrook Pass, 30 miles in length, and enjoys a scene of rare beauty in the bold slopes of Hinchinbrook Island on the one hand, and on the other, at varying distances, in the scarped and furrowed sides of the coastal mountains. The island displays a splendid variety of tropical foliage, of delicate fresh green contrasted with masses of darkest olive hue. Jagged rocks, here and there, rise black among the leaves, buried at other points by jungles of pandanus and feathery fern. On the sea-edge the luxuriant growth of mangroves is reflected in the watery mirror, and masses of cloud, drifting overhead before the trade-winds, throw cool fleeting shadows on mountain-side, ravine, and sea, and hover around the loftier peaks. Many streams discharge their waters into this channel, each with its little town on the banks, and each flowing through fertile tracts of alluvial soil, tilled by settlers for sugar-cane, bananas, maize, and other tropical products. Trinity Inlet lies at the bottom of Trinity Bay, so named by Captain Cook from his entrance on Trinity Sunday. The inlet is well sheltered from the south-east "trades", blowing from April to November, and here, 900 miles north-west of Brisbane, in a sugar and gold-field district, lies the town of *Cairns*, with a population of about 8000, shipping large quantities of pine-apples and bananas. The zone of heavy rainfall, beginning at Hinchinbrook Island, culminates at the Johnstone River and in the Cairns district, where the clouds brought by the trade-winds, laden with moisture from the sunny Pacific, discharge their watery burden, on being intercepted by the lofty ridges of the coast range, here exceeding 5000 feet, in a rainfall which has reached 180 inches in the year. The vegetation on the soil thus washed down from the mountains is of the richest tropical character in the dense jungly scrubs with their tangled wealth of ferns, and of orchids and many other flowering plants, above which wave the broad leaves of the wild banana, with graceful palms and mighty cedars towering over all. About 70 miles south-west of Cairns, on a table-land 3000 feet above sea-level, is the town of *Herberton*, with

4000 people, among mines rich in tin and silver-yielding galena. A few miles north of Cairns, Trinity Bay is entered by the Barron River, whose banks display rich alluvial "bottoms" and a grand growth of cedars. The peculiar and, in Australia, the unrivalled attraction of the Barron is found in its upper course. The magnificent Barron Falls, where the stream descends 900 feet within half a mile, have themselves a depth of 600 feet. Nothing can surpass the sublimity of the scene in the time of flood, when a torrent of water 300 yards wide, and about 60 feet deep, rushes along at the rate of 20 miles an hour, and tumbles in a huge wall over the edge of the precipice, launched clear out into space for its descent into the rocky abyss. Clouds of spray float upwards for a thousand feet, condensing as they rise, and then dripping in emerald showers from the trees on the mountain-slopes. The currents of air created by the enormous cataract wave the branches of trees that stand hundreds of feet above, as if they are swayed by the contending winds of a storm. The rocks on which the spectator stands, appalled by the indescribable grandeur of what he beholds, shake with the thunder of the falling waters. On one side of the main fall is a circular pool, 200 feet below the top of the precipice. The sides of the rock slope inward from above so as to leave an outlet not 20 feet wide at the bottom. A vast body of water falls into this cauldron, clear down, striking the surface of the pool as if it were a solid rock, dashing itself into vapour, and throwing showers of spray far up the face of the opposite rock, whence it descends in countless rivulets of sparkling silver like a flood of moonlight on the dark surges of a midnight sea. The face of the rocks around is adorned with tiny orchids, ferns, and innumerable little plants looking down into the wild whirl beneath, while gorgeous blue-winged butterflies emerge from the crevices, and flutter slowly down to be caught by the spray and vanish like a flash of light into the boiling depths.

The coast-country, to the voyager still going northwards from Trinity Bay, shows ever the main range, sometimes approaching the sea and dipping abruptly into the waters, sometimes receding in long curves, inclosing tracts of country with rich tropical verdure. At 1050 miles from Brisbane, the port of *Cooktown*, with about 3500 people, on the Endeavour river, has a bêche-de-mer fishery. A statue of the great navigator is erected near to the spot where

he beached the *Endeavour* after her narrow escape from destruction on the coral reef. This port is the usual place of departure for vessels proceeding to New Guinea. Farther north, towards Cape York, the course lies among palm-clad isles, past the rugged ranges of the mainland, and the charming scenery recalls the beauties of southern Italy and of the Ægean and Ionian seas. Beyond Cape York, in the southern part of Torres Strait, lies Thursday Island, with *Port Kennedy*, very valuable as a coaling station and port of call for the mail-steamers, and as a harbour of refuge for all kinds of craft. The place has been fortified at the joint expense of all the Australian colonies, and has a quarantine ground for all infected vessels bound to Queensland ports. It lies in the centre of the bêche-de-mer and pearl-fishing industry of Torres Strait, and, with a small government establishment for customs and other purposes, has two hotels and some scattered residences. The Gulf of Carpentaria, a tepid shallow sea, presents on its eastern shore an almost unbroken line of low swampy land bordered by mangrove-trees. In the south, the monotony is broken by groups of islands. The chief town in this quarter is *Normanton*, about 50 miles up the Norman River, over 1300 miles north-west of Brisbane. The place is an outlet for the rich Cloncurry and Croydon gold-fields, with which it is connected by railway.

Queensland, with counties for the purpose of land-survey, and electoral areas, is best regarded in its division into twelve large districts. In the south-east, the Moreton District comprises all the country of which Moreton Bay may be considered the natural outlet. This longest settled and most thickly peopled region contains the capital of the colony, and is well watered, with a large cultivation of sugar, vegetables, and maize. To the north of this, the Burnett and Wide Bay District extends beyond the 25th parallel of south latitude, and inland to the mountains, with a large growth of sugar, sweet-potatoes, maize, and other crops, and a great production of timber. The famous Gympie gold-field lies in this territory, and in the hilly western portion copper-mining and sheep-farming are the chief pursuits. The Port Curtis District comes next towards the north, between the sea and the coast ranges, with pasturage, agriculture, and the richest gold-fields of the colony, including the Mount Morgan mine, near Rockhampton. The large Kennedy District, with an area exceeding England and

Wales together, grows sugar, cotton, and maize near the coast, and has pastoral country further inland, with very productive gold-mines in the township of *Charters Towers*. The Cook District, having the sea on all sides except the south, includes the Cape York peninsula, and, with sugar-growing and grazing, contains important gold-fields on the Palmer River and elsewhere. West of the Kennedy District, and along the Gulf of Carpentaria, the Burke District, watered by numerous streams, is a vast, mainly pastoral, region, with good mining for gold and copper on the Cloncurry River, a tributary of the Flinders. In the extreme west, the Gregory District, little known or settled, is pastoral or desert. The Mitchell, Warrego, and Maranoa Districts, lying southwards to the boundary of New South Wales, are entirely devoted to pastoral pursuits; the Leichhardt, east of Mitchell, with its chief industry in grazing-farms, has also gold and copper mining. The remainder of the colony, comprising the southern portion of the table-land and its western slope, forms the celebrated Darling Downs District, with some of the finest agricultural and pastoral land in Australia, lying at the height of nearly 2000 feet above sea-level, and capable of producing nearly all European crops and fruits.

The chief industries of the colony are pastoral, mineral, and agricultural, as will have been gathered from the foregoing account. Up to the end of 1899, nearly 15¼ million acres of crown-lands had been alienated, leaving over 412 millions of acres still unappropriated. About one-half the area of the colony is natural forest, though little has been done hitherto to develop this part of the rich and varied natural resources of the territory. In 1898, nearly 240 millions of acres were leased in squatting "runs" for pastoral purposes, the number of such holdings being about 4500. In the year ending March, 1896, about 35,800 acres of land, producing 601,000 bushels, were under wheat; the growth of barley and oats was unworthy of mention, being only in each case a few thousands of bushels; over 115,000 acres were devoted to maize, with a product of 3,065,000 bushels; 10,800 acres to potatoes, with over 32,700 tons; and 2000 acres to vines, yielding over 170,000 gallons of wine, and about 2 million pounds of grapes for table use. The chief produce of market-gardens, mainly tilled by the patient and industrious Chinese, consists of sweet-potatoes, pumpkins, and yams.

The growth of arrowroot is a profitable industry; tobacco thrives, and cotton, rice, coffee, and even tea have been proved to be suitable to the climate and soil. Among tropical and sub-tropical fruits bananas and pine-apples have been already mentioned; to these we may add oranges, lemons, limes, citrons, guavas, and mangoes, with all the chief tropical spices as capable of profitable growth when a due supply of suitable (Asiatic or Polynesian) labour can be obtained. The value of the Queensland forests was conspicuously shown in the beautiful collection of timbers at the Colonial and Indian Exhibition in London (1886), the hardwoods including iron-barks, stringy-barks, gums, and blood-woods. The easily-worked softwoods comprise four excellent pines, and the red cedar, silky oak, tulip-wood, yellow-wood, and beech are valuable for cabinet and ornamental work. The sugar-industry, begun in 1862 and largely developed, has been hampered by scarcity of labour and by low prices; in 1898, about 111.000 acres were growing canes, and of this area 82,390 acres yielded over 163,000 tons of sugar.

In regard to live stock, especially in horned cattle, Queensland takes a high place. In 1898 the colony possessed 480,000 horses; over 5½ million horned cattle, a number exceeding that of all the rest of Australasia (Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand) together; over 17½ millions of sheep, and 127,000 pigs. Manufacturing industry is at present confined to the provision of articles for home use and not for export, except in the important work of preparing the natural products for market at flour-mills, saw-mills, factories for wine, tobacco, arrow-root, and sugar; and in meat-preserving and "boiling down". The commerce of the colony is chiefly carried on with other countries of Australasia, and, next to them, with the United Kingdom and with China. For the year ending March 31st, 1898, the exports (including 3¼ millions in gold and silver bullion and specie) had a value exceeding £10,856,000; of which the United Kingdom took nearly £4,360,000 worth in wool (to over 1½ millions sterling in 1898), preserved meat, pearl shells, tin, tallow, and other articles. For 1898 the export of gold in dust and bars exceeded £2,855,000 in value; of hides and skins, nearly £467,000; live stock, £799,000; meats, frozen and other, above £942,000; pearl shells, £109,600; silver lead, £21,000; sugar, £1,330,000; tallow, £328,000; tin ore, along with smelted tin, £31,870; wool, more than 3 millions sterling

The imports for the year 1898 (with a recovery from previous decline) exceeded £6,077,000 in value, of which goods worth over 2½ millions came from the United Kingdom, chiefly in apparel and haberdashery; cottons and woollens; and wrought and unwrought iron. The other imports of the colony were beer, ale, wine, spirits, and tobacco; tea, flour, paper, stationery (including books); rice, oilmen's stores, and boots and shoes. The total tonnage entering and cleared from the ports (exclusive of the very large coasting trade with neighbouring Australian colonies) was 1,198,000 in 1898, nearly all being British vessels. Returning for a moment to the mineral resources of Queensland, we find that, with coal-fields estimated to have an area of 24,000 square miles, the output in 1898, chiefly from mines at Ipswich, near Brisbane; at Burrum, near Maryborough; and at Cooktown, amounted to 408,000 tons, valued at £150,500; and that, up to the end of 1898, the gold-fields had yielded metal to the total amount of 12,926,966 ounces worth over 44½ millions sterling.

BRISBANE, youngest of Australian capital cities, and by far the largest town and port of Queensland, stretches for a considerable distance on both banks of the Brisbane River, picturesquely placed on a series of hills sloping up from the stream at a point, about 24 miles from the river-mouth in Moreton Bay, where the river winds in a double curve. The Brisbane is there about a quarter of a mile in width, and, having the entrance to the port well lighted and buoyed, admits at all times, to the extensive wharves on each side, below bridge, vessels drawing over 21 feet. The city lies by railway about 500 miles north of Sydney, and 60 miles north of the southern boundary of the colony, and, within a circle of 5 miles radius, embracing the two municipalities of Brisbane and South Brisbane, has a population now nearly approaching 100,000. Well supplied with water from the neighbouring hills, efficiently drained, gas-lit and well paved, Brisbane contains a good number of fine buildings, public and private, including two cathedrals, over forty churches, a Parliament House erected at a cost of £100,000, the splendid National Bank, a School of Arts, Museum, and Town Hall. Among the chief structures is the Queensland Club, the most pleasing in Australia for exterior and position. One façade commands a view over the Botanical Gardens, which front the river, and have a glorious display of semi-tropical vegetation, being

further adorned by a lagoon and ponds fringed with water-lilies, and by winding paths, grassy lawns and knolls, beds of lovely orchids, and radiant parterres of many-hued flowers and variegated foliage-plants cunningly inlaid. The Parliament House is a handsome freestone edifice, with a central dome, and wings surmounted by high mansard roofs. There are four public parks, and the gardens of the Acclimatization Society are as beautiful to behold as they have proved useful to the colony in introducing and distributing plants and trees from every part of the tropical and subtropical regions of the world. Tram-cars, omnibuses, wagonettes, and suburban railway-lines supply ample accommodation for traffic between the business quarters and the fringe of suburban residences built on charming and healthful sites among the ridgy inequalities of the ground.

Ipswich, 25 miles by railway from the capital, lies on the Bremer River, an affluent of the Brisbane, and has good structures in St. Paul's Anglican Church, the Grammar School, and a fine iron bridge spanning the stream. The population is about 8000, many of whose toilers find employment in the workshops, covering 22 acres, of the Southern and Western line. Thence the railway runs westward through rich forest flats to the foot of the coast range. The mountains are ascended, not by the "zigzag" method described in connection with the Blue Mountains of New South Wales, but by the "contouring" plan, whereby the railway follows the outline of the hills in a constant ascending grade along their face. Tunnels here and there pierce projecting spurs, and iron bridges, light but strong, leap across ravines and gullies often of great depth, where the traveller looks down from the carriage window into a ferny tangle, on to the tops of trees springing from ground hundreds of feet below. After an up-grade of about seventeen miles, the line, having overcome the mountain barrier, gently descends towards the great plateau of the Darling Downs and reaches *Toowoomba*, the capital of the District. This town, with a population of over 7000, lies nearly 2000 feet above sea-level, at the head of Gowrie Creek, a tributary of the Condamine. The broad gas-lit streets have no architectural merit; the industry of the place comprises soap-making, brewing, tanning, saw-mills, flour-mills, foundries, and a manufacture of tobacco. Here the line bifurcates, one part proceeding westwards towards the vast region of

the Maranoa and Warrego Districts, the other turning south to join the railways of New South Wales. On this southern arm stands the pretty little stone and brick built town of *Warwick*, in a bracing air 1500 feet above sea-level, with a population of 4000. The place is the centre of an agricultural and pastoral district of rich black soil. The Condamine flows past to join the Darling far away.

The Mary River, falling into Wide Bay, has on its banks, about 25 miles from the sea, thriving *Maryborough*, with a population of about 9000. Vessels drawing 17½ feet can reach the wharves of this District-capital, which is the terminus of several short railways, and the port for the Gympie gold and Burrum coal. Two large engineering factories, saw-mills, sugar-mills, and important dugong and oyster fisheries give work and wealth to the people. The river, sharply curving at this point, is crossed by a bridge one-third of a mile in length. *Gympie*, with a population of 9000, lies also on the Mary River, many miles above Maryborough, in a mineral district which, besides a large production of gold from mines over 1000 feet in depth, has silver, copper, cinnabar, antimony, bismuth, and nickel. There are good public buildings, gas, and water-supply. *Rockhampton*, the second town of the colony for size and importance, with 12,000 people, lies 420 miles north-west of Brisbane, on the Fitzroy River, about 40 miles from its mouth. It is the chief town and port of central Queensland, and, as the terminus of a main line of railway (the Central), extending about 400 miles inland, it serves as an entrepôt for a vast interior region. The Mount Morgan gold-mine is about 30 miles distant, and the surrounding country is rich in copper and silver, with a large trade in wool, tallow, maize, and preserved meats. The town is well laid out, with gas-lit streets, good water-supply, excellent buildings, and fine botanical gardens, on both banks of the river, connected by a good iron suspension-bridge nearly 1200 feet in length. Many of the wide streets are planted with trees; a fine esplanade fronts the stream on the south bank. Shut out from the coast by a lofty range of hills that intercept the sea-breeze, and shut in by lesser elevations at the back, Rockhampton, in summer, suffers much from heat, which prosperous citizens escape by resorting to beautiful spots on the coast north of Keppel Bay. Another important town in this Port Curtis District is *Gladstone*, 90 miles south-west of Rockhampton. The place lies on the coast, with a fine harbour, reputed the best in Queensland,

sheltered by two islands from the winds and waves. With a population of about 4000 in the town and neighbourhood, the place largely exports cattle to New Caledonia, the French colonial island lying midway between Queensland and the Fiji Isles. *Mackay*, a town on the south bank of the Pioneer river, 625 miles north-west of Brisbane, has 4000 people, with over 10,000 in the suburban district, and is the centre of Queensland's chief sugar region. The buildings are good, and the port, an outlet for copper-mines and a gold-field, is being improved by engineering. *Townsville*, on Cleveland Bay, with a population of 9000, is the third port of the colony, and the most important and progressive place in northern Queensland, lying 870 miles north-west of the capital. It is the commercial centre of a vast area of pastoral and sugar country, also containing gold-fields at Charters Towers and elsewhere. The only natural port is an open roadstead, but an eastern breakwater, 4000 feet long, has been completed, and a western breakwater will aid in creating an artificial harbour along with dredging of the shallow bay. The gas-lit town has a good supply of water from wells, and a factory for making ice, a luxury in a place rendered very hot by reflection of the rays of a tropical sun from the adjacent Castle Hill and Tower Hill. Townsville is the see of an Anglican bishop, and has political importance as the head-quarters of the North Queensland Separation League, an influential body which commands the services of vigorous writers demanding, for the northern part of the colony, the independent political existence obtained by Queensland in regard to New South Wales. The Colonial Office in London has declined to ask the Imperial Parliament for an Act of separation until the Queensland Legislature approves the claim of the League.

Communication between different parts of the colony is largely effected by sea, owing to the number of excellent harbours, regularly visited by the large and well-appointed steamers of several lines. All the chief towns, on the coast and inland, are connected by good roads. The chief railway-lines, southern, central, and northern, have been already indicated. There are really eleven distinct systems, with no common centre, but all have a uniform gauge of 3½ feet, and are in the hands of the Government. In 1899, 2742 miles were open, constructed at the cost of over 18½ millions sterling, and having annual receipts of £1,263,153 against

a working expenditure of £728,161. Over 10,000 miles of telegraph, with 422 stations, are open; the postal system has charges of 1*d.* for half-ounce letters in towns, 2*d.* for Australasia, and 2½*d.* for the United Kingdom and Postal Union countries. The telephone is largely used in Brisbane and some other towns. Many lines of steamers and sailing-vessels, with direct communication by the London and Queensland Royal Mail Line and the Australasian United Steam Navigation Company, afford access to every part of the civilized world.

Government, with an executive head appointed by the Crown, is vested, for legislative and taxing purposes, in a Parliament of two Houses, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The present Governor is Lord Lamington, K.C.M.G., appointed in 1895. The Council consists of 38 members, nominated by the Crown for life. The Assembly contains 72 members, returned by ballot election, for three years, from 61 electoral districts. Every adult male of six months' residence has the franchise. The members of the Assembly are entitled to a payment of £150 a year, with travelling expenses. Owners of freehold estate of the clear value of £100, or of house property to £10 annual value, or leasehold of £10 yearly rent, and holders of pastoral leases from the Crown, may vote for members of the Assembly in any district where such property is situated. The Executive Council or Cabinet of eight ministers includes men having special charge of railways, lands and agriculture, public instruction, and public works. Local government is carried on by 36 municipalities. The judicial system is of the kind usual in Australia; the police force of about 900 men includes many native troopers. Education, free, secular, and compulsory by statute in the State schools, is not really so in the last particular, and the census of 1891 showed 102,000 persons who could neither read nor write, and 14,500 who could read only; infants and aliens were, however, included in this estimate. In 1898 there were ten middle-class schools in populous places, and scholarships and exhibitions aid deserving pupils to proceed from the primary schools to places of higher instruction. The revenue of the colony, for the year ending June 30th, 1899, was £4,174,086, mainly derived from customs-duties (£1,367,926), rent and sales of land, railways, posts and telegraphs, stamp-duty, licenses and excise. As in other Australian colonies, there are high import-duties on all

kinds of manufactured goods, and on meat, butter, and various other articles of food, with 14*s.* on every proof-gallon of spirits, 10*s.* per gallon on sparkling wines, 1*s.* per gallon on beer and ale in wood, 2*s.* 6*d.* per dozen quarts on the same in bottles; tobacco-duties; 25 per cent *ad valorem* on stationery; almost free paper, and no charge, for the honour of culture, on books. The state expenditure, in the above year, reached £4,024,170, the chief items being interest on public debt (£1,327,000); railways as above; posts and telegraphs, £328,463; public instruction, £275,715; endowments to municipalities and divisional boards, and civil service charges of various kinds. At the end of 1898 the public debt was over 33½ millions, the estimated value of the colony's landed property (the occupied portion) being over 42½ millions. In the above year, the expenditure from loans, chiefly on public works, was £1,054,787, devoted mainly to railways, buildings, harbours and rivers, and defence-works. The Government savings-bank, with 147 branches, had on January 1st, 1899, over 68,000 depositors, with £2,807,000 standing to their credit.

With regard to immigration from the British Isles, now not assisted, or only in a very limited degree, by other Australasian colonies, Queensland still imports farm-labourers and female servants, and allows colonists to nominate farm-labourers, miners, navvies, their families, and female servants. Up to the end of 1891 the colony had paid the passages of over 207,000 persons of the above classes. We have mentioned the scarcity of fit labour in the tropical and sub-tropical regions of which Queensland is wholly composed, and on this subject we may conclude with some information respecting Kanakas or South Sea Islanders, the Polynesian natives whose treatment by European and American kidnappers has been a matter of grave scandal. The demand for labourers of this class on sugar-plantations arose about 1865, when Robert Towns, a ship-owner and sugar-planter trading to the South Seas, persuaded a few islanders to come to Queensland, taught them their work and soon found them expert as well as very cheap. His example was followed on a large scale, and some parts of the colony presented the appearance of American plantations where crowds of dusky figures, dressed in gaudy colours, worked among the tall canes with laughter and with song. After labouring for a year or two in the colony, the Kanakas generally received a bundle of goods—

cloth, knives, hatchets, beads, and such small articles—to the value of about £10, and were conveyed back to their palm-clad isles. Abuses soon arose. Some mean and dishonest planters withheld the hard-earned pay at the close of the term. Captains of vessels, being paid by planters so much for every Kanaka they brought to Queensland, engaged in the infamous traffic facetiously called "blackbirding", and carried off natives by force. In frequent conflicts between the crews of kidnapping labour-ships and the people of the islands, villages were burnt, men and women slain, and hundreds of persons carried off as captives. The innocent suffered for the guilty when the islanders, hating and dreading all white mariners, surprised and massacred in revenge the crews of peaceful craft that visited their shores. There were kidnappers who, basely mimicking the dress and talk of missionaries, in order to effect their evil purpose, caused the spearing or clubbing of real preachers of the Gospel who went to the same parts of the Pacific. A cruel and loathsome slave-trade was, in fact, carried on, and in 1868 the Queensland Government took the matter in hand. A law enacted that no Kanaka could be received in the colony unless the captain could show a certificate, signed by a missionary or a British consul, proving that the labourers had left home of their own free-will. Government agents were to accompany every vessel, in order to see that the people were well treated on the voyage, and, on leaving the colony, no labourer was to receive less than six pounds' worth of goods for every year of his toil. It is hard, however, to cope with the ingenuity of unscrupulous greed, and these regulations were often evaded. Presents made by kidnappers to the chief of an island induced him to force his subjects, under fear of death, to express before the missionary perfect willingness to start for Queensland. In some cases, Government agents were bribed to connive at misdeeds. Up to the end of 1890, about 43,000 Kanakas had been brought to the colony, and of these 23,700 had been conveyed back to their islands, 7600 were reported as dead, and about 10,500 were in the country. A Royal Commission of Inquiry, appointed in 1884, caused the restoration to their homes of above 400 kidnapped Kanakas. The white working population induced the Government of Queensland to prohibit the introduction of these islanders, but in 1892 the absolute need of black labour caused the Legislature to allow a renewal of importation to the cane-fields, under the most

stringent regulations as to proper treatment of the Kanaka at every stage of his career in this connection.

CHAPTER IX.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA: HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

Early navigators on the west coast of Australia—First settlement at King George's Sound—A colony founded at Swan River—Ill-advised grants of land bring unsuitable immigrants—The early years of stagnation—Characteristics of the colonists—Depressed condition of the colony in 1846—Results of convict-labour—Improvements under the governorship of Sir F. A. Weld—Explorations of the country—Expansion towards the north—The pearl-fisheries—Agitation for responsible government—Career of Sir Frederick N. Broome—The colony becomes self-governing—Work of Lady Broome—Marvellous yield of gold—A great "boom"—Discovery of large tracts of rich pasturage and forest-lands—Rapid rise of Coolgardie town—Boundaries and area of the colony—Its physical features—Climate—Population—Description of the coast-line—King George's Sound—Towns of Albany and Fremantle—Perth, the capital, and other towns—Character and products of the soil—Prevalence of wind-storms—Valuable timber-trees—Growth of cereals and the vine—Live-stock—exports and imports—Railways—The telegraph and telephone—Lines of steamers and postal system—Government—Education—Revenue and public debt.

We have stated, in a very early part of this work, that, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Portuguese and Dutch navigators saw much of the western coast of Australia. In the seventeenth century, especially, the Dutch often visited those waters, as the names on the map show. We have also noted that Dampier was the first Englishman who landed in that part of the world. For nearly a century after the Dutch mariner, Willem de Flaming, gave the name of Swan River to the great stream where he was astonished by the sight of thousands of black swans floating on the surface, and brought to Europe, in 1697, a specimen of the bird which now appears on the flag of Western Australia, the region seems to have been without European visitors. It has been already recorded that Vancouver, in 1791, discovered King George's Sound, and he was followed on that coast by the French ships *Géographe* and *Naturaliste*. It was not until 1826 that any British settlement was made. In that year, Sir Ralph Darling, Governor of New South Wales, sent some convicts and soldiers, under Major Lockyer, to settle at King George's Sound, in order to secure

possession of so fine a harbour on the homeward and outward line of communication with Great Britain. The people of Sydney had also, it seems, been disturbed in mind at this time by rumours of intended French occupation in that part of the vast continent which they regarded as wholly British territory. For some years, the place of settlement was nothing but a military post. In 1827, Captain (afterwards Admiral Sir James) Stirling arrived off the coast in the man-of-war *Success*. This officer, a native of Lanarkshire, who had served with distinction in the French and American wars, was engaged in surveying the Australian coast, and he brought home to England so favourable a report of the Swan River district that the British Government resolved to found a colony on the banks of that river. On June 1st, 1829, Captain Fremantle raised the British flag ashore at the mouth of the Swan River, on the site of the town afterwards called by his name. He was quickly followed by Captain Stirling, appointed the first Governor of the "Swan River Settlement", the early title of "Western Australia". The nearer view of the country did not answer the expectations formed, as it was found by exploring parties to be, in that part, a sandy region covered with dense and "scrubby" thickets. For some months the governor, his small staff, and the eight hundred settlers who had come out with them, remained on the dreary Garden Island, sheltered only by tents or brushwood huts from the rough blasts and rains of the Indian Ocean. A site for a town was finally selected some miles up the Swan River, and the city of Perth began to exist. It was found that an impassable bar stretched across the river-mouth, and the goods of the colonists, landed on an exposed beach at Fremantle, had to be carried for miles overland through the sandy, scrubby waste.

The Home-government, by Order in Council, invited emigration to the new colony, with promise of lands at a cheap rate, on condition of adequate tillage within a certain term of years. This plan was, however, soon modified, and then withdrawn, and land could be obtained only by purchase at various rates. In 1830 and 1831 about two thousand new immigrants arrived, a rush from Great Britain having brought to the new colony persons who knew little or nothing of the difficulties before them. The prospect of possessing several square miles of land for a few pounds had

attracted people wholly unfitted to be pioneers in the arduous work of settlement. Gentlemen of good position and means brought out their families and staff of servants; retired officers of both services, and other professional men, joined in the new enterprise; and, in response to the government offer of twenty acres of land for every three pounds' worth of goods imported, these settlers landed with personal property worth some hundreds of thousands of pounds, before proper buildings had been erected for their reception, or any land surveyed for tillage. The beginnings of Western Australia were, in fact, marked by disastrous failure, followed by many years of stagnation. It was found difficult to convey the valuable property from the beach at Fremantle to Perth, and much of it was left to rot on the shore, where carriages, pianos, and articles of rich furniture lay half-buried in sand and exposed to all the destructive effects of sun and rain. Splendid horses and cattle of the finest breed wandered useless in the bush; many of the settlers had to live in tents and huts, and suffered from floods and from attacks of the natives; costly farm-implements were rusting away; the sheep introduced at vast expense were almost all killed through feeding on a poisonous plant, growing in patches over the country. In 1832, food rose to such famine prices as wheat at 40*s.* per bushel; salt pork at £10 per barrel; flesh meat at 1*s.* 10*d.* per pound, and fresh butter at 7*s.* per pound. All the efforts of Captain Stirling were of little avail, and he quitted the colony for England in September, 1832; resuming the governorship, as Sir James Stirling, in August, 1834, he displayed the utmost energy until his resignation of office at the close of 1838. At that time, the colony had but 2000 inhabitants, and, ten years later, the population had little more than trebled. The wealthiest and most enterprising of the original settlers had, at an early stage of their Australian life, migrated to South Australia and Tasmania. Such progress as was made was mainly due to the courage and energy of the well-born and cultured Britons who, wholly unused to manual toil, showed the spirit of their race in facing difficulties, and set to work at building houses, clearing and ploughing land, and creating new homes for themselves and their families. In five years after their arrival, Fremantle had arisen as a small neat town with spacious streets, some of them well laid in the style of Macadam. At Perth there were many houses of wood and brick, with shops,

a church, a prison, and barracks. Farms and gardens had been made along the river-banks, and many settlers were established on the upper Swan River, on the Canning, to the south, and inland, and at King George's Sound. The social position of these early settlers, founders of the old territorial families of Western Australia, impressed upon the colony a character of its own, widely different from that of the other settlements.

For many years, then, from the time of its foundation as a colony, Western Australia was unprogressive. It was separated by 2000 miles from the other colonies; it was rarely visited by ships; it had no mineral wealth, yet discovered, to attract emigrants. The land, in the region of first colonization, was not very fertile, and the settlers were steady-going, contented people, not looking for wealth or speedy advance. Industrious, but not enterprising, they did little in the way of exploration, and for thirty years no serious attempt was made at settlement more than 100 miles inland. As people of European culture, they were happy in social hospitality of a graceful kind, with abundant friendliness and intimacy, helping each other in trouble, and lightening the stern realities of daily toil by the relaxations of people gifted with the accomplishments of liberal education. The early system of free grants of land, under which about one million acres had been taken up by the first comers on the Swan River, the Canning, and the Avon, had an evil issue. The conditions of profitable cultivation, within a certain time, were not exacted, and thus the best portions of ground near the port, Fremantle, and the capital, Perth, were in the hands of those who could not till them, while poorer immigrants—mechanics and labourers—wishing to have land, could obtain none in any profitable situation. In 1846, the colony had about 7000 people; only 4000 acres were under tillage; there were, however, 11,000 cattle and 140,000 sheep. The annual imports were worth £45,000, and the exports were valued at £30,000. In this depressed condition of affairs, when scarcity of labour was the chief drawback, a change came under the governorship of Captain Fitzgerald, an Irish officer of the royal navy, who ruled the colony from August, 1848 to June, 1855. The settlers applied to the Home-government for cargoes of convict-labour, and the first shipload, followed by many more, arrived at Fremantle in June, 1850. The colony, until the abolition of the transportation

system in 1868, absorbed about ten thousand criminals. These people were, for convicts, of a superior class in many cases, including agricultural labourers whose offences were poaching and violence connected therewith. They were, as a rule, well-conducted under the new conditions of their life, and made excellent servants of the wealthy settlers. Some progress was made in tillage, but the colony, on the whole, suffered from the convict character imparted to it; some of the best settlers quitted it for other colonies, and no free immigrants sought its shores. The material benefit derived from convict-labour in Western Australia was the construction of good roads, public buildings, harbours, and jetties, in preparation for the better days that were in store. From 1855 till 1862 the post of Governor was held by Sir Arthur Kennedy, afterwards Governor of Queensland, and he was succeeded, from 1862 till 1869, by Mr. Hampton, who had been Comptroller-General of convicts in Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania), and now turned convict-labour to good account as above described.

The isolation and stagnation of Western Australia began to have an end under the rule of Sir Frederick Aloysius Weld, who was Governor from September, 1869 to December, 1874. That distinguished colonial ruler, a member of a famous Dorsetshire Catholic family, and nephew of the late Cardinal Weld, was born in 1823 and emigrated to New Zealand in 1844. Twenty years later he became Premier in that rising colony, after winning distinction in pastoral pursuits, exploration, and agitation for representative institutions. We shall see hereafter something of his career in that country, where his success led directly to his appointment in Western Australia. Under his able and energetic administration in this new sphere of action various industries were developed. An awakening of political feeling, after about forty years of practically autocratic rule, in a mild form, by successive Governors aided by an Executive Council, with resident commissioners in various districts, took place among the colonists. Their claim to have a personal share in the choice of rulers and methods of government was warmly supported by Weld, and in 1870 the British authorities allowed him to set up a constitution in which the Executive Council was assisted by a legislative body, two-thirds of whose members were elected by newly-formed constituencies. At the same time, municipalities, a good road-system, and education-boards were in-

troduced. All religious denominations were placed upon an equal footing, grants of land being made by the Governor for their support. Steam-communication along the coast was opened, so as to promote settlement in various parts of the territory. Two of Mr. Weld's last acts as Governor in Western Australia were to cut the first sod of the first Government-railway, and to plant the first telegraph-post of the line which ultimately connected the chief towns with Adelaide and with the colonies in the east of the continent. Such were the chief results of rule administered by a man of active mind and progressive views, eager to promote in every way the welfare of the settlements committed to his care.

In regard to exploration of the vast territory, at this and later times, we note first that in 1848 Mr. Augustus Gregory, a native of Nottinghamshire, who arrived in Western Australia in 1829, went northwards from Perth, in 1848, to explore the Gascoyne River, and, reaching a point 350 miles from the capital, made known the pastoral wealth of the Murchison and Champion Bay districts. Under Mr. Weld's governorship, Mr. Forrest (afterwards Sir John, and Premier of Western Australia), a native of the colony, commanded an exploring expedition, in 1870, from Perth to Adelaide, along the south coast, and proved the practicability of the route for the telegraph-line afterwards made. In 1874 he led an expedition from Champion Bay, on the west coast, to the overland-telegraph between Adelaide and Port Darwin, the journey of nearly 2000 miles being performed without the aid of camels, and with horses only. For these services he received the thanks of the Governor and Legislative Council, the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society of London, and a grant in fee of 5000 acres of land from the Imperial Government. In January, 1879, Mr. Alexander Forrest, a younger brother of the above distinguished explorer, who had accompanied the expeditions of 1870 and 1874, started from Perth with a party of five Europeans and two natives, twenty-six horses, and six months' provisions, to explore the north-western part of Australia. Port Darwin, their ultimate destination, was reached on October 6th. The chief results of this adventurous journey were the discovery of the source and course of the Fitzroy and other large rivers, and the opening up of an estimated area of 20 millions of acres of good well-watered land in the country now known as the Kimberley district. In 1883, Mr. John Forrest, who

had become Surveyor-General of the colony, sailed for Derby, on the north-west coast, at the mouth of the Fitzroy River, with a party of surveyors, and carefully examined the country between Leopold Range and the coast. Cambridge Gulf was selected as a suitable outlet for any settlements on the Ord River and its tributaries, in a territory which had been explored by Mr. Alexander Forrest in 1879. In 1884, good copper ore was found on the Margaret River, and many minerals such as agate, garnet, amethyst, opal, and topaz, with indications of gold, the chief discoverer being Mr. Hardman, of the Irish Geological Survey, though some wandering "prospectors" had already seen signs of the precious metal. A rush took place, with a disastrous issue to many inexperienced persons; we shall see that good results were obtained, at a later period, from quartz-reefs.

It was not until 1861 that the colonists of Western Australia began to move in the way of expansion towards the north. In the three previous years, Mr. Francis Gregory, brother of the explorer above named, had examined the country between the Gascoyne River and Mount Murchison, and discovered a region comprising a million acres of good pastoral land. In 1863, Mr. Walter Padbury, one of the earliest original settlers on the Swan River, landed with some sheep at the spot where now stands the town of Cossack (or Cassac). He was followed by other stock-owners, and the movement spread. At this time, Mr. Walcott discovered the pearl-shell beds on the coast which afterwards became an important source of wealth to the colony. Some attempts at settlement in the north failed from the fierce hostility of the natives, who murdered one party of three explorers in 1864, and it was not until 1875 that the country about Nickol Bay and to the south was occupied by really flourishing flockmasters. The pearl-fisheries were gradually developed by the use of the blacks, who were taught to dive. The aborigines, in the north-west, were numerous, fine, and strong, and the settlers, for their own purposes, soon established friendly relations with them. Many were profitably employed as shepherds and in all kinds of farm-labour, their services being utilized in the pearl-fishing when the work of tillage became slack.

Sir Frederick Weld was succeeded as Governor, in January, 1875, by Sir William Robinson, the able man whom we have seen,

in the same capacity, in South Australia. His period of office, continuing until August, 1877, was marked by no other event than the failure of an effort to obtain "responsible" government. His successor, Major-General Sir Harry St. George Ord, of the Royal Engineers, a man of wide experience as an officer engaged in Baltic operations during the Russian War, as Governor in the West Indies, and at the Straits Settlements, and in diplomacy at Paris and the Hague, held office in Western Australia until April, 1880. During his time the movement in favour of responsible government became stronger. The colonists objected to interference from the Colonial Office in London, and to the fact that their legislature had no control over the expenditure of public money. Sir Harry Ord was followed by Sir William Robinson, as Governor for a second term, until February, 1883, when he was succeeded, on his appointment to South Australia, by Sir Frederick Napier Broome. This gentleman, who held office in Western Australia from June, 1883, to September, 1890, was son of a Shropshire clergyman, and a native of Canada. After education in England, he emigrated in his youthful days to New Zealand, in 1857, and was engaged there for many years in pastoral pursuits. Returning to England in 1869, he was for six years connected with the *Times* newspaper as special correspondent, literary reviewer, art critic, and miscellaneous contributor to the columns then edited by the famous John Delane. His colonial experience, under Lord Carnarvon's rule at the Colonial Office, began in 1875 as Secretary of Natal. He was then Secretary and Lieutenant-Governor of Mauritius from 1878 until 1883, distinguishing himself there by the prompt despatch to South Africa of nearly the whole of his garrison-troops, as soon as he heard of the disaster which, at the hands of the brave Zulus, befel a division of Lord Chelmsford's army in the battle of Isandula (or Isandhlwana) on January 22nd, 1879. The thanks of the Cape Government and the full approval of the home-authorities were accorded, and the appointment to Western Australia came in due course. Sir Frederick Broome's term of office was marked by a great extension of railways and telegraphs and by much general progress. The new Governor took the warmest interest in the affairs of the country which he ruled. In a paper which, during a visit to England in 1885, he read before the Royal Colonial Institute, he drew attention to the slow

progress, the "solitary and unnoticed existence" of "the Cinderella of the Australian family". After fifty-six years of colonial existence, Western Australia had but 32,000 settlers thinly scattered over the occupied portion of her vast expanse. Her pressing want was more people for the country compared by Broome to "a ship undermanned, which, however fair the wind may blow, cannot spread its sails to catch a favouring breeze". He then dwelt on the fact that the public revenue had doubled within the previous ten years, as a proof of real progress, and pointed to the resources of the colony in the fertility of many tracts of land, an excellent climate, abundant timber, and mineral wealth. In regard to the constitutional question, public feeling in Western Australia was for the time conciliated by the home-government in a measure which prevented any expenditure of public money without the sanction of a finance-committee appointed by the legislature. Until 1886, a majority of the members of the House were opposed to the adoption of responsible government, the want of which was the less felt as the authorities in Downing Street had almost ceased to interfere, and the colonists were practically, to a large extent, self-governed. The Governor and Legislature acted together in accordance with public feeling, and the resources of the colony were being developed, and public works pushed on. The movement for democratic reform had its chief supporters in the towns, not among the leading men or civil servants. At last, in 1886, the party of progress had a small majority in the House; their influence grew, and almost unanimous resolutions in favour of responsible government were carried.

In 1890, after long correspondence on the subject between the Legislative Council and the Colonial Secretary in London, Western Australia became a self-governing colony to the fullest extent. At the same time, the whole of the lands of the vast territory, or over 1,000,000 square miles, were transferred by the Crown to the control of the colonial legislature; the Crown, however, reserved the power to divide the colony as may from time to time seem fit. We may note that Lady Broome, who, like her husband, won the high esteem of the people of Western Australia, had been previously well-known as a successful author under the name of Lady Barker, widow of Sir George Barker, an officer distinguished in Crimean and Indian warfare. Her works include *Station Life in New*

Zealand, Stories About, and *Letters to Guy*, descriptive of life in Western Australia. She also rendered service during her life in Mauritius, from 1878 to 1883, in organizing a fund for the relief of the sick and wounded in the Zulu war, and in starting a movement in favour of the higher education of women. Near the close of 1890, Sir William Robinson, appointed Governor of Western Australia for the third time, arrived in Perth, and met with a very cordial reception. He had been largely instrumental in facilitating the passage of the Constitution Bill through the Imperial Parliament, and being fitly chosen to preside over the inauguration of responsible government in the last Crown colony of the Australian group, he proclaimed the new constitution on October 22nd.

The chief interest of this latest period of Western Australian history is connected with the word "Coolgardie", a name which will be vainly sought on all but recent maps of the colony. Gold had been discovered and worked in the Kimberley and Nicol Bay districts, but the export of the metal in 1890 had a value of only £86,000; the recorded yield of the previous year was 15,500 ounces, an amount quite insignificant in comparison with the production of Victoria, Queensland, or New South Wales. So rapid an increase of production was due to the Coolgardie discoveries that, in 1900, the output of ten months reached 1,284,983 ounces, of the value of £4,882,936; the value raised since January 1st, 1899, being over 11 millions. In September, 1892, a Mr. Bayley, who was "prospecting" in the country known as the Yilgarn gold-field, lying south of the Murchison River auriferous region, was at a spot about 370 miles east of Fremantle. He was looking after his horse one morning before breakfast, when his eye was caught by a gleaming object lying on the ground. When he picked it up, it proved to be a half-ounce nugget of gold. Before noon, he and his "mate" had gathered twenty ounces of alluvial gold, a morning's work representing about £70 in value. In two weeks' time, their store had reached 200 ounces. One afternoon they struck a point of land where they picked off 50 ounces in a few hours, and there they pegged off their prospecting area. In one day, working at the cap of the reef, they obtained, by the primitive method known as the "dolly-pot" (or pestle and mortar), about 300 ounces of the precious metal. The fame of the "Bayley's Reward Claim"

spread; the capitalist, ever eager to turn shillings into pounds, was quickly to the fore; the usual "rush" was made; the town of Coolgardie arose; land companies and mining companies bought up the country for miles around, and Western Australia received a new impulse on the road to fortune. Before the end of 1894, Yilgarn railway had been pushed on as far as Southern Cross, about 250 miles from Freemantle, and in the auriferous area, estimated roughly at 46,000 square miles, a new great region of settlement was opened. The gold obtained from January, 1886, to November, 1900, was 5,621,663 ounces, worth £21,362,322, and in 1899 £2,139,065 dividends were paid on a capital of 5¼ millions.

More than gold had been discovered. The great eastern division of Western Australia, hitherto held to consist merely of sandy desert or of plains producing nothing but scrub and spinifex, was proved to possess, at any rate in its southern portion, large tracts of rich pasturage and forest-lands, with a soil of rich red loam in some places, admirably suited for the growth of wheat, and with several kinds of grass, and a variety of valuable timbers. The town of *Coolgardie* lies in undulating country, at 31° south latitude and 121° east longitude, with a temperate climate, very hot during the dry season. The vigorous little place soon began to have a history. In the autumn of 1894 we read of its bustle of teams arriving from Southern Cross; camels unloading or being driven away by picturesque Afghans; diggers and prospectors setting out for distant "rushes"; black pickaninnies rolling in the dust, or playing with their faithful kangaroo-dogs, while their dusky parents lolled near with characteristic indolence. There were good stores and many thriving hotels; a hospital in charge of two trained nurses; Wesleyan and Salvation Army services; and a post-office, with a bi-weekly mail, installed in a galvanized iron shed. So rapid was the progress made that a fire which broke out on October 9th, 1895, "through the upsetting of a lamp", and destroyed an entire block of buildings in Bayley Street, consumed, in stores, offices, and private houses, property valued at a quarter of a million sterling. We read that "by the pluck of the officials the telegraph-office was saved", and that, in the efforts made to find shelter for the burnt-out residents, "the Theatre Royal opened its doors to receive women and children". At the close of the same year Colonel Gerard Smith, a gentleman of great commercial

experience in England as a banker and railway-chairman, assumed office as Governor in succession to Sir William Robinson, who had retired after the long and very honourable career in the public service of which the chief particulars have been given in these pages. By the end of March, 1896, the railway from Perth to Coolgardie was completed and opened for traffic.

Western Australia, the largest of the Australasian colonies, bounded on the north, west, and south by the ocean, and on the east by South Australia, with a coast-line of over 3000 miles, fringed by numerous islands, lies between about 14° and 35° of south latitude, and in 113° to 129° east longitude. The area, 975,000 square miles, of a territory measuring 1500 miles from north to south, and nearly 1000 miles from east to west, makes it over twenty times the size of England. In the south there are three separate mountain-chains running parallel to one another, the largest, the Blackwood Range, reaching a height of about 2000 feet: the Darling and Roe Ranges, with some peaks of 3000 feet, have an average height of 1500 to 2000. The Stirling Range, east of the coast hills, has peaks attaining 3500 feet. In the north, the Leopold Range is about 2000 feet above sea-level. In the south-west there are many salt and fresh-water lakes, mostly mere swamps during the dry season. The rivers, to be shortly mentioned, are often mere storm-water channels filled during the rainy season, and are in few instances navigable even for boats for any great distance. The climate, in a region of such extent, presents great variations. In the north, the tropical heat is tempered by a healthy dryness and by breezes from the sea. The central territory has a climate like that of southern Italy and parts of Spain, and is often very hot. The southern region has a summer like that of the south of England in a warm dry season, and an autumn and winter like a protracted English autumn; in other words, the climate of the south-west is one of the finest and most healthful in the world, with the lowest death-rate anywhere known. Protracted droughts, and the heavy floods caused by excessive rains, are both unknown in Western Australia; the rainfall in the south-west or temperate region varies from 18 to 36 inches a-year. Epidemic diseases are almost unknown, and exposure to all weathers is found to have no detrimental effect. The population of the colony, as estimated on June 30th, 1899, was 168,480, composed of 111,350

males and 57,120 females; the number having been more than tripled in the space of six years by the influx due to the recent Coolgardie "rush" for gold. Figures concerning religious belief must, under these circumstances, be fallacious. The census of 1891, giving the population as about 50,000, not including nearly 6000 aborigines (and far more in a wild, wandering state) in service in the colony, showed nearly 28,000 people to be natives of Western Australia, and returned nearly 25,000 as adherents of the Anglican Church, under the Bishop of Perth and a Synod meeting once at least in every three years; about 12,500 Roman Catholics, under a prelate with his see also at Perth; about 4500 Wesleyans, 1600 Independents, 2000 Presbyterians, and 4500 of other faiths or none.

The country is very deficient in good harbours in its three to four thousand miles of coast-line, the only two really excellent places of shelter for shipping being found in King George's Sound in the south and Cambridge Gulf in the north. The former, a gulf about 10 miles deep, and 5 miles broad in the outer portion, has its wide entrance protected by the bold Cape Vancouver and Bald Head, and is well sheltered from all but south-westerly storms. In the centre of the Sound the rocky Breaksea and Michaelmas islands arise, the former with a lighthouse and signalling-station, connected with the mainland by a submarine cable. There is good anchorage with from 17 to 20 fathoms. At the northern extremity of the outer Sound a narrow passage, navigable for small craft, leads into the lake-like Oyster Harbour, having pretty wooded shores and a hilly background, and receiving the waters of two rivers. Three miles to the south of the entrance to Oyster Harbour, another opening, about a quarter of a mile broad, in the rocky shores, affords depth of water for the largest ocean-steamers to enter Princess Royal Harbour, a fine sheet of water 4½ miles long and about 2 miles wide. On the northern shore of this stands the town of *Albany*, with a population of 3000. The harbour, called the Inner Sound, is a circular basin with a good area of deep water near the entrance. The place is of great importance from its situation on King George's Sound, the grand strategical haven which is the "gate" of Western Australia; the naval "key" to the eastern Australian colonies; the only harbour of refuge and coaling-station to which steamers making for the open ocean from East Australian waters can

resort; the first port of call for vessels outward bound; and the position which commands the regular track of a great part of the commerce of Australia. Albany, the port of call for the mail-steamers to Western Australia, is the southern terminus of a railway linking it with the capital of the colony, 256 miles away, and with the comparatively populous central districts of the south-western part of the country. It is also a port of distribution for pastoral and agricultural territory extending 150 miles inland. The town is protected on the north by Mounts Clarence and Melville, between whose bold granitic masses it lies, gradually creeping up the steep slopes, clothed with scrubby vegetation. The poor sandy land near the town is famous for its magnificent and varied display of wild flowers in the season. The climate, with a range of temperature from 60 to 85 degrees, is most healthy and agreeable.

Westwards from King George's Sound, a rocky granitic coast passes on and turns northwards to Cape Leeuwin, broken by many streams, one of which, called Deep River, has on its banks a profusion of valuable timber, a species of jarrah, hard, heavy, and durable for piles, bridges, railway-sleepers, fencing, and other purposes. Between Capes Leeuwin and Naturaliste the coast presents a succession of sombre scrub-covered hills. Géographe Bay, sheltered by the latter headland, has a beautiful sweep of golden sands, with the settlement of *Busselton*, which has a large trade in timber. Thirty miles north of this, *Bunbury*, with a railway into the forests, has a mile-long jetty for shipping their produce. For hundreds of miles north of Cape Naturaliste the coast is low and sandy, with ranges of hills in the distant background. The entrance to *Fremantle* (population about 16,000) for vessels from the southward lies between Garden and Rottnest Islands, on the latter of which is the Governor's summer-residence. The harbour has been much improved at the cost of £100,000. The town, a depôt of distribution for a large part of the colony, is a poorly-built place, with its only handsome buildings in the Town Hall and the Anglican Church. It is the western terminus of the Eastern Railway, and has busy wharves and railway-workshops, and two bridges spanning the Swan River for the road and the railway to the capital, 12 miles to the north. The journey by water up to Perth shows the traveller some beautiful reaches, here narrow and rock-bound, there widening into a crescent-shaped expanse with timber-studded grassy shores.

PERTH, the capital of Western Australia, with about 40,000 inhabitants, presents a pleasing prospect from a distance with its gardens, villas, spires, and public buildings, mirrored in the waters of the Swan, and with a distant background of soft blue hills. There is one fine terrace, nearly 2 miles long from east to west, straight and broad, and shaded by rows of the flowering Cape lilac and mulberry-trees. Among the handsome structures are Government House, the Anglican Cathedral, public offices, banks, hotels, and the best private residences. The city is gas-lighted, well supplied with water, and connected by telephone with Fremantle. *Guildford*, 9 miles above Perth on the river, is a pretty little town with about 1400 people, in a district where red loam and fine alluvial flats replace the sandy soil nearer the coast, and the river-banks begin to be adorned with vineyards and orchards, rich pastures and fields of wheat.

About 200 miles farther up the coast than Fremantle, we come to *Geraldton*, with a population of 2000; it is the chief port of the central or Victoria district, and the terminus of the Midland Railway. This prosperous well-built little town comes next, in commercial value, to Fremantle. Point Moore, 1½ miles south-west of the pier, has a lighthouse with a light visible 18 miles away. Geraldton carries on the trade of a large pastoral, agricultural, and mineral district on the Upper Murchison and elsewhere. Farther north again is *Carnarvon*, a small place at the mouth of the Gascoyne river. Fifty or sixty miles south-west of this, Shark's Bay has a trade in pearls of the "seed" variety, extracted from mussels gathered off shallow banks. About 200 miles again north of Carnarvon, an eastward turn of the coast-line brings us to the mouths of the Ashburton, Robe, Fortescue, and other rivers, and to the small town of *Cossack*, the port of a splendid pastoral country between the Ashburton and De Grey rivers. *Roebourne*, with a few hundreds of people, 11 miles from Cossack, is 1200 miles from Perth, and within the tropics. Gold-mining is carried on in the district. Beyond the De Grey river, the Ninety-mile Beach, a monotonous length of sand, leads on to *Derby*, the capital of a large "squatting" country in the Kimberley District. The town lies at the mouth of the Fitzroy River, in King Sound, and has a jetty and tramway to facilitate shipment of produce. The Mount Barrett gold-fields lie 350 miles away. Between King

Sound and Cambridge Gulf the coast has many deep indentations, which may become useful harbours when the resources of the country are developed. On the Ord River and its branches, and on the streams flowing into Cambridge Gulf, pastoral stations have been formed.

The south-western part of the vast colony, bounded by the ocean, from the mouth of the Murchison above Geraldton, southwards to about 70 miles east of Albany, and on the east by a line drawn back to the point of departure on the Murchison, is the chief scene of agricultural operations. Much of the country is covered with forest, interspersed with "scrubby" sand-plains, grassy lands, and scattered areas of good soil for tillage. Settlements are, therefore, intermittent, and pastoral life is often combined with cultivation of the soil. This region, which can never become great in cereal produce from lack of certainty in the rainfall and from expense in clearing the ground, is well adapted for the growth of all fruits of temperate climes. The vine succeeds better than in any other part of the continent, with abundance of fruit and fine flavour. The olive-tree and orange-tree give excellent produce. The chief pastoral division of the colony is that lying between the Murchison and De Grey rivers, containing the towns of Roebourne, Cossack, and Carnarvon, and watered by the Murchison, Gascoyne, Lyons, Ashburton, Fortescue, Yule, De Grey and Oakover, with their tributaries, and by many other smaller streams. This great tropical and sub-tropical territory contains fine pasture-lands capable of feeding any number of stock. Lack of rainfall, without irrigation, for the most part prevents tillage. The coast and country near Roebourne, in the district best adapted for stock-breeding, and containing many well-equipped and well-managed stations, chiefly for sheep, are subject to occasional hurricanes called "willy-willies", which would infallibly sweep away any standing crops. The force of the wind in these storms is such that at Cossack the windows of the houses have been found to be frosted with sand, driven into and firmly embedded in the glass. Houses are blown down, small stock injured and killed, and much havoc wrought at sea amongst the pearling-boats and other craft. The Upper Murchison country is of splendid quality for stock, and contains many prosperous pastoral farmers. There is scarcely a plant or shrub covering the rich soil which sheep and horned cattle do not

QUEEN ALEXANDRA

The wife of King Edward the Seventh was born on December 1st, 1844, being the eldest daughter of the King and Queen of Denmark. On March 10th, 1863, she was married to the Prince of Wales. Their eldest son, Prince Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence, died in 1892, leaving the future succession to the throne to the second son, Prince George Frederick, now Duke of Cornwall and York, as heir apparent. The other children of this gracious and most popular lady, one of homely tastes and habits, are Princess Louise, Duchess of Fife; Princess Maud, wife of Charles, second son of the Crown Prince of Denmark; and Princess Victoria.

QUEEN ALEXANDRA

The wife of King Edward the Seventh was born on December 1st, 1844, being the eldest daughter of the King and Queen of Denmark. On March 10th, 1863, she was married to the Prince of Wales. Their eldest son, Prince Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence, died in 1892, leaving the future succession to the throne to the second son, Prince George Frederick, now Duke of Cornwall and York, as heir apparent. The other children of this gracious and most popular lady, one of homely tastes and habits, are Princess Louise, Duchess of Fife; Princess Maud, wife of Charles, second son of the Crown Prince of Denmark; and Princess Victoria.



From a Photograph by W. & D. DOWNEY

QUEEN ALEXANDRA

relish, with an ample growth of the valuable "salt-bush" on the plains, and abundance of water just below the surface of the ground, easily tapped by shallow wells. The West and East Kimberley divisions, in the extreme north, have rich plains and alluvial flats on the Ord in the east and on the Fitzroy and its tributaries in the west, with picturesque scenery in the mountains of the central country. Much of the vast interior of West Australia is yet unknown, and the colony must be regarded, in spite of its seventy years of existence, as still in its infancy, awaiting development by enterprise, capital, and labour.

The products and industries of the colony have been indicated in the foregoing account. We may remark that the timber of Western Australia is, in some sorts, remarkably fine and valuable. The noble eucalyptus called *karri* has no rival for grandeur in Australia except one species (*Eucalyptus amygdalina*) in the south-east of the continent, and none elsewhere in the world save the Douglas fir of British Columbia and the *Sequoia gigantea* (*Wellingtonia* or Mammoth Tree) of California. This magnificent forest-tree grows perfectly straight and cylindrical, often free from branches up to 80 feet, with hard, heavy, reddish timber, clean and straight in grain. Stems have been measured having an altitude of 300 feet without a branch, and a girth of 60 feet at the base. The *tuart*, a tree of large dimensions, but less stately than the karri, supplies hard, strong, heavy, durable timber invaluable for all kinds of engineering and architectural work, turnery and cabinet-making. The jarrah has been already named. A species of acacia, called in the colony, from its peculiar odour, the "raspberry jam tree", gives a hard fragrant wood, dark reddish-brown in hue, close-grained, very suitable for ornamental work. As regards cereal production, in 1899 Western Australia had under wheat (and reserved for the grain-crop) nearly 76,000 acres, giving about 836,000 bushels of corn. In barley, 2186 acres supplied 28,400 bushels. Of oats, 55,440 bushels were grown on 3072 acres. The maize and potato-growth was not worthy of mention. About 3000 acres of vines afforded grapes producing 85,690 gallons of wine. In all, at the close of 1899, only 172,000 acres were under tillage. Up to the end of 1898, nearly 6,292,000 acres of lands had been granted and sold (out of a total area of nearly 625 millions of acres) for £370,000. We should observe that, at the close of 1899, about

79,223 acres were under hay-crops. The live stock, in 1899, consisted of 62,440 horses, 245,900 horned cattle, nearly 2¼ million sheep, and over 31,000 pigs. In 1898 the total exports (including bullion and specie, £3,990,698) had a value of £4,960,000, comprising pearls and pearl-shell worth over £98,000; timber, £326,000; wool, £287,000; guano, over £5500, obtained from islands on the west coast; and skins to a value above £44,540. Of the above amount, Great Britain took wool, gold, pearl-shells, and timber to the value of £2,293,650. The total imports of the colony, in 1898, in the shape of manufactured goods, including railway material (£468,000); sugar, flour, corn and grain; beer, wine and spirits; tea, tobacco, oilmen's and apothecaries' stores, meats and butter, reached a value of nearly 5¼ millions; of this amount, the United Kingdom sent out above £2,051,000 in value, chiefly in iron, machinery, apparel, cotton goods, beer, and leather. Of the shipping, 2,389,626 tons, which entered and cleared from the ports, Great Britain owned 1,917,558 tons. The railways of the colony, with a uniform gauge of 3½ feet, include the Northern, Eastern, Southern, and Midland systems, of which, in 1892, about 200 miles belonged to the Government, while more than double that length was in the hands of Companies, being constructed on the land-grant system bestowing a large area of soil for each mile, to be selected within a belt of 40 miles on each side of the line. The West Australian Land Company, in return for grants of three million acres, constructed and possess a well-equipped line, opened for traffic in 1889, from Albany to Beverley, a distance of 242 miles. On June 30th, 1899, there were 1850 miles of railway open for traffic; including 495 miles of private line; many miles are now in course of laying and survey. At the end of 1898 about 5890 miles of telegraph, and 680 miles of telephone, were in use. We have seen that from Albany the wire extends to South Australia; from Roebuck Bay an "alternative cable" of the Eastern Extension Telegraph Cable Company is laid to Banjuwangi, on the eastern coast of Java. Good roads connect the towns; much traffic is conducted by coasting steamers; *P. and O.* boats, *Orient* liners, *Messageries Maritimes* steamers, and the vessels of several private firms, under both steam and sail, afford sea-communication direct with London, Marseilles, New York, San Francisco, Singapore, and other ports. The postal-system conveys

half-ounce letters for 1*d.* within a town, 2*d.* in Australasia, and 2½*d.* to United Kingdom and Postal Union countries, now including most of the civilized world.

The rule of the colony, under the Act of 1890, is now vested in the Crown-appointed Governor; a Legislative Council of 24 members; and a Legislative Assembly of 44 members, all elected by voters having a £10 annual qualification as leaseholders, or as occupiers of house or unfurnished lodging; as licensees of the Crown for tillage, pasturage or mining with a yearly payment of £10; or possessing freehold estate worth £100. There are 44 electoral districts; the Assembly sits for a maximum of 4 years; members are not paid, but travel free on all Government railways. The Cabinet of six responsible ministers includes a Commissioner of Lands, and Ministers of Public Works and of Mines. Local government is conducted by municipalities in the larger towns. The judicial establishment comprises a Chief Justice, assistant-judge, and police-magistrates. Education, in the Government primary schools, is free, secular, and compulsory, with the control and supervision of a central board and local district boards, chosen every five years by the general body of electors. Denominational bigotry in management is excluded by the provisions that the central board of five members, including the Colonial Secretary, must be wholly composed of laymen; and that no two of them may be of the same religious body. Government aid is given to private schools laid open to inspection, and secondary or middle-class schools are all supported by the State. In 1891, 13 per cent of the total white population above 15 years could neither read nor write. The revenue, in 1899, amounted to £2,478,000, with an expenditure of £2,539,000, in addition to amounts expended from loans on public works; the public debt was £10,488,363, with an annual charge of £432,000 for interest, and about £175,000 set apart as a "sinking fund". The public income was, to the amount of nearly £870,000, derived from customs-duties, with the usual Australian tariff affecting various articles, rising from 5 per cent to 20 per cent *ad valorem*, and heavy specific duties on meat, beer, spirits, and wines; printing-paper and books are free from charge. The rest of the revenue is chiefly derived from railways, the Post Office and leases of lands. On June 30th, 1899, 29,370 depositors had £1,116,178 to their credit in the savings-banks.

CHAPTER X.

TASMANIA

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, STATISTICS, TOWNS.

The name Van Diemen's Land changed to Tasmania—Its original settlers—Discovery of the island by Tasman—Visits of later European voyagers—First British occupation—Made a penal settlement—Rule of successive governors—Growth of Hobart—Troubles with bush-rangers and the natives—Martial law proclaimed—Mr. Robinson's successful efforts to conciliate the natives—Progress of the colony—Sir John Franklin governor—Agitation regarding the convict question—Condition of Norfolk Island—Transportation abolished—Effects of the gold discovery on the colony—Self-government granted—Progress under successive governors—Geographical position and boundaries of the island—The coast-line and islands—Mountains—Rivers—Mount Wellington—Beautiful scenery of the country—Limestone caves near Chadleigh—Lakes—Climate—Fauna and flora—Mineral wealth—Population—Agriculture—Fruit-growing—Pasturage and live stock—Manufactures—Roads and railways—Telegraph and telephone—Lines of steamers—Exports and imports—Shipping—Hobart, the capital—Its suburbs—Launceston and other towns—Islands belonging to the colony—Flinders Island, &c.—"Mutton-birds" or sooty petrels—Political divisions of the colony—Government—Education—Diminution of the criminal element—Revenue, expenditure, and public debt.

TASMANIA has the distinction of ranking as the second colony of Australasia in point of age, being founded only fifteen years later than New South Wales. In a certain sense, she is also the mother of the great colony of Victoria, as Tasmanians were the first settlers there in 1834–37. We may observe that the name "Van Diemen's Land", of universal use within the memory of middle-aged men, having become one of evil repute in connection with convicts, began to be laid aside for the present designation in 1853, after the abolition of transportation to that part of the British dominions. Fitting honour was thus rendered to the discoverer of the beautiful island. Furthermore, Tasmania was the first of Australasian colonies to receive, in 1855, the privileges of local representative government. At some early period, a race of uncertain origin, perhaps Papuan, arrived in the largest island to the south of Australia, and throve and multiplied amid the abundance of animal and vegetable food which they found in the woods. Hidden away from the rest of the world, they killed and ate opossums, wombats, kangaroos, birds, lizards, snakes, and grubs. They took honey from the nests of wild bees; they dug up truffles, wild potatoes, and the roots of orchises and ferns; they gathered shell-fish on the shores. It was early on a November morning in 1642, a month after Charles the First

of England had met his revolted subjects in the battle of Edgehill, that the barbarous blacks of this lovely land twelve thousand miles away first saw the wondrous spectacle presented by European ships, as they drew over the horizon westwards of a headland now called Point Hibbs. As the monsters flew nearer over the waters, with outspread wings overtopping great dark bodies, the natives fled away in terror, lighting fires of warning to their friends inland. The two craft that now for the first time brought Europeans to those shores were the *Heemskirk* and the *Zeehan*, under the command of Abel Jansz Tasman and his brother Gerritt. The former had been despatched on a voyage of exploration to the "Great South Land" by General Anthony Van Diemen, Governor of Batavia, in Java, the centre of Dutch colonial rule in the Eastern seas. The discoverer supposed the land to be a part of the southern continent, and named it, from his official chief, "Van Diemen's Land". The Dutch voyagers sailed round the southern coast as far as Storm Bay, in an inlet of which they came to anchor. On December 2nd, Tasman went ashore with some of his officers, and hoisted a flag upon a post on which he and his companions carved their names. The next course was round the great irregular south-easterly projection now called Tasman's Peninsula, and up the east coast, with the discovery and naming, on the way, of Maria and Schouten Islands, as far as St. Patrick Head, whence Tasman and his consort-ship sailed eastwards and discovered New Zealand.

A hundred and thirty years passed away before, so far as is known, any European ship came upon the coast of the country first visited by Tasman. In 1772, two French vessels, the *Mascarin* and *Castries*, under Captain Marion du Fresne, anchored in the same inlet of Storm Bay as Tasman, a harbour now called Fredrik Hendrik Bay. There was a quarrel with the blacks who came down to the shore to gaze upon the strangers, and the Frenchmen frightened them away by firing. After a few days' sojourn, Du Fresne, like Tasman, sailed away to the east, and was killed in conflict with the natives at New Zealand. In the following year, 1773, Captain Furneaux, of the *Adventure*, which had become separated from Cook's ship, the *Resolution*, in his second voyage of discovery, anchored in Adventure Bay, on the east side of the large Bruni Island, at the entrance of Storm Bay. In 1777, Captain Cook, in the *Resolution*, on his third and last voyage, landed in the same

place. In 1788, the English man-of-war *Bounty*, under Lieutenant William Bligh, afterwards sent adrift, with a portion of his crew, in the famous mutiny, arrived in Adventure Bay, and then sailed away for Otaheite (Tahiti), in the Society Islands. The names upon the map of the south-eastern portion of Tasmania, of D'Entrecasteaux Channel, the Huon River, Bruni Island, and Recherche Bay, commemorate the visit, in April, 1792, of a French expedition composed of the ships *Recherche* and *Espérance*, under Rear-Admiral Bruni d'Entrecasteaux and Captain Huon de Kermandée, despatched in search of the hapless La Pérouse, whom we have seen in our account of the "First Fleet" to Australia, under Captain Phillip. After nearly a month spent in surveying, the French navigators left, returning in January, 1793, to complete the charts which had been drawn. Other navigators, including Bass and Flinders, as we have seen, were in Tasmanian waters towards the end of the eighteenth century. In January, 1802, the French scientific expedition on board the *Géographe* and the *Naturaliste*, under Commodore Baudin, surveyed much of the southern and eastern coasts, the name of Freycinet Peninsula being given from that of a lieutenant of the *Géographe*.

It was in September, 1803, that the first British occupation and settlement of Van Diemen's Land took place, when Lieutenant John Bowen, of H.M.S. *Glatton*, was sent out by Governor King, of New South Wales, "to establish His Majesty's right" to the territory. Along with his desire to anticipate French occupation, King was anxious to be rid of some unruly convicts. The new colony was founded by Bowen, in charge of two dozen convicts, six free persons, and eight soldiers, who landed at a place called Risdon Cove, on the east bank of the Derwent River, about 5 miles above the site of Hobart, and on the opposite side of the water. A month later, when they had raised a few huts, and sheep and goats were feeding among the long grass surrounding the little settlement, a party of 42 convicts and 15 soldiers, sent by Governor King, arrived. In 1804, a strong accession of numbers came with Colonel David Collins, an officer of marines who had fought at Bunker's Hill in the American War, and went out in 1787 with Captain Phillip in the capacity of secretary and as Judge-Advocate for New South Wales. He was despatched from England in 1803 with about 300 male convicts, 24 wives of prisoners, 50 soldiers,

and a dozen free settlers, and, after failing to approve the country which he saw on the shores of Port Phillip, he sailed for the Derwent, and selected for a new town the site of Hobart, on the west side of the river, a few miles nearer the sea than Risdon. There he founded the place which he named from Lord Hobart, the minister then in charge of colonial affairs. The beginning of a long and sanguinary contest with the natives occurred in May, when the settlers at Risdon fired upon a large party of blacks who, from their shouts and gesticulations of surprise at the sight of the white men, were thought to be intending an attack. The unfortunate aborigines fled, but were, with needless cruelty, pursued and slain to the number of thirty. Collins, first lieutenant-governor of Tasmania, then under the Government of New South Wales, ruled with vigour and esteem until his sudden death in 1810. In 1804, the north of Tasmania was first settled by a party of convicts from Sydney, with soldiers, under Colonel Patterson, who arrived near the entrance to Port Dalrymple. Two years later, the town of Launceston began its career with a name derived from Governor King's birthplace in Cornwall. In 1807, lands were assigned in the southern or Hobart settlement to convicts from Norfolk Island, now abandoned for a time by the British Government. Many of these men had become well-behaved industrious farmers, and their new settlement in Tasmania, on the Derwent above Hobart, was styled "New Norfolk", in remembrance of their former island-home.

For three years after the death of the upright and kindly Governor Collins, the Hobart settlers were in charge of successive commanders of the troops. During this interval, at the close of 1811, Governor Macquarie of New South Wales made a visit to the colony, where he became very popular, and, as we read, "exercised pretty freely his taste for naming after himself every place which fell under his notice". Early in 1813, the eccentric and capricious Colonel Davey, also an officer of marines, arrived for a four-years' tenure of office. Davey was a "rough-and-ready" kind of man, who "trod on the corns" of his superior Macquarie. He showed wisdom in throwing open the ports, and English merchants began to settle in Hobart. The little colony was beginning to prosper, partly through the whale-fishery. Tillage was progressing; corn was exported; and in 1816 the first body of

free emigrants arrived. The chief trouble of the Van Diemen's Land farmers arose from the depredations of bush-rangers and natives on their sheep, cattle, and stackyards. The convicts who escaped, to the number of several dozens a year, betook themselves to the wild central country, sometimes living with the natives, and infecting them with the worst vices of "civilization"; sometimes treating them like wild beasts; always at deadly war with the Government and with the free settlers, who were forced to turn their lonely houses, in the country-districts, into fortresses loop-holed for fire, and well supplied with weapons which the women and the elder children were taught to use. It was Colonel Davey's strong measure of placing the colony under martial law, as a remedy for bush-ranging, that caused his retirement, in 1817, when this action was disallowed by Macquarie.

The aborigines were treated with great violence and cruelty by the free white settlers in some cases, and a succession of Governors for many years had great difficulty in restraining outrages committed by and on both whites and blacks. Collins had denounced "the murders and abominable cruelties practised upon the natives by the white people", but he had little force at his command. At last, in 1828, martial law was proclaimed, and rewards were offered by the government for the capture, without injury, of every native. Finally, a force of over 2000 men, including 800 troops, was formed in line across the country from east to west, in an attempt to drive the blacks south into Tasman's Peninsula. The expenditure of about £30,000 in this enterprise resulted in the capture of a man and a boy, the most costly fish ever taken in any net. After this ludicrous failure, the Government, in despair, employed a poor bricklayer (or carpenter, as some say) of Hobart, named George Augustus Robinson, a man inspired with an earnest wish to employ other measures, in using efforts for the conciliation of the natives. Love to the fellow-man succeeded where force had proved of no avail. The noble-minded and courageous Robinson went freely among the natives, gained their good-will, and after traversing, in every part of the island, above 4000 miles of ground, he induced a body of about three hundred to pass over with him to Flinders Island, at the east end of Bass Strait, where they lived under his charge in peace and safety, and were treated with kindness by the Government. It was in 1835 that this settlement was formed. Robinson was appointed

"Protector of Aborigines", and commandant at Flinders Island, and finally "Chief Protector of the Aborigines of New Holland". The Tasmanian natives dwindled away in numbers under their new conditions of life, and in 1847 only 44 were left. These were then transferred to the mainland, and in 1869 the last male survivor of the race died in Hobart. Seven years later, Truganini, a chief's daughter, passed away, and with her ended the pure aboriginal race of Tasmania, after a career in which some of the later scenes form a dark and disgraceful chapter of British colonial annals.

Reverting now to the general history of the colony, we find Davey succeeded, as Governor, by Colonel Sorell, who was in power from 1817 to 1824. This gentleman, who had commanded the 48th Regiment, was a man of firmness, energy, and wisdom, who did much to advance the interests of the colony in putting down the bush-rangers, and promoting the immigration of free settlers for tillage. In his time, 300 sheep were imported from Captain Macarthur's famous merino-flock at Camden, near Sydney, and Tasmania soon had wool as a new and profitable article of export. In 1821, the island had a population of over 7000, of whom about one-third were gathered in Hobart and the neighbourhood. There were 15,000 acres under cultivation, and the settlers possessed 35,000 horned cattle and 170,000 sheep. Civilization was advancing in the establishment of a newspaper, and a fortnightly mail between Hobart and Launceston, taking a week for the conveyance of letters; there was a local court, and some heed was paid to religious and educational progress. In 1824, when Colonel Sorell retired, to the great regret of those whom he had ruled, the colony was yearly exporting £40,000 worth of wheat, and the Van Diemen's Land wool, at first despised in England, and only used for stuffing mattresses, was commanding high prices from the manufacturers. Colonel Arthur, who had been Superintendent of Honduras from 1814 to 1822, succeeded Sorell in 1824, and in 1825, when the colony was separated from New South Wales, he became the first "Governor" of an independent little state, with the usual executive and legislative Councils. During his tenure of office, lasting until October, 1836, the colony prospered; the population trebled in number, tillage throve, and trade increased. Hobart became a handsome town; good roads and bridges were made in the country districts; and the bush-rangers, who had again become troublesome,

were suppressed. Governor Arthur was a stern ruler, who became odious to many persons from interference with the freedom of the press, but he did much to promote education and religion, and many churches and schools were built. The finances were reduced to order, and the island was divided into police-districts, with a stipendiary magistracy. At this time the Van Diemen's Land Company, with a parliamentary charter, was formed, and received a large grant of land in the north-west. In 1828, land-sales at a low rate began on the part of the Government. The growing business of the settlers caused the foundation of banks at Hobart and Launceston. In 1835, the fortnightly mail between the two chief towns was replaced by a biweekly delivery of letters conveyed in less than twenty-four hours.

In 1837, Sir John Franklin, afterwards famous as the Arctic explorer, arrived as Governor, holding office until 1843, with popularity due to his noble character, sagacity, and genial demeanour. His admirable wife, whom we have already seen in connection with her husband's tragical end in the regions of everlasting ice, supported with the utmost zeal of personal effort, and with the resources of her large private fortune, all the Governor's kindly and sympathetic endeavours for the good of the community, including schemes for the development of popular education. Franklin, however, fell on evil days when he went to Van Diemen's Land as ruler. The colonial secretary, Mr. Montagu, a nephew of Governor Arthur, had obtained a great share of power under his uncle's administration, and strove hard to make the new ruler a secondary personage in the colony. His gross insolence to the Governor at last caused his dismissal, but the man was clever enough to delude the Colonial Secretary in London (Lord Stanley, afterwards Prime Minister as Earl of Derby) into adopting his side in the quarrel, and Franklin was removed from his post. The next Governor was Sir John Eardley Wilmot, a Warwickshire baronet and county member who had won some distinction as a debater in Parliament. During his term of office, from 1843 till October, 1846, the convict-question was the chief matter of discussion and policy. The cessation of the convict-system in New South Wales caused the sister colony to the south to be flooded with criminals whom the settlers were expected, by the authorities in London, to be at the sole charge of coercing and maintaining, in the event of their committing fresh crimes. Trouble

was intensified by the transfer of about 2000 prisoners of the worst class from Norfolk Island to Port Arthur, on Tasman's Peninsula. In 1845, Norfolk Island, which had been annexed to Van Diemen's Land, had become a kind of *Inferno*, under charge of a merciless superintendent, who in vain used the lash and other kinds of torture to subdue the spirits of the fiends committed to his control. The island had been made for the second time, in 1826, the abode of convicts, and it received thenceforth the worst of the bad, in the persons of those who had been convicted of fresh crimes in New South Wales. It was a disgrace to the country which maintained its existence in this form, and the outlook of the colony of Van Diemen's Land, as regarded the penal population, now became very serious. In addition to the convicts deported thither from Norfolk Island, there were more than 20 bodies of convicts, working as "probationers", in different parts of the country, in gangs of from 100 to 500. The cost to the Imperial government amounted annually to £300,000, and the Colonial Office, seeking to reduce expenses, set the convicts to clearing and tilling the soil. The use of the produce for their consumption, and the sending to market of supplies raised by this cheap labour, were very detrimental to the interests of the free farmers. Agriculture was depressed; the Crown-lands ceased to furnish any revenue from sales; and public debt, to meet expenses caused by the convicts, gave rise to further taxation. Indignation was justly aroused when Lord Stanley, the Colonial Secretary, ordered that the labour of convicts, hitherto employed on public works without wages, should be paid for by the colonists at the current rate of free labour. Contests arose between the Governor and the Legislative Council concerning the means of raising money to meet the increasing expenditure, and in 1846 Mr. Gladstone, successor of Lord Stanley in his office, removed Governor Wilmot on the ground of making statements intended to deceive the authorities in London. He survived this blow only a few months, dying at Hobart early in 1847.

The convict-question remained a chief topic of agitation, along with a demand for elective parliaments, after the arrival, in January, 1847, of the new Governor, Colonel (afterwards Major-General Sir William) Denison, whom we have seen as ruler in New South Wales. He was one of a band of distinguished brothers, of whom the other three became respectively Speaker of the Commons; Bishop of

Salisbury; and Archdeacon of Taunton. Educated at Eton and at Woolwich, William Denison entered the Royal Engineers, in which corps he became colonel in 1826. He arrived to confront difficulties already existing, and created others by somewhat arbitrary action during a rule in which he opposed the aspirations of the colonists for a constitutional system, and seemed to consider his chief duty to be that of superintending convict-labour according to the instructions received from his official chief in London. We must make our story short by stating that, before his promotion, in 1855, to New South Wales, the colonists received (in 1850) the right of electing a portion of the Legislative Council; that transportation was abolished in 1853; that the country was divided into municipalities, railways were begun, the electric wires introduced, and many other important public works executed. A new era had begun for Tasmania with the country's new name, coincident with the boon of partial self-government, and the cessation of the curse of convictism. The first Legislative Council, under the new system, met in 1852, and was composed of eight members nominated by the Governor, and sixteen elected by as many districts. The rush to the Australian gold-fields in 1851 for a time bereft many country districts of their adult male population, but a great change was caused in agricultural and commercial affairs when the prices of grain, flour, vegetables, fruit, timber, and other products, were enhanced by the influence of the markets in Victoria and by the glut of gold. The population of the colony at this time sank from over 40,000, the number in 1850, to little more than half. Those who remained on the land in Tasmania were very prosperous from the rise in values, and the import and export trade were so stimulated that in 1853 they each amounted to about 2¼ millions sterling, an enormous total for the existing population. In August of that year, the jubilee of the colony was celebrated with public festivity and religious services, and the change of name to "Tasmania" now received legislative and official sanction.

Early in 1855, Governor Denison was succeeded by Sir Henry Young, an able and energetic man whom we met in South Australia. The first great duty with which the new ruler was charged was that of inaugurating "responsible government", conceded by the Imperial Parliament in May, 1855, with two wholly elective Houses. After the general election of September, 1856, and the formation of the

first Cabinet, the new legislature passed measures for the development of higher education, the founding of new municipalities in rural townships, and for settling population on the land. The colonists at this time displayed at once both their wealth and their patriotism by sending £25,000 to the fund being raised in London for the widows and orphans made by the Crimean War. From 1861 until 1869 the post of Governor was held by Colonel (afterwards Sir Thomas) Gore Browne, an officer of distinguished service in the first Afghan War, and of much colonial experience as Secretary in the Ionian Islands, and as Governor first at St. Helena and then in New Zealand. The new representative of the Queen in Tasmania was a man of delightful character and manners, who, along with his charming wife, a Scottish lady brought up in the best Edinburgh circle, exerted the happiest influence upon the social system of the colony, and made the new Government House at Hobart a centre of refinement, courtesy, and good feeling. The resources of the beautiful country were developed, and communications were improved by the construction of bridges, tramways, and roads. In 1865, an Act was passed which has proved of great value in rendering the transfer of land a cheap, easy, and simple transaction. The population of the country was, however, steadily diminishing, owing to the attractions of the gold-producing Australian colonies, and the progress of tillage and sheep-farming was very slow. The country presented rather the quiet aspect of rural England than the bustle and stir of an Australasian colony. The day of Tasmania had not yet arrived, but good preparation for a better time was being made in the opening up of the country by means of railways, for the construction of which in country districts great facilities were afforded to joint-stock companies.

In January, 1869, when Governor and Mrs. Browne had left the island amid the warmest expressions of respect and regret, Mr. (afterwards Sir Charles) Du Cane arrived as the new ruler. This gentleman, who had sat in Parliament for some years as an Essex member, and had been a Civil Lord of the Admiralty, was a governor of much energy and efficiency. In his time (May, 1869) a cable was laid across the Strait from Port Dalrymple, on the north coast, to near Cape Schanck, in Victoria, and railways were opened from Launceston to Perth and other places in the west of the island. In 1870, on the withdrawal of the home garrisons from Australasia,

volunteer forces were enrolled. The census at this time showed a revival, in a population of about 100,000, and more members were now chosen for the legislature under a "Constitution Act" which also lowered the franchise for election to both Houses. At the end of 1872 the completion of the overland-telegraph brought Tasmania into direct and swift communication with London. Mr. Du Cane, remaining in office until March, 1874, was zealous in the encouragement of agriculture, education, and sport, and well observed the conditions of his post as a constitutional ruler. He was succeeded (in January, 1875) by Mr. (afterwards Sir Frederick) Weld, much of whose career has been already seen in connection with Western Australia, and who will soon reappear in New Zealand, at an earlier period. During his term of office, the efforts of this able man for the general good of the colony were much hampered by petty party feeling, causing frequent changes of ministry, but he succeeded in procuring votes of money, in 1877, for the construction of new roads, wharves, bridges, and telegraphs in districts hitherto unsupplied with these necessaries of intercourse and trade. The railway from Hobart to Launceston, 133 miles in length, was opened in 1876, and in the same year the tin-mines discovered five years previously at Mount Bischoff, 60 miles west of Launceston, gained a fresh value through the making of a tramway thence to Emu Bay, 40 miles distant, where the port of Ulverstone arose. About the same time some really rich deposits of alluvial gold were found on the river Arthur and the west coast. The discovery of mineral wealth gave a new impulse to the colony.

In April, 1880, Governor Weld left Tasmania for his new post in the Straits Settlements (Malacca), and was succeeded, in October, by Lieut.-General Sir J. H. Lefroy, a distinguished scientific officer of the Royal Artillery, much engaged on magnetic observations, national defences, and military education; Governor of Bermuda from 1871 till 1877. He acquired great popularity in Tasmania during his brief tenure of office, which ended in December, 1881, when General Lefroy retired from public work. The population of Tasmania, highly flourishing through agriculture and mining, now exceeded 115,000. Sir George Strahan, also a Royal Artillery officer, who had colonial experience as Chief Secretary at Malta, Colonial Secretary and Governor in the Bahamas, and also as Governor of the Gold Coast, and at Lagos, and of the Windward

Islands (West Indies), was Governor of Tasmania from Dec., 1881, to Oct., 1886. At this time the revenue, without any fresh taxation, and along with a large expenditure on public works, was in a flourishing state, amounting to nearly £560,000 at the end of 1883, by an increase of about 40 per cent in the space of four years. A loan of £800,000 was raised for railways, and new lines were surveyed and taken in hand. In 1884, a period of depression came from over-speculation in mines, but a revival occurred in the following year, and a Defence Act was passed, with a measure for the enrolment of a reserve force. The mining in gold and tin became very prosperous. The statistics for the year 1886 showed a marked increase of prosperity in revenue, trade, deposits in savings-banks and building societies, as well as in the marriage-rate and the sale and occupation of Crown-lands. In 1887, the Jubilee of Queen Victoria was celebrated in most loyal and joyous fashion. Sir George Strahan had now (in March of that year) been succeeded as Governor by Sir Robert Hamilton, son of Dr. Hamilton, minister of Bressay, Shetland Isles (Scotland); born there in 1836, educated at Aberdeen University, a civil servant in London (Education Department), accountant and assistant-secretary to the Board of Trade, and Under-Secretary for Ireland from 1883 to 1886. On the occasion of the Jubilee, Lady Hamilton performed the pleasing duty of telegraphing to the Queen an address of congratulation from 23,000 women of Tasmania. Under Sir R. Hamilton's able and enlightened administration, the colony continued to make steady progress. The cultivation of fruit, of which the splendid apples exhibited every spring-time in the British market are notable specimens, was yearly more and more developed, and it had become clear that the country was on the way to a high position amongst our colonial dominions. In August, 1893, the Governorship of Tasmania was assumed by Viscount Gormanston, an Irish peer of old creation (1478), a baron (1868) in the peerage of Great Britain. After serving with the 60th Rifles in the Indian Mutiny days, this nobleman became a Commissioner of National Education in his native country, and acquired knowledge of colonial affairs as Governor of the Leeward Islands (West Indies) and of British Guiana.

Tasmania, one of the fairest and most favoured regions of the world, lies to the south-east of Australia, exactly opposite the

central portion of the colony of Victoria, from which it is divided by Bass Strait, having an average breadth of 140 miles. In south latitude (between 40° 33′ and 43° 40′) it nearly corresponds with southern France and northern Italy in the northern hemisphere; its longitude is 144° 40′ to 148° 23′ E. With an average length, from north to south, of 160 miles, and a mean breadth from east to west nearly equal to the length, the heart-shaped island approaches in size to Scotland or Ireland, and is somewhat larger than Ceylon, having an area of 26,385 square miles or over 16¾ million acres, of which the smaller islands, chiefly round the coast and in Bass Strait, account for 1,206,000 acres or about 1900 square miles. The coast is rocky and bold in its outlines, broken by numerous inlets, of which many form good natural harbours; this feature is specially found in the north, north-west, and south, the eastern and western shores being generally unbroken. Among the remarkable points of scenery on the coast is Tasman's Peninsula, on the south-east. The inlet called Port Arthur is a broad sheet of water like an inland lake set in a double zone of mountains, the outer one rising into stately domes and pinnacles, the inner with softly undulating outlines. The coast is adorned with fine English elms, ashes, and oaks, planted seventy years ago, and the whole scene is one of rare beauty. Now breathing nothing but peace and repose, this spot was defiled, in the earlier days of Tasmanian history, by the presence of the denizens of the chief penal settlement, with access to the mainland, at the narrow isthmus, guarded by soldiers and bloodhounds. A small island, a mile or two to the east, was the burial-place of about 1700 persons, in that evil time, both bond and free. The inlet widens out into Mangon Bay, and the two promontories at the southern extremities, about ten miles apart, end in Cape Pillar on the east, and Cape Raoul on the west, noble headlands composed of basaltic columns from 700 to 900 feet in height, massed together in some places, and in others detached by the action of the waves which have here scooped out three caverns, each with its blow-hole ejecting briny fountains in a storm. Close to the isthmus of Tasman's Peninsula is Tasman's Arch, in which an enormous mass of rock lies upon two huge monoliths or piers, with the sea ebbing and flowing between them. A remarkable natural pavement at Port Arthur, on the sea edge, is composed of stars of basalt, uniform in size, level in surface, and

laid as regularly as if by human hands. To the north of Tasman's Peninsula, and joined to it by the isthmus called Eagle Hawk Neck, is Forestier Peninsula. Northward again of this, on the south-east coast, is Maria Island, once a penal settlement which had, as one of its inhabitants, the Irish patriot Smith O'Brien; the place is now under culture of vines and olives. Almost cut in two by deep indentations, this picturesque island has, on the northern side, basaltic cliffs rising almost perpendicularly to the height of over 2300 feet. There is a central mountain-ridge broken up by deep ravines, and covered with forests.

South-west from Tasman's Peninsula, beyond the wide Storm Bay, the island called North and South Bruni has its double name from the fact that a long and very narrow peninsula, joining two parts, gives the appearance of separate islands. The scenery is bold; the island is 32 miles long, and from 1 to 6 in breadth. At this part of the coast, the tortuous and dangerous estuary called D'Entrecasteaux Channel, receiving the Huon river's ample flood, is bordered by many beautiful bays surrounded by sylvan solitudes. Between South-East and South-West Capes are many islands and rocks; at the latter headland, the coast runs northward to Port Davey, and after this, going north, the chief headlands are Rocky Point, Point Hibbs, and Cape Sorell. This last promontory guards, on the west, the narrow entrance to the splendid Macquarie Harbour, a sheet of water running inland south-east for 25 miles, with a breadth of 8 miles, and many minor inlets. It receives the waters of the Gordon and King rivers, and serves as a gateway to some of the wildest scenery of south-central Tasmania. On the north coast, Cape Grim, Circular Head, and Cape Portland are the chief projections of the land. Circular Head, in the north-west, is a narrow peninsula about 6 miles long, running out northwards from the mainland, and ending, after a narrow isthmus just above sea-level has been crossed, in a table-mount or plateau with an area of 80 acres, surmounting precipitous cliffs over 400 feet high. This spot commands a fine view of the coast to east and west, and of the park-like scenery inland. The chief inlets on the north coast are Port Sorell and Port Dalrymple, the latter being the entrance to the noble estuary of the Tamar river; Anderson and Ringarooma Bays are spacious openings on the north-east. On the east coast, the chief inlet is the fine Oyster Bay, running up

due north, completely sheltered on the east by Freycinet Peninsula, running due south, and by Schouten Island.

Tasmania is a mountainous country in which ranges irregular in direction, length, and height stand upon and around a central table-land reaching an elevation of 3000 feet, with an abrupt face to the north, and a gradual slope towards the south. Above a hundred hills and mountains reach an altitude from 1000 to over 5000 feet; there are fifty elevations exceeding 2500 feet, and more than twenty peaks exceeding 4000; while two summits, Ben Lomond and Cradle Mountain, the former on the eastern, the latter on the western, edge of the table-land, somewhat exceed 5000 feet; Cradle Mountain, the culminating point of the island, has an altitude of 5069. The higher hills, snow-capped through the winter, suggest Switzerland or the Tyrol. The picturesque character of the country, as to surface, is derived from the disorderly intermingling of mountain, table-land, valley, and ravine. There are numerous rivers, of which only the Derwent, Tamar, Gordon, Pieman, and Huon are navigable, for ships of fair tonnage, for many miles above their mouths. The Derwent, 130 miles in length, can float such craft for a distance of 60 miles, or more than 20 miles above Hobart. In the north, the Tamar's head of navigation is at Launceston: this river, with its tributaries the Macquarie and the North and South Esk, drains a large part of the north of the island. The western slope is drained by the Gordon, King, Pieman, and Arthur rivers; the Ringarooma, the Mersey, and the Forth, considerable streams, fall into the sea at Bass Strait. The lakes will be seen at a further stage of this account. It will not diminish the admiration felt by many readers for this lovely island to be told that its never-failing streams, in their gravelly rock-strewn beds, and their surroundings of hill and foliage—and, of late years, in their trout and salmon introduced from British waters—strongly remind the traveller of Scottish rivers and burns. Some of the lakes suggest Loch Katrine or Loch Lomond on a greater scale, and there can be no doubt that this lake-region, now known only to a few tourists and anglers, will in time become a regular summer resort and sanatorium for Australian colonists.

Mount Wellington, at the rear of Hobart, is 4166 feet high, forming a majestic mass like a huge saurian of the palæozoic age

with head and neck depressed towards the north, the back elevated near the shoulders into a peak, and the tail tapering down for miles towards the south. A part of the slope, called the "ploughed field", above half-way up the ascent, shows basaltic formation in ridges and furrows composed of enormous boulders and the intervening fissures. The lower part is clothed in perpetual green, as the streams from the summit keep ever fresh the bowers of fern that overarch purling brooks and noisy cascades, perfectly shut out from sunlight by the stately forest-trees that tower above all. This beautiful mountain, with a rocky plateau at the top, is one of ever-changing colours that possess unfailing charms for the beholder, according to the varying position of the sun, and atmospheric conditions; bright and gay, or gloomy and morose; with its head sometimes veiled in vapour for days, and then showing every feature of its rugged upper face in striking clearness; and crowned in winter with stainless snow. The magnificent view from the summit is unsurpassed in the world for diversified display of land and sea, forest and garden, town and country, water and wood, embracing the mouth of the Derwent, which glitters like a sheet of silver in the sun; Storm Bay, Bruni Island, Tasman's Peninsula, and D'Entrecasteaux Channel; and the romantic region along the river Huon. Among the many picturesque walks and drives near the capital of Tasmania, the Huon Road, winding along the spurs of Mount Wellington, is one of the most delightful. Steadily ascending to the height of 1600 feet, it then goes down into the valley containing the estuary of the Huon before its entrance into D'Entrecasteaux Channel about 30 miles below Hobart. The roadside scenery combines mountain-forests of gigantic trees, rising out of a jungle of sassafras, musk, scrub-vines, honey-plants, and many other growths; cataracts, rushing over rocky ledges; fern-grown gullies, and knolls cleared of timber, enabling the traveller to look over thick masses of foliage to the distant Derwent, and, at other points, to the grand profile of Mount Wellington.

Among the fine scenery of the south-west, King William Mountain has three peaks, of which the highest reaches 4360 feet. Its massive buttresses are clothed with forests quite impenetrable, on the higher levels, from the tangled undergrowth of shrubs and creepers, fed by perennial moisture of mist and shower, as the vapours

from the ocean are chilled and condensed in contact with the lower temperature of the lofty trees. Streams thence issue to run down the slopes of the mountain which has its features, on one side, reflected in the glassy waters of a lake, undisturbed by aught but a passing breeze or the movements of an occasional pair of black swans as, in Miltonic phrase, "with archéd neck", they "row their state with oary feet". Ten miles westward of this King William Range, the chain fancifully called the "Frenchman's Cap" reaches 4756 feet in its highest point. The bald cone or culminating peak of this gigantic mass of naked rock is like the base of an enormous shattered monolith. Surrounded by many lower eminences with jagged peaks or rounded cupolas, dwarfed by its elevation, the Cap looks most beautiful when the rugged outlines of its massive top are softened by a thick covering of snow, glittering against the steel-blue sky. The sunshine of spring or early summer sends hundreds of tiny cataracts down the narrow grooves and channels worn by the water in previous ages, to pass beneath canopies of fern-tree fronds or groves of musk and sassafras, or under vaults formed by the interlacing foliage of stately myrtles, and then to pour their waters into a tributary of the Franklin by a narrow winding gorge whose precipitous sides, mostly clothed with Alpine timber from 30 to 300 feet in height, show here and there huge masses of rugged rock, variously tinted with mosses and lichens, while a few trees, bent and twisted by the violent winds that sweep down the ravine, cling to the soil in crevices and fissures.

The Eldon Range, north of the mountain scenery just described, runs east and west over an area of country about 15 miles in length and 2 to 3 in breadth, with its highest peak reaching 4789 feet, third amongst Tasmanian eminences. A noble appearance is presented by a long bare range of pillars, a cliff-like mass, rising abrupt and almost perpendicular from a waving sea of foliage, with ridges resembling the battlements of a stupendous fortress. In the north-east, the second in height of the mountains, Ben Lomond, with an elevation of 5010 feet, has a ragged outline of cliff-like butts or bluffs resembling those of the highest part of the Eldon Range. The naked, soaring crags, most grand and majestic at sunset or sunrise, when the sky is ablaze with crimson and gold, show on the southern face an enormous gathering of basaltic columns, or "organ-pipes", some of which rise for 700 feet without a break. The plateau on

the summit, stretching away for 16 miles to the north-west, has much resemblance to Scottish moorland, being sprinkled over with tors and tarns, and with two sheets of water that may be called lakes. A few miles south-east of Ben Lomond, a strong contrast of effect is presented in St. Paul's Dome, 3370 feet in height, simple in form, graceful in outline, with forest-clad slopes. St. Mary's Pass, lying between St. Paul's Dome and the sea at Falmouth, on the north-east coast, is a most picturesque gorge with the mingled grandeur and beauty of precipitous cliffs of trap-rock, and of water flowing through a cavern of varied foliage below. In a very mountainous district of the north central part of the island, near a village called Chadleigh (or Chudleigh), 10 miles west of the town of Deloraine, there are limestone caves resembling the famous Jenolan Caves, described under New South Wales, in formation and character, but on a smaller scale. They can be penetrated for over 2 miles, have a stream flowing through them, and show snow-white stalactites hanging from the porous roof, and stalagmites rising in fantastic shapes from the floor. In one place the caverns are vaulted like a cathedral, the arched roof and the walls glittering with phosphorescent light. In other parts the fibrous traceries are like delicate and complex lacework.

The Tasmanian lakes, all of fresh water, and the sources of some of the chief rivers, are situated on the high central table-land. Great Lake, the largest of these beautiful sheets of water, is 15 miles long from north to south, with a breadth in some places exceeding 5 miles, and an area of 45 square miles. Its peculiar shape gives it the appearance of three distinct lakes, and its shores are so broken by inlets and promontories that, in order to walk round the whole, a tourist would have to cover more than 100 miles of ground. Five wooded islets dot its smooth expanse, and there are numerous black swans and other wild-fowl. The river Shannon, always an ample stream, and a rushing torrent in the rainy season, issues from the southern end. More than a score of lakelets lie to the westward, in the broken ground on the way to the lovely Lake St. Clair, described as "a vast sapphire set in a cluster of emeralds". With a length of 9 miles from north to south, an average breadth of 2 miles, and an area of 10,000 acres, it is the chief source, at its southern end, of the river Derwent. Another supply of water for that stream comes from Lake Echo, 20 miles east of St. Clair. About 6 miles long,

and 3 in extreme breadth, with an area of 9000 acres, Lake Echo is the most charming of the whole group, with an exquisite colour, two picturesque islands, many little bays, and surrounding slopes covered with fine timber to the water's edge. These inland waters, with Lakes Sorell and Crescent (together 17,000 acres), Lake Arthur (8000 acres), and other smaller ones lying south-east of Great Lake, form natural reservoirs of vast abundance and incalculable value; situated in the heart of the country at the height of 3000 to 4000 feet above sea-level, and thus ready to supply water by force of gravitation to the settled parts of the country in all directions. We must conclude this account of Tasmanian scenery by stating that the native of southern England is, in many parts of the island, strongly reminded of some of the best country of Kent and Surrey in lofty hedgerows white with blossom in the spring, crimson with berries in the autumn; in luxuriant foliage, winding lanes, the scent of hay, the rustic bridge spanning a brawling brook; and in hop-gardens with long-drawn aisles of vivid green; while the sight of gaudy parrots and other birds unknown to the mother-country tells the wayfarer that he is not "at home".

The climate is genial, temperate, and healthy, with a rainfall, on an average, resembling that of England, but with far more sunshine; a drier air, a clearer atmosphere, and less trying extremes of heat and cold. The difference between the mean temperature of summer and winter is 15 degrees. In the spring months, September, October, and November, the mean temperature is 54; in the very agreeable autumn, March, April, and May, it is 55; in December, January, and February, the summer months, with little rain, the average temperature is 62 degrees; in June, July, August, the Tasmanian winter, it is 47. The air has great restorative and bracing power for colonists overdone with work, or exhausted in the more relaxing atmosphere of more northern Australasia. The rainfall is, in general, equably spread over the year, with about 140 wet days, and as much as 80 inches annually on the west coast, exposed to the gales from the Great Southern Ocean; about 20 inches on the east coast, and 30 on the north.

The *fauna* and *flora* of the island are almost identical with those of Australia, but, as to the former, Tasmania has nine peculiar representatives of the marsupials or pouched animals, the most remarkable being the "Tasmanian devil", a species of dasyure

(a genus of carnivorous marsupials), a savage creature about the size of a badger, capable of great havoc among poultry and even sheep; and the thylacine, largest of extant predaceous marsupials, popularly styled "tiger" or "wolf" or "hyæna", a very fierce and active animal now almost exterminated by the sheep-farmers. Among timber-trees, the most valuable are the blackwood, Huon and King William pines, and musk, all supplying fine ornamental wood. The gum-trees (*eucalypti*), with their excellent timber for useful purposes, grow as large as those in Western Australia, the blue gum reaching a height of over 300 feet, and producing timber of great value to the shipwright. The most picturesque trees in the Tasmanian landscape are the noble tree-ferns that give the glory of tropical foliage to streams and gullies, and the wattles (acacias) with their delicate and fragrant blooms like those of the mimosa. All indigenous trees and shrubs, we may observe, are evergreens. The flowers of many shrubs are very beautiful, and the red blossoms of the tulip-tree are seen at a great distance from the mountain-sides where they grow. Returning to the fauna for a moment, we note that the sportsman finds, in several varieties, quail, pigeons, curlew, plovers, and snipe, as well as the black swans; and that there are few poisonous snakes. The neighbouring seas abound in fish—including smelts, anchovies, and sprats—that have been hitherto neglected by Tasmanians; the fresh waters, among many edible varieties, contain seven species of salmon, salmon-trout, and trout brought from the United Kingdom and acclimatized.

The mineral wealth of the colony is great, especially in tin, gold, and silver. It was in December, 1871, that Mr. James Smith, a native of Tasmania, an ardent searcher for minerals, working his way alone through dense forest and scrub, discovered the richest tin deposits in the world at Mount Bischoff, about 80 miles due west of Launceston. The company formed to work the mines had paid in dividends, up to 1891, upwards of a million sterling, with a paid-up capital of £30,000. About 300 men are employed near the little town of *Waratah*, or Mount Bischoff, in obtaining, by the process of sluicing the face of the mountain, the ore which is sent to Launceston for smelting. Up to the end of 1898 the value of the metal exported from this and other tin-mines in the west and the north-east had exceeded £6,679,300 value.

The chief gold-mining districts are near the banks of the Tamar, north-west of Launceston, and to the east and north-east of the river. In the former region, *Beaconsfield* has a population of about 2000 dependent chiefly on the mining. The whole product of gold, up to 1897, had exceeded 3¾ millions sterling in value. Abundant silver has been found and is worked at Mount Bischoff; at Mounts Zeehan and Dundas, near the centre of the west coast, and at other places, the output for 1899 being valued at £167,000. Coal is so widely spread, especially along the north-west, eastern, and southern coasts, that Tasmanian needs are largely supplied from local sources. It is the mining industry that has, of late years, most encouraged the hopes of Tasmanians. The total number of men employed in silver and copper mining in 1898 was 1579, the output being 193,609 tons of ore, valued at £656,000. In the same year, the value of tin-exports was £141,162.

The population on June 30th, 1899, was estimated at about 177,000, the census of 1891 having shown nearly 147,000, in the proportion of 77,560 males to 69,100 females. No Australasian colony has a larger proportion of inhabitants whose descent is British. In 1891, about 108,000 were natives of Tasmania, 27,000 of the United Kingdom, 7300 of other Australasian colonies; and there were under 2000 Chinese and Germans together, in nearly equal numbers for each. The emigration and immigration, mainly between the Australian colonies (chiefly Victoria) and Tasmania, in 1898, were as follows: 19,323 persons left the island, and 24,074 entered it. The increase of population is also due to excess of births over deaths, amounting in that year to 2221, the total births being about 4600. In religious belief, the census of 1891 showed 76,000 adherents of the Anglican Church, under the Bishop of Tasmania; nearly 26,000 Roman Catholics, under the Archbishop of Hobart; 17,150 Wesleyan Methodists; 9750 Presbyterians; 4500 Independents, 3285 Baptists, "other sects", 9828; and a handful each of Jews (84) and "Friends" or Quakers (176).

Of the industries, mining has been already dealt with. The tillage of the soil, in which fruit-growing has been of late years largely developed, is of more importance than pasturage. A large part of the island, covered with thicket, rock, and marsh, is unfit

for cultivation; fine farming country is found widely to east and south of Launceston; and near Hobart, especially south-westwards through the Huon district, famous for its apples, raspberries, and potatoes. The alluvial soil in the river valleys, especially when it has been produced by the decomposition of trap and basalt rocks, is very rich; and beyond the valleys large areas are covered with a productive black or chocolate-hued mould. Up to the end of 1898, over 5½ million acres of lands had been granted and sold for pasture and tillage. In 1899, about 85,280 acres were producing wheat, to the amount of 2,303,000 bushels; nearly 4000 acres of barley gave 75,000 bushels; 59,509 acres yielded 1,102,000 bushels of oats; 20,241 acres supplied over 88,000 tons of potatoes. There is no growth of maize at all, or of grapes worth mention. In 1899, nearly 50,000 acres produced 82,448 tons of hay; and in 1898, 533 acres gave 601,000 lbs. of hops. The importance of fruit-growing is shown by the fact that in 1896 orchards occupied 11,750 acres, producing above half a million bushels of apples. It was in 1889 that Tasmanian apples were first sent to the British Isles, in any large quantity, in the cool chambers of the mail-steamers, and the export increased from 30,000 bushels in that year to 18 times the amount in 1896. The apples and pears, cultivated in above 130 varieties, are splendid specimens; the pears, of which one has been known to exceed 3 lbs. in weight, surpass the produce of Jersey; the trees reach an enormous size, one at Launceston being 8 feet in girth at 18 inches from the ground, and affording 50 bushels of pears in a single season. All the fruits of temperate climes are produced in abundance, and of excellent quality. In every sheltered valley, the settler has his plots of raspberries and of black currants, the favourite fruits for the jam-making which is now an important industry. The uplands have good soil for pasturage which is largely used for stock. The stud-sheep of the island have a reputation commanding high prices and a large export; the merinos are the staple breed, but the "Leicesters" and "Lincolns" also produce wool up to the best British standard. The cattle of pure breed include choice herds of short-horns, Herefords, and Devons, the last of which are found specially suited to the climate; well able to endure a dry season, laying on beef quickly, and travelling a long distance to market with little

loss of weight. In 1899 the colony had about 29,800 horses; 149,000 horned cattle; over 1,493,000 sheep, and about 45,000 pigs.

The chief manufactures are tanning, jam-making, and brewing; the ordinary handicrafts and domestic manufactures supply many articles, and there are makers of farm-implements and pottery; ship-yards, woollen factories, and smelting-works. As regards communications, the colony is well supplied with roads maintained by the Government, under control of road-boards, or by local trustees, partly from rates and partly from the Treasury. In 1899, there were 508 miles of railway open for traffic, of which all but 55 miles were in the hands of the Government. The chief line connects the two principal ports, Hobart and Launceston; the Western line joins Launceston with Deloraine and Formby; another line extends to Ulverstone from a junction south of Launceston, and there are other inland branch lines. A telegraph-system, belonging to the Government, with 1927 miles of line and 258 stations, connects all the settled parts of the colony; about 705 miles of telephone wire exist, with exchanges at Hobart, New Norfolk, and Launceston. Small coasters convey goods and produce between the different ports; mail-steamers connect the colony with Melbourne, Sydney, and New Zealand, in Australasian waters, and the usual lines, *P. and O.*, and *Orient*, with two or three other companies, have steamers to and from London and San Francisco. There are also monthly mails conveyed by vessels of the *Messageries Maritimes* and of a German line. The postage of half-ounce letters is *2d.* for Australasia, *2½d.* to Europe and the United States.

The total exports for 1898 had a value of £1,803,000, chiefly made up of wool, £254,960; tin (ore and smelted), £141,000; fruit (preserved and green), £183,345; potatoes, £140,000; gold, £188,478; silver, £167,000 (this last being the return for "silver ore"); bark and timber, £60,000; corn (wheat and oats), £29,500; hops, £22,000. Of this amount of trade, produce to the value of £431,500 went to the United Kingdom, chiefly in wool and fruit. In 1898, the exports to Victoria, reached £614,640, and £635,000 to New South Wales. For 1898, a bad year, the total imports were worth £1,650,000, having been nearly 1½ millions in 1892, and over 2 millions in 1891. Of this amount, £465,540

in value came from the United Kingdom (having been £541,600 in 1892, and £655,000 in 1891); the chief goods from "home" consist of apparel and haberdashery, wrought and unwrought iron, cottons and woollens. The Tasmanian imports from Victoria are very large, reaching about £720,680 in 1898; in the same year, the colony had the value of £273,227 from New South Wales. We may note that in 1896 coal to the value of £8600 was imported; stationery and books worth £29,350; £92,560 in raw sugar; tea worth £34,000; tobacco and cigars, £27,000; and wine £5730. The total tonnage "entered and cleared" for 1898 was 1,159,000, nearly all in British and British colonial vessels. In 1898, the colony herself had in registered shipping 156 sailing vessels of 8789 tons, and 43 steamers of 6365 tons. In 1898, over 708,000 tons of the shipping entered and cleared the port of Hobart.

Coming next to the principal towns of Tasmania, we find that HOBART (called "Hobart Town" until 1881), the capital, as the seat of the legislature and the executive government, and the largest place in the island, lies on the right (west) side of the estuary of the Derwent, in the south-east of Tasmania, about 12 miles from the mouth of the river. Its picturesque situation at the foot of Mount Wellington has been already noted. The city, nearly square in shape, covers an area of over 2 square miles, and is built on an undulating range of foot-hills, with outlines beautifully curved, and shady hollows. The harbour, admitting vessels of any size, is equal to any in the southern hemisphere for the accommodation of shipping. The place, with a population of over 25,000, is well laid out, with broad gas-lighted streets, an excellent water-supply, and tramways to the suburbs, and has a solid, bright appearance from most of its buildings, public and private, being composed of good sandstone, quarried near at hand. This material, long retaining its fresh colour, tones down with age into a soft gray hue. The chief streets are placed at right angles, with two main thoroughfares running north and south, and two others east and west. Large gardens and orchards supply verdure almost in the centre of the town, and, hard by the wharves and public offices, Franklin Square is a little park, with the statue of the former Governor rising out of the flowers and foliage of an islet placed in a basin adorned with water-lilies. Government

House, in the Tudor style, is situated on a pretty promontory on the river-bank, about half a mile to the north, commanding a fine and extensive prospect of land and water. Macquarie Street has some fine buildings, amongst which Archdeacon Hutchins' School, erected in his memory, has a quaint mediæval air in its central tower and ivy-covered gables. The Town Hall, including a fine ball-room, a free library, and a reading-room; the massive pile of the Government offices, and the Supreme Court, are in the same thoroughfare, with the good (Early English) Protestant Cathedral. The Roman Catholic Cathedral, in Harrington Street, is a beautiful structure. Buildings for the purposes of business, art, science, philanthropy, literature, and social amusement are all to be found in this commercial and social capital of the southern half of Tasmania. The park called the Queen's Domain has fine drives in an area of 1000 acres. Hobart is something more than the chief town of its own colony. The place is frequented during the summer season by many hundreds of visitors from southern Australia; it is a city where colonial society is seen under its most charming aspect, with hospitality warmly accorded by the fairest ladies of Australasia. The delightful scenery of the neighbourhood has been already, in some measure, described; its beauties are, in truth, innumerable, and include, in grandeur and grace of form, in loveliness of hue, and in variety of detail, all that can be furnished by combinations of those simple elements—mountain, wood, estuary, and sky. Social life in Tasmania is not artificial, not much subject to fashion's sway. Moderate wealth precludes indulgence in great luxury, and early hours and simplicity of life are the rule. In the Hobart season, during January and February, when every hotel and lodging is filled with the opulent people from the mainland, there is gaiety enough to be seen in Tasmania's charming capital, and dances, picnics, races, regattas and other forms of entertainment are rife.

The suburb of New Town is embosomed in gardens and orchards. Five miles away, by rail up the Derwent, *Glenorchy*, with 6000 people, amidst farms producing grain, hops, and fruit, has the metropolitan race-course. Twenty miles from Hobart by rail, on the eastern bank of the Derwent, and at the head of its navigable portion, lies *New Norfolk*, in a like agricultural district. The town is built on a shelf of land much above the level of the

river, there bordered by native and weeping willows, poplars, and acacias. The slopes display gardens, orchards, and hop-grounds, and this is one of the spots where the hawthorn hedges, with their bright spring blooms, and autumnal russet, maroon, and scarlet leaves and berries, vividly remind the English visitor of the lanes of his native land. *Launceston*, the second town of Tasmania in importance and size, as the commercial, official, and judicial capital of the north, having a population of about 17,000, is situated at the confluence of the North and South Esk rivers, which, from their junction to the sea, 40 miles away, are called the Tamar, the latter not being a true river, with a source of its own, but an estuary, like the Humber and the Gironde. Incorporated as a borough in 1858, the place became a "city" in 1889. It lies partly in the arena and partly along the slopes of a great natural amphitheatre dotted with cottages and villas; the higher parts of the town are on undulating ground, and many spacious gardens decorate the interior. The port, greatly improved by dredging, admits large ocean-steamers to the wharves, and carries on a thriving commerce with the chief Australian ports. Prince's Square is well laid out in avenues of oak, elm, pine, willow, and poplar. The public buildings are handsome; the Post-office is a picturesque edifice of red brick and freestone, partly in the Renaissance style. Institutions of every kind known to advanced civilization exist, including a working-men's club, a coffee-palace, a Temperance Association, and a mechanics' institute with a library of 14,000 volumes. Healthful recreation is provided for in a People's Park of 12 acres; Inveresk Park, on the west bank of the North Esk; and five other "reserves". The neighbourhood has fine scenery in gorges, ravines, cataracts and rapids. About 7 miles away, near the pretty village of St. Leonard, is a glen on the North Esk, with a fine fall to which some enthusiastic Scot gave the name of Corra Linn, from the finest of the famous Clyde Falls near Lanark. The almost perpendicular walls of the chasm, through which the stream passes over and among enormous masses of granite, are beautiful with weather-stains, creepers, and shrubs. About 70 miles to the west of Launceston, by the railway, are the favourite sea-side resorts of *Formby* and *Torquay*, at the mouth of the Mersey, on opposite sides of the river. *Deloraine*, with a population, in town and district, of about 6000, is on the Western Railway, about 45 miles south-west of

Launceston, in a fine agricultural region. The place has flour-mills, tanneries, and a brewery. *Latrobe*, a thriving town of about 2000 people, is on the Mersey some miles above Torquay, in an agricultural and fruit-growing district. *Ringarooma*, in the north-east, is an important little town for its tin-mining. *Ulverstone*, on the river Leven, west of the Mersey, is a considerable seaport, shipping timber and other produce from a thriving pastoral and agricultural district. The place contains a pottery, brick-yards, saw-mills, a flour-mill, and a cordial factory. *Stanley* (or *Circular Head*), in the north-west, carries on a large trade in wheat, oats, and potatoes, raised in the district, and sent to neighbouring colonies. There are weekly steamers to Melbourne, to which it is the nearest port of Tasmania.

Of the fifty-five islands belonging to the colony, the most important are those in Bass Strait. At the east end, the Furneaux Islands are named from Captain Cook's second-in-command, the captain of the *Adventure*, who discovered the group in 1773, on the second South Sea expedition. They comprise Flinders Island, the largest, 35 miles long by 10 broad, with an area of 513,000 acres; Cape Barren Island, Clark Island, and the Chappell and Kent groups. On Flinders, the Darling Range has peaks exceeding 2500 feet; Cape Barren Island, with an area of 110,000 acres, has an almost equal elevation. The inhabitants are a few hundreds of people, mostly half-castes, sprung from seal-hunters and aboriginal women. They gain their livelihood by seal-fishing and by the catching and preserving of what are called "mutton-birds". These winged creatures, existing once literally in hundreds of millions, in numbers such that an eye-witness, more than fifty years ago, wrote of "sailing through them from Flinders Island to the 'Heads' of the Tamar, a distance of 80 miles", are of so delicious taste that Dr. Montgomery, Bishop of Tasmania, lately declared of them "boiled or roasted, they are a dish to set before a king". The feathers make perfect beds; the eggs are agreeable and wholesome food. They are birds that excavate burrows instead of building nests; they are so valuable that the produce of a little barren, treeless hummock of a few hundred acres has in one year fetched £120. Having raised the curiosity of readers, we allay it by the statement that the "mutton-bird" is nothing else than the "sooty petrel", feeding on shrimps and small shell-fish; one of the family to which

belongs the familiar "stormy petrel" or "Mother Carey's Chicken", a name corrupted, by the way, from the Latin *Mater cara*. The bird resembles a small wild-duck, with the slight hook in the bill found in most sea-birds. The first notice and description of these sooty petrels came from Flinders in December, 1798, when he and Bass, on their famous voyage of discovery, proved "Van Diemen's Land" to be insular. The return of the male birds, who leave the burrow-nests at dawn, bringing back food at sunset to their mates on the eggs, occurs in such numbers as to darken the sky, and presents a spectacle of extraordinary interest in their swift darting flight, with a whistle of the wings like a bullet's rush, in tens, in hundreds, and in thousands, each with unerring instinct, after a turn or two in the air, sinking to its own burrow in the grassy ground of the islands. The young birds, taken and cooked at a few weeks' age, are exquisite morsels of fat. They are salted for export, and sold by the half-castes to traders on the coast. A man and his family, collecting eggs and feathers as well as killing the birds, can for the nine weeks of the season earn over £4 a-day, living all the time entirely on the birds. The larger islands of the Furneaux archipelago grow timber, and cattle, in moderate numbers, are kept on the grass. At the western end of Bass Strait are the Hunter Group, composed of Three Hummock and Barren Islands, with some islets; Robbin's Island, close to the mainland between Cape Grim and Circular Head; and King Island, about the size of Flinders, with scrub-covered soil, and a few inhabitants who live by pasturing cattle and hunting kangaroos and wallabies, the smallest species of that genus.

Tasmania is divided into 18 counties, merely for land-survey purposes, as in the Australian colonies, and these are subdivided into parishes. For local government there are 21 municipal districts (besides the municipalities of Hobart and Launceston established in 1855), founded under an Act of 1865. The councils consist of seven elected members, retiring by rotation, with a "Warden", annually elected by the councillors, as president. The supreme government, under the Acts of 1855 and later years, is composed of the Governor, nominated by the Crown; a Legislative Council of eighteen members, chosen for six years by voters possessed of a moderate pecuniary, or of a professional, qualification; and a House of Assembly, of thirty-seven members, elected by

possessors or occupiers of real property, or recipients of a certain income, and holding their seats for three years. Members of each House are paid £100 a-year, and have the right of free railway-passes and of "franking" post-letters and telegrams. The number of electors for the popular House was, in 1899, about 34,520, or 19·78 of the population. The Cabinet or Ministry has 5 members, including one for "Lands and Works", and each must have a seat in one or other of the two Houses. The educational system (with a University of Tasmania, incorporated in 1889, and empowered to hold examinations and grant degrees) includes 18 superior schools or colleges, with an average attendance (in 1898) of 1923 pupils; 296 public elementary schools, with 22,517 scholars on the roll; and 246 private schools, with 9970 scholars. Education is compulsory, and cost the Government £38,970 in 1898; there are scholarships from the lower to the higher schools, and thence to English universities, and five technical schools exist in Hobart, Launceston, Latrobe, New Norfolk, and Devonport. There are 40 public libraries and mechanics' institutes, with about 80,000 volumes of books. A lack of educational efficiency seems revealed in the fact that the census of 1891 showed 37,000 persons, or over 25 per cent of the population, as "unable to read and write". The judicial arrangements are of the usual kind. Sir William Dobson, Chief Justice of Tasmania, a native of Hobart, and formerly a member of the English bar, also Chancellor of the University of Tasmania, has referred to facts proving the law-abiding character of the population. For three years prior to 1885 the average number of convictions for crime before the Superior Courts was less than three for every 10,000 people in the colony; in Victoria, for the same period, it was rather under four, as also in New Zealand; in England, it was over four. The great diminution, the almost extinction, of the criminal element which once made Tasmania a byword, and caused the Tasmanian colonist, as such, to be regarded with suspicion on his arrival, as a stranger, in Australia, is strikingly shown by the same high authority. In 1872 the number of prisoners under detention in the jails was 546; as the population grew in numbers, the criminals imprisoned steadily decreased until, in 1884, they were but 219; at the end of 1898, there were only 85 male and 11 female prisoners.

The revenue for 1898 was about £908,000, an increase of

£63,000 from the previous year; the expenditure, with an increase from previous year of £45,000, was £830,168, excluding a large sum (from loans) on public works. The public debt, at the same date, was £8,412,900, wholly incurred for construction of public works, nearly half the amount being spent on railways; over 2¼ millions on roads, bridges, and jetties; and £715,000 on public buildings. Of the revenue, the high tariffs usual in Australasian colonies made the customs, in 1898, supply £406,780; in the previous year, the duties levied were over 21 per cent of the total value of imports. The other part comes from railways, postal and telegraph services, and the rental and sale of crown lands. The expenditure is mainly on public works and interest of debt; 9 per cent for "general purposes"; 5 per cent for religion, science, and education; 7 per cent for hospitals and charities; 9 per cent for law and protection; the total police-force a little exceeds 300. In 1897, the savings-banks contained £690,740 belonging to 32,800 depositors.

CHAPTER XI.

NEW ZEALAND: HISTORY.

New Zealand discovered by Abel Tasman—Rediscovered by Captain Cook in 1769—He circumnavigates the main islands, and takes possession in name of King George—Cannibalism of the natives—Origin of the Maori race—Their physical and moral character—Religion and language—Partial civilization—Their present position—Intercourse between New Zealand and New South Wales—Ruatara, a Maori, visits England—Rev. Mr. Marsden's mission—Tragedy of the "*Boyd* massacre"—A brave Maori chief—Beginning of mission work—Hongi's treacherous conduct—Abortive attempts at colonization—Captain Hobson's proposals—Contemplated annexation to New South Wales—Proceedings of the "New Zealand Land Company"—Captain Hobson's treaty with the natives—A legislative and executive council established—Augustus Selwyn, first Bishop of New Zealand—Threatened troubles with the natives—Captain Grey appointed governor—He defeats the Maoris under Heke—Submission of the chiefs—Formation of "New Zealand Fencibles"—The noble work of Governor Grey—Native affection for him—His successful opposition to the home government's unwise proposals—A representative constitution granted—Progress of the colony under Governor Grey—Renewed conflicts with the natives—Massacre at Poverty Bay—Te Kooti, the rebel chief—Bravery of the Maoris—Discovery of gold—Distinguished public services of Sir Julius Vogel—Local government established—Signs of rapid progress—Troubles caused by Te Whiti, the Maori prophet—An impressive ceremonial.

The honour of discovering NEW ZEALAND belongs, as indicated by the name of that splendid country, to a Dutchman, the famous

navigator Abel Tasman, a fact above given under Tasmania. He called the country "Staaten Land", from the States-General of his country; the existing name was bestowed by Captain Cook, the first man to make these noble islands really known to the modern world. It was on December 18th, 1642, at set of sun, that Tasman anchored his two vessels in the passage now called Cook Strait. The newcomers had a poor reception from the natives, who put off in a number of double canoes on the following day, and, attacking a Dutch boat, caused a conflict in which four of the islanders fell. Tasman, unable to procure supplies of food, weighed anchor to leave the inhospitable shores, and checked with a broadside the advance of a fleet of large canoes crowded with men. On rounding the northern island, the Dutch captain conferred on the north-west promontory its lasting name of Cape Maria van Diemen, after the Governor of Batavia's daughter. The next known European visit was that of Captain Cook in October, 1769, when he rediscovered the islands and landed at the inlet, on the mid-eastern shore of North Island, to which he gave its name of "Poverty Bay" from his failing, as Tasman had failed, to meet with hospitality from the natives. During the six following months, Cook was engaged in the circumnavigation of the main islands, surveying the coast-line and observing the country and its people, thereby earning with his countrymen, in this and five subsequent visits, the credit of being the real discoverer of New Zealand. On January 30th, 1770, the great navigator erected a flagpost at the summit of a hill on the north-east coast of South Island, naming the bay "Queen Charlotte Sound", and, hoisting the Union Jack, he claimed the country for George the Third. During some later voyaging in the South Pacific, Cook spent nearly eleven months in examining the New Zealand coasts, and by his descriptions of the region and its people he aroused the attention both of traders who sought new products for European markets, with new purchasers for manufactured goods, and of scientific men and philosophers who heard, through him, of a race of human beings that had clearly made some progress in a new form of civilization, and yet were given to the eating of human flesh. A ghastly proof of this was afforded in Cook's second voyage of discovery, with the *Resolution* and *Adventure*, sailing from Plymouth in July, 1772. Captain Furneaux, of the latter vessel (as we lately saw in Tasmania), in passing through Cook Strait, had nine men seized, killed, and devoured by the natives.

As regards geographical discovery, Cook had, in his first voyage, dispelled belief in the great southern continent which was thought to extend over thirty degrees of latitude in the South Pacific, far down towards the South Pole. For the benefit of the country inhabited by cannibals the British discoverer had left behind him pigs, potatoes, and garden seeds, in a region which he found to have no quadrupeds save dogs and rats.

The "Maori", as the aboriginals of New Zealand call themselves, are Polynesians who, at some unknown date, migrated from some unknown island or islands in the great Pacific to the land where they were found by Tasman and by Cook. There are indications of their having absorbed an earlier and darker indigenous race, probably Papuan, and this mixture would explain diversities of physical and moral character which have been observed amongst them. They are a tall, athletic, somewhat short-legged race, with well-shaped heads, good features, and olive-brown complexion, and black, long and straight, or slightly waved hair. In language, manners, customs, and superstitions they show their Polynesian origin. Among these evidences were the superstition called "tabu" or "taboo" probably meaning "strongly marked", and then, "set apart"; on the one hand, in the sense of "sacred"; and on the other, as in our adoption of the word, "accursed, unholy". The prohibitions of this class included both traditional rules binding chiefs and people alike, and interdicts imposed from time to time, on persons and things, by priestly authority. The system of rule was tribal, with lands held in common, under liability to total loss in case of defeat by a neighbouring tribe. Their religion embraced a belief in a future state, without any just conception of an omnipotent being. They have been generally regarded, in spite of their cannibalism (extinct since 1843, so far as the last known instance is concerned) and ferocity in war, as the noblest race of savages with whom Europeans have ever been brought in contact—brave, warlike, generous in a very high degree. Their language, abounding in vowel sounds, with which every syllable ends, is at once soft and forcible at need, fairly copious, well adapted to word-painting, in which they are often vivid, to their lyric poetry, and to the oratory which is an art with the Maoris, greatly aiding the influence of a chief. Their self-developed civilization also included some agricultural skill with the sweet-potato (*batata*), taro root, and gourd; the construction of

canoes; admirable work in fortification; the weaving of cloth and mats from the native so-called "flax"; the making of excellent weapons—clubs, spears, and battle-axes—in hard wood and stone; and the elaborate ornamentation of their faces and bodies in tattooing, and of their meeting-houses and other possessions in the way of profuse carving. Among the practices abandoned since British occupation and the introduction of Christianity, to which nearly all the existing Maoris nominally adhere, are tattooing, infanticide, polygamy, and slavery. In dealing with the population of New Zealand at the present day, we shall see that the numbers have greatly diminished since the time of Cook's first visit, when they were estimated at 90,000, of whom nine-tenths inhabited the northern island. In spite of their fine physique, the Maoris have an average of but three children per family; many die in infancy and childhood, and they are specially subject to zymotic and pulmonary disease. Most of those who live in or near settlements are adopting the dress and ways of Europeans, and, without much industry, the natives still possess large areas of land, on which they raise crops and keep great numbers of sheep. They have a high appreciation of European instruction for their children, and we shall see that some of their chief men have attained a good political and social status.

In the last decade of the eighteenth century, some connection arose between New Zealand and New South Wales. A party of sealers, during a year's residence at Dusky Bay (or Sound) on the south-west coast of South Island, collected some thousands of skins, and the two first vessels ever built by Europeans in Australasia were there constructed. In 1793, two Maoris were brought to Sydney and then sent to Norfolk Island, to teach the settlers there the native mode of dressing flax, and on their return, in the same year, they received a present of maize, wheat, peas, garden-seeds, hardware, and pigs. Many British sailors, from time to time, settled among the Maoris, and the islands became the resort of whalers, and of persons employed by Sydney merchants to fell timber on the shores of Hauraki Gulf, on the eastern coast of North Island, for shipment to India. The friendly relations thus established between Europeans and the natives, sometimes ending in marriage with Maori women, prepared the way for peaceful British settlement in days to come. In the earlier years of the nineteenth century, New

Zealand natives visited New South Wales and England. One of these, Ruatara, arriving in London in 1809, was accompanied to Australia by the Reverend Samuel Marsden, born of humble parents near Leeds, educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, and the first chaplain of New South Wales, at Port Jackson, in 1794. He was now returning to his sphere of duty, after two years' leave of absence, taking with him a staff of clergy, and some missionaries for New Zealand, of which country he was to become the evangelist. His missionary-party was despatched by the Church Missionary Society, and included two lay-catechists, a skilled carpenter and a blacksmith, who desired to teach the natives the arts of civilization along with Christianity. Dealing first with Ruatara, we may record that, after remaining one year at Parramatta in order to learn agriculture, and staying for some time at Norfolk Island, he returned to New Zealand, where he was the first Maori to grow wheat, and was largely instrumental in civilizing his fellow-countrymen. On Marsden's arrival at Sydney, early in 1810, he heard of the tragedy known as the "*Boyd* massacre". This vessel, bound to England from Port Jackson, with many passengers on board, had been attacked by the natives at Whangaroa, on the western coast of North Island, New Zealand, on putting in for a cargo of spars, at the end of November, 1809. The ship was burnt, with the explosion of the powder-magazine, killing many of the assailants, and all the Europeans, sixty-four in number, passengers and crew, were killed and eaten, save a cabin-boy, a woman, and two little girls. These few survivors were protected by the noble-minded, hapless chief Te Pahi, a warm friend of Marsden's, and a man of singular intelligence and good manners. He had been well received at Sydney in 1806, and returned to his country impressed with British civilization and power, and eager for Christianity to be brought to the Maoris. It is sad to have to confess that this man's favourite daughter was stolen by British hands; that, in an indiscriminate vengeance for the *Boyd* massacre, the rescuer of the four British people above-mentioned was attacked and severely wounded, his village destroyed, and his people slain. His death came from the Whangaroa natives as a punishment for his humanity towards Europeans. This tragical event aroused a feeling in Sydney which made the streets unsafe for any Maori, and the mission-enterprise was for a time set aside.

At last, in 1814, after the report of a preliminary party had

shown a peaceful state of affairs on the eastern coast of North Island, Mr. Marsden, with the two catechists, and two other lay-missionaries, one of whom was appointed "Resident Magistrate", arrived in the Bay of Islands, and opened his work on Christmas-day. An interesting series of incidents occurred on this first contact of Christianity with Maori paganism. On a half-acre or so of land inclosed by a fence, the natives had set up a reading-desk and pulpit, covered with black-dyed native mats, with seats composed of some bottoms of old canoes placed on each side of the pulpit for the Europeans. The British flag had been hoisted on a staff at the top of the highest neighbouring hill. After decorous attention to a service of which they understood no word, the Maories gave a performance of their famous war-dance. Mr. Marsden soon afterwards returned to his sphere of duty at Sydney, and the catechists remained at the Bay of Islands, cheered by the frequent visits of the mission-brig *Active* running to and from Sydney, and by the occasional presence of whalers in the bay. In 1819, an ordained missionary, the Rev. S. Butler, took charge of the station, and Mr. Marsden, at the same time, under instructions from Governor Macquarie, spent several months in exploring the northern part of New Zealand. In 1821, a chieftain named Hongi visited England, and was introduced to George the Fourth and many persons of distinction. He left the country loaded with presents, including a suit of armour, which he carefully preserved; the rest were, at Sydney, turned into money with which he purchased muskets and ammunition, enabling him to slaughter some thousands of his countrymen, during the next five years, in wars arising out of the endless blood-feuds of the Maories. In 1831, some chiefs at the Bay of Islands, influenced by the missionaries who were anxious to have some kind of British authority set up, applied for protection to William the Fourth. About the same time, representations were made by the New South Wales authorities, and in May, 1833, Mr. James Busby, a civil engineer in that colony, who had been visiting England, arrived in the Bay as British Resident, on the appointment of the Colonial Office in London. In 1837, this gentleman was recalled, and for a year or two New Zealand seems to have been regarded as an independent country. There had been more trouble through attacks by natives on shipwrecked

A MAORI WAR-DANCE.

The Maoris are a tall, well-built race, and in point of intelligence and artistic skill they far outstrip all the other members of the Polynesian stock. The art of tattooing in particular is found amongst them in its highest perfection. The clubs, axes, and other weapons of their own manufacture are elaborately carved, but of course in modern times they have supplied themselves with fire-arms, and have shown that they can make excellent use of them in war. The famous war-dance is one of the weirdest and wildest known. It is taken part in exclusively by men, who form in rank and file and go through various evolutions, brandishing their weapons to the accompaniment of hideous shouts and cries. They are naturally a vindictive and warlike race, but their manners and customs have been greatly modified by contact with the whites. There are now many Maori schools, and the Maoris have several members of their own race to represent them in the colonial parliament. They were formerly addicted to cannibalism, apparently in the belief that the warlike qualities of the victims were in some way transferred to those who devoured them. They are gradually disappearing before the white men, and even the characteristic native plants and animals are being supplanted by those which follow in the wake of civilization.



STANLEY L. WOOD.

A MAORI WAR-DANCE.

crews, and severe punishment had been inflicted by a man-of-war, with troops, from Sydney.

The acquisition of New Zealand by the British Crown was preceded by several abortive attempts at colonization on the part of Associations or Companies, and by a grotesque enterprise of an eccentric adventurer. In 1825, under the auspices of a "New Zealand Association", a party of colonists was sent out, most of whom were frightened back to England, returning on the same vessel as had conveyed them to New Zealand, by witnessing a war-dance of the natives at a place where the ship touched. Four only of the whole party chose to remain in the country. In 1837, an Englishman of good family, with a French title, the Baron de Thierry, sailed for New Zealand, and claimed an estate of 40,000 acres, proclaiming himself "sovereign chief" of the country, on the ground of certain promises of the chieftain Hongi whom the baron had met at Cambridge. The "native chiefs", we are told, "smiled at De Thierry's demands", and, being deserted by his followers, the poor baron died many years afterwards in poverty at Auckland, after earning a scanty living as a music-teacher. A declaration of independence on the part of the Maori population was published under the style of the "United Tribes of New Zealand". In the same year, 1837, Captain Hobson, commanding H. M. S. *Rattlesnake*, was sent from Sydney by Sir Richard Bourke, the Governor of New South Wales, to protect British interests during a serious war then being waged among the tribes around the coast of the Bay of Islands. In his report, Captain Hobson recommended that "factories", or trading-posts, should be established, after the manner of the early British and Dutch trading-companies, and that a treaty should be made with the native chiefs for the recognition of these stations, and for the protection of British subjects and property. Meanwhile, active work was going on in England. In 1837, another New Zealand Association was formed, with Mr. Francis Baring as chairman, and a committee which included several gentlemen who had been in the enterprise of 1825, as well as some who had been engaged in furthering the colonization of South Australia. Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield, who has again and again appeared in these pages, had in 1836, when he was giving evidence before a Committee of the

House of Commons on Colonial Lands, drawn attention to New Zealand as a field suitable for emigrants, and he was one of the promoters of the above Association, which collapsed when Lord Glenelg, the Colonial Secretary, declined to grant a charter of colonization except on terms to which the promoters would not accede. In 1838, a bill of Mr. Baring's, for founding a British colony in New Zealand, was thrown out in the Commons, on the second reading.

The Colonial Office soon resolved on annexation of the country, if the matter could be peacefully arranged, but official tardiness was such that not until Christmas-eve, 1839, did Captain Hobson, in H. M. S. *Druid*, arrive at Sydney with instructions to proceed to New Zealand as British Consul and Lieutenant-Governor, in fulfilment of the determination, on the part of the Colonial authorities in London, that "certain parts of the Islands of New Zealand should be added to the colony of New South Wales as a dependency of that government". His instructions from Lord Normanby, who had now become Colonial Secretary, were that "with the consent of the natives, he should establish a form of civil government, and treat for the recognition of Her Majesty's authority over the whole or any portion of the islands; induce the chiefs to contract that no lands should be sold except to the Crown; announce that a Crown-grant would henceforth be necessary as a title to lands acquired, by any means, from the natives; and appoint a 'Protector' to supervise the interests of the Maori population". In the meantime, the indefatigable Wakefield, on his return from Canada, where we have seen him as Lord Durham's assistant, had formed a "New Zealand Land Company", with Lord Durham as Governor. The objects of this association were "the employment of capital in the purchase and re-sale of lands in New Zealand, and the promotion of emigration to that country". So precipitate was the action taken under the influence of zeal, that £100,000 capital was paid up, and 100,000 acres of land in New Zealand were sold to shareholders without any regard to legal title for a single acre. The Colonial Office declined to recognize any of the proceedings. In May, 1839, the *Tory*, a vessel of 400 tons, had sailed with a body of emigrants under the control of Colonel Wakefield, of the "Spanish Legion", Mr. Wakefield's brother. In September,

the colonel took formal possession of Port Nicholson (now the harbour of Wellington), in Cook's Strait, in the name of the Company, and the "New Zealand" flag was hoisted under a salute. Colonel Wakefield reported to the Company that he had purchased a territory as large as Ireland, on the east and west coasts, in exchange for goods valued at under £9000. The deeds of sale were written in English, the true meaning of which the interpreter, Barrett, a sealer and whaler, could not translate into Maori for the chiefs. We may here note that Wakefield had been only a few months beforehand with the French in asserting claims to territory in New Zealand. In October, 1839, a vessel called *Comte de Paris*, with emigrants on board, left France for Akaroa, on the eastern coast of South Island, while the French frigate *L'Aube* was destined for the same port.

We must now return to Captain Hobson, who arrived in the Bay of Islands on January 29th, 1840, in H. M. S. *Herald*, accompanied by a treasurer, a collector of customs, a police-magistrate, two clerks, and a sergeant and four men of the New South Wales Mounted Police. He proclaimed the Queen's authority over British subjects in New Zealand, and was received with loyal assurances from the settlers. In a short time, the famous Treaty of Waitangi, concluded with the native chiefs, provided for the cession to the Queen of the right of government over the whole of New Zealand, with her guarantee to all chiefs and tribes of the full and undisturbed possession of their land, estates, forests, fisheries, and all other properties. The chiefs of the united tribes, and the individual heads of clans, yielded to the Queen the exclusive right of pre-emption over such lands as the proprietors might choose to alienate. The British Crown undertook to protect all the Maori people and to give them all the rights and privileges of British subjects. It was the article concerning the alienation of lands which led afterwards to Maori disaffection, the British interpretation being that the Queen was to have the refusal of all lands which the natives were willing to sell, and, if that refusal were given, no one else was to be allowed to purchase such territory. It was mainly the influence of Anglican Church and Wesleyan missionaries, used against that of nearly all the British land-claimants resident in New Zealand, that caused the chiefs to adopt these terms of agreement, and on May 21st, 1840, Governor

Hobson proclaimed the sovereignty of Queen Victoria over North Island, by virtue of the treaty, and over Middle (now called South) Island and Stewart Island on the ground of discovery. The New Zealand Land Company's agents and emigrants at Port Nicholson then yielded their claims to the exercise of power, and, to their great annoyance, the site of Auckland, on Hauraki Gulf, in North Island, was chosen as the seat of government instead of Port Nicholson, on the grounds of convenient position, facility of internal water-communication, safety of its port, and fertility of soil in the adjacent district. Captain Hobson was afterwards bitterly attacked by the people connected with the Land Company, but he successfully defended his action with the Colonial Secretary, Lord John Russell, who had received a petition for the recall of New Zealand's first British ruler.

In May, 1841, under letters-patent, a charter was published establishing a Legislative and an Executive Council in the Colony of New Zealand, and granting certain powers and authority to the Governor. The Anglican Church made the excellent choice, as first Bishop of New Zealand, of the Reverend Augustus Selwyn, brother of two men who were also to win distinction, the one as a Professor of Divinity at Cambridge, the other as a Lord Justice. Born in 1809, at Hampstead, near London, and a school-fellow of Mr. Gladstone at Eton, Augustus Selwyn became prominent there both as a scholar and as an athlete. As an undergraduate at St. John's College, Cambridge, he rowed seventh in the University boat against Oxford, in the first inter-university race, in 1829. In 1831, he was the second man in the first-class honour-list of the Classical Tripos; he then obtained a fellowship at his College. Ordained in 1833, Selwyn became a curate at Eton, and in 1841 was appointed to his arduous sphere of labour at the Antipodes. His athletic powers included those of a great pedestrian and swimmer, and this splendid specimen of "muscular Christianity", already well provided, in corporeal acquirements, for colonial life, studied navigation and the Maori language to such purpose on the then long outward voyage, that on his arrival at Auckland in May, 1842, he was competent to address the natives in their own tongue, and to manage his own vessel on his missionary trips. After visiting every part of his extensive diocese, Bishop Selwyn applied his remarkable powers of organization, and

soon acquired a strong influence over the Maoris. A college (St. John's) was founded by him at Auckland for training native candidates for holy orders. We shall see him as a zealous advocate of native rights during the period which elapsed before his appointment, in 1868, to the home-see of Lichfield. Captain Hobson, prior to his premature death by paralysis in September, 1842, had provided for the government of the country in ordinances establishing a legal system and municipalities; regulating postage, the legal transfer of property, the sale of liquors, the work of auctioneers, copyright in books, and other matters, and had secured by a just rule the good-will of the Maoris, who sent a letter to the Queen as "Mother Victoria", asking her to let the new ruler "be a good man as the Governor who has just died".

Captain Hobson's successor in New Zealand was Captain (afterwards Admiral) Fitzroy, whom we have seen in his capacity as the issuer of storm-warnings. As a son of Lord Charles Fitzroy, he was half-brother to Sir Charles Fitzroy, sometime Governor of New South Wales. From 1828 to 1836 he was in command of the *Beagle* during the hydrographical and other operations and researches made memorable by the presence of Charles Darwin, and he had been for two years M.P. for Durham when he was appointed to his colonial scene of action. On his arrival in December, 1843, he found that serious trouble concerning land had occurred in what was styled the "Wairau Massacre", when Captain Wakefield, brother of the New Zealand Land Company's chief agent, and nineteen of their settlers, were killed in conflict with natives who disputed the Company's claims; it is noticeable that the difficulty arose partly from imperfect translation of English into the Maori language in a deed of conveyance. Captain Fitzroy adjusted matters on an equitable basis, and extinguished the pretensions of the Company to a territory "as large as Ireland" by an award limiting the area which they had fairly purchased to 3500 acres. The new ruler became involved in financial difficulties which he sought to meet by various ordinances imposing in turns customs-duties and a property-tax. In July, 1844, a turbulent chieftain on the Bay of Islands, Hoani Heke, attacked a symbol of British supremacy in cutting down the flag-staff at Kororarika (now, Russell), the first settlement made by Europeans, at the Bay of Islands, in 1827. Captain Fitzroy sent to Sydney for troops, but

hostilities were for a time restrained through the intercession of loyal native chiefs who undertook to deal with Heke. That chieftain, however, thrice repeated his offence with regard to the flag-staff, and in March, 1845, the little town of Kororarika, with 400 people, and a garrison, was attacked by a large native force and taken, after a sharp fight. The inhabitants were allowed to retire to H. M. S. *Hazard*, and to carry off all their movable property, and then the town was sacked and burnt, only the two churches and parsonages being left standing. Prior to this event, Lieutenant Philpotts (son of the famous Bishop of Exeter), of the *Hazard*, had been killed in leading an unsuccessful attack on a Maori *pah*, or stockaded position. This and other reverses had a bad effect on the native mind, and it had become clear that a firm hand was required in New Zealand. In May, 1845, Captain Fitzroy was recalled by the Colonial Secretary, Lord Stanley (afterwards Lord Derby, thrice Prime Minister), and in November of that year, Captain Grey, already well known to us, arrived as Governor.

The strong, wise man of British colonial history had arrived in New Zealand at a critical time. The old belief of the natives in the superiority of the white man had been for the time destroyed. There were then in existence at least 100,000 natives, men unsurpassed by any people on earth, in some respects, as warriors, while the European residents, mostly untrained to military service, and unaccustomed to the use of arms, numbered only from ten to twelve thousand, scattered over distant settlements, without means of co-operation for defence. One or two more defeats of British forces would ensure the destruction of the infant colony, in the expulsion or annihilation of the Europeans. A new *pah*, or native fortress, had been constructed by Hoani Heke in an almost impregnable position, at a place called Ruapekapeka (The Bat's Nest). It was here that Grey resolved to deal an effective blow. Reinforced by troops despatched from China and India, the Governor, within five weeks of his arrival, put 1100 men in motion against the Maori stronghold. The soldiers were set to work on a road to the scene of operations, and in a fortnight guns could be drawn on carts to the front, and the siege commenced. Kawiti, an ally of Heke's, was in command of the *pah*, the other chieftain, 20 miles away, being checked from advance to its relief by a friendly Maori in

Grey's employ. Many sorties were repulsed, and the artillery played continually on the strong palisading of the works. So strong and ingeniously constructed were these that ten days passed away before the cannon-shot produced any great impression. All temptations to premature assault, offered by the wily old Maori leader, were resisted by the cool, patient courage of the British commander. On January 10th, 1846, two small breaches were seen in the works, and on the following day the place was stormed in a smart hand-to-hand fight, with a loss to the assailants of but 12 men killed and 31 wounded. A model of this strong, ingenious fortification was shown in the Great Exhibition of 1851, and another may be seen in the United Service Museum at Whitehall. The power and repute of Heke were thus swept away, and peace came in the northern part of North Island by a general submission of the chiefs. Within two months, the whole aspect of affairs had been completely changed, and Grey's despatches, recording the transactions of his first eight weeks' governorship, were received in London with emphatic approval from the Ministers and the public press. In the southern part of the island, there was still much trouble from the murder, by natives, of settlers living on disputed lands. In the small conflicts between the Maoris and the troops, our men often suffered the greater loss. Nothing, however, long availed against the energy and skill of the Governor. His forces were employed in making military roads, affording easy access to many of the Maori fortresses, and his swift strokes then paralysed the native warriors. In July, 1846, an important advantage was gained in the adroit capture, by surprise, of the chieftain Rauparaha, the most famous living Maori warrior, who had been posing as an ally of the whites, but was proved by an intercepted letter to be urging on his countrymen against the settlers. His people then dispersed to their homes, and other chieftains retired from the contest. After long and desultory warfare in the Wanganui district, in the south-west of North Island, peace was concluded, in February, 1848, at the request of the chiefs, with a general pardon for past offences. About this time, the defenceless condition of Auckland, as regarded the existence of large numbers of armed men, of the Waikato tribes, in the centre of the island, caused the Governor to apply at home for discharged soldiers as colonists. Four settlements around Auckland, composed of men enrolled for seven years'

service as "New Zealand Fencibles", were formed. Each man had a cottage built on an acre of land, which became his own, and he could claim five acres more on completion of his term of service. These new settlers, with their wives and children, soon numbered two thousand souls. The Governor now received his appointment as K. C. B., for the great ability and success with which he had administered affairs in South Australia and New Zealand. A sum of £10,000, furnished by the Home-government for the purchase of native lands, enabled Sir George Grey to found the settlements of Otago and Canterbury, in South Island. The former was established in 1848 by members of the Free Church of Scotland. The latter arose in December, 1850, with the arrival in Lyttelton Harbour of three ships containing emigrants despatched by the Canterbury Association, representing the Church of England.

We now turn to another aspect of the work of the man who had shown his power to subdue. He was strongly desirous of conciliating the native population, of whose language, manners, customs, religion, and modes of thought he had been wholly ignorant when he first arrived in New Zealand. Amidst numerous and most pressing avocations, he set to work with such zeal and industry on the study of these matters that he could soon speak and listen to the natives with a good understanding of their ways and wishes, and in a few years' time he published a work entitled "Polynesian Mythology and Ancient Traditional History of the New Zealand Race". In June, 1848, the utter destruction, by fire, of Government House at Auckland, swept away an invaluable collection of his manuscripts, correspondence, memoranda, and articles of various kinds. The British Parliament, with an expression of sympathy, voted money to replace the Governor's smallest loss, that of his furniture and plate; the renowned comparative anatomist, Professor (the late Sir Richard) Owen, whom we saw long ago in this work in connection with the New Zealand extinct bird *Moa*, declared the destruction of Grey's natural history specimens to be a national loss. The native workmen employed at the Government quarries, and instructed, under Grey's orders, in skilled stone-work, wrote a letter to their "friend, the Governor". "Salutations to you. Great is our love and sympathy to yourself and Mrs. Grey because your dwelling has been destroyed by fire." They then beg to be employed to furnish stones for a new house,

"but there must be no payment given us"; and to be allowed to show their skill in the erection of the edifice: "From your loving children. Concluded to our father the Governor." At his installation in the Order of the Bath, Sir George chose, as his "esquires" at the ceremony, two of his friends among the chiefs. It is pleasing to note the close friendship which existed between Grey and Bishop Selwyn, two men whose names are indelibly written in the earlier pages of New Zealand history. At the time when Grey was appointed to New Zealand, Mr. Gladstone, soon to become Colonial Secretary under Sir Robert Peel, wrote to him expressing his hope that the new Governor would be able to work well in colonial affairs with Bishop Selwyn, Gladstone's old schoolfellow at Eton. This hope was fully realized. The two young men, both animated by the loftiest ideals of duty, became firm friends and allies, united in their hatred of tyranny and their love of righteous dealing, and ardently desiring the welfare of the Maoris as well as that of the European colonists. Together they traversed the North Island on foot, more than once, from Wellington to Auckland, scaling the mountains, wending their toilsome way through forests, swimming rapid rivers, becoming guests of the Maori chiefs, and influencing the tribes in the cause of Christianity and of loyalty to the Queen. The Governor took counsel with the bishop concerning the control and government of the natives; the Anglican Church in New Zealand owed the original draft of its constitution, not to Bishop Selwyn, but to Governor Grey.

The strength of the Governor's character was tried to the utmost when, in 1847, he was required by Earl Grey, then Secretary for the Colonies under Lord John Russell, to inaugurate a fresh constitution for New Zealand, under an Act, Charter, and "Royal Instructions" of 1846. These documents would have rendered the colonists powerless to direct their own affairs; the so-called representative institutions would have been "a mockery, a delusion, and a snare"; the native rights under the Treaty of Waitangi would have been set aside. With an audacity, in behalf of justice and expediency, wholly unparalleled in British colonial history, Grey deliberately suspended the operation of the Act, and resolved that, if the Imperial Government insisted thereon, they should find some other agent. He was well supported by

the two other chief men holding official positions in New Zealand. Sir William Martin, the Chief Justice, a native of Birmingham, and, like Selwyn, a Cambridge graduate of high classical distinction and a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge, always a strong supporter of the native cause as to the Treaty of Waitangi, forwarded to the Queen, through the Colonial Office, a vigorous protest urging that the instructions contained in Earl Grey's letter involved breaches of the national faith of Great Britain, and of established law. The Bishop, for his part, conducted a correspondence with the Colonial Office in London, in which he demolished, with logic supported by appeals to history and to the opinions of the greatest jurists, the position taken by the authorities at home. The upshot of Grey's defiance to Queen and Parliament was that Parliament forthwith passed a bill—not for his impeachment, or dismissal from the public employment—but suspending the obnoxious Act for five years, and giving the Governor full power, during that period, to draw up such a constitution as he might deem proper in the interests of the mother-country, and of both races in the colony of New Zealand. Never did a Governor risk so much; never did a Governor win so complete and legitimate a triumph over Parliamentary and official ignorance and lack of understanding. We conclude this part of our subject with some illustrations of Grey's methods in dealing with natives, and, especially, of his tact in combating Maori prejudice and obstinacy. He had perceived that the power of the chiefs must either be broken or enlisted on behalf of the Government, if the peaceable control of the islands was to remain in European hands. He therefore enrolled young native chiefs in the constabulary, and appointed the heads of tribes to be paid magistrates in their different districts. One great chief refused to allow roads to be made in his territory. The Governor then presented a horse and carriage to a young and favourite wife of the Maori, at the same time, with assurances of his friendship, conveying a hint that the use of the carriage would add both to the health and the comfort of the dark-hued bride. Without hesitation the husband undertook the making of roads which, as a chief, he had refused to sanction.

In 1852, a representative Constitution was granted by an Imperial Act, with six provinces, three in each of the larger islands,

under elective superintendents or local rulers. The Governor had the power of vetoing bills passed in the provincial assemblies. The General Assembly was composed of the Governor, a House of Representatives containing 37 members, and a Legislative Council of 14 persons nominated by the Crown. In January, 1853, this system of rule was proclaimed. On the last day of that year Sir George Grey left the colony, at first merely on leave of absence, but he was soon afterwards appointed, as we have seen, to Cape Colony. His departure was the signal for an outburst of affectionate regret from the natives, expressed in many specimens of poetry and oratory. He had found New Zealand in imminent peril, at the crisis of a savage war, and bankrupt in finance. He left the colony in a position of perfect safety and profound peace, solvent and flourishing, with native tribes not only subdued by skill and arms, but willing and loyal servants of the Crown, learning the value of education, industry, order, and law. Their hostility had been disarmed by kindness; their turbulence had been repressed by firmness of rule. Great numbers of natives had been trained in the skilful execution of public works. Scattered communities of Europeans, living in lawless independence and antagonism, had been welded into a single state, with a free and elastic constitution, and with municipal organizations of wide and beneficent powers. Skill, courage, and patience had founded a nation out of human materials differing in race, in religion, and in colour, and discerning eyes already saw glimpses of a great and glorious future. The zeal and beneficence of Governor Grey carried him beyond the bounds of the country which he ruled. Among his good works we must include the establishment of many boarding-schools for the poor and destitute children of all races in the South Pacific. Separate buildings for boys and girls were placed under the control of the various missionary bodies, and were managed by resident married persons. Endowments were made for the support of these institutions, where the pupils received religious and secular instruction, along with an industrial training. English was taught in the view of making it the standard language of the Pacific world, and, along with the work of the mission-schools, it thus came to pass that, within a few years, many of the younger generation of Maoris could read and write, and had been well trained in European habits.

Endowed hospitals, open to all races in the Pacific islands, were also founded in various parts of the colony. The country was making rapid progress. The European population, under 13,000 in 1845, had become, eight years later, over 30,000, and the revenue, during the same brief period, had increased from below £13,000 to nearly £150,000. When Sir George Grey arrived in England from his proconsulship beyond the Pacific waters, he was honoured by the University of Oxford with the degree of D.C.L., while the sportive "undergrads", welcoming him first with tumultuous cheers, drowned the eulogies of the Public Orator by the strains of the song, "The King of the Cannibal Islands", in which the whole of the excited, laughing assemblage ultimately joined.

After the lapse of twenty months, during which General Wynyard, Superintendent of Auckland Province, and senior military officer in the colony, acted as administrator of affairs, Colonel Gore Browne, whom we lately saw in Tasmania, arrived in September, 1855, as Governor of New Zealand. He soon found troublesome matter to deal with in the chronic land-question which was the source of nearly all our New Zealand wars. Responsible government was now established in the appointment of ministers who could be displaced by the vote of the Representative Assembly. In one important particular, the ministry which came into office, with a new Parliament, in June, 1856, was devoid of power. The purchase of land, and all laws and action specially concerning the natives, were regarded as matters of imperial interest, and the Governor was thus saddled with the most arduous portion of rule in the colony. There was a party among the Maori chieftains at this time who felt dissatisfied with the loss of their former position of dignity and power, and in May, 1857, a large native meeting was held on the banks of the Waikato River, in North Island. Te Whero Whero, a chief of great distinction, was there proclaimed as "Potatau, King of New Zealand", and a flag was hoisted as symbol of his sovereignty. This attempt to set up native rule was directed by a chief of great intelligence, one of the finest embodiments of Maori magnanimity, Wiremu Waharoa, the "Maori kingmaker", who had assumed the British name of William Thompson on embracing Christianity. An ordinance of Governor Grey, forbidding the sale of arms and ammunition to the natives, had been repealed by the colonial legislature, and this unwise policy

led to the acquisition of warlike stores from Europeans. It thus came to pass that, at this dangerous crisis for the colony, the natives, enriched by several years of peace and prosperous trade, had become possessed of many thousand stand of arms, and of large quantities of ammunition. The second Maori war began when, early in 1859, Governor Browne, visiting the settlement at New Plymouth, in Taranaki Province, on the west coast of North Island, was understood by the natives to declare that he was resolved to adopt a new system in the purchase of native lands, and to treat with individuals, disregarding tribal rights and the influence of the chiefs. This contest is sometimes known as the "First Taranaki War". It is impossible to give here the particulars of this and other struggles, nor would any interest belong to a mere list of names of *pahs* attacked, sometimes with success, at others with failure, by the British and colonial troops, at wild places not to be found on any map. For these events, as well as for colonial politics and politicians, we must refer readers to such works as Rusden's *History of New Zealand*, the *Picturesque Atlas of Australasia*, and Mennell's *Dictionary of Australasian Biography*, published by Hutchinson and Company, London.

At the close of 1861, Governor Browne was replaced by Sir George Grey, whose second term of rule continued until August, 1867. Almost incessant conflict with the natives marked this period, in the Waikato and Second Taranaki Wars, conducted on the British side by Generals Duncan Cameron and Chute, and by Grey in person. Among the distinguished fighters on the British side were those noble specimens of the Maori race, Kawepo Renata, Major Keepa, and Major Ropata. Mr. (afterwards Sir Frederick) Weld, seen in other parts of this record, became Premier of New Zealand in November, 1864, and rendered great service in furthering the withdrawal of the imperial forces, and causing the conduct of the struggle to be entrusted to small bodies of trained bushmen among the colonists themselves, aided by natives of the friendly tribes. This bold policy had great success, and it was Weld who advised and carried out the confiscation of the lands of the Waikato tribe, as a mark of their defeat, after which they never took up arms. Under Weld's ministry, lasting for barely a year, Native Land Courts were opened, and the Native Rights Bill was carried; the question of Maori representation in Parliament

was raised; the financial position was improved; and, with a view to the unity of the colony, the seat of government was removed from Auckland to Wellington, and an electric-telegraph cable was ordered so as to connect North and South Islands. Sir George Grey was involved in many disputes with his ministers, with the colonial and military authorities in London, and with General Cameron. One incident of the struggle with the natives was that, when the Governor instructed Cameron to attack a certain *pah*, and received a refusal, on the ground that the operations needed 2000 more troops, Grey gathered a force of 500 men, friendly natives and forest rangers, put himself at their head, and on July 20th, 1865, stormed the position. The Home-government regarded this achievement as "subversive of discipline", according to Cameron's pitiful remonstrance, and in 1867 the Governor was recalled by the Colonial department in London, to the great regret of the New Zealand Parliament and with a strong protest from the ministers then in office.

In February, 1868, Sir George Bowen, the accomplished man and able ruler whose acquaintance we made in Queensland and Victoria, arrived as Governor in succession to Sir George Grey. In the middle of the year, a native rebellion arose in North Island, and some disasters befel the British and loyal Maori forces. Our posts were surprised, and attacks on fastnesses of the rebels were in several cases repulsed. A chief named Te Kooti, who had been exiled to the Chatham Islands, with some other natives, seized the schooner *Rifleman*, which had arrived with stores. Taking possession of money, arms, and ammunition, he compelled the mate to convey him and his followers to New Zealand, and land them on the eastern coast of North Island. This event occurred early in July, 1868, and, after taking refuge for a time among inland fastnesses, and waging indecisive warfare with troops sent in pursuit, Te Kooti, on November 10th, issued from his mountain-retreat, and came down upon the settlement at Poverty or Tauranga Bay, a few miles south of the town now called Gisborne. A few hundred natives and about 200 Europeans resided on that part of the coast. In the course of a two-days cold-blooded massacre, some scores of Europeans and loyal natives perished, men, women, and children, including Major Biggs and Captain Wilson. The other settlers were all dispersed, and the

people at Gisborne were taken for safety to Auckland, when news of the event reached head-quarters. The rebels then burnt the deserted homesteads at Poverty Bay, and retired with their booty to their forest-fastnesses. The pursuit and punishment of Te Kooti were undertaken by the gallant native chief Ropata Wakawaha, who had served with the British troops against the fanatical Christian rebels called Hau-haus in 1865. This zealous friend of the British cause at last discovered the rebels' hiding-place, on the loftiest point of a forest-clad peak, where they had constructed the strongest pah ever seen in New Zealand. Ropata at once assaulted the formidable stronghold, and inflicted severe loss on the enemy, but was compelled, in the end, to retire from lack of ammunition. Colonel Whitmore then arrived with reinforcements, and the pah was invested. Ropata, at the head of only 50 men, carried by storm the first line of defence, and then the second line was approached by sapping. Te Kooti, under cover of night, went off with his men, but Ropata pursued with such speed as to make about 120 prisoners, all of whom were at once shot. In three succeeding years of guerilla warfare, Te Kooti's name became a terror, as, ever pursued and ever on the move, he swept down from the forests, when opportunity arose, upon isolated settlements, plundering, and cutting off small parties of Europeans and friendly natives. From the Hawke's Bay district, on the east coast of North Island, he was hunted to the centre, past Lake Taupo, into the Waikato region, on the west coast, where the head-chief refused to give him any assistance. He then expressed his desire for peace, but the Government replied by organizing fresh forces under Ropata, and setting a price of £5000 on Te Kooti's head. In 1870, when the chase was left to the Maoris, the cunning rebel, fleeing eastwards to the Bay of Plenty, was brought to a stand in a pah which was stormed in March. In the desperate fight which there took place, Te Kooti barely escaped with his life, and was hunted from lair to lair in the forests, with Ropata and his men ever at his heels, until but a score of his followers were left. He then, worn out with hunger and fatigue, crept away to the west, and was left alone in a district which had been granted by the Government as a sort of sanctuary. Some years later, he received a pardon. The faithful and gallant Ropata, having already gained the decoration of the New Zealand Cross for his services in the

attacks on the first pah held by Te Kooti, received, in 1870, a sword of honour sent by the Queen, and afterwards became a member of the Legislative Council. In the same year, the last detachment of Imperial troops left the country, and the warfare with natives soon died out. The character of this long struggle has been indicated in the foregoing account. There were many instances of gallantry and devotion on the part of British officers, soldiers, and blue-jackets engaged in the operations of the most arduous guerilla-warfare of our history; for some of these the Victoria Cross was justly awarded. It cannot, however, be regarded as creditable to those who had the general direction of military affairs in New Zealand that British forces amounting to twenty thousand men were, for many years, at immense cost, baffled by a few hundreds of native warriors. The skill and courage of the Maoris were conspicuous. Their fortifications, an intricate combination of earthwork, rifle-pits, and palisades, were in many instances long held with great loss to the assailants, and then stealthily evacuated, with little loss to the defenders, when overwhelming force, with 40-pounder Armstrong guns, was brought to bear. In addition to the charges borne by the Imperial exchequer, and the devastation of the colonial settlements, New Zealand was left burdened, at the close of hostilities, with some millions of debt, and the progress of the colony had been, for some years, seriously checked. It is refreshing to turn to other matters.

During the waging of warfare in North Island, the discovery of gold, in 1861, at Tuapeka, in the Otago district of South Island, brought a large accession to the population from Australia and Europe. Gold-mining was thenceforth steadily pursued, and the quantity gained in that quarter, up to the end of 1889, was nearly 4¾ million ounces, valued at over 18½ millions sterling. In the above year, 1870, the mail-service to San Francisco was established, and the University of New Zealand was founded. On the arrival of Sir George Bowen as Governor, a vigorous "public works policy" arose, and during his period of rule many millions of public money were expended. The mention of this matter brings up the name of a prominent New Zealand statesman, Sir Julius Vogel. This gentleman, born in London in 1835, emigrated to Victoria in 1852, and, after being engaged in business and journalistic work, proceeded, in 1861, to Dunedin, New Zealand, and started the

Otago Daily Times, the first daily paper in the colony. Entering the Provincial Council of Otago in 1862, he was, from 1866 to 1869, head of that provincial government, and in 1872, after serving in many different ministerial posts, he became Premier of New Zealand. He and his colleagues resolved to encourage immigration, partly with the view of rendering the colonists numerous and strong enough to cope with any future trouble that might arise from the natives; and to open up the country by railways, roads, and telegraph-extension. A loan of one million for public works and immigration, to be expended at a rate not exceeding £200,000 a-year, was guaranteed by the Imperial Government, but this was only a beginning, and the colonial debt increased from 7¾ millions in 1870 to 21 millions in 1877. Among other important Acts carried by Vogel was one establishing a Government Life Assurance Office, and he was also largely instrumental in procuring the telegraph-cable between Wellington and Sydney, which was opened in 1876, and in arranging with the Bank of England and the Home Government for an Act authorizing the inscription of New Zealand Stock. Among the marks of progress during this period, we may note that in 1872 two Maori chiefs became members of the Legislative Council; in 1873, the New Zealand Steam Shipping Company was established; in the following year, under the auspices of the Colonial Government, nearly 32,000 immigrants were introduced; in 1875, the provincial system of Government, instituted in 1852, was abolished; the government was centralized and strengthened, and a complete system of local government by borough and county councils was soon afterwards established. In the same year, over 18,000 emigrants were brought from the United Kingdom under the government system, and the Union Steam Shipping Company was founded. In 1877, an Act was passed for the free and compulsory education of children, and, two years later, a Triennial (Parliament) Bill was carried, and adult male universal suffrage began. Thus rapid was the progress made in New Zealand after the cessation of warfare with the Maori tribesmen.

Returning to the subject of New Zealand Governors, we find that in June, 1873, Sir George Bowen was succeeded (until the close of 1874) by Sir James Fergusson, formerly Governor of South Australia; and that he was followed by the Marquis of Normanby, whom we saw as Governor of Victoria. After a brief governorship

of Sir Hercules Robinson, who displayed the same ability as he had brought to the administration of affairs in New South Wales and other colonies, Sir Arthur Gordon was in power from 1880 until 1883. This Governor, a son of the Earl of Aberdeen who was Prime Minister from 1852 till 1855, had obtained colonial experience as ruler in New Brunswick, Trinidad, Mauritius, and the Fiji Islands, and as "Consul-General and High Commissioner for the Western Pacific". At this time, some trouble arose in connection with the native lands question, and with a remarkable Maori personage, the "prophet" Te Whiti, who had on various occasions shown friendliness to Europeans, but became prominent in 1870 when he began to hold half-yearly meetings to which discontented natives resorted from all parts of the colony. Te Whiti conceived it to be his mission to displace the settlers in the West Coast country of North Island, and to restore the lands to their original Maori owners, deprived of them by confiscation at the close of the war in that region in 1865. Preaching only a "peaceful resistance", he encouraged the natives to plough up the grass lands of the colonists, and in his harangues he predicted a speedy resurrection of the natives and the driving of the Europeans into the sea. The Government strove to stay this movement by the grant of very large "reserves" to natives who desired to become peaceful tillers of the soil, but the followers of Te Whiti had now become somewhat dangerous religious fanatics, and it was needful to disperse them. A large force of volunteers was gathered, and in October, 1881, an advance was made against the pah. The prophet was arrested without bloodshed, and he and two others became State prisoners, during the Governor's pleasure, for the offence of "unlawful assembling". This made an end, it is to be hoped, for all time, of native troubles in regard to lands. Te Whiti, whose eloquence and ethics, mainly derived from the New Testament, embody a scorn of modern civilization and money-grubbing, is regarded by some leading men in New Zealand as one of the most sincere of moralists.

In 1883 Sir Arthur Gordon, transferred to Ceylon, was succeeded by the distinguished engineer Sir William Jervois, whose career has been traced up to the time of his governorship in South Australia. He was in charge of New Zealand until 1889, during a period partly one of depression and retrenchment, but also of

energetic development, on the part of the colonists, of the mineral, agricultural, pastoral, and manufacturing industries of their splendid country, which soon placed New Zealand in a sound financial position. In 1889 the Earl of Onslow became Governor. Born in 1853, educated at Eton and Oxford, and succeeding his great-uncle in the peerage in 1870, the new ruler had been Parliamentary Under-Secretary for the Colonies in 1887, and, in the following year, Parliamentary Secretary to the Board of Trade. During his tenure of office, until the end of 1891, Lord Onslow, by precept and example, encouraged sport; aided acclimatization; collected rare birds for transmission to the Zoological Society in London; and began to form at Government House the nucleus of an ethnological collection. An interesting occurrence showed his sympathy for the Maori race. The birth of a son to Lord and Lady Onslow, at Wellington, was marked by the conferring of a special Maori name. The Queen, as godmother, commanded the first two names of the child as "Victor Alexander", and the addition of "Huia" linked the Governor's family with the most ancient native blood in the land, and connected the infant with the most influential and civilized chiefs in North Island. In September, 1891, after christening in due form, the boy was taken by his parents to Otahi, to be presented to the tribe whose name he had taken. At an impressive ceremonial, in presence of a great native gathering, representative chiefs made speeches of welcome full of poetry and pathos, recounting the achievements of their forefathers, and deploring the decay of the Maori race, while they fully acknowledged the honour conferred on the Ngatihuia tribe, as the surest way of cementing the bonds of friendship. "We invoke", it was said, "the spirits of our ancestors to witness this day that in your son Huia the friendship of the two races becomes united!" After a suitable reply from the Governor, Tamihana Te Huia, the hereditary young chief of the tribe, stepped forward and said, "And now, O Governor and Lady Onslow, bring forward the infant Huia, that the tribe may do him honour". On the presentation of the child by his mother, Tamihana solemnly "rubbed noses" with him, while all the women present joined in singing a soft, plaintive lullaby. Then all the chiefs of the tribe came forward and cast their offerings before the child—costly robes of Maori workmanship, carved boxes, and ancient "greenstones", made of a species of

jade, highly prized by the natives, and worked into amulets, various ornaments, and axe-heads. The next New Zealand Governor was the Earl of Glasgow, appointed in June, 1892, a nobleman of very ancient lineage, descended from John Boyle, killed at Bannockburn, and from another baron slain at Flodden. The new ruler, seventh Earl, served during the Crimean and second China wars, in the royal navy, and was formerly chairman of the Ayrshire county council. In August, 1897, he was succeeded by the Earl of Ranfurly, K.C.M.G.

CHAPTER XII.

NEW ZEALAND—*Continued.* GEOGRAPHY, INDUSTRIES, TOWNS, STATISTICS, AND DEPENDENCIES.

Geographical position and extent of the three islands—Coast-line and physical features of North Island—of South Island—Climate—Fauna: The owl-parrot and apteryx—Flora: The kauri-tree, ferns, and New Zealand flax—Mineral wealth—Gold and coal—Mineral oils and kauri-gum—Scenery and towns of North Island—Auckland city—Its splendid Free Public Library—The Hot-Lakes region—Huka Falls—Napier city—Gisborne, Palmerston, Wanganui, New Plymouth, and other towns—Wellington, the capital—Towns in South Island—Its scenery and mountains—Glaciers—Lakes—Grandeur of the West Coast Sounds or fiords—Milford Sound—Christchurch, Dunedin, Invercargill, &c.—Stewart Island—Population of New Zealand—Political divisions—Religious denominations—Education—Justice—Manufactures—Character of the soil—Agriculture—Distribution of the land—Live stock—Exports and imports—Shipping—Roads, railways, and telegraphs—Ocean routes—Government and representation—Revenue—Customs-duties and exemptions—Expenditure—Public debt—General prosperity and happy condition of the people—Islands attached to the colony: Chatham, Auckland, Kermadec, Campbell, Macquarie, Bounty, and Antipodes Islands.

"Great Britain of the Southern Hemisphere", nearly the antipodes of the British Isles, is one of the finest countries and colonies in the world, unrivalled in the southern regions for picturesque variety and wild grandeur of scenery, truly Alpine in some parts, with mountains approaching those of Switzerland in height, and glaciers larger than any in Europe. These true oceanic islands, severed from all adjacent lands for countless ages, are of volcanic origin, composed of rocks of all geological ages, the chief mountain-ranges being of great antiquity. Lying between about 34 and 47 degrees of south latitude, and 166½ and 178½ degrees of east longitude, they have a total length of 1100 miles. *North Island*, about the same length as South Island, is of very irregular shape,

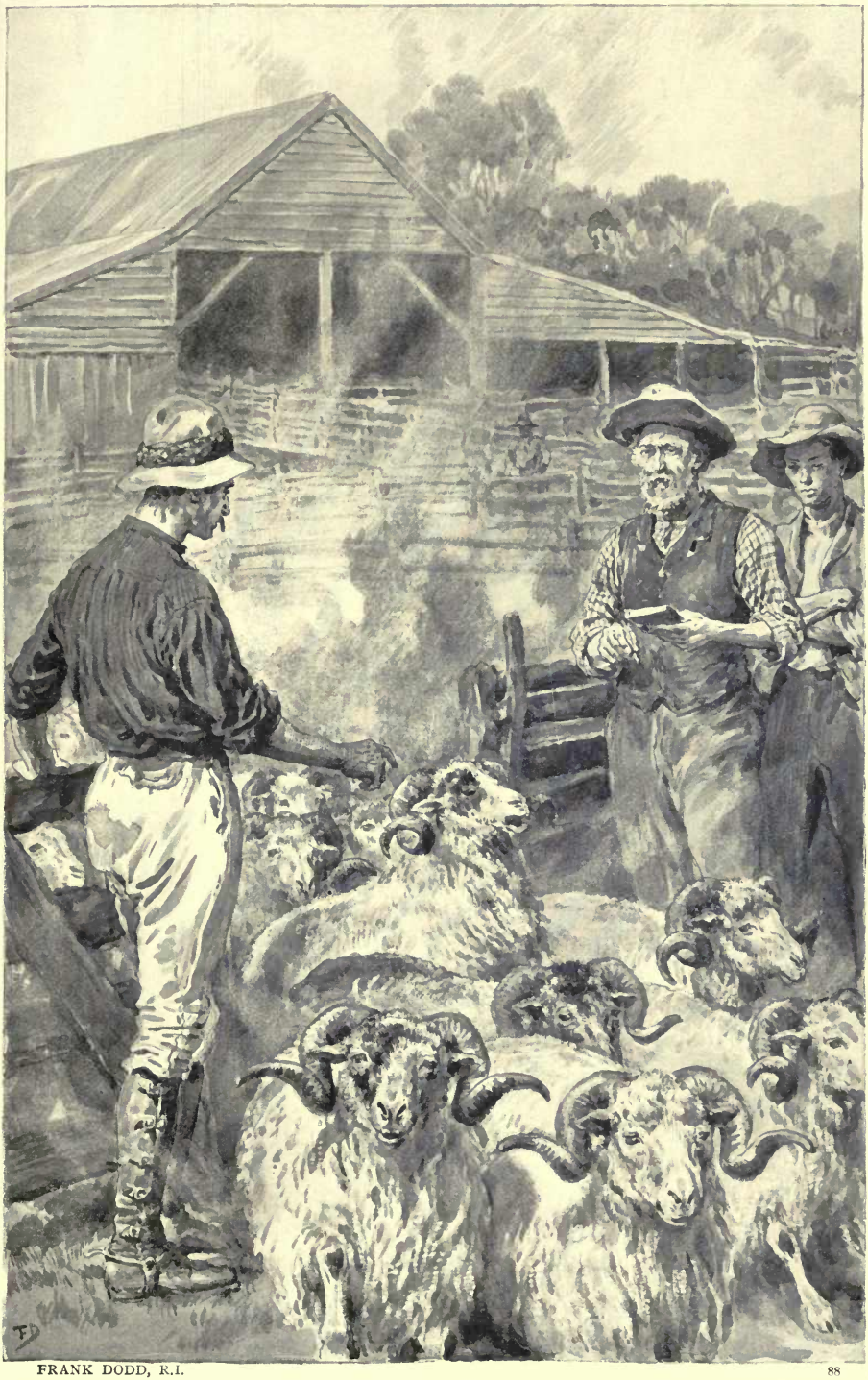
narrow in the north, swelling out at the centre to a breadth of about 200 miles, and then contracting, southwards, into a peninsula from 90 to 50 miles across. *South Island* is more compact, being about 120 miles wide in the northern half, and 200 in the south from shore to shore. These two largest islands are divided by Cook Strait, a deep, rather stormy passage less than 15 miles wide at the narrowest point. *Stewart Island*, below South Island, is divided from it by Foveaux Strait, about 15 miles in width, named after Colonel Foveaux, commander of the New South Wales corps in the earlier days, and for a time in charge of that first Australian colony. The total area of New Zealand approaches that of the British Isles, amounting to about 104,500 square miles, of which 44,500 belong to North Island, 58,630 to South Island, and 665 to Stewart Isle.

The coast of North Island is deeply indented in the northern half, and has many good harbours, Hauraki Gulf and Bay of Plenty, on the east, being there the most spacious openings; Hawke Bay, below the centre on the same side, and facing south-east, is a fine natural haven, protected on the east by Mahia Peninsula. In the south-west of this island, Port Nicholson, the harbour of Wellington, is found; on the west coast, there are Kaipara and Manukau Harbours, penetrating inland for a considerable distance, the latter approaching within a few miles of the waters of Hauraki Gulf. A glance at the map will show the capes on each side, and to the north and south. The bays on the north-east, spreading numerous arms inland, and studded with islands, present some of the most charming scenery in the world. North Island is traversed, from north to south, in the broader part, by mountain chains, attaining, in the higher peaks, from 6500 to about 9200 feet, the latter being an elevation, in that latitude, well above the line of perpetual snow. A long narrow valley divides two parallel chains on the east, the western of these being about 150 miles long, with an average height of 4000 feet, split near the middle by a deep gorge, and known, to the north, as the Ruahine Chain, to the south, as the Tararua Range. From this chain lateral ranges branch off to south and west, terminating in headlands. The more easterly of the parallel chains extends further north, and its southern prolongation is broken up into a number of ranges giving the country a very mountainous character. The lakes and rivers will be seen later on.

In South Island, Tasman Bay, Golden Bay, Cloudy Bay, and Pegasus Bay, this last bounded on the south by Banks Peninsula, are the chief inlets on the north and east; there are some smaller bays and harbours in the south; the grand fiords of the south-west coast will be specially dealt with in our account of the scenery. As regards surface, nearly the whole island is traversed by lofty, rugged mountains, with several parallel chains, running almost north and south, in the northern half of the country; in the southern half, many ranges run southwards to the sea from the great western chain known as the Southern Alps. The chief elevations are from 10,000 feet in height to 12,350 (Mount Cook), the culminating point of New Zealand, with an intermediate peak in Mount Hochstetter, 11,200 feet. Two-thirds of the area are thus occupied by mountains, giving rise to many rivers of rapid fall, liable to sudden floods, and carrying much more water in summer, when they are swollen by melted snows, than in the winter season. The streams on the west, where the mountains nearly approach the sea, are usually very short; the Buller and the Grey, rising in the interior, and finding an outlet to the sea on the west, have longer courses. In the north, the Waiau and Awatere, of considerable length, flow north-eastwards into Cook Strait; both of these take their rise in the lofty region dominated by Mount Franklin, 10,000 feet in height. On the south-east slope, the principal rivers are the Waitaki and the Clutha, which latter has a course of 150 miles and is the largest of the New Zealand streams. Much of the eastern and south-eastern seaboard and interior of South Island is occupied by fertile downs and hills of moderate elevation, and the fine Canterbury Plains, very fertile in many parts, extend from Banks Peninsula westwards to the Southern Alps, being an elevated but comparatively level tract, sloping gradually or falling by terraces towards the sea on the east, with the best natural pastures in the colony, forming the great sheep district of New Zealand. The "Lake District" of South Island is reserved for separate notice. The western coast consists of a narrow belt of low land covered with impenetrable forest, except in districts where miners and agricultural settlers have cleared away the wood and jungle, and where the broad river-beds come down to the ocean. We may observe that, while North Island has much of the finest land covered by forests of luxuriant growth, extending for nearly a mile in height up the mountains, most of South Island is poorly

A SHEEP STATION ON CANTERBURY PLAINS.

New Zealand, as a whole, is not so well adapted for sheep-rearing as the Australian colonies; but in some parts, especially in South Island, there are extensive tracts on which great flocks of sheep are pastured. The famous Canterbury Plains in the provincial district of Canterbury present an immense extent of natural pasture, which has been much improved by the introduction of permanent artificial grasses. The pastoral land of the Canterbury Plains covers an area of about three million acres, and several millions of sheep are reared on it. The wool grown, however, is said to be coarser than that produced in New South Wales and Queensland. The provincial district of Canterbury is bounded on the east by the sea, on the north by Nelson, on the south by Otago, and on the west by Westland. Much of its pasture-lands is also excellently adapted for growing cereals, and of late years a considerable area has been brought under cultivation. Much good timber is also found in the district. The district of Canterbury was first settled in 1850 by a society of persons connected with the Church of England. The capital, Christchurch, has a fine cathedral.



FRANK DODD, R.I. 88

A SHEEP STATION ON CANTERBURY PLAINS.



supplied with timber, the mountains as well as the lowlands being well clothed with grass excellent for feeding cattle and sheep.

As regards climate, New Zealand is blessed with one of the best and healthiest in the world. The death-rate for 1896 was only 9·1 per thousand, against 13 per thousand for New South Wales, Queensland, and Tasmania, 12 for South Australia, and 15 for Victoria and Western Australia. In a mountainous country extending over fourteen degrees of latitude, great variety of course exists. For the whole colony, the mean annual temperature of spring is 55 degrees; of summer, 63; of autumn, 57; of winter, 48. The prevalent winds are westerly, with frequent veering to south-west and south-east, changes which bring heavy weather. As compared with England, the extremes of temperature are not nearly so great, and, with more rainfall, but fewer wet days, the atmosphere of New Zealand is dry and elastic, not moist and heavy. The freshness of the air is due to the position of the islands, where every wind that blows must have traversed many hundreds, and, in some cases, some thousands of miles of ocean. Malarious diseases are unknown. As compared with Australia, the climate is marked by rapid changes instead of by a lengthy continuance of fine weather, but New Zealand enjoys freedom from the desolating droughts and occasional floods which visit her sister-colonies in the southern hemisphere. In the South Island, frost and snow are common, but in many parts of the islands snow never falls, and cattle and horses can remain throughout the winter unsheltered in the fields. Of late years, earthquakes have been somewhat frequent; in 1880–1–2, many shocks were felt at Wellington, and again in 1888–89. On September 1st, 1888, the whole of the South Island, and a part of the North, experienced the most severe shocks known for more than twenty years. At Christchurch, many buildings, including the cathedral, were injured, and damage was done in many other places. Before leaving the subject of climate, we may remark that, in North Island, the great peninsula north of Manukau Harbour is humid and semi-tropical in this respect. The fruits of warmer latitudes are produced in great excellence and plenty, and the settlers may fancy themselves in Italy or Spain, amidst a growth of maize, oranges, lemons, grapes, figs, mulberries, olives, and the flowers which furnish perfumes for sale. It is here that the grand kauri-pine is indigenous, and supplies most of the gum for export.

In New Zealand, as first known to Europeans, the *fauna* included no mammals except two species of bat, with a few dogs and rats probably not native, but introduced by some early navigator or by the Maori immigrants. Of sea-mammals, there were formerly many varieties and great numbers of whales, dolphins, and seals off the coasts whose waters now teem with fish, including a large species of cod, the delicious frost-fish, flounders, soles, pilchards, and mackerel. The rivers of the country, which had originally only the eel and a few salmonoid fishes of little value, are now being stocked with European and American trout and salmon; and with tench, perch, and carp. The shell-fish of the sea-coast are abundant oysters, crayfish, and mussels. The reptile class is poorly represented. There are no native snakes; a few kinds of small, harmless lizards are met with; only one species of frog is known, and that only in a limited tract of North Island. The native birds are remarkable neither for numbers nor for fine plumage; pigeons and parrots, ducks and wading-birds are the chief specimens. The mountain-*kea*, or owl-parrot, as it is called from a circle of feathers round the eyes, affords a remarkable instance of change of habit. Originally feeding on insects and on vegetable matter, these birds, on the introduction of sheep, acquired a taste for the offal flung out by the settlers. They have now become as hateful to the New Zealand colonists as the dingo is to Australians, from their practice of worrying weakly animals to death in order to feed upon the kidney fat. The *kiwi*, in its native name, the *apteryx* of ornithology, is a peculiar genus of four species, two found in North Island, two in South Island. These birds, allied to the ostrich-class, are from 1 to 2 feet in height, reddish-brown or gray in colour, practically wingless, with only a rudiment of wings hidden beneath the downy feathers; with short scaly legs, strong claws, and a long slender beak used for extracting worms and grubs from the soil. Moths and butterflies do not abound; honey-bees brought by settlers multiply fast. It is needless to state that European animals and birds have been introduced with perfect success; sparrows, linnets, and rabbits have proved very destructive, and of these the colonists would gladly be rid. The country is now being well stocked with hares, pheasants, partridges, grouse, quail, and other creatures providing both sport and food.

When we come to the *flora*, we find that nearly all the native trees and shrubs are evergreen. The forest trees are very valuable; most of the timber is harder, heavier, and more difficult to work than the European and North American woods. Among several varieties of pine producing wood of excellent quality for the work of builders, carpenters, and cabinet-makers, the famous *kauri* gives the best of all soft woods, a perfect specimen of sound, durable, and straight-grained material, taking stain well, and susceptible of a good polish. This stately conifer, attaining a height of from 120 to 150, and sometimes 200 feet, grows abundantly in many forests of the Auckland district. It is straight and tall enough, clear of branches, to make masts for large ships, and has a maximum diameter of 15 feet. The older trees furnish the kauri-gum of commerce, a substance resembling amber, much used in Great Britain and America for making the best kinds of varnish. Many of the best timber trees of Europe, America, and Australia have been introduced, and flourish with a vigour beyond that known in their former habitats. The native New Zealand vegetation is very peculiar. With a limited number of species, it has many elsewhere unknown. At the same time, the country has no indigenous fruits or grain. Above a hundred varieties of ferns include tree-ferns sometimes exceeding 30 feet in height, and also the most lowly and delicate specimens. These ferns, along with an even greater abundance of mosses, form a large proportion of the plant-life, and everywhere impart a peculiar colouring to the landscape. One of the plants unknown to other countries is the *Phormium tenax*, or New Zealand flax, really a plant of the lily tribe, with sword-shaped leaves from 2 to 6 feet long, and 1 to 3 inches broad. The strong, tough, fine fibre of these is imported into Great Britain for making twine, ropes, sailcloth and other articles, having been long used by the Maoris for mats, baskets, and cloaks. The plant, familiar in colder countries as a decorative growth in greenhouses and sheltered gardens, is in New Zealand an evergreen growing wild over large areas, and is easily cultivated on the poorest soils. The country is deficient in floral beauty of trees, shrubs, and plants, one of the few fine flowering shrubs being that popularly styled the "glory pea", which bears beautiful large crimson clusters of blooms. The fruit-trees, vegetables, grasses, and trefoils of Europe have been largely introduced, and

grow with great luxuriance, and the colonists have abundance of peaches, apples, pears, apricots, and melons, in addition to the sub-tropical fruits above mentioned.

The mineral wealth is very important, and has greatly contributed to the welfare of the colony. Gold and coal are the two minerals which have been worked with the best results. The total yield of the former, from alluvial deposits and from quartz-reefs in all parts of the colony, from the sea-level up to a height of 7400 feet, has exceeded 56 millions sterling in value, the output for 1899 being above 470,580 ounces, worth over £1,513,000. The principal reef-mines are in North Island, near Hauraki Gulf, and in Otago Province of South Island. The alluvial gold is chiefly found in South Island, in the provinces of Otago, Westland, and Nelson, where the auriferous area amounts to 20,000 square miles, including rich deposits on the sea-beaches. Silver, antimony, and manganese are worked to the united annual value (1898) of above £34,000, but this is a trifling matter compared with the product of coal, amounting in 1898 to about 907,000 tons, worth £453,000. The extensive fields near Greymouth and Westport, on the west coast of South Island, give a mineral unsurpassed in quality for steam and gas purposes. Brown coal and lignite, affording cheap fuel for domestic use, are mined in most parts of the colony. The coal-mines of North Island are chiefly near the Bay of Islands. Above 12,000,000 tons have been raised in all, and the home product is now exclusively used on the railways of the colony, and supplies, in fact, almost all the needs of the country. Of late years, mineral oils have been obtained in considerable amount from springs in the Taranaki district, on the west coast of North Island, a position which precludes the need for costly pipe-lines conveying the oil for hundreds of miles to the shipping port, as in Pennsylvania and at the Russian oil-fields of Baku. The importance of mining as a New Zealand industry may be judged from the fact that in 1896 there were about 24,600 men, or 3½ per cent of the whole population, thus engaged. Amongst the mineral products, as well as vegetable, we may also name kauri-gum, seeing that the greater part is obtained, not from living trees, but as a semi-fossilized turpentine, found in masses varying from 1 to 300 pounds in weight, at a depth of from 5 to 100 feet, on the sites of old forests from which the gum exuded in past ages.

The scenery and towns of North Island now demand our notice. We start with *Auckland*, the largest place in this northern half of the colony, and the oldest city and former capital of New Zealand. It is situated on the south shore of Waitemata Harbour, a beautiful stretch of water branching from Hauraki Gulf, crowded with islands, some of which are very beautiful. The haven is one of the finest in New Zealand, with depth of water sufficient for the largest steamers afloat; many branches of the harbour extend far inland, and afford ample space for the construction of wharves, fine examples of which are at the service of the abundant shipping which resorts to this centre of the kauri-gum and timber trade, and of commerce with the South Pacific Islands. Auckland is the first point of arrival for the steamers from San Francisco, by way of Honolulu, in the Sandwich Islands. The peninsula is here only six miles across, and the city has thus ready access to the western coast in Manukau Harbour, with which it is connected by railway. The place lies about 1300 miles from Sydney, and 1650 from Melbourne. With a population of about 31,500 in the borough, and nearly double that number including the suburbs, this well-built city and its neighbourhood present all the charms afforded by land and sea in hills, islands, coves, and sandy beaches, two coasts being commanded in the extensive view from Mount Eden, 3 miles from the centre of the town, an extinct crater 640 feet in height, perfect in shape and well preserved, one of sixty-three such volcanic openings within a radius of five miles. As regards commercial facilities, the Calliope graving-dock, the largest in Australasia, is 500 feet long, 80 feet wide at entrance, with 33 feet depth of water on the sill at high-tide; this great work was constructed at the cost, including that of the needful machinery, of over £160,000. The fine buildings, of brick and stone, comprise edifices of every class, devoted to the uses of government, religion, commerce, and charity, and of culture in literature, science, and art. Banks and insurance offices; a Working Men's Club and a great Opera House; spacious structures of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations; a Free Library and a Public Art Gallery; a Telephone Exchange, a Museum, a Masonic Hall, a Choral Hall, fine public parks, and a Botanic Garden; recreation-grounds for cricket, football, and other sports; a splendid race-ground in the suburbs; schools and churches,

hospitals, factories for making boilers, glass, ropes, vinegar, boots and shoes; ship-yards, a sugar-refinery, and saw-mills—these prove how complete is the reproduction of British institutions on New Zealand shores. There is one of these Auckland edifices that, with its contents, requires more than a passing word of notice. It brings again before us the eminent colonial governor and statesman, Sir George Grey, who opened the Free Public Library on March 26th, 1887. About twenty-five years had passed away since he presented his splendid library to the colonists of South Africa. During those years he had once more accumulated a great collection of literary treasures, by purchase, by gifts, by bequest, and through his own untiring researches and participation in public affairs. For the second time he was in possession of the most valuable private library in the southern hemisphere. Four years prior to 1887, Edward Costley, a man of retiring and somewhat penurious life, enriched by the possession of land through increase of its value with the growth of Auckland, left an estate worth nearly £100,000 equally among seven city charities. The municipal authorities, with one share, erected a suitable building for the Library, and then Sir George Grey sent his books to fill the shelves. Before a great assemblage, the veteran spoke of the new world which, in Africa, America, and Australasia, had been opened during his lifetime, and of the duty of turning to the best account the resources thus laid before mankind. The "Grey Collection" is the chief glory of the principal seat of culture in the beautiful city between two seas, the "Corinth of the South". It includes idols and implements of peace and war, from many savage lands; medals of gold, silver, and bronze; fragments of the marble cross erected by Bartolomeo Diaz at the Cape of Good Hope to commemorate his doubling of the stormy headland; the silver spade which turned the first sod for the first railway in South Africa; and a bronze cast of Napoleon's head, modelled after death by his medical attendant, Antommarchi. The literary treasures comprise the most complete collection of the Scriptures in the world; drafts of some of Cromwell's last despatches; a most valuable set of ancient missals and illuminated MSS.; in all about 12,000 volumes, specially rich in the philological and theological sections, of which the latter contains the first Dutch Bible, printed at Delft in 1477, and, in all, 374 Bibles, or portions of Scripture,

in 160 languages. The autograph letters, between two and three thousand, include communications from Queen Victoria; from Livingstone, Speke, Sturt, and other explorers; and from so miscellaneous a list of eminent personages as Carlyle and Florence Nightingale; Bishop Selwyn and Sir Charles Lyell; Moffat the missionary and Bishop Colenso; Archbishop Whately and Froude; Huxley and Gladstone; Humboldt, Sir John and Lady Franklin, Darwin, Bunsen, Lubbock, and Bishop Patteson. Sir George Grey's hope, in aiding to make Auckland a seat of learning, was to draw thither from distant places of the earth students who, in the pursuit of literature and knowledge, should desire to consult portions of the mass of authorities which he had gathered.

From Hauraki Gulf we flit northwards to the Bay of Islands, one of the finest harbours in the world, eleven miles broad between the capes at the entrance, without a hidden rock or a shoal in its whole expanse, and having water deep enough for any ship to anchor close up to the lovely shores, with their sequestered bays, pebbly beaches, ferny dells, clustering hamlets, and woody knolls. The hundred islets which give the bay its famous name are green with foliage, and nothing can surpass the beauty of the scene. Northwards again lies the harbour of Whangaroa, with its fantastically rocky shores, a narrow entrance, a fine haven, and scenery which includes a cascade 400 feet in depth. Near Whangarei, still on the east coast, about 80 miles north of Auckland, are some curious limestone caves. The Wairua waterfall, on the river of that name, descends in a smooth sheet, 40 feet wide, down a face of rock 86 feet in depth. At Mount Tarawera, in the country south of the Bay of Plenty, we are in the heart of the hot-lake and hot-spring district of North Island. The eruption of July 10th, 1886, tearing open the broad top of this mountain in a chasm 600 feet wide, ruined the renowned Pink and White Terraces lying near Lake Rotomahana, and turned that beautiful sheet of water into a seething cauldron of mud and slime. Two Maori settlements, with over 100 people, were destroyed by scoriæ, hot stones, and liquid mud, and the explosive sounds were heard at Auckland, 120 miles away to the north; at the Bay of Islands, 100 miles further yet in that direction; and as far as Nelson, on Tasman Bay, in South Island. In this hot-lake region there are still abundant natural wonders in terrace formations with cauldrons, sulphur-pools, geysers,

hot springs, and cascades. At Sulphur Point, on Lake Rotorua, the Government sanatorium has baths of marvellous efficacy for rheumatism, neuralgia, skin diseases, and some internal maladies. The whole of the country between Tauranga, on Bay of Plenty, and Lake Taupo, the largest in the colony, 24 miles long by 15 broad, abounds in romantic scenery of hill and dale, pass and gulch, forest and fern, dozens of lakes and streams, lofty mountains, and volcanic phenomena of steam-jets, geysers, and boiling springs.

The Waikato River, rolling over a rocky bed, is remarkable in one part for banks fringed with thick clustering masses of pure white silica. Wairakei, a health-resort about six miles north of Lake Taupo, is in a valley of wonders, whose precipitous sides, from 60 to 100 feet in height, are clothed with trees, ferns, and mosses of many-hued green, with a hot stream flowing down the centre, and opening out into a beautiful tiny lake of blue water. Just above this, some internal force causes heavy thuds followed by reverberations that shake the ground. As the traveller proceeds, he passes geysers, a huge boiling cauldron 50 feet across, intermittent fountains, white and gray mud volcanoes, coloured terraces with cascades, sulphur springs, and countless other curiosities, including a great steam-hole or *fumarole*, whose vapour is visible for fifty miles, and is ejected with a force such that branches of trees flung into the screeching funnel are at once shot out with tremendous swiftness. The whole valley abounds with rich vegetation, and presents a scene of the rarest beauty. The Huka Falls, on the Waikato, three miles above Lake Taupo, occur at the end of a passage from 200 to 300 yards in length, and only 30 to 40 feet wide, into which the stream is suddenly pent between perpendicular walls of rock from 50 to 60 feet high. After rushing with a hoarse roar through this passage in a body of snow-white foam, the water, as the confining walls suddenly recede, shoots forth in a solid white mass, as if from the barrel of an enormous cannon, and plunges perpendicular for forty feet into a dark-green pool below. Lake Taupo, 300 square miles in area, lies at 1200 feet above sea-level in a clear, dry, bracing air. With no special attractions in its rocky shores, with sparse foliage, its broad bright bosom is marked by a single island, and a fine view, to the south, is obtained of the graceful volcanic cone of Tongariro, 6500 feet in height, with a

fleecy canopy of steam, and of Mount Ruapehu, huge of bulk, rising to nearly 9000 feet, the loftiest peak in North Island.

The city of *Napier*, a seaport with about 9000 people, lies on a peninsula at the estuaries of two rivers falling into the sea on the southern shore of Hawke's Bay. It is a well-built, busy, and progressive place, the capital of the fertile agricultural and pastoral district of Hawke's Bay, and ships large quantities of wool, and of frozen and tinned meat. The cathedral, of 13th-century Gothic, is the largest ecclesiastical edifice in New Zealand; the see is that of the Bishop of Waiapu. *Gisborne*, with about 3000 people, lies on Poverty Bay, in a fine pastoral and agricultural country. This scene of Cook's landing in 1769 is now a place of call for the east-coast steamers, and has dairy-factories, and companies for working the large petroleum deposits of the district. Some of the finest sylvan and romantic scenery in New Zealand is found in the Seventy-Mile Bush, containing abundance of the most valuable timber, and in the Manawatu Gorge, in the region lying between Napier and Wellington. This famous pass is a vast rift in the Ruahine Range, a chain about 80 miles in length, separating the province of Wellington from that of Hawke's Bay. The coach-road proceeds along a narrow shelf cut out on the face of the mountain, and following, with many sharp bends and curves, the winding course of the stream flowing 50 feet below, beyond which the buttresses of the hills slope sharply back, covered from the water's edge to the summit with dense and varied vegetation of tree-ferns, creepers, and pines. Above the road the hills ascend steeply for many hundreds of feet; the sides of the gorge are in some places seamed with deep ravines, darkened by the over-spreading foliage of shrubs and ferns. Rills of water, with pretty cascades, rush down to the river. At last the pass opens out into a level country of grass and grain, with herds of cattle, extending to *Palmerston*, a town of 5000 people. Thence the railway takes the traveller north-westwards, through a fertile country, to *Wanganui*, a town and port, the chief shipping-place on the west coast, situated on the river of the same name. The place contains about 6000 inhabitants, and has steam saw-mills, foundries, flour-mills, and other places of industry. The pretty, wood-built town, four miles from the river-mouth, has tree-planted thoroughfares, and commands a splendid view of Mount Ruapehu, crowned with

eternal snows, gloriously coloured at sunset, and of Tongariro and other lofty peaks. The recreation-grounds provide for horse-racing, cricket, and other sports. A large sum has been expended on the improvement of the river-navigation, and the broad, placid stream is crossed by a massive iron bridge 600 feet long, with a swing-span of 130 feet in length. The railway continues north-west and north, through the fine province of Taranaki, "the Garden of New Zealand", with a rich soil, and sufficient rainfall, as far as *New Plymouth*, a town of 4000 people, sloping upwards from the beach amid trees and gardens, and commanding a noble view to the south of the grand Mount Egmont, from whose slopes nearly a hundred streams wander through the woods and downs to the sea. The mountain rises, an almost perfect cone, the summit of which is an extinct crater covered with perpetual snow, to a height of 8300 feet, from a base 30 miles in diameter. The roadstead of New Plymouth is protected by a breakwater nearly 2000 feet long.

WELLINGTON, the capital of New Zealand, with about 38,000 inhabitants, and the centre of ocean and coastal steam-traffic, lies on the shores of Port Nicholson, a deep and landlocked harbour, 6 miles long and 6 miles broad, on the northern side of Cook's Strait. The largest vessels can come alongside the extensive wharves. Close in the rear of the city, lofty, rugged, and sombre-looking ranges of hills arise. The place is not architecturally fine, having mostly narrow and tortuous streets, with buildings of wood and galvanized iron, materials partly due to the frequency of earthquakes. As the seat of government, a great place of trade, and the see of an Anglican bishop and a Roman Catholic archbishop, the city now contains many substantial edifices of brick and stone. An excellent water-supply; lighting by gas and electricity; tramways, patent slips and ship-building yards, meat-preserving establishments, iron-foundries, woollen-mills; with a race-course, a cricket-ground, a beautiful "domain" or public park, an opera-house, and a Theatre Royal, contribute to the health, wealth, comfort, convenience, and enjoyment of the citizens. The railway from the capital to Napier, running north-east, crosses the lofty Rimutaka Range by the Incline so named, one of the greatest pieces of engineering work in the colony. The scenery presented on this route is very fine. The train, toiling up a wooded ascent, through deep cuttings and across many gullies or ravines, at last reaches a

point where gradients of one in fifteen necessitate the use of locomotives with mid-wheels gripping a central line of rail rising about 18 inches above the flanking lines. The views become grand as the traveller passes now and then, in serpentine course, along a narrow causeway excavated from a wall of cliff, with terrible ravines below. A sharp descent of 8 miles from the summit brings the train to *Masterton*, a town of about 4000 people, the largest inland place in North Island, 71 miles north-east of Wellington. It lies in a rich pastoral and agricultural district, with flour-mills, timber-works, meat-preserving, and other industries. Sport is provided for by jockey and coursing clubs, and there are breeding-ponds for salmon, trout, and other imported fish. We conclude our account of North Island with a notice of some other towns. *Russell*, originally called Kororareka, has appeared in the early history of New Zealand. It lies 130 miles north of Auckland, on the Bay of Islands, with a population of about 5000 Europeans, and 7000 Maoris. There is a large export of coal (from the Kawakawa district, 15 miles away), kauri-gum, timber, wool, and the native "flax", with manganese from mines near the town. It is the chief shipping-port of the north, and is much frequented by whaling-vessels. *Grahamstown*, about 40 miles south-east of Auckland, on the Firth of Thames, near the mouth of the river so called, is a mining-town in the rich Thames gold district, with a population of about 5000, some manufactures, a large fishing industry, and substantial buildings. *Tauranga*, with a population of over 3000, half Europeans, half Maoris, is a seaport on the harbour of the same name, an inlet of the Bay of Plenty. The spacious haven admits the largest vessels at all tides; the town has factories for biscuits, cheese, and soda-water; a flour-mill, a brewery, and a fish-curing establishment; and extensive chemical works for utilizing the deposits of sulphur in the Hot Lakes district above described, the chief products being sulphuric and hydrochloric acid.

The voyager from Wellington reaches, as his first port of call in South Island, the town of *Picton*, a small place at the head of the splendid Queen Charlotte Sound, the favourite haven of Captain Cook, described by him as "a collection of the finest harbours in the world". The shores have little suitable land for tillage, and they have hence failed to become the site of any great

town. The scenery around has all the charms possessed by forest-clad hills, gorges and gullies rich in palms, tree-ferns, flowering trees and shrubs, and streams dashing down from the heights towards the sea. The little town is connected by railway with *Blenheim*, the capital of Marlborough provincial district, a rugged region with several ranges, of which the Kaikoura is a double chain culminating in Mount Odin, 9700 feet in height, and having other peaks exceeding 8000 feet. The town, lying on two rivers near the north-east coast, has about 4000 inhabitants, and is a busy little place, with the chief telegraph-station of the colony, as the point of reception and distribution of all messages between South and North Islands. Steering westwards on leaving Queen Charlotte Sound, we soon run between D'Urville Island and the mainland into the fine Tasman Bay, by the rocky channel, less than 120 yards in width, called French Pass, amidst grand scenery with mountains rising from 3000 to nearly 5000 feet. On the south-east coast of Tasman Bay lies *Nelson*, capital of the provincial district so called, a region rich in minerals, and having ranges of mountains in which Mount Franklin attains an altitude of 10,000 feet, while numerous peaks exceed 7000. The city (so styled as the see of a Bishop), has a population, with the suburbs, of about 10,000, and is beautifully situated on a little river at the head of Blind Bay, in a flat hemmed in by a circle of lofty rugged hills, amidst an almost tropical luxuriance of vegetation. The harbour is sheltered by a curious natural breakwater of rounded pebbles, called Boulder Bank. Completely sheltered by the hills inland, and well protected from gales, this quiet picturesque place, with a climate of never-ending summer, has a cathedral, literary institute, and museum, and the High Schools, for boys and girls, attract pupils from all parts of the colony. There is regular steam-communication with Sydney and Melbourne. The neighbouring country is pastoral and famous for fruit, and has many hop-gardens of excellent produce. There are industries in brewing, leather, soap, and fruit-preserves. On leaving Tasman Bay for the west again, we pass the broad Golden Bay, the place first visited by Tasman; double Cape Farewell, and then, running south-west and due south for about 100 miles, reach the coaling-town of *Westport*, the chief commercial place on the west coast of South Island, with a very good harbour, at the mouth of the Buller River, in an

extensive coal and gold-mining district. The Buller, one of the largest rivers of South Island, flows from far to the east through a romantic region of mountains and small lakes. The country to the north-east of Westport is very rich in excellent coal, some of which is got at 2000 feet above sea-level. The town, with about 3000 people, has excellent wharves, and ships of 1000 tons' burden can be loaded in a single tide.

Still voyaging southwards, we round Cape Foulwind, and, after fifty miles of a little-indented coast, arrive at *Greymouth*, the "Newcastle" of the colony, on the southern bank of Grey River, which separates the provincial districts of Westland and Nelson. The inland country is auriferous, agricultural, and rich in coal, which is extensively mined, and shipped at the harbour, now much improved, with 18 feet depth at high-water and 10 feet at low-tide; a breakwater well protects the shipping from westerly gales. This busy place has a population of about 4000, with twice that number in the neighbourhood. A trip for 14 miles by tramway to the gold-mining township of Kumara affords the traveller a novel experience in being whirled through mid-air across the rapid, turbid stream of the Teremakau, by a cage suspended from two wire-ropes, and propelled by steam-power. To the south again, on the coast, lies *Hokitika*, a town of 3500 inhabitants, in an agricultural and gold-mining district. It is a prosperous place, with breweries, tannery, saw-mills, and sash-and-door factories. Inland, on the way across the island to Christchurch, scenery of great wildness and sublimity includes the famous Otira Gorge, where the coach-road reaches a height of 3000 feet above sea-level, descending rapidly on each side, cut out of solid rock, or carried by embankments across deep ravines, with a series of zigzags, through a region rich in all the grandeur and beauty that belong to a succession, on a great scale, of forests, lakes, cataracts, and mountains; deep lonely ravines walled by precipitous cliffs; snow-clad summits; a combination of effects, in short, not to be surpassed in any part of the world. The finest cascade in this wonderful pass is supplied with water from a lake lying 3000 feet above sea-level, and comes dashing down for 500 feet amongst huge trees coated with moss, and hung with ferns, and wreathed with creepers. At this point, however, we must furl sail, or draw rein, or shut off steam, as we career around and through this magnificent country of the

southern seas. Only a series of illustrated guide-books could give any approach to an adequate idea of what we shall briefly notice before we conclude this part of our work with some account of the chief towns of South Island.

The Southern Alps extend for about 200 miles along the west side of the central part of South Island, throwing out many spurs and minor ranges towards the south, with others stretching right down to the ocean on the north-west. Near the centre of this grand chain, about midway between the 43rd and 44th parallels of south latitude, the greatest elevation, not only of the Southern Alps, but of all New Zealand, is found in the stupendous mass of Mount Cook, 12,349 feet in height, justly called, in the Maori tongue, Aorangi, or the cloud-piercer. The other chief heights include Mounts Stokes (united with Mount Cook by a steep *col* above 7000 feet in elevation), Tasman, Tyndall, Darwin, Sefton, and Hochstetter, most of which exceed 10,000 feet. Two miles above the southern foot of Mount Cook, the great Tasman Glacier, the largest in New Zealand, and twice as large as any in Switzerland, gives rise to the Tasman River, running perfectly straight for 22 miles to Lake Pukaki. This region of lofty snow-clad mountains presents the utmost beauty and sublimity of scenery, with many sensational occurrences for climbers in avalanches and falls of ice. Mount Cook, in the sunset-glow, with its massive proportions and its sheeted splendour of ice, looks like an enormous illuminated crimson flower, beneath a sky of soft violet hue, toned away towards the zenith, with most delicate gradations, into bands of orange, red, and primrose-yellow. Among the other great ice-streams, not rivalling the Tasman for size in its 18 miles of length and nearly two of breadth, even at its terminal face, the Hochstetter Glacier is surpassingly grand, as it pours down from the hollow or basin between Mounts Tasman and Cook, a cascade of ice 4000 feet high. The view from any of the higher summits is beyond description in its glorious expansiveness, as the finest part of New Zealand is surveyed from sea to sea, and the great mountain-chain stretches away to north-east and south-west.

Among the northern lakes of the long southward string on the east of the Southern Alps, Lake Tekapo lies nearly 2500 feet above sea-level, and is about 15 miles long by 3 in breadth; it is formed by the Godley and Cass Rivers flowing in from the north

and north-west. The waters are of a dirty milky hue, owing to their shallowness and to the strong currents which prevent the suspended particles of matter from settling. About 25 miles to the south-west of Tekapo lies Lake Pukaki, 10 miles long and 4 broad, at 1746 feet above the sea. It is very picturesque in its surroundings, and commands from its shores, towards its sources in the glaciers of Mount Cook, a view equal in beauty and majesty to any that is known. Fed by the Tasman River, it is drained by the Pukaki, one of the affluents of the Waitaki. Nearly 20 miles south-west again we come to Lake Ohau, 12 miles long, with a breadth of 2½, nearly surrounded by "bush", and with much clearer water than the two just described.

We now come to the beautiful country of the Otago Lakes. In the south-western group, Lake Manapouri, with an area of about 50 square miles, is everywhere cut up into bays and arms, surrounded by mountains on all save its east side, where, in a clear half-mile of space, the Waiau river issues from its bosom. The mountains sweep round in an amphitheatre, receding from the water's edge in beautifully-wooded terraces, ridged with snow at the top, and varying in height from 4000 to nearly 8000 feet. Te Anau, a few miles away, is the largest lake in South Island, measuring about 38 miles in length, and varying in breadth from 1 to 6, with an area of 132 square miles. On the eastern side, there are nearly 30 miles of shingly and scrubby flat; elsewhere its waters are surrounded by densely-wooded mountains on which the bright green of forest is crowned with gleaming snow. Lake Wakatipu, 52 miles long, and from 1 to 3 in breadth, with something like the shape of the letter S, lies at over 1000 feet above sea-level, with an area of 114 square miles, and a depth of 1200 feet. The stately mountains around the southern half of its waters include the Remarkables, whose highest peak, called Double Cone, attains 7688 feet. This lake is described by those who are well acquainted both with Switzerland and New Zealand as surpassing every sheet of water in Europe for beauty, save only the Lake of Lucerne. It is on the northern half that the scenery attains its utmost grandeur in huge walls of rock that on all sides rise to altitudes ranging from 5000 to 10,000 feet. There are seven peaks exceeding 8000 feet in height, all crowned with never-melting snow, as in this region the snow-line lies only just above 7000 feet.

The forest-line reaches about half that distance above sea-level. At the head of the lake, in the rear of other stupendous heights, Mount Earnslaw raises its white gleaming summit to 9165 feet, its sides partly clothed with fine forests of birch, and with a great glacier giving rise to a torrent-river. Two miles from the base of Mount Earnslaw are the three fine Lennox Falls, ranging in height from 100 to 300 feet, and from 15 to 40 feet in width. Lake Wanaka is held to be, in some respects, the most fascinating of all these beautiful expanses. The trip by steamer round its shores gives the tourist a view of about thirty named and measured peaks from 4000 to nearly 10,000 feet in height, with very many more that are left without designation or measurement. The chief of the known heights is Mount Aspiring, 9940 feet. Hawea, the smallest of these lakes, is about 15 miles long and 3 in breadth, lying at 1062 feet above the sea, with a general depth varying from 900 to nearly 1300 feet.

The chief glory of New Zealand scenery, to the taste of many visitors, is found on the western coast of Otago provincial district, in the series of inlets or fiords known as the West Coast Sounds. In that quarter, for a distance of over 100 miles, mountains of stupendous height, thickly clad with foliage of bright green, carry their fronts right out into the ocean-depths, like a chain of half-submerged Himalayas. There are thirteen of these fiords, penetrating for distances varying from 6 to 20 miles. They all resemble each other in their main features. Steaming or sailing northwards from Windsor Point, at the south-western extremity of South Island, the voyager observes nothing on his right hand but lofty and precipitous walls of rock, at the foot of which the rolling waves from the Southern Ocean dash and break in foam. Suddenly the ship's head is turned landwards, and when, as it appears, the vessel is about to strike against the formidable cliffs, a cleft is seen through which it is safely steered, and a passage is found to run into the land, widening out to a breadth of about a mile. The scenery is beyond all power of description in its mingling of majesty and loveliness. These land-locked lakes slumber in absolute stillness, their bosoms jewelled with woody islets, while the mountains tower up in peaks and crags and chasms, covered with foliage except where the rock is too hard and smooth for even a fern to secure a hold. Streams are ever coursing down the sides of these huge elevations, at some

places in dashing torrents; in others, as cascades plunging down into a fearful abyss; while others, again, steal towards the sea like silver threads. The profuse vegetation shows two zones united in the beauty of semi-tropical flora lying near to everlasting snow. Beginning on the south, we find Preservation Inlet running inland for 22 miles. Chalky or Dark Cloud Inlet has two arms, 5 and 6 miles in length. Dusky Sound, discovered and named by Cook, is 22 miles long, and abounds in coves. Passing by Breaksea, Daggs, Doubtful, Thompson, Nancy, and Charles Sounds, we come to Caswell Sound, 10 miles long, with several coves, and having on its shore mountains varying from 4000 to 5500 feet in height. George Sound, 12 miles long, shows peaks of 5000 and 6000 feet. Milford Sound, the most northerly of all, is the most impressively grand of all these sublime and beautiful scenes, and may be regarded as one of the chief wonders of the world. With the sole exception of Mount Cook, the mountains which surround this noblest of fiords are the loftiest on the whole coast. When the fine vessel of the Union Steamship Company which makes several summer excursions to this region of South Island is almost close to the portals, no break, as already stated, can be detected in the iron-bound coast. Then appears a narrow entrance, and the voyager passes in between cliffs which rise nearly perpendicular from the water's edge in a wall of rock several thousand feet in height. On one side, Mitre Peak, 3560 feet, and on the other, Pembroke Peak, 6710, stand forward as if to warn off intruders. The spectacle, after traversing the funnel-shaped entrance, but a quarter of a mile in width at the narrowest point, is overpowering in its presentation of stupendous mountains, their waists girdled with fleecy zones of cloud, their lower parts swathed in forests of perennial green, with splendid waterfalls foaming down their mighty flanks. These cascades, which would, amidst ordinary hill-scenery, have a grand effect, are dwarfed by the immense proportions of what lies around, but give additional charm to the foliage and rock. The Stirling Fall sends its waters over the scarped side of a mountain in diverse streams which at last unite for a leap in mass through 400 feet to the surface of the sea, which flings them back in foam and spray. From one of the lower ridges of the Barren Range, rising to above 5000 feet, the Bowen Falls, the loveliest in all this marvellous region, spring clear from a rocky ledge. The stream first hits a craggy

projection 70 feet down, and then plunges sheer in one broad sheet for 470 feet into the brine below. Amongst the mountains near Milford Sound is Tutoko, 9042 feet in height, and, about 12 miles inland, on the route to Te Anau Lake—a journey now made easier by the clearing of tracks, and the building of foot-bridges, and of huts for tourists to rest—the Sutherland Falls, with their 1904 feet of descent, are the highest in the world.

Christchurch, capital of the provincial district of Canterbury, with a population of about 17,000, or, including the suburbs, nearly 52,000, lies in a plain near the east coast of South Island, on Pegasus Bay. The city has a thoroughly English look in its surroundings of country lanes with hedgerows, neat cottages in garden-plots, and cultivated farms, and in its interior marked by many old-country churches and schools. Belted with trees in all its limits, the place, above a mile square in area, has nearly all its streets laid out at right angles to, or parallel with, each other, the buildings being arranged in rectilinear blocks of equal area and uniform design. The only break in this regularity of plan occurs at the large open space in the centre called Cathedral Square, diagonally crossed by High Street. The shallow pellucid river Avon meanders smoothly through the city between low banks fringed with weeping willows and united here and there by picturesque bridges. Christchurch, which, as we saw above, was started as a settlement of the Anglican Church, retains some traces of exclusiveness in its social tone, but has in great part succumbed to the power of colonial democratic feeling. The origin of the city is indicated by the names of streets derived from various home and colonial sees—Hereford and Durham, Gloucester and St. Alban's, Tuam and Armagh, Montreal and Madras, and many more. These broad, well-paved thoroughfares, planted with trees, have steam-trams to convey the traveller to his destination when he arrives at the handsomest railway-station in New Zealand. The Cathedral, with a tower 210 feet high, is the finest ecclesiastical structure in the colony, copied from that of Caen, in Normandy. The scholastic edifices are numerous, good, and well-endowed, including Canterbury College, the Anglican Christ's College, High Schools for boys and girls, and a School of Arts; 13 miles away to the south, at Lincoln, we find an Agricultural College, with a farm of 600 acres, and a large staff of lecturers. The Museum has an excellent technological department illustrating

metallurgy, pottery, and many other industries. Public recreation is provided for in the Botanic Gardens; the Government Domain of 80 acres, almost surrounded by the Avon; and Hagley Park, a reserve of 400 acres, encircled by English trees and Californian pines, and having 10 miles' length of shady walks, and a good cricket-ground. The amusements of the citizens include angling in the river for splendid trout. Cricket and football are specially cared for in Leicester Park, an area of 11 acres. The Canterbury Jockey Club has a fine race-course at Riccarton, 10 miles distant by rail. Christchurch is at its gayest during the summer "Carnival Week" in November, when three days are devoted to the "turf", and two to the yearly show of the Agricultural and Pastoral Association. There are several theatres and public halls. The industrial establishments of this flourishing town comprise flour-mills, breweries, foundries, tanneries, factories for tillage-implements, boots, carpets, carriages, brass and copper ware, pottery, biscuits, pickles, sauces, and fruit-preserves. At *Kaiapoi*, 14 miles away, are glass-works, and a woollen-cloth factory employing about 500 people, and producing tweeds, blankets, rugs, shawls, and hosiery of the highest quality, specimens of which won a gold medal at the Sydney Centennial Exhibition of 1888. One of the engineering establishments in Christchurch turned out the first ten locomotives constructed in the colony. The place takes the lead in New Zealand in all trade connected with grain and wool, and it was here that the famous New Zealand Shipping Company had its rise. *Sumner* and *New Brighton* are popular and pleasant sea-side resorts. *Lyttelton*, the port of Christchurch, and the outlet for the wheat and wool of the rich Canterbury Plains, is 8 miles distant by railway, one of costly and difficult construction owing to the necessity of tunnelling through a mile and a half of volcanic rock. The town, with a population of 5000, lies on the north-west side of Banks Peninsula, on a contracted area of fairly-level land below a horse-shoe range of bleak, sombre, lofty hills descending on each side with a steep slope to the water's edge. There is abundance of wharfage and storing-sheds on the sea-front, with railway-lines running alongside the ships. The harbour of 107 acres, having water from 19 to 25 feet deep at low tide, is well protected by two breakwaters, measuring in all 3400 feet in length, and constructed at a cost exceeding half a million sterling. A fine graving-dock,

a patent slip, and electric-lighting on the wharves, complete the accommodation provided for commerce.

Timaru, on the coast about 70 miles south-west of Banks Peninsula, is of some importance as the outlet of a large and fertile district, and the second town of Canterbury province, with about 4000 people. The place is solidly built of dark-blue stone quarried near at hand, and has a port formed by a massive breakwater costing about £200,000, and extending for over 2000 feet. There are the usual public and commercial buildings, with factories for various articles, including woollen goods, agricultural implements, and barbed wire for fencing. *Oamaru*, on the coast about 50 miles further south, has about 7000 inhabitants, and is splendidly built of a fine white limestone abounding in the vicinity, and of quality so good as to be exported to other parts of New Zealand, and even to the Australian colonies. The place has a large trade in agricultural produce. Originally having a dangerous open roadstead, Oamaru has now been provided, by skill and enterprise such as those displayed at Timaru, with a safe and convenient port formed by a breakwater and a mole with a total length of 3600 feet, inclosing a water-space of 60 acres. Vessels drawing 24 feet of water can be berthed alongside the wharves, to which a railway brings the trucks. This busy, flourishing, and progressive town has some stately structures, among which we may name St. Columba's Presbyterian Church; all the usual adjuncts of urban life exist, and there are works for woollen and meat-freezing. *Dunedin*, the second place in New Zealand for size and population, with about 23,000 inhabitants in the town, or over 47,000 with the suburbs, is the chief city of South Island, and capital of Otago provincial district. It is situated at the head, or south-western end, of Otago Harbour, an inlet 15 miles in depth on the south-east coast. We have seen that it was founded in 1848 by an association of members of the Free Church of Scotland. These enterprising settlers intended to call the place "New Edinburgh", but a happy suggestion of Dr. William Chambers changed this designation for the old Celtic name of the capital of Scotland. A great impetus to its progress was given in 1861, when the discovery of extensive gold-fields in the neighbourhood brought a great influx of miners, notably from Victoria. Dunedin is, in architecture, the finest place in New Zealand. The front displays

long lines of noble thoroughfares stretching over land that has been won from the sea; the rest of the town is built in tiers of terraces rising upwards over steep heights. The Scottish origin of the city is brought to the remembrance of visitors by the stately First Presbyterian Church, built of the white Oamaru stone. This charming town, bearing some physical resemblance to Edinburgh in its situation on hilly ground by an arm of the sea, is still more like that famous capital in the high esteem in which culture and learning are held. One of the finest edifices is the Boys' High School, and both primary and higher education have been provided for with a lavish hand. The Museum is rich in natural history specimens, and is crowded on Sunday afternoons with visitors of all sorts and conditions. The Botanical and Acclimatization Gardens are beautifully laid out in flower-beds, lawns, shady walks, and ponds adorned by snow-white swans. The Domain is largely composed of primitive bush, affording rough hilly walking for athletic persons. The Knox Presbyterian Church, with a lofty tower and spire, is another fine ecclesiastical building. Many other imposing structures are devoted to purposes of every kind connected with business, education, philanthropy, and pleasure. The Dunedin Jockey Club, at the Forbury Course, provides for the horse-racing which is a passion with New Zealanders. The Ocean Beach is a grand promenade. The Town Belt, a broad zone of timber along the slopes of the hills above the city, is a beautiful "reserve" of 560 acres, dividing Dunedin proper from the suburban towns on the crest of the heights. The well-paved streets are lit with gas, and ample methods of communication exist in omnibuses, cabs, and horse and cable tramways. The industries of the city and neighbourhood in metal goods are important, and great smoke-stacks show the existence of works for paper-making, fruit and meat preserving, brewing, tanning, and numerous other manufactures. The expenditure of about £700,000 in dredging and other harbour-improvements now enables ships drawing 18 feet of water to reach the wharves, and the new Victoria Channel from Port Chalmers has 22 feet. The commercial rank of Dunedin, which is the head-quarters of the Union Steamship Company, is among the foremost in the colony. *Port Chalmers*, the outer port of Dunedin, is a substantial little town, 9 miles nearer the sea, on the northern shore of Otago Harbour. A deep narrow

channel leads up to the wharves from the sea-entrance at Taiaroa Head, a bold promontory with a fixed dioptric light visible for 20 miles. The place is solidly built of bluish stone quarried in the vicinity, and has an excellent graving-dock and a floating-dock, with wharfage for many large vessels. The number of inhabitants is about 3000.

Invercargill, the most southerly town in Australasia, having about 10,000 people in itself and suburbs, stands on an estuary 140 miles, by railway, south-west of Dunedin, at about the centre of the southern coast of South Island. The place is laid out on a very large scale, with the widest streets in the colony, planted with trees, and containing many handsome stone buildings, suitable for what was intended, as it seems, to be the capital of New Zealand. The town and neighbourhood are very busy, having many saw-mills, with breweries, steam flour-mills, foundries, boot and shoe factories, and other scenes of industry. Large meat-freezing works are found at the mouth of the estuary, New River Harbour. We conclude with a brief account of a little inland place—*Queenstown*, situated on the bend of beautiful Lake Wakatipu, half-way between Kingston, at the southern end, and the head of the lake. This picturesque town of about 1000 people, surrounded at the back and on the sides by sombre lofty mountains, is a good centre for excursions to Mount Bowen, Ben Lomond, and other peaks, and to lakes, gorges, and cascades among the high ground of this romantic region.

Stewart (or *Stewart's*) *Island*, named in remembrance of the captain of a whaling-vessel, by whom its insularity was proved in 1816, is the most southerly of the New Zealand group. A very irregular triangle in shape, with deeply indented coasts, the island is about 40 miles long, with an area of 650 square miles. The surface is uneven, with two mountains estimated at 2100 and 3200 feet in height. The forests abound with valuable timber; no mineral wealth has yet been found; the coast-waters have plentiful fish, and the oysters are highly esteemed in the New Zealand markets. The population, about 1000 in number, chiefly consists of half-castes, with a few Europeans.

The population of the colony, as estimated at the end of 1896, was about 714,000, made up of 377,000 males and 337,170 females. The above estimate does not include about 40,000 Maoris, a

number comprising over 3500 half-castes, living as members of Maori tribes, and about 230 Maori wives of European husbands. According to the triennial census of April, 1896, over 98 per cent of the inhabitants of New Zealand, excluding Maoris, were British-born subjects, and of these nearly 63 per cent were born in New Zealand, and about 215,000, or nearly 31 per cent, were natives of the United Kingdom, viz. 116,500 of England, 50,500 of Scotland, 46,000 of Ireland, and 2148 of Wales. The country is now divided into nine Provincial Districts, of which four—Auckland, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, and Wellington—compose North Island; while five—Canterbury, Marlborough, Nelson, Otago, and Westland—make up South Island. Of these divisions, the largest and most populous are Auckland (25,740 square miles, and 153,560 people in 1896); Wellington (11,000 square miles, and 121,854 people); Nelson (10,270 square miles, and 35,734 people); Canterbury (14,000 square miles, 136,000 people); and Otago (25,480 square miles, 164,000 people). In 1896, the population of North Island was 340,630 against 362,500 on South and Stewart's Islands. We may remark that in 1896, of about 24,000 foreign subjects, over 3700 were Chinese, of whom only 26 were females. It is also to be noticed, as a matter that should be gratifying to those who desire the welfare of their fellow-subjects, that in April, 1896, there were 391,735 people living in the rural districts, against 307,294 inhabitants of boroughs. In the same year, England and Wales had nearly 62 per cent of the population dwelling in towns of above 10,000 inhabitants. In 1898, the excess of births over deaths was 11,711; the birth-rate being 25·74 per 1000 persons living, and the death-rate only 9·84 per 1000. In the same year, the excess of immigration over emigration was about 2690, the figures being respectively 18,855 and 16,159. The above statistics point, with a steady and unerring finger, to a prosperous condition of affairs in New Zealand.

The religious system knows nothing of a "State Church"; all denominations are upon an equal footing in the eye of the law, free from all state interference or control, unsupported by aught save grants from societies in Great Britain, or land-endowments in the colony, or voluntary contributions. In 1896, over 40 per cent of the people (exclusive of Maoris) were professed adherents of the Anglican Church, subject to the spiritual control of six bishops—

Christchurch, Waiapu, Auckland, Wellington, Nelson, and Dunedin. The primacy is vested in the Bishop of Wellington, who, like the Australian primate, takes an oath of allegiance to the Archbishop of Canterbury. The Roman Catholics, subject to four prelates, including the Archbishop of Wellington, numbered over 98,800, or 14·07 per cent of the population. The Presbyterians exceeded 22·7 per cent; the Methodists were a little more than one-tenth of the whole number. Baptists and other Christian sects, with a few hundreds of Jews, about 3390 Pagans, and nearly 16,000 who declined to make any statement as to religious belief, made up the other 15 per cent.

Education, secular at all institutions, free and compulsory for the primary schools, is in a complete and efficient state. For elementary instruction the whole country is divided into thirteen districts, each with its Education Board; there are about 1250 School Committees, and the whole system is controlled by an Education Department, under a special Minister. A sum of £3, 15*s.* is annually paid, according to statute, to each Education Board, for every average attendance; there are special votes (about £12,000 a year) for scholarships and inspection; with further special votes for school-buildings. In addition to over 1620 public primary schools, with 3660 teachers, and an average attendance of 108,000 pupils, there are now 80 native village schools, with an average attendance exceeding 2280; the whole government expenditure on the education of natives, in 1899, was £22,590. Secondary instruction is provided for in the numerous high schools, grammar-schools, and "colleges", established at the principal towns, and undertaking to give an education preparing students for matriculation or for a professional special course. At the end of 1898, there were 20 incorporated or endowed secondary schools, with a total income of £58,000—a larger half from endowments, and the rest from fees. The University of New Zealand, an examining body, granting degrees under a royal charter, receives a yearly grant of £3000, and awards scholarships to be held by students at Otago University College in Dunedin; Canterbury College at Christchurch; and University College, Auckland. In the year 1898–99, the whole state-expenditure upon education of all kinds exceeded £518,600, including above £14,400 for industrial schools, and grants to two normal schools, a medical school, a

school of mines, one of agriculture, and four schools of art. About 290 private schools, with about 780 teachers, and over 14,780 pupils are the last figures needed on this important subject; save the significant existence of about 300 public libraries, mechanics' institutes, and other literary and scientific institutions, having over 17,600 members, and over 409,000 volumes. Justice is administered at a Supreme Court (with five judges), at four district-courts, and by about 30 resident magistrates, with many "justices of the peace". The police-force is made up of about 540 officers and men; at the end of 1898, there were 595 prisoners in the 10 chief and 21 minor jails.

We have already seen that the chief industries are in agriculture, pasturage, mining, and manufactures. Mining products have been given above; the nature of the manufactures, chiefly concerned with the supply of home-needs, has been indicated in the account of the towns. We may add that the abundance of timber has caused the building, in New Zealand ship-yards, not only of most vessels engaged in the coasting-trade of the colony, but of many others trading in the South Pacific; and that many steamships, some constructed of iron, have been launched with engines of colonial make. The importance, on the whole, of New Zealand manufactures is proved by the facts that, in 1895, over 27,380 "hands" were employed in about 2460 factories, with products of the estimated annual value of over 9½ millions sterling. The meat-freezing trade, and the dairy-work of Australasia will be alluded to in a subsequent chapter: we observe that, in the estimated value of manufactures for 1895, tanning, wool-scouring, and the like, are given as exceeding a value of £1,237,000; the product of grain-mills at over £874,000; of saw-mills, at £898,800; of clothing and boot factories, at over £616,000; and of iron and brass works, at £302,800.

It is estimated that two-thirds of the surface of New Zealand consists of ground suitable for pastoral and agricultural occupation. The whole area being 67 millions of acres, there are 9 millions composed of barren mountain-tops, lakes, and territory worthless to the farmer and grazier, however valuable to the lover of nature in her more romantic forms. Up to the end of 1899, 26,302,000 acres of land had been granted and sold for somewhat more than 15¼ millions sterling. Of 17 million acres of crown-lands

remaining for disposal, there were 5 million acres under forest, and 10 million acres of open grass or fern country. The total area under crop in 1899 was about 12 million acres, including 10,244,740 acres of sown grasses. There were, in the year 1898, 399,000 acres (against 381,000 in 1892) of wheat, producing 13,073,000 bushels; 45,670 acres of barley, giving 1,678,000 bushels; 417,320 acres under oats, with a yield of 16,511,000 bushels; 18,600 acres of maize, with 813,000 bushels; 38,600 acres of potatoes, supplying 240,000 tons; of the vine this colony has no commercial samples; the hay-crop for 1896 amounted to 140,837 tons, yielded by 96,800 acres, or an average of nearly 1½ tons per acre. The distribution of the land is a matter of great importance, as concerns the number of holders in freehold and leasehold, or by yearly tenancy. We first observe, from the census of 1899, that, among 83,300 persons engaged in tillage and pasturage, there were 31,204 farmers, 16,473 relatives assisting on farms, 20,236 farm-labourers, 1638 "runholders", or sheep farmers on a large scale, and 6742 station-hands. It thus appears that much above one-third of the whole number had a direct hold of the land, and were thus interested, in the highest degree, in the development of the resources of the country. The democratic condition of affairs in this highly-favoured colony is amply proved by the following figures, from the census of 1897, which exclude lands (to the amount of nearly 12½ million acres) rented from the Crown for pastoral purposes. The total area of occupied holdings over one acre was 33,312,212 acres. Deducting about 7 million acres leased from private individuals or corporations, in addition to the above 12½ million acres leased from the Crown, we have nearly 14 million acres held as the occupiers' freeholds. The next series of facts reveals a prime source of the prosperity of New Zealand. In these 14 (really 13,810,240) million acres of freehold, in 43,777 holdings, there were 11,116 little farms of 1 to 10 acres, inclusive; 8900 holdings from 10 to 50 acres; 5613 from 50 to 100 acres; 6850 from 100 to 200; nearly 4000 holdings of between 200 and 320 acres; 3800 between 320 and 640 acres; 1320 from 640 to 1000; 1675 from 1000 to 5000 acres; 247 holdings from 5000 to 10,000; and only 337 holdings exceeding 10,000 acres. It is clear that, with a fair supply of large capitalists, the small freeholders, the yeomen who, in past times, were a very valuable element in

Great Britain, have ample scope in this splendid colonial possession. We pass on to notice the live stock belonging to these happy land-owners, tenants, and flockmasters. In 1899, there were 258,000 horses returned in the census-papers; many of these, of course, were owned by others than tillers or graziers. The horned cattle, exclusive of those possessed by Maoris, exceeded 1,118,000 in December, 1896. The sheep, in 1899, exceeded 19½ millions; of pigs, there were 193,000.

The total exports, in 1898, including £1,080,691 in gold and silver bullion and specie, had the value of over 10½ millions sterling, the chief other items being, over 4½ millions in wool; £1,698,000 in frozen meat; £587,000 in kauri gum; £142,000 in wheat, oats, and flour; £74,000 in Phormium (New Zealand "flax"); £539,466 in butter and cheese; £302,000 in tallow; £427,256 in hides, skins of various kinds, and leather. Of this trade, so enormous for so young a colony, the exports to Great Britain had a value exceeding 8¼ millions sterling, chiefly in wool, mutton, wheat, and kauri gum. Nearly all the rest of the exports (except the value of about £623,000 to the United States) were sent to the Australian colonies. The whole imports for 1898 (including £19,000 in bullion and specie) were worth over 8 millions, chiefly in clothing and materials for clothing (cotton, woollen, linen, and silk), worth in all nearly 2 millions sterling; iron, steel, and other metal goods, including machinery, railway materials, implements, and wire-fencing, 1½ millions; spirits, wine, ale and beer, £273,000; books and stationery, including paper for printing and wrapping, £342,000; £105,000 worth of coals; £425,000 in sugar; £183,000 for tea; £161,000 for tobacco, including cigars and snuff; £162,000 for oils, and £181,000 for fruit. Of the whole imports, the value of nearly 5¼ millions came from the British Isles, chiefly in cottons, apparel and haberdashery, woollens, and iron, wrought and unwrought. Nearly all the other imports came from Australia and the Pacific Islands (together 1½ million), the United States (about £800,000), and India, China, and Mauritius (£350,000). Of the whole trade in imports and exports in 1898, the value of over 13½ millions sterling, or above two-thirds of the total, was conducted at Auckland, Wellington, Lyttelton, and Dunedin, in almost equal shares, except Dunedin (only 2½ millions). The number of vessels entered and cleared at the various ports in 1898

had a tonnage of 1,531,048, of which 1,398,148 tons were British. At the same time, the registered vessels of the colony, engaged in both foreign and coasting trade, were 317 sailing-ships (39,793 tons), and 201 steamers (86,320 tons).

In spite of the difficulty and expense arising from the mountainous nature of the country, and the lack of natural passes, New Zealand is now well provided with good roads, on which a large and efficient coaching-system is conducted. In 1899, there were open for traffic 2090 miles of government-railways, 829 in North Island, and 1261 in South (often called "Middle") Island. Above 17¼ millions sterling had been expended on these lines, connecting many of the coast-towns, and with main roads or branches to some interior places of business and pleasure. There were also 167 miles of private lines; the uniform gauge is 3½ feet. All chief towns have tramways worked by horses, cables, or steam-motors. The telegraph-system, entirely in the hands of the Government, comprises 6736 miles of line, with about 18,746 miles of wire; the telephone is in general use, with about 3200 miles of wire, 6200 subscribers, and a revenue of £145,000 a-year; this system is in charge of the Telegraph Department. Three submarine cables connect North and South Islands, and the line to Sydney gives access to the whole civilized world. There is regular mail-communication with the British Isles by five routes, direct or via San Francisco, Brindisi, Naples, and Marseilles, conducted by steamers of the P. and O., Orient, Cunard, New Zealand Shipping, Oceanic Steamship, Union Steamship, and other lines. Within a town there is penny-postage for half-ounce letters; the charge is 2*d.* within Australasia; 2½*d.* with the Postal Union countries, now including most of the civilized nations.

The government of New Zealand is vested in a Crown-appointed Governor and a "General Assembly" consisting of two Chambers—the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives. The 48 Councillors, appointed by the Governor, are members for life in the case of those nominated before September, 1891; others hold their seats only for seven years, but are eligible for reappointment. The House of Representatives, composed of 74 members, including 4 Maoris, is of a very democratic constitution. Any elector may become a member, and the qualification for electors, a body including females since 1893, is, in the case of

European representation, residence in the colony for one year, and in the electoral district for three months immediately prior to registration, applicable to all Europeans who are 21 years of age and upwards. The former property qualification, except in the case of existing registrations, was abolished by Act in 1896. Under this system of universal manhood (and womanhood) suffrage, there were, at the general election in 1896, over 339,000 voters on the electoral rolls, or a proportion of one elector to every 2·1 persons in the colony. Maoris possessing a £25 freehold under Crown title, or enrolled as rate-payers, may also vote for European members. For Maori representation every adult Maori resident in the district may vote, and no registration is required. The representatives are chosen for three years, and are paid at the rate of £240 per annum. It is especially important to observe, that designing and selfish plutocrats are in New Zealand foiled by the regulation that no elector may vote in respect of more than one constituency at any election. The Executive Council, or responsible Ministry, usually consisting of 7 members, includes officials who pay special attention to public works, marine affairs, and "Printing Office" (in conjunction); to education and charity; lands and immigration, agriculture and forests; postal and telegraph affairs, along with industries and commerce; justice and mines; and one member in charge of stamps and native affairs. For purposes of local government the colony is divided into 93 boroughs or municipalities and 78 counties; the latter being subdivided into 264 road-districts and 50 town-districts. All rate-payers, including women, can vote for members of local bodies. The county-councils, with power to levy rates, are elected for three years; the elective boards of road-districts have charge of all highways, bridges, and ferries. The town-district boards are for the discharge of public business in places not created boroughs, with municipal bodies on the English system. There are also harbour-boards and river-boards, the latter for the conservation of river-banks and the prevention of floods. The organization of matters for the public good is completed by "Central and Local Boards of Health", the former at Wellington, appointed by the Governor. The thrift of New Zealanders is shown by the steady increase in the business of the Post-Office and of private savings-banks. In 1899, there were 416 of these institutions, with over 199,000 depositors, having

£5,746,887 at their disposal; eleven years previously (1888), there were 103,000 depositors, with £2,692,000 to their credit.

In 1899, the public revenue was £4,930,129, largely derived from a land-tax of one penny in the pound on the actual value of land, subject to certain deductions and exemptions for improvements and mortgages; a graduated tax on land, rising from one-eighth of a penny in the pound on values from £5000 to £10,000 up to 1¾*d.* in the pound on estates worth £210,000 and upwards; and from customs-duties on nearly all classes of imports, varying from 15 to 25 per cent *ad valorem* on many articles, with heavy duties on beer, spirits, wine, and tobacco, viz. 3*s.* per dozen quarts on beer and ale, 15*s.* per gallon (proof) on spirits, 9*s.* per gallon on sparkling wines, 5*s.* per gallon on Australian, and 6*s.* on other wines; 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb. on unmanufactured tobacco, 3*s.* 6*d.* per lb. on all other save cigars, on which the charge is 7*s.* per lb. The free-of-duty articles are of considerable significance, with one item which readers who are fathers or mothers will regard as an oasis in the dreary desert of a tariff. The goods which pay no charges at New Zealand custom-houses are sewing-cotton; cotton-yarn and jute for carpet-making; yarn of flax or hemp; cheap shirtings and other cheap cotton-goods; corn-packs and gunny-bags; iron in pigs, bars, rods, plates, sheets, and hoops; children's boots and shoes up to articles suited for little ones under 3 years of age (for larger sizes the duty is 20 per cent *ad val.*); coals; rock-salt; butter; paper for printing and writing, and — books. The customs-duties produce nearly 2 millions sterling; the rest of the revenue is mainly obtained from railways, about 1½ millions (gross); and stamps, post, and telegraphs, £780,000. The expenditure for 1899 reached £4,858,511, chiefly devoted to interest and sinking-fund (£1,767,468) of public debt; railways, £968,917; education, £475,218; postal and telegraph services, £388,546; defence and constabulary, £234,000. A good surplus is generally found at the end of the financial year. We may mention that the total expenditure on public works from 1870 (a year for which we refer to the historical account) to March 31st, 1899, nearly approached 32 millions sterling. The public debt, at the above date, amounted to a little less than 47 millions, or an average of over £61, 14*s.* per head of population; we may compare this with the total net liabilities of the United Kingdom at same date, amounting to about 627½

millions, or about £15, 13*s.* per head of population. According to an assessment made on March 31st, 1898, the total value of real property in the colony was nearly 124½ millions sterling.

To sum up—New Zealand occupies a very high place among British colonies. The people, with less than sixty years of history behind them, regard with a just and patriotic pride the religious, moral, educational, social, and material condition of the magnificent land which it is given them to inhabit. In 1895, the Colonial Treasurer, Mr. J. G. Ward, addressing in London a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, stated the annual income of the population as over 27 millions, one half derived from farms and mines. Eighteen millions of money were on deposit in the colony; there were 1200 churches and chapels; 77 per cent of the people could read and write. In the consumption of alcoholic drink, New Zealand was only eleventh in the list, coming next to Switzerland. The wealth of the United Kingdom being £247 per head of the population, that of New Zealand is fairly estimated at £232 per head, second on the list of the whole world. Woman-suffrage has, so far, been found to work well in being exercised with independent judgment, and the presence of female voters at the polling-booths had a marked effect in maintaining order and propriety. The Arbitration Law, which gives statutory powers to a council of three to settle trade-disputes, sets a good example to the mother-country. One member is appointed by the trades-unions; one by the employers of labour; the third is nominated by the Governor and Council. A judge of the Supreme Court, appointed by the Governor, presides at the deliberations. The graduated taxation on land is specially designed to break up the large tracts of territory held in idleness. New Zealanders, believing that close settlement is essential to prosperity, tax land-speculators holding enormous areas merely in order to gamble for a rise in land-values, and so compel a salutary division of the soil. Among 94,000 land-holders in the colony, only 12,000 pay land-tax; most of the others pay under the income-tax system, which, it may be noted, exempts all produce of the land. The country is a toilers' paradise where the earth-grabber is kept at bay, and forced by legislation to sell, or to subdivide, or to improve his land so that it will produce what Nature intended it should, administering to the wants of the people, and placing the soil within the reach of those who desire to establish a home in the colony.

The poor, the working-man, and the struggling small farmer and mechanic are, as much as possible, relieved from the burden of taxation. The hours of labour are shortened to eight per day, and every constant worker has a half-holiday in every week, besides at least six full holidays in the year, under full pay, thus having more time for rest, recreation, and intellectual development than is enjoyed by his fellow-toilers in any part of the world. Government supervision provides for the admission of pure air and genial sunshine into the factory and workroom. There is a general diffusion of wealth; no great poverty, not one millionaire. In the words of the United States Consul at Auckland, already quoted in substance as above:—"The men who have inaugurated these honest Christian reforms are animated by a sincere desire to promote the universal welfare, to lend a helping hand to the weak and lowly". When we turn to the economic results of this highly democratic system we find that, while wages are lower than they were in 1877, the price of food has fallen to a greater extent. If a labourer's daily wage, from 7*s.* 6*d.*, has become 6*s.* 3*d.*, and an artisan's has fallen from 10*s.* 6*d.* to 8*s.* 3*d.*, he can now buy for under 2*s.* the same amount of food as formerly cost 3*s.* 3*d.* The working-man is king in this antipodean country. His well-dressed child, at the primary school, sits beside the children of his employer. The education is most intelligent and real. The boys and girls are not left to books and to "inner consciousness" to form ideas of a factory or a forest. They are taken to see them. Free periodical excursions by railway are organized for whole schools. The country-children who come to town are received by school-committees, and are by them conducted over museums, newspaper-offices, gas-works, and ocean-steamers, with clear explanations of what is there shown. A thousand children from a town are taken to behold a field of waving golden wheat reaped and bound. Scholarships are for the poorest labourer's son, if he be clever in languages, arts, or science; technical workshops, if he love mechanics; state-farms, if he has a turn for tillage or pastoral life. Built up with good food; provided with good clothes and a sound education; his health promoted by athletic games, the lad emerges from school to join his mates in the Friendly Societies, the Trade-Unions, the "Knights of Labour" of a working world; to make new friends in the handsome working-men's clubs, on cricket and football grounds, and at the

boating and yachting club balls. The old world terror of absolute penury is almost unknown. The labourer out of luck is not at the mercy of rich, bountiful, and idle persons, to degrade him by their so-called charity. If he be without employment, he makes his way to the Labour Bureau, and, if there be no room for him in any trade or job, he goes on the land, to the kauri gum-field, or to a "Bush Section", which Government will partially clear for him, or to the State saw-mill amid the ample forest. We conclude with a quotation from Mr. Edward Reeves' article in the *Westminster Review* for December, 1895, to which we are indebted for much of the foregoing account. It will, we fear, be a shock to the nerves of British upholders of demarcations between the divers ranks of society. "While I write these words, the fan and long gloves of our 'general servant' are lying on the kitchen dresser. She is an excellent servant, and the dresser is a very clean one. She is going out to-night in full evening costume to the W—— Boating Club Ball. This club is composed chiefly of young working-men. Her invitation comes through the captain, a well-known barrister, the secretary and treasurer, who will introduce to her plenty of partners—all in swallow-tail coats. I anticipate that her programme will be filled up at once. She will meet there, and may dance in the same set with, the daughters of the Premier of New Zealand, and other notable personages."

In connection with New Zealand, we here notice some groups and islands of the South Pacific, attached to the colony in the way of government or by geographical vicinity. The *Chatham Islands*, lying in about 44 degrees south latitude, and 177 degrees west longitude, at 360 miles east of the centre of New Zealand, to which they politically belong, were discovered in 1791 by Lieutenant Broughton, of the *Chatham* brig. The aborigines whom he found there were apparently of Papuan race, described by him as a mirthful people, dressed in sealskins or mats, the climate being colder than in any part of New Zealand. They called themselves "Morioris", and spoke a language allied to that of the Maoris. Between 1831 and 1841, these inhabitants, about 1200 in number, were almost exterminated by a body of 800 Maoris carried thither, in the former year, by a European ship. There are three chief islands, with a total area of 375 square miles. The largest, Chatham Island, is of irregular circular shape, and about 40 miles

long, with one deep indentation, Petre Bay, on the west coast, and many bights. Mostly consisting of volcanic rock, it rises in one peak to 800 feet above sea-level; the largest river is about 12 miles long; there are many small lakes in the northern part, and a salt-water lake, or lagoon, lies on the east coast, separated by sand-banks from the ocean. The flora and fauna are, in general, those of New Zealand, but there are many peculiar species of plants, including some fine flowering specimens, and at least five distinct sorts of land-birds. The climate is mild and moist, and the vegetation, without any large timber, is luxuriant in trees, shrubs, and ferns, while the *Phormium* of New Zealand flourishes in all parts of the group, the cordage made therefrom being used to bind together the wicker framework of the native canoes. The inhabitants, about 700 in number, are composed of several incongruous elements—a few families of Morioris, Maoris, some Europeans of various nationalities, Chinese, and half-breeds. These people, mainly given to seal-fishing and stock-farming, and possessing, in 1886, throughout the group, over 63,000 sheep and 670 cattle, supply whaling-vessels with fresh meat, and with wheat and potatoes. The chief settlement is at Waitangi, on Petre Bay. The two other islands, named Pitt and Rangatira, are much smaller than Chatham Island.

The *Auckland Islands*, about 200 miles south of Stewart Island (N. Z.), lie in about 50½ degrees of south latitude, and 166 degrees east longitude, and were annexed in 1886. The largest of the group, Auckland, is about 30 miles long by 15 wide, with an area of 330 square miles. The islands consist of basaltic rock with greenstone; some of the columns of basalt are 300 feet high, and are very magnetic. Liable to violent gales, the group has a bad record for wrecks, including the *Grafton* in 1864, the *Invercauld*, in the same year, the *General Grant*, and other ships. The New Zealand government therefore maintains a depôt of provisions and clothing for the use of mariners thrown ashore on Auckland. This island has a hilly surface, and Mount Eden exceeds 1300 feet in height. The rich soil, often covered with a thick, spongy deposit of peat, produces luxuriant vegetation, including trees of great height and girth, in the valleys which are sheltered from storms. The climate is mild, and healthy in spite of abundant moisture, and the many flowers are remarkable for

brilliancy of hue. Parrots, pigeons, and honey-sucking birds are found, and seals frequent the coast in large numbers. Sometimes visited by whaling-vessels, the Auckland group has no resident population. The *Kermadec Islands*, a volcanic group about 650 miles north-east of Auckland (N. Z.), in about 36 degrees south latitude, and 178½ degrees west longitude, were annexed in 1887. They consist, with a total area of 15 square miles, of four chief islands—Raoul or Sunday (7200 acres), Macaulay (756 acres), Curtis, and L'Espérance—with several islets. Sunday Island, about 12 miles in circumference, has a hill above 1600 feet in height. In 1878, a Mr. Bell settled there; in 1892 he and his family made up a population of eight, subject to the Government of New Zealand. *Campbell Island*, a lonely spot to the south of New Zealand, in 52½ degrees south latitude and 169 degrees east longitude, lies 160 miles south-east of the Auckland Isles. It is 36 miles in circumference, with an area of 85 square miles; there are hills attaining 1500 feet, and several good harbours. The vegetation is similar to that of the Aucklands, with less forest. Discovered in 1810, and used, in 1874, by French astronomers for the observation of the transit of Venus, the island, sometimes visited by whalers, has no settled population. Volcanic in formation, it possesses a rich and rare flora. *Macquarie Island* or *Land*, in 54½ degrees south latitude, and 159 degrees east longitude, is a grassy place about 20 miles long, visited by ships for its seals. The island has a peculiar species of parrot, found here, of the whole genus, farthest from the tropics. The *Bounty Islands*, with an area of 3300 acres, lie about 420 miles south-east of Port Chalmers, in New Zealand. *Antipodes Island*, with an area of 13,000 acres, lies about 460 miles south-east of Port Chalmers, being, as its name indicates, almost at the opposite extremity of the earth's diameter starting from Greenwich. This rocky islet, uninhabited, with smaller rocks around it, is situated in 49 degrees 48 minutes south latitude, and 178½ degrees east longitude. It rises to a height of above 1000 feet, and is surrounded by perpendicular cliffs from 200 to 600 feet high. The vegetation consists of long grass, fern, and scrub. It is sometimes visited by whaling-ships. We may observe that it is the exact antipodes of Barfleur, in Normandy, 60 miles south of the Isle of Wight.

CHAPTER XIII.

AUSTRALASIA.—*Continued.* MISCELLANEOUS MATTERS.

Introduction of foreign fauna—Pest of sparrows and rabbits—Value of the camel—Vast export of frozen meat and of live stock—Export trade in butter and cheese—Dairy-farming in New Zealand—Characteristics of our Australasian kinsmen—Their loyalty to the mother-country—Share in South African War—Australasian literature—Poetry—The drama—Works of fiction, &c.—History—Colenso and Aimé Murray—The newspaper press of Australasia—Painting and sculpture—Music—Men eminent in science—Popular amusements—The stage—Cricket and football—Hunting and horse-racing—Boating. Australasian trade—Australian Federation. Australasian and Imperial federation—Colonial defence—Naval and military forces.

In closing our account of the seven chief Australasian colonies, we notice first some remarkable instances of the beneficial and the injurious introduction of foreign fauna. Along with the extensive and agreeable acclimatization of many British singing birds, and of "feather and fur" for sporting purposes, the sparrow and the rabbit have become real pests to the agriculturist and stock-farmer. It was about 1850 that rabbits were first seen in Australia and Tasmania. Carefully protected in their earlier colonial career, they gradually spread all over Victoria, New South Wales, and the southern parts of South Australia and Queensland. Ever migrating further north, they consumed the grass and other vegetation to such an extent as to render large areas of territory useless for owners of sheep and horned cattle. No efforts at extirpation, no devices prompted by the offer of munificent Government rewards, have had complete success against this self-inflicted plague of the Australasian colonies, including New Zealand, where the little animals were introduced about 1860, and are now found abundantly in every district. Energetic trapping, poisoning, and hunting down with dogs, reduce the swarming numbers to some extent, and the use of wire-netting round the pools where the rabbits drink has been of service in causing thousands to die of thirst. In New South Wales alone, a sum exceeding £800,000 was expended on the destruction of rabbits between 1883, when the first Act dealing with the subject was passed, and August, 1890. Above 25¼ millions have been killed, and their skins paid for, in a single year. Under new conditions of life, the rabbits of Australasia are adding a taste for climbing trees to their previous propensity for burrowing. In the

A CAMEL-CARAVAN, WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

The camel, of course, is not indigenous to Australia, but was introduced in the expectation that in the desert tracts of that country it would be found as useful and would thrive as well as in its native regions. Camels were first used in Australia in the expedition of Burke and Wills, and have been imported from Arabia and India. Subsequent explorers have found that in its adaptability to the conditions of the country the camel is much superior to the horse and the bullock. When grass is scarce and no water is to be found, the latter animals become useless; but the camel can traverse waterless regions with ease, and the acacia and other scrubby growths of the interior form an excellent substitute for its Asiatic food. Camels are now employed not only by the sheep-farmers in bringing supplies and carrying goods to market, but also by the miners; and in some localities they are yoked in teams to wagons. It is a noteworthy fact that the camels bred in Australia are larger and stronger than those directly imported from India.



WAL. PAGET

A CAMEL-CARAVAN, WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

commercial aspect, rabbits have hair well adapted for making the bodies of felt hats and for imitating some of the more valuable furs, and above 30,000 rabbit-skins per month are exported from Tasmania alone to British manufacturers who supply imitation-furs to the United States. At the other end of the scale for size among mammals introduced into Australia is the camel, first there used, as we have seen, by the party which went in search of the famous explorers Burke and Wills. It was the Soudan Expedition of 1885 that gave Australians their first important lesson in the uses of the camel, as a beast of burden which, in their vast plains, could live and work and thrive far better than the horse, or than the bullock which had already, for the service of the "bushman", superseded the horse. For a team of bullocks ten miles a day is a fair average of toil. The camel, with 300 lbs. on his back, will do eighty-four miles in eighteen hours. In 1892, five lines of camel-traffic had been opened up, and were in regular use, with above two thousand animals in daily march: three years later, ten thousand camels were at work in Australia. It has been found that the race there bred has, in the course of a quarter of a century, become larger in build, sounder in wind and limb, and capable of carrying greater weights than the camels imported from India to the depôt at Port Augusta, at the head of Spencer Gulf, where the "foreigners" are kept in quarantine, being carefully watched and tended for three months, until they are acclimatized, and ready to thrive on the wattle or acacia, mulga, and other scrub of their new country, which they find to be excellent substitutes for the Asiatic herbage. By aid of the new beast of burden, Australian sheep-farmers have been enabled to take up good country which was formerly useless because it was isolated by belts of waterless desert or of territory liable to long drought. Across the forbidding barrier, the camel now brings supplies and carries goods to market, and in some of the gold-fields of Western Australia the camel-caravan conveys mining-machinery and well-sinking apparatus made in sections convenient for being slung across the animals' backs. In some places, with a use unknown in Asia, there is regular transport by camel-wagons, to which the beasts are yoked, like bullocks, in teams of eight.

A brief notice is due to the recent large export of meat and dairy-produce from Australasia to the British Isles. The New Zealand frozen mutton landed in London at about fourpence per

pound, wholesale price, is quite equal in quality and flavour to the best British mutton. At London and Liverpool, in 1893, nearly 606,000 carcasses of sheep arrived from Australia, and 1,893,600 from New Zealand, the two having nearly three-fourths of the trade in frozen mutton, and the rest being almost wholly due to the River Plate territories of South America. In addition to this enormous Australasian export to the mother-country, large quantities of frozen mutton are shipped direct to Continental ports and to British coaling-stations and ports of call abroad. The trade in fresh meat was developed to this extent in the space of about twelve years, and between 1880 and the end of 1893, 2,253,000 carcasses of sheep and lambs came from Australia, and nearly 11,325,000 from New Zealand. Large amounts of frozen beef are also sent to the British Isles. In 1893, this new industry caused the arrival of 225,000 cwts. from Australia, and 15,000 cwts. from New Zealand. A yet more recent enterprise in this line is the despatch from Australia to England of live cattle and sheep. In September, 1895, the *Southern Cross*, of Houlder, Brothers and Co.'s Australian steam-line, arrived at Gravesend with nearly 500 bullocks, 406 sheep, and 28 horses on board, being the first shipment of live stock from Australia on a large scale. The fine vessel, of 5050 tons register, made the voyage by way of Monte Video, providing water and storage for about 700 tons of fodder, free of charge, with steerage-passages for thirty attendants to look after the stock. During the passage 52 bullocks, 82 sheep, and one horse died; the others were landed in good condition. One of the bullocks was the largest that ever left Sydney, being a six-year Durham, estimated to "dress", when slaughtered, at about 1800 lbs. The benefit of this meat-trade to the farmers of Australasia is great and obvious; the sheep-owners would, in all likelihood, have been ruined under the low prices which have prevailed for wool. In 1894, there were sixty-seven full-powered steamers, fitted with refrigerating machinery, engaged in the Australian and New Zealand trade with London. The frozen meat exported from New Zealand in 1898 had the value of £1,698,750.

Still more recently, some of the chief Australasian colonies appeared in British markets as competitors with home and foreign producers in the dairy-trade. British farmers had already to meet, in this field, the makers of butter and cheese, and the poultry-owners, of Canada, the United States, France, Denmark, Holland, Germany,

and Sweden, as well as the Swiss exporters of condensed milk, and the "margarine"-makers of Holland. In 1893, Denmark alone sent to the British Isles butter to a value exceeding 5¼ millions sterling, while Holland sent the substitute for butter, margarine, worth over 3¼ millions. In 1895, Victoria, Queensland, and New Zealand came next to Canada for amount of dairy-produce sent to this country from British colonies. Each of these Australasian countries has an energetic Department of Agriculture, giving every encouragement to the production of butter and cheese. Lecturers are appointed to go about and teach the most economical and profitable methods of producing these articles. The Government of Victoria, in their zeal to stimulate production, went so far as to offer a bounty of twopence for every pound of butter sent to the mother-country. The growth of the trade has been very rapid. In 1889–90, 400 tons of butter were exported to England, bringing in 9½*d.* per pound. In 1892–93, this amount was increased to 3611 tons, at 1*s.* per pound. At the end of 1894, the mail-steamer *Paramatta* alone brought from Melbourne a consignment of 720 tons, or 1,612,800 pounds of butter, to the value of £70,000. As regards New Zealand, the Government, in 1883, offered £500 for the best fifty tons of cheese produced in the colony on the factory or co-operative system. The impetus given to dairy-farming in that country of rich pastures, where the best varieties of grasses and other green fodders thrive in an astonishing manner, was such as to carry the industry forward, in the space of a few years, to a most prosperous and important position. In 1895, the butter and cheese factories of New Zealand turned out products with a total value of £501,274; and the export to Great Britain and other countries increased in value from £49,000 in 1883, for butter and cheese, to £429,000 in 1898, showing a nearly nine-fold increase in fifteen years.

It seems certain that under southern skies and new conditions, amongst which we may specially note the very democratic institutions already described, a new type of British character is being evolved in our Australasian kinsmen. The people have been largely influenced by the rural pursuits and country life which tend to produce a robust and independent character, showing also the elasticity and vigour which belong to a new society, where the citizens have the consciousness of taking part in the formation of a

new state, the sense of individual power, the enjoyment of plenty, and the prospect of advancement to wealth and influence. In these colonial communities we observe an improvement of the stock whence they sprang. The people are the representatives of those who have had the energy and courage to try to better their position, and they illustrate, in fact, the Darwinian doctrine of the survival of the fittest. Among them may be discerned the qualities of self-reliance, ambition, generosity, and loyalty somewhat modified by conceit and by intolerance of the weaknesses of others. With political institutions, as we have seen, closely modelled after those of the mother-country, the people rapidly effect what they desire, and if they think that legislation is required, no regard for "vested interests" prevents them from making short work of opposing forces, and carrying in a session as much legislative change as would take ten years' discussion in the Imperial Parliament. While society, as much divided as in older communities, has its sections and circles and cliques, and patrician blood and old family associations command a certain amount of respect, the owner of wealth, especially of wealth in landed possessions, gains the highest consideration, if he be a man of fair education and moral character. The highest social position may be reached by personal industry and perseverance in these new countries, where there are numerous instances of men being labourers to-day, as it were, and masters to-morrow, and in a few years wealthy citizens. Professional men, merchants, and journalists are held in great esteem; politicians and public men, except those of marked ability and high character leading them to great success, do not necessarily hold high social rank. A kind of contempt is felt for men who, possessing a certain amount of education, and without a special calling, are only fit for clerkships in mercantile offices or for appointments of the lower class in the Government service. The swarm of these persons have reason to envy those who depend only on their physical strength, in the Australasia where labour is scarcely less valuable than capital. Among other merits, we may note the law-abiding and law-loving character of the colonists. Life and property are duly venerated, and, with rare exceptions in some inland district where the convict taint has outlived the influences of education, the community are unsparing in their enmity to lawless conduct. In the way of censure, an excellent judge of Aus-

tralian affairs, the late Sir Henry Parkes, who truly stated, in 1891, that his "Australian life fairly covered the free life of the Australian people", asserted that "the great fault in Australian advance, both in the community and the individual, is the over-heated desire to do things too quickly and to compass too much", with "an impatience of those natural difficulties in the upward path which can only be surmounted by perseverance and fortitude". The same high authority also denounced the "inordinate appetite for sports and amusements" as "one danger to a sound and healthy public spirit in Australia". It seems certain that our Australian fellow-subjects are strongly imbued, both in sporting and in mercantile affairs, with the gambling spirit which is one of the worst signs of the times, causing great mischief through over-speculation ending in "commercial crises". As the close of this matter of Australasian character, we gladly note the stanchly loyal spirit towards the home-country which animates our antipodean fellow-subjects. In the earliest days of 1896, when the Emperor of Germany, by rash interference in affairs solely concerning Great Britain and the Transvaal Republic in South Africa, had caused the swift equipment of a powerful naval force in British dockyards, the Hon. G. H. Reid, Premier of New South Wales, sent from Sydney the following cable-message to Lord Salisbury, the British prime minister, "on behalf, and at the request, of the Governments of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, and Western Australia":—"The Governments of Australia and Tasmania view with satisfaction the prompt and fearless measures adopted by Her Majesty's Government in defence of the integrity of the Empire. We desire to convey our united assurances of loyal support. The people of Australia are in full sympathy with the determination of the mother-country to resent foreign interference in matters of British and Colonial concern." Lord Salisbury's reply conveyed thanks for this "patriotic assurance of sympathy and support. Nothing can give to us greater confidence in maintaining the rights of our country than the knowledge that we have the full approval and good-will of our fellow-subjects in the great colonies of the Empire." On the same occasion, the Maoris of the North Island, New Zealand, telegraphed to the Earl of Glasgow, the Governor, offering to form a guerilla regiment for service in South Africa.

We now deal with the contingents despatched from Australasia for service, in the imperial cause, in South Africa during the Boer War of 1899–1901. Taking first the premier colony, New South Wales, we find the "First Australian Horse" composed as follows:—Capt. R. R. Thompson; Lieuts. Wilkinson, Mackellar, Dowling, Osborne, Ebsworth, and Vaughan; 13 sergeants, including two farriers; 10 corporals; 3 trumpeters; 3 shoeing-smiths, a saddler, and 103 troopers—in all, 140 officers, non-coms. and men. The "New South Wales Lancers", commanded by Major Lee, had, as officers, Captains Cox and Nicholson, and Lieuts. Roberts, Osborne, Allan, and Heron; with Capt. Gribben, and Lieuts. Melhuish and Bowker in the Veterinary Department. Under them served 16 sergeants, 8 corporals, 3 trumpeters, 7 drivers, 3 "batmen", 1 shoeing-smith, and 120 troopers, making a total of 168 officers, non-coms. and men. The "Imperial Bushmen's Contingent" was commanded by Col. the Hon. J. A. K. Mackay, under whom Major Miller was Paymaster, Capt. Le Mesurier, Adjutant; Capt. Holmes, Quartermaster; Second Lieut. Creig, Transport Officer; Lieuts. Lawson and Kane, Medical Officers; Lieut. Barbeta, Vet.-Surgeon; and Hon. Capts. the Rev. Reynolds (Anglican) and Caine (R.C.) were Chaplains. In the 6 companies of the corps the commanders were Captains Ryrie, O'Brien, Wray, Waldron, Browne, and Soane; under whom served First Lieuts. Mackenzie, Doyle, Caines, Irving, Muhs, Rudkin, Cosgrove, Oxley, Miller, Thomas, Mylne, and Hanly; Second Lieuts. Robinson, Ryrie, Gibson, Rainey, White, Mitchell, Wentworth, King, Macpherson, M'Lean, Learmouth, and MacKenzie; with 46 sergeants, 59 corporals, and 555 privates, giving a total of 700 officers, non-coms. and men. The *A* Battery Royal Australian Artillery, commanded by Col. Smith, with Lieuts. Antill, Taylor, Christian, and Sweetland, included 10 sergeants, 6 corporals, 8 bombardiers, 2 trumpeters, 90 gunners, and 54 drivers; a total of 175 officers, non-coms. and men. The "Mounted Infantry Unit" had for officers Lieut.-Col. Knight, Capts. Lenchan and Hilliard, and Lieuts. Bennett, Anderson, Watson, Holborow, Lydiard, Lee, Harriott, Basche, Drage, Garvan, M'Glinn, Legge, Newman, and Vandeleur-Kelly, under whom served, in three companies, 18 sergeants, 18 corporals, and 335 troopers. The "New South Wales Infantry", commanded by

Captain Legge, with Lieuts. Holmes, Dove, and Logan, had 5 sergeants, 8 corporals, 2 buglers, and 107 privates. The "N.S.W. Army Medical Corps" was composed of Col. Williams, Majors Vandeleur-Kelly, Fiaschi, and Eames; Hon. Majors MacCormick M.B. and Scott-Skirving M.B., Captains Roth, G. A. Marshall, Joseph Marshall, Green, Perkins, and Cortis L.R.C.P.; and Lieuts. Newmarch, Martin, Edwards, M'Donell, Samuelson, Dick, Horsfall, Howse L.R.C.P., and Meredith; warrant-officers Mason and Bond; 22 sergeants, 21 corporals, 1 collar-maker, 9 drivers, 4 buglers, and 112 privates. The "Mounted Bearer Section" had 21 privates under Sergeant Falconer and Corp. Lyons. The "Army Medical Nursing Reserve Nurses" included Lady-Superintendent Gould, Supt. Johnston, and Nursing-Sisters Pocock, Newton, Woodward, Nixon, Hoadley, Lister, Steel, Martin, Matchett, Garden, Frater, and Austin. The "New South Wales Bushmen Contingent", under Lieut.-Col. Airey D.S.O., had, for officers, Lieuts. (Adjt.) Ryrie and Rouse (Quartermaster); Capts. Thomas, Machattie, Dangar, Baker, and Robertson, and Lieuts. Eckford, Fraser, Battye, Mullins, Westgarth, Cope, Allen, Cape, Zouch, Lynch, Moore, Pockley, Gell, Cornwall, Christie, Hutton, and Hallet. The non-coms. of the 4 squadrons comprised 39 sergeants, 8 trumpeters, and 45 corporals. There were 5 "batmen", 1 waggon-man, 1 orderly-room clerk, 3 drivers, 2 cooks, and 395 troopers. The Vet.-Lieut. was M. C. C. Cherry. The officers for "Special Service" who accompanied or joined the above contingents were Lieut.-Col. Bayly, of the General Staff; Major (Brevet-Lieut.-Col.) Parrott, V.D. of the Corps of Engineers; Major Bridges, of the N.S.W. Regiment Royal Australian Artillery, with Major Savage, Capts. Kyngdon, Dangar, and Luscombe, and Lieuts. Jenkins and Lamb, of the same corps; Major Murray, commanding the 8th (Union Volunteer) Infantry Regiment; Captain Owen, of the General Staff, Staff Officer for Engineer Services; Captain Copeland, of the "Reserve of Officers"; Capt. Pearce and Lieut. Brace, of the N.S.W. Artillery; Lieut. Grieve, of the Permanent Staff; Lieut. Conroy, of the Engineers; Capt. Dibbs, 5th Reg. Scottish Rifles; and Lieut. Stephens, of the Naval Artillery Volunteers. The total strength of the contingents furnished by New South Wales for the South African War, including the chaplains and nurses,

was 148 officers and 2318 non-coms. and men, or 2466 colonists, with 2560 horses. It is impossible to give here a complete list of casualties; it is certain that, in the above force, up to the middle of December, 1900, the following were sufferers. Captain Robertson, Lieuts. Grieve, Drage, Ebsworth, Harriott, Mackellar, and White, and 42 non-commissioned officers and men were killed in action or died of wounds. Lieut. Basche and 46 non-coms. and men died of disease. Capts. Bennett, Machattie, and Ryrie; Lieuts. Eckford, Dove, Dowling, Holmes, Holborow, and Onslow; and 115 non-coms. and men were wounded. We must not omit, in this record of patriotic devotion for the Empire, to state that Mr. W. J. Lambie, Special Correspondent of the Melbourne *Age* and the Sydney *Daily Telegraph*, was killed near Colesberg, on February 9th, 1900, and that Mr. H. H. Spooner, Special Correspondent *Evening News*, died of enteric fever at Bloemfontein in May, 1900.

The colony of Victoria, in November 1899, sent out her "First Contingent", thus composed:—The "Infantry Unit" had five officers, viz. Major Eddy, Capt. Hopkins (Medical Staff), and Lieuts. M'Inerney, Pendlebury, and Tremearne, with 6 sergeants, 5 corporals, 2 buglers, and 107 privates. It is interesting to note that these patriotic persons, as in the case of the other Australian colonies, included men of diverse professions and trades, including a solicitor and a carpet-layer; an hotel-keeper and an electrician; a chemist, a confectioner, a stoker, an engine-driver, and many miners. The "Mounted Infantry Unit" had 7 officers, viz. Capt. M'Leish, and Lieuts. Salmon, Thorn, Chomley, Staughton, Roberts, and Kendall; 6 sergeants, 6 corporals, 2 saddlers, 3 farriers, 2 buglers, and 102 privates. This body of men contained many farmers and graziers, and some "boundary-riders" and "stockmen". The officers "Attached for Instruction" to the above contingent were Col. Hoad, Lieut.-Col. Umphelby, and Captains Johnston and Bruche. The Victorian Second Contingent embarked for South Africa on January 13th, 1900, and was composed of two companies of Mounted Infantry. In these were 16 officers—Col. Price; Capt. Jenkins, Lieuts. Sergeant, T. F. Umphelby, Bruce, Holdsworth, Kirby, Anderson, T. A. Umphelby, Norton, Bree, Lilley, and Christie; Major Honman (Medical Staff), Chaplain Wray, and Vet.-Capt. Rudduck.

Under them served 12 sergeants, 12 corporals, 4 saddlers, 2 farriers, 2 shoeing-smiths, 4 buglers, and 214 privates. The corps styled "Victorian Contingent" was made up of 5 companies of Mounted Rifles of the "Imperial-Australian Regiment". The 31 officers of this corps were Lieut.-Col. Kelly, Major Clarke, Capts. O'Farrell, Alfred, Sturdee (Medical Staff), Tivey, Dallimore, Downes, Wollaston, and Chalmers jun.; Lieuts. Leitch, Purcell, Mann, Code, Macdonald, T. J. Gilpin, Ulbrich, A. G. Gilpin, Coltman, Boyd, Whidborne, Nicholl, Mason, Hutchings, Moseley, Pounds, Ffrench, Parkin, Embling, Cleveland, and Chomley. There were 20 corporals, 8 buglers, and 568 privates. The Third (or Bushmen's) Contingent from Victoria consisted of two companies of Mounted Rifles, with 14 officers—Capts. Dobbin, Ham, M'Knight, Griffith (Medical Staff), Chaplain MacBain, and Lieuts. Hill, Trew, Gartside, Moore, Strong, Carstairs, Holdsworth, M'Culloch, and Fletcher—16 sergeants, 2 saddlers, 4 drivers, 12 corporals, 4 shoeing-smiths, 3 buglers, and 196 privates. This corps was of the most multifarious character as to the ordinary callings of its patriotic and adventurous members, including solicitors, farmers, graziers, station-overseers, hunters, publicans, farm-hands, horse-breakers, stockmen, bushmen, boundary-riders, stud-grooms, rough-riders, butchers, stock-riders, surveyors, "prospectors", two auctioneers, a chemist, an accountant, clerks, a trapper, mounted constables, blacksmiths, and a "civil servant". The useful little body called "Cameron's Scouts" had for commanding-officer Lieut. John M'Leod Cameron, under whom were 1 sergeant, 2 corporals, and 21 privates. The contingents sent from Victoria to South Africa were thus made up of 74 officers and 1348 non-coms. and men. Before the end of 1900 there had perished—killed in action, or died of wounds, Major Eddy, Lieut. Roberts, and Lieut. Gilpin; 1 sergeant, 3 corporals, and 14 privates; of disease, chiefly enteric fever, Capt. Hopkins, 1 sergeant, 2 corporals, and 12 privates. The wounded were Capt. M'Inerney, Lieuts. Lilley, Gamble, and Tremearne; 2 sergeants, 2 corporals, and 34 privates.

The South Australian contingents were: (1) Infantry (afterwards mounted), consisting of 6 officers—Capts. Howland and Lascelles; Lieuts. Stapleton, Blair, and Powell, and Surgeon-Major Toll—and 121 non-coms. and men: (2) Mounted Infantry,

composed of 8 officers—Col. Gordon, Capt. Reade, Lieuts. Humphries, Lynch, Rowell, and Walter; Surgeon-Capt. Jermyn, and Vet.-Capt. Bickford—and 109 non-coms. and men: (3) the South Australian Bushmen, 6 officers—Capt. Hübbe, Lieuts. Collins, Ives, and Arnot; Surg. Douglass, and Vet.-Lieut. Burns —and 94 non-coms. and men: (4) Imperial Bushmen, 12 officers —Lieut.-Col. Rowell, Major Hawker, Capts. Wilson and Norton, Lieuts. Cook, Ferguson, Roberts, White, Hurcombe, and Leane; Surg.-Capt. Dunn, and Vet.-Lieut. Bickford—and 218 non-coms. and men. South Australia thus contributed to the war 32 officers and 542 non-coms. and men. Of these, 2 officers—Capt. Hübbe and Lieut. Powell—were killed in action, with 1 sergeant and 2 privates; 1 officer—Surg.-Major Toll—and 9 men died of disease; 3 officers—Lieuts. Stapleton, Collins, and Arnot—and 17 men were wounded.

The first contingent from Queensland consisted of two companies of Mounted Infantry and a Machine-gun Section, with 13 officers—Lieut.-Col. Ricardo, Capts. Browne, Pinnock, and Chauvel, and Lieuts. Black, Adie, Cumming, Reid, Bailey, Dowse, Gordon, Pelham, and Glasgow—and 250 non-coms. and men. The second contingent, of Mounted Infantry, had 13 officers—Majors Hutchison and Rankin; Capts. Thompson, Sir E. Richardson, Nolan, and Toll; Lieuts. Harris, Stodart, Crichton, Walker, Newton, and Fox, and Vet.-Capt. Barnes—and 144 non-coms. and men. The third contingent, two companies of Mounted Infantry, had 14 officers—Major Tunbridge, Capts. Echlin, Kellie, and Duka (Medical Staff), and Lieuts. Hockings, Walsh, Fowles, Dalgleish, Leask, Harris, Hanly, Annat, Fielden, and MacColl—and 300 non-coms. and men. The fourth contingent (Imperial Bushmen) had three companies, comprising 25 officers—Lieut.-Col. Aytoun, Major Deacon, Capts. Carroll, Berry, Durham, Joseph, Jones, and Crichton; Lieuts. Ferguson, Graham, Higson, Kemp, Hyde, Butterworth, Kellaway, Sellheim, Bell, A. D. Crichton, Parker, Pickburn, Green, Philp, and Cowley; Surgeon-Major Nisbet, and Vet.-Lieut. M'Leod—and 368 non-coms. and men. Queensland thus despatched to the front 65 officers and 1062 non-coms. and men. Of these, two officers were killed in action or died of wounds—Lieuts. Annat and Leask—and seven non-coms. and men. Of disease (including one hapless man who died at

Sydney on the way to South Africa) there perished 13 men. The wounded numbered forty, including four officers—Lieuts. Adie, Higson, Newton, and Walsh.

Western Australia, rivalling, in proportion to her numbers, her sister-colonies of the new Commonwealth, sent to the seat of war four contingents, comprising 26 officers and 451 non-coms. and men. The officers included Majors Moore R.A., Pilkington, Vialls, and Rose; Capts. Parker, Cameron, Hurst, M'Master, and Newland, and Lieuts. Darling, Campbell, Harris, Inglis, De Castilla, Ord, Thunder, R. R. C. Vernon, Gladhill, Olliver, Potter, Barnes, E. Vernon, Hume, Williams, and Powell: Capt. Ingoldby was Medical Officer. Of these, Major Moore R.A., was killed in action; Lieut. Heubman (promoted from sergeantcy) died of wounds, and seven men had the same fate. The deaths from disease comprised nine non-coms. and men. Of officers, Captain Ingoldby and Lieut. Darling were wounded, with 48 non-coms. and men.

Tasmania, the gem of Australasia, played a noble part in the contest with the Boers. Her first and second contingents contained 120 officers and men; to the Australian Bushmen's Corps she contributed 100, and the same number—making a total of 320—to the Imperial Bushmen's Corps. The officers were Lieut.-Col. Wallack, Capts. Lewis and Cameron, Lieuts. Brown, Forster, Heritage, Reid, Perkins, Wylly, Sale, and Walter, and the Chaplain was the Rev. P. N. Hunter. Of the Tasmanians, seven non-coms. and men were killed in action or died of wounds; Captain Cameron, another officer, and 16 non-coms. were wounded; and 6 non-coms. and men died of disease. It is the special glory of Tasmania in this contest that, among all the Australasian colonies, up to the end of 1900, two of her sons won the only Victoria Crosses. These distinctions were gained on the same day, Sept. 1st, 1900, at the same place, Warm Bad, in the Transvaal, by Lieut. Guy G. E. Wylly and Private J. H. Bisdee, both of the Tasmanian Imperial Bushmen. Lieut. Wylly was with the advanced scouts of a foraging-party when, as they passed through a narrow rocky gorge, thickly-wooded, they were suddenly assailed by short-range fire from cover, wounding six, including Lieut. Wylly, out of the party of eight. That officer, seeing that one

of his men was badly wounded in the leg, and that his horse was shot, went back to aid him, gave up his own horse, and opened fire from behind a rock to cover the general retreat, at imminent risk of being himself cut off. Corporal Brown was thus saved, and Lieut. Wylly's deadly fire also delivered other men from death or capture. Private Bisdee, in the same encounter, gave his stirrup-leather to another officer whose horse had "bolted", but, finding him too badly hurt to go on, dismounted, placed his wounded officer on the horse, mounted behind him and got safely out of range.

We come, lastly, to New Zealand, the splendid country whose efforts and sufferings for the imperial cause were worthy of herself. The first New Zealand contingent, composed of two companies of Mounted Rifles, had 11 officers—Major Robin (N.Z. Militia), in command; Captains Davies and Madocks, R.N. (retired); and Lieuts. Bartlett, Johnston, Lindsay, Chaytor, Canavan, and Neave; Surgeon Burns and Vet.-Surgeon Neale—14 sergeants, 9 corporals, 3 buglers, 3 farriers, and 174 privates. The second contingent comprised a Hotchkiss Detachment, under Capt. Smith, with 5 sergeants, 4 corporals, 1 armourer, 2 farriers, and 26 gunners, and a corps of Mounted Rifles, with 13 officers—Major Cradock, in command; Capts. Hayhurst and Hutson; Lieuts. Crawshaw, Montgomerie, Somerville, Findlay, Banks, and Heather; Surgeon-Capt. Fenwick, Vet.-Surgeon Sanderson, and Lieuts. Hume and Todd "Attached Officers for Instruction"—18 sergeants, 10 corporals, 6 farriers, 4 saddlers, 4 buglers, and 164 privates. The third New Zealand contingent was composed of two companies of "Rough Riders", with 12 officers—Major Jowsey, in command; Lieut. Lewin, Staff-officer; Surgeon Godfray, Vet.-Surgeon Wilkie; Capts. Rose and Chaytor; Lieuts. Bourne, Tucker, Bradbourne, Berry, Fitzherbert, and Cameron—16 sergeants, 14 corporals, 4 buglers, 8 farriers, 4 saddlers, and 204 privates. The fourth contingent, composed of four companies of "Rough Riders", had 24 officers—Majors Sommerville and Francis (each commanding two companies); Capts. Pringle, Walker, Fulton, and Harvey; Lieuts. Elder, Collins, Ross, Thomson, Johnston, Arthur, Keddell, MacDonald, Nicolson, J. Ross, Bauchop, and Tubman; Surgeon-Capts. Watt and Neil; Vet.-Surgeons Young R.A., and Edgar; and Capt. Davy and Lieut. Seddon "Attached for Instruction"—

33 sergeants, 23 corporals, 6 buglers, 5 saddlers, 13 farriers, and 360 privates. The fifth contingent, including "Reserve Men to replace casualties", was composed of five companies. The Staff were Lieut.-Col. Newall, in command; Surgeon-Capts. Thomas and De Renzi; Vet.-Surgeons Lilico and Worthy. The "Auckland Section" Company was under Capt. Major, with Lieuts. Bosworth, Potter, and M'Millan; the "Wellington Section" Company under Captain Abbott, with Lieuts. Tuckey, Polson, and Dewar; the Wellington, Nelson, and West Coast (South Island) Sections Company was commanded by Capt. Tanner, with Lieuts. J. C. Rose, Simson, and Haselden; the "Canterbury Section" Company had for officers Capt. Currie and Lieuts. Bailey and Whyte; and the "Otago Section" Company was under Capt. Jackson, with Lieuts. Ross, M'Clellan, and Marshall—a total of 24 commissioned officers. Under these served 33 sergeants, 28 corporals, 2 shoeing-smiths, 2 farriers, 1 saddler, 11 buglers, and 497 privates. New Zealand thus sent into the field a total of 85 officers and 1711 non-coms. and men. An imperfect list of casualties shows that between March 15th, 1900 and the end of the year there were killed in action or died of wounds Captain Harvey and Lieut. Bradbourne, and 9 non-coms. and men. Among the wounded were Capts. Hutson, Fulton, Crawshaw, and Godfray (Surgeon), and Lieuts. Findlay, Collins, Montgomerie, Somerville, and Tucker, with 44 non-coms. and men. There died of disease, chiefly of enteric fever, Lieut. Berry (pneumonia) and 18 non-coms. and men.

We sum up the memorable efforts and sufferings of our Australasian kinsmen in the South African War with the statement that the seven colonies despatched to the scene of action 442 officers and 7740 non-commissioned officers and men. Of these there died in action, or from wounds therein received, at least 18 officers, and 94 non-coms. and men; 4 officers and 116 non-coms. and men died of disease—making a total, on an estimate certainly below the full loss, of 22 officers and 210 non-coms. and men deceased, with 33 officers and 314 non-coms. and men wounded, a casualty-roll reaching 579 so far as our information extends—in reality, probably one-twelfth of the force of over 8000 officers and men died or were disabled by wounds or disease.

In dealing with the subject of Australasian literature we confine ourselves to writers either born or of long residence in those regions. Little more than mention of a few chief names can here be given; for particulars concerning the authors and their works we must refer to Mennell's *Dictionary of Australasian Biography* (Hutchinson & Co.), and, for poets, with specimens of their verse, to Mr. Douglas B. W. Sladen's *A Century of Australian Song* and *Australian Poets*, and to an article in the *Westminster Review* at the close of 1895. In a new colonial nation of which the earliest settlement can show a history but little exceeding a hundred years, anything worthy of being called a native literature must be a matter of very recent development. The days of wealth and leisure could only arrive after many years during which the pioneers of civilization, by the labour of their hands, were rendering new regions habitable. The second, and even the third, generation of Australian colonists were directly engaged in forming political and legal systems, and in developing religious and educational institutions. Only when the latter half of the nineteenth century was advancing, could the profession of letters, apart from journalism, attract sympathy and interest from a large leisured and cultivated class of the community. The two great features impressed by circumstances upon the Australasian character—a warm belief in democratic progress, and the independence which is born of a life spent far away from cities—specially appear in the colonial poetry, with a self-assertive sense of freedom and power, and a faithful rendering of the weird nature surrounding the lonely life of the settler. Australian poetry and fiction seek their ideals in the circumstances of convict life and in the perils of the bush, and treat such themes in a spirited fashion. Among the writers who came too soon for due appreciation were the ill-fated Daniel Henry Deniehy, born at Sydney in 1828, a man of fine critical faculty and delicate scholarship, as well as of a very wide range of information. He has been well described as a "frost-bitten genius", one of wasted gifts and ill-acknowledged merits. In the same category is found Henry Clarence Kendall, the national poet of New South Wales, where he was born in 1842, and, dying forty years later, left in his *Leaves from an Australian Forest* the sweetest and most graceful lays of Australasian poetry, racy of the soil, a true reflection of Australian scenery and life. Adam Lind-

say Gordon, born of English parents, in 1833, in the Azores, and reaching South Australia twenty years later, is the poet whose verse is most often quoted by Australians. He has portrayed, with inimitable spirit and local colour, the exciting side of Australian life, in his *Bush Ballads and Galloping Rhymes*, written on subjects well understood by a man who, along with his dashing literary style, had wide repute as a steeple-chase rider, and infused into his verse much of the delight experienced in a swinging gallop on a stout, swift steed over the rolling downs, under the sapphire skies, of the Great Southern Continent. James Brunton Stephens, born in 1835 in Linlithgowshire, emigrated to Queensland in 1866, and there gained fame as the most richly varied, humorous, and witty of Australasian poets, one representing, in his wide reading and his study of the metrical forms of many lands, the highest type of culture among the verse-writers of the far south. *Convict Once*, and *Miscellaneous Poems* are his chief productions. The founder of New Zealand poetry was Alfred Domett, C.M.G., who was born in Surrey in 1811, and settled in the Nelson District of New Zealand in 1842, rising to the Premiership of the colony twenty years later. His *Ranolf and Amohia*, an epic work on a Maori subject, published in 1872, is described by a competent critic (Mr. Douglas Sladen) as "one of the great poems of the century", with exquisite word-pictures of New Zealand scenery and life. John Farrell, born at Buenos Ayres, of Irish parentage, in 1851, and taken to Victoria in the following year, is the author of the fine verses on Australia (from which some brief quotations are given in Book I. Chapter IV. of this work) prefixed to the *Picturesque Atlas of Australasia*. As the last, but far from the least meritorious, of Australian poets we may name Miss Jennings Carmichael, of St. Kilda, Victoria, without rival in Antipodean literature for simple and unfeigned pathetic power.

In dramatic writing, Mr. Charles Haddon Chambers, born at Sydney in 1860, of Scoto-Irish (Ulster) ancestors, made a great hit with his four-act *Captain Swift*, written for and first produced by Mr. Beerbohm Tree at the Haymarket Theatre in London, whence the play was taken through the English provinces, and to America and Australia. *The Idler* is another of his successful dramas. In fiction, a chief author was Marcus Clarke, born in London in 1846, who emigrated to Melbourne in 1864, and, after contributing to the

Argus, became editor, in 1869, of the brilliant weekly comic paper styled *Humbug*. He rose to the highest place among Australian writers by the work, well known in both hemispheres, called *For the Term of his Natural Life*, a most powerfully realistic description of the old convict-days. Among other writers of this class Mr. T. A. Browne ("Rolf Boldrewood") has been already named. This distinguished author, born in England in 1826, was taken to New South Wales in 1830 by his father, a captain in the East India Company's service. The materials for his well-known tales were partly acquired by Mr. Browne as a squatter in Victoria and New South Wales, and as Police Magistrate and Gold-fields Commissioner in the latter colony. Mr. J. F. Hogan, born in the south of Ireland in 1855, and taken out as an infant to Victoria, did excellent work on the Melbourne *Argus* and *Punch*, and is the author of a history, *The Irish in Australia* (1887); *The Lost Explorer* (1890), a romantic story of Australian adventure; and *The Convict King* (1891), a romance of real life. Mrs. Campbell Praed (born in 1851, in Queensland, as Rosa Caroline Murray-Prior, daughter of a member of the Legislative Council of that colony) is regarded as the most brilliant and successful of Australian novelists for her descriptions of the scenery, life, and character of her native land. Mrs. Humphry Ward, born in Tasmania, in 1851, is a granddaughter (Mary Augusta Arnold) of the famous head-master of Rugby, as child of his second son, Thomas Arnold, a well-known writer on and editor of old English literature. Distinguished in several ways by her birth-connections, being also a niece of Matthew Arnold, and a lineal descendant, through her mother, of Colonel Sorell, whom we have seen as Governor of Van Diemen's Land; a literary pupil of Mark Pattison, the eminent Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford; married to a Fellow and Tutor of Brasenose College, who has become noted as the editor of *Men of the Reign*, *Men of the Time*, and *The Reign of Queen Victoria*; Mrs. Ward, embarking on a literary career, contributed to the pages of *Macmillan's Magazine*, the *Saturday Review*, the *Guardian*, the *Academy*, and the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and finally, in 1888, became famous throughout the British Empire and in America as the author of *Robert Elsmere*, a spiritual romance displaying profound insight, broad human sympathy, and strong thought. Mr. George William Rusden, born in Surrey, in 1819, emigrated to New South

Wales in 1834, and became a member of the National Board of Education in Victoria and of the Council of Melbourne University. His literary reputation rests mainly on histories of New Zealand and of Australia, 3-volume works published in London in 1883.

Among Australasians distinguished by scholarship we may mention the Reverend William Colenso, F.R.S., F.L.S., born at Penzance in 1811, a representative of an old Cornish family, and first cousin of the famous Bishop of Natal. In 1834 he was sent out to New Zealand by the Church Missionary Society, and landed at the Bay of Islands in January, 1835. As a practical printer and bookbinder who had learned the business in London, Mr. Colenso, in December, 1837, issued the whole New Testament in the Maori language, after overcoming enormous difficulties due to lack of proper appliances for such a task. During many years' work as a missionary, he acquired knowledge giving him high repute as a botanist, and as an authority on Maori arts, antiquities, myths, and legendary lore. An eminent classical scholar of Australian birth is seen in Mr. G. G. Aimé Murray, born at Sydney in 1866, son of Sir Terence Aubrey Murray, an Irish gentleman who became President of the Legislative Council of New South Wales. Mr. Murray, after education at Merchant Taylors School in London, passed to St. John's College, Oxford, in 1884, and at that university obtained marvellous success in winning the Hertford, Ireland, Craven, and Derby Scholarships; the Gaisford prizes for Greek verse and for Greek prose, and the Chancellor's prize for Latin verse, with first-class honours both in Moderations and in the Final Classical School. After this unequalled career as an undergraduate, he became Fellow of New College, and was afterwards appointed Professor of Greek at Glasgow University, in succession to that great scholar Mr. Jebb, Professor of Greek at Cambridge and senior M.P. for that University.

One reason for the lack of a distinctive school of Australasian literature has been the absorption of most of the literary capacity of the colonies in the work of journalism, represented in 1887 by about 800 newspapers, magazines, and periodicals, including many "dailies"; of these Melbourne and its suburbs alone issued more than 80 newspapers and magazines. The Newspaper Press, in fact, furnished the only good market for the wares of those who desired to live by the pen. The efficiency of the Newspaper Press

of Australasia, one of the acknowledged marvels of the colonies, was due in the first instance to the enterprise displayed at the capitals of New South Wales and Victoria by the proprietors of such great journals as the *Sydney Morning Herald*, established in 1831; the *Atlas*, the *Evening News*, the *Melbourne Argus* (1846), the *Melbourne Age* (1854), the *South Australian Register* (1837), and the *Brisbane Courier* (1846). Besides these metropolitan newspapers, there is a very large number of well-conducted provincial journals, which exhibit and enhance the lively interest taken in public affairs throughout the colonies, and prove the close acquaintance of the people at large with contemporary politics and current events. The weekly journals of Australia, arranged somewhat after the pattern of *The Field*, are in some respects the most creditable specimens of newspaper literature known to the English-speaking world. Comprising fairly-written leading articles, tales and sketches, political essays, pastoral and agricultural information, travel, biography, records and descriptions of all the nobler sports and athletic feats of communities hereditarily addicted to such recreations, with the ordinary news of the day, they are hailed as a boon alike by the country gentleman and farmer, the lonely stockman, the plodding drover, and the solitary shepherd.

The same causes as have operated in retarding the formation of a distinct school of Australian literature have been active in repressing the development of Australian art. We find a name or two worthy of high praise in connection with pictorial art. Mr. Mortimer Menpes, the painter and etcher, a native of Port Adelaide, became in early manhood a pupil of Mr. Poynter, R.A., at South Kensington, and soon carried off the Poynter Prize for the best drawing done in all the English Schools of Art. After studying nature for three years in Brittany, he was an exhibitor at the Royal Academy in 1880, and received high commendation for his etchings. Five years later, Menpes was a member of the Society of British Artists, with an established character for original work. A visit to Japan in 1887 was followed by a display of Japanese pictures and sketches at Dowdeswell's galleries in New Bond Street; at a third exhibition, in 1892, fifty-six pictures shown after a visit to Venice were all sold within two days. Most excellent in "dry-point", Mr. Menpes is admirable as an etcher and in both water-colours and oils. Mr. Hume Nisbet, a native of Stirling, who emigrated to

Melbourne in 1864, when he was fifteen years of age, spent seven years in wandering over Australasia, painting and sketching and writing poetry and stories. In 1872 he returned to London, where he studied and copied pictures in the National Gallery and at South Kensington, and then became for eight years art-master at the Watt Institution and School of Art, Edinburgh. Most of his paintings are in Scotland; his work both as an artist and a critic has received the approval of such authorities as John Ruskin and Sir Noel Paton. Mrs. Rowan, a native of Victoria, has shown great ability in depicting the wild flora of the Australian bush. Among the sculptors of Australasia we may fairly reckon Mr. Charles Summers, a native of Somersetshire, born in 1827, who studied with great success at the Royal Academy, and emigrated to Melbourne in 1853. In 1878, after work already mentioned, he completed, just before his sudden death in Paris, statues of the Queen and Prince Consort, and of the Prince and Princess of Wales, for the Melbourne Public Library. His pupil in Melbourne, Miss Margaret Thomas, a native of Surrey, who went out to Victoria as a child, afterwards studied at South Kensington, at Rome, and at the Royal Academy in London, where she was the first lady who ever won the silver medal for sculpture. She has executed at her London studio many portraits shown at the Royal Academy, and several busts of Somersetshire worthies for the Shire Hall at Taunton. In music, the colony of Victoria can boast of producing the famous operatic *prima donna* Madame Melba, born in Melbourne (whence her stage-name), daughter of David Mitchell, who emigrated from Forfarshire about the middle of the century. This lady, known in private life as Mrs. Helen Porter Armstrong (wife of Mr. C. N. F. Armstrong, son of an Irish baronet who settled in Queensland), began to learn music at three years of age, played and sang in public at Melbourne three years later, appeared first in opera at Brussels, then at the Grand Opera in Paris, and established her reputation, in 1888 and subsequent years, at Covent Garden, London, at St. Petersburg, and the other chief European capitals. Miss Amy Sherwin, another singer of high merit, well known in Europe and America, and in Asia by a concert-tour which took her to India, China, and Japan, was born in Tasmania, and made her *début* at Melbourne, as Lucia in Donizetti's opera. Her first success in London was at the Promenade Concerts of 1883. Four years later she was received with great

enthusiasm in Australia, and in 1890, on her return to London, she became the *prima donna* in Sims Reeves' farewell provincial concerts, and afterwards a member of the Carl Rosa Opera Company.

In science, we can only give a few names of those who have been either natives of Australasia, or of long connection therewith in various branches of research, referring readers for particulars of their work to the *Australasian Biography*. In botany, much was achieved by Allan Cunningham, whom we have seen as an explorer; by Mr. R. C. Gunn, F.R.S., born of Scottish parents, an early emigrant to Tasmania; and by Baron Sir Ferdinand von Mueller, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., a native of Mecklenburg, who became Government Botanist for Victoria. The ornithology of New Zealand has been admirably studied and illustrated by Sir Walter Lawry Buller, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., born in that colony in 1838. In Australasian zoology, Mr. Morton Allport, F.L.S., taken as an infant to Tasmania about 1831, won high distinction. He was specially devoted to ichthyology and pisciculture, introducing the perch and tench into Tasmanian waters, and being a zealous and successful promoter of the acclimatization of salmon and trout. To him is also due the adornment of the colonial lakes and streams by the English water-lily. In geology, mineralogy, and palæontology, we notice Sir Julius von Haast, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., a native of Bonn, who became Provincial Geologist of Canterbury, N.Z., and was one of the founders of the Canterbury Museum at Christchurch, reputed to be the finest institution of its class in the southern hemisphere. Sir James Hector, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., a native of Edinburgh, became in 1861, by the selection of Sir Roderick Murchison, Geologist to the Provincial Government of Otago, N.Z., and, in 1865, Director of the Geological Survey of the colony, and finally Chancellor of New Zealand University. Another Scot, Mr. R. Logan Jack, has done excellent work as Government Geologist in Queensland; and yet another, Mr. R. M. Johnston, won fame by his book on Tasmanian Geology, embodying the research of twenty years. Professor Archibald Liversidge, F.R.S., twice President of the Royal Society of New South Wales, became in 1872 Professor of Chemistry and Mineralogy in the University of Sydney, and was one of the chief founders of the Australasian Association for the Advancement of Science, as a centennial record of the progress of the colonies. Sir Frederick M'Coy, K.C.M.G., F.R.S., a native

of Dublin, was made the first Professor of Natural Science in the newly-founded University of Melbourne, where he lectured for over thirty years on chemistry, mineralogy, botany, comparative anatomy and zoology, geology, and palæontology, a list of subjects testifying to the unusual range of his attainments. It was he who established the National Museum of Natural History and Geology at Melbourne, and, as Director, raised it to a high position among such institutions by the extent of the collections and their perfect classification.

In astronomy, the earlier days of New South Wales saw excellent service rendered by Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane, who established an observatory at Parramatta, and catalogued many hundreds of new stars. Mr. R. J. Ellery, F.R.S., F.R.A.S., who arrived in Victoria in 1851, became distinguished in astronomy and meteorology, and was for twenty years President of the Royal Society of Victoria. Mr. H. C. Russell, F.R.S., Government Astronomer of New South Wales, was born in that colony in 1836, and attained his high position in 1870 after service as assistant in the Sydney Observatory. He started a system of meteorological observations throughout the colony. We conclude with the mention of Mr. John Tebbutt, F.R.A.S., born in New South Wales in 1834, an astronomer of high repute for his observations of various comets.

When we turn to amusements popular in Australasia, we note that the drama is as much appreciated there as at home. Among actors from the British Isles who have been well received we find Mr. Barry Sullivan; Mr. and Mrs. Charles Kean; Mr. Charles Young, for many years the leading comedian of Australia, and his wife, the powerful actress later known in England as Mrs. Hermann Vezin; and many others who still adorn the stage. Mr. G. H. Rogers, who went to Hobart with his regiment, as a private, retiring as sergeant in 1842, became an admirable character-actor, for many years the "principal old man" at the Melbourne Theatre Royal. The same house, in 1882, became a scene of operations for the leading firm of Australasian managers, Messrs. Williamson, Garner, and Musgrove, the famous "Trio" who have controlled a greater number of theatres, and engaged dramatic and operatic artistes on a larger scale, than was ever before attempted south of the Line. Myra Kemble, Maggie Knight (a native of Auckland), and Maggie Moore, are actresses connected with these southern

colonies either by birth or long association; the last is, as Mrs. J. C. Williamson, wife of one of the "Trio", and has been for many years a chief favourite on Australasian boards. Mr. George Rignold, after becoming popular in England and America in Shakespearian and other plays, opened Her Majesty's Theatre, Sydney, in 1887, and has remained a leading actor-manager.

The climate of Australasia highly favours outdoor pursuits, and a people remarkable for their healthful energy and enterprise became soon famous for devotion to sports of every kind. The regions which they inhabit have no "winter" or "rainy season" in the usual sense, and sunshine and clear air throughout the year invite the young, active, and athletic to all kinds of open-air recreation. To British readers little need be told of Australian cricket. The names of the colonial champions are "household words" among us, and their prowess has been seen on many English grounds. The first intercolonial match was played at Melbourne in March, 1856, between New South Wales and Victoria. Of this and other contests particulars will be found in Hutchinson's *Australasian Encyclopaedia*, under "Cricket". An English team (H. H. Stephenson's) first visited Australia in 1862; in 1864, George Parr took over another set of players, and we have the authority of Mr. F. R. Spofforth (the "Demon Bowler", a Yorkshire man by descent, born near Sydney in 1855) for the statement that his fellow-colonists were mainly induced to lay aside underhand, and to adopt round-arm bowling by the spectacle of Tarrant, the English fast bowler, scaring the batsmen and smashing the wickets. In 1878, Australian cricketers first came to England, and the team had a brilliant success in getting rid, at Lord's, of a very strong batting side (M. C. C. and Ground) for 33 runs in the first and 19 in the second innings, and in winning 18, and drawing 12, out of 37 matches. From that time forward struggles between Australasia and England became regular matters of cricket-history. Football is another favourite game, played throughout Australasia during the cooler season, New Zealand being specially proficient in the Rugby game, which is also chiefly played in Queensland, while Victoria and New South Wales also have the sport under "Association" rules. Foot-racing, on the flat and over hurdles; walking-matches, and bicycling are also well established.

Coursing dates from the earliest settlement of Australia, when kangaroos were run down by special dogs, a fine breed peculiar to the country, being a cross between the greyhound and the English mastiff. As hares became plentiful, the sport with greyhounds was taken up, and became very popular; the Australian "Waterloo Cup" has stakes worth £1600, the Victorian Club has its "Derby", and the Ballarat Champion Stakes is another chief contest. The greyhounds are not inferior to the best dogs of that class in the British Isles; the hares, now chased on a "Plumpton" or inclosed course, are larger and stouter than those seen in Europe. Fox-hunting is exchanged, in Australia, for kangaroo-hunting by mounted men with dogs, a truly national sport, which includes occasional "drives" or battues in which are slain many hundreds of the marsupials that are so destructive to grass and so detrimental to the squatter's flocks and herds. The great passion, however, of Australians is that for horse-racing. The "horsiness" of the people goes even beyond anything known in the British Isles. On this subject we may well take the words of "Rolf Boldrewood", who "ought to know". In *Robbery under Arms* he makes one of his characters exclaim:—"I can't think as there's a country on the face of the earth where the people's fonder of horses. From the time they're able to walk, boys and girls, they're able to ride, and ride well. See the girls jump on barebacked, with nothing but a gunny-bag under 'em, and ride over logs and stones, through scrub and forest, down gullies, or along the side of a mountain. And a horse-race, don't the people love it? Wouldn't they give their souls almost—and they do often enough—for a real flyer, a thoroughbred, able to run away from everything in a country-race? The horse is a fatal animal to us, and many a man's ruin starts from a bit of horse-flesh not honestly come by." The first race-meeting ever held in Australasia was in 1810, at Parramatta. About 1826, when the Sydney Turf Club, with Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane as patron, had been established, Captain (afterwards Admiral) Rous, then commanding H.M.S. *Rainbow* in Australian waters, introduced the thoroughbred sire Emigrant, and so gave a great impetus to breeding in the colony (New South Wales). Before 1850, horse-racing was established throughout Australasia. One of the chief patrons of the turf was Mr. James White, born in New South Wales in 1828, who became a Member

of the Legislative Council, or Upper House, in 1874. This great and successful "squatter" had many winners in steeple-chasing and on the flat, and when he retired from the turf in 1890, one of his stud, Titan, brought 4000 guineas, the highest price ever given for a yearling in the colonies, the total, for 13 lots, being close upon 17,500 guineas. His colours were always justly popular, as those of a man whose horses were always sent to the post to try to win. Mr. W. C. Yuille, born in Dumbartonshire in 1819, who emigrated to Tasmania in 1836, and then became one of the earliest settlers in Victoria, was another great and successful owner of racers, a foremost man on the Victorian turf until his retirement in 1881, and the compiler of the *Australian Stud Book*, the standard work of reference on its subject in Australasia. At the present time, almost every little township and hamlet has its local race-club and periodical gathering. The Australian race-horse, too heavily handicapped, by the long voyage and the difference in climate, for much success on English courses, can meet at home the best horse-flesh of the world on even terms. The principal meetings are at Flemington race-course (one of the finest in the world) near Melbourne, and at Randwick, near Sydney. At the former, the chief race of Australia, for the Melbourne Cup, has added money to the amount of £10,000, the winning horse in 1890 carrying off £11,675, while the second won £2000 for his owner, and the third £1000. On that occasion, the first horse, Carbine, a five-year old, one of 38 starters, performed the feat of carrying 10 stone 5 lbs. for two miles in 3 minutes 28¼ seconds. The scene at Flemington on Cup Day is most brilliant, the number of spectators, including Australian belles and matrons in the gayest apparel, sometimes reaching 150,000. Returning for a moment to the subject of hunting, we may observe that there are now, in Victoria, regular Hunt Clubs, with meets at Melbourne, Geelong, and Ballarat, and another club at Adelaide; the dogs are harriers and fox-hounds, usually chasing the stag, and occasionally imported foxes.

Rowing, as is well known, is a favourite athletic exercise, both for professionals and amateurs, in all these colonies, being carried on, with yachting, in the harbours of many chief coast-towns, and especially on the Parramatta and Nepean Rivers, and in Sydney Harbour, New South Wales; on the Yarra and the Albert Park Lake at Melbourne, and on the Derwent River at Hobart. The

chief regatta of the year takes place at Sydney on Anniversary Day. In connection with Australian success in sculling, we need only mention the names of Beach, Trickett, Laycock, Kemp, H. E. Searle, and Stanbury as those of men who, between 1875 and 1891, contending against each other or with other notable performers, displayed the highest merit in this kind of athletics.

Before dealing with the great subject of Australian federation —now an accomplished fact—it may be well to indicate the high commercial position of the Australasian colonies, with special reference to their trade with the British Isles. We state first the total trade, inwards and outwards, of each colony, for 1898. At the head stood New South Wales, with a total value of exports, £27,648,117; of imports, £24,453,560. Victoria ranked second, with £15,872,246 exports, £16,768,904 imports. New Zealand came third, with £10,517,955 exports and £8,230,600 imports. Queensland had £10,856,127 exports and £6,007,266 imports. South Australia (including Northern Territory) ranked fifth, with £6,978,370 exports and £6,298,765 imports. Then came Western Australia, with £4,960,000 exports and £5,241,965 imports. Tasmania, lastly, had £1,803,369 exports and £1,650,018 imports. These figures are very large; in some cases they are almost startling, and they need explanation. Amongst other things, the totals indicate a great intercolonial trade. The above figures count *twice over* the value of goods produced in one colony and carried thence into another, and they reckon the same goods *three times* where they are imported from without—*i.e.* from Great Britain or any non-Australasian colony or any foreign country—into one Australasian colony and re-exported thence in the same year into another colony. In order to form a just idea of the trade of the Australasian colonies as a whole, it is necessary to eliminate the intercolonial traffic altogether. The following figures exclude the value of imports and exports exchanged between the various colonies. In 1885, the total external trade of the Australasian colonies of the British Empire was £72,220,444, composed of £41,136,038 value for imports, and £31,084,406 for exports. The year 1890 shows a remarkable change. In that year, the value of the total trade was £75,143,818, but it was made up of £38,451,160 imports, and £36,692,658 exports. It will be observed that whereas, in 1885, the excess-value of im-

ports over exports for Australasia was £10,051,632, five years later the excess-value of imports had fallen to £1,758,502. In 1891 this position was completely reversed, as the exports exceeded the imports by £1,915,712. In 1892 the excess-value of exports over imports, advancing "by leaps and bounds", was £6,266,931. In 1893 it was £11,936,758, and, in 1894, £13,064,942. In 1895, the value of exports over imports was £12,772,867. This value, after falling to £5,670,070 and £7,844,086 in 1896 and 1897, rose again to £10,979,276 in 1898, the whole external trade of that year for Australasia reaching the highest figures on record for those colonies—£85,600,442, composed of £37,310,583 for imports, and £48,289,859 for exports.

We must now, however, observe that the values of the exports of the Australasian colonies, more especially New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, are largely increased by the inclusion of articles which are the produce or manufacture of other colonies and countries. We obtain a just idea of the commercial value of these colonies to the empire from the following figures, which give, for each colony, the value of the home-productions or manufactures exported in 1898. For New South Wales the amount was £17,727,067; for Victoria, £11,778,883; for Queensland, £10,482,668; for New Zealand, £10,324,988; for Western Australia, £4,820,420; for South Australia (including £179,823 from Northern Territory), £2,666,832; and for Tasmania, £1,720,697, making a grand total of exported value of home-productions or manufactures for the Australasian colonies, in 1898, of £59,521,555. Let us now see the amount of trade in imports and exports in 1898 for each of these colonies with the United Kingdom. New South Wales (£7,744,418 imports from the British Isles, £7,734,880 exports) headed the list with £15,479,298. New Zealand (£5,148,833 imports, £8,265,499 exports) had £13,414,332. Victoria (£6,195,134 imports and £6,740,420 exports) ranked third, with £12,935,554. Queensland (£2,559,244 imports, £4,352,067 exports) had £6,911,311. Western Australia (£2,051,872 imports, £2,293,652 exports) had £4,345,524. South Australia (including £11,822 imports and £27,574 exports for Northern Territory, with £1,974,818 imports and £2,306,202 exports for South Australia proper) reached £4,320,416, and

Tasmania, with £465,544 imports and £431,518 exports, had a total trade with the British Isles, in 1898, to the value of £897,062. To sum up:—in 1898, within two years of the opening of the twentieth century, 110 years from the foundation of New South Wales, 69 years from the first settlement of Western Australia, 64 years from the first settlement in Victoria, 62 years from the colonization of South Australia, 58 years from the annexation of New Zealand, 39 years from the foundation of Queensland as a separate colony, and 95 years after the first occupation of Tasmania, these Australasian colonies had a total annual trade with the mother-country of them all to the vast amount (including imports from the United Kingdom, £26,151,685, and exports, £32,151,812) of £58,303,497. Here again we must, in order to appreciate exactly the commercial relations of the United Kingdom and our Australasian colonies, introduce a correction of the figures by confining the exports from the British Isles to the actual produce and manufactures of the mother-country. The value of the above in 1898 was £21,123,086, making the total trade amount to £53,274,898. Let us compare this total with others in the vast commerce of the British Empire, the value of our exports to the various regions being in all cases restricted to the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom. Among the other British possessions, India (with Ceylon) ranks first, having a total trade (£32,317,802 exports to the British Isles, and £30,906,727 imports) of £63,224,529. British North America (£20,754,642 exports, and £6,154,773 imports) comes second, at a great interval, with £26,909,415. The colonies and dependencies in South, East, and West Africa, including Mauritius, are third with (exports £8,627,024, imports £14,695,871) £23,322,895. It thus appears that Australasia, with less than five millions of population, has a trade with the United Kingdom amounting to over five-sixths of that of India, with 290 millions; and that these antipodean possessions of the British Crown, in their commerce with the home-country, surpass, by 3 millions sterling, the whole of our colonies and dependencies in North America and Africa put together. We are now in a position to understand the commercial value of Australasia to the United Kingdom in the way of products not only eminently suitable for, but absolutely essential to, our needs in the way of raw material

and food. It is a trade that must be guarded from destruction, or from interruption, by means of an irresistible British fleet, or the United Kingdom must perish from inanition. We turn to British trade with foreign countries, by way of comparison with our Australasian commerce. The United States, far ahead of all others, exported, in 1898, goods with the value of 126 millions to the British Isles, and imported to the worth of nearly 14¾ millions. France (exports to United Kingdom nearly 51½ millions, and imports nearly 13¾ millions) was second, at a vast interval, with a total value of over 65 millions. Germany (exports 28½ millions, imports 22½ millions) came third with 51 millions. Holland (exports 28½ millions, imports over 8½ millions) exceeded 37 millions. Belgium (exports 21½ millions, imports over 8¾ millions) had a total trade with Great Britain of 30¼ millions. Russia (exports 19½ millions, imports nearly 9¼ millions) had 28¾ millions. Hence it appears that the Australasian trade with Great Britain, in 1898, exceeded in value that of the United Kingdom with any foreign country except the United States and France. The great American republic stands alone. The Australasian trade was more than four-fifths of the French trade with Great Britain, and ranked fourth in the world, being surpassed only by our trade with the United States, France, and India. We deal, lastly, with the relative importance of our Australasian colonies as a market for the productions of the British Isles, and we find them ranking third in the world as consumers of British produce, surpassed, in their 21 millions of that value, only by British India (with Ceylon) with nearly 31 millions, and by Germany, with 22½ millions.

The last year of the nineteenth century was made for ever notable by the establishment of the Australian Commonwealth, the most important event in our colonial history since the foundation of the Canadian Dominion. The subject of Australian federation has been mentioned under the head of New South Wales. In tracing the history of the movement we find that, as with most schemes which are destined to endure, the matter was long debated and slowly matured. About the year 1852, a proposal was made for the establishment of a General Assembly to make laws in relation to intercolonial questions. The time, however, was not come for such an idea to be seriously entertained, and

more than thirty years passed away before the subject of federation was revived. Then, as the result of an Intercolonial Conference, the question came before the Imperial Parliament, and a measure was passed sanctioning the formation of a Federal Council, to which any colony could send delegates. The first meeting of the Council was held at Hobart in January, 1886, the year of the great Colonial Exhibition in London. The colonies represented in the Tasmanian capital were Victoria, Queensland, Western Australia, Tasmania, and Fiji. South Australia sent delegates to a subsequent assembly. The Federal Council, a purely deliberative body, did not frame proposals acceptable to the advocates of federation, and the matter stood over until February, 1890. At that time a Conference of representatives from the seven colonies of Australasia—the five Australian colonies, Tasmania, and New Zealand—was held in Melbourne, and it was resolved that delegates should be chosen from each of the colonies to meet at a National Australasian Convention, with power to consider and report upon an adequate scheme for a Federal Constitution. This body met at Sydney on March 2nd, 1891. Resolutions in favour of a Federal Constitution were carried, and a draft-bill was adopted for a "Commonwealth of Australia", but its provisions did not satisfy the several colonies, and the matter was again postponed.

In January, 1895, the Premiers of five of the colonies met at Hobart, and their deliberations resulted in a Convention of representatives of all the colonies, except Queensland, meeting at Adelaide in March; at Sydney in September, 1897; and at Melbourne in February, 1898. In March, 1898, a draft-bill was finally adopted for submission to all the colonies. In the following June, this bill was submitted, by the process known as *referendum*, or vote of the people—the furthest development of democracy yet attained—to the voting population of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania. The "Enabling Acts" passed in the colonial parliaments provided that, in the case of New South Wales, the minimum vote in favour of the bill should be 80,000; in Victoria, 50,000; and in Tasmania, 6000; in the case of South Australia, a bare majority of votes was to be sufficient to secure acceptance of the bill. In Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania, the bill was adopted by large

majorities. In New South Wales, there was a majority of 5367 for the bill, but it was virtually rejected, as the affirmative number of votes only reached 71,595 instead of 80,000. In Western Australia the bill was not submitted to the popular vote, as the Enabling Act of that colony provided that she could only join a federation of which New South Wales formed a part. The other colonies, though not formally prohibited by their statutes from federating without New South Wales, admitted in effect that the adhesion of the mother-colony—the earliest founded and the greatest in population—was needful to success in any scheme. In New South Wales, there was no school or party of politicians opposed to federation in principle. The differences were only in regard to the extent of concessions to be made for the purpose of securing the desired union.

Failure of adhesion in New South Wales seemed likely to prove a serious obstacle to further progress. Australian federation was, however, quite safe in the view of those who duly considered the political faculty of the British race for the attainment of an end by way of compromise. In January and February, 1899, there were meetings of the Premiers of the Australian Colonies at Melbourne, and amendments to meet the views of New South Wales were adopted. It was settled that when the Draft Commonwealth Bill, as amended, had been accepted by the Parliament of the mother-colony, it should be referred, as before, to the electors of that colony, and then to the popular vote in the other states. In New South Wales, there was a conflict between the two Houses of the Legislature, which was ended by the addition of twelve new members to the Upper House. The results of the voting by *referendum* were, in New South Wales, 107,420 for the bill, and 82,741 against, giving a majority of 24,679 in favour of the measure for federation. In Victoria, with 152,653 in favour, there were only 9805 opponents. In Queensland, the numbers were 38,488 for, and 30,996 against the bill. In South Australia, the federationists were 64,929, the opponents 17,000. In Tasmania, there were 13,437 for federation, and only 791 against the scheme. The result was, that of 518,260 persons who, in the above five colonies, voted on the measure, there were 376,927 in favour of the federation bill, and 141,333 against it, leaving the large majority of

235,594 in behalf of federation. At a conference of Australian premiers held at Sydney on January 25th, 1900, it was agreed that a Federal Delegation should proceed to London to explain the bill and assist in its promotion in the Imperial Parliament.

On July 9th, 1900, the great measure known as "The Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act" was passed, uniting in "one indissoluble Federal Commonwealth under the Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland" the people of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, and Tasmania. Provision was made for the future admission of Western Australia, if the people of that colony so desired. The Federal Parliament, under the Act, consists of the Sovereign, a Senate, and a House of Representatives, the Sovereign being represented by a Governor-general appointed by the Crown, with an annual salary of £10,000 paid by the Commonwealth. The Senate consists of six members for each state, directly chosen by the people of the state, voting as one electorate. The senators are chosen for a term of six years. The qualifications of a senator are the same as those of a member of the House of Representatives, viz.: that he must have attained the age of 21 years; that he must be qualified as an elector of the House of Representatives; that he has resided three years at least within the limits of the Federal Commonwealth; and that he is a British subject, either natural born or for five years naturalized. The President of the Senate is a member chosen by the body of senators. A quorum of senators for the transaction of business must consist of at least one-third of the whole number. The President has a vote in all cases; when the votes are equal the question is to pass in the negative. The House of Representatives is composed of members directly chosen by the people of the Commonwealth, the number of such members to be, as nearly as practicable, twice the number of the senators; the number of representatives chosen in the several States being in proportion to the respective numbers of population. At the first election, New South Wales had 23 members; Victoria, 20; Queensland, 8; South Australia, 6; and Tasmania, 5. The House of Representatives continues for three years from the first meeting, but may be dissolved sooner by the Governor-general. The Speaker is chosen by the members from among their own

number. In both the Senate and the House of Representatives, the place of a member becomes vacant if, for two consecutive months of any session, he fails to attend the Senate or the House without the permission of the body for absence. In the House of Representatives the Speaker (not otherwise voting) has a casting-vote if the votes are equal. The disqualifications for either House of the Parliament are the being the subject of a foreign power; being attainted of treason, or being under sentence for any offence punishable by imprisonment for one year or longer; being an undischarged bankrupt, or insolvent; or having any direct or indirect pecuniary interest in any agreement with the Public Service of the Commonwealth otherwise than as a member of an incorporated company of more than 25 persons. Each Senator and Member of the House of Representatives receives an allowance of £400 a year.

The powers of the new Australian Parliament are of the fullest kind, subject in some cases to the concurrence of the parliaments of States in the Commonwealth directly concerned in any measures. Bills appropriating revenue or imposing taxation cannot originate in the Senate, which body cannot amend any such bills, nor amend any proposed law so as to increase any charge or burden on the people. Any differences of opinion on bills between the Senate and the House of Representatives may, after the lapse of three months, in the same or the next session, without any agreement being reached, cause the Governor-general to dissolve both Houses simultaneously, provided that such dissolution do not take place within six months of the date of the expiry of the House of Representatives by effluxion of time. If the new Houses cannot agree on the bill which caused the disagreement, the Governor-general may convene a joint sitting of the two Houses, and the votes of an absolute majority of the total number of that convention shall be decisive on all disputed points.

For executive purposes, the Governor-general is advised by a Federal Council of members chosen and summoned by himself, and holding office during his pleasure. Ministers to discharge the duties of the various departments of State are appointed by the Governor-general in Council, and hold office during his pleasure. No minister can hold office for longer than three months without being either a Senator or a member of the House

of Representatives. Unless Parliament otherwise provides, the Ministers of State are not to exceed seven in number, with total annual salaries of £12,000 a year. The Governor-general, as the King's representative, has the command-in-chief of the naval and military forces of the Commonwealth.

The judicial power of the Commonwealth is vested in a Federal Supreme Court, called the "High Court of Australia", and in such other federal courts as Parliament may create. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and so many other Justices, not less than two, as Parliament may prescribe. The Justices of all federal courts are appointed by the Governor-general in Council, and hold office on the same terms as in Great Britain, being incapable of removal except by the Governor-general in Council, on an address presented by both Houses in the same session praying for such removal on the ground of proved misbehaviour or incapacity. The High Court has jurisdiction to hear and determine appeals from all other courts in the Commonwealth, including the Supreme Court of any State on any matter in which, at the establishment of the Commonwealth, an appeal lay from such Supreme Court to the King in Council. No appeal is permitted to the King in Council from a decision of the High Court upon any question as to the limits *inter se* of the constitutional powers of the Commonwealth and those of any federal State or States, or as to the limits *inter se* of the constitutional powers of any two or more States, unless the High Court shall certify that the question is one which ought to be determined by the King in Council.

The Act also provided that, within two years of the establishment of the Commonwealth, uniform duties of customs should be imposed, and that, on the imposition of such duties, trade, commerce, and intercourse among the States, whether by means of internal carriage or ocean navigation, should be absolutely free.

The Parliaments of the several federal States, subject to the Constitution, retained their former powers, and, with the same proviso, every law in force in any State remained valid. The Commonwealth, by the Act, is expressly precluded from "establishing" any religion, or imposing any religious observance, or prohibiting the free exercise of any religion, or requiring any religious test as a qualification for any office or public trust. The

seat of government of the Commonwealth is to be determined by the Parliament; it is to be in the State of New South Wales, distant not less than 100 miles from Sydney, to be situated within territory acquired by the Commonwealth, and vested in and belonging to the same, such territory to contain an area of not less than 100 square miles. Parliament was to sit at Melbourne until it met at the seat of government. Any alteration in the Constitution must be passed by an absolute majority of each House, and confirmed, within six months, by the electors in each State who are qualified to vote for the House of Representatives, the decision, in case of disagreement between the States, resting with a majority of the States thus consulted.

Such, in its main features, is the constitution of the new Federation, the Commonwealth of Australia, a strong bulwark of the empire in the distant Southern Sea, a State in the highest sense, not made of "high rais'd battlement and labour'd mound, Thick wall or moated gate"; nor of "cities proud, with spires and turrets crown'd"; not merely of "bays and broad-arm'd ports Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride"; but of "men who their duties know, But know their rights; and knowing dare maintain". It was of happy augury for the Australian state that her hardy, skilful, centaur-like warriors were, in the moment of her new birth, fighting amidst men from the home-country for the suppression of an ignoble tyranny in South Africa. July the 9th, 1900, when the Act was passed, was a memorable day of a memorable year in the political history of the British Empire. Then, for the second time in our records, a group of Colonies became a Nation, to take its place beside the Dominion of Canada among the Commonwealth of Free Nations, united, by links of loyalty alone, under the British Crown. Queen Victoria, wisest and best of sovereigns and women, could not and did not fail to recognize, by a gracious and appropriate gift, the historic significance of the occasion. The writing-table upon which she appended her signature to the Commission by which the Royal Assent was given to the Bill, and the quill pen and silver inkstand used, were presented to the new community of States for preservation in the Federal Parliament House. The principle of Home Rule, of which the long reign of Victoria witnessed so many developments within her dominions, was illustrated vividly in the

LORD HOPETOUN

The Right Hon. John Adrian Louis Hope, G.C.M.G., Seventh Earl of Hopetoun, first Governor-General of Federated Australasia, was born at Hopetoun House, South Queensferry, Linlithgowshire, in 1860, and succeeded his father in the title and estates in 1873. Educated at Eton, Lord Hopetoun was Lord-in-waiting to Queen Victoria in 1885–89. In 1887–89 he held the post of Lord High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. In 1889 he was appointed Governor of the great Australian colony of Victoria, and served until 1895, winning great popularity in Australia. In 1895 he became Paymaster-General, and in 1898 was appointed Lord Chamberlain of the Household. A genial man, and a courtier of the best type, Lord Hopetoun has interests of a wide scope, as President of the Institution of Naval Architects; Captain in the Lanarkshire Yeomanry; Hon. Lieutenant-colonel Commandant of the Forth Division of Volunteer Submarine Miners, and master of packs of harriers and beagles. In the autumn of 1900 he sailed for his new and responsible post in Australasia.



From a Photograph by J. THOMSON, London, W. 91

LORD HOPETOUN

fact that the Act was, substantially, the unamended work of the Australian people themselves. They agreed, and the Imperial Parliament therefore enacted. Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Andrew Clarke, R.E.; G.C.M.G.; C.B.; C.I.E., Agent-General for Victoria colony, sole survivor of the original framers of the constitution of that Australian state in 1855, when the grant of self-government was made to Victoria, aptly recalled, in a letter to the public press, a despatch of the late Earl Russell written by him when, as Lord John Russell, he was Colonial Secretary. Great Britain was at that time engaged in the Crimean War, and the British minister referred to the fact that "the colony (Victoria) had shown, not only by ordinary manifestations of loyalty, but by deep sympathy practically evinced, in common with the other Australian colonies, with the fortunes of the Mother Country in her present struggle, how strong beyond mere political union are the ties which attach the distant branches of the ancient stem to the Empire. It remains", he continued, "for the colony to prove that the exercise of the fullest political rights will at once contribute to the continuance of extraordinary internal progress, and to the maintenance of that powerful feeling of British union and British consanguinity." The foresight of the great Whig statesman was abundantly justified in the vast progress made by the Australian colonies, and it was a happy coincidence, as above noted, that, in the year when Australia was setting-up a constitution under which she is to exercise the fullest political rights as a Nation, the mother-country, again engaged in a serious struggle, received the most convincing and gratifying evidence of British solidarity, in the help of Australia's sons, freely given to fight and die for the cause of the Empire.

The first Governor-general of the new Commonwealth was the Earl of Hopetoun, K.T.; G.C.M.G., a nobleman who, having most recently filled at home the offices of Paymaster-general and Lord Chamberlain, had, as above recorded, been for five years Governor of Victoria. He won the liking and respect of Australians in that capacity by good sense, admirable address, and splendid hospitality. His second son, born in Australia, was christened "Charles Melbourne". The new ruler, a man in his 40th year, had also served at home as Lord High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, as President

of the Institution of Naval Architects, and as Hon. Lieut.-Colonel of the Forth Division of Volunteer Submarine Miners. In Australian eyes, it is not the least of Lord Hopetoun's merits that he is a keen sportsman. Lady Hopetoun, who was very popular in Victoria, is a daughter of the fourth Lord Ventry, an Irish Representative Peer in the Parliament of Great Britain. We need only note lastly, that the Queen, in order to show special honour to the new Commonwealth, sent forth, in the spring of 1901, her grandson the Duke of York, second in the line of succession to the throne, escorted by a squadron of war-cruisers, and attended by an Imperial and Colonial body-guard, to open the first session of the first Federal Parliament of Australia.

Before the close of the year 1900, the people of Western Australia gave their adhesion to the measure, and were duly admitted to the Federation, which thus includes all the great Australasian colonies except New Zealand.

We turn to the important and highly practical matter of colonial defence. It is since 1851 that each Australasian colony has made considerable efforts, with the aid of the Home-Government, to provide effectual defence against foreign aggression. Taking first the subject of coast-fortifications, we find that in 1860 Captain (afterwards Major-General Sir Peter) Scratchley, of the Royal Engineers, of distinguished service in the Crimean War and Indian Mutiny, was selected to superintend the erection of defence-works in Victoria. He was engaged for over three years in devising a scheme, which was partly carried out. In 1876, Lord Carnarvon, the Colonial Secretary, chose the same able officer, then Lieutenant-Colonel, to act, with Sir William Jervois, whom we have seen as Governor of New Zealand and of South Australia, as adviser to the Australasian Governments on the subject of defence. In accordance with their recommendations, Port Phillip and Melbourne, in Victoria; Port Jackson, Sydney, and Botany Bay, in New South Wales; Moreton Bay and Brisbane, in Queensland; Adelaide, Hobart, Auckland, Wellington, Lyttelton, and Dunedin have been, to a large extent, provided with forts, batteries, and submarine mines. Their suggestions were also of great service with regard to the naval system of defence which has been adopted. Sydney is a first-class naval station, the head-quarters of the British fleet in Australasia, with 12 imperial

warships, in 1897, in that command. There are also five fast cruisers, each of 2575 tons and 7500 horse-power, and two torpedo-gunboats, of 735 tons and 3500 horse-power, attached to the Australian Squadron. These vessels, built by the British Government, and maintained at the cost of the Australian colonies, under the Australasian Naval Force Act of 1887, are the cruisers *Tauranga*, *Katoomba*, *Ringarooma*, *Mildura*, and *Wallaroo*, each carrying eight guns, and the torpedo-boats *Boomerang* and *Karrakatta*, each of two guns. Under the agreement with the colonies they are not to be removed from the station in case of war. Victoria has a fleet of her own, consisting of nine ships and torpedo-boats, with 88 guns, including the coast-defence ironclad *Cerberus*, of 3480 tons, and six gunboats. Queensland has five armed vessels carrying eight guns. As regards military defence, New South Wales, in 1901, possessed a complete force, organized throughout in every branch and every department on the latest modern lines, with the requisite proportions of Cavalry, Mounted Rifles, Artillery, Infantry, Engineers, Medical Staff, Army Service Corps, and Ordnance Store Corps. The arrangements are such that the whole military force of the colony can be mobilized at a short notice. On July 1st, 1899, the totals of the various departments of the Military Forces were as follows:—Permanent troops:—Head-Quarters Staff, 23 Military Secretary's Department—Finance, 8; Pay, 5; Ordnance, 21. Mounted Brigade:—Lancers, 413; Mounted Rifles, 372; First Australian Volunteer Horse, 500. Artillery:—Staff, 10; Brigade Division, Field, 237; First Garrison Division, 449; Second Garrison Division, 422. Engineers:—Staff, 19; Field, 115; Submarine Miners, 98; Electricians, 69. Infantry:—1st Regiment, 627; 2nd Regiment, 638; 3rd Regiment, 622; 4th Regiment, 631; Volunteer Staff, 1; 5th Regiment (Scottish Rifles), 507; 6th Regiment (Australian Rifles), 610; 7th Regiment (St. George's Rifles), 565; National Guards, 143; 8th Regiment (Irish Rifles and Kogorah Company), 419. Army Service Corps, 75. Army Medical Corps (Permanent Establishment), 130; Volunteer Establishment, 29. Chaplains, 14. Veterinary Department, 4. Total, 7776. Rifle-Club Reservists, 1700. Total, 9476. In connection with the public schools, a Cadet-force has been established, with the intent that every schoolboy shall be trained to the use of arms. The force is now about 5000

strong, each cadet wearing a distinctive uniform with accoutrements.

In Victoria, the old Volunteer force has been practically displaced by the Militia organization, certain officers of the Imperial forces being employed for periods of service in the colony. A Victorian Scottish Regiment was formed in 1898. The colonial forces consist of a permanent force, a militia force, and volunteers. The respective establishments are as follows:—Permanent forces:—Head-Quarters Staff, 4; Militia Staff, 29; do. Victorian Mounted Rifles, 10; do. Victorian Rangers, 11; do. Cadet Corps, 2; Permanent Section, Victorian Engineers, 31; Victorian Artillery, 288; Staff-clerks, 6. Total, Permanent Forces, 381. Militia:—Head-Quarters Staff, 6; Field-Artillery (A, B, C Batteries and Head-Quarters), 269. Garrison Artillery, Geelong, 249; Harbour Trust, 186; North Melbourne, 186; Williamstown, 103; Port Fairy, 26; Warnambool, 60; Portland, 57; and Batteries; total 867. Victorian Engineers Submarine Mining Company, 84; do. Queencliff Section, 20; do. Field Company, 75. Infantry:—1st Battalion (Melbourne), 455; 2nd Battalion (Melbourne), 455; 3rd Battalion (Ballarat), 456; 4th Battalion (Castlemaine), 301; 5th Battalion (Bendigo), 301. Ambulance Corps, 40. Army Service Corps, 39. Medical Staff, 16. Total Militia, 3385. Volunteers:—Mounted Rifles, 800; Victorian Rangers, 850. Grand Total, 5867. In the above return Rifle-clubs are not included. A Highland Regiment has been recently formed.

In South Australia, under "The Defences Act", 1895, the military forces are divided into three classes—Permanent, Active, and Reserve Forces, with ample opportunities for training, an annual encampment, and a full course of musketry instruction. The present numbers of the new force, including military forces, rifle-clubs, and police, are 134 officers, 2326 non-coms. and men, 789 horses, and 21 field-guns. A very large Reserve is provided for by the formation of "Defence Rifle-Clubs" under the Act. In Western Australia, the volunteer forces consist of two batteries of Field Artillery, one at Perth, the other at Fremantle, and ten companies of Infantry, the military posts being Perth, Fremantle, Guildford, Geraldton, Albany, York, and Bunbury. Albany is fortified by two batteries of B.L. 6-inch guns, with a garrison of one company permanent artillery, and a small corps of submarine-miners.

In Queensland, the Defence Force, in 1900, numbered 279 officers, and 2548 men. The Volunteer Force numbered 32 officers and 487 men, in addition to whom there are members of Rifle-Clubs and the Police Force. The forces include 8 batteries of artillery, 1 company of engineers, 4 regiments of infantry, 10 companies of rifles, 12 companies mounted infantry, and 4 ambulance-corps. The entrance to Brisbane River is protected by two batteries and a system of submarine mines. There are also several grammar and state school companies of cadets, totalling 414 members.

In Tasmania, on January 1st, 1900, in all branches of the service, including 300 cadets, there were 1650 efficients. The permanent staff comprises a commandant and other officers, with artillery and infantry instructors. The permanent artillery-force has 10 men, and a torpedo-corps of 42 men, with 4 officers on the staff and for instruction. Their duties are mainly the care of the batteries. The Auxiliary Force is made up of 20 companies, with an aggregate numerical strength of 1156, of whom 926 had, in the year 1899, completed the annual course of musketry. Small annual camps of exercise for the auxiliary force are held, and officers and non-coms. attend instruction-classes at their own cost. The defences consist of four batteries on the River Derwent, and a small battery on the Tamar. At Brown's Bluff, on the Tamar, another battery is now constructed for the defence of Launceston. Two 8-inch and two 80-pounder Armstrong guns are mounted on the Kangaroo Bluff Battery, the guns being worked by hydro-pneumatic machinery. The fort, of a pentagonal shape, is surrounded by a wide ditch. At Alexandra Battery, on the other side of the river, a bomb-proof shelter has been erected for the pumps and other stores. A powerful dynamo-electric light is used for lighting the Derwent. The country-auxiliaries do very satisfactory work in rifle-practice and squad and company drill, and form the most efficient branch of the volunteer-service. They provide themselves with ranges, butts, markers, mantlets, and other equipment, and pay the cost of transit of arms, accoutrements, and ammunition supplied by the Government. A grant in aid is made by Parliament, and Government prizes are annually awarded.

In New Zealand, we find the Volunteer forces, on June 30th,

1899, consisting of—Cavalry, 2 corps, 117 men; mounted rifles, 16 corps, 974 men; naval artillery, 9 corps, 815 men; garrison artillery, 2 corps, 156 men; field artillery, 5 corps, 332 men; engineers, 2 corps, 211 men; rifles, 73 corps, 4646 men. Honorary Reserve Rifles form 1 corps, 47 men. Total of 110 corps, 6639 men, in addition to 41 corps comprising 2295 cadets. There is also a Permanent Militia Force, the artillery branch consisting of 1 major, 2 captains, 3 lieutenants, 1 military cadet, 1 master-gunner, 1 artillery-instructor, and 217 non-coms. and men. There are 4 batteries, respectively stationed at Auckland, Wellington (head-quarters), Lyttelton, and Dunedin. The submarine-miners consist of 2 captains, with a total of 76 of all ranks. Considerable attention has been given to the work of placing the chief ports of the colony in a state of defence. At Auckland, works have been undertaken at North Head, Point Resolution, and Mount Victoria. At Wellington, batteries have been erected at Point Halswell, Gordon Point, and Kaiwarra. At Lyttelton, works have been constructed at Battery Point, Spur Point, and Erskine Point, also at Taiaroa Head, for the defence of Port Chalmers, and at the Ocean Beach, to protect Dunedin. Guns of the latest type, machine-guns, Nordenfelt 6-pounders, Hotchkiss and Maxim guns, Whitehead torpedoes and other accessories for coast-defence have also been provided. Submarine-mining stations have been erected at each of the above ports, and arrangements made for lighting the harbours with very powerful electric-lights. The total expenditure on defences, up to March 31st, 1899, had been nearly 1¾ millions, the net expenditure for the year 1898–99 being about £125,000. It is evident from the above statements that the Australasian colonies could make a formidable opposition to any attempts at invasion. What they have recently done for the Empire in South Africa proves that they could put many thousands of extra-defenders into the field to resist attack at home, while the above details show that their forces ready to be mobilized have a total exceeding 40,000 officers and men, including the cadets, who could, in case of extreme need, doubtless lay low with bullets their country's foes.

We conclude by noting that, at the end of the year 1900, the Imperial squadron in Australian waters included the *Royal Arthur*, 13 guns, 1st class cruiser, flag-ship of Rear-Admiral

Beaumont; the *Pylades*, 14 guns, 3rd class cruiser; the *Archer* and *Porpoise*, 3rd class cruisers, each 6 guns; the *Ringdove*, 6 guns, 1st class gunboat; and the 6-gun sloop *Torch*. In case of need, this squadron could be speedily reinforced from the Pacific, Cape, and China detachments of the Imperial fleet.

CHAPTER XIV.

AUSTRALASIA.—*Concluded.*

FIJI, NEW GUINEA (BRITISH), PACIFIC SPORADES.

Principal islands of the FIJI group—Their area and population—Physical features—Climate—Hurricanes—Character and customs of the natives—Early visits to the islands—Arrival of missionaries—Conversion of the people—Cession to Great Britain—Fearful epidemic of measles—Able services of Sir John Thurston—Government—Education—Industries and trade—Revenue, expenditure, and debt—Means of communication. BRITISH NEW GUINEA—Position and main features of the island—Its various tribes—Early voyagers—The coast surveyed—British occupation—Dutch and German possessions—Effects of British rule—Trade. NORFOLK ISLAND group—Inhabitants of Pitcairn Island transferred—Head-quarters of the Melanesian Mission. Pitcairn Island—Christmas, Exchequer, Fanning, and Penrhyn Islands—Flint and Jarvis Islands—Malden and Starbuck Islands—Cook (or Hervey) Islands—Suwarrow Islands—Lord Howe Islands. Western Pacific Protectorate—Tonga and other groups.

The important and interesting territory known as *Fiji* consists of over 200 islands, islets, and rocks, of volcanic and coralline formation, lying between the 15th and 22nd parallels of south latitude, and in 177° west to 175° east longitude, or about 300 miles north-west of the Tonga or Friendly Islands. About 80 of the islands are inhabited; two are of far greater size than the rest. These are Viti Levu ("Great Viti", the usual native name of the group, pronounced "Fiji" in the Tongan dialect of the eastern or windward islands of the archipelago), with an area of about 4200 sq. miles, nearly the size of Jamaica, and Vanua Levu ("Great Land"), of about 2500 sq. miles. The next in size are Tavi Uni (217), on the south-east of Vanua, and Kadavu (124), south of Viti. Between the two former and the two latter, all lying on the north-west of the group, are Ovalau (43 sq. miles), Angau or Gau (45), and Koro (58). The total area is about 7740 sq. miles, or somewhat greater than that of Wales; the population, at the end of 1896, was estimated at about 120,500, comprising 3292 Europeans, of whom

nearly two-thirds were males; over 1200 half-castes; over 10,400 Indians (coolie labourers, of whom over two-thirds were males); about 2300 Polynesians from various islands; about 2150 Rotumans, natives of Rotumah, a small island about 300 miles to the north-west, annexed to Fiji as a dependency in 1881; and 100,320 native Fijians. The group is encircled, on all sides but the south, by a great barrier-reef, broken by numerous passages, especially on the east, and most of the islands have their own encircling reef, with good passage-ways through them and excellent harbours on the inner side. The appearance of the larger islands is grandly picturesque, with richly-wooded mountains rising to a height of nearly 5000 feet, intersected by valleys and gorges worn by the countless streams, or of volcanic excavation; and a palm-fringed coast, where the brown roofs of the native villages peep out among the rich tropical verdure, while outside all come the narrow strip of sand, the smooth expanse of the lagoon, and the white ring of surf as the Pacific waves break upon the reef. The largest of the rivers fed by thousands of small streams is the Rewa, about 90 miles in length, navigable for over 40 miles by small craft from the point where it enters the sea on the south-east of Viti Levu. There is much fertile soil in the river-deltas and flats, and in scattered places throughout the group. Tavi Uni is very beautiful and luxuriant, with a mountain 2500 feet high, having on its summit a lake whose cavity is probably the crater of an extinct volcano.

The climate, for a region of tropical heat, with a rainfall (varying much in different islands) of about 100 inches annually on the coast, is not unhealthy, though it is somewhat enervating for Europeans, whose most frequent disease is dysentery. Zymotic and endemic maladies are rare. January, February, and March, which are generally wet and sultry months, are the season for fierce and justly dreaded hurricanes. On January 6th and 7th, 1895, the most disastrous storm recorded in Fiji swept the islands, doing vast damage at the capital, Suva, where the customs-house, three churches, and scores of houses were levelled to the ground, while in Levuka two large sailing-ships and dozens of smaller craft were blown on to the coral-reef and destroyed. The lighthouse on the northernmost island of the archipelago was also ruined. The destructive effect of these tempests on buildings and, especially, on

crops, is largely compensated by the good which they perform in clearing away excessive vegetation, destroying noxious insects, and charging the atmosphere with abundant ozone. The natives are of mixed Papuan and Polynesian race, varying in hue from light brown to full black, with good physique. The social system is patriarchal, with inheritance usually through the father; a tribal land-tenure, with apportionment to special owners; and a highly conservative feeling as to occupations, the son engaging only in what his father did before him, and performing his work precisely in the olden fashion. The hill-tribes lived in villages fortified by moat, earth-work, and double stockade, waging almost constant war with each other under the influence of the blood-feud which was a religious institution, and of the jealousy among male children arising from the polygamy which provided many claimants for power. The native arts of the Fijians included some degree of skill in agriculture, the construction of comfortable houses, and of good sea-worthy canoes without the use of iron tools; with the making of pottery, and of a cloth not woven, but beaten out from the inner bark of the paper-mulberry, and painted and printed from carved wooden blocks in patterns of some taste. Their fishing-nets were strongly made from cocoa-nut fibre, and large weirs were constructed on the streams for catching the chief addition to their vegetable diet of yams, bananas, sugar-cane, sweet-potatoes, bread-fruit, and cocoa-nuts. Their pagan practices, due, perhaps, rather to superstition than to innate cruelty, comprised cannibalism, infanticide, and the practice of burying sickly and aged persons alive.

Such were the people and the land first seen, so far as is known, by European eyes when Tasman sailed through the group in 1643. Turtle Island (or Vatoa) was discovered and so named by Captain Cook in 1773; Bligh passed among the islands in 1789, during his famous boat-voyage after the "Mutiny of the *Bounty*", and from time to time shipwrecked sailors and escaped convicts from Norfolk Island settled among the natives. Many vessels, early in the nineteenth century, began to trade there for trepang (*bêche-de-mer*) to gratify Chinese epicures, for sandal-wood to burn before Chinese idols, and for tortoise-shell. The first great event in Fijian history was the arrival of Wesleyan missionaries, in the year 1835, from the Friendly Isles or Tonga Group. The devotion, perseverance, and heroism of these men and their wives were rewarded, after

many years, by one of the most conspicuous triumphs in the modern history of Christianity. Nearly the whole of the people were converted to a belief in and practice of the religion of the Gospel. Thakombau, the first and last chieftain who ever took the title of "King of Fiji", a man who had displayed the utmost ferocity in dealing with conquered and captured foes, embraced Christianity on April 30th, 1854, and proclaimed the abolition of cannibalism. Three years later he abandoned polygamy and was married to one wife according to the Wesleyan rite; and on January 11th, 1858, they were baptized under the names of "Ebenezer" and "Lydia". During the above period, foreign settlement had begun on a considerable scale. Between 1850 and 1860 stations arose for the purchase of cocoa-nut oil, and the American Civil War of 1861 to 1865, with the consequent "cotton-famine", caused an influx from Australia of enterprising planters who produced the finest Sea Island cotton. After a series of events of small importance, including internal dissension and an abortive attempt at "constitutional" government on the part of Thakombau, the sovereignty of the Fiji Islands was offered, by him and other leading chiefs, to Queen Victoria, and accepted by her at the close of 1874. The territory thus became a "Crown colony". The ex-king, with his two sons, visited Sydney at this time, and there contracted measles, a disease introduced either by himself on his return, or by sailors on board a British vessel, with very disastrous effects. About 40,000 natives, or more than one-fourth of the population, perished from this malady, and those who had opposed the surrender of their country to foreign hands naturally regarded the visitation as a proof of divine displeasure. The man to whom was mainly due the cession of Fiji to Great Britain was Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Thurston, born at Bath in 1836. Thirty years later, he was employed in the British consulate of Fiji and Tonga, and became Acting-consul in 1869, and then, in 1872, by the united call of natives and settlers, "Chief Secretary and Foreign Minister" to Thakombau. His ability and energy powerfully influenced the "king" and his fellow-chiefs in offering the country to Thurston's own sovereign. The first British Governor was the Sir Arthur Gordon whom we have seen as ruler of New Zealand. He found, on his arrival, that Mr. Thurston had cleared his way by subduing, after a sharp and decisive conflict, the hill-tribes of Viti Levu, who had alone persisted in paganism

and its evil practices. In 1887, after being connected with, and in occasional control of, the colony, as local Colonial Secretary, and Acting-Governor, since the cession in 1874, Sir John Thurston, K.C.M.G., was appointed Governor of Fiji and High Commissioner and Consul-General for the Western Pacific. This was a suitable, if somewhat late, recognition of the merits of one to whom belongs the chief credit of the political and commercial development of the islands. Dr. (now Sir William) MacGregor, who went out with Sir Arthur Gordon as chief medical officer of Fiji, was "Receiver-General" of the colony from 1877 to 1888, and rendered great service in sanitary measures, training young Fijians to treat diseases most prevalent among their countrymen. The present Governor is Sir G. T. M. O'Brien, K.C.M.G.

The islands are ruled by the Governor, assisted by an Executive Council composed of the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Receiver-General. Laws are made by a Legislative Council (with the Governor as President) of six official and six non-official members, the former including the members of the executive, the Chief Justice, the Commissioner of Lands, and the chief medical officer. There is no military force; order is maintained by an armed native constabulary of 100 officers and men. The immediate rule of the natives is conducted by a system under which the Fijian customs and former self-government are largely maintained through superior native chiefs, each administering a province; in three other provinces a resident British officer acts as "Commissioner". About 160 native chiefs of inferior rank are in Government pay as holders of subordinate posts, and minor judicial affairs are intrusted to 13 British and 33 native stipendiary magistrates. The natives pay taxes in the form of produce consisting of copra, sugar-cane, tobacco, yagora (a kind of pepper), cotton, maize, and bêche-de-mer. Municipal bodies elected by the ratepayers exist in the towns of Suva and Levuka. The former, the seat of government, is on the south coast of Viti Levu, containing about 900 European inhabitants, with a fine harbour, a water-supply from the hills five miles distant, and a principal thoroughfare in the wide Victoria Parade, about a mile in length, raised in stone-work above the flat running back from the beach. The buildings include four hotels, a hospital, a lunatic asylum, and a Mechanics' Institute with a good library. Levuka, from which the seat of government was transferred in

1882, lies on the east coast of Ovalau, with a European population exceeding 400. As regards religious profession, we find that over 100,000 persons, in 1892, were adherents of the Wesleyan, and 10,000 of the Roman Catholic, missions. Apart from two public elementary schools, in Suva and Levuka, aided by the State, and containing 146 pupils in 1892, the education of the native Fijians is conducted by the Wesleyans in nearly 2000 schools with 40,000 pupils, while the Roman Catholics instruct about 2000 scholars. In Vanua Levu is a Government industrial and technical school, in which about 70 native youths are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, boat-building, house-building, cattle-tending, and agriculture.

The chief industries of the colony lie in tillage and sugar-making. In 1896, European settlers had under cultivation, for sugar-cane, 18,432 acres; cocoa-nuts, 17,704 acres; bananas, 1230 acres; yams, etc., about 1120 acres, and a few hundred acres growing tea, pea-nuts, rice, and tobacco. The sugar manufacture deals at six mills, supplied with the best machinery, with the canes grown on plantations varying in extent from 50 to 700 acres, from which the produce is despatched by steamers and lighters, and in trucks drawn by locomotives over many miles of tramway. Scarcely any direct trade is carried on between this colony and the British Isles, our imports and exports passing through Australia and New Zealand, with which countries 90 per cent of the Fijian commerce is concerned. In 1896, the exports had a total value of about £435,000, the chief items being sugar (27,334 tons, worth £337,000); copra (the dried kernel of cocoa-nut, 5487 tons, value nearly £50,000); green fruit (pine-apples and bananas, £18,490); and pea-nuts (£3650). Minor exports included bêche-de-mer, cotton, tortoise-shell, arrow-root, Angora hair, hides, molasses, pearl-shell, sandal-wood, tea, tobacco, and turtles. We may note that the live stock, in 1897, consisted of 1630 horses and mules, about 12,500 horned cattle, 4760 sheep, and 3115 Angora goats. In the year 1896, goods to the value of over £242,000 were imported in drapery, hardware (including galvanized iron and machinery), coal, timber, manure (£22,000), bags and sugar-mats (£5500), breadstuffs and biscuits, live stock, meats, and rice; of these, meats, breadstuffs, coal, manure, live stock, and machinery enter free of import duties. The revenue in 1896 was £73,869, mainly derived from customs-duties, native taxes, licenses, and wharfage and

shipping dues on vessels, entered and cleared, with a total of 220,000 tons. The expenditure, in the same year, was £73,100, and the total debt of the colony amounted to £218,000. As concerns means of communication, there are a few good roads on the larger islands, no railways or telegraphs, and the nearest points for telegraphic communication with Europe are Auckland in New Zealand, 1200 miles distant, and Sydney, 1900 miles away. Sailing boats and steam launches, with an inter-insular steamer, pass to and fro in the group of islands, and steamers run twice a month to Sydney, in addition to irregular steam vessels engaged in the sugar trade; and monthly to Melbourne and Auckland. The colony entered the Postal Union in 1891, making the postage 2½*d.* for half-ounce letters to foreign countries and all parts of the British Empire, with 2*d.* postage to Australia and New Zealand and within the colony. The currency, weights, and measures are the same as in the United Kingdom. Rotumah, with about 2300 people, and copra as the staple export, is ruled by a European commissioner and native magistrates.

British New Guinea, one of our latest acquisitions, may be briefly dealt with, as a territory whose importance belongs to the future historian. The vast island, over six times as large as England, the largest in the world except the Australian continent, lies on the north of Torres Strait, from 80 to 90 miles across from Australia at the narrowest point, in the longitude of York Peninsula. A description of New Guinea, having mountains that reach 20,000 feet in height, a great number of large rivers, a rich and highly diversified flora, and fauna allied to the Australian, with a special form in the gorgeous Bird of Paradise, must be sought elsewhere. The inhabitants are a mixture of the so-called Papuans, spread over the whole region, Negritos, Polynesians, and Malays, broken up into small tribal groups, with a surprising diversity of tongues, a prevalence of cannibalism, and ways of life ranging from the predatory to those of peaceful, keen, and industrious traders, skilled in tillage, pottery, and wood-carving. The climate is very hot and moist, and malarial fever is endemic in the low-lying coast-lands and river-valleys. New Guinea was discovered in 1511 by Antonio D'Abrea. About 1526 it was visited by De Meneses, a Portuguese navigator, who gave it the name of "Papua", meaning "woolly-haired" in a Malay dialect; its present name was assigned by the

Spanish captain Ortiz de Retez, from a fancied resemblance of the natives whom he saw to those of the West African coast. Torres, Schouten, and Tasman sailed along the shores, and our own Dampier was there on the *Roebuck* in 1700. In the eighteenth century, Carteret, De Bougainville, and Captain Cook were on the New Guinea coast, and H.M.S. *Pandora*, under Captain Edwards, was there in 1791 shortly before her loss on the Great Barrier Reef. In Victoria's reign, between 1843 and 1850, systematic surveys of the coast were made by H.M.S. *Fly* and *Rattlesnake*, and the work was completed in 1873 by Captain Moresby, of the *Basilisk*, so that the whole coast-line was at last mapped out. The London Missionary Society worked with some success after 1870, and some knowledge of the interior, still to a large extent unexplored, was gained by their energetic agent, the Reverend James Chalmers, a native of Ardrishaig, in Argyllshire, who went out as missionary to the Pacific in 1866, and by other travellers.

The British occupation of a portion of the vast insular region was due to the people and Government of Queensland, aided by an intercolonial convention held at Sydney. The Australian colonists had reason to object to the possible annexation, by any European power, of territory lying so near to their northern shores, and at last, in November, 1884, a British Protectorate was established over the whole southern coast from the 141st meridian of east longitude to East Cape in Goschen Straits, and over the adjacent islands. In 1887, the Queensland Legislature passed an Act whereby the Government guaranteed an annual payment of £15,000 for ten years, towards the cost of administration, if the Imperial Government changed the Protectorate into British possession. In September, 1888, under Letters Patent for annexation, Dr. (now Sir William) MacGregor read the proclamation, and assumed office as "Administrator", a post made open for him by the lamented death, from "New Guinea fever", of Sir Peter Scratchley, who had been "Special Commissioner" in charge of the Protectorate. The portion of the island west of 141° east longitude is in Dutch possession; "German New Guinea" is composed, roughly speaking, of the northern half of the eastern part. British New Guinea, with an area of about 88,000 square miles, includes the Trobriand, Woodlark, D'Entrecasteaux, and Louisiade groups of islands, and all others in that quarter not

belonging to Queensland. Sir William MacGregor was very energetic in exploration of the territory committed to his rule, examining many of the islands on the eastern coast, and ascending the chain of mountains called the Owen Stanley Range, the crest of which he found to be 13,121 feet high, and styled "Mount Victoria". Mount Albert Edward is another lofty peak, discovered to the north of the above range. The country in this part was found to be full of slate and quartz, with traces of gold. The influence of the British rulers is rapidly extending; and many tribes recognize the authority of a system of government which fully respects the right of the natives to their land, excludes the lawless white adventurers who have done so much evil in Pacific islands, and prohibits the importation of firearms, ammunition, and spirituous liquors. No land can be acquired except direct from the Crown, at a minimum price of 2*s.* 6*d.* per acre. The native population is vaguely estimated at over 300,000; the 250 whites are chiefly engaged at gold-mines in the Louisiade archipelago, and in the bêche-de-mer and pearl-shell fisheries. Trade is confined to Queensland and New South Wales, with exports of trepang (*bêche-de-mer*), copra, and pearl-shell, in 1896, to the value of £15,000, and of a few thousand pounds' worth of gold. The imports for the above year in food-stuffs, drapery, hardware, and tobacco were worth somewhat over £34,500. The only ports of entry, to one of which all vessels must proceed, are Samarai and Port Moresby. The latter, on the south coast, is the seat of government, where the Lieutenant-Governor is assisted by an executive and a legislative council nominated by the Crown. The law in force is that of Queensland, with an appeal from the New Guinea courts to the Supreme Court of that colony. Port Moresby, with a monthly mail-steamer to Cooktown, in Queensland, which is the nearest telegraph-station, has appliances of civilization in drainage, a good water-supply, hotels, stores, and reading-rooms.

Among the scattered islands or Pacific Sporades we deal first with *Norfolk Island*, the history of which has been noticed, when it was a convict-settlement, down to 1801, and between 1826 (after it had been vacant for twenty years by removal of the residents to Australia and Tasmania) and 1845. In that year it again became, for some years, a receptacle for the worst class of convicts, all finally withdrawn in 1855. In the following year it became again

inhabited, by the arrival of 194 people from Pitcairn Island, transferred thence by the British Government, when their number had outgrown the resources of their native territory. Forty of these soon returned, but the majority settled down in their new abode, receiving from the British Government the gift of the island with its buildings, and of 2000 sheep, with horses, pigs, and poultry. Seeds and implements were supplied, and a magistrate and chaplain were appointed, under the direct charge of the Governor of New South Wales, who must visit it once during his term of office. Two councillors elected by the people, now numbering about 760, assist the magistrate in administering a simple code of laws, under which a jury of seven try persons accused of graver offences. The island has one policeman and no prison, no persons destitute or out of work. The Norfolk Island group, about half-way between New Zealand and New Caledonia, and 900 miles east of Brisbane, has a total area of about 12 square miles. The chief island, about five miles long, and three in breadth, has precipitous cliffs, about 400 feet high, round most of the coast, with many small streams reaching the sea in cascades. There are no harbours, but several landing-places accessible in fine weather to the sailing-vessel which, at the cost of the Imperial Government, makes a visit from Auckland four times a year, and for a small steamer, once a quarter, from Fiji. The surface is an uneven table-land, with Mount Pitt rising to 1050 feet, and numerous gullies; the grassy ground is like a park in its growth of white oaks and the noble pines for which the island is famous. The slopes of Mount Pitt are covered with thick scrub, including guavas and tree-ferns. The climate is uniform, mild, and healthy; the fauna includes 15 species of land birds, of which two, a fine parroquet, and a white rail, belong to New Zealand, the rest being Australian. There is a resident doctor, and an efficient school. The chief village is Kington. The island is the head-quarters of the Melanesian Mission of the S. P. G., consisting of the Bishop of Melanesia and seven clergy, who, in addition to their periodical voyages among the Pacific Isles, in their vessel the *Southern Cross*, have here charge of about 150 Melanesian boys and girls, included in the population as above given. The soil is very fertile, and the people, skilful in tillage and fishing, trade by barter with ships that call, exchanging fish, fresh meat, and vegetables for clothes, boat-gear, and other articles. They also

export wool to Auckland and Sydney, and agricultural produce to New Caledonia; importing groceries, clothing, and agricultural implements. Phillip, Nepean, and Bird Islands are the other chief islets of the group, the first of these, lofty, precipitous, and densely wooded, lying 3½ miles south of Norfolk Island.

Pitcairn Island, discovered by Carteret in 1767, lies about midway between Australia and Chili. As is well known, the place became first inhabited by British people in 1780, when it was occupied by nine of the *Bounty* mutineers, with six Tahitian men and a dozen women. In ten years' time, through successive murders of which various accounts are given, John Adams was the only Englishman left alive, with eight or nine women and several children. From them the present inhabitants, numbering 126 in 1890, are descended. Adams, sobered by events and his responsible position, gave such a Christian education as he could to his little flock. The colony was unknown until 1808, when it was discovered by a passing American sealer; in 1814 the first British vessel arrived, and at intervals of some years other visits were made. In 1831, when the number had become nearly 90, the inhabitants, at their own request, were taken by the British Government to Tahiti, but they nearly all returned in less than a year to the little island, which was annexed by Great Britain in 1839. The migration to Norfolk Island of the great majority has been related. This little spot of earth, 2½ miles long by 1 wide, has a charming climate. The surface is hilly, exceeding 1000 feet in height at Outlook Ridge; the fertile volcanic soil produces yams, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, sweet potatoes, bananas and other growths of Pacific isles.

In the central Pacific, as territory forming part of the British Empire, we may name some islands acquired, nearly all in very recent years, rather in view of future possibilities and emergencies than of immediate needs or of present commercial value. They lie between about 8° north and 12° south latitude and 150° and 160° west longitude. *Christmas Island* (to be distinguished from the one described in connection with the Straits Settlements) is about 30 miles long, rising nowhere higher than four feet above sea-level; it is dangerous to ships from this fact and from the strong currents which prevail. In 1884, an Auckland firm put labourers there to gather pearl-shell, and, four years later, it was annexed,

along with the Exchequer (2° 25′ S. and 140° 10′ W.), Fanning (3° 51′ N. and 159° 22′ W.), and Penrhyn Islands (9° S. and 158° W.), as lying in the course of a proposed telegraph-cable between Vancouver, in British Columbia, and Australasia. *Fanning* is a low lagoon coral isle, 9½ miles long by four wide, thickly overgrown with cocoa-nut trees. It has been worked by a Honolulu firm for guano-deposits. *Penrhyn*, also known as Tongarewa, consists of a series of low islets connected by reefs surrounding a lagoon, the whole being about 12 miles long by 7 in breadth. Cocoa-nut palms cover most of the surface. The inhabitants consist of a few Europeans, and a few hundreds of natives, mostly Christians; they are daring pearl-fishers, diving down even 20 fathoms to reach the largest shells—often three feet in diameter—only to be obtained at that depth, and in this work lies the chief occupation of both sexes. *Flint* (11° 26′ S. and 151° 50′ W.) and *Jarvis* (0° 22′ S. and 159° 54′ W.) *Islands* are useful for their guano-deposits. The former, fringed by a steep coral-reef, and covered with trees and brushwood, with two inner lagoons, is 2½ miles long by ½ mile wide; the latter, a triangular coral island 1¾ miles long by 1 mile broad, has a white sandy beach from 10 to 12 feet above sea-level, without any large vegetation. *Malden Island* (4° 3′ S. and 155° W.) has remarkable stone-monuments giving evidence of a long-vanished population. These consist of above 100 platforms made of coral-slabs three feet high, and of a number of shelters or huts composed of three coral blocks with a fourth atop. There are also above 30 wells cut five or six feet deep in the coral rock, and many shallow graves containing decayed human bones and shell-ornaments. All these lie on the central ridge of the island, which is about five miles long and four broad, nowhere rising more than 30 feet above sea-level, and having as vegetation nothing but a few shrubs and marine plants. A Melbourne company works the valuable guano-deposits, with a five-mile tramway to bring the stuff to the ships; a few years ago eight Europeans and 160 native labourers lived there, having houses, stores, and carpenters' and blacksmiths' shops. *Starbuck Island* (5° 37′ S. and 135° 50′ W.) was discovered in 1823, and taken possession of in 1866 by H.M.S. *Mutine*. Very low-lying, 5½ miles long by 1½ broad; consisting mostly of white coral sand, with some marine plants and a few shrubs, it was formerly visited for its guano-deposits, and then abandoned, with some ruinous dwell-

ings, a pier, and a cargo-boat left as the only signs of former human occupation.

Cook (or *Hervey*) *Islands*, a group of seven, lying about midway between the Society and Navigator groups, in 18°–22° s. and 157°–163° w., some volcanic and some coralline in formation, are of more importance than the foregoing. They became a British "Protectorate" in 1888, with a Resident paid by the Government of New Zealand, and reporting directly to the Governor. Rule, under his supervision, is in the hands of Queen Makea, chief of the Arikis or queens of the islands, who are also the largest land-owners. There is an Executive Council, of which the Arikis are *ex-officio* members; a Supreme Court; and a legislature whose enactments must be approved by the Resident. A law regulates the sale of alcoholic liquors, and imposes a general *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent on imports. *Rarotonga*, the most important of the group, the only island with harbours, is a very beautiful and fertile territory, about 25 miles in circuit, with mountains, covered with vegetation, that rise into pinnacles and peaks of grotesque shape, some nearly 3000 feet in height. The soil is volcanic on the surface, with coral below, and good water abounds. The climate is very mild and healthy. The population, with over 2000 natives, includes about 50 foreign adult male residents, chiefly British, with a few Americans, Germans, French, and Chinese. The state of culture among these Christianized Polynesians is indicated by the existence of schools, libraries, and a newspaper printed in their own language. There is a European missionary, who has charge of an institution for training native teachers who do good service in other small Pacific islands, and in New Guinea, in connection with the London Missionary Society. *Mangaia*, about the size of Rarotonga, but mainly coralline in structure, has hills 500 feet high, and a native population of about 2000. *Aitutaki*, 14 miles long, has 1500 people, and *Atiu* and two smaller islands have together about 1800. The native inhabitants of the group, of the brown Polynesian race, are remarkable for their hospitable and kindly disposition. Small sailing-vessels carry on irregular communication between the islands; regular traders come from Tahiti and San Francisco, and a steamer calls at Rarotonga every five weeks, on her return trip from Tahiti to Auckland. The produce of the islands includes coffee, cotton, copra, and oranges, exported to New Zealand; arrowroot, tobacco,

bananas, and limes; and the usual Polynesian foods—taro, bread-fruit, and yams. The *Suwarrow Islands*, in 13° 20′ S. and 163° 14′ W., are a group about 12 miles long by nine in breadth, composed of three wooded isles connected by a reef; the eastern islet has a growth of cocoa-nut palms. They are in a line with Malden, Starbuck, and Penrhyn in the north-east, and with Fiji in the south-west, and have been annexed as likely to be useful in connection with a submarine trans-Pacific cable, or as a harbour of refuge for vessels on that route, there being an entrance for ships, through the encircling coral reef, into the lagoon. There is an abundance of bêche-de-mer of excellent quality, and of pearl-shells of the finest size and lustre, at the largest island, which is an atoll of triangular form, with secure anchorage inside the reef for all the ships in the Pacific to ride safely in any weather. The *Lord Howe Islands*, a dependency of New South Wales, to be carefully distinguished from a group of that name among the (Pacific) Solomon Islands, and from Lord Howe Island in the Society Isles, lie in 31° 30′ S. and 159½° E. The chief of the group is Lord Howe Island, small, well-wooded, and mountainous, with Mount Gower rising to 2000 feet. It was discovered in 1788 by Lieutenant Ball, R.N., while he was voyaging from Port Jackson to Norfolk Island. The climate is delightfully equable and mild, and the rich volcanic soil has a bountiful growth of palms and pines, wild figs, and splendid banyans of the true Indian type, ferns, grasses, and many varieties of orchids. The inhabitants, about sixty in number, under the control of a visiting magistrate from Sydney, find amusement in hunting the wild pigs and goats. The luxuriant produce of nature assisted by tillage includes the orange and the pomegranate, water-melons, onions, potatoes, maize, pumpkins, and tobacco.

Most of the above small islands and groups are included in the jurisdiction of the "Western Pacific Protectorate", established in 1877 to guard British and native interests in a region where our influence had long been predominant. The official in charge is styled "His Britannic Majesty's High Commissioner and Consul-General for the Western Pacific"; the post was held, in 1900, by Sir George Thomas Michael O'Brien, K.C.M.G., Governor of Fiji, aided by Deputy-Commissioners resident at Tonga, a group of islands to be hereafter noticed, and at the British Solomon Islands. The jurisdiction of the High Com-

missioner—in accordance with an Order in Council of 1893 for the purpose of carrying out the provisions of the Pacific Islanders Protection Acts of 1872 and 1875, and to settle disputes between British subjects living in those islands—extends over all the Western Pacific not within the limits of Fiji, Queensland, or New South Wales, or within the jurisdiction of any civilized Power, and includes the Southern Solomon Islands, New Hebrides, Tonga Islands, and various small groups in that region of the Pacific.

The Tonga or Friendly Islands—discovered by Tasman in 1643, and collectively named by Captain Cook, who visited them in 1777—continued up to 1899 to be a neutral region in accordance with the Declaration of Berlin issued in April, 1886. Early in 1899 Germany asserted a claim of right to establish a naval-station and a coaling-station in the archipelago, but by the Anglo-German Agreement of November 14, 1899, subsequently accepted by the United States, this and all other claims concerning the group were withdrawn in favour of Great Britain, and the Tonga and Savage Islands were thus left practically a British "protectorate". The territory is constitutionally independent, under the rule of a native king, George II., born in 1874, who succeeded his great-grandfather, George Tubou, in 1893. That potentate, an able ruler, and a zealous preacher of the gospel, in 1845 brought the whole group under his own rule, the various islands having formerly been governed by independent chiefs. In 1862 he gave the islands a "constitution", and summoned a parliament of forty members. There is a legislative assembly composed one-half of hereditary nobles or chiefs, holding office subject to good behaviour, and half of representatives elected for three years by the people, every adult male who has paid his taxes, and is not criminally incapacitated, being qualified to vote. With the exception of a few Europeans employed in the Customs, Education, and Medical departments, the whole of the government-officers are Tongans.

The Friendly Islands derived that name from the demeanour of the people towards Captain Cook, who found the soil closely and highly cultivated, and the people apparently destitute of weapons of war. The group was first visited by missionaries in 1797. In 1827 the work of evangelization fell into the hands

of Wesleyan Methodists, whose undertaking was crowned with success after a long and perilous struggle with the savage paganism of the people. Almost all the islanders—belonging to the fair Polynesian stock, and superior to other South Sea natives in mental development, skill in house-building, and in the making of weapons, dress, &c.—are now Christians, and many of them can speak English. They are, however, decreasing in numbers. Formerly estimated at 40,000 or 50,000, they numbered about 23,000 in 1884, and, in 1900, only about 19,000. The Europeans, mostly British, are about 350. In religion, most of the people are Wesleyans, with about 3000 Roman Catholics. All the natives are taught to read and write, and higher education is provided by colleges established by the Government and by the Wesleyan Mission.

The Tonga kingdom consists of three groups of islands, called Tonga, Haapai, and Vavau, lying between 15 and 23½ degrees south latitude, and 173 and 177 degrees west longitude, about 250 miles E.S.E. of Fiji. There are 32 inhabited and about 150 other small islands, the collective area being 385 square miles. The largest is Tonga-tabu, about 130 square miles. The great majority are of coral formation, but some are volcanic, and during a severe disturbance in October, 1885, a small island was upheaved in the sea, named Sandfly Island from the Government schooner which first visited it. There are several active volcanoes, such as Tofoa, 2781 feet in height, and Late, 1787 feet, and earthquakes are frequent. The climate, with a temperature ranging between 53 and 93 degrees, is healthy but humid, and subject to hurricanes. The products include tropical fruits, copra, coffee, sponges, cocoa-nuts, and arrowroot, and the natives make mats, a textile from bark, combs, and fishing-nets. The imports, in 1898, had a value of £35,000, chiefly in drapery, bread-stuffs, and meats; the exports, worth about £40,000, included copra (the dried kernel of cocoa-nut), oranges, and bananas, trade being carried on chiefly with New Zealand, New South Wales, Samoa, the Azores, and Guam (or Guahan), the largest island of the Marianne or Ladrone Archipelago, now belonging to the United States. The revenue, chiefly derived from customs, a poll-tax, land-leases, and licenses for trades, is about £20,000 a year, with a small surplus over the expenditure. Gold and silver coins of

Great Britain, the United States, and Germany are legal tender; the weights and measures are the same as in Great Britain. There is regular steam-communication with Auckland, Sydney, and Fiji, and sailing-vessels run between the Tonga and Fiji groups.

The Anglo-German Convention of November, 1899, put an end to British connection, in any ruling or "protectorate" fashion, with the Samoan or Navigator Islands, lying north-east of the Tonga groups. By that agreement, Great Britain renounced her rights in favour of the United States as regarded Tutuila and the other islands in the south-eastern part of the Samoan archipelago, and in favour of Germany in respect to Upolu and Savaii, and the islands in the north-west of the group. There are several British schools, and the churches of the London Missionary Society and the Wesleyan Mission of Australasia have numerous adherents. The Western Pacific Protectorate includes the *Union* (or *Tokelau*) *Islands*, to the north-east of the Samoan group. This Union archipelago consists of coral atolls (ring-shaped reefs inclosing a lagoon), with a population of over 1000, and copra as the chief product. The natives are partly Roman Catholics, partly adherents of the London Missionary Society. They are ruled by their own chiefs, aided by native councils. The *Ellice* (or *Lagunes*) and the *Gilbert Islands*, also under British control, are two widely-scattered archipelagoes north of the Fiji Isles, the Gilbert Islands being intersected by the equator. The islets are coral-atolls, with copra as the chief export. The natives, numbering about 30,000, are of Malayo-Polynesian race, and are mostly adherents of American missions or of the London Missionary Society. The islands have separate chiefs or kings, assisted by councils of chiefs and commoners, and, under the influence of British Residents, courts of law have been established, and a revenue covering the expenses of an efficient administration of rule is derived from trade-licenses and from native contributions. There is regular steam-communication with the Fiji Islands and with Sydney. The *Santa Cruz* (or *Queen Charlotte*) *Islands*, north-west of Fiji, are inhabited by people of the usual Pacific type, mostly adherents of the Melanesian Mission, and were, in 1898, attached to the Southern Solomons Protectorate.

The *New Hebrides*, also under British control, lie due west

of Fiji, spreading over the ocean between the 12th and 20th degrees south latitude, and 165° and 170° east longitude. The returns made by the Melanesian Mission estimate the population at 50,000. There are about 30 islands in all, 20 inhabited, with an area of 5110 square miles, and the group is of volcanic origin on a coral foundation. All the islands are wooded, and some have hills reaching 3000 feet. Most of the inhabitants are savage cannibals of a low type, decreasing in number, but the islanders in the south part of the group have been civilized by English and Scottish missionaries of the Melanesian Mission, and of the Presbyterian churches of Australia, and by Roman Catholic priests. There is a European population of about 180, mostly British or French, and French and Australian companies have undertaken planting and trading. The chief exports are copra and bananas, with some timber, coffee, and sulphur.

Lastly, the Anglo-German agreement of 1899 put Great Britain in possession of most of the great archipelago known as the *Solomon Islands*, east of New Guinea, Bougainville and the Buka islets, in the north-west, being retained by Germany. The total estimated area is 15,000 square miles. Nearly all are of volcanic origin, with one active volcano, and the scenery is of a grand character, with mountains from 4100 to 10,000 feet in height, covered from sea-shore to summit with dense tropical vegetation. The people, supposed to exceed 170,000 in number, are divided into many tribes, constantly at war with each other, and very suspicious towards strangers. Savage and cruel, they are, to a large extent, cannibals, wearing little or no clothing, having their bodies tattooed. The few resident traders are mostly British, the chief articles of export being tortoise-shell, pearl-shell, and copra. There is a British Resident, with his head-quarters at the small island of Tulagi, and regular steam-communication exists with Sydney.

CHAPTER XV.

SOUTH ATLANTIC ISLANDS.—CONCLUSION.

Ascension Island—St. Helena—Tristan Da Cunha—Falkland Islands with South Georgia. Concluding review—Growth of the Empire since the days of Elizabeth—Number of colonies and dependencies—Three classes of government—Importance of her colonial possessions to the mother-country—The Royal Colonial and the Imperial Institutes—Influence of the Colonial and Indian Exhibition of 1886—Britain could be independent of supplies from foreign nations—The various races and the far-separated lands under the sway of Victoria—A statesman's warning—Britain's wisest policy.

Ascension, a rugged volcanic island in 7° 57′ s., and 14° 18′ w., shaped like an oyster-shell, 7½ miles from east to west, and 6½ from north to south, with an area of about 36 sq. miles, lies about 750 miles north-west of St. Helena. It was discovered in 1501 by Gallego, a Portuguese navigator, but was not occupied until 1815; it was garrisoned from St. Helena during the residence of Napoleon on that solitary isle. The chief buildings date from that time, when stores, barracks, and batteries were constructed, roads made, and gardens laid out on Green Mountain, rising to 2870 feet. The indigenous fauna consisted only of large birds of prey and marine animals, but horned cattle, sheep, goats, rabbits, partridges, pheasants, and guinea-fowl have been introduced and thrive. The dry and healthy climate, with a range of temperature, in the hottest months, from 85° on the shore to 76° on the high ground, makes it an excellent sanatorium for invalids from the pestilential African coast, and the well-appointed hospital is very serviceable. The scantiness of the rainfall has been recently remedied by extensive tree-planting, and the original barren appearance of a region of extinct craters, lava, and ravines filled with slags and cinders is now agreeably relieved by the sight of young trees, shrubs, furze, grasses, and various hardy plants, with European vegetables. The tomato, pepper, and castor-oil plant are among the native flora. The island is under the control, not of the Colonial Office, but of the Admiralty, being used as a coaling, victualling, and store depôt for the ships of the West African Squadron. The population, about 300 in number, consists wholly of officers, seamen, and marines, with their wives and families, and a few dozen Kroomen, the bold and skilful negro boatmen of the Guinea coast, who find at Ascension scope

for their ability in contending with the high surf on the leeward shore due to the setting in of a heavy swell, of unknown origin, in the months from December to April when the weather is calmest. The one great product of Ascension Isle is the sea-turtle, swarming on the sands for the first six months of the year, and reaching the weight of 600 to 800 pounds. Five or six dozen are often taken in a night, and the "game" is kept in ponds for sale to vessels. Whalers going to and from the Antarctic seas resort to the one little station, George Town, in a small bay on the north-east coast; the mail-steamers from the Cape call once a month. The island is in the "Postal Union"; the governor, or captain-in-charge, is a post-captain selected from the Cape Squadron.

St. Helena has greatly declined in importance since the opening of the overland route to India, and especially since the abandonment of the voyage thither round the Cape for that by the Suez Canal. From October 15th, 1815, until May 5th, 1821, it was the scene of the captivity of the most famous personage of modern times. In 1834 the island passed, for the sum of £100,000, from the possession of the East India Company to that of the Crown, in whose jurisdiction it had been during the time of Napoleon's detention. Lying in 15° 55′ s. and 5° 42′ w., about 1200 miles from the African coast, and being a very ancient volcano, much changed by oceanic abrasion and by atmospheric denudation, St. Helena measures 10 miles in length by seven in breadth, and has an area of 47 square miles, or a few hundreds of acres larger than that of Jersey. The sea-face presents perpendicular cliffs rising, on the leeward (in this case the north-western) side, from 600 to 1000 feet, and on the windward (south-eastern) to over 2000 feet in height, cleft in many places by deep, narrow valleys or ravines. The rugged surface rises, in the chief ridge which is the northern rim of the great original crater, to an altitude of 2820 feet in High Hill or Peak, and 2704 feet in Diana's Peak. The interior contains fertile and well-watered valleys, and the hills have abundance of wood and other vegetation in pines, oaks, tree-ferns, poplars, willows, brambles, broom, and gorse. The banana, bamboo, date-palm, peepul, and many indigenous flowering shrubs, small trees, and plants, with exotic flora from all parts of the world, grow in sheltered places. The produce of tillage includes potatoes and other roots, maize, oats, barley, and flax. The fauna, in addition

to domestic animals, consists only of rabbits, rats, mice, ground-doves, partridges, pheasants, and a greater variety of beetles than is elsewhere known. The mild, equable, and healthy climate is largely due to the south-east trade-wind steadily blowing for eleven months in the year; the range of temperature is only from 57 to 82 degrees, and the annual rainfall is about 30 inches. The population, in 1891, a little exceeded 4000, of whom about 2500 live at the only town, and seat of government, *Jamestown*, on the north-western side, with a bright-looking tree-planted main street between lofty sombre hills, and a good road leading up into the interior. The place, now made a second-class imperial coaling-station, is defended by strong batteries on the heights. The Government maintains or aids four schools, with over 300 scholars, and there are also seven endowed and private schools, with about 450 pupils. A Governor, whose "ordinances" are the only new laws, apart from "Orders in Council", is aided by an Executive Council. The chief article of export lies in the produce of the whale-fishery, despatched to the United States by the American managers, with an annual value ranging from £10,000 to £30,000. There is no internal post, but 13 miles of telegraph-wire are provided, chiefly for Government use. Every third and fifth week steamers of the *Union* and *Castle* lines call on the outward and homeward Cape voyages. The small annual revenue, about £9000, is chiefly derived from import-duties on alcoholic liquors and tobacco. The Government Savings Bank had, in 1897, deposits exceeding £16,400.

Tristan Da Cunha (not "D'Acunha"), chief of a group of islands lying midway between Port Elizabeth, in Cape Colony, and the La Plata estuary, in about 37° s. and 12° w., has its name from the Portuguese admiral who discovered it in 1506. Of volcanic origin, circular in shape, rugged and surrounded by precipitous cliffs save at one point, and about 21 miles in circumference, the island rises in a central conical peak to the height of 7640 feet, where the traveller sees the old crater filled by a lake. The upland valleys are traversed by torrents descending here and there in fine cascades. The flora includes heaths, ferns, wild rosemary, and a prickly grass known as "tussac", growing eight to ten feet in height, and sheltering countless penguins. The fauna comprise these and many other sea-birds; a peculiar kind of finch and thrush;

water-hens, and wild cats and pigs descended from animals introduced by settlers or passing vessels. The neighbouring seas are frequented by whales, and salmon, mackerel, and mullet are there to reward the fisherman's risk and toil. The only fuel is obtained from the one kind of tree, a species of buckthorn, and from the drift-wood that lodges on the coast. The plants of temperate climes thrive in the sheltered spots, and excellent pears, peaches, and grapes are produced. The climate is mild, moist, and remarkably healthy, with a temperature on the coast ranging from 43 to 82 degrees. The history of Tristan Da Cunha is modern, and the political and social circumstances of the people are interesting. From 1790 to 1811 the island was occupied by some American sealers. In 1817, formal possession was taken by a company of Royal Artillery, despatched thither by the British Government to prevent the organization, on that lonely spot, of any expedition for the rescue of the illustrious prisoner at St. Helena. In 1821, the troops were withdrawn, except Corporal Glass and two other men, who were allowed to remain on quitting the service, and who became, along with some shipwrecked sailors and some whalers, the founders of the present little colony. Wives were procured from St. Helena under contract with a sea-captain, and the descendants of these unions became a fine, well-shaped, healthy race, losing very few children in infancy, and so of rapid natural increase, but with their numbers checked by the steady emigration of the younger and more adventurous members of the community to Cape Colony. The colony is a little communistic republic, English-speaking, loyal to the British crown, whose sovereignty is recognized by the sixty-four people of 1898, a long-lived, well-conducted, hospitable body, in communion with the Anglican Church, with services conducted by a chaplain of the S. P. G. A great calamity befell them in December 1885, when most of the able-bodied men were drowned in attempting to board a vessel. When the news reached England, Parliament made a grant of stores and provisions; the Board of Trade has provided a life-boat and a code of signals, and a man-of-war pays an annual visit to the island. There is no regular government, no alcoholic liquor, scarcely even any quarrels, and no crime, the community being under the moral sway of the oldest inhabitant, "Governor" Green, successor to Corporal Glass. This venerable man, who has seen none of his

relatives for about sixty years, has an almost unparalleled record for the saving of life from shipwrecks, possessing a silver medal and a diploma on this account, granted by King Humbert of Italy, and a chronometer and chain from the President of the United States. The little village, called *Edinburgh* after the royal duke who visited the island in 1867, during the cruise of the *Galatea* under his command, lies on the north side of the island, at the only spot where the cliff recedes, leaving a grassy slope 2½ miles long by 1½ in width. The dozen cottages have white walls, straw roofs, and stone dykes around them. The 850 head of horned cattle, with half that number of sheep, afford excellent beef and mutton, much of which is supplied, along with geese, ducks, fowls, pigs, fresh vegetables, and fruit, to whaling captains in exchange for flour and other stores.

The *Falkland Islands*, discovered by John Davis in 1592, were named in 1689 by a Captain Strong in honour of his friend Viscount Falkland. Held at various times by France, Spain, and the Argentine Republic, they were occupied by Great Britain in 1833 for the protection of our whale-fishers in those seas, and also used, until 1852, as a penal colony, This important archipelago lies in 51°–53° s. lat., and 57°–62° w. long., about 250 miles east of Patagonia. *East Falkland*, with adjacent islets, has an area of 2850 square miles, and *West Falkland*, with its smaller neighbours, of 1990, while the dependency of *South Georgia*, about 800 miles to the south-east, a group uninhabited and almost always ice-bound, has an area of about 1000 square miles. Many of the islands are occupied only by numberless penguins, a fact which has given to the Governor a facetious title as "King of the Penguins". The rocky shores are deeply indented, and have many excellent harbours; the surface is mostly undulating, with hills (Mount Adam in West Falkland, and Mount Usborne in East Falkland) exceeding 2200 feet. There are many small streams and lakes, much coarse pasture and marsh, no trees, and a flora including the beautiful tussac grass, seven feet high and three-quarters of an inch broad, very fattening for cattle; wild celery, sorrel, and other anti-scorbutics; a small creeping myrtle, called the "tea-plant", and a great variety of sweet-scented flowers in the warmer months (November and December). The fauna, besides the abundant sea-birds, comprise a wolf-like fox, mice, rabbits, hares, snipe, and

several kinds of wild geese and ducks. The only minerals are abundant quartzite and other building-stone, and beds of sandstone. In default of coal, the people use the peat which is found in vast beds of great age and depth. The climate is fairly healthy, with little sunshine, much wind in summer, an annual rainfall of about 30 inches, spread in showers and drizzle over 250 days in the year, and a range of temperature from 30° in winter to 65° in summer. The one great industry of the inhabitants (numbering 1992 in 1896, viz. 1198 males and 794 females, all Europeans save 103) is stock-farming, mainly in sheep bred from the best English and Scottish animals. With over 2,300,000 acres of pasturage, the islands were maintaining, in 1896, about 3000 horses, 6500 horned cattle, and 762,000 sheep. In the same year, the exports (nearly all to the British Isles) had a total value of about £132,000, mostly in wool (above £100,000), frozen mutton, hides and skins, and tallow. The imports, in value about £71,000, consisted of provisions, clothing, timber and building materials, machinery and ironmongery. The three small churches are Anglican, Roman Catholic, and Presbyterian; the schools, in 1892, were two Government institutions, with 143 pupils, one Roman Catholic, with 51, and one private school, with 23 learners. Rule is in the hands of a Governor and an Executive and Legislative Council appointed by the Crown. The revenue, in 1896, amounted to £12,360, chiefly from customs-duties and rents of crown-lands; the expenditure was about £13,570. *Stanley*, the capital, with a fine inner and an outer harbour, and a population of about 700, is on the eastern coast of East Falkland. There is monthly mail-communication with the British Isles by the German *Kosmos* Steamship Company's vessels to and from Callao, in connection with the Pacific Company's steamers between Liverpool and Punta Arenas, in the Strait of Magellan. There is an internal penny-post; 2½*d.* postage for half-ounce letters to the British Isles; 4*d.* to the rest of Europe. The nearest point for telegrams is Monte Video. Healthy signs of both the moral and the financial condition of the Falkland Islands, the last in our long roll of British colonial possessions, may be seen in the facts that in 1897 the Government Savings Bank had about £37,000 belonging to 308 depositors, and that a penny bank, connected with the schools, and established in 1885, contained £470 on deposit at the close of 1890; that there is no public

debt, and that the colony, formerly aided by an Imperial grant, has been, since 1885, self-supporting.

We may note that the excellent haven of Stanley is often of good service for the shelter and refitting of vessels that have suffered from the severe weather encountered in rounding Cape Horn, and that the minor industries of the islands have included the boiling-down, for the extraction of oil, of the bodies of those remarkable *Natatores*, the penguins. With an average height of 2½ feet, in the "jackass" genus (one of three kinds), that frequents the Falklands, these birds are seen, standing upright, serenely stupid, in long regular files along the shore, an attitude due to the fact that the legs, ending in toes completely webbed, are placed at the hinder extremity of the body. The feathers, wholly covering the frame, and not disposed, as in other birds, in feather-tracts with intervals devoid of plumage, are soft and beautiful on the neck, and of value to furriers for collars and tippets. The flesh, of dark hue, is wholesome food, making an excellent imitation of hare-soup, and shipwrecked crews on rugged coasts of the southern seas have often been indebted, for the preservation of life until the day of rescue, to the sluggish "Johnnies", as sailors call them, who stand to be killed with blows from a stick. The flattened rudimentary wings, useless for flight, are admirably adapted for swimming and diving.

CONCLUSION.

A few final figures will enable the reader, in some slight degree, to grasp the conception involved in those emphatic words "The British Empire", so far as territorial and commercial matters are concerned. At the opening of the 20th century, the area of our colonial territories and foreign dependencies, inclusive of the Feudatory Native States of India, and of Africa outside of Cape Colony proper, Natal, and the West Coast colonies, exceeded 11½ million square miles, with populations nearly reaching 415 millions. The gross public revenue of these states and possessions, large and small, was above £260,000,000, of which vast sum more than one-seventh was derived from customs-duties. The total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at the ports of these colonial territories, in the year 1900, exclusive of a large coasting-

trade, was about 210 millions of tons, of which above 170 millions consisted of British vessels. The value of the total imports, including bullion and specie, exceeded £770,000,000, and the exports, with the same inclusion of the precious metals, were worth more than 638 millions of pounds sterling. Of the enormous trade here indicated, that carried on between the United Kingdom and her colonies and dependencies, and the intercolonial commerce, together accounted for above 700 millions. The internal communications of these vast possessions are maintained by over 80,000 miles of railway, and about 188,000 miles of telegraph-line.

We have described how this magnificent fabric, the British Colonial Empire, has been built up, and has grown up since Elizabethan days, through the peaceful occupation of regions unknown or unsettled, or by conquest from Spain and France and Holland and from Eastern princes and peoples. The adventurers who went forth under the great Tudor queen—the Raleighs and Drakes—were succeeded, under the Commonwealth, by those who seized, at the bidding of the State, our chief West Indian possession. When the time came for wider trade extension, and for the assertion of our claims to commerce in the East and in the West, the soldiers and sailors of the Georgian age were victorious over those of Louis the Fifteenth and Louis the Sixteenth, of the Revolutionary government, and of Napoleon. In the same era, we see the State becoming an instrument for the discovery of new regions, and Cook drawing the veil from vast territories in the Southern seas. In the end, the sovereign and people of the British Isles have found themselves possessors and rulers of nearly one-fifth of the land-surface, containing more than one-fifth of the population, of the globe. The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the head and heart of the whole organism, and the financial and commercial centre of the civilized world, leads an empire consisting of daughter-colonies, in Australasia, Canada, and Newfoundland, mainly peopled by those of our own blood, language, and manners; of mixed colonies, where British people dominate native populations of larger numbers than their own, as in Southern and Western Africa, and in the West Indies; of dependencies such as India, Burmah, and Ceylon, where the rule of a few thousands over scores of millions is exercised in a combination of military and moral force exerted almost solely in the interest of the

governed; and of outposts for naval, military, and commercial purposes, such as Gibraltar and Malta, Aden and Singapore, Hong Kong and Labuan, Bermuda and the Falklands. The distinct and independent governments existing in this colonial empire number forty-two, apart from Protectorates, Chartered Companies, Spheres of Influence, and the special Foreign Office rule exercised in Cyprus and Zanzibar. In these forty-two governments we find three classes:—(1) those of the colonies possessing Responsible Government, in which the home-authorities have no control over any public officer, though the Crown appoints the Governor and retains a veto on legislation; in this category are the Canadian Dominion (eight provinces), Newfoundland, the seven Australasian countries, Cape Colony, and Natal; (2) those of the colonies having Representative Institutions, in which the home-government retains the control of public officers, along with the Crown's veto on legislation; in this class are the Bahamas, Barbados, the Leeward Islands, the Windward Islands, Bermuda, British Guiana, and Malta; (3) those of the Crown Colonies, controlled by the home-government, including Ceylon, Mauritius, Straits Settlements, Hong Kong, Labuan, Fiji, Jamaica, Trinidad, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Gold Coast, Lagos, Falkland Islands, Honduras, Gibraltar, St. Helena, Ascension, Basutoland, British Bechuanaland, the Transvaal and Orange River Colony. Commercial, financial, and other business in this country is transacted on behalf of all these colonies of the second and third classes by the "Crown-agents for the Colonies", appointed by the Secretary of State, who exercises a general control over their compliance with the directions of the Colonial Governments. The interests of the colonies having responsible government are intrusted in this country to a High Commissioner, in the case of the Canadian Dominion; and, for the Australasian colonies, Cape Colony, and Natal, to gentlemen of great experience and ability called "Agents-General", consulting with the King's Ministers concerning the affairs of the special colonies which they represent, giving information to intending emigrants and other persons, and transacting other colonial business in the British Isles.

It was only within the last four decades of the nineteenth century that the colonial countries of the Empire received anything like due attention from the public at home. The growth of interest

in this great subject has been at once evinced and stimulated by two institutions and one event. The Royal Colonial Institute, founded in 1868, and incorporated by Royal Charter in 1882, with the Prince of Wales as President, is fully described, in its origin, objects, and development, in the *Colonial Year Book*. The *Imperial Institute Year Book* affords full information concerning the "Imperial Institute of the United Kingdom, the Colonies, and India", founded in 1886, incorporated by Royal Charter in 1888, as a "National Memorial of Queen Victoria's Jubilee", and fitly domiciled in the magnificent structure at South Kensington, opened by the Queen on May 10th, 1893, in a ceremonial of imperial splendour of a most suggestive character. The Colonial and Indian Exhibition held in London in 1886 was a display full of interest, beauty, and instruction, and one which was very successful in awaking the British people at home to a sense of the reality and greatness of the empire of which, in territorial area, the islands that they inhabit form only an eightieth part. That grand show of the resources which have been described in our pages gave us visible proof that, with advantage to themselves, our fellow-subjects abroad can furnish us with endless supplies of beef and mutton, alive and dead, fresh and frozen; of bacon and hams, of cheese and butter; with a boundless store of grain and flour, including maize; with unlimited quantities of pine-apples and bananas, mangoes and limes, apples, lime-juice, and many preserved fruits of temperate, sub-tropical, and tropical climes. It was there seen that, if China utterly failed us in her staple product, the British housewife could, at the same or at a lower cost, make any amount of excellent tea with leaves from India and Ceylon; that the best cocoa, coffee, and sugar in the world are abundantly produced within the British dominions; that good wine and the finest rum could never fail; and that the smoker, if all foreign sources were closed, could still have excellent tobacco and cigars. If all the rest of the world refused to furnish medicinal relief for our sick, the British Empire would supply a profusion of drugs; of perfumes for the sick-room and the boudoir, of spices for the confectioner and the cook; of dye-woods for the manufacturer of silks and woollens. From our own colonies we could obtain immense supplies of animal and vegetable fats and oils for illuminating, lubricating, and other purposes, with some gums and resins of great value, including gutta percha. The mills

of Lancashire, if they were dependent on our colonies alone, would not be destitute of the finest cotton, or of good silk; and if all the sheep in the British Isles were to perish, there would be no lack—nay, a boundless import—of the best wool from our own possessions. We can obtain at will, from the same countries, an enormous quantity of valuable fibres for cordage, for textile fabrics, and for paper-making, in flax and hemp, jute, and the *Phormium tenax* of New Zealand. As long as our colonial empire exists and thrives, hides and leather and tanning materials and furs, with many kinds of serviceable skins, cannot cease to be ready for the home-market. Nor need the user of timber for all kinds of purposes fear the failure of colonial supplies in many species of the most durable and ornamental woods that the world can show.

As we look round this vast and prosperous realm, which can be paralleled by nothing in the history of any other State, we see an empire that is, in its various parts, washed by all oceans; an empire in which the sovereign rules over Mohammedans, Buddhists, Brahmans, pagans, and Parsees; over Roman Catholics, as over Protestants of all shades of belief; over men of many races, of all colours, of hundreds of varieties of language and ways of life. In saying that the sun never sets upon the dominions of Great Britain we really assert that, in some part or other of the world, British subjects are ever awake and alert. At the midnight hour for the British Isles, the early risers among 220 millions of people under our sway in India have begun or are beginning the labours of the day which, for us, has yet some hours before dawn. At the same midnight hour for dwellers in the home-country, the Canadian Dominion, at its farthest point on the Pacific shore, sees British subjects in mid-afternoon of the day whose sun has, in the British Isles, long sunk beneath Atlantic waves. Take flight in thought across the great Pacific, in south-westerly course from the Dominion to New Zealand, and you find the people about to have a mid-day meal. Sail or steam where you will over distant seas, you can scarcely avoid the sight of the flag waving over fortress or signal-post or Government-house or man-of-war or stately steamer of some merchant-line. Looking round again over this earth-encircling series of states under one monarch, from London, the mighty heart where the empire's life pulsates in its utmost force; writing at a time when we hear foreign vapouring and babble concerning the "isolation of

Great Britain", accompanied by scarcely veiled threats of blocking our commercial routes to India and Australasia, and of reducing us to the rank of a third-class nation, we pronounce that there is one moral to the story which it has been our privilege to tell. If we are "narrow and selfish, factious and self-indulgent, impatient of necessary burdens; if we see in public affairs not our Empire but our country, not our country but our parish, and in our parish our house, the Empire is doomed". We cordially echo Lord Rosebery's words. Let Britons keep with undaunted resolution what has been gained through the possession and the exercise of all the great qualities and faculties that make men and nations conquerors and colonizers of the earth which man was bidden to replenish and subdue. Let the "citizens of no mean city", dwellers in the land that has produced Cromwell and Chatham; Marlborough and Wellington; Clive and Wolfe; Blake, Rodney, Duncan, Nelson and many other sea-captains of immortal renown, decide whether, by neglecting to prepare for the day of conflict, they shall see the heritage bequeathed by their sires destroyed or maimed, or whether they will successfully defend it, as they may if they are wise in time, even against a world in arms.

INDEX

A.

Abdul Medjid, Sultan, ii 169, 177.

Abdur Rahman Khan (Afghanistan), iv 17, 18, 22, 23.

Abercrombie, Sir Ralph, i 46, 47, 55, 338, 341, 342, 347.

Aberdeen, town of, her prowess in shipbuilding, iii 4; growth of, 204; University of, 217, 225.

Aberdeen, Lord, as Foreign Secretary, ii 148, 169, 249, 250; his disgraceful conduct towards Italian patriots, 156; as Prime Minister, 169.

Aberdeen, Lord (another), Governor-General of Canada, v 253.

Abyssinia, expedition to, ii 196–198; Abyssinia, Italy, and Great Britain, 198–200.

Acadia (Nova Scotia), early history of, i 183, 185, 295–311. See *Nova Scotia*.

Accra (Gold Coast), iv 276, 282, 283.

Acts of Parliament. See *Statutes*.

Adams, John (U.S.), i 136, 140, 143.

Addington, Mr. See *Sidmouth, Lord*.

Adelaide (South Australia), rise of, vi 199; description of, 209–211.

Aden, history and description of, iii 358–360.

Aeronautics, iii 56, 57.

Afghanistan, British disasters in (1841–42), iii 392, 393; British dealings with, iv 16–18. See *Wars*.

Afghans, the, i 381–384; in India, 384, 385, 395.

Africa, British explorations in, iii 248–256; the distant past and modern opening up of, iv 185, 186; division of amongst European powers, 187.

Africa, British South and Central, iv 239–251; v 190, 191; British East, iv 251–253; v 191–194; British West, iv 273–301; v 194–202.

"Africanders", the (Cape Colony), iv 195, 220, 310; Africander Bond, 310.

Agra, city of, founded, i 386; splendid buildings of, 389, 390. See iv 113.

Agricultural Union, the, iii 85.

Agriculture, British, before 18th century, i 81–83; in 18th century, 96–99; present state of (and Horticulture), iii 208–210; see 220.

Ahmadabad (India), district and city, iv 103, 105.

Ajmere (India), province of, iv 89–91, 124; town of, 91.

Akassa (West Africa), iv 292.

Akbar the Great (India), i 385, 386.

Akbar Khan (Afghanistan), iii 392, 393.

Akyab (Burma), iv 149, 154.

Alabama, the (Confederate cruiser), affair, ii 254–257.

Albany (Western Australia), vi 253, 254.

Albany, Duke of (Prince Leopold), ii 367.

Albert, Prince (Prince Consort), ii 366, 382; iii 213; his work for art development, iii 218, 307; the "Great Exhibition", iii 233–237. See iii 321, 326.

Albert Medal, the, founded, iii 136.

Alberta. See *North-Western Territories* (Canada).

Alexandria, British attack on and occupation of (1882), ii 201, 202.

Algiers, piracy and chastisement of, ii, 193–195; French conquest of, 195.

Algonquins, the (North America), i 181, 182, 186–187, 197, 302.

Alice, Princess, ii 367.

Aligarh (Alighur) (India), iii 367; iv 115.

Allahabad, city of, iv 113, 114.

Allan, Sir Hugh (Canada), v 241

Allan Line, the (steam shipping), iii 16, 17.

Althorp, Lord, ii 113, 124.

Ambala (Umballa) (India), iv 9, 121.

America, North, first discovery of, i 110–114; rise of British power in, 179; exploration in, 179, 183, 187–191, 197, 206–208, 318–321; v 384–385.

Amherst, General (North America), i 234, 241, 242, 256, 263, 266.

Amherst, Lord, in China, ii 179; as Governor-General of India, iii 383–385; iv 146.

Amirantes, the (islands), iv 272.

Amritsar (Umritsur) (India), founded, iii 397. See iii 405, iv 121.

Amusements and Athletic Sports, iii 142–153; improved means of popular recreation, 142–144; for aristocratic and wealthy classes, 144–146; cricket, 146, 147; cycling, 147; tennis, &c., 147, 148; football, 148, 149; "athletic sports" (collective), 149–151; rowing, 151, 152; mountain-climbing, 152, 153.

Anchors, improved, ii 397.

Andaman Islands, murder of Lord Mayo at, iv 10; description of, 133, 134.

Anguilla (West Indies), vi 33.

Annapolis (Nova Scotia), early history of, i 298, 300–301, 308, 310.

Anne, Queen, i 30, 31, 39, 40.

Anti-Corn-Law League. See *Free-trade*.

Anticosti island (North America), v 314.

Antigua, discovery and early history of, i 332; description of, vi 29–31.

Antilles, Greater (West Indies), i 322.

Antilles, Lesser, i 322.

Antipodes Island, vi 351.

Arabi Pasha (Egypt), ii 201–203.

Arakan, ceded to British, iv 147; see 149.

Arbitration, International, iii 127, 128.

Arch, Joseph, iii 85.

Arcot, city of, ii 14, 15.

Arkwright, Richard, i 88.

Army, the, iii 320–331: the old military system, 320–322; reform of, 322–325, 328–331; the Volunteer force, 325–328.

Arnold, Colonel Benedict, i 276–278, 279.

Arnold, Dr., of Rugby, iii 210.

Arrow, the lorcha, affair (China), ii 182, 183.

Art, education in, iii 218, 219, 314, 315; British art in 18th century, 301, 302; in 19th century, 302–320; painting, 302–304; sculpture, 304; line-engraving, &c., 304; photography, 305; architecture, 305, 306; art and the people, 306–309; music, 309–316; the stage, 316–320.

Arthur, Governor (Tasmania), vi 265, 266.

Ascension island, vi 411–412.

Ashantis, the, wars with British, iv 274–280; revolt of, subdued (1900), v 195–201.

Ashburton, Lord, ii 248–249.

Ashley, Lord. See *Shaftesbury, Earl of*.

Assam, growth of tea in, iv 73; description of, 91–94; ceded to British, 147; see 124, 125.

Assiniboia. See *North-Western Territories* (Canada).

Astronomers, British, iii 265–268.

Athabasca. See *North-Western Territories* (Canada).

Atlantic, South, our islands in, vi, 411–417.

Auckland (New Zealand), vi 321–323.

Auckland, Lord, Governor-General of India, iii 391–393, 394.

Auckland Islands (New Zealand), vi 350.

Aurangzeb (Aurungzebe), Emperor. See *India*, and i 391–394, 396, 398.

Australasia, acclimatization of fauna in, vi 352, 353; meat and dairy produce of, 353–355; changed type of British character in, 353–356; loyalty to home-country, 357; see 358–365; literature of, 366–370; art, 370–372; science, 372–373; amusements, 373–377; commerce, 377–380; federation, 380–388; public defence, 388–393; smaller colonies in, 393–403.

Australia, discovery and early history of, i 154–178; rise of trade in wool, 172; early exploration in, 173–177; general description of, vi 87–101; geography, 88–92; climate, 92–94; flora, 94–97; fauna, 97–99; aborigines, 99–101 (see also *Australasia, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Western Australia*); exploration of (19th century), vi 102–117, 246–247; bush-ranging in, 132–140.

Ava, Lord (Boer War), iv 336, 393.

B.

Baber, Sultan (India), i 384.
Back, Sir George (Arctic explorer), v 384, 385.
Baden-Powell, Colonel; see *Mafeking, siege of*, and v 131–135, 136, 140, 152.
Bahamas, the discovery and early history of, i 342–345; description of, vi 4–7.
Bahrein Islands, the, iii 360.
Baird, James (Scottish philanthropist), iii 130.
Baker, Sir Samuel, iii 255.
Baldwin, Mr. (Canadian patriot), v 210, 214, 227, 228.
Ballarat (Victoria), vi 194–195.
Balloons. See *Aeronautics*.
Baltimore, British failure at, ii 93.
Bamford, Samuel, the Radical, ii 99, 101–102.
Bangalore, city of, iv 141.
Bantu, the race (Africa), iv 193.
Baptists, the, iii 100–101.
Barbados, discovery and early history of, i 324–327; description of, vi 7–13.
Barbuda (West Indies), vi 30.
Bareilly (India), iv 114.
Barkley, Governor Sir Henry (Victoria), vi 172–173.
Barnardo, Dr., iii 118.
Barnes, Sir Edward, his governorship of Ceylon, iv 155, 162, 168.
Baroda, city of (India), i 395; iv 142; the Gaekwars of, iii 362, 368, 379; iv 12.
Barrow, Sir John, his work for Arctic exploration, iii 256.
Barrow-in-Furness, ii 437; iii 185.
Bass, George, i 174–176.
Basse Terre (St. Kitts), vi 32.
Bassein (Bombay), taken by British, ii 30; Bassein (Burma) iv 148, 149, 154.
Basutoland (South Africa), iv 235–237.
Basutos, the, iv 194.
Bathurst (New South Wales), vi 119, 166.
Bathurst (West Africa), iv 287.
Battenberg, Prince Henry of, iv 280.
Battles:—
  Abu Hamed (Sudan), ii 224–225.
  Abu-Klea, ii 206.
  Acton Homes (Natal), iv 329.
  Albuera, ii 58.
  Aligarh (Alighur) (India), storming of, iii 367.
  Aliwal, iii 398.
  Alma, ii 170.
  Amoaful, iv 278.
  Arnee, ii 34.
  Atbara, the, ii 228–232.
  Austerlitz, ii 49.
  Badajoz (storming of), ii 59.
  Balaklava, ii 171.
  Basque (or, Aix) Roads, ii 63, 65–66.
  Batoche, v 387.
  Belmont, iv 355–356.
  Berg-en-dal (Boer War), v 160–161.
  Bhurtpore (storming of), iii 384, 385.
  Boom Plaats, iv 303.
  Busaco, ii 58.
  Buxar, ii 22.
Battles (*continued*)—
  Charasiab, iv 17.
  Chilianwala, iii 402.
  Chrysler's Farm, ii 86.
  Ciudad Rodrigo (storming of), ii 59.
  Colenso, iv 402–407.
  Copenhagen (second), ii 53.
  Corunna, ii 55.
  Dargai Heights, iv 32, 33.
  Doornkop (Transvaal), iv 221.
  Driefontein, v 43–44.
  Dundee (Natal). See "*Talana Hill*".
  Elandslaagte, iv 333–335.
  Eland's River Defence (Boer War), v 153–158.
  El-Teb, ii 206.
  Enslin (Boer War). See "*Graspan*".
  Farquhar's Farm (Natal). See "*Lombard's Kop*".
  Ferkeh (Sudan), ii 216–219.
  Firozshah (Ferozeshah), iii 398.
  Friedland, ii 52.
  Fuentes d'Onoro, ii 58.
  Ginnis, ii 208.
  Glencoe (Natal). See "*Talana Hill*".
  Graspan (Boer War), iv 356–358.
  Gujrat, iii 402.
  Hafir (Sudan), ii 220.
  Hasheen, ii 207.
  Inkerman, ii 171.
  Isandula (Isandhlwana), iv 217.
  Karee Siding (Boer War), v 96, 97.
  Kassassin, ii 202.
  Kirki, iii 379.
  Koorn Spruit disaster. See "*Sanna's Post*".
  Laswari, iii 367.
  Leipzig, ii 61.
  Lombard's Kop (Natal), iv 339–340.
  Lundy's Lane, ii 86.
  Magersfontein, iv 361–364.
  Maharajpur, iii 395.
  Maiwand, iv 17.
  Majuba, iv 218.
  Mehidpur (Maheidpoor), iii 380.
  Metemmeh, ii 200.
  Miani (Meeanee), iii 394.
  Modder River, iv 358–360.
  Mudki (Moodkee), iii 398.
  Navarino, ii 161.
  New Orleans, ii 93, 94.
  Nicholson's Nek (Natal), iv 340.
  Omdurman, ii 234–241.
  Paardeberg, v 30–39.
  Panipat (India), i 385; another, 395.
  Panniar (Punniar), iii 395.
  Penjdeh, iv 22.
  Pieter's Hill (Natal), v 83, 84.
  Plassey, ii 20.
  Pollilore, ii 34.
  Porto Novo, ii 34.
  Queenston Heights, ii 83.
  Railway Hill (Natal), v 81–82.
  Ramnuggur, iii 402.
  Rietfontein (Natal), iv 337–338.
  Rorke's Drift, iv 217.
  Salamanca, ii 59.
  San Sebastian (storming of), ii 60.
  Sanna's Post disaster (Boer War), v 99–101.
  Sobraon, iii 398.
  Spion Kop, v 72–74.
  Stony Creek, ii 85.
  Stormberg, iv 344–346.
Battles (*continued*)—
  Taku Forts (China), ii 184.
  Talana Hill (Natal), iv 329–332.
  Talavera, ii 56.
  Talikot (India), i 384.
  Tamasi, ii 207.
  Tchernaya (Traktir Bridge), ii 173; see 159.
  Tel-el-Kebir, ii 202.
  Toski (Sudan), ii 210.
  Trafalgar, ii 49, 50.
  Tugela, the. See "*Colenso*"
  Ulundi, iv 217.
  Vaal Krantz (Natal), v 75–78.
  Vittoria, ii 60.
  Wagram, ii 57.
  Wandewash, ii 18.
  Waterloo, ii 77–79.
  Wepener Defence (Boer War), v 102–104.

Beaconsfield, Lord (see also *Disraeli*), policy in Russo-Turkish war (1877–78), ii 175–176.
Beauharnois, Marquis de (in French Canada), i 217.
Beauséjour (Nova Scotia), capture of, by British, i 306–307.
Bechuanaland, British, iv 223, 237–239.
Bechuanas, the, iv 193–194.
Behar (India), iv 94–95.
Belcher, Sir Edward, Arctic navigator, iii 259.
Belfast, ii 259; great development of, ii 289; iii 206–207; steamship-building at, iii 10. See iii 226.
Belgium, rise of, ii 163–165.
Belize (colony). See *Honduras, British*.
Belize, town of, vi 72.
Bell, Henry, his work in steam-navigation, iii 6.
Bellary (India), iv 111.
Bellot, Lieutenant, in Arctic exploration, iii 259.
Beluchistan, British, iv 132.
Benares, city of, iv 112–113.
Benbow, Admiral, i 353–355.
Bendigo (Victoria), vi 196.
Bengal, history of, 1756 to 1801, ii 19–29, 36–38; scenery and products of, iv 45–46, 57, 71–72, 74; farther description of, 94–101; see iv 2, 124, 128, 131; Native States connected with, iv 138.
Benin (West Africa), massacre and capture of, iv 297–300.
Bentham, Jeremy, ii 130, 373; iii 154.
Bentinck, Lord William, iii 371; as Governor-General of India, 385–391.
Berar (India), iv 101, 124.
Berlin Decree (Napoleon's), ii 50.
Bermudas, the, discovery and early history of, i 327–330; description of, vi 65–69.
Bessemer, Sir Henry, ii 433.
Bethulie Bridge, saving of (Boer War), v 7, 8.
Bhamo (Burma), iv 154.
Bhopal (India), iv 142.
Bhor-Ghât Incline (India), iv 84–85.
Bhurtpore, Lord Lake's repulses at, iii 369; storming of, by Lord Combermere, 384–385; see iv 142.
Bida (West Africa), capture of, iv 292–295.
Birkenhead, iii 183.

Birmingham, Political Union of (for Parliamentary Reform), ii 107, 111, 113, 116, 122–123; Chartist riots at, 133–134; growth of, iii 183; new colleges at, 216. See iii 233.

Bismarck, Prince, ii 164, 166.

Blackburn, Bolton, Burnley, Bury. See *Lancashire.*

Blackpool, iii 200.

Blake, Mr. Edward (Canada), v 247.

Bligh, Captain, of the *Bounty*, vi 119, 262.

Bloemfontein, Lord Roberts' advance to, v 40–45; surrender of, 46–47; Lord Roberts' halt at, 95–96; description of, 189.

Blomfield, Bishop, iii 88.

Board of Control. See *East India Company.*

Boers, the (South Africa). See *Cape Colony, Natal.*

Bolan Pass (India), iv 83.

Bombay, Presidency of, ii 11, 27, 29; troubles with Mahrattas, ii 29–31; increase of territory, iii 379; cotton manufacture in, iv 71; description of, 101–107; Native States connected with, 138.

Bombay (city), East India Company at, ii 7, 10, 11; cotton manufacture at, iv 77, 103; silk manufacture at, 74; description of, 104; commerce of, 87; the municipality, 128.

Bonny (West Africa), iv 300.

Booth, Sir Felix, his aid in Arctic exploration, iii 257.

Borneo, iv 181; British North Borneo, 182–183.

Boston (Massachusetts), i 119, 120, 132–133, 221.

Botanists, great British, iii 272–274.

Botany Bay, i 160, 163–166.

Botha, Commandant Louis (Boer War), v 111, 120, 135, 141, 159, 182–183.

Bougainville, De, in Canada, i 252.

Bouillé, Marquis de, i 333–334, 335.

Boulogne, French army at (1803–1805), ii 47–49.

Bouquet, Colonel, his services against Indians in North America, i 264–269.

Bourdonnais, La (in India), ii 11, 12, 16; in Mauritius, iv 263.

Bourke, Governor Sir Richard (New South Wales), vi 122–123.

Bournemouth, iii 199.

Bowen, Governor Sir George (Victoria), vi 174–175; in Queensland, 220–221; in New Zealand, 308–311.

Brabant, General (Boer War), v 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 13, 103, 106–107.

Braddock, General, his defeat in North America, i 225–227.

Bradford (Yorkshire), iii 184.

Brassey, Governor Lord (Victoria), vi 177.

Breakwaters, great, iii 24–27.

Brenton, Captain, his fine action in Bay of Naples, ii 67–68.

Brewster, Sir David, ii 405; iii 274.

Bribery at elections, ii 371–375.

Bridges in 18th century, i 103, 104; modern, iii 35–36; see *Railways*; in London, 181, 182.

Bridgetown (Barbados), i 325; vi 8, 11.

Bridgewater, Duke of, i 101.

Bright, John, his work for parliamentary reform, ii 141; for Ireland, 287; opposes Home Rule, 274; his efforts for Corn-law Repeal, ii 415, 416.

Brighton, iii 198.

Brindley, James, i 101–102.

Brisbane, rise of, vi 219; becomes capital of Queensland, 220; great flood at (1893), 224–225; description of, 234–235.

Brisbane, General Sir Thomas, Governor (New South Wales), vi 121, 219, 373.

Bristol, the riots at (1831), ii 117–120; growth of, iii 192; see vi 3; new college at, 216.

Britain, Great. See *British Isles.*

British and Foreign Bible Society, iii 96, 97.

British Association, the, ii 405; iii 244, 245.

British Columbia, history of, v, 237, 394, 395; representation of, 238; local legislature, 239; growth of population, 240, 251, 253, 394; minerals, 258; fisheries, 271, 272; commerce, 275; education, 291; land system, 294; description of, 393, 395–403.

British Empire, Colonial and Foreign Possessions of, iii 339–416; iv, v, vi; in *Europe*, iii 339–352 (see separate names); in *Asia*, iii 353–iv 184 (see *India, Burma, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, Borneo*); in *Africa*, iv 185–v 202 (see *Cape Colony, Natal, Mauritius, Gold Coast*, &c.); in *North America*, v 202–414 (see *Canada, Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba, British Columbia, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland*, &c.); in *West Indies*, vi 1–64, 65–69 (Bermuda); (see names of separate islands, and *Leeward Islands, Windward Islands*, &c.); in *Central America*, vi 69–73 (see *Honduras, British*); in *South America*, vi 73–86 (see *Guiana, British*); in *Australasia*, vi 87–393 (see separate colonies); in *Pacific*, vi 393–410; in *South Atlantic*, vi 411–417; vast extent and importance of, i 5, 12–15; vi 417–421; how built up, i 6–12; vi 418; its divers forms, 418, 419; the three modes of rule, 419; due attention to in British Isles, 419–420; Colonial and Indian Exhibition (1886), 420–421.

British Isles, Home Affairs and Parliamentary reform legislation (1815–1900), ii 95–146; state of country in 1816, 95–97; efforts of Radicals for Parliamentary reform, 97–103, 105–107; coercive legislation, 98, 103, 104; Whigs take up cause of Parliamentary reform, 105–108; the First Reform Act carried, 108–125; its provisions, 125–128; its effects, 128–131; further agitation for Parliamentary reform (1832–1866), 129–141; Second Reform Act, 141, 142; further efforts for Parliamentary reform, 143–144; Third Reform Act, 145–146.

Foreign Policy and Wars in Europe (1815–1900), ii 147–176; relations with France, 147–150; see 162, 177–179; with Austria, 150–151; with Prussia, 151; our "non-intervention" policy, 151; with Sweden and Norway, 153–154; with Italy, 155–160; with Greece, 160–163; with Belgium, 163–165; with Portugal, 152–153, 165; with Spain, 152–153, 166; with Russia, 154; with Russia and Turkey, 161–162, 163, 167–176; alliance with France, 169.

Foreign Policy and Wars in Asia (1815–1900) (apart from India), ii 177–192; the Syrian War, 177–178; intervention (with France) in Syria, 178–179; relations with China, 179–189; with Japan, 190–192.

Foreign Policy and Wars in Africa (1815–1901), ii 193–247 (see also *Wars*, Boer War, Zulu War); Algiers expedition, 193–195; Abyssinian, 196–198; see 199, 200; Egyptian, 201–204; British occupation of Egypt, 204; Sudan Wars, 204–243, 245–246; Relations with United States (1815–1894), 248–259; iii 127–128; peaceful settlement of disputes, ii 248–250, 252–253; the *Alabama* claims, 254–257; Affairs of Ireland, see *Ireland.*

Domestic Events of 19th Century, ii 290–368; remarkable winter (1813–1814) and summer (1893), 290, 291; the O. P. riots, 292–294; remarkable fires, 294–302; shipwrecks and fires at sea, 302–313; railway accidents, 313–317; commercial crimes and crises, 317–324; murders, 324–333; garrotting, 333–334; mining disasters, 335–336; inundations, 337–339; epidemics, 339–341; the John Thom riot in Kent, 341–342; remarkable trials, 342–347; public spectacles, 347–355; (see *Amusements, Army, Art, Bridges, Canals, Conveyances, Democracy, the New, Education, Exploration, Exhibitions, Freedom—Civil and Religious, Free Trade, Humanity and Philanthropy, Literature, Manufactures, Navigation and Mercantile Shipping, Navy, Postal Service, Progress, Railways, Reform—Legal, Reform—Religious, Reform—Sanitary, Roads, Science, Temperance, Thrift, Towns*): General Progress of, in 19th Century, iii 334–338.

Broadwood, General (Boer War), v 19, 20, 22, 35, 36, 42, 44, 96, 99–101, 136, 169.

Brock, Sir Isaac, ii 83–84.

Brooke, Sir James ("Rajah Brooke"), iv 183–184.

Broome, Governor Sir Frederick (Western Australia), vi 248–250.

Brougham, Lord, his work for Parliamentary Reform, ii 108, 114, 115, 121, 123; as Queen Caroline's counsel, ii 358; for abolition of slavery, iii 67; as a legal reformer, 160; for education, 214, 221.

Brown, Sir William (of Liverpool), philanthropist, iii 131.

Browne, Governor Sir Thomas (Tasmania), vi 269; in New Zealand, 306–307.

Browning, Elizabeth Barrett, iii 112.

Bruce, James, the African traveller, ii 196; iii 248.

Brunei, Protectorate of, iv 183.

Buccaneers, the (West Indies), i 324, 344, 351.

Buddhism. See *India.*

Buenos Ayres, the British disasters at, ii 71–73.

Building Societies, ii 427.

Bulawayo, iv 247–251.

Buller, Charles, v 219.

Buller, General Sir Redvers, iv 341, 399–408; v 66–69, 69–85, 141–146, 158–164, 168–169.

Burdett-Coutts, the Baroness, iii 131; iv 209.

Burgers, President (Transvaal), iv 305, 307.

Burglars, devices to resist, ii 403, 404.

Burgoyne, General, i 138.

Burke, Robert O'Hara, Australian explorer, vi 112–117.

Burma, iv 144–154: general description of, 144–145; history of, 145–151; see *Wars*; products of, 151; people and towns, 152–154.

Burton, Sir Richard, iii 247, 249, 251.
Bushmen (Bosjesmans) (Cape Colony), iv 192, 198.
Bush-ranging. See *Australia.*
Bussy (French commander in India), ii 16, 18, 35.
Butt, Isaac, ii 272.
Buxton, Sir Thomas Fowell, iii 131.
Byron, Lord, his sympathy for freedom in Italy, ii 155; for Greece, 160.

C.

Cabots, the, i 113, 180, 287.
Caicos Islands, in 18th century, i 353; description of, vi 26–27.
Calcutta, rise of, ii 9, 10; the "Black-Hole" tragedy at, 19; in British possession, 20; growth of new city, 20; becomes capital of Bengal, 28; decline of importance as seat of government, iii 411; commerce of, iv 87, 98; description of city, 98–99; the municipality, 128.
Caledon, Earl of, Governor of Cape Colony, iv 202.
Calicut (India), iv 111.
Cameron, Commander, African explorer, iii 252–253.
Campania, the (steamship), iii 11, 12.
Campbell, General Sir Archibald, iv 146–147.
Campbell, Sir Colin. See *Clyde, Lord.*
Campbell, Sir George (India), iv 12, 131
Campbell Island, vi 351.
Canada; the French in (1534–1713), i 179–215; the feudal system in, 205, 282–283; contests and rivalry with British colonies, 210–215, 217–231; failure of British expedition against, 213–215; French Canada (1713–1763), 215–258; development of, 216–217; British conquest of, 231–258; history of (1763–1801), 258–286; range of settlements in 1763, 259; French Canadians, their position under British rule, 257–258, 270–271; the Quebec Act (1774), 273–274; loyalty of Canada during American Revolutionary War, 274–275; boundaries of, in 1783, 279–280; divided into two Provinces (1791), 281; the constitution from 1791 to 1841, 282–283; French Canadians, character of, 285–286; the warfare with United States (1812–1815), ii 81–86; Canada's display at the "Great Exhibition" (1851), iii 235; history of (1803–1841), v 202–224 (see also *Ontario, Quebec*), the rebellion (1837), v 212–217; see now *Durham, Earl of*; the two Provinces united (1840), v 223–224; history of (1841–1900), 225–255; the movement for confederation, 233–236; the Confederation established, 236–237; constitution of Canada, 237–240; growth of population, 240, 251, 253; relations with United States, 242–247, 249, 252, 266–268, 274; geography, natural products, climate, people, 255–265; industries, commerce, communications, 265–284; a trip by the Intercolonial Railway, 276–279; municipal government, religion, education, literature, science, art, social conditions, public defence, 285–304; loyalty to Crown and Empire, iv 413; v 304–308. See also *Quebec* (Province), *Ontario, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Keewatin, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton Island, Prince Edward Island, North-Western Territories, British Columbia.*
Canadian Pacific Railway, v 279–282; see 251, 252.
Canals; 18th century, i 101–103; great canals in British Isles, iii 53–55; in Canada, v 282–283.
Candles, improvements in, ii 387–388.
Candlish, Dr., iii 77, 103.
Cane, Governor Sir Charles du (Tasmania), vi 269–270.
Canning, George, as Foreign Secretary, ii 52–53, 54, 76; vi 74; his character as a Tory, 107; see 150–151; his spirited conduct, 152–153; as Prime Minister, his help to Greece, 161.
Canning, Lord, Governor-General (and Viceroy) of India, iii 412–416; iv 1–5.
Canning, Sir Stratford. See *Redcliffe, Lord Stratford de.*
Canterbury, Governor Viscount (Victoria), vi 174.
Canterbury (New Zealand), rise of, vi 302; see 334–336, 339.
Cape Breton Island, early history of. See *Louisbourg*, and i 298, 300, 301; description of, v 375–377.
Cape Coast Castle (Africa), i 151; iv 274, 280, 282, 283.
Cape Colony, early history of, iv 187–189; in Dutch possession, 189–200; British occupation and restoration of, 198–201; final British conquest of, 201; history from 1806 to 1901, 202–239, 302–416; v 1–185 (including Boer War); progress of, iv 207, 211, 214, 216, 219; description of, 223–235.
Cape Town in 17th century, iv 195, 196; at end of Dutch rule, 199, 200; see 204, 215, 225, 229, 230.
Cardiff, iii 192.
Cargados Isles, the. See *St. Brandon Isles.*
Caribs, the (West Indies), i 322, 330, 332–335, 336, 338–339, 341, 342.
Carleton, Sir Guy (in Canada), i 271–279, 281, 284.
Carlisle, Earl of (Charles I.'s reign), i 325, 326, 330, 332, 333, 338, 341.
Carlyle, Thomas, ii 129; his strong vindication of Mazzini, 157. See vi 18.
Carolinas, the, i 125, 126, 130.
Caroline, the, affair (U.S. and Canada), v 216.
Caroline, Queen, ii 357–360.
Carpenter, Mary, her philanthropic work, iii 114.
Carrington, General Sir F. (South Africa), iv 248–249; v 127–128, 155.
Carrington, Lord, Governor of New South Wales, vi 142.
Cartier, Jacques, i 180–182.
Cartier, Sir George (Canada), v 233, 234, 240.
Cartwright, Edmund, i 89.
Castlereagh, Lord, as Foreign Secretary, ii 59; see 76, 103, 150.
Cathcart, Sir George, in Cape Colony, iv 210, 211.
Catholics, the (Roman), under Stuarts and William the Third, i 28, 29; under George III., 35; in Ireland, 50–57; in England, 106–107.
Cato Street, the (Thistlewood's), Conspiracy, ii 104–105.
Cavalier, Robert. See *Salle, Sieur de la.*
Cavendish, Lord Frederick, assassination of, ii 273, 274.
Cavour, Count, his work for Italy, ii 159, 160.
Cawnpore, massacres at, iii 415; city of, iv 114.
Cayman Islands (West Indies), vi 27.
Census, establishment of, ii 410, 411.
Central Provinces, the (India), rise of British rule in, iii 380, 410; growth of wheat in, iv 70; description of, 107–109; see 124, 125; Native States connected with, 138.
Cetewayo, iv 216–217.
Ceylon, history of till 1801, ii 41–43; religion and early civilization, 41, 42; the Portuguese in, 42, 43; the Dutch, 43; British conquest of, 43; history of (19th century), iv 155–157; description of, 157–160; people, 160–162; products, trade, government, &c., 162–169.
Chadwick, Sir Edwin, sanitary reformer, iii 170.
Chagos Islands. See *Oil Islands.*
Challenger, the, her expedition round the world, iii 263.
Chalmers, Dr., iii 77, 103.
Chamberlain, Joseph, as a Radical, ii 144; opposes Home Rule, 274; as Colonial Secretary, iv 221, 319; vi 3.
Champlain, Samuel de, i 184–189; founder of Canada, 184–186; his explorations, 189; his rule in Canada, 192–193, 195.
Chandernagore (India), ii 9, 20.
Channel Islands, iii 341–344.
Charlotte, Princess, ii 360–361.
Charlottetown (Prince Edward Island), i 313; v 383.
Chartists, the, ii 129–140.
Chatham, town of, iii 193.
Chatham, Earl of (William Pitt the Elder), i 41, 48, 132, 138, 224, 231, 234, 241; ii 21.
Chatham Islands (New Zealand), vi 349.
Cheltenham, iii 197, 211.
Chemists, great British, iii 269–271.
Child, Sir Josiah (East India Company), ii 4, 5.
Children, cruelty to, its prevention, iii 109–113, 118–119.
China, relations with Great Britain and France, ii 179–188; war with Japan, 192.
Chittagong (India), iv 100.
Christchurch (New Zealand), vi 334–335.
Church of England, in Middle Ages and under Tudors, i 20–22; under Stuarts, 23–29; under George II., 58, 59; under George III., 68; in 19th century, iii 87–96.
Chutia Nagpur (India), iv 97.
Clan-na-Gael, the (Irish affairs). See *Invincibles.*
Clarkson, Thomas, i 66, 67; iii 67, 72.
Clements, General (Boer War), v 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 48, 146–149, 169, 170, 178.
"Clergy Reserves", the (Canada), i 282; v 207, 222, 224, 230.
Clery, General Sir F. (Boer War), iv 397; v 71, 143, 145.
Cleveland (Yorkshire), the iron trade in, ii 436, 437.
Clifton, iii 197.
Clive, Lord, early career in India, ii 12–15; his capture and defence of Arcot, 14, 15; returns to England, 15; again in India, 16–17; his work in Bengal (1756–1760), 19–21; returns to England, 21; again in India as ruler, 23–25.

Clyde, the, shipbuilding on, iii 4, 5, 6, 8, 9; see *Cunard Company*; marine engineering on, 18, 19.
Clyde, Lord (in India), iii 415–416; as Governor of Nova Scotia, v 366.
Cobbett, William, ii 98.
Cobden, Richard, a parliamentary reformer, ii 140; the commercial treaty with France, 150; his views on foreign affairs, 166; see 183; his work for Corn-Law Repeal, ii 415–419.
Cochrane, Lord. See *Dundonald, Earl of*.
Cockburn, Lord Chief Justice, ii 256, 329; vi 18.
Cocos Isles. See *Keeling*.
Codrington, General (Barbados), i 327, 331.
Colbert, Jean Baptiste, his work and Canadian policy, i 198–200, 204, 208.
Colborne, Sir John (Lord Seaton), as Governor in Lower Canada, v 210; as Commander-in-chief of troops in Canada, 213, 215, 217.
Colenso, Bishop, iv 256.
Colenso, town of (Natal), iv 324–325; 396–397, 401; see *Battles*.
Colesberg (Cape Colony) (Boer War), iv 342, 343, 347–351; v 3, 4, 6.
Collingwood, Lord, ii 67.
Collins, Governor (Tasmania), vi 262–263.
Colombo (Ceylon), ii 43; iv 156, 158, 159, 166–167.
Colonies, meaning and origin of, i 106–107; British colonies in North America (17th and 18th centuries) until 1783, 115–140; loyalty of (19th century), ii 353–354; see i 4, 12, and "Boer War" (1899–1901); extent of, 351–352; see i 5–15, vi *ad fin*.
Columbus, Christopher, i 110–112. See *West Indies*.
Commerce, British, before 18th century, i 70–80; in 18th century, 105. See *Industries*.
Commons, House of, early days of, and under Tudors, i 18–20; in Stuart times, 24–29; under William III., 29, 30; under Anne, 30, 31; under George I. and George II., 31–33; under George III., 34–36. See *Parliamentary Reform*.
Congregationalists. See *Independents*.
Conolly, Dr. John, his work for lunatics, iii 126.
Constitutional Act, the (Canada), i 281–283.
Convention (Boer and British) of 1881, iv 309, 313.
Convention of Bloemfontein, iv 304; Convention of London, iv 313, 314, 315.
Conveyances, iii 32–35; coaches and cars (Ireland), 33; cabs, 33, 34; omnibuses, tram-cars, 34, 35. See *Railways*.
Cook, Captain, his Australasian discoveries, i 159–162; iii 164, 165, 262; v 394; vi 218, 261, 290–291, 395.
Cook Islands, the, vi 405.
Cookery, improved, iii 399–400.
Coolgardie (Western Australia), vi 250–252.
Coomassie (Kumasi), iv 274, 278–280; v 195–200.
Co-operative Societies, ii 426–429.
Coorg (India), iii 365, 390; iv 72–73, 108–109, 124.
Coote, Sir Eyre, ii 18; his victories over Hyder Ali, 34; his death, 35.
Cork, city of, iii 206.
Corn-Laws. See *Free Trade*.
Cornwallis, Lord, in Ireland, i 56, 57; in America, 137, 139; in India, ii 36–40; his reforms, 37, 38; his campaign against Tippu of Mysore, 39–40; again in India, iii 369–370.
Cotton, growth and manufacture of, i 144. See *Manufactures*, cotton.
Cotton, Sir Arthur (India), iv 39.
"Cotton Famine", the, ii 322–323.
County Courts, establishment of, iii 163–164.
Courcelles, de (in French Canada), i 200–204, 206.
Cradock, Sir John, Governor of Cape Colony, iv 202.
Craig, Sir James (Lower Canada or Quebec), v 204.
Crewe, iii 191.
Cromer, iii 201.
Cromer, Lord, ii 245.
Crompton, Samuel, i 88, 89.
Cromwell, Oliver, i 48, 296, 349–350.
Cronje, General (Transvaal), iv 312, 322, 379, 381, 385; v 13, 18, 20, 25, 27–40.
Crossley, Sir Francis (of Halifax), iii 132.
Crowther, Bishop (West Africa), iv 288, 289.
Croydon, iii 189.
Cruelty to animals, ii 375–376.
Cumberland, Duke of (George III.'s son), ii 364–366.
Cunard Company, the, iii 7, 8, 10–12.
Cunningham, Allan (Australian explorer), vi 102, 103, 109.
Curzon, Lord, of Kedleston, iv 38.
Cuttack (India), iv 100.
Cyprus, occupied by Great Britain, ii 176; history and description of, iii 353–356.

D.

Dacca (India), ii 9; iv 99.
Dalhousie, Earl of, Governor-General of Canada, v 206–207; as Governor of Nova Scotia, 366.
Dalhousie, Marquis of, Governor-General of India, iii 399–412; iv 81, 129, 149; his annexations, iii 400–401; his vindication of British rights, iv 148–149.
Daly, Governor Sir Dominic (South Australia), vi 203, 204.
Dampier, William, i 157–158.
Darjiling (India), iv 100.
Darling, Governor Sir Charles (Victoria), vi 173–174.
Darling, Governor Sir Ralph (New South Wales), vi 121–122, 241.
Darling, Grace, ii 305–306.
Darlington, iii 38, 186.
Darwin, Charles, iii 285–287.
Davey, Governor (Tasmania), vi 263–264.
Davy, Sir Humphry, ii 391, 392, 430; iii 270.
Debtors, cruel treatment of, iii 162–163.
Deists, English, i 58, 59.
Delarey, Commandant (Boer War), v 42, 118, 138, 153–156, 169, 178, 184.
Delhi, captured by Mussulmans in 12th century, i 382; under Sultan Jehangir, 387–388; splendid buildings at, 390, 391; Nadir Shah's massacre of people at, 399–401; British occupation of, iii 367; seized by Sepoy mutineers, 414; captured by British, 415; splendid spectacle at, iv 14–15; see 120.
Demerara. See *Guiana, British*.
Democracy, the new, iii 80–87.
Denison, Governor Sir William (New South Wales), vi 127; of Tasmania, 267–268.
Denman, Lord Chief Justice, ii 264; as counsel for Queen Caroline, ii 358, 359; see iii 160.
Derby, town of, iii 187.
Derby, Earl of (the Prime Minister), ii 141, 150, 323; another (his son) as Foreign Secretary, ii 197.
Devonport, iii 193.
Dewan (India), i 396; ii 23.
Dhulip Singh, iii 399, 402.
D'Iberville, his work for French in North America, i 292, 315, 317.
Dick, James (Scottish philanthropist), iii 130.
Diego Garcia (island), iv 272
Dindings, the (Straits Settlements), iv 172.
Disraeli, Mr. (see also *Beaconsfield, Lord*), his Reform Bill of 1859, ii 141; carries Second Reform Act, 141–142; his knowledge of men, iv 9; his Indian policy, 16.
Dissenters. See *Nonconformists*.
Docks, iii 25, 28–29.
Dominica, discovery and early history of, i 333–334; history and description of, vi 3, 27, 28, 29, 33–36.
Dorchester, Lord (in Canada). See *Carleton, Sir Guy*.
Dost Mahommed Khan (Afghanistan), iii 392, 393, 401; iv 8.
Douglas, Sir Howard, Governor of New Brunswick, v 358.
Doulton, Sir Henry, ii 440–441.
Drake, Sir Francis, iv 188.
Dredging-machines, iii 29, 30.
Drummond, Captain, as Under-Secretary in Ireland, ii 262.
Dublin, iii 206; art education in, 219.
Duelling, practice and abolition of, ii 380–382.
Dufferin, Lord, as Commissioner in Syria, ii 179; as Viceroy of India, iv 22–24; see 150; as Governor-General of Canada, v 247–250.
Duffy, Sir Charles Gavan, ii 264, 266.
Duncombe, Mr. (M.P. for Finsbury), a noted Radical, ii 133, 136; takes up Mazzini's cause, 156.
Dundee, the jute manufacture at, ii 443; growth of, 224; see iii 204.
Dundonald, Earl of, his wonderful career, ii 63–66; see 160.
Dundonald, General Lord (Boer War), v 64, 65, 69, 70, 79, 142–143, 145, 159, 162.
Dunedin (New Zealand), vi 336–337.
Dupleix, career of, in India, ii 11–17.
Duquesne, Fort, i 224; its importance, 225; Braddock's failure against, 225–227; captured by British, 239–240.
Duquesne, M. (in French Canada), 224.
Durban (Natal), iv 254, 256, 257, 260.
D'Urban, Sir Benjamin, Governor of Cape Colony, iv 205–207.
Durham, Earl of, as a Radical statesman, ii 130; his character, and work in and for Canada, v 218–222.

E.

Eastbourne, iii 199.

East India Company, i 77, 134, 152; foundation of, and early doings in India, ii 3–11; rival companies united, 5, 6; first attain power in Bengal, 19–22; oppressive rule of their servants, 21–23; reforms made by Clive, 23–25; financial difficulties of, 25, 26; the Regulating Acts (1773), 27; Pitt's India Act, 35; "Board of Control" created, 35; relations with China, 180; see also *India*, history of; renewal of charter in 1813, iii 373, 374; iv 66; renewal of charter in 1833, iii 388–389; last renewal of charter (1853), 410, 411; extinction of Company, iv 1, 2.

"Eastern Question", the, ii 167–176, 176–179.

Edinburgh, great Reform meeting at (1832), ii 121–122; illumination of (1863), ii 350, 351; George IV.'s visit to, 357; beauty of, iii 202; education of ladies at, 217; art education, 219; see 223, 224, 225, 239.

Edinburgh, Duke of (Saxe-Coburg), ii 367, 368.

Education, progress of, iii 210–228; rise of great middle-class schools, 211; Oxford and Cambridge "Locals", 212; Oxford and Cambridge Universities, reform of, 212–214, 216, 217; see 75; new Universities founded, 214–216; improvement in education for women, 216–218; the South Kensington establishments, 218–220; technical education, rise of, 219, 220; elementary education, growth of, 221–228; in England and Wales, 221–223; in Scotland, 223–225; in Ireland, 225–226; results of, 226–228.

Edward the First, i 18, 22, 72, 73.

Edward the Third, i 18, 73, 74.

Edward the Seventh. See *Wales, Prince of*, and v 308.

Edwardes, Sir Herbert, iii 401.

Edwards, Passmore, philanthropist, iii 131.

Egypt, modern progress of, ii 200, 204; the expedition to, 201–204; British occupation of, 204.

Eldon, Lord Chancellor, ii 103; iii 38.

Electricians, British, iii 271.

Electric-lighting, ii 391–392; for lighthouses, iii 23, 24.

Elgin, Lord, in China, ii 184–185; in Japan, 190; as Viceroy of India, iv 5, 6; as Governor-General of Canada, v 226–231; in Jamaica, vi 15; another (his son), iv 25.

Eliott, General, his defence of Gibraltar, i 147–151.

Elizabeth, Port (Cape Colony), iv 202, 204, 225, 230, 231, 234, 235.

Elizabethan age, i 22–25; 48, 77–79; the "sea-dogs", 324.

Ellenborough, Earl of, Governor-General of India, iii 393–395.

Elliott, Ebenezer, the "Corn-Law Rhymer", ii 417.

Elmina (Gold Coast), iv. 275, 283; see i 151.

Elphinstone, Mountstuart, iii 372, 379; his work in Bombay Presidency, 379, 380, 381; see 382.

Emmet, Robert, Irish patriot, ii 261.

Envelopes, introduction of, iii 62–63.

Erskine, Lord Chancellor, i 36–37.

Ethnologists, British, iii 277–278.

Evans, Sir de Lacy, in Spain, ii 166.

Exhibitions, iii 232–242; origin of, 232–233; the "Great Exhibition" (1851), 233–237; the second London International Exhibition, 237–238; the South Kensington series, 238; other London displays, 239–242; "Victorian Era" Exhibitions, ii 355.

Exmouth, Lord, his bombardment of Algiers, ii 194–195.

Exploration and Travel. iii 243–263; in British Isles (archæology), 243–246; British explorations in Asia Minor, 246–248; in Africa, 248–256; in Arctic regions, 256–262; in Antarctic seas, 262–263; in Australia, see *Australia*.

Eyre, Edward John, in Jamaica, vi 16–18; as Australian explorer, 108.

F.

Factory system, rise of, i 94, 95; reform of, see *Humanity*.

Fairbairn, Sir William, his work in iron-shipbuilding, iii 4.

Falkland, Lord, Governor of Nova Scotia, v 366, 367.

Falkland Islands, vi 415–417.

"Family Compact", the (Canada), v 208–210, 212, 215, 222.

Faraday, Michael, ii 391, 430; iii 270, 271.

Farr, Dr. William, the eminent statistician, ii 409, 410; as a sanitary reformer, iii 170.

Farrar, Dean, iii 93, 94.

Fashoda, the incident at, ii 243–244.

Fawcett, Henry, as Postmaster-General, iii 62.

"Fenians", the. See *Ireland*.

Fergusson, Governor Sir James (South Australia), vi 204.

Fiji Islands, vi 393–399.

Fingos, the (Cape Colony), iv 205, 206.

Fire-engines, improvement in, ii 393; fire-brigades, &c., 393–394.

Firozpur (India), iv 143.

"First Fleet", the (to Australia), i 163–165.

Firth, Mark (of Sheffield), iii 133.

Fitzgerald, Governor (Western Australia), vi 244, 245.

Fitzroy, Governor (New Zealand), vi 299–300.

Fitzroy, Governor Sir Charles (New South Wales), vi 126, 127.

Fitzwilliam, Lord (George III.'s reign), i 54.

Flinders, Matthew (Australasia, &c.), i 157, 174–179; iii 258; vi 168, 218; see 197.

Forbes, Brigadier, his capture of Fort Duquesne, i 239–240.

Forster, William Edward, as Chief Secretary for Ireland, ii 273; his work for education, iii 222.

Fort St. George. See *Madras*.

Foster, John, the essayist, iii 221.

Fox, Charles James, i 36, 39; ii 52, 380.

Francis, Sir Philip, ii 25, 27.

Franklin, Benjamin, i 129, 135, 136, 279.

Franklin, Lady, iii 259–262.

Franklin, Sir John, his Arctic explorations, iii 257–262, 384, 385; as Governor of Tasmania, vi 266.

Fraser, Bishop, iii 92.

Fredericton (New Brunswick), i 311; v 358, 360, 364.

Freedom, Civil and Religious, development of, iii 66–79; abolition of British slave-trade, 66, 67; the West African slave-trade, splendid work of British cruisers, 67–72; Catholic emancipation, 72; freedom for Nonconformists (Protestant dissenters), 74, 75; for Jews, 75, 76; for Scottish Presbyterians, 76, 77; increased freedom for women, 77–79.

Freetown (Sierra Leone), iv 291.

Free-trade, ii 412–421.

Fremantle, Captain (Western Australia), vi 242.

French, General (Boer War), iv 333–334, 340, 341, 343, 346, 347–351; v 3, 14, 19–26, 30, 35, 36, 41–45, 93, 96, 97, 104–105, 114–121, 135, 140, 159, 160–161, 165, 178, 182–183.

French Canadians (*habitans*). See *Canada*.

Frere, Sir Bartle, in Cape Colony, iv 216, 218.

Friendly Societies, ii 425–426.

Frontenac, Count de (in French Canada), i 206–208, 210–212, 317.

Frost, John, the Chartist, ii 134–136.

Fry, Elizabeth, her noble work, iii 116.

Fulahs, the (West Africa), iv 293–296.

Furneaux Islands (Tasmania), vi 286–287.

G.

Galissonière, de la, Governor of French Canada, i 223–224.

Galle (Ceylon), ii 42; iv 165, 167, 168.

Galt, Sir Alexander (Canada), v 233, 234, 240, 251.

Gambia, colony of, early history, i 151; description of, iv 285–287.

Garibaldi, Giuseppe, ii 157, 160; his reception in England, iii 81.

Garry, Fort (Canada), v 352, 353, 354.

Gas, lighting by, introduced, ii 389, 390.

Gatacre, General Sir W., ii 227–230, 233; iv 343–346, 351–353; v 5, 6, 7, 11, 13, 48.

Gautama (Buddhism), i 373–376.

Gawler, Governor (South Australia), vi 199.

Geelong (Victoria), vi 193–194.

Genghis Khan, i 384.

Geologists, great British, iii 282–285.

Georgetown (British Guiana), vi 83.

Georgia (U.S.), i 126, 127, 130.

Gholab Singh (Kashmir), iii 399, 415.

Gibraltar, i 145; British conquest of, 146; great siege of, 147–150; history and description of, iii 344–347.

Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, i 289–290.

Gipps, Governor Sir George (New South Wales), vi 123–125.

Gladstone, Mr., his Neapolitan letters, ii 157–159; his efforts for parliamentary reform, 141; as Prime Minister (first time), 143–145, 286; his dealing with *Alabama* claims, 256; as Prime Minister (second time), ii 144, 145, 287; as Prime Minister (third time), takes up "Home Rule", 274–275; as Prime Minister (fourth time), 278; as Chancellor of the Exchequer, ii 420–421; disestablishes Irish Church, iii 73; abolishes compulsory church rates, 74; see 76; his services towards cheapness of newspapers and books, iii 297; his South African policy, iv 217, 218; 308–309.

Gladwin, Major, his services in Canada, i 260–262, 263–264.

Glasgow, in 18th century, i 94, 95; see *Clyde*; making of the port, iii 29, 30; water-supply of, 166; growth of, 203-204; education at, 217, 220, 224, 225, 239.
Glencoe (Natal), iv. 325. See *Battles*.
Glover, Sir John (Ashanti War), iv 276, 279.
Godwin, General (in Burma), iv 148.
Gold Coast, colony of, iv 273-283; history of since 1801, 274-281; products of, 281-282; and see v 195-201.
Goldie, Sir George, iv 293, 295.
Gordon, Colonel, ii 205-206.
Gordon, Governor Sir Arthur, of Ceylon, iv 156; of New Zealand, vi 312; of Fiji, 396.
Gosford, Lord, Governor-General of Canada, v 211-212, 214.
Gough, Sir Hugh (Viscount), in First China War, ii 181; in India, iii 398, 399, 402.
Graham, Sir James, as Home Secretary, his disgraceful conduct to Italian patriots, ii 156; his action against Chartists, 137.
Graham's Town (Cape Colony), iv 202, 204, 219, 233, 234, 235.
Grand Pré (Nova Scotia), i 305, 308.
Grand Trunk Railway (Canada), v 276, 279.
Grant, Colonel, African explorer, iii 255.
Grant, Sir Hope, in China, ii 185; in India, iii 415.
Granville, Lord, as Foreign Secretary, ii 151, 164; iv 23.
Great Britain, the (steamship), iii 9.
Great Eastern, the (steamship), iii 13-15.
Greece, regeneration of, ii 160-163.
Greenock, iii 205.
Greenwich Observatory, ii 407.
Gregory, Sir William, as Governor of Ceylon, iv 156.
Grenada, discovery and early history of, i 338-341; description of, vi 3, 41, 42-45.
Grenadines, the (West Indies), vi 45.
Grenfell, Sir F. W. (Sirdar), ii 208, 209, 210, 214.
Grenville, George, i 132, 269.
Grey, Earl (William IV.'s reign), his work in parliamentary reform, ii 107, 113, 114, 116, 120, 123, 124, 125.
Grey, Sir George, the great colonial ruler, at Cape Colony, iv 211-215; in South Australia, vi 200-201; in New Zealand, 300-306, 307-308, 322.
Griffith, Sir Samuel (Queensland), vi 223.
Grimsby, iii 188.
Griqualand, West (Cape Colony), iv 215, 216, 217, 219.
Grote, George, ii 130, 373, 415.
Guiana, British, history of, vi 73-77, 83-86; description of, 77-83.
Guinea Coast, early settlements on, i 151-152.
Guizot, M., ii 138, 148, 178.
Gurkhas (Ghoorkhas), iii 375-377, 408.
Guthrie, Dr., iii 77, 104, 114.
Gwalior, state of, i 395; ii 30, 31; see iii 394; iv 23, 139, 142, and *Sindhia*.

H.

Haidarabad (Nizam's Dominions), state and city, iv 140.
Haidarabad (Sind), iv 106.
Haldimand, General (in Canada), i 258, 279-280.
Halifax (Nova Scotia), i 236; foundation of, 302, 303; early history of, 309, 311; commerce of, v 275; description of, 371-373.
Halifax (Yorkshire), iii 184, 185.
Halifax, Lord. See *Wood, Sir Charles*.
Hamilton, General Sir Ian (Boer War), v 53, 61, 99, 104-105, 110, 111-114, 116, 118, 120, 121, 135-137, 139, 141, 145, 159, 162, 165.
Hardinge, Lord, Governor-General of India, iii 396-399.
Hardwar (India), iv 115.
Hargreaves, James, i 88.
Harris, Lord (India), iii 363-364.
Harris, Lord (another), Governor of Trinidad, vi 53
Hastings (town), iii 199.
Hastings, Marquis of, Governor-General of India, iii 374-383.
Hastings, Warren, his career, ii 25-36; becomes governor of Bengal, 26; made "Governor-General" of British India, 26, 27; his financial dealings with native powers, 28-29; his management of affairs in southern and western India, 29-35; see iii 373.
Haussas (Houssas), the (Gold Coast), iv 277, 279, 292-295, 299.
Havelock, Sir Henry, iii 415.
Head, Sir Edmund, Governor-General of Canada, v 231-233; of New Brunswick, 360.
Head, Sir Francis Bond, Governor of Upper Canada, v 214, 215, 217.
Hearne, Samuel, North American explorer, i 320.
Heathfield, Lord. See *Eliott*.
Heber, Bishop (India), iv 66.
Heke, Hoani (New Zealand chief), vi 300-301.
Helena, St., early settlements at, i 152; description of, vi 412-413.
Heligoland, ii 53.
Henry, Patrick, i 130, 133, 135.
Herschel, Sir John, iii 265, 266; iv 207.
Hervey Islands. See *Cook Islands*.
Hildyard, General (Boer War), iv 397, 400, 402, 404, 405; v 71, 75, 77, 80, 113, 142-144.
Hill, Miss Octavia, her work for the poor, iii 129.
Hill, Sir Rowland, iii 59-62.
Himalayas, the, iv 43-44.
Hindmarsh, Governor (South Australia), vi 198, 199.
Hinduism, i 373, 378-381.
Historians, British, iii 294-296.
Historical Manuscripts Commission, ii 408.
Hobart (Tasmania), rise of, vi 263; description of, 283-284.
Hobson, Governor (New Zealand), vi 296-299.
Hochelaga (North America), i 181, 184.
Holkar (of Indore), ii 30, 37; iii 362, 365; another, 368-369, 371, 380, 389.
Holloway, Thomas, his girls' college at Egham, iii 217.
"Holy Alliance", the (1815), ii 150.
Honduras, British, discovery and early history of, i 345-346; description of, vi 69-73.
Hong-Kong, acquired by Great Britain, ii 181; description of, iv 175-180.
Hookers, the, their work in botany, iii 273-274.
Hopetoun, Governor the Earl of (Victoria), vi 176, 387-388.
Hospitals and Nursing, iii 176-177.
Hoste, Captain, his gallant fighting in the Adriatic, ii 68-69.
Hotham, Governor Sir Charles (Victoria), vi 171-172.
Hottentots, the, iv 191, 192, 198, 210.
Hovell, Captain (Australian explorer), vi 103, 104.
Howard, John, i 65, 66; iii 157.
Howe, Joseph (Nova Scotian patriot), v 366-367.
Howrah (India), iv 99.
Huddersfield, iii 184.
Hudson, Henry, i 122.
Hudson Bay Territory, early history of, i 314-321; French and English conflicts in, 315-318. See *Manitoba*.
Hudson's Bay Company, i 315-318; v 346-348, 350-351, 384, 385; their fur-trade, 272.
Hugli (India), town of, ii 1, 8, 9; iv 100.
Hull (Yorkshire), iii 188-189.
Humanity and Philanthropy, iii 108-136; cruelties of the "Factory System" reformed, 109-113; ragged schools, 114; Peabody and his successors, 115, 116; criminal-reformers, 116-117; helpers of children, 118-121, 134; of the blind, and deaf-and-dumb, 122-123; decrease of flogging in schools, and abolition of "cat" in army and navy, 123-125; other reforms, 125-130; efforts for international peace, 127-129; miscellaneous British philanthropists, 129-135; Royal Humane Society, 135.
Hume, Hamilton (Australian explorer), vi 103, 104, 169.
Hume, Joseph, his sturdy work for reforms, ii 130, 140; supports Mazzini's cause, 156; see 296, 365, 415; iii 124; v 210.
"Hundred Associates", the (in French Canada), i 191, 192, 195, 198.
"Hunt, Orator", the Radical, ii 98-102, 104.
Hunter, Captain, in New South Wales, i 171, 176.
Hunter, General Sir Archibald, ii 215, 221, 223-225, 228-231, 233, 239, 243; iv 327-328, 392-393; v 61, 113, 130, 135, 148-151.
Hunter, Sir W. W., i 378; iv 130, 132, &c.
Hurons, the, i 187, 197-198.
Huskisson, Mr., his work for freedom of trade, ii 412-413.
Hutchinson, Sir W. F. Hely, iv 251, 328, 396; v 68, 190.
Huxley, Thomas H., iii 281.
Hyde Park riot (1866), ii 142-143.
Hyder (Haidar) Ali, of Mysore, his rise to power, ii 32; his wars with British, 33, 34; see iv 65.

I.

Ibrahim Pasha, ii 168, 177, 200.
"Independents", the, iii 99-100; see 102.
India, nature of British conquest and possession of, i 359-362; castes, 367-368; Brahmans and their religion, 368-370, 379-381; science, art, law, 370-373; Buddhism, 373-376. History till 1798, 363—ii 41; ancient peoples and literature of, i 363-367, 402-404; Alexander the Great in,

376; India in 3rd century B.C., 376-377; Mohammedan conquests in, 381-384; wars of 14th and 15th centuries, 383; Hindu Kingdom of Vijayanagar or Narsinha, 383, 384; Mughal (Mogul) invasions and conquest, 384-386; Mogul Empire, 384-401; Akbar's rule, 385-386; Jehangir (Sultan), 386-388; Shah Jehan's rule, 388-391; Aurangzeb (Aurungzebe), his period of rule, 391-394; rise of Maratha (Mahratta) power, 392-395; Mogul system of rule, 395-398; decline of Mogul empire begins, 398-399; Persian invasions (18th century), 399-401; Afghan invasions (18th century), 401. First European settlements in India, ii 1-18; the Portuguese in, 1, 2, 8; the Dutch in, 2, 3, 9; first British connection with, 3, 4 (see *East India Company*); rivalry of Great Britain and France in, 11-18; southern India in middle 18th century, 11; British conquest begins, 19-41. History from 1798 to 1900, and description of, iii 361—iv 143; work of Lord Hastings in, iii 374-384; History (1828-1844), 385-395; services of Lord William Bentinck in, 385-391; History (1844-1858), 396-416; extension of frontier in north-west, 399, 402; the annexation-period (1848-1856), see *Dalhousie, Marquis of*; great public works begun by Lord Dalhousie, 406-408. History (1858-1900), iv 1-39; new postal-system, iii 407; education, 407, 408; iv 128-132; proclamation of Queen at Allahabad as ruler, iv 3, 4; proclamation of Queen as "Empress", 14, 15; loyalty of native princes, 23, 24, 42, 43, 413; "National Congress", the, 25; recent social reforms, 25. Main geographical features, i 362-363; iv 43-48; scenery and vegetable products of, 45-48; 69-74 (see also under separate provinces); climates of, 48-50; vital statistics, 50; zoology, 51-56; minerals, 56-58; population and peoples, 59-62; religious classification, 62-68; Christianity in (early times), 64; modern mission-work, 64-68; occupations of people, 68-80; irrigation, 68-69; village life, 74-75; forests, 76; manufactures, 76-80 (and see under separate provinces and towns); means of communication, 80-87; by rivers, roads, and canals, 80-81; railway-system, 81-86; exports, 70-74, 78, 86; imports, 86-87; foreign commerce, 87; coasting-trade, 87; frontier-traffic, 87; internal trade, 88. British administration, iv 1-3, 89-127; financial affairs, 4, 5; municipal government, 127, 128; money, weights, measures, 128; modern social system, languages, and literature, i 402-404; iv 131-132; military defence of, iv 39-43; description of British provinces and their towns, 89-124; Native States and their towns, 136-143.

Indians, North American, i 114-115, 124-125, 126, 127, 181, 182, 184, 186-188, 196, 197, 198, 200-203, 206, 208, 209, 210, 211-213, 226-228, 233, 242, 258-269.

Indies, West. See *West Indies*.

Industries, British, before 18th century, i 69-83; in 18th century, 84-105. See *Manufactures*.

Insurance, ii 425.

Intercolonial Railway, the (North America), v 249, 276-279.

Inverness, iii 205-206.

"Invincibles", the (Irish affairs), ii 270, 273-274, 277.

Ipswich (England), iii 189.

Ipswich (Queensland), vi 235.

Ireland, conquest of, i 23; in 18th century, 50-58; Parliament in, 51-53; rebellion of 1798, 54-56; political changes of First Reform Act (1832), ii 127; of Second Reform Act, 142; of Third Reform Act, 145; History from 1801 to 1900, 259-289; efforts for "Repeal of the Union", 260-271; O'Connell and "Repeal", 262-264; the "Young Ireland" party, 264-266; the "Fenian" troubles, 266-270; the dynamite outrages, 270, 271; Poor-Law reforms, 271-272; the "Home-Rule" movement, 272-280; the "Land Question", 281-288; the Potato Famine, 283-284; growth of material prosperity in, 288; improved education, 289; iii 225, 226; political corruption in, ii 369-371; police in, 403.

Iron industry, in 18th century, i 93; 19th century, see *Manufactures*.

Ismail Pasha (of Egypt), ii 200, 201.

Italy, the regeneration and unification of, ii 155-160.

Iveagh, Lord (Sir Edward Guinness), philanthropist, iii 116.

J.

Jackson, Port (New South Wales), i 160, 164-165. See *Sydney Harbour*.

Jaffna (Ceylon), iv 168.

Jaipur (Jeypore) (India), iv 141.

Jamaica, discovery and early history of, i 348-353; British conquest of, 349-350; early prosperity of, 350-351; troubles in (17th and 18th centuries), 351-352; history of (19th century), vi 13-19; description of, 3, 13, 19-26.

Jameson, Dr., the Transvaal "Raid", iv 220-222; see 312.

Japan, relations with Great Britain, ii 190-192; her rapid progress and war with China, 191-192.

Jefferson, Thomas, i 130, 136.

Jehan, Shah. See *India*.

Jehangir, Sultan. See *India*.

Jellalabad, defence of, iii 393.

Jervois, Sir William, vi 206, 312.

Jesuits, the, i 185; their work, 189-190; in North America, 190-191, 196-198, 199, 203, 208; in India, iv 64.

Johannesburg (Transvaal), iv 220; v 187; capture of, by Lord Roberts, v 118, 119.

Johnson, Sir William (in North America), i 226, 228-229, 242, 243, 256; his great services as regards the Indians, 259-260, 263, 267, 275.

Johnston, Sir Harry, iv 242, 243, 288.

Joubert, General Pieter (Transvaal), iv 308, 309, 310, 315, 322, 328, 329, 390, 400; v 141-142.

Jubilees, Queen Victoria's; First (1887), ii 351; Second (1897), 351-355.

Juggernaut (India), i 381.

Jung, Sir Salar (India), iii 415; iv 21.

K.

Kaffirs, the, iv 193. See *Cape Colony*, *Natal*, and *Wars*.

Kandy (Ceylon), ii 43; iv 155, 156, 158, 167.

Karachi (Kurrachee) (India), cession of, iii 394; commerce of, iv 87, 106.

Kashmir (Cashmere), iv 140, 142.

Kay, John, i 87.

Keeling Isles, iv 169, 173.

Keewatin (North America), v 355-357.

Kekewich, Colonel, his defence of Kimberley. See *Kimberley, siege of*.

Kelly-Kenny, General (Boer War), v 19, 27, 31, 41, 43, 44, 47, 116, 135, 166.

Kelvin, Lord, iii 64, 65, 271, 272.

Kennedy, Edmund (Australian explorer), vi 108, 109, 220.

Kent, Edward, Duke of, i 311, 314; ii 363; iii 119.

Kermadec Islands, vi 351.

Kew Gardens. See *Royal Botanic Gardens*, and iii 209, 274.

Khalifa Abdullah (Sudan), ii 207-212; his final defeats and death, 234-241, 245-246.

Khartum. See *Sudan*.

Kimberley (South Africa), iv 219, 225, 228, 230, 234-235; siege of, 369-371, 372-377; v 15-18; relief of, 23-26.

King, Captain, Governor of New South Wales, vi 118.

King, John (Australian explorer), vi 112-117.

King, Mr. Locke, his efforts for parliamentary reform, ii 140, 141.

Kingsley, Charles, iii 94, 216.

Kingston (Canada), founded, i 284; v 205, 224, 288, 303, 342.

Kingston (Jamaica), vi 16, 17, 19, 20, 24.

Kingstown (Ireland), ii 357; iii 207.

Kirke, Sir David, i 192, 193, 291.

Kitchener, Lord, ii 208, 210, 213-247; iv 410; v 2, 14, 21, 23, 29, 34, 86, 88, 136, 151-153, 156, 173, 178, 180, 182-185.

Klondike, gold discovery in, v 388, 389.

Knight, Charles, and cheap books, iii 223.

Knights of St. John (modern), iii 126, 127.

Kossuth, Louis, ii 151.

Krüger, President (Transvaal), iv 219-221, 306, 308, 309, 311-321; v 42, 122, 163, 165, 170.

Kumasi (or Kumassi). See *Coomassie*.

Kuruman, defence of (Boer War), iv 389-390.

Kyrle Society, the, iii 129.

L.

Labrador, discovery of, i 180; v 409, 413, 414.

Labuan, iv 182.

Laccadives (India), iv 135-136.

Lachine (Canada), i 209.

Ladysmith, siege of, iv 324-341, 390-396; great Boer assault on, v 49-61; continued siege and relief of, 61-65, 66-68.

Lagos, colony of, iv 283-285; town of, 284-285.

Lahore, taken by British, iii 399; city of, iv 120.

Lake, General (Lord), in Ireland, i 56; in India, iii 366-369, 371.

Lally, Count de (India), ii 17, 18.

Lamps, improvement of, ii 388-389.

Lancashire, cotton towns of, iii 184.

Lancaster, Captain James, iv 188.

Lander, Richard and John, travellers, iii 249.

Lang, Dr. (New South Wales), vi 124, 125, 220.
Lansdowne, Marquis of, as Viceroy of India, iv 24, 25, 41; as Governor-General of Canada, v 252.
Latrobe, Governor (Victoria), vi 170.
Launceston (Tasmania), rise of, vi 263; description of, 285.
Laurier, Sir Wilfrid (Canada), ii 354 ("a Premier, &c."), v 255.
Lawrence, Colonel (in Nova Scotia), i 305–309.
Lawrence, Major (in southern India, 18th century), ii 13, 15, 16.
Lawrence, Sir Henry (India), iii 399, 404, 414, 415.
Lawrence, Sir John (Lord), iii 404, 415; Viceroy of India, iv 6–9.
Lawson, Sir Wilfrid, iii 140–141.
Layard, Sir A. H., iii 247.
Leamington, iii 197.
Leeds, iii 183; new college at, 216; see 233; the Musical Festival, 312.
Leeward Islands (West Indies), i 322, 330–333; vi 1, 27–40.
Leicester, iii 187.
Leichhardt (Australian explorer), vi 109, 220.
Leith, iii 202.
Lévis, Chevalier de (in French Canada), i 229–256.
Life-boats, ii 395–396.
Lightfoot, Bishop, iii 92.
Lighthouses, iii 21–24.
Lincoln, President (U.S.), ii 322.
Lisgar, Lord, Governor-General of Canada, v 247.
Literature (and newspapers and magazines), iii 287–301; work of 19th century in, 288–292; Victorian Age of, 289–296.
Liverpool (city), water-supply of, iii 166; growth of, 182–183; new college at, 216; see 233.
Liverpool, Lord, ii 45, 59.
Livingstone, David, his career, iii 250–253.
Lobengula, iv 241, 246, 247.
Loch, Lord (Sir Henry Brougham), in Cape Colony, iv 219, 314; in Victoria, vi 176.
Loftus, Lord Augustus, Governor (New South Wales), vi 141.
Lokoja (West Africa), iv 292–293.
London, increase of members in First, Second, and Third Reform Acts, ii 127, 142, 145; County Council of, 393; see *Statutes*, London Government Act; charitable institutions of, iii 121–122; water-supply of, 166; growth of and improvements in, 181–182; educational institutions in, 212, 214, 215, 216, 217, 218–219.
London Reform League (1867), ii 142.
Londonderry, iii 207.
Lorne, Marquis of, Governor-General of Canada, v 250–252.
Lotteries, ii 386.
Louis, Port (Mauritius), iv 263, 265, 266, 268, 269.
Louis Napoleon, the "Orsini bombs" affair, ii 148, 149; the Crimean War, 1691–74; in Syrian affairs, 179; in United States affairs, 252.
Louisbourg, rise of, i 298; first British capture of, 218–222; its importance to the French, 223, 225; failure of British expedition against, 231; final British capture of, 234–236.
Lowe, Robert. See *Sherbrooke, Lord.*
Lower Canada. See *Quebec.*
Lowestoft, iii 201.
Lucifer matches, ii 386–387.
Lucknow, siege of Residency at, by rebels (1857), iii 415; final capture of city by British, 415; description of, iv 117–118.
"Luddites", the, ii 97.
Lunatics, improved treatment of, iii 125–126.
Lyell, Sir Charles, iii 283, 284–285.
Lyttelton, General (Boer War), iv 402, 404; v 71, 72, 75–77, 80, 141, 144, 159, 177.
Lytton, Lord, Viceroy of India, iv 14–18.

M.

Macadam, John Loudon, the road-maker, iii 31.
Macarthur, Captain John (New South Wales), i 172–173.
Macartney, Lord, i 340.
Macaulay, Lord, his support of parliamentary reform, ii 111; opposes Chartism, 137; his career in India, iii 388, 389.
Macaulay, Zachary, i 66, 68; iii 67.
MacCarthy, Sir Charles (Gold Coast), iv 274, 275.
MacClintock, Sir Leopold, Arctic voyager, iii 261.
Macdonald, Sir John, Canadian statesman, v 232–234, 240, 248–251; see 253.
MacDonald, General Sir Hector, ii 216–218; 227–231, 233, 237, 239–240; iv 364; v 14, 19, 31, 33, 104, 105, 112, 149, 151, 166.
Mac Donnell, Governor Sir Richard (South Australia), vi 203.
Macgregor, John, philanthropist, iii 133.
Machinery, general inventions in, ii 398–399.
Mackenzie, Alexander, North American explorer, i 320–321.
Mackenzie, Mr. (Canadian statesman), v 248, 250, 251.
Mackenzie, William Lyon (Canadian patriot), v 209–210, 215, 216.
Mackintosh, Sir James, iii 154.
Maclean, Governor (Gold Coast), iv 275, 276.
Macquarie, Governor (New South Wales), vi 119–121.
Madras, Presidency of, invaded by Hyder Ali, ii 32, 33; delivered by Sir Eyre Coote, 34; extension of by conquest, iii 364; growth of grain in, iv 70; description of, 109–112; Native States connected with, 138; see iv 2, 124.
Madras, city of, foundation of, ii 7, 8; progress of, 8; captured by French, 11, 12; restored, 13; commerce of, iv 87; description of, 110; municipality, 128.
Madura (India), iv 110.
Mafeking, siege of, iv 377–387; v 122–126; relief of, 129–134.
Magdalen Islands (North America), v 314–315.
Mahabaleshwar (India), iv 106, 107.
Mahdi-Al (Soudan), ii 204, 206, 207.
Mahmud of Ghazni, i 382.
Malabars, the (Ceylon), iv 160, 161, 162.
Malacca, iv 172–173.
Malay States (Native or Protected), iv 174–175.
Malcolm, Sir John (India), iii 372, 379, 380, 381; iv 84, 106.
Maldives, the, iv 169.
Malta, acquired by British, ii 46; history and description of, iii 347–352.
Malvern, iii 198.
Man, Isle of, iii 339–341.
Manchester, her work for Corn-law repeal, ii 415–417; made a seaport by canal, iii 54, 55; water-supply of, 167; growth of, 183–184; new university of, 215; see 233, 239.
"Manchester Massacre", the. See *Peterloo.*
Mandalay (Burma), iv 150, 153.
Manipur (India), iv 139, 140.
Manitoba, history of, v 346–353; description of, 346, 353–355; representation of, 238; local legislature, 239; growth of population, &c., 240, 251, 252, 253; see 264; wheat production, &c., 265, 354, 355; fisheries, 272; education in, 291; public lands, 293.
Manufactures, British, before 18th century, see *Industries*; in 18th century, i 86–96; in 19th century, ii 432–444; iron and steel, 433–438; increase of iron production; 436–438; cotton, 438; woollen, 438 (see *Yorkshire*); linen, 438, 439; paper, 439; salt, 439, 440; pottery, 440–441; alpaca, 441; india-rubber, 441–443; gutta-percha, 443; jute, 443.
Maoris, the. See *New Zealand.*
Marathas (Mahrattas), i 389, 392–395; ii 7, 8, 18; see *India*; their rising power, 29–32; chief Maratha princes, ii 37; iii 362, 365–373, 378–382; end of their power, 395.
Marsden, Rev. Samuel (New Zealand), vi 293–294.
Maryland, i 125, 127, 130.
Mascarene, Paul (in Nova Scotia), i 300–301.
Mashonaland. See *Africa, British South* and *Central.*
Mason, Sir Josiah (Birmingham), iii 133.
Massachusetts, i 119, 120–122, 127–128, 133, 135.
Masuri (Mussooree) (India), iv 116.
Matabeleland. See *Africa, British South* and *Central.*
Mathematicians and Natural Philosophers, great British, iii 269, 270–272, 274–276, &c.
Mathew, Father (Ireland), ii 263; iii 130.
Maulmain (Moulmein) (Burma), iv 147, 150, 154.
Maurice, Frederick Denison, iii 93, 216.
Mauritius, in French possession, i 177; iii 362 (see below, history of); British conquest of, 372; history and description of, iv 262–270.
Mayo, Earl of, Viceroy of India, iv 9–11; see 20, 69, 81, 126.
Mazzini, the great Italian patriot, ii 155–157.
M'Clure, Sir Robert, Arctic explorer, iii 259, 261, 262.
M'Gee, Mr. (Canada), assassination of, v 242.
M'Ilwraith, Sir Thomas (Queensland), vi 222–223.
M'Nab, Sir Allan (Canada), v 216, 228, 232.

Meagher, Mr. (Irish patriot), ii 264–266.
Medicine and Surgery, progress in. See *Reform, Sanitary*.
Meerut, iii 411; iv 114; the mutiny at, iii 414.
Mehemet Ali, Pasha of Egypt, ii 168, 177–178, 204.
Melbourne, rise of, vi 169–170; exhibition at, 175; description of, 189–193.
Menelek, king of Abyssinia, ii 198–200.
Mergui Archipelago (Burma), iv 154.
Merthyr Tydfil, iii 193.
Metcalfe, Lord, in India, iii 372, 381, 391; as Governor-General of Canada, v 225–226; in Jamaica, vi 15.
Meteorological Office, the, ii 407.
Methodists. See *Wesley, John*.
Methuen, General Lord (Boer War), iv 354–364, 367; v 13, 18, 27, 93, 94, 108, 115, 136, 140, 148, 152, 158, 184.
Middlesborough, iii 186.
Mill, James, ii 130; iii 154.
Mill, John Stuart, ii 141, 269, 373; v 219, 221; vi 18.
Miller, Hugh, iii 77, 284.
Milner, Lord (Sir Alfred), iv 223, 318, 321.
Minto, Lord, Governor-General of India, iii 371–373; another, Governor-General of Canada, v 338.
Mir Jafar (Meer Jaffier) (Bengal), ii 20, 21.
Mirzapur (India), iv 114.
Missionaries, famous British (in India), iv 65–67.
Missions, to heathen, iii 96, 97; iv 65–67, 200, 204; see iii 250.
Mitchel, Mr. John (Irish patriot), ii 264–265.
Mitchell, Sir Thomas, Australian explorer, vi 105–106.
Moguls (Mughals). See *India*.
Mohammedanism, i 381. See *India*.
Moira, Earl of. See *Hastings, Marquis of*.
Monck, Lord, Governor-General of Canada, v 233, 240, 246.
Monckton, General, at Quebec, with Wolfe, i 244, 247, 250, 251; see 337, 342.
Monsoons, the (India), iv 43, 49.
Montcalm, Marquis de, his Canadian career, i 229–254.
Montefiore, Sir Moses, iii 131–132.
Montgomery, Sir Robert (India), iii 404.
Montreal, site of, i 181, 188; foundation of, 196; captured by British, 256–257; in 19th century, v 205, 211, 226, 228, 233, 241, 249, 275, 283, 284, 287, 302, 321–326.
Monts, Sieur de (French Canada), i 184–186.
Montserrat, discovery and early history of, i 332; description of, vi 36–38.
Moore, Sir John, i 46, 56, 338; in Peninsular War, ii 55.
Morley, Mr. John, as a parliamentary reformer, ii 144; a "Home-Ruler", 275, 277.
Morley, Samuel, philanthropist, iii 134–135.
Mornington, Lord. See *Wellesley, Marquess*
Müller, George, philanthropist, iii 134.
Multan (Mooltan), troubles at, iii 401; stormed by British, 402; see iv 121.
Municipal progress, iii 194–197.
Munro, Sir Hector (India), ii 22, 33.
Munro, Sir Thomas (India), iii 379, 381; his work as Governor of Madras Presidency, 382, 391.
Murchison, Sir Roderick, iii 283; see 252.
Murray, General, in Canada with Wolfe, i 244, 249, 250; in command at Quebec, 253–256; ruler of Canada, 270–271.
Murshidabad, iv 99.
Musgrave, Governor Sir Anthony (South Australia), vi 205; in Queensland, 222.
Music. See *Art*.
Mutiny, Sepoy (or Indian). See *Wars*.
Muttra (India), iv 115.
Mysore, see *Hyder Ali, Tippoo (Tippu)*; British rule established in, iii 391; restored to native rule, iv 19; see 140, 142.

N.

Nadir Shah. See *Delhi*.
Nagpur (India), i 395; iv 108.
Naini Tal (India), iv 116.
Nana Farnavis (India), ii 30, 37, 39, 40; iii 363, 365.
Napier, Lord (of Magdala), ii 197–198; iii 405; iv 11.
Napier, Sir Charles (Admiral), in Portugal, ii 165; in Syria, 178.
Napier, Sir Charles James (General), iii 394.
Napier, Sir George, Governor of Cape Colony, iv 207, 255.
Napoleon (Buonaparte), i 44–47, 49; ii 45–61; his final downfall, 77–79.
Napoleon III. See *Louis Napoleon*.
Nares, Sir George, Arctic voyager, iii 262.
Nasmyth, James, ii 434.
Nassau (Bahamas), vi 6.
Natal, colony of, iv 254–262; Boer invasion of, 323–341, 396–408.
National Land League (Ireland), ii 287.
Native States (India), iv 136–143.
Navigation and Mercantile Shipping, iii 1–29; iron-shipbuilding, 4; steam-navigation, 5–19; steam-ships cross the Atlantic, 7; extension and improvement of steam-ships, 7–12; steam-ships to the East, 8; quickening of ocean-passages, 10, 11, 13; steam-yachts, 15, 16; increase of British shipping in Victorian age, 17–18; improvement in marine engines, 18–19; progress in maritime affairs, 19–30. See *Lighthouses, Breakwaters, Docks*.
Navy, the, iii 331–334; great review of (1897), ii 355.
Nawabs (Nabobs), i 395; the British "Nabobs", ii 22, 23.
Nelson, Dr. Wolfred (Canada), v 213, 227, 228.
Nelson, Lord, i 44–47, 346, 352; ii 48, 49, 50, 51; his funeral, 347, 348.
Nelson (New Zealand), vi 328.
Nevis, early history of, i 331–332; description of, vi 32–33.
New Brunswick, colony founded, i 310; early history of, 311–312; history in 19th century, v 358–360; see 234, 236, 237; representation of, 238; local legislature, 239; population, growth of, 240, 251, 357; education in, 248–249, 288, 289, 290; fisheries, 271–272; minerals, 258; towns and scenery of, on Intercolonial Railway, 277–278; description of country, 357, 360–364; land system, 364–365.
New England Colonies, rise of, i 118–121, 122; character of, 128, 129; attack French in Acadia, 218–221.
New Guinea (British), vi 399–401.
New Hampshire, i 121.
New Jersey, i 124.
New South Wales, discovery and early history of, i 160–176; history of (1801 to 1851), vi 118–130; gold discovery in, 127–130; history (1851 to 1900), 130–143; description of, 143–168; geography, climate, population, &c., 143–145; scenery, 145–149; legislature, &c., 149–150; religion, education, judicial affairs, 150–153; industries, 153–158; internal communications, 158–160; commerce, 160–161; financial affairs, 161, 162.
New York, colony and city of, i 122–124, 127.
New Zealand, history of, vi 289–314; the Maoris, 291–292; geography, climate, 314–317; fauna, 318; flora, 319; minerals, 320; scenery and towns of North Island, 321–327; description of South Island, 327–338; people of, 338–339; religion, 339–340; education, 340–341; industries, 341–343; commerce, 343–344; communications, 344; government, 344–346; finance, 346–347; flourishing state of, 347–349.
Newcastle-on-Tyne, iii 186–187, 215.
Newfoundland, discovery and early history of, i 286–295, cod-fishery in early times, 288–290; British occupation of, 289; British colonization of, 290–291; the French in, 292–293; the "fishing-admirals", 289, 292, 294; French attack on, 294–295; becomes a Crown colony, 295; history of, in 19th century, v 404–405; description of, 403–404, 405–413.
Newport (Monmouthshire), iii 193; see ii 134–136.
Newspaper Press, the, iii 296–300.
Niagara Falls and River, v 328–329.
Niagara Fort, i 225; taken by British, 242–243.
Nicholas, Emperor (of Russia), ii 168, 169, 173.
Nicobar Islands, iv 134–135.
Niger Coast (Imperial) Protectorate, iv 296–301.
Niger Territories (late Royal Niger Company), iv 291–296; see v 194–195.
Nightingale, Florence (in Crimean war), ii 171, 172; as a nursing reformer, iii 176.
Nipal (Nepaul), British war with, and partial conquest of, iii 375–377.
Nizam-al-Mulk (India), i 398, 399–400; ii 11; iii 362, 365.
Nonconformists, under Charles the Second, i 26, 27; under William the Third, 29; under George the Second, 33, 58, 61–64; under George the Third, 36; see *Freedom, Civil and Religious*; chief Nonconformist bodies, iii 98–102; see 221.
Norfolk Island, early history of, i 167, 168, 169; see vi 267, 401–402.
Normanby, Governor the Marquis of (Victoria), vi 175–176.
North, Lord, i 134–135, 138, 140.
North America. See *America, North*.
Northampton, iii 188.
Northbrook, Lord, Viceroy of India, iv 12–14; see 16.
Northern Territory (Australia), vi 204, 214–215.

North-West Fur Company (America), i 318, 320; v 346–350.
North-Western Provinces (India), iv 2, 112–116, 124, 131.
North-Western Territories (Canada), history of, v 384–389; description of, 389–393; representation of, 238; local legislature, 239; climate, 262; finance, 292–293; education in, 292; land system, 293–294.
Nottingham, iii 187–188; new college at, 216.
Nova Scotia, early history of, see *Acadia* (*Acadie*); French settlement in, i 185–186; British in, 296–297; British conquest of, 298; troubles with, and expulsion of, the French Acadians, 299, 301–306; loyalty and progress of colony, 307–311; history of (19th century), v 233, 234, 236, 237, 365–367; description of, 365, 367–375; towns and scenery on Intercolonial Railway, 278–279; growth of population, 240, 251, 253, 365; minerals, 258, 374–375; fisheries, 271–272, 374; representation of, 238, 375; local legislature, 239; education in, 288, 290, 302.
Nupé (West Africa), conquest of, iv 293–296.
Nursing, improvement in. See *Hospitals*.
Nuwara-Eliya (Ceylon), iv 158, 168.
Nyassaland. See *Africa*, *British South*, and iv 239, 242–246.

O.

Oastler, Richard, iii 111.
Oban, iii 205.
O'Brien, Mr. Smith (Ireland), ii 264–265.
O'Connell, Daniel, his efforts for "Repeal", ii 262–264; for Catholic Emancipation, iii 73.
Ochterlony, Sir David, iii 369, 376–377, 380, 381, 384.
Oglethorpe, General, i 64–65, 126–127.
Oil Islands, the, iv 272.
Oil Rivers Protectorate (Africa), iv 296–301.
Old Calabar (West Africa), iv 296, 300.
Oldham. See *Lancashire*.
Olivier, Commandant (Boer War), v 13, 150, 166.
Omdurman, ii 211, 212, 232–247.
Onslow, Governor the Earl of (New Zealand), vi 313.
Ontario, Province of; its creation, i 280, 281; boundaries and government of (1791), 281–283; state of, in 1806, v 202–204; political troubles in, 203, 204, 206–211; for the rebellion in, see *Canada*; union with Quebec (Lower Canada), 223; the Rebellion Losses Bill, 228–229; representation of, 230, 234, 236, 238; local legislature, 239; growth of population, 240, 253; minerals, 258; tillage and stock, 265, 266; the lumber-trade, 270; fisheries, 272; education and religion, 285–290; the country and its people, 296–297; description of province, 327–346; the Ottawa river, 330; Lake Ontario and its towns, 330–331, 338–341; the minor lakes, 331–332; Lakes Huron, Superior, &c., 333–334; other towns, 334–343; importance of the province, 344–346.
Orange River Colony, see *Boer War* (1899 1901); description of, v 188–190.

Orangemen, i 54, 55; ii 364–366, 370.
Orders in Council, British, ii 50, 81, 82.
Ordnance Survey, the, ii 408–409.
Orissa, famine in (1866), iv 8; description of, 94–96, 100.
Orphan Asylums, iii 119–120.
"Orsini bombs", the (Paris), ii 148–150; see iii 325.
Osman Digna. See *Sudan*.
Oswego, capture of, by French, i 230.
Otago (New Zealand), rise of, vi 302.
Ottawa, v 233, 235, 251, 254, 267, 271, 275, 283, 288, 294, 334–338.
Ottawas, the (North American Indians), i 258–264.
Oudh, misrule in, iii 390; annexation of, 410; the revolt in (1857), 415; see iv 116–119.
Outram, Sir James, iii 410, 412, 415; iv 62.
Owen, Robert, iii 110.
Owen, Sir Richard, iii 279–280.
Oxley, John (Australian explorer), vi 102, 103, 104.

P.

Paardeberg, Boer position and surrender at, v 30–39.
Pacific, Central, our islands in, vi 403–406.
Paisley, iii 204.
Palmer, Edward H., the linguist, ii 203, 204.
Palmerston, Lord, as Secretary-at-War, ii 59, 304; as Foreign Secretary, 147, 151, 153, 157–159, 162, 163, 164, 165, 169, 177, 178; as Prime Minister, 141, 149–150, 160, 172, 174, 179, 182, 183, 250, 252–253; see iii 72, 322.
Papineau, Louis (Canada), v 206, 207, 211–212, 213, 215, 220, 227.
Park, Mungo, the traveller, iii 248, 249.
Parkes, Sir Henry (New South Wales), vi 127, 134, 135, 143.
Parnell, Charles Stuart, ii 272–278, 287; the "Parnell Commission", 274–277.
Parramatta (New South Wales), i 168, 173; vi 166.
Parry, Sir W. E., Arctic explorer, iii 256–257.
Parsis (India), iii 63–64; and see *Bombay, city*.
Party-government, rise of, i 27, 30.
Pathans (India), iii 373, 376, 380.
Patna, ii 9, 22; iv 99.
Pattison, Dora ("Sister Dora"), iii 177.
Paxton, Sir Joseph, iii 209, 233, 235–237.
Peabody, George, iii 115.
Peace Society, the, iii 127.
Peel, Sir Robert, becomes Prime Minister, ii 136, 413; his dealing with France in the Tahiti (Otaheite) dispute, ii 148; with United States (1842), 248, 250; with Ireland, 263; as Home Secretary, ii 401; his work for Free-trade, 413–419; see 73, 155.
Pegu, Province of, ceded to British, iv 147. See *Burma*.
Penang (Prince of Wales Island), acquired by British, ii 43, 44; description of, iv 171–172.
Peninsular and Oriental Company ("P. and O."), the, iii 8.
Pennsylvania, i 124.
Pens, steel, introduction of, iii 63.
Pepperell, Colonel (of Massachusetts), i 218–219.
Perceval, Mr. (Prime Minister), ii 52, 59.
Perim (island), iii 356.
Pérouse, Count de la, i 165–166.
Persia, British diplomacy and war with, iii 372, 412.
Perth, iii 205.
Perth (Western Australia), rise of, vi 242, 243; description of, 255.
Peshawar, iv 121.
Peshwa, the (India), i 394; ii 29, 31, 37, 39, 40; iii 362, 365, 368, 379.
"Peterloo, the Field of", ii 99–102, 417.
Phayre, Sir Arthur (Burma), iv 149–150.
Philadelphia, i 135–136, 139, 141.
Philanthropy. See *Humanity*.
Philippe, Louis, King of France, ii 138, 148, 177–178.
Phillip, Captain Arthur, his career in Australia, i 163–170.
Phillip, Port, vi 168, 169.
Philologists, great British, iii 276–277.
Phipps, Sir William, his repulse at Quebec, i 211; in Nova Scotia, 297.
Physicians, eminent. See *Surgeons*.
Picton, General, i 347–348; vi 52.
Pietermaritzburg (Natal), iv 255, 257, 258, 260.
Pilcher, Colonel, at Douglas (Boer War), iv 364–367; see v 96.
"Pilgrim Fathers", the, i 118.
Pindaris (India), iii 373, 376; subjugation of, 378–379.
Pitcairn Island, vi 403.
Pitt, the elder. See *Chatham, Earl of*.
Pitt, William (the younger), i 36, 37, 46, 53, 57, 144, 281; ii 47–49, 380; his India Act, see *East India Company*.
Plimsoll, Mr., iii 82, 129–130.
Plumer, Colonel (in Boer War), iv 388–389; v 126–127, 129, 132, 167, 184, 185.
Plymouth, iii 25, 193.
Pole-Carew, General Sir R. (Boer War), v 14, 15, 42, 48, 104–105, 110, 111–113, 114–115, 117, 120, 121, 136, 139, 141, 159, 160, 164–165.
Police-system, improved, ii 401–403.
Pondicherry, ii 8; taken by British, 18; restored, 33; again taken and restored, 40.
Pontgravé (French Canada), i 183–185.
Pontiac, Ottawa chief, i 258, 260–261, 263–264, 267–269.
Poona (India), i 393–395; see *Peshwa*, and iv 105.
Port-of-Spain (Trinidad), vi 60.
Port Phillip. See *Phillip, Port*.
Port Royal (Jamaica), i 351.
Port Royal (Nova Scotia), i 185, 186, 296–297; taken by British, and name changed to "Annapolis", 298.
Portsmouth, iii 190–191.
Portugal, affairs of (19th century), ii 152–153, 165–166.
Postal Service, improvements in, iii 58–65; electric telegraphy, development of, 63–65; telephones, 65–66.
Post-office, 17th and 18th centuries, i 104.
"Potteries", the, ii 440; iii 186.
Pounds, John, of Portsmouth, iii 114.
Poutrincourt, Baron de (French Canada), i 185–186.

Presbyterians (England), iii 101; in Ireland, 101; in Scotland, 102–104.
Press, Freedom of, i 29, 36–37, 38–39.
Pressgang, the, ii 383.
Preston. See *Lancashire.*
Pretoria, capture of, by Lord Roberts, v 121–122; see 158, 187.
Pretyman, General (Boer War), v 39, 47, 99, 117.
Prince Edward Island, discovery and early history of, i 312–314; see 302; history of, in 19th century, v 234, 237, 379–381; description of, 379, 381–383; representation of, 238, 383; local legislature, 239, 383; growth of population, 240, 251, 253; fisheries, 271, 272; education in, 289.
Prince of Wales Island. See *Penang.*
Prinsloo's, General, surrender (Boer War), v 150–151.
Prize-fighting, ii 376, 377.
Progress, British, in 19th century, ii 369–iii 338; evil things amended or passed away, ii 369–388; good things introduced or maintained, 388–411. See the separate headings under *British Isles.*
Prome (Burma) taken by British forces (1824), iv 147; capture of (1852), 149; see 154.
Punjab, the (see *Ranjit Singh*), iii 397–399; see i 382; conquest and consolidation of, iii 401–405; agriculture in, iv 68, 70, 73–75; description of, 119–124; Native States connected with, 139.
Puritans, the, i 22, 23.
Putney, iii 190.

Q.

Quebec, Province of, original extent of, i 273; see 279–280; boundaries and government of (1791), 281–283; state of, in 1806, &c., v 202, 204; political troubles in, 204–206, 211; reforms in, 209; for the rebellion in, see *Canada*; union with Upper Canada (Ontario), 223; the Rebellion Losses Bill, 228–229; abolition of feudalism in, 230; the Confederation, 236–237; representation of, 238; local legislature, 239; growth of population, 240, 251; Fenian raids in, 243, 244, 245–246; minerals in, 258; live stock, 266; the lumber trade, 270; fisheries, 271, 272; towns of, on Intercolonial Railway, 276–277; the Roman Catholics in, 286; education in, 286–287, 289; description of, 308–326; the *habitans* (French Canadians), 309–311; a trip down the St. Lawrence, 311–313; scenery on the Saguenay, 313; the St. Maurice River, 315–316; the Montmorency Falls, 317.
Quebec, city of, foundation of, i 186; early history of, 189, 192–195; in British possession, 194–195; in 1722, 216; its position, 243; Wolfe's expedition to, 244–251; final capture by British, 252–253; besieged by colonial revolutionary troops, 276–279; in 19th century, v 204, 205, 227, 234, 235, 241, 263, 275, 284, 287, 318–321.
Quebec Act, the (1774). See *Canada.*
Queensland, rise of, vi 131; history of, 218–225; geography, climate, people, 225–232; industries, 232–233; commerce, 233–234; smaller towns of, 235–237; communications, 237–238; government, 238; education, finance, &c., 238–239; immigration into, 239–240.
Quetta (India), iv 132–133.

R.

Radicals, ii 97–98, 130.
Rae, Dr. John, Arctic traveller, iii 259–260; v 385.
Raffles, Sir Stamford, iv 170
Ragged Schools, iii 114.
Raglan, Lord, ii 170–172.
Raikes, Robert, i 66.
Railways, development of, iii 36–53; vast improvements in safety, speed, and comfort, 41–45; great bridges and viaducts on, 45–49; remarkable tunnels, 49–53.
Rajputana (India), i 382; iv 140.
Rangoon, occupied by British in 1824, iv. 146; the storming of (1852), 148; rapid growth of, 149; description of, 153.
Ranjit Singh (Punjab), iii 372, 392, 397, 403, 405.
Rawal Pindi (India), iv 121.
Reading (Berkshire), iii 189.
Rebekahites, the (Wales). See *Turnpike-gates.*
Red River Territory (North America), v 346–351.
Redcliffe, Lord Stratford de, ii 169.
Reed, Dr. Andrew, his noble work for orphans, iii 119–121.
Reform, Legal, of criminal law and treatment, iii 154–164; diminution of crime, 157–159; civil law reforms, 160–164.
Reform, Parliamentary. See *British Isles.*
Reform, Religious, iii 87–107; in Anglican Church, 87–96; the "Oxford Movement", 89; active work in Church, 94–95; religious societies, 96–98; chief Nonconformist bodies (England and Wales), 98–102; chief religious bodies in Scotland, 102–104.
Reform, Sanitary, iii 164–180; improved water-supply, 166–167; domestic arrangements, 167; purity of food, 168; sewage, removal of, 168–169; great sanitary reformers, 169–170; sanitary legislation, 170–172; medicine and surgery, progress in, 172–176; nursing, improvement of, 176–177; dental surgery, 177–178; veterinary surgery, 178–179; increase of duration of life, 179–180.
Regulating Acts (India) (1773). See *East India Company.*
Reigate, iii 189.
Religious Tract Society, the, iii 96, 97.
Rennie, John, the engineer, iii 25, 29, 35, 53, 181; his sons George and Sir John, 25, 181.
Revolution, the (1689), i 29.
Rhode Island, i 120–121.
Rhodes, Cecil J., iv 219, 222, 237, 240, 249, 354, 369–370. See *Kimberley, siege of.*
Rhodesia. See *Africa, British South and Central.*
Richardson, Dr., Arctic explorer, v 384, 385.
Richardson, Sir B. W., temperance and sanitary reformer, iii 139, 170.
Richelieu, Cardinal, i 191, 194.
Richmond (Surrey), iii 190.
Riel, Louis (North America), v 352–353, 386–388.
Ripon, Marquis of, Viceroy of India, iv 19–22; 127, 130.
Roads and coaches, 18th century, i 99–101; improvement of roads, iii 30–32.
Roberts, Lord (in India), iv 17, 18, 40–42; (in South Africa), iv 410; v 1–176, 180.
Roberts, Lieutenant (Boer War), iv 406–407.
Robertson, Frederick William, iii 94.
Roberval, Sieur de (French Canada), i 182.
Robinson, Sir Hercules, as Governor of Ceylon, iv 156; in South Africa, iv 218; in New South Wales, vi 141.
Robinson, Sir William, as Governor of Hong-Kong, iv 180; of Trinidad, vi 54; of South Australia, 206–207; of Western Australia, 247–248, 250.
Rochdale. See *Lancashire.*
Rocket, the (steam-locomotive), iii 38, 40.
Rodney, Lord, i 41–43, 337.
Rodriguez, island of, iv 270, 271.
Roe, Sir Thomas, his embassy to India, i 387–388.
Romilly, Sir Samuel, iii 154.
Ropata, Major (New Zealand), vi 307, 309–310.
Roseau (Dominica), vi 34, 36.
Rosmead, Lord. See *Robinson, Sir Hercules*; and iv 218.
Ross, Sir James, Antarctic voyager, iii 262–263.
Ross, Sir John, Arctic explorer, iii 256–257.
Rosse, Earl of, his work for astronomy, iii 266–267.
Rothesay, iii 205.
Royal Botanic Gardens (Kew), ii 407.
Royal Geographical Society (London), ii 406; iii 254.
Royal Geographical Society (Scottish), ii 406.
Royal Institution (London), ii 406.
Royal Society (Edinburgh), ii 406.
Royal Society (London), ii 406.
Rundle, General Sir Leslie (Boer War), v 101–108, 110, 111, 146–151.
Rupert, Prince i 315.
Rupert's Land, i 315; v 347.
Rurki (India), iv 115–116.
Ruskin, John, iii 303, 307.
Russell, Earl (Lord John Russell), his work in parliamentary reform, ii 107–112; see 130; Prime Minister, 138, 140, 163, 284; further efforts for parliamentary reform, 140, 141; Premier for second time, 141, 266; as Foreign Secretary, 160, 166, 167, 252, 254–255; as Home Secretary, ii 365; in Canadian affairs, v 212, 222–223.
Russell, John Scott, his work in shipbuilding, iii 3, 13.
Russia, her relations with Turkey, ii 161, 167–175; her advance in Central Asia, iv 8, 16, 22; atrocious conduct towards Afghanistan, 22–23.
Ryots (India), ii 23, 27, 38.

S.

Sable Island (Nova Scotia), i 183; v 377–378.
Sadler, Mr. M. T., his work in factory reform, iii 111.
Sale, Lady, iii 393.
Sale, Sir Robert, iii 393, 398; iv 147.
Salford, iii 183, 184.
Salle, Sieur de la (French Canada), i 179, 207–208.
Salt, Sir Titus, ii 441; iii 132.

Salvation Army, the, iii 104–106, 123.
Sand River Convention, iv 304, 305, 311.
Sandhurst (Victoria). See *Bendigo*.
Saskatchewan. See *North-Western Territories* (Canada).
Sati (Sutee) (India), suppression of, iii 386–387.
Saunders, Admiral, with Wolfe at Quebec, i 245–246, 250, 253.
Savings-banks, ii 424–425.
Scarborough, iii 201.
Scholars, British classical, oriental, &c., iii 292–294.
Science, iii 264–287; astronomy, 265–268; chemistry, 269–271; electricity, &c., 271–272, 281, 282; botany, 272–274; mathematics, &c., 274–276; philology, &c., 276–278; entomology, 278; zoology, ornithology, 278–281; natural philosophy, 274, 281; geology, 282–285.
Scotland, under Stuart kings, i 22, 23; Presbyterianism in (Stuart times), 22, 26, 28–30; early linen manufacture in, 92; the Parliamentary Union with England, 31; political condition before First Reform Act, ii 112; changes made by that Act, 127, 129; Second Reform Act, 142; Third Reform Act in, 145, 146; improved police of, ii 402, 403; the Free Church in, iii 101, 103; education in, 223–225, 227; see also 219, and *Glasgow, Edinburgh, Aberdeen*; sport in Scotland, 231.
Sebastopol, siege and capture of, ii 170–173.
Selkirk, Earl of (North America), v 347–350, 380.
Selwyn, Bishop (New Zealand), vi 298–299, 303–304.
Serampur (India), iv 65–66.
Seringapatam, capture of, iii 363–364.
Sewing-machines, ii 397.
Seychelles, the, iv 271.
Shaftesbury, Earl of, his philanthropic labours, iii 111–115, 126, 171.
Shah Alam India), ii 20, 22, 23, 30; iii 366, 367.
Shah Shuja (Sooja) (Afghanistan), iii 372, 392, 393.
Sharp, Granville, i 66, 67; iii 67.
Sheepshanks, John, his gift of pictures, iii 133.
Sheffield, iii 183–184, 216, 220.
Sher Ali (Afghanistan), iv 9, 16, 17.
Sherbrooke, Lord (Robert Lowe), his work in elementary education, iii 222; in New South Wales, vi 125, 170.
Shields, North and South, iii 187.
Ship-building. See *Navigation*.
Ship-building, iron, iii 4, 5.
Shirley, Governor (of Massachusetts), i 218–221, 224, 226, 228, 307.
Shore, Sir John (Lord Teignmouth) (India), ii 38, 40.
Sidmouth, Lord, ii 46, 59, 103.
Siemens, Sir William, ii 433.
Sierra Leone, British settlement at, i 153; description of, iv 287; see v 201–202.
Sikhs, the, iii 396–399, 401–402, 415; iv 18, 119.
Sikkim (India), iv 133.
Simcoe, Governor (Canada), i 283–284.
Simla, iv 122–123.
Sind (Scinde), British conquest of, iii 394; description of, iv 102.
Sindhia (of Gwalior), ii 30, 31, 37, 39; his death, 40; another, iii 362, 365, 366–368, 378–380.
Singapore, island and town, iv 169–171.
Sivaji, the Mahratta. See *Marathas*.
Skinner, Major, his work in Ceylon, iv 155–156, 161.
Slavery, abolition of, i 66–68; in British Isles, 153; in Canada, 284–285; see *Freedom, Civil and Religious*; in Cape Colony, iv 204; in West Indies, vi 2, 8, 14, 29, 32; see vi 74–77.
Smeaton, John, the engineer, iii 23, 25, 29, 56.
Smith, Adam, i 85; ii 419.
Smith, Dr. Robertson, iii 104.
Smith, Dr. Southwood, sanitary reformer, iii 169–170.
Smith, General Sir Harry, in India, iii 398; in Cape Colony, iv 205, 208–210, 303, 304.
Smith, Sir Sidney, i 44, 46.
Smith-Dorrien, General (Boer War), v 19, 32, 104, 152, 172, 182.
Smuggling, ii 383–386.
Socotra, iii 357.
Somali-land, iii 357–358.
Somers, Sir George, i 327–328.
Somerset, Lord Charles, Governor of Cape Colony, iv 202, 203.
Somerville, Mary, iii 268.
Sorell, Governor (Tasmania), vi 265.
South African Republic. See *Transvaal*.
South Australia, history of, vi 197–207; discovery of copper in, 200–201; geography, people, 207–209; scenery and smaller towns of, 211–214; industries, 215–216; government, 216–217; education, &c., 217; finance, 217–218.
Southampton, iii 191.
Southport, iii 200–201.
Speke, Captain, African traveller, iii 255.
Sport, iii 228–232.
Sports, Athletic. See *Amusements*.
Spurgeon, C. H., iii 100–101.
St. Brandon Isles, the, iv 272.
St. Christopher (West Indies). See *St. Kitts*.
St. Helena, i 152; vi 412–413; see v 40.
St. Helens, iii 185.
St. John (New Brunswick), founded, i 310; government removed from, 311; ship-building at, 312; commerce of, v 275, 362; history and description of, 362–364.
St. John's (Newfoundland), i 288, 292, 293, 295; v 411–412.
St. Kitts, discovery and early history of, i 330–331; description of, vi 31–32; see 28, 29.
St. Leonards, iii 199.
St. Lucia, discovery and early history of, i 336–338; description of, vi 49–52.
St. Paul (island), iv 273.
St. Vincent (West Indies), discovery and early history of, i 341–342; description of, vi 45–49.
Stadacona (North America), i 181, 182, 184.
Staffordshire, pottery and iron of, iii 186–187.
Stanley, Dean, iii 92–93.
Stanley, Lord. See *Derby, Earl of*.
Statistical Society (London), ii 409.
Statutes:—
Anatomy Act, iii 172.
Army Act (1881), iii 124.
Ballot Act, ii 372–373.
Bank Holidays Act, iii 143.
Bankruptcy Act (1883), iii 163.
Statutes—
Bengal Tenancy, iv 21.
British North America Act, v 236, 249.
Burial Act (1850), iii 171.
Canadian Union Act (1840), v 223–224.
Catholic Relief Act, iii 72–73.
Charter Act (India) (1833), iii 388, 389.
Charter Act (India) (1853), iii 410–411.
Common Lodging-house Act, iii 115, 171.
Constitutional Act (Canada), i 281–283.
Corn-Law Repeal, ii 418, 419.
Corporation and Test Acts Repeal, iii 73, 74.
Corrupt Practices Act (first), ii 372.
Corrupt Practices Act (second), ii 374.
Criminal Law Amendment Act (1886), iii 119.
Dissenters' Marriage Act, iii 74.
Divorce Act, iii 79.
Education Act (Scotland), iii 224.
Elementary Education Act (England and Wales), iii 222.
Employers and Workmen Act, iii 84.
Employers' Liability Act, iii 113.
Encumbered Estates Act (Ireland), ii 285.
Endowed Schools Act, iii 211.
Factories Act (1878), iii 113.
Forbes-Mackenzie Act (Scotland), iii 141.
Ground Game Act, iii 230.
India Act (Pitt's), ii 35; iii 361.
Infants Act, iii 79.
Irish Church Disestablishment, iii 73.
Irish Land Act (1870), ii 286.
Irish Land Act (1881), ii 287.
Judicature Act (Scotland) (1825), iii 161.
Judicature Acts (1873–1876), iii 161.
Local Government Act (1858), iii 171.
Local Government Act (1888) (County Councils), ii 380, 402; iii 85.
Local Government (Ireland) Act (1898), ii 279, 280.
London Government Act (1899), iii 196–197.
Lord Cross Act (India), iv 25.
Lunacy Act (England), iii 126.
Main Drainage Act (London), iii 169.
Married Women's Property Acts, iii 79.
Merchandise Marks Act, ii 404.
Merchant Shipping Act (1876), iii 130.
Militia Act (1852), iii 322.
Municipal Corporations Act, iii 194.
Municipal Reform Act (Ireland), ii 279.
Navigation Acts, i 80, 109, 122, 128, 131; repealed, ii 419, 420; see v 230.
Nonconformist Burials Act, iii 74.
Parish Councils Act, iii 85.
Parliamentary Elections Act, ii 372.
Pharmacy Act, ii 405.
Pluralities Act, iii 88.
Poor Law (Ireland), ii 271–272.
Poor-law Amendment Act (1834), ii 423.
Poor-laws (England), ii 422.
Poor-laws (Scotland), ii 423.
Prison Act (1865), iii 158.
Public Health Act (1848), iii 171.
Public Health Act (1875), iii 171.

Statutes—
Public School Acts, iii 211.
Quarter Sessions Act (Ireland), ii 282.
Quebec Act (1774), i 273–274.
Reform Act (first), ii 125–129, 130.
Reform Act (second), ii 141–143; iii 80.
Reform Act (third), ii 144–146; iii 80.
Registration Act, ii 409.
Regulating Acts (India), ii 27.
Roads and Bridges (Scotland) Act, ii 380.
"Six Acts", the, ii 103–104.
Stamp Act, i 132, 133.
Technical Schools Act (Scotland), iii 220.
Ten Hours Act, iii 112, 113.
Tithe Commutation Act, iii 88.
Torrens Act (1868) iii 171.
Trades-Union Act (1871), iii 84.
Union Act (Scotland and England), i 31.
Union Act (Great Britain and Ireland), i 57–58.
Vernacular Press Act (India), iv 16; repealed, 19.
Workman's Compensation Act (1897), iii 113.
Steam-engine. See *Watt, James.*
Steam-ships, introduction of. See *Navigation.*
Stephenson, George, the engineer, iii 36–40.
Stephenson, Robert, iii 39, 236.
Stewart, Sir Donald (India), iv 41.
Stewart's Island (New Zealand), vi 338.
Stirling, Governor Sir James (Western Australia), vi 242–243.
Stockport, iii 184.
Stockton-on-Tees, iii 186.
Straits Settlements, the, iv 169–174.
Strathcona, Lord (Canada), iv 413; v 306, 308.
Strathnairn, Lord (Sir Hugh Rose), iii 416; iv 6.
Streatham (London), iii 190.
Stuart, J. M'Douall (Australian explorer), vi 107, 110–111.
Stuart times, i 23–29.
Sturt, Captain (Australian explorer), vi 104–105, 106–108.
Suakin, ii 206, 208.
Subahdars. See *Nawabs.*
"Subsidiary System", the (India), iii 365, 381–382.
Sudan, ii 204–247; see 198.
Suez Canal, the, ii 200, 201, 202; iv 11, 177.
Suffren (French Admiral), ii 35; iv 198.
Sunderland, iii 187.
Suraj-ud-Daula (Surajah Dowlah), ii 19, 20.
Surat, city of, ii 6, 7; iv 105.
Surgeons, Physicians, &c., eminent, iii 172–176.
Sussex, Duke of (George III.'s son), ii 366; iii 111, 119.
Swansea, iii 192.
Swaziland, iv 314; v 188.
Swindon, iii 191.
Sydenham, Lord, Governor-General of Canada, v 223–225.
Sydney, rise of, i 165–167; progress of, vi 131; exhibition at, 141, 175; description of, 162–165.
Sydney Cove, i 165–167.
Sydney Harbour (Port Jackson), vi 148–149.
Symington, William, his work in steam-navigation, iii 5–6.
Symons, General Sir W. Penn, iv 328, 329–331.

T.

Tait, Archbishop, iii 74, 90–91.
Taj Mahal, the. See *Agra.*
Talon, "Intendant", of French Canada, i 200, 204, 205–206.
Tamils, the (Ceylon). See *Malabars.*
Tanjore, iv 110.
Tasman, Abel Jansen (or Janoz), iv 262; vi 261.
Tasmania, i 176; history of, vi 260–271; geography, climate, &c., 271–278; fauna and flora, 278–279; mineral wealth, 279–280; people, 280; industries, 280–282; commerce, 282–283; smaller towns, 285–286; islands, 286–287; government, education, 287–288; finance, 288–289.
Tate, Sir Henry, his gifts of libraries and pictures, iii 131.
Te Kooti (New Zealand chief), vi 308–310.
Teignmouth, Lord (India). See *Shore, Sir John.*
Telegraphs, Telephones. See *Postal Service.*
Telford, the engineer, iii 29, 31–32, 35, 54.
Temperance, progress of, iii 136–141.
Temple, Sir Richard (India), iv 12, 14, 16.
Tenasserim, ceded to British, iv 147; see 149.
Thebau, King (Burma), iv 150.
Theodore, of Abyssinia, ii 196–198.
Thiers, ii 177.
Thirlwall, Bishop, iii 91–92.
Thistlewood, Arthur, ii 104–105.
Thompson, Charles Powlett. See *Sydenham, Lord.*
Thompson, Sir John, Premier of Canada, v 253–255.
Thomson, Joseph, African Traveller, iii 254.
Thomson, Sir Charles Wyville, zoologist, iii 263.
Thomson, Sir William. See *Kelvin, Lord.*
"Thousand Islands", the (Canada), v 329.
Three Rivers, town of (Canada), i 189, 193, 196, 197, 201, 218, 279; v 316, 321.
Thrift, ii 421–432; national, 421–423; social, 424–429; commercial, 429–432.
Thugs, the (India), suppression of, iii 387.
Thurston, Governor Sir John (Fiji), vi 396–397.
Ticonderoga (North America), i 225, 228, 229, 230, 232; British repulsed at, 236–238; occupied by British, 241.
Timur the Tartar (Tamerlane), i 383.
Tippoo (Tippu), of Mysore, ii 34, 35, 38–40; his power reduced by Lord Cornwallis, 39–40; his fall, iii 362–364.
Tobacco, introduction of, to England, i 329.
Tobago, discovery and early history of, i 334–336; description of, vi 62–64.
Todd, Mr. Charles (South Australia), vi 203, 204–205.
Todleben, General von (Crimean War), ii 171, 173.
Tories, i 27, 30, 32, 34.
Toronto, v 203, 208, 233, 235, 249, 275, 288, 295, 302, 338–340.
Torquay, iii 200.
Towns, Old and New (British Isles), iii 180–207; see under separate names.
Tracy, Marquis de (French Canada), i 200–203.
Trade. See *Commerce.*
Trades Unions, their demonstrations for parliamentary reform (1866–1867), ii 143; their development, iii 82–85.
Transvaal, history of, iv 303–319; see *Boer War* (1899–1901); description of, v 185–188.
Treaties:—
Adrianople (1829), ii 161.
Aix-la-Chapelle, i 223, 301, 333, 337, 341; ii 13.
Amiens, i 336, 338, 348; ii 45; vi 74.
Ashburton (1842), ii 248–249.
Bassein (India), iii 365.
Berlin (1878), ii 176; see 163.
Breda, i 331, 332, 336; vi 74.
Bucharest (1812), ii 168.
Gundamuk, iv 16.
Gwalior, iii 395.
Jassy (1792), ii 168.
Kainardji (1774), ii 168.
London (1841), ii 169, 178.
London (1852), ii 166.
Lucknow (1801), iii 366.
Mangalore, ii 35.
Nanking, ii 182; iv 175.
Oregon (1846), ii 249–250.
Paris (1763), i 258, 293, 333, 335, 337, 339, 342.
Paris (1856), ii 174.
Reciprocity (U.S. and Canada), v 231, 242, 244.
Ryswick, i 212, 293, 297, 318, 331.
Salbai (India), ii 31.
Segauli (India), iii 377.
St. Germain-en-Laye, i 193, 291, 296.
Stockholm, ii 154.
Tien-tsin, ii 184, 185; iv 175.
Tilsit, ii 52.
Unkiar-Skelessi (1833), ii 168.
Utrecht, i 40, 146, 215, 218, 293, 298, 318, 331.
Versailles (1783), i 140, 151, 279, 293, 318, 335, 342, 345; vi 74.
Waitangi (New Zealand), vi 297.
Washington (1842). See *Ashburton.*
Washington (1871), ii 256, 257; v 247.
Yandabu (Burma), iv 147.
Trevelyan, Sir George, his efforts for parliamentary reform, ii 143, 144; Chief Secretary for Ireland, 274.
Trevithick, Richard, the engineer, iii 37.
Trichinopoli, iv 110.
Trincomalee (Ceylon), ii 43; iv 167.
Trinidad, discovery and early history of, i 346–348; history of (19th century), vi 52–54; description of, 52, 54–62.
Tristan Da Cunha, vi 413–415.
Tudor times, i 19–22.
Tugela, the river, iv 324.
Tunbridge Wells, iii 197.
Turkey, her loss of Greece, ii 161, 163; her chronic misrule, 163, 167, &c.; her relations with Russia and other Powers, 167–176, 177–179.

Turks Islands, in 18th century, i 353; see *Caicos Islands*.
Turnpike-gates, abolition of, ii 377–380.
Tyndall, John, iii 281.

U.

Udaipur (Oodeypore) (India), iv 143.
Uganda, iv 251, 252, 253; v 191–193.
Ulster, contrasted with rest of Ireland, ii 259, 260.
Umballa (India). See *Amballa*.
Umritsur (India). See *Amritsar*.
Union (Scotland and England). See *Statutes*, "*Union Act*".
"United Empire Loyalists", the (Canada, &c.), i 140, 280, 309–310.
United States, founded, i 136–138; constitution of, 141–142; early relations with Great Britain, 143–144; war with Great Britain (1812–1815), ii 81–94; battles with British ships, 87–91; vigorous dealing with Algiers, 193; relations with Great Britain (1815–1898), ii 248–259; reception of Prince of Wales, 251; the civil war in, 251–255; the Irish element, 257; social influence on British Isles, 257, 258; literature of, 258; see iii 78, 118, 138.
Upper Canada. See *Ontario*.
Utakamand (Ootacamund), a delightful place, iv 111–112.

V.

Van Diemen's Land. See *Tasmania*.
Vancouver (town), v 398–399.
Vancouver, Captain George, in Australia, i 174; in North America, v 394–395.
Vancouver Island. See *British Columbia*; and v 400–403.
Vaudreuil, Marquis de (French Canada), i 212–216; another (his son), 226, 229, 252–253, 257.
Vellore (India), mutiny at, iii 371.
Verendryes, the, North American explorers, i 319–320.
Vespucci, Amerigo, i 112, 113.
Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, ii 157, 159, 160.
Victoria, Queen, her early years, ii 363; iii 120, 197; "Orange" conspiracy against, ii 364–366; her life and character, 366, see 354; her descendants, 366–368; her lineage, 352, 353; her death, v 181–182; see ii 368.
Victoria, city of (Hong-Kong), iv 179.
Victoria, city of (Vancouver Island), v 402.
Victoria, colony of, i 174; history to 1900, vi 168–178; description of, 178–197; geography, people, scenery, 178–182; industries, 182–186; commerce, 185, 186; internal communications, 186–187; education in, 187; finance, 188; legislature, 188–189.
Villiers, Mr. C. P., a parliamentary reformer, ii 140; his work for Corn-law Repeal, 416, 418.
Virgin Islands, discovery and early history of, i 334; description of, vi 38–40.
Virginia, i 115–118, 120, 121, 127, 130, 134.
Vogel, Sir Julius (New Zealand), vi 310–311.
Volunteer Corps, origin of, ii 150; iii 325. See *Army*.
Vryburg (British Bechuanaland), seized by Boers (1899), iv 371–372.

W.

Wager, Commodore, i 355, 356.
Wakefield, Edward Gibbon, and colonial policy, v 208; vi 126, 198, 295–297; in Canada with Lord Durham, v 219–220.
Walcheren, the disaster of, ii 73–76.
Wales, New Colleges founded in, iii 216.
Wales, Prince of, his visit to Canada and United States, ii 251; v 233; rejoicings at marriage of, ii 350; his illness, 366, 367; death of his eldest son, 367; his tour in India, iv 13, 14; comes to throne as "Edward VII.", v 182.
Walpole, Sir R., i 33, 48, 84.
Warahoa, Wiremu (New Zealand chief), vi 306.
Ward, Sir Henry (Ceylon), iv 156.
Warren, Commodore, at Louisbourg, i 219–221, 223.
Warren, General Sir Charles, iv 238, 313, 408; v 70, 71, 74, 89–91.
Warrington. See *Lancashire*.
Wars:—
Abyssinian, ii 196–198.
Abyssinia and Egypt, ii 198.
Abyssinia and Italy, ii 199.
Afghan (first), iii 392–394.
Afghan (second and third), iv 16–18.
Ashanti (1824), iv 274–275.
Ashanti (1873–1874), iv 276–279; (1895), 279–280.
Austrian Succession, i 40.
Bhutan (India), iv 5, 6.
Boer (1881), iv 217, 218; see 309; (1899–1901), i 1–4; iv 309–v 185.
Burmese (first), iv 146–147.
Burmese (second), iv 148–149.
Burmese (third), iv 150.
China (first or opium), ii 180–182.
China (second), ii 182–184.
China (third), ii 184–185.
Chitral (India), iv 25, 26.
Crimean (Russian), ii 155, 159, 170–175; iii 323.
Egyptian (1882), ii 201–204.
France, with (1793–1802), i 43–47. See *West Indies*.
France, with (1803–1815), ii 45–79; naval warfare, ii 47, 48, 49, 50–51, 61–69; its results, 76–77.
Frontier warfare (India). See "*Bhutan*", "*Lushai*", "*Chitral*", "*Tirah*".
Kaffir Wars, iv 204–207, 207–209, 209–211.
Lushai (India), iv 11–12.
Mahratta (Maratha) (first), ii 30.
Mahratta (second), iii 365–369.
Mahratta (third), iii 379–381.
Nipalese (1814), iii 375–377.
Peninsular, ii 54–61.
Russo-Turkish (1877–78), ii 175–176.
Sepoy (Indian Mutiny), iii 412–416.
Wars—
Seven Years', i 41–43, 356–357. See *Canada* and *India*.
Sikh (first), iii 397–399.
Sikh (second), iii 401–403.
Sind (Scinde), iii 394.
South African (1899–1901). See "*Boer*".
Sudan (1884–1885), ii 205–207; (1885, &c.), 208–211; (1896–1900), 212–247.
Syrian (1839–1840), ii 178.
Tirah Campaign (India), &c., iv 27–37.
Turkey and Greece, ii 176.
United States, with (1812–1815), ii 81–94.
Wahabi (India), iv 5, 6.
Zulu, iv 216–217.
See also *New Zealand*.
Washington, city of (U.S.), British capture of, ii 92–93.
Washington, George, i 130, 136–142, 224, 225, 226, 227, 239–240, 313.
Watt, James, i 90, 91, 103; iii 29.
Wauchope, General, ii 233, 237, 240; iv 362–363.
Waugh, Benjamin, his work for children, iii 119.
Wedgwood, Josiah, i 89–90.
Weld, Governor Sir Frederick (Western Australia), vi 245–247; in Tasmania, 270; in New Zealand, 307 (as Premier).
Wellesley, Marquess, as Foreign Secretary, ii 59; his rule in India as Governor-General, iii 362–370; his eminent services, 370; see iv 96.
Wellesley, Province, acquired by British, ii 44; description of, iv 171–172.
Wellington, Duke of, i 44; in India, iii 363, 364, 366; iv 84; as a duellist, ii 380; as Chief Secretary for Ireland, 369–371; in Peninsular War, ii 53–61; at Waterloo, 77–78; as a statesman, his opposition to parliamentary reform, 107, 109, 117, 120, 123, 124, 125; as Commander-in-chief (1848), 138; snubs the "Holy Alliance", ii 150; at Congress of Verona (1822), 152; opposes "Repeal of Union", 263; his death and funeral, ii 348–350; see iii 73, 321, 322.
Wellington (New Zealand), vi 326.
Wentworth, W.C. (New South Wales), vi 120, 124, 125, 127.
Wesley, John, and the Wesleyans, i 61–64; iii 98–99.
West Indies, discovery and early history of, i 112, 322–353; British naval operations in (18th century), 353–359; see *Rodney*, and under separate islands and groups; slavery in, i 323, 325, 326, 330, 339, 341, 343, 350–352; naval operations in (19th century), ii 62–63; description and history of, vi 1–64. See *Bahamas*, *Barbados*, *Jamaica*, *Leeward Islands*, *Windward Islands*, *Tobago*, *Trinidad*.
Western Australia, history of, vi 241–252; explorers of, 246–247; gold discovery in, 250–251; geography, climate, &c., 252–257; smaller towns of, 254, 255; products and industries, 250, 257, &c.; commerce, 258; communications, 258–259; government, &c., 259.
Western Pacific Protectorate, vi 406–410.
Westminster, New, v 400.

Wet, Commandant De (Boer War), v 42, 98, 110, 136, 146, 149, 151–152, 169, 170, 171–173, 177–178, 183–184.
Whately, Archbishop, iii 89–90.
Whigs, i 27, 30, 32, 34.
Whitby, iii 201.
White, General Sir George, iv 326–341; see *Ladysmith, Siege of*, and v 66–69.
Whitefield, George, i 61–63, 218.
Wigan. See *Lancashire*.
Wilberforce, Bishop, iii 89.
Wilberforce, William, i 66, 68, 153; ii 361, 376; iii 67, 72.
William the Third, i 28–30, 39, 40.
William the Fourth, ii 107, 113, 114–116, 122, 123, 362, 363.
Williams, Sir W. F., of Kars, v 367.
Wills, W. J., Australian explorer, vi 111–117.
Wilmot, Governor Sir J. Eardley (Tasmania), vi 266–267.
Wilson, John (India), iv 67.
Wimbledon, iii 190.
Windward Islands (West Indies), i 334–342; general account of, vi 41–42. See *St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, Grenadines*.
Wingate, Sir Francis (Sirdar), ii 213, 221, 226, 235, 245, 247.
Winnipeg (city), v 354–355; see 292.
Wolfe, General, his services at Louisbourg, i 234–236; attacks French in Acadia, 236; his work at Quebec, 244–254.
Wolseley, Lord (Sir Garnet), in Canada, v 353; in West Africa (Ashanti War), iv 277–279; in South Africa, iv 217; in Egypt, ii 202–203; in the Sudan, 206–207; becomes commander-in-chief, iv 279.
Women's Rights, ii 258; iii 77–79; see 215–218.
Wood, Sir Charles (Lord Halifax), his care for Indian education, iii 408; iv 128–129.
Woodford, Sir Ralph, Governor of Trinidad, vi 52–53.
Wright, Thomas, his noble work for criminals, iii 116–117.

Y, Z.

Yachting. See *Amusements*, &c.
Yarmouth, Great, iii 201.
York, Duke of (George III.'s son), i 43, 44; ii 361–362; another (Queen Victoria's grandson), 368; vi 388.
Yorkshire, West Riding of, manufactures, iii 184.
Young, Governor Sir Henry (South Australia), vi 202–203; in Tasmania, 268–269.
Young, Sir John, as Governor of New South Wales, vi 131; see *Lisgar, Lord*.
Young Men's Christian Association, the, iii 97–98.
Zambesia. See *Africa, British South*.
Zanzibar, iv 252, 253; v 191.
Zemindars (India), ii 23, 24, 27, 38.
Zululand, British Protectorate of, iv 261–262.
Zulus, the, iv 193; see *Wars*, and iv 254–256.

THE
GRESHAM PUBLISHING COMPANY

34 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, LONDON, W.C.

* * * * * * * * *

A NEW CENTURY: A NEW ENCYCLOPEDIA

The New Popular Encyclopedia.

A LIBRARY IN ITSELF. A General Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, Literature, Biography, and History. Edited by CHARLES ANNANDALE, M.A., LL.D., Editor of Ogilvie's "Imperial Dictionary of the English Language". Profusely illustrated. In 14 handsome volumes, super-royal 8vo, in Roxburgh library binding, 12*s.* 6*d.* per volume, net.

A New Century demands a New Encyclopedia. As time advances, knowledge increases. To sum up that knowledge a new Encyclopedia is required, and everyone ought to possess that new Encyclopedia.

The Gresham Publishing Company, having acquired exclusive control of the well-known POPULAR ENCYCLOPEDIA, are now issuing **a New and Revised Edition** of that famous authoritative work of reference.

The entire work has been revised to date under the editorship of **Dr. Charles Annandale,** assisted by a staff of **Specialists** and **Encyclopedic Experts.**

The **New Popular Encyclopedia** is a worthy successor to the previous edition, which numbered among its contributors men of the high position of LORD KELVIN, SIR ANDREW C. RAMSAY, PROFESSOR J. D. EVERETT, MR. COMYNS CARR, CAPTAIN ORD-BROWN, MR. M. M. PATTISON-MUIR, &c.

In the matter of **pictorial illustration** the New Popular Encyclopedia is *alone of its kind.* In no British Encyclopedia, not even in previous editions of the POPULAR, has so extensive a use been made of the pictorial arts to assist the elucidation of the subject-matter. In addition to the large number of **plates in colour,** there are very many plates in black and white: pictures of machinery-detail, portraits, ordnance such as Vickers, Creuzot, and Krupp guns, flying-machines, ethnological types, and the hundred-and-one different objects which can be rendered clearer by the use of pictorial illustration. A complete series of **Maps** is also provided.

The **Supplements** form a very special feature of the New Popular. Besides containing many articles on general subjects they give **biographies** of living men or of men recently deceased. Thus we have MR. CHAMBERLAIN, MR. KRUGER, LORD SALISBURY, LORD ROSEBERY, MR. ARTHUR BALFOUR, MR. GEORGE WYNDHAM, LORD ROBERTS, GENERAL BULLER, MAJOR-GENERAL BADEN-POWELL (whose brother, Major Baden-Powell, secretary of the Aeronautical Society, contributes the Article on Aeronautics), &c., &c.

"THE NEW POPULAR ENCYCLOPEDIA" is a perfect library in itself, superseding, practically, the necessity of having recourse to a large number of books on different topics, and furnishing, at moderate cost, a complete body of information on all subjects.

IT IS A UNIVERSAL GAZETTEER, giving accounts of the natural and political divisions, countries, cities, rivers, lakes, &c., throughout the world.

IT IS A UNIVERSAL HISTORY, in which are to be found full general accounts of all the countries of the world, with important events and details treated at length under specific headings.

IT IS A BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY—giving the lives of all important historic characters, statesmen, lawyers, literary men, scientists, inventors, engineers, artists, musicians, theologians, &c.

IT IS A COMMERCIAL DICTIONARY, explaining economic principles, treating fully the practical details of the chief industries, and giving elaborate accounts of manufacturing processes.

IT IS A DICTIONARY OF THE SCIENCES—Students of natural history, botany, geology, astronomy, chemistry, &c., will find an ample general record of modern progress in the special sciences.

IT IS A DICTIONARY OF THE FINE ARTS, explaining the technical terms, theories, and processes, and giving a historic and biographical record of the various branches of the Arts.

"THE NEW POPULAR ENCYCLOPEDIA" is, moreover, a Dictionary of the Practical Arts and Handicrafts, of Law, Medicine, Household Matters, Education, Music, Games, and Sports.

Prospectus of any Book post free.

The Household Physician.

A Family Guide to the Preservation of Health and to the Domestic Treatment of Ailments and Disease. By J. M'GREGOR-ROBERTSON, M.B. C.M. (Hon.). With an Introduction by Professor M'KENDRICK, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S., Glasgow University. Illustrated by about 400 figures in the text, and a Series of Engraved Plates. In 4 divisions, super-royal 8vo, cloth, at 9*s.* net each; also in 1 volume, Roxburgh binding, £1, 13*s.* net; 2 volumes, ditto, £1, 17*s.* net.

One aim of this book is to supply in as plain language as can be used some knowledge of what science has to say as to the body which we inhabit; the second aim is to give reliable assistance in the domestic treatment of simple ailments. The bodily ills to which young and old are liable are considered more fully than is usual in popular works.

The first portion of the book treats of the human body in health, and the various changes produced by disease. This part has been divided into sections, each section being devoted to one set of organs. For example, the bones and joints are considered in one section, the nervous system in another, the digestive organs in a third, and so on. The first half of each section describes the particular organs in their healthy condition, and the second half discusses the diseases to which they are liable. By this method the healthy and diseased states of each part of the body are placed in relationship to, and mutually explain, one another. This section, moreover, contains special chapters on the MANAGEMENT OF CHILDREN IN HEALTH, the DISEASES OF CHILDHOOD, and the DISEASES OF WOMEN.

The second portion of the book is devoted to HYGIENE, or the conditions of health as regards FOOD, DRINK, CLOTHING, EXERCISE, &c., and the rules to be observed for the promotion of health, both of individuals and communities. Details are given of the requirements of a HEALTHY HOUSE, in its construction, ventilation, water-supply, drainage, &c.

In the third portion of the work the nature and mode of ACTION OF DRUGS and other remedial agents are explained. But this part includes more than mere drugs. ELECTRICITY, an agent as valuable in medicine as it is in commerce, and MASSAGE, or medical rubbing, another new and formidable antagonist to ill-health, will also be fully treated.

In the remaining portion of the book the methods of dealing with ACCIDENTS AND EMERGENCIES find a place, and the commoner SURGICAL INSTRUMENTS are described and their mode of use explained; SICK-NURSING receives attention, and recipes for INVALID COOKERY and Notes of MEDICAL PRESCRIPTIONS are given.

The ILLUSTRATIONS are very numerous, consisting of about four hundred figures printed in the text, and a series of thirty-one engraved plates, many of which are in colours.

A GREAT HISTORICAL WORK.

A History of the Scottish People.

From the Earliest to the Latest Times. By Rev. THOMAS THOMSON and CHARLES ANNANDALE, M.A., LL.D. With 40 Original Designs by W. H. MARGETSON, ALFRED PEARSE, WALTER PAGET, GORDON BROWNE, and other eminent artists. In 6 divisional volumes, super-royal 8vo, cloth elegant, 8*s.* 6*d.* net each.

The main features may be stated as follows:

It is a full and detailed History of Scotland from the Earliest Times to the Latest.

It is a History of the Scottish People, their manners, customs, and modes of living at the various successive periods.

It is a History of Religion and Ecclesiastical Affairs in Scotland.

It is a History of Scotland's progress in Commerce, Industry, Arts, Science, and Literature.

It is illustrated by a series of original designs reproduced in facsimile from drawings by eminent artists.

Prospectus of any Book post free.

NEW EDITION, REVISED AND GREATLY AUGMENTED.

Ogilvie's Imperial Dictionary

OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. A complete Encyclopedic Lexicon, Literary, Etymological, Scientific, Technological, and Pronouncing. Edited by CHARLES ANNANDALE, M.A., LL.D. Illustrated by above three thousand engravings on wood, besides a splendid series of full-page plates, many of which are coloured. This edition of the IMPERIAL DICTIONARY is beautifully printed on paper of imperial size, specially made for the Work. It is issued in eight Divisional Volumes of a handy size for reference, bound in cloth, with a fine design on side, at 10*s.* net each volume.

The reception accorded by the press and the public to this new edition of the IMPERIAL DICTIONARY has been such as to show that the care and labour bestowed upon it have met with due recognition, and to prove that it will continue fully to maintain its established position as a standard lexicon of the English language, and as a work of the highest utility for the purposes of general reference and everyday requirement.

DISTINCTIVE POINTS.

To sum up the chief points of this edition—

I. It is the latest revised dictionary, and has a supplement of many thousand new words.

II. It contains more words, exclusive of compound and obsolete words, than any other English dictionary.

III. The pronunciation is explained on a plan which is simplicity itself.

IV. It gives the pronunciation and the meaning of the word as recognized *to-day*.

V. It has more illustrations than any other English dictionary.

VI. It has full-page plates (coloured and otherwise), which are an outstanding feature of the work No other English dictionary contains full-page plates.

VII. It has clear type, beautifully printed on fine paper, and is substantially and elegantly bound.

VIII. It has a specially prepared Supplement issued with *each* volume, and not, as is usually the case, relegated to the end of the complete work.

IX. It has a very full Appendix, probably the best and finest given with any dictionary in the world.

X. It is sold on a plan at once acceptable and convenient, within the reach of all, and the price is very moderate.

"The IMPERIAL DICTIONARY", says the *St. James' Gazette*, "is a work which fairly deserves the epithet of monumental. It is really what it professes to be—'a complete encyclopædic lexicon, literary, scientific, and technological'. In other words, it is the best dictionary of its kind in the English language, and its kind is the best."

"We have no hesitation in saying", writes the *Spectator*, "that it will prove a most thorough piece of workmanship, and that among reference-books of its class it will hold the first place, both as an authority and a source of instruction and entertainment."

"The encyclopedic method of treatment which has been adopted", remarks the *Athenæum*, "will be found of the greatest service, affording as it does to the reader the advantages of the ordinary dictionary combined with those of the encyclopedia."

The *St. James' Gazette* says:—"The encyclopædic part is executed with great skill and accuracy; and the genius of the editor has been exercised with the power and precision of a hydraulic press upon the enormous masses of facts with which he has had to deal".

Prospectus of any Book post free.

The Cabinet of Irish Literature:

SELECTIONS FROM THE WORKS OF THE CHIEF POETS, ORATORS, AND PROSE WRITERS OF IRELAND. Edited by CHARLES A. READ, F.R.H.S., and KATHARINE TYNAN HINKSON. In 4 volumes, super-royal 8vo, cloth extra, gilt edges, price 8*s.* 6*d.* net each.



Coulson Kernahan

As there is an Irish Nationality, so there is an Irish Literature, in which that Nationality has found expression. And what a magnificent Literature it is! how brilliant the roll of Irish writers from Swift, Steele, and Goldsmith, to Sheridan, Grattan, Moore, and the score of gifted men and women who are identified with the present renaissance of Irish letters!

THE CABINET OF IRISH LITERATURE is an attempt to give every Irishman, every Irish household, a share in the priceless treasures with which the literary genius of the race has enriched mankind.

It brings within the compass of a single great work a representative selection of all that is best in Irish Literature. Not, be it said, the old Irish Literature in the old Irish tongue; of that most is unknown to the people itself, though a good deal of it, in translation, will be found in this book. By Irish Literature is meant the Literature read and understood by the Irishmen of the present day—the expression of the ideas they really feel, of the life they truly live, in Mayo, in Limerick, in Cork, and in Derry.

It is a selection made without fear or favour, free from any bias, religious, political, or social. Merit is the only passport to its pages.

It gives, in brief pointed biographical notices, the life-history of every great Irish writer. We are enabled to realize the personality of the man as well as appreciate the qualities of his work.

It deals not only with the past but with the present; and it is the only work that brings home to us by illustrative extracts the great revival in Irish Literature that is now taking place. W. B. Yeats, Douglas Hyde, George Bernard Shaw, Nora Hopper, Seumas MacManus, Richard Ashe King, George Egerton, Moira O'Neill, are a few among the many scores of modern writers whose works are represented in the CABINET.

No Irishman who is proud of his nationality can afford to be without a work which thus focuses the whole intellectual activity of the race. To the younger generation it will be an inexhaustible source of inspiration, a priceless influence in forming their taste, in moulding their character—in a word, in perpetuating those qualities which now, as in the past, are associated with the name of Irishman.

The CABINET was originally planned by Mr. Charles Anderson Read, but this accomplished Irish poet and novelist did not live to see the fruition of his hopes. His work was completed by Mr. T. P. O'Connor, under whose auspices the first edition was issued. Now, after the lapse of nearly a quarter of a century, the time has come for a new edition of this monumental work, which shall take due account of the extraordinary activity in Irish letters during the intervening years. Under the able editorship of Miss Katharine Tynan (Mrs. Katharine Tynan Hinkson), herself one of Ireland's most distinguished writers, the work has been thoroughly revised and brought down to the present hour.

In its get-up it is all that a book of its great importance should be. The illustrations are many and of the highest artistic value. Some of the most eminent black-and-white artists of the day, including John H. Bacon, Charles M. Sheldon, W. Rainey, R.I., G. P. Jacomb-Hood, R.I., and W. H. Margetson, have been commissioned to illustrate typical scenes from the masterpieces of our literature, and these drawings, rendered by the latest processes of photographic reproduction, and printed on specially prepared paper, add an unique charm to the work. The CABINET is further embellished with a large number of photographs of the most eminent Irish writers; and the cover design, in gold upon green cloth, is the work of Talwin Morris, the well-known designer.



F. Frankfort Moore

Prospectus of any Book post free.

The Book of the Home.

AN ENCYCLOPÆDIA OF ALL MATTERS RELATING TO THE HOUSE AND HOUSEHOLD MANAGEMENT. Produced under the general editorship of H. C. DAVIDSON, assisted by over one hundred specialists. Copiously illustrated by coloured and black-and-white plates and engravings in the text. In 4 volumes, super-royal 8vo, cloth, with artistic design, price £2, 2*s*. net. Also in 8 divisional volumes, cloth, price 5*s*. net each.

THE BOOK OF THE HOME is intended to form a complete work of reference on all subjects connected with household management. No efforts have been spared to ensure that every matter bearing upon the Home and Home Life shall receive full and sufficient treatment, and that the information given shall be reliable and in the best sense of the phrase up-to-date.

A few among over one hundred specialists who have contributed to the work:

Mrs. ADA S. BALLIN, Editor of *Baby—the Mother's Magazine*, and of *Womanhood*.

Miss BERTHA BANNER, Training Teacher of Sewing and Dressmaking at the Liverpool Technical College for Women.

Mr. A. BLACK, C.E., Architect, Author of *First Principles of Building*.

Mrs. DAVIDSON, Author of *Dainties*, *What our Daughters can do for themselves*, &c.

Miss J. FORSTER, Principal of the Cheshire County Council Dairy Institute.

Mrs. H. R. HAWEIS (the late), Author of *The Art of Decoration*, *The Art of Beauty*, &c.

Miss HELENA HEAD, Principal of the Liverpool Girls' School for Secondary Education in Domestic Science, and Author of the *Manual of Housewifery*.

Mrs. A. HODGSON, Home Decorator to *The Lady*.

Mr. R. KEITH JOHNSTON, Author of *Household Difficulties and How to overcome Them*.

Miss GERTRUDE J. KING, Secretary to the Society for Promoting the Employment of Women.

Miss E. E. MANN, Head Teacher at the Liverpool Training School of Cookery.

Colonel M. MOORE-LANE, Contributor to the *Field* and other agricultural papers.

Mrs. C. S. PEEL, Dress and Household Editor of *Hearth and Home*, and Author of *The New Home*.

Miss. B. SIBTHORPE POOLEY, Lecturer to the Liverpool Ladies' Sanitary Association.

Miss RANKIN, Head Teacher of Laundry Work at the Liverpool Technical College for Women.

Miss FLORENCE STACPOOLE, Lecturer to the National Health Society and the Councils of Technical Education, and Author of *Handbook of Housekeeping for Small Incomes*, &c.

Mr. DAVID TOLLEMACHE, late editor of *The Chef and Connoisseur*.

The contents of THE BOOK OF THE HOME may be grouped under four heads. The first deals with all matters concerning the House—from the choice of its site to the least of its internal decorations. The householder is instructed in the laws regarding landlord and tenant, and counselled in the important matters of sanitation and ventilation, heating and lighting, and the stocking and management of the garden. The housekeeper is advised as to furnishing, everything necessary for the comfort and adornment of a well-equipped house being described in detail, hints being also given regarding removals, painting and papering, artistic decoration, arrangement of linen and store cupboards, &c.

In the second the daily routine of the Household is considered—the duties of the servants, their wages, their leisure and pleasures, the management of the kitchen, laundry, and store-room. Plain and fancy cooking receive due attention, recipes being given of a large variety of dishes, and suggestions made for breakfast, lunch, afternoon-tea, dinner, and supper. A number of menus are added suitable for the different seasons. Invalid cookery also has its special section.

In the third are discussed the legal and customary duties, and the occupations and pastimes, of Master and Mistress, the former being instructed as regards insurance and the making of a will, and the smaller matters of carving, the care of the wine-cellar, and the inspection of garden and stables, while the latter is advised as to account-keeping, payments, shopping, and innumerable other matters connected with her duties as Mistress. Other subjects treated under this head are dress, home occupations, visiting and entertaining, and indoor and outdoor amusements.

In the fourth sound, systematic, and practical advice is given as to the management, in health and sickness, and the education, of children, and also on such important subjects as occupations for boys and girls, the ceremonies necessary on the coming out of a daughter, and the preparations and formalities necessary before and after a marriage.

THE BOOK OF THE HOME will thus be at once an indispensable ally to the young bride and the novice in housekeeping, and a valuable work of reference to the more experienced.

Prospectus of any Book post free.

The Natural History of Animals:

The Animal Life of the World in its various Aspects and Relations. By J. R. AINSWORTH DAVIS, M.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge, and of University College, Aberystwyth. Profusely illustrated with full-page colour and black-and-white plates, and engravings in the text, by eminent animal artists. In 8 half-volumes, cloth extra, price 7*s.* net each.

While the sum of human knowledge is gigantic now as compared with what it was a hundred years ago, in the department of Natural History the books upon which the great majority of us must depend have undergone practically no change. The general Natural History still follows the lines adopted by Goldsmith in his famous and delightful *Earth and Animated Nature*. That is to say, they are little more than classified catalogues of animals, taking up in succession the various groups and individuals, and describing them one after another, each as standing by itself. This is not what the intelligent reader of the present day requires. He must be put in a position to take a comprehensive grasp of the subject; he demands a competent guide, not a directory, however accurate.

It is with this end in view that THE NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS has been compiled. It treats this great subject on essentially modern lines, giving an accurate and vivid account of the habits, relationships, mutual interdependence, adaptation to environment, &c., of the living animals of the world.

It is needless to say that the production of such a work demanded a man who has devoted his life to the study of biology and zoology, and who at the same time is a gifted writer and expounder. This rare combination has been found in the person of Prof. J. R. AINSWORTH DAVIS, M.A., of Trinity College, Cambridge, and of University College, Aberystwyth, the author of the present work. Prof. DAVIS is well known to naturalists as an ardent worker in Natural History, particularly in the field of marine zoology. He is a very distinguished graduate of Trinity College, Cambridge, the chief scientific school in Britain, perhaps in the world, and has done a great deal of literary work, both scientific and in other directions.

Briefly, **the object of Prof. Davis's work** is to give in a readable form and in non-technical language a general survey of the whole animal world from the stand-point of modern science—and the work may fairly claim to be a **Natural History on a new plan**, the first comprehensive work in English of its own special kind. Formerly Natural History had much the character of a miscellaneous aggregate of disconnected facts, but hardly any fact or feature connected with any animal can now be considered as isolated from others; and animals as a whole must be looked upon as interrelated in the most surprising manner both with one another and with their surroundings.

Every household library should contain a Bible, a Dictionary, an Encyclopedia, and a work on Natural History. This is the "irreducible minimum"; other books we may have, these we must. For THE NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS it may fairly be claimed that it has a better title than any other work to become the **Natural History for the Household**. It is a work in which the adult reader will find a never-failing mine of information, while the younger members of the family will delight in its wealth of illustration, and its store of interesting and suggestive anecdote.

To teachers THE NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS may be regarded as indispensable. More than usual attention has of late been directed to the important subject of **Nature-study**; and in this respect the appearance of Prof. Davis's work could scarcely have been more fitly timed. In the domain of Natural History it is pre-eminently the book for the purpose. Its clear and orderly arrangement of facts, its masterly grasp of general principles, its comprehensiveness of scope and simplicity of style, combined with the most absolute scientific accuracy, render this work an invaluable book of reference for those who aspire to teach Nature-study on up-to-date principles.

The Illustrations, as befits a work of such importance, are on the most lavish scale. A large number are in colour, reproductions, by the latest processes of colour engraving, of exquisite pictures by the most eminent animal draughtsmen. In illustrating the work talent has been sought wherever it was to be found; and the list of artists is representative of several nationalities. A large number of the designs are the work of Mr. A. FAIRFAX MUCKLEY, who is probably unsurpassed in the capacity to depict living creatures with absolute fidelity to detail without sacrificing the general artistic effect. FRIEDRICH SPECHT, one of the most eminent German animal painters of the past century, is represented in THE NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS by many of his best designs in colour and black-and-white. W. KUHNERT, another German artist whose work is universally admired; and M. A. KOEKKOEK, the talented Dutch painter, are also among those who have assisted in the embellishment of the work. An important feature is the series of diagrammatic designs showing the structure of certain typical animals, specially drawn under the direction of Prof. Davis.

Prospectus of any Book post free.

The Modern Carpenter, Joiner, and Cabinet-Maker:

A Complete Guide to Current Practice. Prepared under the editorship of G. LISTER SUTCLIFFE, Architect, Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects, Member of the Sanitary Institute, editor and joint-author of "Modern House-Construction", author of "Concrete: Its Nature and Uses", &c. With contributions from many specialists. Illustrated by a series of about 100 separately-printed plates and 1000 figures in the text. In 8 divisional volumes, super-royal quarto, handsomely bound in cloth, with cover design by Mr. TALWIN MORRIS, price 7*s.* 6*d.* net each. In complete sets only.

In preparing THE MODERN CARPENTER the editor has had the great advantage of working upon the basis of Newlands's *Carpenter and Joiner's Assistant*, which for nearly half a century has been accepted as a **standard authority** on the subjects of which it treats, and for many years has been recommended by the Royal Institute of British Architects as **a text-book** for the examination of that society. And yet in the present work it has been possible to preserve only a very small part of Newlands's treatise, invaluable though this has been to two generations of craftsmen. While the fundamental features of arrangement and method which distinguish this famous work have been retained, the matter has had to be **entirely rewritten,** and many new sections have been added, on subjects not touched upon in the older work, with which the carpenter of the present day requires to be familiar.

In the new book, indeed, the old foundations that have stood the test of half a century of practical use have been retained, but **the superstructure is wholly new.**

The lesson to be learned from this fact is not far to seek. It is that the modern carpenter requires a **far wider expert knowledge** than sufficed his predecessor. The development of wood-working machinery, the introduction of new kinds of timber, improvements in the design of structures, the more thorough testing of timbers, and progress in the various industries with which Carpentry, Joinery, and Cabinet-making are intimately allied, have all helped to render the craft more complex. The carpenter of the present day has no use for the old "rule of thumb" methods; his calling is both an art and a science, and **knowledge, knowledge, and again knowledge** is the primary condition of success.

The editor of THE MODERN CARPENTER, **Mr. G. Lister Sutcliffe,** Associate of the Royal Institute of Architects, **needs no introduction** to practical men; his name is already well known not only through his professional position in the architectural world, but through his editorship of *Modern House-Construction*, a work which, although issued only a few years ago, has already become a standard book of reference. Mr. SUTCLIFFE'S large experience has enabled him to enlist the services of a **highly-qualified staff of experts,** whose special knowledge, acquired through long years of practical work, is now placed at the disposal of every member of the craft. The first condition in selecting the contributors to the work was that they should be **practical men,** not only possessing the indispensable knowledge, but having the ability to impart it. The result is that within the eight divisional-volumes of this work we have a treatise on every branch of the craft, distinguished by four outstanding qualities:—It is (1) **complete,** (2) **clear,** (3) **practical,** and (4) **up-to-date.**

An idea of the scope of THE MODERN CARPENTER may be gathered from the fact that while its predecessor, *The Carpenter and Joiner's Assistant*, comprised only **eight** sections, the new work includes no fewer than **sixteen.** A glance at these will show that the work **covers the whole field;** it is a complete encyclopædia upon every subject that bears upon the everyday work of the practical man.

I. Styles of Architecture.
II. Woods: Their Characteristics and Uses.
III. Wood-working Tools and Machinery.
IV. Drawing and Drawing Instruments.
V. Practical Geometry.
VI. Strength of Timber and Timber Framing.
VII. Carpentry.
VIII. Joinery and Ironmongery.
IX. Staircases and Handrailing.
X. Air-tight Case-Making.
XI. Cabinet-Making.
XII. Wood-Carving.
XIII. Shop Management.
XIV. Estimating.
XV. Building Law.
XVI. Index, Glossary, &c.

The Illustrations are not the least of the many notable features of this great undertaking. The work is embellished in the first place with about **100 full-page plates,** reproduced, some in colours, by the most approved processes of mechanical engraving, and printed on specially-prepared paper. In addition to this unique collection there are no fewer than **1000 diagrams and designs** in the body of the work. No trouble or expense has indeed been spared to procure illustrations where these could elucidate the text.

Prospectus of any Book post free.

Charles Dickens' Novels.

The Imperial Edition of the Novels of CHARLES DICKENS, in 16 volumes, large square 8vo, cloth extra, gilt top, price 4*s.* 6*d.* net each volume.



An Ideal Issue. ONE NOVEL, ONE VOLUME. Despite varying lengths, the paper, &c., is so adjusted that each volume is uniform in thickness and size.

The Cheapest Edition. The price of each volume is 4*s.* 6*d.* net, making the edition the *cheapest of the best editions.*

Sumptuously Bound. The cloth is of the finest and is imperial red in colour. The embellishments (produced in gold) are an appropriate design of national arms and imperial emblems by the eminent designer, Talwin Morris.

Illustrations a Unique Feature. Every picture drawn specially at enormous cost for this "Imperial" edition by the best known and most celebrated Artists of *to-day.*

George Gissing's Masterly Study. A literary character study, the work of this great authority, forms one of the volumes of this issue, and is illustrated with pictures of some of the quaint old hostelries and places made famous by Dickens, and is altogether an invaluable addition to this issue.

Presentation Portrait. To every subscriber to this edition will be presented with the last volume a magnificent Photogravure of Charles Dickens. It is printed on the finest plate paper, 22 inches by 30 inches, and has been specially engraved for this edition.

A List of the Novels.

The following is a list of the volumes in the Imperial Edition:—

The Pickwick Papers.
Oliver Twist.
Nicholas Nickleby.
Martin Chuzzlewit.
The Old Curiosity Shop
Barnaby Rudge.
David Copperfield.
Bleak House.
Sketches by Boz.
Hard Times and **Master Humphrey's Clock.**
Christmas Books.
Dombey and Son.
Little Dorrit.
A Tale of Two Cities.
Great Expectations.
Charles Dickens: A Critical Study. By GEORGE GISSING.



Prospectus of any Book post free.

