THE

HISTORY OF QUEENSLAND:
ITS PEOPLE AND INDUSTRIES.

VOL. I.
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THE
HISTORY OF QUEENSLAND:
ITS PEOPLE AND INDUSTRIES
(ILLUSTRATED)

IN THREE VOLUMES

VOL. I.

AN HISTORICAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW
DESCRIPTIVE AND BIOGRAPHICAL FACTS
FIGURES AND ILLUSTRATIONS
AN EPITOME OF PROGRESS

QUEENSLAND:
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Preface.

To picture Queensland as it is, to trace its history, to describe the source of its wealth and its future great expansion, and to give a fairly comprehensive account of the men who laid the foundations, as well as those who are rearing the superstructure, represents a large and responsible undertaking. Its magnitude is not to be measured by the fact that the population of Queensland is still under three-quarters of a million, but rather by the great extent of the territory, the variety of the resources, and the remarkably successful and active way in which a comparatively handful of people have blazed the track for the millions of the future. Considered in that way, the study of the past and the present of Queensland is a fascinating chapter in Australian development and the years that are to come open up a vista of intense interest. Queensland, the largest State except Western Australia, is clearly marked out to be a great country, if not three great countries. A State which possesses an area of 429,120,000 acres, practically all of which is capable of being settled under some profitable form of pastoral, agricultural, or mining occupation, is bound to attract population and take a prominent place among the big producing countries of the world.

Practically all that holds Queensland back is the lack of people to turn its potential wealth into actual riches. Tens of millions could find prosperity and happiness where now there are but hundreds of thousands. The object of this work, which is encyclopaedic in information, is to represent Queensland and the Queensland people as they are to-day, and to stimulate a world-wide interest in them. The difficulties in the way of preparation, compilation, and printing have been formidable. Queensland, to begin with, is a country of magnificent distances. Away from the main centres of population the outposts of settlement are far apart. Where it was thought ground might be covered in weeks, months have been taken up. War, the enlistment of contributors and employees, and the shortage of paper also imposed unforeseen delays. To these causes are due the deferred publication. The first volume will, as speedily as possible, be followed by the second and the third. The work is well in hand, and we trust that the standard of completeness and accuracy which has been aimed at will be considered as fully condoning and excusing the time that has been taken up. No pains have been spared in securing the latest and most accurate data. Writers specially versed in their respective subjects have been commissioned to present the information on the various matters which have to be dealt with. There the aim has been to combine clearness, conciseness, and literary attractiveness. The support of men who are taking an active part in industrial, commercial, and producing interests also has been enlisted, and in the biographies, which form a part of the work, will be found evidence of labour and courage and ability richly rewarded. Queensland, in fact, holds out a generous hand to men of this stamp.

It is in the varied fields of primary industries that Queensland is playing the greatest part; her day of big secondary industries has yet to come. Her numerous flocks of sheep, and her great herds of cattle, spread over the vast plains and tableland pastures of the interior represent a rich and increasing source of wealth. Queensland beef and mutton and Queensland wool and Queensland butter, like good wine, need no bush. They are an asset any country would be fortunate in possessing. The sugar-growing areas of the tropical and subtropical coastal lands, the dairying, the general agriculture, and the fruit-growing of the rich temperate regions, and the mining and reserves of minerals scattered in profusion over extensive areas, attest the variety of activities open to those who have capital for investment or energy and courage to employ in life’s battles. All cannot be rich in Queensland, but none need be poor. All cannot own provinces for sheep and cattle runs, but none need be without land adequate in area to permit of successful farming. United
to healthful climatic conditions, varying from the bracing temperature of the spacious uplands to the agreeable circumstances of the southern coastal regions, and from the latter to the warmer summers of the tropical belt, are facilities for land and sea communication and for industrial development which make Queensland a wonderfully attractive country from an immigration and settlement point of view.

All this will be found set out with a wealth of detail in this volume and those which are to follow. The activities of the Government in relation to education, railways, public health, and general administration, the wide ramifications of local government, the growth of cities, towns, and townships, and the steady development of the instrumentalities of a progressive and vigorous community will be treated with reasonable fulness. In covering this wide ground, ready and able assistance has been given wherever it has been sought. To the State Government Intelligence and Tourist Bureau, to the various Government Departments and public institutions, as well as to numerous other instrumentalities, we are indebted for valuable help. Use also has been made of standard historical publications. Among these have been William Cooote’s “History of Queensland,” Pugh’s Almanac, Henry Stuart Russell’s “Genesis of Queensland,” J. J. Knight’s “In the Early Days,” and Dr. Lang’s “Cooksland” and “Queensland.” The volume now issued may be taken as typical of the second and third. These will contain articles from able pens dealing with a variety of subjects. Thus the historical section will be carried on to completion, interesting records of explorers and explorations will be drawn upon, the origin and progress of the sugar industry, the development of the pastoral industry, and many other subjects will be comprehensively treated. The personal and picturesque will be represented by a large number of biographies and well-selected and graphic illustrations. Many of the articles were written by the late Phillip Champion de Crespigny (who gave his life in the service of his country), his position as editor being taken by the late Ernest Sando Emerson, whose death occurred early in the present year.
Publisher's Note.

Should it be found that errors have crept into this volume, they will, if considered sufficiently important, be corrected in the second volume, provided that the necessary particulars be forwarded to the office of the States Publishing Company, 28, Fitzroy Buildings, Adelaide Street, Brisbane.
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The History of Queensland: its People and Industries.

No State in the Australian Commonwealth, and few countries in the world, possess the diversity of resources and of living conditions with which Queensland has been endowed. Her climate ranges from the altitudes of Stanthorpe, on her southern border, where the cold nights and fresh crisp days rival those of gurgle among overhanging shrubs and ferns and the landscape blazes with the heterogeneous splendour of mile upon mile of gleaming foliage.

Queensland is best known to people outside its borders by reason of her pastoral industry. No doubt the stock-breeding enterprise has for years been the mainstay of her prosperity. Certainly it is into this

Victoria, to the burning arid plains of her western interior, and to the sweltering humid sunshine of her rich tropical coast. Her primary industry varies from the skeleton enterprise of pastoral pursuit on wide stretches, where only grazing can be made to pay, to the intense culture of prolific rich soil under a bounteous rainfall. Her scenery is rich in many types, from glaring desert sands to tropical and forested mountains where rivers

one resource which investors have placed most of the capital attracted to the State. Mainly that was because the graziers of New South Wales and of Victoria, with money to lay out in untried fields elsewhere, happened to have made their fortunes from sheep and cattle-breeding. That was the business they understood, and consequently they desired to extend their operations along the lines which already had
proved to them so profitable. Other influences helped the rapid growth of Queensland's pastoral industry. Her plains were wide and rich and grew such prolific grass as is rarely seen. A very much larger tract of country might be obtained and worked in the northern State than could be secured and operated on the same expenditure of capital in the south. This has tempted many a squatter to the continent's north-eastern corner. A fortune appeared nearer; whilst the pastoralist, imbued with the spirit of his calling, hopes to control all the territory he can. This desire arises not from greed. Acquisitiveness may or may not operate in forming his wish. It happens to be part of the composition of the normal pastoralist to strive to manipulate industry on as big a stretch of workable country as he can secure a title of leasehold over, just as every ambitious sea captain hopes to command the biggest ship obtainable. And many a man is attracted to the frontier of settlement for the sake of the free, fresh life it has to offer, because his tastes lead him to a life of open-air and healthful physical effort, to long days in the saddle among bush where no other man is, and to that spirit which has led Briton to conquer the wilderness in so many climates and on such distant parts of the earth's surface.

Moreover, exploitation of the pastoral industry required the expenditure of less capital than did the opening up of other of Queensland's resources, such as, for instance, her mining fields. And stock-raising was a business already well tested and found profitable over most of the rest of Eastern Australia. So the north-eastern of the Australian States came at first to be regarded (and still is to some extent) by outsiders, with little knowledge of her diversified soils and climates, as a huge sheep and cattle run, somewhat homogeneous in character, and destined to carry a population but sparse when compared with that which might be supported by such States as Victoria and New South Wales.

Nothing could be farther from the truth than that the pastoral industry will remain Queensland's sole important claim to commercial recognition. Undoubtedly, stock-breeding has brought millions of pounds of capital pouring across her borders, and has laid the foundation of subsequent development and progress. Equally certain is it that of all her immense territory a large proportion is most productively used by being turned to pastoral pursuits in fairly large areas, so far as the most modern methods of industry permit us to know. But the fact that most of the sugar consumed in the Commonwealth is produced within the borders of this State, accompanied by the further truism that millions of acres of land suitable to the same industry lie virgin, because of lack of transport facilities, testify to the capabilities of the country for the production of tropical and subtropical crops, when sufficient financial inducement offers to the producer. Most tropical and subtropical crops could be grown on some one or other portion of Queensland's Pacific slopes. The State comprises an area of 429,120,000 acres, but so far only 1,060,000 acres are cultivated. It has been officially estimated by the technical officers of the Agricultural Department that included within the borders are 50,000,000 acres suited by soil and climate to profitably produce wheat. Yet of the 4,000,000 bushels of this grain consumed annually only 2,500,000 are grown locally. Millions of acres of the richest agricultural land lie ready to be cleared of the forests and jungles which draw a riotous life from the soil's fertility; whilst millions of acres more are bare from any obstruction to the pioneering plough, but as yet are too far removed from railways to render agriculture attractive.

Queensland is rich in minerals and prolific in coal, and numbers of large high-grade deposits await but the drawing nearer of the iron road to become abundantly reproductive. Timber forms an industry which until lately was exploited in only the most unscientific and wasteful manner. Horticulture struggles still in swaddling clothes. For the production of citrus fruits almost unlimited possibilities present themselves, but little more than supplying portion of Australian needs has yet been attempted. For the industry to become firm and great, scientifically-managed canning factories will have to be established, just as the Tasmanians evolved means of fruit exportation. The wide choice of climate and environment offering so pronouncedly to any person desiring to live in Queensland is typified in the horticultural industry. The intending grower may select his land and cultivate apples, peaches, and other cold-climate species on the hills of Stanthorpe, where the conditions, in essential important features, rival those of Southern Tasmania; or he may spend his days beneath a tropical coast and ship away bananas, pineapples, and other fruits grown in a torrid zone.

Queensland's crying need is for population, and yet more population. Were her present inhabitants multiplied tenfold, then many a now neglected opportunity would be seized and turned to productive account. The few of the many possible industries already attempted within her wide-flung borders have proved so successful that the slender store of human effort which the State possesses has become absorbed in developing a small fraction of its possibilities. No other State has so large an area of land lying between the Dividing Range and the sea as has Queensland. The mountains which mark the division between the waters flowing direct to the sea and those turned inwards to the saucer-like interior of the continent, in places recede more than two hundred miles from the Pacific coast, and the intervening country is bounteously
watered with heavier rains than ever reach the western plains.

The geographical character of the State has rendered the centralization of population and commerce, as it exists in Victoria and New South Wales, a physical impossibility. Northern, Central, and Southern Queensland have their ports separate from one another and independent. The Queensland Legislature, in its railway construction policy, has consistently striven to enable the producer to get his produce to the outlet which Nature has placed nearest to his point of production. The immense distances which have to be coped with have rendered such an object imperative. But decentralization has also given remoteness from one another to different divisions of the State. The were increased by 50 per cent. The storage of fodder is but rarely attempted and artificial fertilizers are seldom used. Areas held are mostly too large to encourage that concentration of effort which would follow the filling up of the State with adequate population. Mighty forests and virgin jungles clothe lands capable of supporting a teeming habitation of prosperous white people. Most of these are remote from means of ready transport, and there are insufficient people within the State to settle and develop them even were all of them linked up by railways. Queensland’s whole problem of development centralizes on the one word “Population!”

In government Queensland is the youngest of all the Australian States, her Legislature having been created as late as 1859, the date of her separation from New South Wales. The Parliament consists of a Legislative Assembly of seventy-two members elected on adult franchise, and a nominee Legislative Council. No other State Legislature has interests so wide and varied to control. Few countries of Europe are so large and none possesses resources so varied by climatic and geographical conditions as is the territory legislated for by the Parliament which meets in Brisbane. Difficulties in law-making and administration presented by immense distances and primitive means of transit have been overcome by politicians, who have found it impractical in some instances to visit their constituencies more frequently than once in three years. Obstacles have

pearl-fishers and sugar-growers of the far north, and the pastoralists of the south-west, see as little of the pursuits and lives of one another as though divided by the diameter of the whole globe. Lack of railway communication and a thousand miles of territory separate the miners of Ipswich from the drovers of the northern runs.

A great deal has been written and publicly spoken about the temptation to a foreign aggressor offered by the unoccupied and unexploited Northern Territory. Yet the resources of Queensland are still but scratched. The cereal-growers have not learned to fallow their land, a lesson gained in Victoria and New South Wales a decade and a half ago, when by its acquisition yields of grain
been conquered with the exercise of technical skill because of members so frequently having acquired a first-hand knowledge of local conditions and industries by years of residence among their electors before entering the field of politics.

Party strife has always burned warmly in the Parliament and on the hustings of Queensland. But not until 1915 did the Labour Party, led by Mr. J. T. Ryan, attain real power. Once previously a Labour Ministry, led by Mr. A. Dawson, occupied the Treasury benches for a few brief weeks, but lack of the requisite majority sent them back to the cool shades of Opposition. Since and including the session of 1915 Queensland has probably exceeded all other States in the amount of experimental legislation which she has placed upon the statute book. We are still, in point of time, at too close a quarter to those enactments to criticize their effects here; but strenuous were the battles in the two Houses of Parliament when such measures were under debate. Many of them were excused, and some undoubtedly justified, by the Great War; but party bitterness rose to white heat, and a condition of hostility not before paralleled in the history of the State, characterized the relations of the two chambers towards one another.

From the nature of the interests they must deal with, several members of the Queensland Cabinet usually find it necessary to travel for several months during each year's recess. Two or three months may be occupied by a Home Secretary, determined to obtain a first-hand knowledge of matters along the northern coast and in the territory of the Gulf of Carpentaria, in visiting those regions. Population may be scanty in such remote places, but the industries clustering round the peninsula ports form but the nucleus of bigger things to follow the first pioneering effort. And the north presents problems all its own. Though it is free from a number of the scourges which rage in other countries of similar latitude, first the State, and then the Federal Government, have succeeded in excluding or stamping out many germs of alien infection. Exploring navigators, in the early days of discovery on the north-eastern Australian coast, were in the habit of sleeping ashore close to water, where mosquitoes tormented them the whole of the hours of the attempted rest, and never was their daring followed by the yellow fever or malaria which would have been their lot had they faced a similar risk in other regions where there is an equally hot climate. The diseases peculiar to Northern Queensland, and indeed to the whole of Australia in the same latitude, are comparatively mild. Yet a station has been established in the north of Queensland for the investigation of tropical sickness. No one realizes more than does the Government that if steamboats of the future should acquire sufficient speed to be able to reach any part of Northern Australia from a port infected with some deadly and alien plague within a space of time shorter than the incubation period of that particular disease germ, then a problem of great complexity will be presented for solution by both Federal and State authorities.

The great area of Queensland has led to the Government adopting its complete decentralization system regarding the administration of the railways, deputy-commissioners being installed in power, both in the northern and central divisions. But in some other departments of governmental State functions a similar splitting up of authority is not practical, the Home department controlling sanatoriums, mental hospitals, and other institutions for the care of the afflicted at distances of many hundreds of miles from the capital. Yet the difficulties of remoteness have been overcome, and the administration certainly is now not less efficient than it is in the smaller States. Perhaps in few parts of the world have the inventions of the telephone and the motor-car wrought a greater change in and simplification of governmental functions and ordinary commercial and industrial adjustments than has been the case in Queensland, where distances have been conquered and enormous savings effected in time by the evolution of the use of electricity and petrol.

Queensland appears destined to hold a unique position in the Commonwealth because of the potentialities of her broad line of eastern coastal territory. Already this mainly virgin strip of land has provided the Commonwealth with most of the sugar required for home consumption. During the Great War it has enabled the people of Australia to obtain their sugar at a price considerably below the world’s parity, and thereby reap a direct reward for the taxation which had been borne in order, at one and the same time, to institute the White Australia policy and to protect the sugar industry from injury which otherwise would have been inflicted on it by the sudden withdrawal of black labour. As the coastal belt has been scientifically tested to ascertain its suitability for the production of various tropical products with successful results, there can be no doubt that the filling up of the State with an adequate population will exercise the effect of having these potentialities duly exploited, with the result of making the nation more self-contained than is now the case. Increased independence of the black and yellow labour-produced commodities of Asia and other parts of the world will then follow as a matter of course.

The spreading out and increasing of Queensland’s industries which must follow increased population will assuredly serve to minimize the effects of droughts, which in the past have wrought such havoc in the pastoral regions of the interior. With more people living and more industries established in the State...
the disasters of 1902 and 1915 would not be likely of repetition. Up to the present, Queensland has been peculiarly progressive in her railway policy, having more miles of track in proportion to the population than has any other country in the world. Railways have been built over unoccupied tracts for developmental purposes, and for the reason that, by affording facilities for getting stock to relief country in bad seasons, they afford one of the best safeguards against drought which the pastoralist knows. Further settlement would increase the length of tracks, and would bring transport facilities into vast regions from which, under present conditions, it is impossible to move sheep or cattle when the natural herbage disappears. The extension of agriculture, whether it is mixed farming suitable to the Darling Downs, the wheat-growing to which the Roma district is so well adapted, or the tropical culture of the coastal strip, would render available great stores of artificially-produced fodder, which in dry seasons are now unobtainable. A multiplication of Queensland's primary industries undoubtedly would increase the demand for land, must have the effect, in such a community as that inhabiting Queensland, of improving methods of production in the older as well as in the newer industries.

Queenland has more to offer to the immigrant than has any other Australian State. The width of selection is more extended. Besides the fact of her natural resources being more plentiful, she has a greater variety of land and of living conditions within her borders. Tropical agriculture on rich, mountain-skirted river flats, pastoral pursuits on vast interior stations, pearl fishing in warm seas, apple growing on southern altitudes, mining in the burning heat of the Gulf country or the pleasant climate of the south-east, city pursuits in any of the busy coastal cities, dairying and mixed farming on the volcanic tablelands—all these and many other callings present themselves to the choice of the newcomer desiring to make his home in this most-favoured corner of the great Southern continent.

THE GEOGRAPHY

The State of Queensland contains the north-eastern corner of the Continent of Australia. It lies between latitude 29° and 9° South and longitude 153½° and 138° East. The area is 429,120,000 acres, or 670,000 square miles, whilst the coastline is of more than 3,000 miles. The latter contains many deep and land-locked harbours, while the adjacent waters are liberally dotted with islands. Queensland is three times the size of France, and is greater than any country in Europe, except Russia. Both Germany and Austria-Hungary might be contained in Queensland, with a margin to spare. The State is five and a half times as extensive as Great Britain and Ireland. From north to south Queensland extends for about 1,200 miles, whilst the maritime boundary continues sixty miles further north, including a considerable number of islands. From east to west the greatest width of the State is about 1,050 miles.

The State is naturally divided into two parts. The mountain range which forms the line of demarcation between the watersheds sloping inland and those through which rivers flow direct to the sea, both in Victoria and New South Wales, continues through Queensland in a northerly direction. The Main Range is a low wall of mountains, nearly parallel with the Pacific Coast. The course of the range is somewhat irregular, but roughly it divides the State into a strip of tropical coastal country plentifully watered by a heavy rainfall, and a vast interior where the principal difficulty the settler has to contend with is aridity.

THE THREE DIVISIONS.

For purposes of convenience in legislation and administration Queensland is usually treated as consisting of three districts—Southern, Central, and Northern—the boundary lines running east and west from the coast to the boundary with the Northern Territory. A movement has existed for many years to obtain severance for the Central District and the Northern District, so as to constitute one or two new States. The consummation of Federation, with the transfer to the National Parliament of all questions affecting the whole of the Commonwealth, would seem to have given new grounds for the arguments in favour of a closer subdivision of the functions of State government. Yet of recent years the agitation appears to have almost ceased to excite attention.

In trade and commerce Queensland has, by the normal course of industrial development, clearly become divided into three distinct divisions, with Brisbane the capital of the Southern, Rockhampton the capital of the Central, and Townsville the principal centre and port of...
the Northern District. No State of the Commonwealth has so successfully escaped from the evils of excessive centralization of trade to one city as has Queensland. The cities mentioned form the real outlets of the enormous tract of country each has behind it. To no small extent this has resulted from the wise policy of railway construction adopted. No effort has been made to choose routes with the object of artificially drawing trade from the Central Division to Brisbane, or from the far north to some southern outlet. The lines radiate out into the back country from Brisbane, Rockhampton, and Townsville, according to the natural possibilities and the needs of industrial development.

According to "The Real Property Act of 1887," the following is a detailed description of the boundaries of Central Queensland:—"The southern boundary commences on the east coast at the mouth of the Kolan River, and is bounded thence on the south by the northern watershed of that river westerly to Dawes Range; thence by that range and the range forming the northern and western watersheds of the Rawbelle River and its tributaries westerly and southerly to their junction with the southern watershed of Ross and Cracow Creeks; by that watershed westerly to the Dawson River; by that river downwards to Bigge Range; by that range westerly to Carnarvon Range; by that range westerly to the Great Dividing Range; by that range westerly to the Warrego Range; by that range westerly to the Cheviot Range; by that range north-westerly and westerly to the confluence of the Thomson and Baroco Rivers; thence by a line due west to the western boundary of the State south of the twenty-fifth parallel of latitude. The western boundary extends in a direct line northwards from south of the twenty-fifth parallel of latitude to the twenty-first parallel of latitude. The northern boundary commences at the last-named parallel easterly to its intersection with the Selwyn Range; thence by that range, Kirby Range, and the range forming the southern watershed of the Flinders River and its tributaries in a general easterly direction again to the twenty-first parallel of latitude; thence by that parallel easterly to the Great Dividing Range; by that range southerly to its junction with the southern watershed of the Cape River; by that watershed easterly to the confluence of the Belyando and Suttor Rivers; thence by the Suttor River upwards to its head in the Leichhardt Range; thence by that range and the northern watershed of Funnel Creek and its tributaries easterly and southerly to a spur forming the watershed separating the waters of Marion and Rockydam Creeks; thence by that watershed north-easterly to Cape Palmerston on the east coast of the State; thence by a line eastward to the eastern boundary of the State; thence on the east by the last-named boundary southerly to Sandy Cape, and again on the south by a line westerly to the point of commencement, inclusive of all islands adjacent thereto south of the latitude of Cape Palmerston and north of the latitude of Sandy Cape."

From this definition the boundaries of the Southern and Northern Districts respectively may be inferred.

RIVERS.

The rivers flowing into the Pacific take their rise in the Main Range, and their course to the sea is necessarily short. However the rainfall in the area they drain is heavy, and the streams in many instances have collected large bodies of water before emptying themselves into the ocean. Some are navigable for considerable distances inland, a notable example being the Brisbane River, which, though only draining an area of 5,300 square miles and being but 210 miles in length, contains sufficient water for vessels of 10,000 tons fourteen miles from its mouth, and is navigable for twenty-five miles further by small craft. The Brisbane, Logan, and Pine Rivers empty into Moreton Bay, the Caboolture River into Deception Bay, the Mary and Burrum Rivers into Wide Bay, and the Burnett, Kolan, and Elliott Rivers into Hervey Bay.

The eastern side of the Central District is particularly well served with rivers. The most important of these is the Fitzroy, on the banks of which Rockhampton stands. This stream, with its tributaries, drains an area of 55,603 square miles, whilst its length from Keppel Bay to its source is 520 miles. Rockhampton is forty miles from the mouth, and large vessels are able to navigate the whole of the course, whilst ships of small draught proceed thirty miles higher up. Other navigable rivers in the Central District include the St. Lawrence, Byne, Calliope, and Kolan, and Baffle Creek. The Styrx River is also negotiable to ships, but is subject to an abnormal rise and fall of tide. The Isaac River, after a course of 152 miles, joins the Fitzroy. The Dawson River also joins that stream after flowing for 312 miles through country enclosed partially by the Expedition Range on the west, the Auburn and Leichhardt Ranges on the east, and the Great Divide on the south. The Mackenzie is another large river flowing into the Fitzroy. The Dee River rises in the Razorback and Gelobera Ranges and flows into the Don, which junctions with Granville Creek, the two then emptying into the Dawson River.

The most important river of Northern Queensland is the Burdekin, draining a watershed of 53,329 square miles and discharging into Upstart Bay. Other rivers flowing into the sea on the north-eastern coast are the Ross, Herbert, Tully, Moreby, Johnstone, Russell, Mulgrave, Mossman, Daintree, Bloomfield, Annan, and Endeavour.

Streams of considerable magnitude flow into the Gulf of Carpentaria. The larger of these are the Jardine,
Rivers taking their rise on the western side of the Main Range flow for great distances inland. The system of the Southern District contains streams that, turning south, flow into the Darling, which, after traversing the whole distance of Western New South Wales from north to south, joins the Murray, and after passing for hundreds of miles along the Victorian border enters South Australia, and finally reaches the sea on the southern coast of the continent. Thus the Macintyre system which has made possible pastoral industry over such wide areas where profitable settlement would otherwise be impracticable. In the far west of the Southern District are the Paroo, Bulloo, and Wilson Rivers, and Cooper Creek.

The most important streams in the west of the Central Division are the Thomson, the Alice, the Diamantina, the Darr, the Belyando, and the Georgina. The Thomson River, after flowing for 240 miles, joins the Barcoo, and both eventually become part of Cooper Creek, which ultimately loses itself in the saucer-like depression of South Australia.

The reader who has never visited the interior of Australia is apt to form a quite erroneous impression of the nature of these streams by the term "rivers" being applied to them. Often they are mere chains of waterholes. Frequently they quite dry up, except for reaches where the course has cut an unusually deep excavation and contains a body of water sufficiently large to withstand the heavy drain evaporation makes in the dry atmosphere and fierce sun of the continent's arid heat. Billabongs also form natural reservoirs which have saved the life of many a traveller, as well as proving to be
worth fortunes to stock-owners. Billabongs are old river beds. The streams flow not regularly and continually, always bearing something about the same quantity of water, but spasmodically, and periodically in heavy flood. Seldom is the course cut deep in the land, and the old beds are continually being filled at places with sand, so that the route of the streams frequently changes. The holes in the old beds become filled in flood times, and the water thus imprisoned remains for years afterwards.

Sometimes the river marked on the map as though it were a wide and noble stream presents no greater value to the thirsty bushman than in indicating to him where he may obtain drink if he dig for it. Though water may have disappeared from the surface of the ground, it is nearly always to be found under a few feet of baked mud. In times of heavy rains these freak rivers of the west are converted into mighty inland seas. The water is perhaps of no great depth, but it may extend as far as the eye can reach, the real bed of the stream being stamped only by the rows of trees growing along its banks, which thrust their bulk above the current. In the far west the so-called rivers are little more than ducts for carrying off the occasional flood waters of heavy rains. The streams bear less water as they flow from their source, many of them starting promisingly from well-watered territory, but steadily deteriorating into the chain of water-holes which is so typical of the far interior.

LAKES.

No part of Australia is rich in lakes. Many of those that are marked on the maps as such are in reality little better than large swamps, which frequently dry up entirely. However, Central Queensland boasts of two inland bodies of water. The largest of these is Lake Galilee, or Jochmus, fifty-six miles to the north of Aramac. This stretch of water is eighty square miles in area, the greatest length being nineteen miles, the greatest breadth ten miles, and the average depth six feet. At one end the water is fresh, whilst at the other it is brackish. Lake Buchanan is near the border of the Northern District, and about sixty miles to the north of Lake Galilee. It is fifty square miles in area, and the water is salt. Near the South Australian border are several large salt lakes, though their actual area of water fluctuates greatly with the series of seasons experienced. Their names are Philippu, Koolivoo, and Machattie.

MOUNTAINS.

Mount Bartle Frere, near Cooktown, in Northern Queensland, is the highest peak in the State, the summit rising to 5,438 ft. above sea-level. Mount Roberts, in the Central District, is 4,350 ft. high; and Mount Barney, which forms part of the Macpherson Range, in Southern Queensland, is 4,300 ft. above sea-level.

The mountain system of most importance in Queensland is the northern extremity of the Great Divide, which, after forming a line parallel to the coast through Victoria and New South Wales, crosses into Queensland at Wallangarra, and traverses the whole State, to which it forms a kind of backbone. The Dividing Range, from a climatic and therefore industrial standpoint, makes what is probably the most important geographical feature in the eastern portion of the continent. At places the mountains shrink to quite small and ordinary looking hills, but so far as dividing the eastern and western watersheds is concerned the range is unbroken. At many spots it is wild and rugged, and gives rise to numerous spurs penetrating for considerable distances into the surrounding country.

Unfortunately, the Main Range is sufficiently high to greatly influence the rainfall from the east. The strip between the hills and the coast is well watered, because the moisture-laden clouds from the ocean are continually bringing refreshing downpours, which give birth to the masses of tropical vegetation to be met with frequently in that region. But the altitude which the clouds must reach before they cross the range into the interior serves to extract the rain, and so the ridge of high land running down the whole length of Queensland stamps the boundary between two totally dissimilar kinds of climate—different in the humidity of the atmosphere, in temperature, and in rainfall.

The Main Range extends from Wallangarra to Maryland, from where the Harris Range branches off and runs to the north-east. The Main, or Great Dividing, Range, then stretches to the north-east for about forty miles, where it again divides, one portion, under the name of the Macpherson Range, running to the coast and terminating at Point Danger. For something over one hundred miles the latter range forms the boundary between Queensland and New South Wales. From its junction with the Macpherson Range, the Main Range runs in a westerly and north-westerly direction to a point about thirty-five miles distant, where it again divides. The Bunya Mountains at Dalby are part of the system, their highest point being Mount Mowbullan (3,605 ft.) and Mount Haly (3,130 ft.). Running parallel with the coast to near Ipswich is the Little Liverpool Range. Forming the watershed of the Brisbane River are the D'Aguilar, the Yabba, and the Cooyar Ranges, together with the Main Range. Further north is the famous Blackall Range, rich in natural resources of timber and containing what is perhaps the richest soil in Queensland.

In the Central District, and near the coast, are the Normanby, Funnel, Broadsound, Connor, Boomer, Gogango, Rannes, and Cooper Ranges. To the northwest lies the Denham Range, whilst on the southern boundary of Central Queensland are the Burnett, Dawes, Bigge, Carnarvon, Warrego, and Cheviot
Ranges. The Peak Mountains lie inland, and the Expedition and Dawson Ranges are also removed from the coast. West of these are the Zamia and Drummond Ranges. Through the Central District the Great Divide is further from the coast than in any other part of the State, in places being separated by a journey of a couple of hundred miles from the sea.

A considerable area of Central Queensland is mountainous in character, whilst in other localities numerous isolated peaks are dotted about. These elevations are of basalt, slate, granite, trachyte, limestone, or sandstone. Those around Rockhampton, St. Lawrence, Gladstone, Peak Downs, and the Springsure district are of unique formation, and are imposing in appearance. The range at Springsure is notable for its rugged outlines and quaint formation.

There are several tablelands of great size in Central Queensland, being of considerable elevation and remarkable for their wealth of natural timbers, their scenery, and luxuriant vegetation, whilst the climate is so favourable that the death-rate of the division of the State in which they lie is the lowest in the Commonwealth. The Alice Tableland lies to the north-west of Jericho, the Buckland Tableland (2,000 ft.) and the Consuelo Tablelands are situated in the Springure district, Hope Tableland is east of Tambo, Blackdown Tableland (2,700 ft.) is south from Dingo, and the Broadsound Tableland (from 2,000 to 3,000 ft.) is in the St. Lawrence district.

The following are the heights of the loftiest points in the various mountains and ranges of Central Queensland:—Broadsound Range, about 3,000 ft.; Denham Range, about 3,000 ft.; Peak Mountains, about 2,000 ft.; Drummond Range, about 3,000 ft.; Expedition Range, about 3,000 ft.; Mount Archer, 1,812 ft.; Borserker Mountains, 1,480 ft.; Mount Larcom, 2,048 ft.; High Double Mount, 2,545 ft.; Castle Tower, 2,048 ft.; and Long Hill, 2,332 ft.

In the Northern District the Great Dividing Range approaches closer to the Pacific Coast. The mountains continue in a northerly direction for the full length of the Cape York Peninsula. The range is bold and rugged, containing many peaks of considerable altitude. All the way from Townsville to the extremity of the peninsula but a narrow strip of land lies between the broken sides of the hills and the sea, all the rivers of any magnitude, such as the Gilbert, the Mitchell, and the Archer flowing west into the Gulf of Carpentaria.

THE COASTLINE.

The coast of Queensland contains many beautiful harbours, which, together with the navigable rivers, provide liberal accommodation for shipping. For long distances at a stretch the coastal waters are dotted with islands of varying size, and these, too, provide safe anchorage for vessels during the violent hurricanes to which the region is subject at certain periods of the year. But the most remarkable feature of the Queensland coast is the Great Barrier Reef, which for more than one thousand miles runs parallel to the eastern side of the continent. The reef is a coral formation, and a wide, safe passage for the largest ships lies between it and the land. In places, however, this inside passage is bisected with minor reefs, and though the whole area has been completely surveyed by the Admiralty steamers have met destruction by losing their bearings through the effects of storms combined with currents, and so striking one of these obstructions.

On the eastern coast the following ports have been established:—Brisbane (the capital), Maryborough, Bundaberg, Gladstone, Rockhampton, St. Lawrence, Mackay, Bowen, Townsville, Lucinda, Mourilyan, Innisfail, Cairns, Port Douglas, Cooktown, and, at the extreme north, Thursday Island. The principal points of interest along the coast inside the Great Barrier Reef are:—Baffle Creek Port, Round Hill Head, Lady Elliott Island, the Bunker Group of Islands, Bustard Head, Port Curtis, Facing Island, Gatcombe Head, Curtis Island, The Narrows (between Port Curtis and Broadmount Harbour, with Curtis Island on the east side), Cape Capricorn, the Capricorn Group of Islands, Port Alma, Sea Hill, Broadmount Harbour, Emu Park, Wreck Island, Keppel Islands, Yeppoon, Water Park Point, Townshend Island, Cape Townshend, Shoalwater Bay, Percy Islands, Pine Islet, Broadsound Harbour, Northumberland Isles, and Cape Palmerston.

In the Gulf of Carpentaria, Normanton and Burketown are established ports. Other natural harbours lend themselves to providing for shipping requirements at such times as the increase of settlement creates the demand. In the matter of harbours Queensland possesses great advantages. Bowen and Gladstone Harbours compare favourably even with Port Jackson; whilst almost every fertile district possesses some natural coastal outlet for its present and future production.

POPULATION.

The estimated population of Queensland in 1917 was 669,467, exclusive of aborigines, or less than one person to every square mile of territory. The population within ten miles of Brisbane General Post Office was 188,393, the proportion thus showing a lesser degree of centralization than exists in any other of the mainland Australian States. The people, however, are mostly concentrated in the Southern District, which contains more than half a million persons.

Queensland possesses one of the most healthy climates in the world, as shown by the following table of death-rate per 1,000 inhabitants in various countries.
The birth-rate per 1,000 inhabitants in 1913 for the various portions of Australasia was:

Queensland ... ... ... ... ... ... 30'26
New South Wales ... ... ... ... ... ... 28'83
Victoria ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 25'82
South Australia ... ... ... ... ... ... 29'12
Western Australia ... ... ... ... ... ... 29'40
Tasmania ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 30'03
New Zealand ... ... ... ... ... ... ... 26'14

Allowance should be made in estimating the value of these statistics for the tendency of people in their early prime to emigrate to Queensland, both from the other Australian States and from overseas. This has undoubtedly proved a factor in lowering the death-rate and increasing the birth-rate. Yet the figures quoted may be taken as disproving a common belief of the northern portions of the Commonwealth being injurious to health and tending to shorten life.

THE SCENERY OF QUEENSLAND.

Queensland is remarkable for the wide variety of its scenery. Few parts of the world present contrasts so sharp in physical features or in vegetation. The beauty of mighty forests along the coastal fringe, and the grandeur of rugged mountain ranges running up the eastern side of the State, give place, in the vast and open interior, to immense tracts of seemingly limitless plains and to enormous areas of open-timber country, relieved only by low ridges, which succeed one another in unchanging monotony for hundreds of miles. Wide, deep streams reach the Pacific Coast by passages cut through high hills and across densely timbered flats, where huge trees and dense undergrowth form an almost impenetrable barricade, except where the conquering axe and plough of the pioneer have established sugar farms or some other forms of primary industry. But away to the west, save in short periods of heavy rains, the river courses are but long series of water-holes or straggling scars on the face of plains, showing where water once ran, but from where it has mostly evaporated.

The scenery about Brisbane hardly resembles that surrounding any other Australian capital. The city has been built on the banks of a wide and commanding stream, which twists sharply through an orderless profusion of timbered hills. The metropolis is environed in native trees. While Melbourne and Adelaide have been built mainly upon plains, and Sydney in a stunted kind of scrub, the site for Brisbane has been hewed among large open forest, much of which is still standing, even in the suburbs. All around Brisbane are wooded ranges stretching as far back as the eye can reach to the west, the south, and the north, whilst in the far inland background the blue outlines of the Dividing Range mark the boundary between the eastern and western watersheds, and show the limits of the coastal climate.

Mount Coot-tha lies within five miles of the General Post Office, and Mount Gravatt about a mile further in another direction. Though endowed with somewhat pretentious names, these are no more than hills, the former being 743 ft. above sea-level and the latter 671 ft. However, the summit of either is considerably higher than most of the surrounding country for many miles around, and a panoramic view of the whole metropolitan area and a large section of the south-eastern corner of the State stretches away as far as the eye can reach. From Mount Coot-tha one of the most striking features of the view lies in the dark-green which everywhere clothes the earth, from the distant sand-rimmed edge of Moreton Bay to the dim blue of the far-distant western mountains. From horizon to horizon the scene is filled with tree-clothed ranges, except where the brighter emerald of river-flats gleams through the darker shades and forms a picturesque setting to the glistening waters of the tortuous Brisbane River. The wealth of vegetation everywhere yields unmistakable evidence of a plentiful rainfall.

To the far south-east, the aid of a telescope will reveal Tweed Heads, where a township nestsles alongside the edge of the sea. Due south lies the Macpherson Range, the dividing line between Queensland and New South Wales. Towering over this line of hills, with its outline dimmed by the distance intervening, the peak of Mount Warning meets the sky. This, however, is not the highest elevation within view, though it is 3,850 ft. above the level of the sea. A little further to the west the horizon is bordered by Mount Goolman, Flinders Peak (2,240 ft.), Mount Baney (4,300 ft.), and Mount Lindsay (4,071 ft.). Still more to the west
lies the Main Range, including Mount Huntley (4,153 ft.) and Mount Cordeaux (4,100 ft.); whilst Cunningham Gap, of historic interest and romance from the days of early exploration, shows against the sky-line like a chip carefully chiselled from the mountain chain by some giant hand desiring to open a way to the vast and fertile Darling Downs beyond.

**BEAUTIES OF THE EAST COAST.**

The best known and most favoured of Queensland's scenic attractions lie along the eastern coast from Brisbane to Cairns. This is the regular course of some of the largest Australian coastal steamers, and the voyage forms perhaps the most pleasurable winter excursion available in Australian waters. In places the coast is wildly beautiful, whilst every now and again the course of ships lies through clusters of fairy-like islands dotted about the face of the blue Pacific Ocean like gems of emerald. During the calm weather usually prevailing the scenery in these land-locked passage-ways is fairy-like and inexhaustible in its changing interest. But unfortunately the weather is as variable as the scenery, and though the route for the whole distance lies within the Great Barrier Reef of coral which runs parallel to the coast for more than a thousand miles, at certain seasons of the year hurricanes of death-dealing violence sweep the face of the waters. Large and well-equipped steamers have been lost in these regions, the only traces of them ever to be discovered consisting of small fragments of wave-tossed wreckage ultimately washed ashore.

The isle-studded waters of the Queensland coast contain no more beautiful spot than Whitsunday Passage, extending from Gloucester Head in the north to Cape Conway in the south, and dotted with islands of unique and quaint formation. The place is approximately half-way between the northern and southern extremities of the State, and the entrancing scenery it presents is typical of what from time to time is met with almost the whole of the way from Moreton Bay to Cape York Peninsula. The passage is formed by more than forty islands, clothed with a wild profusion of tropical foliage of different shades and hues, and varying in area from one to forty-three square miles. The islands themselves, together with the Great Barrier Reef, afford a perfect shelter from the wildest of the storms which sometimes rage to the eastward, so that the deep blue waters of the many straits bear a perpetual calm.

The islands of the Whitsunday Group are everywhere broken in outline, with wide, deep inlets running in places for as much as three miles into their interior, and with rugged mountains rising abruptly from the water-line to an altitude of considerably over 1,000 ft. Many of these havens of refuge possess great depths of water, and a whole fleet might easily lie hidden about the bays without discovery by passing ships. On the inner side of Whitsunday Island lies Cid Harbour, perhaps the most beautiful mixture of tropical land scenery and peaceful blue sea to be found anywhere in the world. The feature of this part of the coast cannot be passed over without reference being made to the panorama to be seen from Mount Oldfield, on Lindeman Island. A whole cluster of isles opens out to view from this point of vantage, the majestic beauty and infinite variety of the picture holding the spectator fairly spellbound with admiration at.

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. . .  sea-girt isles
That, like to rich and various gems, inlay
The unadorned bosom of the deep.
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Not less interesting than by sea is the scenery viewed during the overland trip along the North Coast. The journey as far as Rockhampton, a distance of 396 miles from Brisbane, may be made by rail, which nearly all the way passes through a profuse wealth of tropical vegetation, interspersed with sugar plantations, and frequently presenting interesting and beautiful glimpses of mountains. Much of the country passed through is broken, whilst everywhere that the hand of the axeman has not been busy, towering timber clothes hillside and river-flat alike. Indeed, the vegetation is the first feature to attract the attention of the traveller. Dense masses of undergrowth struggle interminably for daylight about the trunks of towering giants of the forest, which fling their leafy heads for hundreds of feet into the air above. Every now and again the route to the northward is intercepted by some substantial stream flowing broad and deep, with a body of water which tells of regular and heavy rainfall about the surrounding hills. The creeks here are not what would be so termed in the arid west; they are substantial rivers, which would transform the whole industrial possibilities of the interior if lying on the western instead of on the eastern side of the mountain ridge which marks the boundary between the two classes of country and climate.

All along the North Coast the country is varied and interesting. The streams flow at times through wide flats of rich alluvial soil, brought down from the hills by their own flood waters; whilst elsewhere they tumble furiously along rocky gorges cut deep between the frowning sides of the range. In places the hillsides are little more than barren rock, but elsewhere the wealth and variety of the foliage displays the existence of quite another class of soil. In the latter localities a rich mould has been made by centuries of decaying vegetation accumulating layer upon layer.

The coastline is bold and rocky, and in places grandly beautiful. A notable beauty spot between Brisbane and Rockhampton, which is not more popular only because its physical features are so little known, is Noosa, where the river of that name enters the sea by
way of a coast on which the waves have cut all kinds of caves and quaint shapes in the solid barricade of rock that in places forms towering cliffs. A piece of scenery typical of the coast has been named Hell's Gates, at Noosa. With a strong north-east or south-east wind, and an incoming tide, Hell's Gates present a medley of furiously fighting elements and thunders of noise as the huge billows of the mighty Pacific surf dash their stupendous bulk at the unyielding walls of stone. The waves of the ocean, entering by a narrow passage, dash violently like captured live things within the chamber of frowning cliffs, and finally, with something between a sullen roar and an agonized gasp of pain they retire, after each onslaught, to gather force for another mad

charge. The Devil's Kitchen and the Boiling Pot are other points of interest where the friction of the sea, wearing through centuries, has worked peculiar effects in the rocks of the coast.

Back from the shore the explorer after scenic novelty quickly plunges into the depths of the forest. With the roar of the restless waves still thundering in his ears, he may find spots sheltered from every passing breeze, where the scent from the tropical flowers and leaves is almost overpowering in its intense sweetness, and where a mixture of countless shrubs with giant ferns, beneath a canopy of gum leaves, confines his path to the dry bed of some mountain torrent or to a track hewed through the forest by settlers.

So far as the paths of the tourists go, the famous Barron Falls, on the Cairns Range, to the far north, border on the edge of the unknown. The Chillagoe Caves, the Royal Arch, and the Organ and Snow Caves have frequently been visited by sightseers; but among the towering limestone cliffs between Chillagoe and Mungana, which rear their fantastic peaks in all kinds of quaint shapes, there are no doubt scores of unknown caves awaiting the explorer prepared to systematically investigate the weird and unknown wonders concealed beneath their rugged exteriors. This part of Queensland promises a rich reward for the searcher for mineral wealth or virgin beauty.

Barron Falls form a feature quite unique in

Australian scenery, except for one spot in Tasmania. In one wild plunge the water drops a sheer thousand feet. The Barron River, immediately above, saunters for some distance along a relatively level bed and flows gently through a little lake. For half a mile or so below the latter the waters gurgle and rush through mountain boulders which litter its course. But while you stand gazing at this peaceful scene there drums on your ears a ceaseless roar like nothing you ever heard in your life before, unless perchance you have visited some of the world's show places in the other hemisphere. You explore somewhat further along the track of the waters, which gather speed and force and sound at every step you take; but above all other sounds rises that
deafening din, and shortly you see the river turning to foam and disappearing over the sheer side of a precipice, leaping into the air, and, by a series of plunges, striking ledge after ledge of rock, and bounding off again into space, until finally it drops through a cloud of spray into a whirling pool of whiteness below. Examination of the gorge reveals never-ending beauties and perpetual interest to the Nature-lover. Not the least among the latter are the traces of the passage of mighty glaciers, suggesting visions of prehistoric times when huge rivers of ice cut channels for themselves through barriers of rock.

THE DARLING DOWNS.

The Darling Downs district presents a type of scenery peculiar to itself, being unlike either the well-watered tropical coast lands or the arid inland interior. Literally, this is the garden of Queensland, being situated upon the southern plateau, attaining to as much as 3,000 ft. above sea-level, and varying in physical features from rugged mountain ranges to wide-spreading, open grass lands, in parts of which pleasant farms stretch as far as the eye can roam. Toowoomba, which is the largest town on the Darling Downs, though only some 101 miles from Brisbane, is elevated 2,000 ft. above sea-level, being situated on the Main Range, which, running north and south parallel to the coast, divides the watersheds of the streams cutting so deep into the Pacific from those flowing inland. A magnificent view of the mountains is obtained from Picnic Point, close to Toowoomba. Here peak after peak may be seen, with open downs stretching away in the distance and all the country round as far as the eye can reach bearing eloquent testimony of rich soil and abundant rainfall. The panorama holds infinite interest to the naturalist, who may discern a rough outline of the geological history of the immense expanses spreading out at his feet, where earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, and the fierce torrential rush of diverted inland seas have all played their part in forming the landscape and giving character to the soil.

Anything approaching a lengthy journey over the Darling Downs reveals scenes of never-ending fertility. After a sufficiency of rain, the chocolate-and-black soil gives life to a prolific wealth of herbage, rarely excelled in any other part of the Commonwealth. Spreading flats are seen to hold stores of riches yet but little exploited, whilst wide plains and great expanses of open timber land manifest a potentiality not fully realized even by the Queenslanders themselves. There are signs of the many geological changes through which the wonderful plateau has passed since first it emerged from the level of the sea. The coal beds which have been discovered here and there show that great ferns and mighty forests of giant trees of species now long extinct have once grown upon its surface; whilst there is abundant evidence to prove that at a later date the landscape was covered by the waters either of a sea or partially by groups of lakes. Here is a cluster of flourishing farms on what in a bygone age was a great marsh, clothed in a coarse, reedy vegetation, through which wandered huge monsters, of which but a few fossilized bones remain. Debris of mammoth skeletons and fragments of shells as old as the hills themselves have been dug up from the river beds in the country over which you travel. The pleasant Downs, stretching before your view, were formed by the same process as led to the burying and preservation of relics of the flora and fauna of prehistoric times. The lake beds and marshes have been gradually filled by earth and decaying vegetation held in suspension and then dropped by the waters of long eras ago, whilst by an equally gradual process the channels of the streams cut so deep into the plateau as to completely and thoroughly drain the land, thus leaving an intensely fertile soil of from four to sixty feet in depth.

Farming land, ranking with the most fertile and picturesque in the whole Commonwealth, lies along the eastern side of the Darling Downs, where the plateau first slopes off from the crest of the Main Range. Here pleasant homesteads nestle in the brightest of emerald paddocks, sheltered on each side by towering hills where the dark-green of adjacent timber shades imperceptibly into the blue of the more distant mountain tops. Crystal streams ripple peacefully through borders of ferns and shrubs, and a wealth of bright-plumed birds makes the sunlight merry with their ceaseless noise. In shaded nooks the pure air is sharp and invigorating. The ranges stand out bold and picturesque against the cloudless sky, and mighty boulders show their rugged masses through the dense tangles of trees and clinging undergrowth.

The Stanthorpe district is typical of this portion of the Darling Downs. Lying near the border of New South Wales and close to the Main Range this part of the plateau attains an altitude of 3,000 ft., whilst immediately adjacent hilltops reach to over 4,000 ft. To gaze down on the township of Stanthorpe from some point of vantage near by is to bring to mind all the characteristics of some Victorian or Tasmanian scene. The surrounding land is divided and subdivided into carefully cultivated orchards, where the temperate nature of the climate enables apples, pears, and other Old World fruits to be grown to perfection. Approximately 5,000 acres are under horticulture, and the landscape is studded with English trees. The altitude gives a climate which attracts seekers after health for hundreds of miles around. The neighbouring district is full of interesting features.

Close to the town—indeed, forming part of it—rise hills of which the outlines draw the interest of the visitor...
HISTORY OF QUEENSLAND: ITS PEOPLE AND INDUSTRIES.

like a magnet. Near at hand are huge walls of granite, turreted and shaped, as though the work of some ancient race of giants. Mighty fissures here and there cut through the masses of stone, where the action of water through countless ages has maintained the relentless change which Nature works in the triumphs of her own past. The Bald Mountain is a gigantic mass of solid and naked rock, dotted only here and there with a few dwarfed shrubs, where little crevices in the rock have permitted meagre collections of earth. Another peculiar formation of the granite is the Sentimental Rocks, about four miles from the town.

About twenty-five miles from Stanthorpe the district holds scenery which is weirdly grand. The Severn tumbles down a course with features resembling those of a miniature Sierra Nevada. In rapid rushes the stream pours over a rough cañon-bottom, through huge boulders which have tumbled from the mountains on either side, whilst here and there the river pauses in its mad career, and deep, cool pools make a pleasant contrast to the noisy voice of the waters above and below.

Out to the west the varied and rugged picturesque-ness of broken country gives place to gradually widening plains, which stretch away to the interior as far as the traveller can see and for hundreds of miles beyond. Here are vast expanses of waving vegetation, varied only by the darker green of rippling crops, and dotted by the dwellings of pioneering agriculturists. The station homesteads in this area in many instances are places of beauty, being surrounded with mature plantations of varied sheltering trees of different shades, mingling their foliage in a heterogeneous tangle of colour. The farm houses passed by the way are in several stages of improve-ment, some of them dotting the plains like so many inverted boxes, unadorned by artificial vegetation and the prey to every gale which sweeps the open spaces, but others showing the beginnings of a cheerful and restful environment, young plantations pushing their heads above the tops of the enclosing fence posts and girdling carefully tended flower-beds within.

THE INTERIOR OF THE STATE.

An impression of overwhelming immensity at first interests and then depresses the newcomer to the mighty expanses of Queensland's empty interior. Only a limited class of people possesses anything like a comprehensive conception of the rolling plains, the stretches of timbered land, the interminable ridges, the endless succession of dry watercourses, and the gradually intensifying aridity which mark the stages of progress to the far west. The overlanders, who travel not dozens but hundreds and even thousands of miles across the face of the continent's silent places, are soaked in what may be described best as the soul of the bush. You do not learn to know it by skimming over the face of the country in train or motor-car, and you can become familiar with it far less by penetrating here and there by isolated routes into the heart of the back country. But the stockman who has spent week after week and month after month sitting loosely in the saddle while a great mob of store cattle graze and walk, with their heads turned always in the one direction, has become intimate with every variation in the character of the land he passes over, so that differences appearing small to the casual observer, to him denote great changes in the nature of the pastures and the probabilities of obtaining water for his stock.

The aridity of the country, however, is apparent from the outward features of the scenery. The timber is of drought-resistant descriptions; the herbage has been evolved by the struggle of the survival of the fittest to withstand the trials of long periods of scarcity of moisture. The country is not beautiful. To the stranger its monotony grows almost sickening. But the bushman has come to know the environment, and probably it proves not less attractive to him than rugged mountain ranges do to men who have been born and bred in more picturesque surroundings.

The far north is less barren of physical attractions, and possesses beauties peculiarly its own. Vegetation is thick, grass grows long and plentifully, and timber is entwined with dense masses of undergrowth, whilst great rivers flow deep and strong. Here lies the virgin wealth of Australia, a mighty territory untouched by the hand of man—empty, prolific, and inviting. The romance attaching to all fertile uninhabited places rests on this great silent land, crossed by certain routes by venturesome overlanders, but mostly unknown in its silent potentiality and hardly exploited at all, even by the most daring of pioneers.

THE CLIMATE OF QUEENSLAND.

Climate includes the peculiar state of the atmosphere in any given place in the matter of temperature, humidity, and meteorological conditions generally, in so far as they influence life. Differences of climate in various localities arise mainly from distance from the equator, altitude above sea-level, distance from the coast, and the prevailing winds. The first records of a scientific climatology were left by Ptolemy, who divided the surface of the globe from the equator to the Arctic circles into parallel zones, each of which
corresponded to the increase of a quarter of an hour in the length of a midsummer day. The foundations of scientific meteorology in Australia were laid by Sir George Kingston in South Australia in 1839. This gentleman continued observations of the rainfall until 1878.

That the climate of Queensland should be highly beneficial in its effects on the inhabitants was the expressed anticipation of observers from the time of earliest free settlement, and this view has certainly been justified by subsequent records, those extending up to the time of writing the present article showing the death-rate in this part of the Commonwealth to be lower than that of any other State, except Western Australia, and to compare favourably with the most healthful parts of the world. In 1842 Surveyor Clement Hodgkinson, in describing the coast from Sydney to Moreton Bay, wrote:—"The experience of over half a century has proved that no country in the world is more exempt from all the classes of disorders which originate in impure air and deleterious miasma than Australia." In 1879 Collins had written:—"The Sydney climate is allowed by all to be fine and salubrious." In 1846 Dr. Dorsey, of Ipswich, wrote to Dr. Lang as follows:—"We have few diseases not common at home, and are exempt from many that are common there. On our first settlement there were many cases of ague, but none proved fatal, and I have not seen a case for three years. Women and children are subject to very few diseases. In short, it is almost too healthy for doctors." About the same time Dr. Lang received a letter from Dr. Keith Ballow, who had been eight years Government Medical Officer at Moreton Bay, and who wrote:—"The district of Moreton Bay is altogether an extremely healthy one, there being very few deaths from disease of any kind. The climate in the winter season is one of the finest in the world. This district is not a profitable one for doctors." In his book, "Queensland," Dr. Lang himself subsequently wrote:—"There is the utmost difference imaginable between the rigorousness of a Canadian winter of six or seven months' duration and the Paradisiacal climate of Queensland, in which the productions of both temperate and torrid zones grow harmoniously together, and the process of vegetation goes on uninterruptedly during the whole year."

A similar story is told throughout the records of exploration and first settlement in the interior of that part of New South Wales destined to be constituted the colony of Queensland in 1859. The journals of Oxley, Mitchell, Gray, Eyre, Sturt, Gregory, Leichhardt, Burke and Wills, McKinlay, and Stuart tell of much sickness, but there is every reason to attribute it to bad diet and to a reduced general health due to that cause, and to physical exhaustion. Great sufferings also sprang from bad and insufficient water and from great heat; but there are no records of fever or other sickness attributed to an unhealthy climate. A. Meston, in his "Geographic History of Queensland," relates that the continued observations of the rainfall until the climate of Queensland should be highly in its effects on the inhabitants was the anticipation of observers from the time of earliest free settlement, and this view has certainly been justified by subsequent records, those extending up to the time of writing the present article showing the death-rate in this part of the Commonwealth to be lower than that of any other State, except Western Australia, and to compare favourably with the most healthful parts of the world. In 1842 Surveyor Clement Hodgkinson, in describing the coast from Sydney to Moreton Bay, wrote:—"The experience of over half a century has proved that no country in the world is more exempt from all the classes of disorders which originate in impure air and deleterious miasma than Australia." In 1879 Collins had written:—"The Sydney climate is allowed by all to be fine and salubrious." In 1846 Dr. Dorsey, of Ipswich, wrote to Dr. Lang as follows:—"We have few diseases not common at home, and are exempt from many that are common there. On our first settlement there were many cases of ague, but none proved fatal, and I have not seen a case for three years. Women and children are subject to very few diseases. In short, it is almost too healthy for doctors." About the same time Dr. Lang received a letter from Dr. Keith Ballow, who had been eight years Government Medical Officer at Moreton Bay, and who wrote:—"The district of Moreton Bay is altogether an extremely healthy one, there being very few deaths from disease of any kind. The climate in the winter season is one of the finest in the world. This district is not a profitable one for doctors." In his book, "Queensland," Dr. Lang himself subsequently wrote:—"There is the utmost difference imaginable between the rigorousness of a Canadian winter of six or seven months' duration and the Paradisiacal

QUEENSLAND PECULIARITIES.

From the days of first settlement the advantages of the Queensland climate have been appreciated by those living within what in 1859 became the boundaries of the colony; but Australians with no personal experience of the conditions of life in the north-eastern corner of the continent, and critics who have never visited these shores, have sometimes assumed a greater intensity of heat than exists and dangers to the health of the inhabitants which have never been felt. To no small extent this has been given colour to by interested employers of labour, who have endeavoured to bolster up a case in favour of the importation of Asiatics and other
coloured aliens for service on the canefields and at other tropical enterprises. That this view is unjustified by the facts has been established by vital statistics relating to the northern population, where life is as long and the mortality as low as in any other part of the continent.

The climate of Queensland may roughly be divided into two sections—that prevailing in the coastal regions to which the moisture-laden winds from the tropical and semi-tropical seas bear a bounteous rainfall, and the interior to the west of the “Great Divide,” where the atmosphere is free from the marked humidity of the

eastern strip and where the rainfall is much less, decreasing progressively in the desert country of the extreme west. At Geraldton, in the northern portion of the eastern coast, the average rain for twenty-one years was 145-27 inches per annum; whilst the fall along the boundary of the Northern Territory, excepting its northern end, is below 10 inches each year. A conception of the distribution of rain in Queensland, as well as in the other States, may be obtained from the map appearing on page 16. The figures in the following table, showing the total areas subject to various degrees of moisture, have been

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average annual rainfall</th>
<th>Queensland</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 10 inches</td>
<td>123,590</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 inches and under 20 inches</td>
<td>251,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 inches and under 30 inches</td>
<td>175,390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 30 inches and under 40 inches</td>
<td>67,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 40 inches</td>
<td>50,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total area</td>
<td>670,500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Queensland contains the wettest-known place in the Commonwealth. This is the district about Geraldton, where 211-24 inches have fallen in twelve months, and where the lowest fall in a year was 69-37 inches, the range thus being 141-37 inches. The heaviest fall ever recorded within 24 hours in the State was 35-71 inches at Crohamhurst, on the Blackall Range, on February 2, 1893. CLIMATE OF BRISBANE.

The climate of Brisbane, owing to the situation of the capital in the south-eastern corner of the State, is hardly typical of that of either of the main divisions of the State. In several respects the conditions normal at Brisbane are superior to those prevalent at any other
of the Australian capital cities. The sudden changes from extreme heat to sharp cold, which form so prominent a feature of the summer seasons of Adelaide and Melbourne, and, in a lesser degree, of Sydney and Hobart, are entirely absent from the southern coast of Queensland. On the other hand, each summer day in Brisbane usually brings a mild change early in the afternoon, when the heat of the forenoon is pleasantly tempered by a gentle sea breeze rarely failing to make a cool and refreshing evening. The distressing extremes of temperature with which the heat waves of the southern cities bring sleepless nights, are absent from the district about Moreton Bay between sundown and sunset. Yet whilst the semi-tropical character of the climate gives a greater evenness to the summer temperature, the higher humidity proves more trying to some constitutions than do the more marked fluctuations of the south. The winter climate of the Queensland capital ranks among the most enjoyable and health-giving in the world.

Official records, extending over a period of fifty years ending with December 31, 1914, show the average annual rainfall of Brisbane to be 48'05 inches. The wettest months are February, March, January, and December in that order. The averages given in the following table are for the fifty years period, whilst the numbers of wet days quoted for the various months refer to days on which one or more points of rain fell within the 24 hours:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>Mean Daily Rainfall</th>
<th>Mean Number of Days</th>
<th>Greatest Monthly</th>
<th>Least Monthly</th>
<th>Greatest in One Day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>6'57</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>27-72 1895</td>
<td>1-23 1889</td>
<td>18-31 21/87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February</td>
<td>7'05</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40-99 1893</td>
<td>0-77 1904</td>
<td>9-36 16/93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>6'50</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21-36 1890</td>
<td>0-68 1903</td>
<td>11-18 14/08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>3'98</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14-26 1892</td>
<td>0-96 1897</td>
<td>3-93 20/92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>3'05</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11-82 1903</td>
<td>0-47 1902</td>
<td>4-26 31/03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>2'72</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11-03 1893</td>
<td>0-23 1895</td>
<td>6-01 9/93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>2'30</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8-16 1889</td>
<td>0-04 1894</td>
<td>3-54 16/89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>2'48</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11-90 1887</td>
<td>0-24 1896</td>
<td>4-80 12/87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>2'02</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4-80 1890</td>
<td>0-10 1907</td>
<td>2-46 2/94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>2'80</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6-26 1892</td>
<td>0-14 1900</td>
<td>1-95 20/89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>3'05</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8-78 1899</td>
<td>1-07 1906</td>
<td>2-37 17/95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>4'84</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11-52 1895</td>
<td>0-55 1900</td>
<td>5-26 7/05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following comparisons of rainfalls at six capital cities are based on various terms of years, as quoted in each instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Total number of years</th>
<th>Average for all years</th>
<th>Ten years average</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brisbane</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>47-47</td>
<td>39-16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sydney</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>48-90</td>
<td>44-28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Melbourne</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>26-35</td>
<td>25-50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perth</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33-03</td>
<td>32-54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hobart</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>23-38</td>
<td>22-98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adelaide</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>20-89</td>
<td>20-53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The highest temperature to be recorded in Brisbane during a period of 27 years ending on December 31, 1914, was 108'9 on January 14, 1902. Taking the same term as a basis for calculation, January ranks as the hottest month, the mean shade temperature being 77'2 degrees, and the maximum mean temperature 85'4, the latter also ranking as the highest of any month. The coldest month is July, for which the average temperature is 58'1, and the mean minimum for which stands at 48'0. The mean humidity stands highest in May and June, for which the figure is 74, and lowest in November at 59.

**RAINFALL.**

Uncertainty and scarcity of rainfall doubtless have formed the principal obstacles in the path of pastoral and agricultural settlement in the interior of Queensland. Articles in this work dealing with the primary industries of the State give particulars of the damage which drought at times has inflicted upon the prosperity and progress of the community. The most severe periods of aridity to occur since industry was firmly established over the major part of the interior have been in 1902 and in 1915.

Up to the present, lack of capital, coupled with failure to appreciate the possibilities of modern scientific methods, has retarded the application of knowledge which latter-day investigation has rendered available in the direction of mitigating against the evil effects of both severe but temporary drought and milder but chronic aridity. The State experimental farms have been used to show that wheat-growers on the interior plains might greatly increase their yields of grain by the adoption of American methods of dry-farming; whilst it has been demonstrated by practical experience that pastoral enterprise may be greatly fortified against loss from dry years by means of improved water conservation, artesian boring, and by railway and road construction. Every indication points to industry becoming increasingly productive and progressively more stable as a source of wealth in the drier regions of the State with the passing of each year of closer settlement. The enormous areas in which single holdings have been granted to individuals and joint stock companies have prevented steps being taken to counteract the effects of climatic adversity.

Barely any headway has been made in Queensland in the matter of conserving water for purposes of irrigation, yet many parts of the State offer peculiar advantages in average rainfall, soil, and the natural conformation of the country, for the adoption of this form of enterprise. Experience in many parts of the world shows fertility commonly to co-exist with aridity, and the facts all point to profitable achievements already consummated in the valley of the River Murray by Southern Governments to be possible of successful imitation in the Northern State.
The following table gives the average annual rainfall over a period of years ending on December 31, 1914:—

**COASTAL DISTRICT.**

- Bundaberg ... ... ... ... 46.9 Mackay ... ... ... ... 67.8
- Gladstone ... ... ... ... 44.5 Townsville ... ... ... ... 51.5
- Rockhampton ... ... ... ... 41.6 Innisfail ... ... ... ... 151.4
- Thursday Island ... ... ... ... 68.5

**SUB-COASTAL DISTRICT.**

- Warwick ... ... ... ... 28.7 Emerald ... ... ... ... 26.9
- Toowoomba ... ... ... ... 38.0 Charters Towers ... ... ... ... 26.0
- Eidsvold ... ... ... ... 30.4 Georgetown ... ... ... ... 30.8
- Palmerville ... ... ... ... 45.3

**WESTERN.**

- Cunnamulla ... ... ... ... 14.0 Winton ... ... ... ... 15.4
- Charleville ... ... ... ... 50.6 Hughenden ... ... ... ... 29.0
- Blackall ... ... ... ... 22.3 Cloncurry ... ... ... ... 29.6
- Longreach ... ... ... ... 17.3 Croydon ... ... ... ... 28.4

The above figures, which have been compiled by the Queensland Government Statistician, are not based on the same period of years as previous figures, which were taken from the records of the Commonwealth Meteorological Bureau. Innisfail and Geraldton, which are situated a short distance to the north of Mourilyan Harbour, between latitudes 17° and 18° South, are shown by all records to occupy the wettest spot on the continent.

**CYCLONES AND STORMS.**

The north coast of Queensland is visited at certain regular seasons by hurricanes of great velocity. These usually occur during the first three months of the year, and appear to have their origin in the neighbourhood of the South Pacific Islands, their path being a parabolic curve of south-westerly direction. But of the total taking their rise in that locality only a small proportion reach the Australian coast, the majority recurving their path to the east of New Caledonia.

During the rainy portion of the year exceptional falls sometimes visit various portions of the State. The following list includes only instances when not less than twenty inches were officially recorded to have fallen within 24 hours:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of town or locality</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crohamhurst (Blackall Range)</td>
<td>Feb. 2, 1893</td>
<td>35.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dungeness</td>
<td>... ... ... ...</td>
<td>Mar. 16, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landeborough</td>
<td>... ... ... ...</td>
<td>Feb. 2, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mooloolah</td>
<td>... ... ... ...</td>
<td>Feb. 2, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yandina</td>
<td>... ... ... ...</td>
<td>Feb. 1, 1893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yeppoon</td>
<td>... ... ... ...</td>
<td>Jan. 31, 1893</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 1892 Brisbane was isolated for nearly a fortnight and a considerable portion of the city and its environs submerged by a flood on the Brisbane River. Since then the river has been straightened and deepened, and a repetition of that experience is regarded now as outside the range of possibility.

**VITAL STATISTICS.**

While the death-rate prevailing in any country is directly and profoundly influenced by the general degree of education and the living standard of the community, favourable vital statistics cannot co-exist with adverse climatic conditions. A beneficial physical environment, as well as exceptional social and economic advantages, has contributed to making Australians and New Zealanders the longest living and most healthy people in the world. For having a low death-rate, Queensland stands so high among Australian States as to refute any suggestion of the tropical and semi-tropical nature of the conditions prevailing in the north-eastern portion of the continent proving unfavourable to the health of Europeans.

A comparison of the infant mortality of the six Australian States shows that, in proportion to aggregate of population, fewest children under one year of age die in Queensland.

The following table gives the general death-rate of various States and countries:—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Crude death-rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Western Australia</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUEENSLAND</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Australia</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonwealth</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New South Wales</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasmania</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada (Ontario)</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England and Wales</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prussia</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German Empire</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servia</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roumania</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia (European)</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>1912</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE GEOLOGY OF QUEENSLAND.

Contributed by H. I. Jensen, D.Sc.

HISTORICAL.

The earliest work on the Geology of Queensland was carried out by men who bear an illustrious name in the field of Science, amongst whom the Rev. W. B. Clarke and Messrs. Samuel Stutchbury and Richard Daintree are prominent. To these three famous pioneers in the field of Australian geology Messrs. Jack and Etheridge dedicated their well-known work on the geology of Queensland.

Prior to the separation of Queensland from New South Wales the Rev. William Branwhite Clarke, F.R.S., was engaged by the Government of New South Wales to examine the Moreton Bay and Darling Downs districts, which now form part of the State of Queensland. He made extensive observations on the extinct fauna of the Condamine, the trappean rocks of the Darling Downs, and the auriferous drifts and crystalline schists of various localities.

Mr. Samuel Stutchbury, F.G.S., a distinguished scientist, was appointed Geologist of New South Wales in 1850, and was employed mainly in those parts which now belong to Queensland. Mr. Stutchbury remained in the colony till 1855, when his failing health compelled him to return to England. His quarterly reports to the Legislative Assembly of New South Wales are full of interest. He described the basaltic formations of the Darling Downs, the Ipswich coal measures, the Glasshouse Mountains, etc., and his last reports deal with the Gladstone, Colinton, and Fitzroy districts.

After this no work of importance seems to have been done until 1868, when Mr. D'Oylye H. Aplin and Mr. Richard Daintree, C.M.G., were appointed Government geologists. Mr. Daintree had already rendered magnificent service in the Victorian geological survey. Mr. Aplin left the Queensland service in 1869, after making reports on the Gympie mineral field, the D'Aguilar Range, Neuram, Delaney Creek, the Stanley River country, Jimnah, Talgai, and the auriferous country of the Upper Condamine. Mr. Daintree was meanwhile employed in the northern districts, and up to the time of his departure in 1871 he made reports on the Cape diggings, the Gilbert goldfield, the Rockhampton mining district, Ravenswood and Towers goldfields, and many other general reports. Mr. Daintree went to London in 1871 in charge of the Queensland exhibit, and remained there in the position of Agent-General for Queensland.

In 1875 the Hon. A. C. Gregory, C.M.G., F.R.G.S., already noted as a surveyor and explorer, was appointed Government Geologist, and held the appointment till 1879. He published a number of papers full of geological and mining interest. After his retirement from the service he entered political life, and was until his death in 1905 a highly-respected adviser and critic in the Queensland Legislative Council on all matters affecting the pastoral and mining industries of the State.

In 1877 Mr. Robert Logan Jack, F.G.S., who had ten years' previous experience on the Geological Survey of Scotland, was appointed Government Geologist, and became head of the department after the retirement of the Hon. A. C. Gregory. Mr. Jack remained in charge of the geological survey until 1899, and during this long period of service toured the entire colony and made extensive observations. He correlated his own work with that of his predecessors and assistants, and framed a geological map of Queensland in sufficient detail to form a fine groundwork for his successors to add to. His work is far too extensive for one to attempt to give even a brief outline in an article like this. Suffice to say, Jack must be ranked as one of the pioneers, and, in fact, the greatest of the pioneers, of Queensland geology, distinguished alike as a field-worker, an organizer of an efficient department, and an author. In conjunction with Mr. Robert Etheridge, jun., he compiled a "Geology of Queensland," published in 1892. Mr. Etheridge contributed the Palæontology, a branch of science in which he ranks as the foremost worker in Australia. Though Mr. Jack's geological map of Queensland is in the course of revision, it has been the foundation-stone on which all subsequent geological work has been piled. It is a monument to the industry, the comprehensive faculty of observation, and sound judgment of its author.

In 1883 Mr. Wm. H. Rands, A.R.S.M., F.G.S., and in 1889 Mr. Andrew Gibb Maitland, F.G.S., were
appointed Government Geologists. On Mr. Jack's resignation in 1899 Mr. Rands became geologist in charge. His work, too, was very extensive. In 1902 he retired to take up private practice. Mr. Gibb Maitland left the Queensland State service in 1896, when he was appointed Government Geologist of Western Australia, a position he still holds.

Mr. B. Dunstan was appointed to the Queensland geological staff in 1897. On the retirement of Mr. Rands he became the officer in charge, and to-day holds the position of Chief Government Geologist. He has
gentlemen have been in the geological survey for shorter periods, yet done notable work. The following are their names, with the years of their appointment and resignation:—Professor S. J. B. Skertchley, 1895—1897; Dr. J. M. Maclaren, 1900—1901; C. F. V. Jackson, 1901—1903; E. O. Marks, 1908—1913. Mr. Cameron entered the service in 1897. He has made extensive researches on the mineral resources of the State, particularly the Ipswich coal measures. Mr. L. C. Ball, who entered the department in 1900, has also been mostly engaged on economic geology. Most of his
also carried out extensive field-work, chiefly in the Fitzroy and Gympie districts. His "Mineral Index of Queensland" is a monument of patient work, and is a book of reference which will be found of the utmost value to all mine managers and geologists. Mr. Dunstan is now engaged on the revision of the geological map of Queensland.

The scientific staff of geologists under Mr. Dunstan includes Messrs. W. E. Cameron, B.A., F.G.S., L. C. Ball, B.E., F.G.S., E. C. Saint Smith, F.S.T.C., F.G.S., and J. H. Reid, A.S.T.C. Several other geological survey work has been done in the northern mineral districts of the State, and has been of much importance to the metal-mining industry. Mr. Saint Smith was appointed to the staff in 1913, and has done good work on the geological survey of the artesian basin. Mr. Reid, appointed in 1914, has been engaged on the closer investigation of the Charters Towers goldfield.

Very little geological work has been done by men outside the Department, principally because until 1909 Queensland lacked a University from which advanced
students would spread out and undertake independent researches. Now that defect has been remedied and soon we may expect to see an energetic band of geological workers from our young University who will supplement the official work of the Government geologists.

The principal researches made by men not in the geological survey are those of H. I. Jensen, D.Sc., on the alkaline rocks of Southern Queensland; of Mr. R. A. Wearne, B.A., on the coal measures and volcanic rocks of the Fassifern and Ipswich districts; and the work of Dr. Richards on the volcanic rocks of south-eastern Queensland.

One cannot leave this historical summary without making mention of The Queensland Government Mining Journal, the finest publication of its kind in Australia. It is edited by Mr. Walter J. Morley, and is always full of scientific and mining news of interest.

**PHYSIOGRAPHY.**

As Professor J. W. Gregory has neatly remarked, the geographic structure of Queensland is a direct expression of its geological nature. Geographically, Queensland consists of three divisions, the first of which is the mountainous stretch of Eastern Queensland that approximates or borders the sea from the MacPherson Range, on the New South Wales boundary, to Cape York. This division is called the Queensland Highlands, and consists of a variety of rock formations ranging from highly crystalline rocks, some probably as old as Archaean, through metamorphosed Palaeozoic sedimentary rocks, and very slightly altered Mesozoic sedimentary formations to Tertiary lavas, and but slightly consolidated late Tertiary beds. The highlands constitute the remains of a plateau which in former geological epochs extended much further eastwards in the direction of New Caledonia. Herein lies their geographical unity. The area constituting this plateau was peneplained in late Cretaceous or early Tertiary time, but the exact geological age has not been determined. However, it is certain that in late Miocene time the upward warping of this peneplain commenced. The main uplift was, however, in post-Miocene times, and was followed in Pleistocene times by block-faulting, trough-faulting, and extensive volcanic eruptions. Simultaneously the dissection of the uplifted peneplain or plateau proceeded by the agency of subaerial denudation, and several of the eastern portions of the continent subsided beneath the sea through severe faulting.

The second geographical division of Queensland is that of the Central Plains, or Great Plains, stretching westwards from the base of the Eastern Highlands, and consisting mainly of Cretaceous rocks belonging to the Rolling Downs formation. This formation, which is regarded as Lower Cretaceous, is capped in places by outliers of the Upper Cretaceous desert sandstone, and in other places by Tertiary marls and clays, many of which contain Pliocene and Pleistocene fossil remains. The Great Central Plains, which constitute about two-thirds of the area of Queensland, formed a sea in early Cretaceous times, the period of deposition of the Rolling Downs. In the Upper Cretaceous the sea dried up and became a series of lakes, some of which persisted into late Tertiary times, and round the shores of which sported giant marsupials and crocodiles. Increasing aridity caused their complete disappearance. The Great Plains division of Queensland is also important as being the artesian area. The existence of subterranean water supplies in the Cretaceous and underlying Triassic is of the utmost importance to this area, as otherwise heavy stocking of the country would be out of the question.

The third division consists of a projecting portion of the Central Australian Plateau. This division consists of Archaean and Pre-Cambrian crystalline rocks, together with Cambrian limestones. It stretches from the vicinity of Cloncurry and Mount Oxide in a south-south-west direction towards Lake Eyre, and includes the metalliferous rocks of the Cloncurry district and the fine pastoral limestone country of the Barkly Tablelands. There is no evidence of this area having been submerged since the Cambrian period, but it is shared in the peneplanation of the late Cretaceous or early Tertiary period, and a disintegrated drainage led to the formation of isolated lakes from the silts and marls of which Tertiary shells have been recorded.

The Highlands.—The Eastern Highlands, as already stated, owe their relief to the Tertiary uplift of a great peneplain and their varied scenery to faulting and rock sculpture by stream-action. In the extreme south we find Tertiary lavas disseminated over a wide area. The MacPherson Range, on the New South Wales border, owes its rugged escarpments and wild beauty to the resistance to weathering influences of the acid trachyte and rhyolite lavas. Here and there basaltic flows occur as well, as for instance at Tweed Heads, yielding rich chocolate soils, which under coastal climatic conditions support a luxuriant scrub vegetation. Tambourine Mountain, on the Coomera River, is the remnant of a basaltic volcano. The Springbrook Plateau, the Coomera Ranges, and, in fact, most of the country between the Brisbane River and the MacPherson Range contains remains of the huge lava flows—first acid—alkaline, later basic—which have burst through the Triassic and Jurassic sedimentary rocks of the region. West of this area we have the Main Range and the Little Liverpool Range, in both of which the earlier and alkaline and later basic lavas, bursting through the Mesozoic sandstones, have variegated the scenery and yielded fertile soils. At Fassifern and at Mount Flinders, near Ipswich, as well as on various points in the Main
Range, the trachyte intrusions rise as huge monoliths out of the coal-measure plain. Around Brisbane the principal heights are composed of very ancient crystalline schists, which are thought by many geologists to be of the Pre-Cambrian age (Mount Coot-tha). Further north we have the D'Aguilar Range, composed partly, as at Mount Mee, of ancient crystalline schists, including glauco- phane - epidote schist, anthophyllite schist, mica schists, and hornblende schists, capped in places with Tertiary basalts, in part of graphic granites and normal hornblende biotite granite, in part of Triassic or Jurassic sandstones, with alkaline trachyte dykes. Evidence of faulting with downthrow to the east exists in several places on the eastern flank of the D'Aguilar Range. East of the D'Aguilar Range the trachytic monoliths of the Glasshouse Mountains rise like towers out of the narrow coastal plain. The D'Aguilar Range forms the eastern rim of a tableland region partly composed of ancient crystalline and granitic rocks, partly of Mesozoic sedimentaries, with isolated volcanic cappings, which again is flanked on the west by the basaltic range of the Bunya Mountains. This tableland is the Stanley River Tableland, forming good pastoral and agricultural country. Further north the Jimnah country, the Conandale Range, the Yabba Ranges, and other ranges extending north to the latitude of Maryborough, consist of the same heterogeneous medley of formations as the D'Aguilar Range and the Stanley River or Woodford Tableland. A more eastward range, the Blackall, consists essentially of trachytic and basaltic rocks, the latter being by far the most extensive in area, forming the later flows. From the narrow coastal plain east of Blackall Range rise more monolithic mountains similar to the Glasshouses, and also of alkaline trachyte formation, such as Eerwah, Tinbeerwah, Coolum, Cooroy, Cooran, and Cooroora heights.

The remarks already made about the southern portion of the Eastern Highlands show that this division consists of a series of parallel and subparallel ranges and tablelands joined at intervals by spurs. The same type of structure continues right up to Cape York. The Main Dividing range is more imaginary than real, being merely the highest part of the Eastern Highlands forming the divide between east and west flowing streams. North of the Conandale Range, in the Mary Valley, we get the true Permo-Carboniferous or Gympie rocks entering more and more into the composition of the Eastern Highlands. They commence to divide the Mesozoic formations into two strips, one of which follows the sea coast, the other the eastern border of
the Great Plains. The Burnett Range, Dawes Range, Broadsound Range, and many other ranges between the Mary River and Port Mackay, are composed largely, if not mainly, of Gympie rocks. In the Dawson and Fitzroy River basins true Carboniferous rocks, belonging to the Star series, cover a wide area, while the Dawson coal measures, which also occur in this area, are of Permo-Carboniferous, Greta, age. The Bowen coal measures, also of Permo-Carboniferous age, constitute the dominant formation between the Denham Range and the coast. In the drainage area of the Burdekin River, Devonian rocks, chiefly limestones and conglomerates, aggregating 7,000 feet in thickness, constitute a great bulk of the highlands. The massive limestone formation of the Burdekin has been compared to the Great Barrier Reef, and is regarded by some as an ancestor of the Barrier Reef, for although in late Tertiary times the Australian continent has lost ground in north-eastern Queensland by subsidence and through downthrows by faulting, the continent in previous geological periods from the Cambrian to the Permian grew from the south-west towards the north-east.

North of Townsville the Eastern Highlands are composed of crystalline schists, granites, slates, greywackes, and other rocks partly of undetermined age and partly of known age. Silurian rocks, consisting of black "stinking" limestones, with Halysites, quartzite, slate, and schist, are extensively represented in the Chillagoe area. Probably most of the metamorphic slates and schists of the Northern Queensland mineral districts are of this age, though some may be as old as Pre-Cambrian. Existing geological maps show most of this country as Gympie. However, all recent geological investigations tend to show that in Northern Queensland the Carboniferous rocks are less metamorphosed than in Southern Queensland, and exist principally as sandstone cappings and outliers, or in trough-faulted subsidence areas, as in the Little River coalfield near Cooktown. Throughout the eastern part of that portion of the Queensland Highlands which fringes the coast from Townsville to Cooktown basaltic extravasation has flooded the country with basalt, which yields the best banana and sugar country of the north. The Johnstone River, Cairns-Barren River, and Atherton-scrub country is all basalt capped. The precipitous nature of the coastline from Halifax Bay to Cape York suggests that faulting has played an important part in shaping its physical features.

The coastline of Queensland is one of the most interesting coasts in the world, both in regard to scenery and as a scientific study. The extreme south at Tweed Heads and Burleigh Heads is what is geologically termed a Rückland coast, which is characterized by the absence of coastal plain and by the highlands advancing right up to the sea shore. Such a coast is regarded as indicating that a movement of subsidence has been prevalent for some periods past. From Stradbroke Island to Great Sandy Island a coastal plain, though usually a narrow one, is developed. Such a coast is known as a Forland coast, and is indicative of recent elevatory movement. That elevation has been in progress along this stretch of coast is corroborated by the occurrence of raised beaches in places (as at Point Arkwright), the gradual reclamation of Bribie Passage by natural agencies, the conversion of old-time marine-inlets and baylike lakes in open communication with the sea into, first, freshwater lakes, and later into swamps (a process almost completed opposite Moreton Bay, and still in progress at Laguna Bay), the formation of huge sand dunes at Noosa Lakes, and other interesting features.

From Great Sandy Island to Cape York the entire coastline is a Rückland coast. The former extension of the mainland into what is now the Pacific Ocean is proved by the submarine continuation for great distances into the sea of many of the existing river valleys of Northern Queensland. Besides the evidence of the drowned river valleys, the subsidence movement is also proved by the existence for 1,200 miles along the Queensland coast of that wonderful reef of growing coral, capping dead coral rock, which is known as the Great Barrier Reef. The Northern Queensland coast is characterized by the mountains reaching to the very shore, frequently with the development of great scarps. Many of these suggest that strong faulting movements have aided the slower folding movements in accomplishing the subsidence. Clear evidence of faulting having played an important part in the breaking up of the Eastern Highlands is obtained in the Bowen coalfield, where the Middle Bowen beds have been let down by a north-west-south-east fault against three groups of older beds—namely, the volcanic rocks of the Toussaint Range, the old schists and granites of the Clarke Range, and the Lower Bowen Series on the flanks of the Broadsound Range.

The soils and timbers in the Eastern Highlands vary widely in accordance with the variations in geological formation. The silicious rocks, sandstones, granites, and rhyolites yield poor sandy soils, with open hardwood forest chiefly composed of eucalypt species. On the shallow and stony, yet chemically richer, slate and schist soils the flora ranges from the open forest to the "bastard" scrub type, while on rich basaltic and alluvial soils dense jungle is usually found, in which the softwoods flourish and the cedar, bunya pine, kauri pine, and hoop pine are matted together with lawyer canes and other vines. Vast areas of basaltic scrub land, both in the south as on the Blackall Range, and in the north as at Atherton, are now under cultivation.
The Central Plains.—The great plains of Queensland are mostly unforested but for belts of timber along the watercourses, largely groves of gidyea and mulga. The semi-arid to arid conditions of climate result in the maintenance of a rich soil, as the leaching processes which operate in the Eastern Highlands almost fail here. Not only are the fertilizing ingredients preserved in the soil, but the removal of rock waste proceeds so slowly that the soils attain great thickness. As already stated, this division comprises about two-thirds of the State, and owing to its deep, fertile soils and abundant supplies of artesian water constitutes the cornucopia of Queensland. The bulk of the area is built up of Cretaceous strata, with patches of overlying Pliocene and Pleistocene formation, yet the northern end of the Great Plains bordering on the Gulf of Carpentaria, known as the Plains of Promise, is constituted of Tertiary estuarine and marine deposits, the result of recent elevation, while the extreme south-eastern portion, the Darling Downs, is largely black-soil plain of Tertiary volcanic origin.

The entire Queensland coastline bordering on the Gulf of Carpentaria has recently undergone and is perhaps still undergoing uplift, a continuation of that Tertiary elevation which has transformed the Cretaceous sea—an Australian Mediterranean Sea—into dry land. It must be remembered that most of the Great Plains division was beneath the sea from early Triassic to late Cretaceous times.

Our Rolling Downs is to all intents and purposes synonymous with our artesian basin. The age of the water-bearing horizons is still a somewhat doubtful question. Scientific men tend to differentiate into parties and groups, or schools. Thus in the case of the artesian problem Messrs. Jack and Rands regarded the Rolling Downs as the water-bearing beds and the Blythesdale Braystone as the intake; while Pittman assigned the artesian water almost wholly to the Trias Jura, while the later researches of Mr. Dunstan and his staff favour the view that our artesian waters are confined in Upper Jurassic rocks. Likewise, as regards the origin of artesian water, opinion is divided. The followers of Pittman still adhere to the view that our artesian beds form a basin like the Artois and London.
basins, into porous strata of which subaerial waters percolate and rise when tapped by bores through hydraulic pressure. They assume that the freshness of the water is maintained by circulation movement in the artesian waters, which are imagined, not without reason, to have outlets into the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Australian Bight. The other school is that of J. W. Gregory, D.Sc. of Glasgow, some years ago Professor at Melbourne University. His view is that our artesian waters are of Plutonic origin; they have their natural outlets in the mound springs, and are expelled when tapped largely by gas and steam pressure. While Professor Gregory has advocated the muzzling or closing of artesian bores to avoid waste when the water is not required, other adherents of the magmatic-water or Plutonic theory, such as Symmonds and Jensen, are decidedly against closing down bores on account of the tendency for the waters under restraint to burst the casing and escape laterally into dry strata.

While the majority of our Queensland artesian waters come from Mesozoic strata, the Carboniferous and Permo-Carboniferous strata of the Northern Territory at Borroloola have been proved artesian, and the occurrence of Permo-Carboniferous fossils in the artesian strata of Hughenden and other country north of the Cloncurry line is gradually lending colour to the belief that much of the Northern Queensland artesian water may come from late Palaeozoic strata.

In two places in the Eastern Highlands is there a wide break or col (geocol), which has the effect of bringing inland climatic conditions almost out to the coast. One is at Brisbane, the other at Burnett River. In the latter case we also have the Rolling Downs formation transgressing over the affected area. They are here known as the Maryborough Beds.

The Central Australian Plateau.—This area has, like the Great Plains, deep, unleached, fertile soils, but climatic conditions tend to aridity. While very distinct from the Great Plains in geological nature, the area is physiographically very similar to the Great Plains, except in belts of mineralized metamorphic slates and schists, as at Cloncurry.

STRATIGRAPHICAL GEOLOGY.

In dealing with this subject it will be most convenient to commence with the oldest formations and finish with the newest. A very old series of gneisses and schists occurs in places, and probably underlies all other formations. Daintree regarded them as Silurian on account of lithological resemblance to the Silurian rocks of Victoria. There is, however, no doubt now that both these very old Queensland rocks, and those of Victoria which they resembled, are much older, probably Archaean in age.

ARCHÆAN AND PRE-CAMBRIAN.

The largest area of rocks in the State now assigned to the Pre-Cambrian formations is the Queensland portion of the Central Australian Plateau, including the Cloncurry mineral field and a belt of country stretching thence towards Lake Eyre. This area consists of granites, amphibolites, mica schists, granulites, and gneisses, and includes, as at Mount Leviathan, near Cloncurry, some vast deposits of iron ore of good quality. This area has been variously assigned to the Silurian, Devonian, Carboniferous (Gympie), and other periods by different geologists; but there is now no doubt that these formations are an extension of the Pre-Cambrian of the Northern Territory, and bear the same relationship to the Cambrian limestones of the Barkly Tableland.

Another Archaean area is that of the Charters Towers and Cape goldfields. Here there is a lower series of gneisses, mica schists, and hornblende schists, and an upper series, a portion of which may be early Palaeozoic, of quartzites, schists, and slates. According to Rands, the Archaean series here is from five to six miles in thickness; the rocks strike west-north-west, and are therefore discordant to the direction of the Great Dividing Range.

A third area of very old metamorphic rocks is in the Gilbert, Woolgar, and Etheridge goldfields. They consist of schists intruded by dykes of diorite and quartz porphyry. The strike of the rocks is from west to east.

A fourth occurrence of Pre-Cambrian types is on the western flanks of the Clarke Range, south of Bowen. The line of granite rocks of the main range are bordered on the west by quartzites and schists, with an altered schorl-bearing granite.

A fifth outcrop is on the Peak Downs near Clermont, where the Pre-Cambrian series consists of mica and hornblende schists, striking north-east-south-west.

A sixth exposure is in the D'Aguilar Range at Mount Mee, and thence at intervals to Jimnah and the Comandale Range. The rocks here consist of mica schists, granulites, epidote-glaucophane schists, hornblende schists, gneisses, graphic granites, schorlaceous granite, and numerous other varieties of crystalline schist possessing lithological characters indicative of the greatest antiquity.

The Brisbane schists have been assigned to various ages by different geologists. The balance of evidence is, however, in favour of a Pre-Cambrian age.

LOWER PALÆOZOIC.

Cambrian.—The limestones of the Barkly Table-land, which extend from the Northern Territory across the border into Queensland, have yielded Cambrian trilobites and the pteropod Saltarella.
Ordovician.—Rocks of this age have not yet been determined in Queensland, though they may be present in the metamorphic massifs of Cloncurry and the Cape goldfield.

Silurian.—Receptaculites has been recorded from Mount Wyatt, while Halysites has been determined in the Chillagoe limestones. Silurian rocks are, in the writer's opinion, far more widespread than generally supposed. Halysites is exceedingly abundant in the black limestones of Chillagoe, and was first discovered there by the present writer in 1899.

Middle Devonian rocks also occur in the mountains of the Red River crossed by the Northern railway; in the neighbourhood of Clermont on the Central railway, and in the Hunter and Marble Islands in the Northumberland Group, where, says Professor Gregory, Middle Devonian limestones strike from north to south and are faulted against granite.

UPPER PALAEZOIC.

The Upper Palaeozoic systems—Devonian, Carboniferous, and Permocarboniferous—are well represented in Queensland.

Devonian.—The chief development of Devonian rocks is in the Burdekin basin, where the series extends from Pentland to Gilberton, in a band sixty miles long by thirty miles broad. The rocks consist of conglomerates at the base, passing upwards into massive coral limestones, with abundant fossils of Middle Devonian age. They strike from north-east to south-west, and dip to the north-west, and are estimated by Jack to attain a thickness of 20,000 feet, the lowest 8,000 feet of which, however, may be of Lower Palaeozoic age.

Middle Devonian rocks also occur in the mountains of the Red River crossed by the Northern railway; in the neighbourhood of Clermont on the Central railway, and in the Hunter and Marble Islands in the Northumberland Group, where, says Professor Gregory, Middle Devonian limestones strike from north to south and are faulted against granite.

Carboniferous.—The Gympie and Star series were formerly regarded as Carboniferous, but more recent investigations show more and more that the Gympie beds can be divided into two groups, the lower of which contains Lepidodendron australe, Phillipsia, and Aneimites, which are characteristic of the Carboniferous, and the younger of which contains neither Lepidodendron nor Phillipsia, but contains instead a abundant fauna comparable with that of the Hunter River basin in New South Wales—that is, of a typical Permo-carboniferous facies. The Gympie beds proper is the
lowest series of the Carboniferous. They consist of slates, thin-beded sandstones, impuro limestones, coarse conglomerates, and carbonaceous beds, in which occur Protoretepora amyla, Fenestella, Productus cora, and other Carboniferous fossils. The gold of Gympie occurs principally in the plumbago beds and conglomerates. The Gympie rocks are traversed by dykes and sills of pyritic andesite and diorite. The southern part of the Gympie field is traversed by a series of cross faults running east and west. At Broomfield occurs another outcrop of Gympie rocks. It rests on granite to the west, and is faulted to the east against the Burrum series.

In the northern half of the Burnett district and in the Wide Bay district, and thence to Broadsound, Gympie rocks are largely developed. In the Wide Bay district they are separated from the coast by twenty to thirty miles of Burrum formation, but from Port Curtis to Notch Point they occupy most of the coastline. They occur between Eidsvold and Lochaber as sandstones, slates, and quartzites, striking east and west. In the Cania goldfield the Gympie age of a series of sandstones, slates, and limestones has been determined by the presence of Productus semireticulatus. The slates and quartzites of the Raglan goldfield are also considered Gympie, and strike north-south with a westerly dip. Near Rockhampton a great fossiliferous limestone series striking north-west has been determined to be of Gympie age. On the Calliope River marble is developed in them.

In Northern Queensland Gympie rocks are probably present as cappings of shale and greywacke, while the metalliferous metamorphic formations formerly regarded as Gympie are probably Silurian and older.

The Star Series.—The beds of this series are best developed in the basins of the Great and Little Star Rivers, tributaries of the Upper Burdekin. They consist of sandstones and shales, with Lepidodendron and some conglomerates, as well as marine limestones. The most extensive outcrop of the Star series is on the Belyando River, and extends southward through the Drummond Range. Fossil fish occur in this area. The rocks are folded into a synclinal trough, which is axially crossed by the Central railway near Bogantungan. To the west of the Drummond Range the Star beds dip under the basic lavas of Buckland Tableland. Another synclinal of the Star formation occurs at the junction of the Suttor and Burdekin Rivers, south of Mount McConnell. This basin, which trends north-east-southwest, includes Mount Wyatt, which has yielded the Silurian fossil, Receptaculites.

Permo-Carboniferous.—Rocks of undoubted Permo-Carboniferous age are incorporated with the Carboniferous Gympie and Star beds in the highly-disturbed and compressed area of the Gympie goldfield. Permo-Carboniferous rocks have a wide extent in Queensland, spreading over the Bowen and Dawson coalfields, and occur at intervals as far north as Cocktown.

The Permo-Carboniferous rocks of Queensland are known as the Bowen beds and are divided into three divisions, the Lower, Middle, and Upper Bowen. These are most typically developed in the Bowen coalfield, between the Bowen and Dawson Rivers, and including the Leichhardt and Denham Ranges.

The Lower Bowen formation occurs in the northeastern part of the field, and consists of two rock types. The first is a series of altered volcanic rocks, typically developed in the Toussaint Range, where they are cut to the south by a fault that brings the solisits of the western flank of the Clarke Range into contact with Middle Bowen beds. The other type of Lower Bowen rocks is a series of sandstones and shales, which in places, as on the Pioneer River, have been highly altered. These beds strike meridionally, and reach the coast at Cape Palmerston.

The Middle Bowen formation consists of terrestrial beds with Glossopteris and interlaminated marine beds with Productus cora. They are developed on the edge of the Bowen coalfield, the centre of which consists principally of Upper Bowen beds. The latter are full of Glossopteris, and contain numerous coal seams.

The Permo-Carboniferous fossils of Gympie, as well as those of the Lower Bowen beds, point to these strata being of the same age as the Lower Marine of New South Wales. The Dawson River coalfield contains the thickest seams known in Australia. One seam near Comet is 80 feet thick. About thirty miles south of Duaringa occurs an anthracite seam 11 feet thick. The area is, however, much faulted. At the Little River, in the Cape York Peninsula, there is a trough-faulted area of Permo-Carboniferous rock, in which coal seams have been located. Professor David estimates the available quantity of Permo-Carboniferous coal in Queensland at 100,000,000,000 tons. The Permo-Carboniferous coals of Queensland have been but little worked up to the present, on account of transport difficulties.

MESozoIC FORMATIONS.

The Triassic rocks do not seem to be represented in Queensland, unless they underlie in part the Cretaceous Rolling Downs formation. The Ipswich coal measures have been in recent years assigned to the Upper Jurassic period on account of their fossil contents, particularly on account of Temnorhisis daintreei, which is regarded by Professor A. C. Seward as being characteristic of a Lower Oolitic age. The Burrum beds, which were
of the Lower Cretaceous are **Iliacoella**, **Cytherea**, impervious, and, moreover, more and more evidence Blythesdale Braystones. The most characteristic fossils has, however, recently been shown that they are very considered to be the intake beds of the Artesian area. It the sea restored land conditions, though vast lacustrine During the Upper Cretaceous a negative movement of the Lower Cretaceous. The Lower Cretaceous was Rolling Downs. Gypsum is found in great quantity in Lower Cretaceous (Rolling Downs) covers a great portion of Central Queensland. The Ipswich beds seem to pass conformably into the Rolling Downs. Gypsum is found in great quantity in the Jurassic and Triassic which underlie the **积累** to show that the water-bearing horizons areas persisted far into the Tertiary period.

The Blythesdale Braystones were formerly considered to be the intake beds of the Artesian area. It has, however, recently been shown that they are very impervious, and, moreover, more and more evidence accumulates to show that the water-bearing horizons are in the Jurassic and Triassic which underlie the Blythesdale Braystones. The most characteristic fossils of the Lower Cretaceous are **Maccoyella**, **Cytherea**, **Cricoceras**, **Lamna**, **Belonostomus**, **Notochelone**, **Notochelone Ichthyosaurus**, **Plesiosaurus**, **Archis firmidens**, **Ammonites**, **Foraminifera**, etc. The formations are chiefly loosely cemented sandstones and claystones. The Burry beds, as already mentioned, belong to the Lower Cretaceous.

The Upper Cretaceous (Desert Sandstone) consists at the base of marine beds, with belemnites, **Maccoyella**, and the sea-urchin, **Microaster sweeti**, from the Maryborough beds near Maryborough, and **Rhynochocella croydenensis** in the Croydon beds. **Ledo elongata** and **Avicula alata** have been obtained from a patch of the Maryborough beds, thirty-two miles west of Bundaberg. **Ostrea** and **Hinnites** have also been obtained in the basal beds of the Desert Sandstone. The bulk of the Desert Sandstone is, however, un fossiliferous, and from its microscopic texture was regarded by Tenison Woods, and still is regarded by most geologists as being of windblown origin. It is, however, fairly certain that the scattered patches of desert sandstone rising mesa-like from the Rolling Downs are the remains of a once-continuous sheet, and their stratification suggests deposition under water, marine or lacustrine. It is supposed by Professor Gregory that the formation accumulated during the retreat of the “Rolling Downs Sea.” The desert sandstone consists mostly of coarse sandstone, passing in the arid regions into quartzite and fine white shales, which pass superficially into porcellanite. The latter in places contains valuable deposits of precious opal, associated with curious concretions known to the miners as fossil pineapples. These are composed of common opal pseudomorphous after glauberite, and often occur together with what are termed “buns of barytes.”

Gibb Maitland reported trachytic tuffs interstratiﬁed with the lower beds of the desert sandstone near Port Mackay. This being the only recorded instance of contemporaneous volcanic activity in the Cretaceous the matter merits further investigation.

Professor T. W. E. David in a paper has described interesting forms of infusoria belonging to the **Tintinnoida** in a diatomaceous radiolarian earth inter bedded with marls in the Rolling Downs formation, near Mitchell.
CAINOZOIC ERA.

More and more evidence has recently been accumulated by the Queensland Geological Survey, especially by Mr. W. Cameron, that Tertiary beds are very widespread in south-eastern Queensland, capping the Jurassic. Hitherto, with the exception of Limestone Hill, at Ipswich, these beds have been regarded as Trias Jura. The closer study and survey of these deposits will be of great value in determining the age of the volcanic rocks of Southern Queensland, and may also somewhat reduce the area over which occurrences of coal beds can be expected.

The Plains of Promise round the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria consist largely of silts brought down by the Gulf rivers in the Tertiary period. However, the Tertiary deposits of greatest interest in Queensland are the mammaliferous drifts along the western slopes of the Great Dividing Range and Queensland Highlands, as at the Condamine River. These deposits have often been cut through by recent streams, and the bones are frequently deeply buried, as on the Peak Downs, where bones were found at a depth of 188 feet. The remains occur in river silts, breccias, and indurated muds, and are exceedingly abundant in certain areas, which probably were the banks of waterholes round which the animals congregated in times of drought. Freshwater molluscs occur plentifully in these drifts—e.g., Melania pagoda, Melania atra, Melania subimbricata, Limnaea rimoso, Physa truncata—together with teeth of Ceratodus and bones of the crocodile Pallimnarchus pollens. The most important of the bones found are those of Diprotodon, Nototherium, Macropus, Sceparnodon, Thylaeoleo, Thylacinus, Sarcophilus, Canis dingo, Sus marcus, Megalania prisca, Melolagus, etc. Professor David regards these drifts as synchronous with the Pluvial period of Kosciusko, which would be Pleistocene and late Pliocene.

Bone caves occur in various parts of Queensland. They are abundant in the Chillagoe limestones. The bones are mostly the remains of marsupials, dingos, and squirrels.

Raised beaches of late Tertiary age and kitchen middens of the Post-Tertiary age occur on the coast. Indications have been noticed of a raised beach 50 feet above sea-level at Point Arkwright, while raised beaches up to 15 feet above sea-level are of so general occurrence as to suggest a recent negative movement of the sea, connected in some way with the accumulation of the Antarctic ice-sheet. The shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria have undergone a greater elevation, which is still in progress. Patches of Post-Tertiary limestone containing fossilized remains of Helix occur west of Cloncurry. Another Tertiary and Post-Tertiary formation is that of the Great Barrier Reef and its numerous islets.

IGNEOUS ROCKS.

A. Plutonic.—Altered granites, gneisses, hornblendites, epidiorites, and other highly-altered igneous rocks, ranging from acid to basic, occur in the PreCambrian or Archaean formations of the Cloncurry massive, as well as the D’Aguilar Range. The so-called ‘metamorphic’ granites of Pentland Hills, and between Charters Towers and Ravenswood, as well as the hornblende granites of Croydon, may be of Archaean age. Most of the other granites of Queensland intrude the Carboniferous, and are hence of Post-Carboniferous age. As, however, large areas formerly assigned to the Carboniferous, such as, for instance, the Chillagoe beds, are now regarded as Silurian or even older, many of the granites formerly thought Post-Carboniferous must now be regarded as of the more indefinite Post-Silurian age. That is the case in particular with the Cloncurry, Herberton, Mareeba, and Chillagoe granites. The quartz porphyries near Townsville were intruded into Glossopteris beds, hence are definitely Post-Carboniferous. The porphyries and porphyrites south of Laguna Bay, between the Noosa Lakes and the Maroochy River, are definitely Post-Jurassic, having cut through and tilted the Ipswich coal measures in that vicinity. Mount Cooroy consists largely of particularly interesting monzonite.

HYPABYSSAL AND VOLCANIC ROCKS.—The altered lavas of the Toussaint Range in the Bowen district are of Lower Bowen age. Lava beds do not occur in still older Palaeozoic formations, but they have been so metamorphosed that their origin is uncertain. In the Triassic, or, rather, Jurassic, of the Ipswich coal measures we have at the very base the volcanic formations variously known as the Brisbane tuffs. These consist of tuffs and breccias, resting on the ancient Brisbane schists, and overlain by the Ipswich coal measures. A few sheets of basalt are recorded as being interbedded in the Ipswich beds on the Darling Downs, but they are doubtful, as they may possibly represent sills. In the Cretaceous no volcanic rocks are known except the doubtful instance of trachytic tuffs near the base of the series at Port Mackay.

The great bulk of our volcanic and hypabyssal rocks belong to the Tertiary. Groups of trachyte and alkaline rhyolite stocks and necks occur at intervals from the New South Wales border to Port Mackay, including the volcanic necks of the MacPherson Range, Main Range, Fassifern, Mount Flinders, the Glasshouse Mountains, the Yandina Group, the Coorooma Group, the Springsure necks, the Yeppoon necks and hills, etc., etc. Dykes belonging to the same series are abundant in the Jurassic formations of the D’Aguilar Range. These alkaline rocks are now regarded as Upper Miocene or Lower Pliocene in age. The alkaline eruptions were followed by a great extravasation of andesitic and basaltic lava, accompanied in some places
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as on the Springbrook Plateau and the north end of the Blackall Range) by rhyolites. The remains of these basalt sheets remain as larger stretches on the Darling Downs, Blackall Range, Bunya Mountains, etc., and as more isolated cones in other places, as, for instance, Tambourine Mountain, Buderim Mountain, etc.

In North Queensland great outpourings of basalt also occurred, and the eruptions probably lasted there into very late Pleistocene times, as hinted by the persistence of hot springs in the Herberton district and the perfect preservation of craters in that vicinity.

The andesitic outpourings probably took place in the Middle Pliocene and the basaltic eruptions in Late Pliocene, lasting in Northern Queensland into the Pleistocene.

MINING GEOLOGY.

Queensland possesses practically every metalliferous mineral of commercial value—gold, silver lead, copper, tin, zinc, tungsten, molybdenum, etc., are all represented in the native state or in combination as ores. Most of these metallic minerals occur in the Palaeozoic or Archaean rocks. Only in a few instances, as at Noosa Head and Mount Boppy, do we get the metals in later rocks, as the result of Late Mesozoic granitic intrusions.

Gold.—This metal may occur in rocks of all ages, but except in the alluvial form it is generally confined to the highly-metamorphosed Palaeozoic formations. At Croydon and Charters Towers gold occurs in Archaean or Pre-Cambrian granites, and to some extent in associated schistose rocks. On the Woolgar-Etheridge field the auriferous rocks are probably also of Pre-Cambrian age. In the Chillagoe-Tate-Herberton district the auriferous rocks are probably of Silurian age, and the gold was introduced with the Post-Silurian granite intrusions. At Gympie the auriferous beds are Permo-Carboniferous age, and the gold was probably introduced with the dioritic intrusions of Post-Permian age.

Silver Lead.—Argentiferous galena occurs in the Silver Spur district, near Stanthorpe, in metamorphic rocks of Permo-Carboniferous age. In the Herberton-Chillagoe district the silver lead occurs in Silurian rocks. Tin occurs in Older Palaeozoic at Stanthorpe, Herberton (Silurian?) and Croydon (Pre-Cambrian) districts.

Wolfram and Molybdenite occur in the same formations as tin in the Herberton-Irvinebank district.

Copper occurs in Pre-Cambrian formations of the Cloncurry district, in the Silurian of the Chillagoe-Mungana district, and in the Carboniferous, together with mercury and gold, in the Kilkivan district. At Mount Morgan gold and copper occur together in a rock which is a silicious sinter, and by some is supposed to be a geyser deposit.

Coal.—Of all the economic minerals of Queensland coal is perhaps the most important. This State has Carboniferous, Permo-Carboniferous, Jurassic, and Cretaceous coal beds of workable size. The best coals are the Dawson River coals, but the development of this vast coalfield can hardly said to be commenced. The Ipswich and Burrum coals are brittle and bituminous, but these fields are worked, being easily accessible and on the main trunk lines of the State.

Opal is another mineral of economic importance to the State of Queensland. Minute grains of precious opal occur in cavities of amygdaloidal trachytes and basalts in the East Moreton district, but the workable deposits are segregations in veins in the desert sandstones, as at Kidston and Opalton.

Mining is dealt with elsewhere in this work.

ARTESIAN WATER.

Queensland has the largest extent of artesian basin of any State in Australia. It has also the bores with the greatest flows. The water, containing a noticeable percentage of soda salts, is unsuited for irrigation, but is excellent for watering stock.

The artesian region being covered largely by Tertiary loams and clays is exceedingly fertile and decked with rich herbage. Forest trees are often rare or altogether absent over large stretches, owing to the seeds not germinating in the somewhat alkaline soils of our great plains.

The artesian area is fringed with mound and mud springs which, according to the supporters of the Plutonic origin, afforded an outlet for the surplus waters. This notion is rather strongly supported by the fact that since the artesian basin was tapped by bores the mound springs have in many localities dried up.
THE FAUNA OF QUEENSLAND.

The fauna of Queensland presents a rich storehouse for investigation by the biologist in search of facts relating to the long dead progenitors of types now extant in other lands. This is true not only of the north-eastern corner of the continent, but indeed of the whole Commonwealth, including Tasmania. But the coastal regions of Queensland have been more prolific in maintaining life, both vegetable and animal, than has any other similar-sized area of Australia; and Queensland yields some of the most interesting evidence of how the flora and fauna of a long remote period poured down to the south across what now is Torres Straits and other waterways separating us from Asia, but which, in another age, were but parts of a land connection.

Hence it is that the marsupial is found in America as well as in Australia. Everywhere else this form of life has been long since extinct. Little is known of its ancient history, though strong evidence points to its having an enormously lengthy career on earth. Traces of marsupials have been discovered in European deposits of great geological antiquity, dating from a time before the forces of natural selection had evolved mammals of a higher type. The marsupial found its way into Australia, which was afterwards divided from the continents to the north by the subsidence of land. The fauna of Queensland presents a rich storehouse for investigation by the biologist in search of facts relating to the fauna of the State. They are as follow:—

1. The fauna of Australia at large is concentrated to a marked degree in the north-eastern corner of the continent, Queensland to wit.

2. The Queensland fauna includes also animals intimately related to those of New Guinea, some of them incapable of passing the straits, e.g., tree-climbing kangaroos, cassowaries; also marine rangers from the western tropics, e.g., crocodile, dugong, great sea perch; also fresh-water fish represented elsewhere only in Africa and America, e.g., ceratodus, osteoglossum; also animals peculiar to itself.

3. The old fauna of Queensland now extinct was far more extensive and vigorous than the present one.

4. It contained at least one animal, a ground bird now restricted to New Guinea (Papuan) jungles (crowned pigeon), and a flightless bird (moa) peculiar to New Zealand.

5. Individuals of two kinds of fresh-water fish (Murray cod, ceratodus) are in the south found together living or extinct in two distinct drainage areas separated by mountain ranges.
There would appear to be little doubt that, before Torres Straits separated Cape York from Papua, the climate of the north-eastern portion of the continent was considerably hotter than it is now, and the general conditions accelerated a more virile and prolific growth of both animals and plants than do those now prevailing, vigorous as is the life of the coastal regions of the present day. A brief review of the geological history of the continent thus becomes necessary as a first step in the study of either the flora or fauna of Queensland, or indeed of any part of Australia. The mainland of the Commonwealth, Tasmania, and New Zealand now are separate islands, the latter being divided from either of the two by some 1,700 miles of rolling ocean. But in a remote period these lands were more or less directly connected by land with Asia and South America, and consequently with one another. The accompanying map, which shows the ocean depths as over and under 1,500 fathoms, clearly indicates the boundaries of the now sunken links binding the southern lands with the north and the east. By means of these connections the progenitors of the existing and extinct Australian species first made their way. Thus we find the basis of the fauna of the country. Geologists are able to afford information regarding the period when these vanished isthmuses were above sea level, for crystalline rocks occur in Fiji and clay slates in the Marquesas group; and such rocks do not appear in islands which have never formed part of a continental mass. During the Paleozoic period there was assuredly a large continent stretching from Asia across the South Pacific Ocean, but at the close of that period a big climatic change occurred over a large part of the Southern Hemisphere. All the southern part of Australia went through a severe glacial epoch, the evidences of which are still to be distinctly seen in the North-Western Division of Western Australia in the Irwin River basin of that State, on Kangaroo Island and the shores of Gulf St. Vincent in South Australia, and at Bacchus Marsh in Victoria. During the Mesozoic, which succeeded, the configuration of land and sea within and around the continent became substantially that which it now is.

While the old connection with Asia, and probably South America, lasted, Australia and New Zealand received the ancestral types of the present native fauna, together with those of many of the species now extinct. At one stage of the history of the earth reptilian forms of life dominated the surface of the globe. Huge creatures, resembling gigantic lizards, sometimes a hundred feet in length, roamed through mighty forests; whilst some of the large reptiles were armed with wings and passed through the air. All species of this kind had long since disappeared many ages before the advent of man. The reptilian forms of life had passed their prime before the migration of life into the southern continent; and the birds of the air had reached to a high state of development, whilst mammals had begun to put in an appearance. The first of these latter were of low organism and laid eggs. They were the Prototheria, a division long since extinct in all other parts of the globe, but surviving in Australia in the form of the platypus and the echidna. The latter is popularly known as the "native porcupine," though in reality it is in no way related to the true porcupine. The Metatheria (which is a more highly-developed division of mammalia, and brings forth its young in a partially-developed form, and nourishes them at breasts encased in a marsupia or "pouch" until completely developed) were extensively spread over the world during the Tertiary period. But, as mentioned already in this article, the Metatheria, or marsupials, are extinct everywhere except in the Australasian region and America, existing in the latter only in the form of a few opossums. After the arrival of the marsupials Australia became an island. New Zealand had been separated at an earlier period, apparently about the time of the greatest bird development. Tasmania, Kangaroo Island, and other adjacent islands remained part of Australia until comparatively recent times. Except for bats, rats, and mice, whose means for dispersal over wide areas and across seas are quite exceptional, none of the Eutheria, or true placental mammalia, ever reached Australia until introduced by man. How the dingo arrived at these shores has never been made clear; but the species is a near relation
to the dhole of India, and no doubt exists of the dingo having been brought to the continent at no very remote date.

The marsupials of Australia have descended from some giant forms, of which the only knowledge is derived from fossil remains. There was the diprotodon, a kind of wombat larger than a rhinoceros, the casts of whose complete skeleton are now in the principal Australian museums. There was the Nototherium, an animal as big as and in some respects resembling the tapirs, a kangaroo standing about twelve feet high. These species were vegetable feeders; but remains of large extinct carnivora have also been found. One of the latter has been named the Thylacoleo, because it is supposed to have been a kind of pouch lion. The Thylacinus or "pouched hyena" and the Sarcophilus or "devil" are two species which survive now only in Tasmania, but existed on the mainland contemporaneously with the gigantic creatures already referred to. There were also struthious birds, allied to the moa of New Zealand, and as large as an ostrich, whose skeletons have been recovered along with the diprotodon in the dried-up lakes of the Lake Eyre basin. Enormous alligators roamed far to the south of the tropics, and a land lizard (Megalania) very nearly akin to the present-day "goanna," but upwards of twenty feet in length, was the terror of the dry-land creatures of the time. Giant turtles and huge tortoises also appear in the life of this ancient period. As part of the present-day fauna, including some varieties of frogs, have their closest affinities now in South America, it would seem that their ancestors came here while the now submerged South Pacific continent reached as far east as Patagonia.

Climatic and geographical changes which caused the extinction of the diprotodon and his congeneres, leaving only their fossil remains distributed from Cape Leeuwin to the Gulf of Carpentaria, must be held to have exercised the influence accountable for the distribution of the present fauna as now observed in each of the Australian States. That fauna which is isolated from the rest of the world will still compete within itself for advantages in the battle for existence. A difference in climate, of food supply, or predacious foes must necessarily lead to modifications of form and habit to contend with such change, or, in the alternative, must bring extinction.

The predominating point of interest in the action of the environment of Australia upon the fauna of the country lies in the absence of biological progress on the part of the various species. Owing to obscure causes, species long since extinct elsewhere, and to be studied in other countries only through such evidence as fossil remains render available, have here stayed unchanged through countless ages. The strenuous struggle for existence elsewhere has evolved the tiger and the lion, specially adapted to spring upon and quickly vanquish their prey; the nimble deer, fitted to leap swiftly from the movement of a bush in which may lurk some hidden and hungry beast of prey; the giraffe, long-necked and thus able to survive because of being able to reach the tender leaves of trees beyond the reach of less favourably formed competitors; and various other species each possessing some advantage in a peculiar adaptation of frame or constitution. In countries where the conditions are more favourable than they have been in Australia for supporting a teeming animal life, species have more rapidly and distinctly evolved special properties yielding them specific advantages in contending against other species. But on the island continent, and more particularly over the great interior where a scanty and fluctuating rainfall has rendered the food supply scarce and uncertain, strife between animals has not been sufficiently keen to have similarly evolved capacity for warfare or for competition as between species and species or between individual and individual. Animal life has been scattered sparsely over immense tracts of land; and the force tending to eliminate any particular type has not been so much the competition of another type as it has been the failure of means of subsistence. Probably the pouched kangaroo, with its propensities for carrying its young long distances, and the swift-running emu have been able to escape from the ravages of prolonged droughts better than the more highly evolved but less mobile beasts of prey belonging to the jungles of India and the mighty forests of central Africa or the impenetrable woods of American river basins. Only where rainfall is heavy and the flora luxurious in the comparatively limited coastal areas of the continent has animal life been plentiful in the same sense as it is plentiful in other continents; and here alone is the zoology equally complex and containing a proportion of flesh-eating species, as, for instance, the crocodiles of Queensland and the devils of Tasmania, the dingo, of course, having been a recent importation from other lands, and therefore not being typical of the rest of the fauna of the continent.

MARSUPIALS.

The greater part of the Queensland mammalian fauna consists of marsupials, a class of animals not discovered alive in any part of the world, except being met with in the form of the opossums in America, until found in Australia. No family of Australian marsupial life is entirely absent from the north-eastern State. Some of these consist in vegetable-eating species; whilst others, such as the native cat, are carnivorous. Kangaroos are still plentiful over most of Queensland, but the larger types have already been driven to some distance from the centres of population and settlement.
The kangaroos of Queensland are divided into a number of varieties, ranging in size from the great "old man kangaroo" to the kangaroo rat, which is small enough to hide in a clump of grass. The various types alter in accordance with the class of country in which they live, the rock wallaby being specially adapted to comply with certain conditions of life, the black wallaby having been evolved to meet with other conditions, and the tree-climbing divisions having developed a remarkable and unique faculty which would be of little use on the wide plains of the interior. The latter varieties are regarded with great interest, not only because of the remarkable way in which they shelter from danger by sleeping and resting in the upper branches of the forest, but also because of the close similarity they show with the tree-climbers of Papua, thus yielding evidence of a land passage connecting the two countries at what, from a geological viewpoint, could not have been a very remote period.

The koala, or native bear, is met with very frequently in Queensland. This quaint-looking, tailless, tree-climbing animal is believed to have descended from ancestry of vastly superior size to that of the present type. The timbered country of Queensland, together with that of the remainder of the continent, abounds with phalanges, popularly though incorrectly known as opossums. Related to the latter is the animal generally known as the "flying squirrel." This is not allied to the real squirrel, nor is it capable of real flight, being able merely to glide through the air on an inclined plane by means of webbing between its legs.

Thus it is able to pass considerable distances from tree to tree without touching the ground. For a long while it was believed that the wombat family of marsupials was entirely absent from Queensland, but these burrowing, root-eating, tailless creatures are now found to inhabit the north-east of the continent. The wombat belongs to a degenerated family of marsupials. Once many varieties of them wandered over the face of the continent, but most of these are now extinct. Among other Queensland marsupials are a striped bandicoot and a rat-like bandicoot.
The State contains but few carnivorous marsupials, and what there are have greatly degenerated since former times. Among these are three varieties of "native cats," the largest being the spotted-tail variety, of which, however, the individuals are not larger than some domestic cats. A member of the same family is the brush-tailed rat, which though no larger than a small rat is extremely savage, and is able to kill large birds with one well-directed bite on the head. Marsupial "mice" are chiefly noteworthy as being active destroyers of insects.

**OTHER MAMMALS.**

Apart from the marsupials the best-known mammal of Australia is the dingo, or wild dog, a species supposed to have reached these shores subsequently to man, since no signs of the former are to be found among traces of animals now extinct. Though particularly destructive to sheep, the dingo is a cowardly brute, hunting alone and never attacking an animal able to defend itself.

Queensland contains a great quantity of bats, varying in size from little creatures no bigger than a mouse to flying foxes which extend a wing two feet or more in length. The smaller varieties live on insects, but the larger kinds carry destruction into the orchards of the fruit-grower. Before the country came to be settled the flying foxes lived mostly on honey, and in distributing pollen they performed a useful function. But the settler to-day rarely misses an opportunity of engaging in wholesale slaughter when he finds a camping-place where the flying foxes sleep in thousands, hanging from settler to-day rarely misses an opportunity of engaging

Of approximately 875 birds known in Australia about four-fifths are indigenous to Queensland, and of the latter some are not found beyond her own borders. This applies to the cassowary, the largest bird, which is much heavier and more strongly built than the emu. Not only is the State rich in the variety of its birds, but also in the beauty of their plumage. The handsomest are found among the rifle and bower birds, parrots, finches, pigeons, dragoon birds, and wrens.

In his "Geographical History of Queensland," Archibald Meston enumerates the varieties of each species of Queensland birds as follows:—Three eagles, 1 caprey, 4 falcons, 7 hawks, 1 kestrel, 1 buzzard, 4 kites, 2 harriers, 3 true owls, 6 hawk owls, 3 night jars, 7 Podargus, 1 Caprimulgus, 3 swifts, 2 swallows, 2 martins, 1 bee-eater, 1 roller (dollar bird), 8 wood swallows, 11 kingfishers, 7 Pardolotus, 2 crow shrikes, 4 butcher
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birds, 1 magpie lark, 5 Grauculus, 2 Lalage, Pachycephala (thickheads), 3 Colluricincla (shrike thrushes), 1 shrike tit, 1 Oreica cristata (ventriloquist bird), 1 drongo shrike, 1 Manucodia, 15 flycatchers, 1 Gerygone, 4 Pseudogergone, 1 Smicrornis, 1 lyre bird, 11 robins, 1 coachman, 1 wedgebill, 6 wrens, 1 Cistiola, 5 Sericornis, 5 Acanthiza, 1 Chthonicula, 6 larks and reed warbler, 2 Pittaa, 12 finches, 3 mountain thrushes, 3 orioles, 2 crows, 2 ground thrushes, 10 bower birds, 2 fig birds, 2 Pomatorhinus, 1 Corcoran (chough), 1 Struthidea, 1 starling, 35 honey-eaters, 3 wattle birds, 4 friar birds, 1 fruit swallow, 4 zosterops, 3 rifle birds, 3 tree-creepers, 2 orthonyx, 4 sittellas, 13 cuckoos, 7 cockatoos, 3 lorikeets, 8 parrakeets, 2 fruit doves, 1 cockatoo parrakeet, 6 lorikeys, 7 fruit pigeons, 9 pigeons (seed-eaters), 7 quails, 1 emu, 1 cassowary, 1 bustard, 9 plovers, 4 dottrels, 3 ibis, 2 spoonbills, 1 native companion, 1 jabiru, 2 snake, 4 bitterns, 10 herons, 3 water crakes, 3 water hens, 1 coot, 1 sheldrake, 1 parra, 2

rail, 2 frigate birds, 1 swan, 4 geese, 1 tropic bird, 3 gannets, 2 grebes, 4 cormorants, 1 snake bird (darter), 1 pelican, 10 ducks. Terns, petrels, and other sea birds are not included. Additions have lately been made. Sandpipers and other waders come and go in varying numbers.

Of all Queensland's birds, the zoologist will find most to interest him in the giant cassowary, which is restricted to one spot on the north-eastern coast. No evidence is available of this species having inhabited any other part of the continent, though such was probably the case. The cassowary is wingless, and is the last survivor of a type otherwise long since extinct.

Among birds of flight the most important place is occupied by the parrot family, though Queensland does not possess any of the parrot proper. However, black, white, and coloured cockatoos, and widely-varying parakeets—all of the parrot tribe—exist in plenty, making the forests resound again with their screeching, and dazzling the eyes of the traveller with the brightness of

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Of all Queensland's birds, the zoologist will find most to interest him in the giant cassowary, which is restricted to one spot on the north-eastern coast. No evidence is available of this species having inhabited any other part of the continent, though such was probably the case. The cassowary is wingless, and is the last survivor of a type otherwise long since extinct.

Among birds of flight the most important place is occupied by the parrot family, though Queensland does not possess any of the parrot proper. However, black, white, and coloured cockatoos, and widely-varying parakeets—all of the parrot tribe—exist in plenty, making the forests resound again with their screeching, and dazzling the eyes of the traveller with the brightness of

found where there is timber, but they will sometimes roam far over the plains in search of food. In mountain country they may be seen soaring in the upper air, so far above as to appear little more than specks in the blue of the sky; but they are provided with a wonderfully keen eyesight, which enables them to detect the presence of their prey from great altitudes. Opossums form part of their natural diet, but they are also able to lift a large lamb and fly carrying it in their talons. Related to the wedge-tailed eagle is the smaller crested eagle. Sea eagles and ospreys live from food obtained from swamps, rivers, and such lakes as the country provides. In addition, falcons, goshawks, kestrels, kites, harriers, and some other species live on little birds, carrion, and such food as lies within their reach. The snow-white goshawk is usually regarded as being the most handsome of the birds of prey of Queensland.

Of owls, the great scrub owl is the largest and most hardy. The Australian barn owl is very similar to the
barn owl of England. The boobook gives a call resembling that of the cuckoo. Nightjars and goatsuckers of several kinds have been given the name of Morepork, because they have a call of which that word is almost an exact representation. Swiftlets, the builders of nests which the Chinese use as an article of food, inhabit the north of Queensland. The dollar bird visits the south of the State in the summer. Kingfishers of different varieties are distributed over the State generally, some of them being brightly and beautifully plumèd. The "laughing jackass," however, which is a kingfisher, is beautiful neither in feathers nor in voice, though his loud, echoing "laughter" possesses a cheery note which has made the bird universally popular among bushmen. Plain and bronzed cuckoos are to be found in considerable numbers in various parts of the State.

Among remarkable varieties must be mentioned the birds of paradise and the bower birds, both of which belong to a group that the northeastern corner of the continent possesses in common with Papua. Three kinds of rifle birds and a manucode are native to Queensland; but none of them, in splendour of plumage, rival the paradise birds of Papua. The bower birds, however, attain their greatest development in Queensland. These creatures are remarkable by reason of their strange antics while at play, and the elaborate arrangements they make for their queer dances. The regent bird, satin bird, and spotted bower bird construct for a playground a gutter-shaped pathway, bounded by walls and made of grass. They run up and down this path carrying shells, pieces of bone, and other things which have attracted their fancy and which they have collected. The crested bower bird finds a spot where two saplings are a little way apart, with a vine or some other connection joining them. A family of the birds then surround one sapling with a wall of interlaced sticks, some raising the structure to from six to eight feet in height and ornamenting the outside with moss and lichen. The other sapling is also surrounded, though less elaborately. Between the two the birds have their playground.

Papua is more richly endowed than is any other part of the world in beautifully-plumed pigeons, and this portion of the fauna of the northern island has clearly extended southward, so that Queensland has come to be well-stocked with many lovely varieties of this species. Of these, the maroon-breasted fruit type is the largest, whilst the small fruit pigeons present the greatest contrasts in colouring. The plumed bird and the wonga-wonga are also noted varieties. Evidences have been discovered of the beautiful crowned pigeon of Papua having at one time inhabited Queensland. The latter is a heavy ground bird, and it could not have flown across the Straits, even if aided by a strong wind, so that its distribution, together with that of the scrub hen, must be regarded as further evidence of the land connection at one time binding in one mass the continent of Australia with the islands of the north. The scrub hens are chiefly remarkable by reason of burying their eggs in sand mounds, where they are allowed to remain until the heat of the sun performs the work of incubation. Even more interesting is the method of the scrub turkey, which buries its eggs beneath a mound of rubbish three or four feet in height and from fifteen to twenty feet in diameter. In this instance the incubation is accomplished by heat generated by the decomposition of the dead vegetation. Mounds of this description may be found in the bush in different parts of the State. From such "incubators" the young birds issue forth fully fledged and independent of parental aid.

Of the various other Queensland birds, most are indigenous to some one or more of the other States. Among the forests of the coastal regions, where the map on page 16 shows the rainfall to be heavy, an endless source of interest is provided for the Nature-lover in the great variety of bright plumages and strange notes, whilst the water of each lagoon fairly teems with feathered things—stately black swans, ducks, teal,
divers, and hosts of other water-fowl and long-legged feeders from swamps and the edges of billabongs.

**REPTILES AND AMPHIBIA.**

Among the reptiles of Queensland first place in the matter of size, as well as of danger to human beings, belongs to the crocodile, which is the common crocodile of the western Pacific. It inhabits the rivers of the State to the northward of Keppel Bay and the Fitzroy. This man-eating creature grows to a length of twenty-five feet, and a very long space of time is occupied by it in attaining to maturity, as much as fifteen months being required by the young to reach to a length of that many inches. In the fresh water in the north of the State a much smaller type of crocodile is found. The latter reaches a maximum length of about eight feet, and is harmless so far as man is concerned. There are no alligators in any part of Australia, though the name is often wrongly applied to the native crocodiles. Queensland is inhabited by several kinds of fresh-water tortoises, whilst large marine turtles are found along the coast. The State contains a great variety of lizards, though none of them are venomous. The smaller kinds perform a useful function in keeping in check numbers of insects, in the production of which the northeastern corner of the continent is so prolific. Prominent in the lizard family are the monitors, to which the name iguana has wrongly been attached. These creatures are from six to seven feet long, but they have descended from stock of double that size; whilst an allied type of a bygone age measured thirty feet from nose to tail. Monitors devour carrion, but they also eat poultry. Indeed, they are ready to consume almost anything in the nature of flesh with which they come into contact. Other members of the lizard tribe present some remarkable and interesting traits. The skink possesses a suit of overlapping scales. The sleeping-lizard is a vegetarian, and its only notion of defence is to open wide its mouth and display a great blue tongue. The skinks are of varying shape. Some of them have four serviceable legs. Others possess only two very small legs; whilst the single pair may be found sometimes in the front and sometimes at the posterior end of the body. Others again are quite without limbs of any kind. Geckos possess feet specially constructed so that, whilst in search of insects to devour, they can climb almost anywhere, and indeed may be seen adhering to a window-pane and walking on a ceiling, like flies do. The frilled lizard of Queensland is able to walk for some distance on its hind legs, this gift doubtless being a special adaptation to permit of the creature peering over surrounding grass in its efforts to locate possible sources of danger or supplies of food. Another variety of lizard lives underground, and is often dug up about Brisbane.

Of about fifty varieties of snakes found in Queensland approximately half are venomous, though of these latter not all are dangerous, owing to varying degrees of effectiveness in the poison which they excrete and to the structural apparatus with which they inject it into the victim. Among venomous species, the death adder is the most poisonous, though it is confined to certain districts. In the Central coastal district a poisonous, orange-bellied black snake attains to a length of ten feet. A keel-backed variety, with a ridge down each scale somewhat resembling the harmless water snake, is also to be avoided. Some fatal bites, however, have been received also from the black snake, which is usually to be found near water, as frogs from one of its principal articles of diet. Another venomous type is indigenous to the western districts, whilst about Brisbane most trouble is experienced from a species marked with close-set black-and-white rings and bearing a white crescent on its crown.
Chief among the non-venomous snakes are those of the constricting family. Included in this class is the common carpet snake, which attains to twenty feet in length. Another variety is a black-headed rock snake inhabiting the Central district. Specimens twenty-five feet long of this type are said to have been captured. The green and the red tree snake are not venomous and are not members of the constricting family. Several sorts of water snakes inhabit rivers and billabongs, whilst sea snakes are to be found along the more northern stretches of the coast. The latter are venomous.

Frogs and allied species are the most plentiful types among the amphibia of Queensland. This is another result of the great quantity of insects indigenous to the country. Toads also display many varieties.

### FISHES.

The largest of Queensland’s freshwater fish is the Murray cod, which is found throughout the river system drained by the Darling and its tributaries. These fish attain to a weight of from 50 lb. to 60 lb. The ceratodus presents what, scientifically considered, is the most interesting form of life in Australian waters. In some of the streams of Queensland it co-exists with the Murray cod, and it is believed to have inhabited all the rivers of the Murray system. The ceratodus is one of the oldest surviving species in the world, and for this reason it has been referred to as a living fossil. Its remains have been discovered in rocks in Europe and in southern Asia, the evidence being that the species flourished at a period considered remote even by the reckoning of geologists. The creature is armed with a kind of rudimentary lung in addition to its gills, and it consequently is believed to be able to breathe free air. The popular idea that it voluntarily leaves the water at times for the dry land is discredited by zoologists.

The Queensland coast is particularly rich in edible fish. In the northern waters the giant perch is sometimes 70 lb. in weight; whilst along the southern extremity of the coast groplers are caught weighing 3 cwt. Schnapper and sea bream are plentiful, and sea mullet ascend the rivers in great numbers. The fishing industry as yet is undeveloped; but it is certain that the natural resources of the coastal waters furnish abundant supplies of what should become a cheap food.

The invertebrate marine creatures of waters adjacent to the Queensland coast include many interesting and some commercially-valuable species. Chief among the latter is the marine oyster. The clam is notorious for its size—individuals being three feet in diameter—and because of its great strength, which enables it to hold down the luckless diver until he dies. Sea snails are found in great profusion. Indeed, so numerous are their varieties that they are held to equal nearly three-fourths of all the other mollusca of Australia. Cuttle fish are plentiful, but do not attain to the same great size as they exhibit in some other waters. But the marine creature which has exercised most influence on the physical history of the country, and on its physical geography, is the coral-builder—that being of low structure, which in its myriads has reared up the Great Barrier Reef extending down almost the whole of the east coast of the State, and has formed so many of the adjacent islands.

### ENTOMOLOGY.

Queensland offers a vast field to be studied by the entomologist. Brilliant moths and butterflies of all conceivable colours and great range of size flit through the timber of the coastal hills and glitter in the sunlight of open places. Species of beetles are equally numerous, and are widely different in size, form, and structure. The name of “ladybird” has been fastened to a Queensland beetle nine inches long. The most numerous insects are “white ants,” which erect great hills of earth that the sun bakes on the surface to almost the hardness of rock and are often a great deal higher than a man; and the strange-looking structures may easily be mistaken for outcrops of rock by the newcomer to Queensland as he passes through the country by train or road. The “white ant,” which eats away timber, and would destroy any wooden house that was not protected, is not really an ant. Flies, mosquitoes, dragon flies, and other winged insects exist in great numbers, whilst spiders offer a wide and interesting field, which contains many unique specimens of strange habits. The black spider is poisonous, as also are some other varieties, though death is not likely to occur to an adult from the bite of one of them.

Scorpions and centipedes are able to kill small animals with the venom of their bite, but death to a human being has not been known to occur from that cause.

### CONCLUSION.

The fauna of the country contains many other species of invertebrates, which the limits of space will not permit giving any detailed description of. It may be emphasized that the half-explored and almost unknown forests of the north and the little-investigated waters of the coast offer an enticing field to reward the research of the biologist, as indeed they offer attractions to the Government to turn to better account and more thoroughly develop the economic resources they contain. Very much yet remains to be found out about the animal life of the mighty territory of Queensland, peopled as it is by less than three-quarters of a million inhabitants, most of whom are congregated in the southeastern corner of the State.
The flora of Queensland is more unique than that of any other of the States, its general aspects cannot be studied apart from those of Australia as a whole. In the history of scientific investigation, as well as in distribution of plants, the connection between, say, the coastal districts of neighbouring States is closer than the connection between the coastal district and the interior of any one State.

Fur purposes of convenience the story of the study of the botany of Australia may be divided into three stages. The first of these periods extends from the voyage of Dampier in 1697 to 1837, when, the Blue Mountains having been crossed, Allan Cunningham led an exploring party along the western foot of that range and northward to the latitude of Moreton Bay. During this time investigations were confined exclusively to flora of the coast-line, the interior of the continent remaining a closed book. Investigation during the second period included the collection, examination, and classification of plants of the interior; but the work of these early botanists was beset with many difficulties. At that period Australian colonial governments could afford little to spend on scientific work not yielding direct monetary results. Botanists and explorers worked, for the most part, independently of one another, without any co-ordinating assistance which would compare and classify their discoveries as well as experiment with the new species which were continually being obtained. The third era began with the establishment of self-government and the sudden advance in population and wealth which followed the gold discoveries. The
governments of the separate colonies then began the practice of annually spending portions of their revenues in maintaining botanical gardens, managed with scientific skill and used for original research. These gardens opened the way to a close and accurate study of indigenous plants, as well as to the investigation of the suitability or otherwise to local conditions of species imported from abroad for economic and other purposes.

Although it was left to Carolus Linnaeus, who was born in 1707, to found botanical science, as it is now understood, English knowledge of the Australian flora began in 1697, when Dampier published the account of his voyage to the southern continent. This volume contained rough drawings of a number of specimens of plants which the explorer had brought to Europe with him. Among these have been recognized the casuarina, the tea-tree, the Sturt pea, and a prickly salmon plant, besides others. Eighty-two years elapsed before any addition was made to the slender store of botanical information rendered available by Dampier. But the next expedition proved much more fertile in its production of knowledge of the flora of the southern continent. On this occasion the eastern coast was explored, whereas Dampier's investigations were carried out on the western side of Australia. In 1770 Dr. Solander, a skilled botanist, accompanied Captain Cook, when they spent a considerable time at various points along the coasts of what now are New South Wales and Queensland. In the territory of the latter Dr. Solander collected at Bustard Bay, Broadsound, Cape Grafton, Endeavour River, and Lizard Island. Altogether he obtained specimens of about 1,000 species. This was the beginning of something approaching accurate and useful knowledge of Australian flora. In the following year Menzies, a botanist, was with Vancouver's expedition on the western coast of the continent; whilst in 1772 a botanist named Labillardiere, attached to d'Entrecasteaux's expedition, gathered specimens in the south of Tasmania, the passage between Bruni Island and the mainland of that State being named after the leader of the party.

In 1799 and again in 1802 Flinders pursued investigations along the coast. On the later of these two voyages the famous explorer had with him the botanist Robert Brown, whose name figures so prominently in all works dealing comprehensively with Australian plants and their discoverers. When Brown began his collecting in the beginning of the century the total of known Australian species stood at about 1,300; but so successful was his energetic quest that the figure was raised to 4,000 by the termination of the voyage. Besides specimens being obtained from the southern shores, between the eastern end of the Great Australian Bight and Gulf St. Vincent, search was made along the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria and along the north-west of the Northern Territory. Thus the results of the expedition were as rich in variety as in the number of specimens, for knowledge was thus obtained of the most widely-separated—in heredity as well as in distance—types of Australian vegetation. The differences between the types found in the north and the south lay deeper in origin than could have been supposed at the time, for evidences since becoming available have shown clearly that the immigrant species now figuring so prominently in Queensland and the coast-line of the Northern Territory must have reached these shores while the western half of the continent was still separated by water from the east. Since the fusion of the two land masses an arid belt had divided two parts into a southern and a northern section, except for the connection along the eastern coast. Flinders terminated this voyage in 1803, but not until eleven years later were the botanical results published, and in the meantime the French explorer, Baudin, who had met the Englishmen in Encounter Bay, pirated and published as his own the discoveries of his English contemporary.

A few years later Allan Cunningham, whose name was destined to become famous in connection with Australian botany and exploration, was specially sent by the British Government from Kew Gardens, where he had been engaged in studying plant life, to investigate plant life on the new continent. In 1817 Lieutenant King, under orders from the Imperial authorities, set out to survey the north-western coast of the continent. Four years were spent on this work and other voyagings. Cunningham was attached to the expedition, and he made a collection of botanical specimens. The voyages were made to include the north-east, and a number of landings were made in what now is Queensland. Collections were made at Rodd Bay, Percy Isles, Cleveland, Halifax Bay, Rockingham Bay, Endeavour River, as well as other points along the coast. In 1828 Cunningham, accompanied by C. Fraser, who at that time was colonial botanist, made an investigation of the flora between Brisbane and Cunningham Gap in the Main Range. During the following year Cunningham again was collecting in the neighbourhood of the Brisbane River, and the Queensland hoop pine (an Araucaria) has been named after him, whilst several Queensland plants bear the name of Fraser.

The second stage in Australian botanical research was opened by Cunningham in 1827 when, in command of an expedition equipped at the expense of the Imperial Government, he crossed the Blue Mountains, traversed Liverpool Plains, and penetrated as far north as the latitude of Brisbane. Altogether this indefatigable investigator added the names of 1,300 new species to the known list of Australian plants. He died in 1835, when accompanying Mitchell on an exploring expedition. At that time some 6,000 Australian flowering plants
were known, and considerable progress was being made at grouping them.

The names of a number of colonial botanists occur in connection with subsequent collections in Queensland.

In 1836 James Backhouse found hitherto unknown varieties about Brisbane, and a genus of the Myrtle family (Backhousia) has been called after him. Sir Thomas Mitchell collected on the Warrego, Maranoa, Barcoo, Belyando, and Noga in 1846, and his name has been given to the native pomegranate (Capponis Mitchellii). Collections were made in Southern Queensland, and from the Darling Downs to Essington, by Leichhardt during 1843-5. John McGillivray obtained new specimens along the Queensland coast in 1847-8; whilst W. Carron, who accompanied the ill-fated expedition led by Kennedy to Cape York in 1848, added considerably to the list of known plants. A native Banchina (B. Carroni) was named in his honour. J. T. Bidwell's name was given the bunya pine (Araucaria Bidwilli), though the first discoverer of that celebrated species was Andrew Petrie in the year 1840. Bidwell collected at Moreton Bay and the Mary River. The tree Randia Fitzalanii was named after Eugene Fitzalan, who collected with Lieutenant Smith's expedition to the Lower Burdekin. William Landsborough, who became known chiefly through exploration, collected in North-western Queensland in 1861. Collecting was done at Botany Bay by Dr. H. Beckler, who went with the ill-fated Burke and Wills expedition as botanist to the party. W. R. Guilfoyle, of the Melbourne Botanical Gardens, and Charles Moore, who occupied a similar position in Sydney, both collected in Central and Southern Queensland, the name of the latter having been given to the Springuro cycad (Macrozamia Moorei). M. A. Thozet, who lived at Rockhampton, rendered available a quantity of valuable information connected with the flora of that district, and sent specimens to Baron Mueller, the famous scientist, who was Government Botanist of Victoria. The name of this collector was given by Mueller to the genus Thozetia.

Walter Hill, curator of the Brisbane Botanical Gardens, accompanied Dalrymple's expedition to the northern coast in 1874, and his name has been given to the scrub ironwood (Myrtus Hillii). In 1889 F. M. Bailey, well known because of his published work on Queensland botany, went with a Government scientific expedition to Bellenden-Ker Range and the Mulgrove and Russell Rivers, and during that enterprise he added 100 new names to the list of plants of the State.

BACA HYGROSCOPICA.

SARCOCHILUS HARTMANNI (MOUNTAIN ORCHID).
The Johnstone River hardwood (*Backhousia Bancrofti*) was named after Dr. T. L. Bancroft, and the northern kauri pine (*Agathis Palmerstonii*) and a *Cryptocarya* were named after Christie Palmerston. Another successful collector was Alexander McPherson, who devoted a deal of attention to native fibres. In 1887 the botanist Sayer, who was collecting on the Bellenden-Ker Range for Baron Mueller, discovered a specimen of the *Dracophyllum Sayeri*, which is considered to be one of the most beautiful wild-flowers in the world. J. F. Shirley, D.Sc., has accomplished valuable original work in connection with lichens, and the *Cupania Shirleyana* has been named in his honour. Successful collecting in the Gulf country has been carried out by Edward Palmer. The discovery of Meston's Mangosteen (*Gar-*)

Many hands have contributed to the classification and naming of Australian plants, which now number over 10,000 known varieties, including the higher varieties of seaweeds and fungi. The established list of veined-leaf plants is about 9,000, and is continually increasing as fresh discoveries are made. Among early workers who either wrote about Australian plants or helped botanists engaged in that task was Sir Joseph Banks. Solander and J. Rheinold Forster, both of whom had accompanied Captain Cook, helped with their pens, though the latter proved the more prolific author. Sir J. E. Smith was responsible for the publication of some illustrations of Australian plants in 1793; whilst, in Paris in 1804-6, De la Billiardiere worked up and published a summary of the then known flora of the southern continent. But it was left to Robert Brown, who had accompanied Flinders on his long voyage of the coast, to lay the real foundations of the scientific study of the botany of the country. In 1810 Brown began the publication of a prodromus of Australian flora, and in 1830 he brought out a volume supplementary to this work. Brown's draughtsman during the voyage with Flinders (Bauer) in 1813, and Robert Sweet, in 1827, brought out volumes of Australian botanical illustrations.

Floras have been published by the various States, but these works have lacked unanimity in the adoption of a common system of naming and grouping species, and consequently they do not render the aid which might be expected of them to the student desiring to compare the flora of one State with another. A comprehensive and at the time excellent work, "Flora Australiensis," was carried out by George Bentham, but it does not carry the reader beyond knowledge available in 1876. However, the work of recording subsequent discoveries was undertaken by Baron von Mueller in his "Fragmenta Phytographia Australiz." The same author in 1889 prepared a "Census," which is of great value in comparing the flora of the various States with one another. But as this still is practically the only work available for the purpose, the following list of the principal older books in which Australian plants were first described should be useful to the student:

1697—Dampier: A voyage to New Holland.
1776—Forster: Characteres generum plantarum gerunt. London, fo. 76 pp., 75 plates.
1797—Forster: Herbarium Australiae. Gottingen, 8vo.
1813—Bauer, Ferdinand: Illustrations Florae Novae Hollandiae.
1814—Robt. Brown: Prodromus, General remarks on the (geog. and system) botany of Terra Australis. 4to, 84 pp., 10 plates.
1825—Cunningham: Botany of the mountain country between the colony of Port Jackson and the settlement of Bathurst. 8vo. (This is one of the papers in Baron Field's Memoirs on New South Wales.)


1838—J. Lindley: 77 Nova sp. plantarum (in Mitchell's “Three Expeditions”).

1839—J. Lindley: Sketch of the vegetation of the Swan River Colony. 8vo., 58 pp., 18 col. figures (Supplement to 23rd volume of Edward's Botanical Register).

1844-7—F. Lechman: Plante Preissiana.

ELEMENTS OF AUSTRALIAN FLORA.

In his “Census of Australian Plants, 1889,” Baron von Mueller enumerates 8,839 well-established species. Additions made since that book was written do not introduce any new principles into the discussion of the flora of the country. Of the total dealt with by him, von Mueller grouped the species into 156 natural orders, comprising 1,409 genera.

The present article has already pointed out that the Australian flora contains an autochthonous element, a tropical immigrant element allied to the oriental vegetation, and an arctic element allied to vegetation indigenous to the Andes in South America. The first of these three groups, like the fauna of the country, dates its first existence on the Southern continent to a remote geological period, and contains many types long extinct in other parts of the world. Species which elsewhere have vanished when more modern types have appeared in the arena of struggle for subsistence in Australia have remained isolated from such competitive strife, and the internal environment of the continent has failed to itself either produce new types analogous to those springing into existence across the seas or to modify existing types along lines parallel to those on which botanical evolution was shaping its course under different conditions. Of the fossils found in Australian rocks, some fifty are known to survive, and seventeen of this number are confined solely to this continent. These belong to the genera Byblis, Casuarina, Cephalotus, Santalum, Nyysia, Polyspholyx, Persoonia, Grevillea, Hakea, Lomatia, Banksia, Dryandra, Callicoma, Ceratopetalum, Boronia, Eucalyptus, and Phylloglossum. With the exception of Persoonia, Hakea, and Boronia, all these genera have left their fossil remains to be discovered in Europe, some of them having lived as far north as Greenland and Spitzbergen, though they have long since been exterminated from the Northern Hemisphere by the competition of newer and better-adapted species, or by climatic change, or both. North America contains seven of the other species still surviving, or species closely allied to them, and Brazil two. The East Indian islands contain sixteen, Japan three, the Island of Bourbon (off the African coast) one, the Himalaya Mountains one, Syria one, Europe three, and New Zealand two. Conversely, there are species which, though in a far-ancient time they lived in Australia, have since become extinct in this continent, but survive elsewhere. Among these are the Sequoias (pines) from which the giant pine of California is indistinguishable, the latter now yielding the timber America exports from Oregon to Australia, as well as to other places.
From these facts it will be inferred that at an earlier stage of the world's history specific species of plants were much more scattered over the face of the globe than is now the case. Indeed, such a conclusion is irresistible. This may be accounted for by two explanations. The climate of the earth may have greatly altered, or plant life may have once possessed greater adaptability to contend against difficult conditions of survival than that which it is now able to exercise. The latter theory is in contradiction to what are generally accepted as the principles of biological evolution. Species almost everywhere gain in adaptability to withstand adversity, and only in the odd instance of a decaying type do they recede in fitness to survive. A third hypothesis is that species may have lost general adaptability to many environments because of modifications necessary to securing increased special adaptability to peculiar and limited environments. We have collateral evidence of a very definite nature of the climate having changed very materially in many lands, and particularly in Australia. So great have been some of the climatic alterations in this continent that the southern districts of South Australia, Western Australia, and particularly Bacchus Marsh, in Victoria, all show distinct geological signs of a glacial period having been passed through in those localities. Still other causes may have been responsible for the much wider distribution of tree life existing in the Tertiary period. An explanation has been attempted to the effect that the development of monocotyledons, including grasses, after the Miocene period, affords sufficient reason to account for the modification of tree species, and particularly for an alteration into highly-specialized forms adapted to special local conditions. In support of this suggestion it has been pointed out that the teeth of the early mammals were better suited for masticating twigs, bark, and fruit than for browsing on pastures. From these premises it has been argued that instead of keeping down the pastures as they now do, the mammals, by living exclusively on trees, allowed the herbage of highly-inflammable vegetation to accumulate so thickly, close to the ground, that when summer fires occurred they wrought terrific destruction, and all the flora on wide regions was in danger in hot, dry weather of annihilation. But the explanation of the origin of fires before the advent of man presents a weak link in that chain of reasoning.

To return to the distribution of species now or at some other period indigenous to this continent, apart from the fascinating, if quite speculative theories as to the causes of the various migrations, we find that the flora of New Zealand during the Tertiary period displayed little affinity with that of Australia, but that during the Mesozoic period many types were common to both, whilst some of these latter survive to-day in the shape of closely-allied species. Among those lingering species are the Ginkgo pine of China and Japan, the Araucaria or "Norfolk Island pine," and the Dammara or "Kauri" pine. Fossils of plants which are identical, though of genera now extinct, are still more numerous among the ancient coal beds of South Africa, India, Tongquin, Australia, and New Zealand.

The immigrant forms in the Australian flora have descended from families of comparatively recent date, and not sufficient time has elapsed since their arrival on this continent to allow for any marked modification in their characters. Even on the north-eastern coastal districts, which were connected with other countries at a much later date than was any other part of Australia, and where the immigrant tropical plants were more suited to meeting the difficulties of Australian conditions than were newcomers to other places in the continent, numbers of species, after being cut off from reinforcements, have died out in the face of competition with local types. When the invasion of the east was occurring, the west still existed as a separate island, and after the continent altered its shape to something approaching the present conformation the immigrant species of tropical and semi-tropical regions along the north-eastern coastal fringes were weakened with a cessation of reinforcements, whilst the autochthonous flora, being better adapted than the strange types to cross the arid intervening space, were continually coming from the west and strengthening the original species in its struggle for supremacy. This caused the extinction of many immigrant families and accelerated the modification of other families. Where the oriental types gained the ascendancy it had happened that the successful types possessed traits specially fitting them to the kind of fight for existence which the new environment imposed.

Australian deposits were preserved in the eastern side of the continent mainly by the outpouring of lava from volcanoes having covered drift-deposits over wide areas. Much of the country on which this phenomenon occurred has been found rich in minerals, and mining operations have brought to light the material on which has been built so much of the knowledge gathered by biologists. Some very interesting and unique instances of this covering of igneous rock is to be observed in the western district of Victoria and in the south-eastern district of South Australia. A chain of extinct volcanoes dots this belt of country for more than three hundred miles, whilst the lava sheets covering the surrounding country in places take a peculiar crinkled form, and are known as "stony rises," the successive, wave-like ridges being roughly parallel to one another and attaining to from 10 to 40 feet in height. Many of the volcanoes have been in active eruption in times which, as time is reckoned by geologists, were as
yesterday. Besides fossils having been found in the Silurian deposits beneath the rock, much later specimens, such as trees identical with species now existing, have been excavated from mines, several typical instances having occurred about the Pitfield district, where gum trees were found, not fossilized, but preserved in such a state that though apparently unaltered in shape they fell to dust when removed. These appeared to have been buried when still in a living state and to have been covered with molten rock before decomposition had caused any material changes. In other instances the outpouring of lava has clearly occurred at times of great antiquity.

THE QUEENSLAND SECTION.

Accompanying the article on "The climate of Queensland" appearing in this volume is a map showing the respective rainfall belts of the continent. From this may be gathered the natural divisions in the flora of the Commonwealth and of Queensland. The differences in environment as between the far interior and the coastal region are, from a botanical view-point, of the widest character, and have occasioned the fundamental divergence between the flora indigenous respectively to the two types of country. Abundant rainfall, coupled with fertile soil and tropical warmth, has produced a coastal vegetation of a luxuriant and prolific description. Within a hundred miles or more of the ocean the type of plants to survive has been made up partly of quick growers, sometimes of those thrusting their leafy heads highest from the tangled undergrowth beneath, others of the climbers able to encircle within their trailing stems the greatest quantity of forest giants around, and always of those best able to compete for space rather than to resist what may be called the direct attacks of climate. Competition, in the conflict of life in the tropics, has lain between plant and plant rather than between all plants and the vagaries of a hostile environment. But when the botanist approaches to the dead heart of the continent he finds quite other influences at play and quite other botanical results accruing. Away from the coastal rainfall and approaching the central desert, where sandhill rolls after sandhill in parallel line for hundreds of miles, or where vast arid expanses of bare plain stretch to the heat-glimmering horizon as far as the eye can reach, survival value rests with the capacity to grow with a minimum of moisture and to retain life in a state of suspension during long periods of complete absence of moisture. Between these extremes the natural flora of the State bears modifications fixed according to the affinity of the prevailing environment to the one or the other extreme of climate.
Whether belonging to the original Australian element or to the immigrant cluster of families, each surviving species has found the environment in which it has been able to carry on the battle for existence by reason of inborn adaptation to some set of circumstances existing between the rich soil and arid climate of the interior and the fertility and copious rainfall of the coast.

There are now something above 200 naturalized plants flourishing in Queensland. The conditions of the more prolific regions of the State so closely resemble those of tropical countries, where a long settlement and many generations of industry have led to close knowledge of the economic use of the natural floras, that the free importation and successful cultivation of species of all kinds of plants from abroad sometimes offered the speediest way for the pioneers of this State to most rapidly and with least risk turn the generous climate and soil of the country to its profitable industrial use. This has caused a partial neglect of indigenous species which otherwise would have attained to a recognition of their high value. A typical example of this truism is provided by the native fruits.

**QUEENSLAND TIMBERS.**

Until quite recently the politicians and people of Queensland had barely awakened to the value of the resources lying untapped in the millions of acres of mighty forests which were regarded rather as an impediment in the way of the intending pastoralist or agriculturist than as a marketable asset of high value. Even to-day only the haziest notion is possessed by all but a few botanists and other scientific investigators of the worth of the local woods, both in variety and number of economic species and in the approximate quantities of each available for use.

For ornamental purposes, no less than for all kinds of building, the forests of Queensland contain an abundance of supply to support a large and remunerative export trade. The continuance of the import trade in household and office furniture is a result solely of neglect to develop a natural resource; whilst the fact of a larger amount of Queensland-made furniture, or of such articles made elsewhere in the Commonwealth from Queensland wood, not being sold for consumption in southern States is further illustration of the results of the unfortunate habit of utilizing imported commodities, coupled with a lack of local enterprise, though the latter condition doubtless is accounted for by so many other fields awaiting the enterprise of the capitalist in this most potential of States.

Of late years the Queensland Government has done a good deal in the way of opening the eyes of the public to the rare beauty and almost endless variety of local timbers by displaying polished specimens at agricultural shows and exhibitions, both at home and abroad; but the expenditure of a great deal of capital is certainly necessary for the development of this latent resource. When all is said in extenuation of the lack of enterprise displayed over so many years by capitalists and Government in the neglect of this promising industry, ground still remains for wonder at the long continuance of the Australian import trade in timber for so many purposes in the face of the cost of transit and the high price charged to the consumer. So far back as 1895 Mr. A. Meston wrote that Queensland possessed in her indigenous flora a thousand species of timber "of all varieties, from the lightest to the heaviest, the softest to the hardest, in all colours from ivory white to ebony black, suitable to every purpose for which timber is used in the civilized world." And since these words were written very much subsequent knowledge has been gathered which, on application, would make the local timber industry even more profitable than it could have been a quarter of a century ago.

Owing partly to the large physical dimensions of the State, as well as to delay in the expansion of the timber industry, popular confusion still exists in relation to the classification and names of species of trees. In many instances identical species are known by different names in different localities. With the view of attaining some common understanding among saw-millers and others, F. M. Bailey, F.L.S., at that time botanist to the Government, prepared a list of woods, together with the purposes for which they were suited, as well as the popular terms by which they were generally known. Mr. Bailey points out:—"The arrangement here used is to point out that there are woods adapted for the various uses to which this material is applied. The kinds mentioned are a few only out of the number suitable for the particular purpose, and many are adapted for other work besides that under which they may be placed."

The classification, as given by Mr. Bailey, is as follows:

**Ternery**—

- *Acacia pendula*, A. Cunn. Weeping Myall.
- *Pygeum Turnerianum*, Bail.
- *Canthium buxifolia*, Benth.

**Building Woods**—

**Hard Woods**—

- *Eucalyptus Planchnoniana*, F. v. M.
- *E. siderophloia*, Sm. Blackbutt.
- *E. tereticornis*, Sm. Queensland Blue Gum.
Soft Woods—
E. resinafera, Sm. Jimmy Low or Red Stringybark.
E. maculata, Hook. Spotted Gum.
A. Bidwilli, Ait. Hoop Pine.

Verandah Floors—
Diplanthac tetraphylla, R. Br.

Piles, House-stumps, and Underground Work—
Eucalyptus corymbosa, Sm. Bloodwood.
Tristania suaveolens, Sm. Swamp Mahogany.
Syncarpia laurifolia, Ten. Turpentine.

Cabinet Furniture and Joinery Work—
Wormia alata, R. Br.

Fishing—
Terminalia sericeocarpa, F. v. M.
Chrysophyllum pruniferum, F. v. M.

Carving and Engraving—
Capparis nobilis, F. v. M.
C. Mitchellii, Lindl. Native Pomegranate.

Tool Handles—
Diospyros spectabilis, F. v. M.

Buggy Shafts—
Eucalyptus botryoides, F. v. M. Apple Tree.

Buggy Shafts—
Eucalyptus maculata, Hook. Spotted Gum.

Packing Cases—
Ficus colossea, F. v. M.
F. Cunninghamii, Mig.
F. macrophylla, Desf. Moreton Bay Fig.
F. pleuocarpe, F. v. M. Johnston River Ribbed Fig.
F. Watkiniana, Bail.
F. cassipes, Bail.
F. glomerata, Willd.

Spar—
Calepodium tomentosum, Wight. Poonepar Tree.
Podocarpus elata, R. Br. She Pine.
Sheaves for Blocks--

Oats--

Staves--
Torvietia angroedendron, Benth. Strawwood.
Acacia decurvedens, Wildl. Green Wattle.
Alstonia villosa, Blume.
Litsea reticulata, Benth. Bally Gum.
Grevillea robusta, A. Cunn. Silky Oak.
Carnarvonia araliafolia, F. v. M. Red Oak.
Darlingia spectabilissima, F. v. M.
Cardwellia sublimis, F. v. M. Northern Silky Oak.
Musgravea leptostachya, F. v. M.
Stenocarpus sinuatus, Endl. Tulip Flower.
S. salignus, R. Br.

GRASSES.

From the view-point of her industrial history and her industry as at present existing, the most important section of the botany of Queensland lies with her grasses and other fodder plants. No part of the Commonwealth is so rich in natural pastures as is this State, and few, if any, parts of the world are richer. In addition to possessing a phenomenally large number of varieties the State produces grass unrivalled both for the rapidity of growth after rain and for its nutrition. Pastoralists everywhere agree that for stock-breeding, and particularly for fattening purposes, a mixture of fodder plants is necessary, and that the best results usually are obtained from a wide variety of plants. Among the elements contributing to the success of grazing enterprise in the north-eastern portion of the continent is the large total of distinct species of pastures and herbs available for use on each run. Twenty years ago A. Meston calculated that 250 distinct species of grass had been collected in Queensland and classified, “very few of which could be classified as useless.” Others have been added to the list since. In 1844 Leichhardt, the explorer, gathered specimens of seventeen species of grass on thirty yards of cattle track near Ipswich. Bailey, the highest authority on Queensland botany, has written that no part of the State can be said to be destitute of good grass, and Meston wrote of the “Mitchell” grasses of the interior:—“Their special value lies in their astonishing vitality, as the smallest shower of rain produces a remarkable resurrection, transforming the presumably dead plants into living, green, healthy herbage. Even when dry they are sweet and nutritious, specially adapted by Nature to harmonize with their environment, and submit to floods and droughts with equal equanimity.”

Some unfortunate changes in the proportions of varieties of grasses growing in the pastoral areas of Queensland have succeeded the occupation and settlement of the country. These have been ascribed to the mingled effects of over-stocking and drought. Probably, however, the same results would have accrued had no attempts ever been made to put more sheep and cattle on the land than it was capable of properly carrying; whilst droughts doubtless occurred with as much severity and frequency before white men came to the country as after. The killing-out of certain species of grass was a necessary concomitant to any kind of pastoral settlement. The presence in the land of a new kind of grass-eating animal in the numbers which it paid the pastoralist to stock their runs created a change of environment destined to produce inevitable changes in the flora. Sheep and cattle, but more particularly the former, which are able to eat so much closer to the roots of the plants, were certain to concentrate their attentions upon the sweeter kinds of grass in preference to others. The killing-out, or at least reduction of the former was, therefore, bound to follow pastoral occupation in many localities. The influences of occupation, however, except in the case of prickly-pear areas, which present another problem, have not in any case been such that there are not plenty of good kinds of grass left in every area of real value; whilst, in very many instances, the effect of stocking has been thoroughly beneficial, inasmuch as coarse grasses have gained in usefulness, and by reducing the length of the pastures the sheep and cattle have increased its density.

Most people who have had any dealings with pastoral matters in Queensland are familiar with the name of “Mitchell” grass. In point of fact, several grasses in different localities are known by this term. Most of these are kinds of Astrebla, and are peculiar to the far west. In the Gulf country a favourite grass is Anthistiria membranacea, known as the Landsborough, Barcoo, or red grass. This species possesses valuable fattening qualities, and stock consume it greedily when it is in a quite dry condition. It grows with great rapidity, and is suitable for hay-making. The satin-top is a highly-nutritious species, which, when the land is unstocked or only lightly stocked, attains to a height of from four to six feet. Blue grass (Andropogon sericeus) is a nutritious, proli fic, and quick-growing kind. Kangaroo grass (Anthistiria ciliata), which covers so large an area of Australia, is widely valued in Queensland, as also are species of the genus Panicum. One of the latter, P. flavidum, is known as Vandyke grass. Mixed with these species are found love grasses (Eragrostis). Unlike the scrub lands of so much of the remainder of the continent, those of Queensland contain many rich and easily-digestible grasses, a merit to be justly claimed also for the swamps.

OILS AND FIBRES.

Useful essential oil is obtained from species of Queensland Eucalypts. The Backhousias and the Melaleuca are other myrtaceous trees, beside the Eucalypts,
yielding rich essential oil; and the weed popularly known as "Brisbane Penny Royal," of the order Labiatae, gives 7 oz. of sweet oil from each 100 lb. of leaf. The nut-like fruits of the northern district are so rich in oil as to render their collection a probably profitable industry of the future.

Good fibre has been shown to be contained in many Queensland plants, and in some districts these grow in considerable quantities. Other plants have been demonstrated as suitable for pulping for paper-making purposes. This fact, coupled with the prolific nature of the forests, yields sufficient evidence to justify the inclusion of paper-making in the list of the Queensland industries of the not distant future, especially in view of the rapid strides with which the world's demand is overtaking the sources of supply being exploited at the time of writing.

**FRUITS.**

As already mentioned, the cultivation of indigenous fruits has been retarded in Queensland by the ease with which imported species may be made to yield their best results in the State. Other industries, such as saw milling, has not been handicapped in this way. It is easier and cheaper to use local woods than to use timbers grown locally from imported species, partly because of the length of time which would be involved in the latter operation. While the forests stand awaiting the axe of the timber-getter, the horticulturist, to obtain satisfactory results, would not only have to plant and grow the local fruit trees, which would take as long as to similarly cultivate imported species; but he would need to develop the former by means of selection spread over generations. It is true that many local fruits are palatable in their wild state and contain considerable food value, but the tendency is all in the direction of inducing the private horticulturist, working for his own profit, to permit indigenous species to lie in obscurity whilst he markets kinds already familiar to the consumer, and which have inherited the accumulated labours of many generations of conscious and unconscious selection and culling. Yet the Queensland forests contain many native fruits which will one day be highly favoured by the inhabitants, as well as be exported to other countries.

Among the indigenous fruits should be mentioned the Davidsonian plum (fruit of *Davidsonia pruriens*), which is as large as a goose egg, very juicy, and refreshing. The Herbert River cherry (*Antidesma Dallachyanum*) is used for making jelly described as being equal to the best red-currant. Several other indigenous fruits are used for jam-making, especially *Eugenia*. A fruit of North Queensland, named *Garcinia Mestoni*, is allied to the mangosteen. It is the size of a large apple and is very pleasantly flavoured. Two members of the orange family are indigenous to the State, one of them being found in the southern district. In addition, the State possesses various kinds of edible mushrooms.

**MEDICINAL PLANTS.**

A remarkable plant of the west, popularly known as "Pituri" or "Pitcherie" (*Doboisia Hypnoides*), may be mentioned here. This species grows as a low bush, and the young shoots were used by the blacks, who collected them after a passing fire had scorched the leaves and older branches. The shoots were dried and then carried about in bags, perhaps for hundreds of miles and were treated as being a very valuable commodity by the natives, who were in the habit of bartering them for such things as were most prized among them. The plant was used, after being mixed with a certain ash, by being chewed at corrobories a piece being passed from black to black, each of whom held it in his mouth for a few seconds. On long journeys a man would carry a small piece of the stuff with him, finding that by chewing it occasionally fatigue and other hardship were more easily endured. At other times the plant could be made to act as sleeping-draughts do on Europeans. But no effect was produced in the direction of producing courage. The use of pituri was observed by Kennedy, the explorer, in 1847, and also by members of the
Burke and Wills Expedition. King, the survivor of that ill-fated party, said to chew the plant made him forget his misery and the physical hardship which he was suffering. In fact, he found that the plant acted like alcohol. This is borne out by observation of its effects on the natives. When one of them consumes a quantity in excess of the ordinary he falls into so heavy a sleep that he can be aroused only with difficulty. The country on which the pituri grows lies on both sides of the western Queensland border, whilst myoporoides, another species of Duboisia, is indigenous to the eastern coast of the continent. Meston says the active principle is an alkaloid called “Duboisine,” possessing the same power of dilating the eye as atropine of belladonna, but of far greater potency. It was first introduced into medical practice by Dr. Petit, of Paris, in 1878.

Active medicinal properties have been found in a number of Queensland plants, and the flora of the State offers a wide field for further investigation along that line. For inhalation in phthisis the oil of the broad-leaved tea-tree (*Melaleuca leucadendron*) has been used as an antiseptic. The clarified gum of the white gum tree (*E. hemastoma*) has been found to possess properties for healing cuts and old sores. A check on diarrhoea has been discovered in the exuding crystallized gums of bloodwood trees, Moreton Bay ash, and some other Queensland species of Eucalypts. The local fever-bark tree (*Alstonia constricta*) yields a powerful tonic of use in cases of general debility. It has also been used effectively in the earlier stages of typhoid. The leaves of *Duboisia myoporoides* yield an extract largely availed of in ophthalmic practice.

**GENERAL FEATURES.**

The general, and what may be termed superficial, character of the Queensland flora has often been described, but frequent inaccuracies have been dropped into by travellers and others not familiar with the research work carried out by Australian botanists. The popular names given to many indigenous species alone are enough to throw the unwary off the track leading to reliable information. For instance, the desert sandstone country produces a plant which, though called spinifex is not a spinifex; whilst a real spinifex found in the coastal district is not called a spinifex. The so-called silky oak belongs to the family of beef-woods and honeysuckles. The ash of Queensland has no relationship with the real ash. The black currant belongs to the potato family, and the blackberry is a verbenaceous plant. The list might be continued almost indefinitely.

A common popular error lies in the belief that all the trees are evergreen, and that the bark, instead of the leaves, is shed annually. This generalization, though nearly accurate, is not completely so. In the Cape York Peninsula the following trees are deciduous: —*Cochlospermum Giliivii*, *Bombax Malabaricum* (silky cotton tree), *Sterculia quadridriloba*, *Melia composita* (white cedar), *Cedrela toona* (red cedar), *Sesbania grandiflora*, *Erythrina indica*, *Albizia procera*, *Sorocephalus cordatus* (Leichhardt tree), *Eucalyptus platypylla* (popular gum-tree), and *Picus colossea*. A peculiarity of Queensland trees in general lies in their leaves being set edgeways on the stems, so that both sides of the leaves are alike. This greatly reduces the shade-yielding properties of the foliage.

The heterogeneous beauty and luxuriant variety of the Queensland flora may be easily inferred from its close relationship with that of India. Hooker estimated that there were 500 Indian plants in Australia. Since that calculation was made others have been discovered. The tropical jungles of Queensland contain foliage more superb than that of any other part of the continent and rivalling the splendour of the most picturesque wilds of longer-known lands of similar climate. There also, as in the more southern portions of the State, wild flowers of rare loveliness and fragrant perfume stand perhaps unsurpassed. Ferns vary from the most delicate and perfect kinds to magnificent giant species bearing fronds of enormous size. The tangled forests are frequently rendered impenetrable to the foot of man by richly-hued climbers, which weave about the lower branches of the mighty trees and hang in great festoons. A seemingly endless variety of bright colours and a magnificent density of foliage, in which bright flowers, beautiful orchids, and great variegated leaves intermingle, present scenes of fairylike loveliness. At certain seasons of the year the open country is rendered beautiful by a blaze of wild flowers, among which may be mentioned the Darling Pea, other leguminous plants, various Pimeleas, Goodenias, terrestrial orchids, and liliaceous and amaryllidaceous plants. The lagoons are spangled with beautiful water lilies, whilst, except where dearth of rain has restricted growth, pasture lands display a wealth of green remarkable alike to visitors from southern States and from overseas.

A distinctly Australian order of trees found in great profusion in Queensland is the *Proteaceae*, or silky oak family. The timber from species of this family is noted for the beautiful lines of its grain and the rich and varied hues it takes when polished. The trees are known popularly in the various districts to which they are indigenous as beef-woods, honeysuckles, needle-trees, Queensland nuts, geebungs, tulip flowers, wooden pears, and spanglewoods. This order is found also in Cape Colony, but otherwise, with few exceptions, in no other part of the world. Yet at one time it was widely scattered, and its fossil remains have been found in several parts of Europe. Another order, which is of still greater importance in Queensland, is *Myrtaceae,
represented in Great Britain by small plants, but in this State by the gums, ironbarks, bloodwoods, boxes, peppermints, mahoganies, tea-trees, scrub cherries, and bottle-brushes. Eighteen species of true grape-bearing vines are indigenous to Queensland, and some of them produce fruit, while living in a wild state, as large as marbles. No doubt, if cultivated and subjected to selection, these could be turned into new species of considerable value, as was the case with types discovered in America. There are two Queensland species of limes and five of raspberries. The Chenopodiaceae are represented in Queensland by the extremely valuable salt and cotton bushes, which grow in the arid west, and besides constituting a nutritious food of which stock are very fond, hold exceptional drought-resisting properties.

Among naturalized plants, some have found their way to these shores by accident, in spite of desire on the part of the early settlers to keep them out, and others have been deliberately imported. Among the former are noxious weeds. The most destructive naturalized plants, so far as Queensland is concerned, certainly is the prickly pear, to which a special article is devoted in this work. It is no over-statement to allege that the State Government is faced with no more difficult or important problem to solve in connection with the pastoral industry of the country than that of the eradication of prickly pear from the areas of which it has taken possession and the prevention of it destroying the productive value of other country. Other of the imported noxious plants have found the environment into which they have been transplanted remarkably suited to their needs, and they have developed a fecundity not previously possessed by them in countries to which they were indigenous and which contained many parasites and other natural enemies which have kept them in check. Thus the Bathurst burr, which was brought from Valparaiso in the manes and tails of pampas horses, first took root in Australia along the flats of the Murrumbidgee in southern New South Wales in 1850; whilst no more than six years later, so widely had it spread, that seventeen men were being employed to cope with it on "Goomburra" station, on the Darling Downs in Queensland.

Among valuable species which have spread widely is couch grass, which is supposed to have reached here in horse fodder brought from India, and it was first seen growing in 1834 in Sydney. Four years later it appeared in Brisbane. Italian rye grass was introduced to New South Wales by Dr. Sherwin, who grew it at Mittagong, from which centre it has since spread to other districts, and has manifested valuable stock-fattening properties.

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THE QUEENSLAND ABORIGINES.


INTRODUCTION.

The border line which separates Queensland from other neighbouring Australian States is one purely of convenience, and although the geographical delineation has some slight significance on account of existing local conditions the original natives of Queensland show a wonderful resemblance to the aborigines of other parts of Australia, and consequently represent one race-people or ethnic group, and are recognized as of a "very primitive human type." As to the origin of the Australian race we have no conclusive evidence, though some surmise that it is of a low Caucasian type. It would be
impossible to do justice to the subject here without much conjecture and quoting many conflicting opinions. Skull measurements, however, clearly show that our aborigines are an impure race, standing considerably higher than the Neanderthal man but lower than those of Egisheim and the giant Cro-Magnon of prehistoric times. The aborigines are nomadic hunters, rarely wandering far from the narrow confines of their tribal territory, and differing only from one another in certain degrees of culture, viz., in physical and mental characteristics; their ethnic characters being the same. These primitive people belong to a doomed race, and the rapidity with which they are passing is appalling. In the very early days before civilization began to leave its mark upon these people, families clubbed together in numbers of 200 to 300 for purposes of mutual protection and for other facilities; now hordes of this size are seldom seen, and the individual, however noble a savage he may appear to be, is in his natural state sad, lazy, and incapable of hard work, cares only for himself, though perhaps extending in a lesser degree his patronage to the small groups of some few families within the sphere of his immediate protection.

The Queensland aborigines, together with other members of the Australian race, have been shut off from every kind of contact with the outer world from time immemorial, and consequently, during the vast period of time allotted to their evolution, have progressed very slowly; and though they possess a language they are not able to transmit their thoughts rapidly, but are forced to use many round-about methods to express their concrete ideas. The native, as we know him to-day, may be able to count in a crude way by means of his fingers up to ten, but when first discovered was unable to count beyond two or three, any number above that becoming "many," or something of that sort, which with the assistance of signs and gestures was calculated to aid the understanding.

Writing in the ordinary sense of the word was unknown, though we possess evidence of the use of mnemonic objects in the so-called letter or message-stick, and though they are capable of pictographic art their rock drawings are of a very crude nature.

With the exception of the half-wild dingo, domestic animals were unknown to them, and they were forced to subsist on an irregular food supply, which consisted mostly of fruits and other vegetable substances together with animals caught in the chase. Their diet also included grubs, insects, fish, etc., and it was the duty of the women to collect, and if necessary, though rarely, to cook the food for their men folk. The aboriginal's thoughts are only of the moment, and the future is left to take care of itself. They had no knowledge of the cultivation of the soil, and not a single case has ever been known of a wild Queenslander planting any seed with a view to supplying a future shortage of food.

Queensland differs from its neighbours in the comparative simplicity of its public life, and yet superstition stalked rampant through the land, filling the native with fear and making him attribute all that he could not understand to some baneful influence of magic; it is thus he tries to explain all the numerous phenomena of Nature, and the native magician or medicine-man makes his people believe that he is capable of accomplishing the impossible in scores of different ways; thus—to give two instances only—he can produce rain by magic, or he is able to introduce "spirit children" into the bosom of some unsuspecting female, when circumstances are favourable. But with the advent of civilization these and many other magical practices are the first to retreat into the background. The power of the medicine-men is limited; there is no hereditary chieftainship, and there are no elaborate totemic ceremonies; there is no society of sorcerers and magic is of the individual type. All magic powers are transmitted orally and handed down from one medicine-man to another. An example of private magic is associated with the pointing and singing of the death bone, which is calculated to reduce the victim, provided only he is aware of it, to the lowest possible ebb and to produce death unless some greater and more powerful than he is able to adopt some counteracting method, each acting perhaps quite unconsciously of the other.

The native loves his corroborees, in which he indulges for purposes of amusement and initiation. In fact they are an essential element in his life, and represent "the play, the song, and the dance." It is a feature of such gatherings that the performers were elaborately decorated with feathers and their bodies marked with designs of white and red clay, totemic devices becoming less frequent with the march of civilization, and being replaced in later years by fantastic figures of a more or less modern type.

**SOMATIC AND MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERS.**

In the matter of physical characteristics of the natives there is some considerable variation. The native possesses under ordinary circumstances a very fine set of white teeth, which contrast markedly with his chocolate-brown skin. He possesses curly hair, and the men usually have an abundant growth of beard, and the hair on the neck and back is particularly abundant, and often of a soft, silky nature. Their stature varies somewhat, 5 ft. 5½ in. might be taken as a fair average. They have slender arms and legs, and possess the characteristic dolicho-cephalic (narrow) head with an average index of
QUEENSLAND ABORIGINES.

1. Ready for a dance.
2. Dilly-bag making.
3. Obtaining fire by rotating fire-stick.
4. Fishing with spear and spear-thrower from outrigger canoes.
5. Man and wife. The former in mourning—hair matted with fat.
6. Native huts made of blady grass, Boulia Ker Ranges.
They have the projecting jaw (prognathous) and the platyrhine (flat) nose, and thick lips. The superciliary ridges (overhanging brows) are strongly developed. The women are rarely seen with much hair; custom demands that it should be periodically cut to provide the menfolk, especially the son-in-law, with the necessary material for making human-hair string or cord.

It is very rarely that a man is met with who has not some scars on his body. These may be either
(a) tribal (rarely), or
(b) merely decorative, or
(c) in some cases may be the result of wounds either self-inflicted or retributive.

PHYSIOLOGICAL CHARACTERS.

In temperament they are like great overgrown children, and are capable of tender feelings and affection of a "savage" intensity. It is interesting to note in this connection how very enthusiastically whites of both sexes speak of the native men, women, and children whom they have had in their employ for many years. A correspondent only recently in reply to one of my enquiries wrote:—"Although I see the black of to-day (excepting the good station black) a debased mendicant, I am yet always able to retain the pictures of old. The black is a nobleman, and I have no time for anyone who through ignorance or casual observation thinks otherwise." Mentally the Queenslander resembles not the Negro but the low Caucasian type, from which some urge that he is descended. The influence of environment in Queensland cannot be disregarded, seeing what an important part it has played in the development of the race in the past, particularly noticeable in the effect of the food supply upon camp-life in general. When food is scarce the native has naturally further to roam, and his characteristically thin legs become thinner still—all amusements, corroborees, and even the functions of reproduction are suspended until some such food as a "plenty" of native yams or bunya-nuts proclaims the season of festivities, and the world is young once more.

SOCIOLOGICAL CHARACTERS.

Food Supply.

Queensland being at times subject to drought, the food supply of the Queensland aboriginal, as has been mentioned, cannot be regarded as of a very stable nature, and there are times when the women particularly are forced to go hungry. At such a time the edible earths would come in handy, and we know that women are frequently forced to still their appetites by this means. There is no doubt that within the past the natives indulged in cannibalism, and found human flesh to their liking—an indulgence probably more due to superstition than to actual necessity, and perhaps to the necessity for the restriction of progeny, one of the greatest curses of this doomed race. There is very little cooking necessary, occasionally the seeds ground into flour and made into cakes are placed on the red-hot embers, but otherwise their food is mostly eaten raw. The poisonous elements in certain foodstuffs were eliminated by a process of careful washing in water. The native possesses no pottery, and more generally uses the larger leaves, sometimes coolamuns and the like, as food utensils.

Fire-Making.

Fire was procured by the rubbing of two sticks together until the friction caused a spark sufficient to light a portion of the inflammable material which was placed there for that purpose.

Habitations.

Their habitations varied in different localities according to the material available at the time, the bark of trees or the grasses growing in the neighbourhood
being used for the shelter of their native huts, which might be cupola or peak-shaped, or even a simple "lean-to."

**Clothing.**

Their clothing was of the scantiest, though they were fond of ornament, and enhanced their beauty by decorations either hung on the body itself or by bodily ornamentation. Men and women usually wore a frontlet and a human-hair belt, and sometimes a meagre covering in front; such pubic covers were seldom seen under ordinary circumstances, but were usually worn at corroborees.

**Tools and Weapons.**

They require but few tools for the purpose of obtaining food, and such as they have are quite adequate in a stupefied condition to the surface. Offensive and defensive weapons are numerous, and comprise the fighting spear, clubs, long-handed "swords," boomerangs, throwing-sticks, the large characteristic spear-shield of Northern Queensland, and the smaller "club" shields. In a close hand-to-hand fight, as the result of a private dispute, the stone knife would be brought into play by both parties.

When shifting camp all equipment is left behind with the exception of such implements as are essential for food production; perhaps the man—always on the alert—would carry three spears and one wommera or spear-thrower, and the gin all the surplus tools and utensils, including the water-bag, yam sticks, and boomerangs.

**Navigation.**

The native is not a navigator, but possessed a crude raft for his short journeys in landlocked waters, now rarely, if ever, seen. His single-sheet bark canoe, of purely Australian origin, was chiefly propelled by paddles of mangrove wood. Along the northern coasts of Queensland the much safer dug-out was preferred. It is now used with an outrigger, probably introduced from New Guinea.

**Recreations.**

The native, though nearly always sad, is quite capable of appreciating a joke, and has a distinctively humorous side to his nature. He loves games and sports, in which he is assisted by the younger members of his tribe, who are from infancy taught to be experts in the
use of their toy weapons, and who by mimicking their elders develop a great efficiency before even they are called into man’s estate. As sportmen their dexterity is exceptional, and in tracking and running-down their prey they manifest unusual skill.

Initiation.

As soon as the youth is old enough he is “made” a man, and for some time secluded from all association with women and girls. He has to submit to certain initiation ceremonies, many of which are of a very painful character. He is given instruction in the details of his totem and tabu, by which he learns that certain foods are retained for the exclusive use of the elder members of the tribe; he is shown the bull-roarer, and has its uses explained to him.

Family Life.

Once initiated into the mysteries of manhood, he is free to marry, and usually sets about to acquire for himself a wife from such tribes into which he is legally allowed to marry, carefully avoiding for fear of consequences such members of the group who are not of the class (clan) with whom marital relations are at any time permissible. Marriage by capture is now rare in Queensland, though it was doubtless fairly general years ago; by far the more common method was by arrangement made by some close relations such as brothers of the parties, etc., in any case the marriage custom of the tribe should always regulate the whole method of procedure. The children of such a marriage are often made much of, and are often spoilt, always provided, of course, that the scarcity of the food supply does not demand the death of the infant in the first place. The husband is often fond of his wife in his own peculiar way, but should she in any way cross him or rouse his anger he will not hesitate to deal out to her such blows as he may consider essential to the proper chastisement of his spouse. It has been said that on the whole the family life is a moderately happy one. Hospitality is certainly one of their virtues, and friendly visitors are often entertained right royally by some tribes, even to the temporary loan of a wife—their sincerest expression of it.

Superstition and Magic.

Owing to the native belief that the death of any individual member of the tribe is due to the direct evil intentions of someone, it is not to be wondered at that “death-feuds” pass from one generation to another intermittently, and so the native lives in a constant dread of injuries either by some magical means or by the unseen hand of some enemy who may be on the lookout to avenge some family wrong, real or imaginary, and though revenge may not overtake him for some time, sooner or later the inevitable is sure to happen. The deeply-rooted superstitious belief in magic and superior beings is entirely universal in Australia, and consequently it is almost impossible for us to realize to what extent superstition and magic plays a part in the aboriginal’s life, and the so-called medicine-man is the main medium through which both good and evil magic are practised. Beliefs such as these are instrumental in bringing about rites and practices, together with all other ceremonies, especially those appertaining to initiation, death, and burial, and the native goes to his grave as a result of it.

Religion.

Religion in the ordinary sense the aboriginal has none. The belief in an imaginary Being or Spirit is mainly the outcome of fear. Instead of ancestor worship we find a universal dread of the dead, a fear lest the dead man should return and worry and annoy or in some way injure a former companion. Death is understood
to be but a temporary, though prolonged, absence of the spirit from the body, and during that period methods of keeping the wanderer under control are found necessary, as is shown by the removal of the kneecaps, during the mummification process, adopted by some Queensland aboriginals. This delicate surgical operation removes all possibility of future “walking-about” and consequent annoyance, and to make this doubly sure they adopt the custom of tying the corpse up tightly in a sitting position (Northern Queensland). Though not an object of worship, the sun nevertheless exercises a beneficial influence upon the aboriginal. It is with deliberate intent that members of certain tribes sleep facing the sun and that they place their mummified corpses in the same direction, because in the first beginning of things, so they say, “Sun bring up fella first time.” The Queensland aboriginal, however, reverences the so-called “Daramulun” (probably akin to Buddai of the Moreton Bay natives), a “sky being” of superior powers—their nearest approach to a god—whose voice finds expression in the bull-roarer, and presides over certain initiation ceremonies, and who takes care of the men’s shadows when they go to him in death. The regard and reverence of the Queensland aboriginal for his totem (mostly an animal) need not be dilated upon here; suffice it to mention that if the subject of totemism had a “religious” significance in the early days, tribes have been so broken up and dispersed that the totem animal has lost most of its significance, and omens are no longer given by it, the guidance of recognized authorities and the rigid discipline, dictated by the public opinion of the clan or totem, however, remains a reality.

Death and Burial.

Customs appertaining to death and burial are numerous, and vary in different localities. Whenever death, then, occurs it is not regarded as the result of purely natural causes, but it is attributed to the revenge of sorcerers. The native is not naturally subjected to many diseases, but whenever, through contact with civilization, he becomes attacked he falls a ready prey. As soon as the breath leaves the body of a sick man the man’s hut is pulled down, and the body is prepared for burial by being tied up. In Northern Queensland men of importance were mummified and placed in a sitting position in a hollow tree or cave out of the reach of the dingoes. Very rarely were children treated with such courtesy, women apparently never. The dead were buried in trees or caves, either wholly or in part; after the flesh had been eaten the bones or a portion of these were carried about for months prior to burial. The widow mourns the loss of her husband, covers herself with mud, and avoids the ordinary avocation of life for a time, but as soon as the days of her mourning are over she becomes the wife of one of the younger brothers of her late husband. In Southern Queensland a custom obtained of skinning the corpse and preserving the same in memory of a relative; when a man was killed, or died, in the vigour of manhood, his nearest relatives summoned all their friends to a feast, and the body was skinned, cut up, and devoured amidst the wailing of women and the mournful chanting of men, who detailed in melancholy and monotonous strains the virtues of the deceased and the chief occurrences of his life. The skin was stretched upon two spears and rubbed with grease and charcoal in order to assist in its preservation. Not infrequently the mother carries the dead body of her child about with her until it has become dried up and mummy-like, after which it is disposed of in some secure spot. The dead are seldom mentioned by name again, for they think it would not do; some mischief might result, and the living have no desire to let the dead hear them, to come and see who it was that called, and what was wanted.

* A fine specimen coming from Trinity Bay showing this rare peculiarity is housed in the Queensland Museum.

* A specimen in good state of preservation was obtained from a cave in the Blackall Range, and is in the Queensland Museum.
The History of Queensland.

CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA.

The discovery of Australia is shrouded in mystery both as to date and to the identity of the navigator who first penetrated so far from known portions of the globe as to find the existence of the great southern continent. For many years Abel Tasman was believed to have been the earliest mariner to sight these shores; but about the time of Flinders it came to be recognized that the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria had been seen by other Dutchmen about March of 1606, and again, some months later, by the Spaniard, Torres, who sighted the hills of Cape York Peninsula.

Historians now consider a much earlier discovery of the continent to be established. That the Portuguese had reached Australia prior to 1540 may be considered as certain. The land was known to them as Great Java or Terra Australis. Major, the well-known authority on the history of Australian discovery, writes:—“Our surmises, therefore, lead us to regard it as highly probable that Australia was discovered by the Portuguese between the years 1511 and 1529, and almost to a demonstrable certainty that it was discovered before the year 1542.”

Among other evidence of the continent’s existence having been proved during the sixteenth century is the following passage from C. Wytfliet’s “Descriptionis Ptolemiacae Augmentum Louain,” 1598:—“The Australis Terra is the most southern of all lands, and is separated from New Guinea by a narrow strait. Its shores are hitherto but little known, since after one voyage and another that route has been deserted, and seldom is the country visited, unless when sailors are driven there by storms. The Australis Terra begins at two or three degrees from the equator, and is ascertained by some to be of so great an extent that, if it were thoroughly explored, it would be regarded as a fifth part of the world.”

Further testimony pointing in the same direction is to be found from six ancient maps which, immediately below Java, show a large continent of which the general outline approximates the coast of Australia. These charts bear strong internal evidence of having been made prior to 1540. The earliest of them, which is reproduced in this volume, was presented to the British Museum by Sir Joseph Banks. Two of the others are in the British Museum. The Rev. Julian E. Tennison Woods, in his “History of the Discovery and Exploration of Australia,” expresses the conviction that all six are copies of a French map, though the names of the geographical features where marked are, with few exceptions, Portuguese. These differences between the outline of the continent shown on these drawings and what we know to be the actual coastline is explained by Mr. Major in the following words:—“With respect to longitude, it may be advanced that, with all the discrepancies observed in the maps here presented, there is no other country but Australia lying between the same parallel and of the same extent, between the east coast of Africa and the west coast of America, and that Australia in reality does lie between the same meridians as the great mass of the country here laid down.”

The conclusion to be drawn from the evidence is consistent with what would be expected to occur as a result of the progress of navigation in other portions of the globe. It was by the beginning of the sixteenth century that a passage had been found round the Cape of Good Hope, and a remunerative trade was being carried on with the East Indies. Prominent in these undertakings were the Portuguese. Visits were more than likely paid to Australia by ships blown out of their course too far south, and of which no records have been handed down to posterity. It is to be recollected that the portions of the coast most likely to be visited, namely, those of the north-west, are of an inhospitable appearance and unlikely to encourage further investigation, the shore being low and sandy and bearing a striking contrast to the vegetation-laden islands with which explorers to these southern regions had become more familiar. Moreover, the chances were all against the navigators, not sailing with the set purpose of discovering a new land, ever becoming aware that the part of the continent which they happened to have sighted or landed upon was not merely another of the many southern islands. Probably not a few of
these daring sailors who set out in tiny ships which
to-day we would compare to cockle shells, left their
bones along the arid coast, where food was scarce and
water often difficult or impossible to find. The Spanish
probably shared in the earliest voyages to Australia,
but for international reasons the results of their investi-
gations were carefully concealed. The Dutch, however,
played a prominent part.

Claims to the discovery of Australia have been
made for navigators of dates far earlier than the
sixteenth century, though the foundations of these are
not now believed to rest on fact. In the thirteenth
century Marco Polo described large islands to the south-
east of Java, which were supposed to have been found
by the Chinese. Some colour is lent to the contention
that Celestials were the finders of Australia by the
fact that at that period China was engaged in carrying
on a large trade with the East Indies. It is, however,
probably that Mr. Marsden (the translator of Marco
Polo) and Mr. Major, are correct in their theory that
the southern countries alluded to in reality were the
Indian Archipelago.

The theory has been advanced that Binot Paul-
mier de Gonneville touched at the Australian coast
in 1503. After rounding the Cape of Good Hope
this navigator encountered storms which carried him
far to the north-east, and when he was overtaken
by calm he had lost all knowledge of his bearings.
He reached a large country, which he called
Southern India, and he remained there for a period
of six months, being hospitably treated by the natives,
and ultimately setting out on his return voyage with
one of the native princes on board. An English corsair
plundered the ship, and the journals were lost, but a
declaration as to the facts was made by De Gonneville,
and after being corroborated by his officers it was sent
to the French Admiralty. Madagascar is now considered
to be the country to which De Gonneville in reality
refers. The contention that he reached Australia is
untenable in the face of the inhabitants having been
described as well advanced in civilization, a description
certainly not applicable to the natives of Western
Australia, which is the coast he would have touched if
he actually came into contact with Australia.
The discovery of Australia in 1520 has been claimed to be one of the results of the voyage round the world of Magalhaens in the ship “Vittoria.” Magalhaens, after doubling Cape Horn, sailed westward, and describes a large continent which he sighted to the south of Java. The description applies with fair accuracy to the coast of New Guinea, but certainly is not an account of Australia. Though the discovery of the continent in all probability rests with the Portuguese, it is on other and surer bases than that advanced on behalf of Magalhaens.

The sixteenth century had passed before much more than the bare fact of the existence of the southern continent was known. In keeping secret what little knowledge of the continent they had, the Portuguese were actuated by considerations arising out of an agreement with the Spaniards. The two countries had decided to recognize an arbitrary line, the discoveries on one side of it being the legitimate property of Spain, and the discoveries on the other side being the right of Portugal. It happened that Australia was on the Spanish side of the line. The Portuguese were probably anxious to keep the Spaniards ignorant of the new continent, because they feared a trading settlement might be established which would compete with the interests of Moluccas, which the Portuguese had recently claimed and obtained from Spain by reason of the same agreement as was keeping the hands of the Portuguese off Australia, in addition to a payment in money by Portugal.

A new period of discovery begins with about 1595, when Alvaro de Mendana sailed from Peru for the purpose of founding a colony in the Solomon Islands. Accompanying him was Fernandez de Quiros, who filled the position of chief pilot. The expedition was not successful. The navigators failed to locate the Solomon Islands, but they discovered Santa Cruz, where efforts were made to found a settlement. The attempt led to the death of Mendana.

A result of the voyage was to direct the attention of De Quiros to the existence of the great southern continent, and it was largely he who laid the foundations for future achievements. De Quiros, mistaking Santa Cruz for what is now known as Australia, applied to the Viceroy of Peru for assistance towards making further investigations. The viceroy referred De Quiros to Phillip III., and armed him with letters in support of his application. The monarch granted what was asked of him, and the navigator returned to Peru with the necessary authority. As a result, two large ships and a smaller craft sailed from Callao under the command of De Quiros at the end of 1605. The second largest of the vessels was commanded by Luis Vaez de Torres, after whom the strait to the north of Cape York Peninsula has been named. The first important result from the expedition was the discovery of the New Hebrides, which were concluded to be the looked-for continent, and were named Tierra Austral del Espiritu Santo. While at the New Hebrides the ships separated, and the vessel commanded by Torres continued the westward voyage unaccompanied by either of the other ships, and in August, 1606, sailed through the passage which now bears the name of Torres. Torres describes the passage and the land to the southward, which there is little room for doubt was Cape York Peninsula. After leaving the New Hebrides, which he found to be islands, he sighted what was mistaken for the south coast of Papua, but was in reality the Louisiade Archipelago. “From these,” he writes, “we went along 300 leagues of coast, and diminished the latitude 2° 30’, which brought us into 9°. From hence we fell into a bank of from three to nine fathoms, which extends along the coast to 71° S. lat., and the end of it is in 5°. We could not go further on for the many shoals and great currents, so we were obliged to sail south-west in that depth to 11° S. lat. There is all over it an archipelago of islands without number, by which we passed, and the end of the eleventh day the bank became shoaler. There were very large islands, and there appeared more, to the southward. They were inhabited by black people, very corpulent, and naked. Their arms were lances and arrows and clubs of stone, ill-fashioned. We could not get any of these weapons. We caught in all this land twenty persons of different nations, that with them we might be able to give a better account to your Majesty. They give much notice of other people, though, as yet, they do not make themselves well understood.” It has been thus concluded that Torres was the first white man to gaze on the eastern coast and inland heights of what now forms the State of Queensland. This opinion, however, has not been universally adopted. It was the opinion of Major, but the Rev. Julian E. Tennison Woods points out that the natives are not corpulent, and he says that such a thing as a bow is unknown among them in the whole extent of the continent, and nearly so in the adjacent islands. On the other hand, it has been claimed that bows and arrows are sometimes seen among a tribe at the extreme end of Cape York, which settled there from the Darnley Islands. Mr. J. S. Battye, public librarian to Western Australia, from whose pen was published a history of that State in 1912, and who devotes a chapter to the early discoveries of Australia, in the light of the latest evidence holds to the belief that, despite the references of Torres to islands, what he really saw was the coast of Queensland.

Subsequently Torres sailed through the straits to the north of Cape York, and he demonstrated that the continent was separated by water from New Guinea.
Meanwhile Quiros had returned to Callao, which he reached nine months after he had left it. He continued to petition the Government for money for another expedition, but his representations were not entertained. Torres was unfavourably received at Manilla. His despatch, which is the only record extant of his voyage, was found by the British among the archives of the Spanish Government at Manilla.

Meanwhile other investigations in southern seas were proceeding. An important factor contributing to the accumulation of geographical knowledge which was to mark the next century lay in the formation of the Dutch East India Company in 1602. This was the beginning of an era of activity by the Dutch in southern seas.

The first Dutch ship to cleave the desolate waters of the Gulf of Carpentaria was the yacht “Duyphen.” On November 18, 1605, she was despatched from Bantam to explore the coast of New Guinea. She followed a course which was believed to be west of that country to 19° 45’ lat. The coast was described as being inhospitable and inhabited by warlike blacks, who succeeded in murdering some of the crew. Lack of provisions caused the voyage to be discontinued. Flinders says that the course taken by this ship lay within the Gulf of Carpentaria, and that the land described was a short distance to the south-west of Cape York. The date of this expedition to the coast of Queensland was just five months earlier than the visit of Torres, and the crew of the “Duyphen” were thus the first white men to land on the soil of this portion of the continent. The separate visits to the unknown wilds of Northern Queensland of two independent explorers from different nations, at a time when the existence of the land was unknown, and when the hardships and dangers of long voyages were so great, constitutes a remarkable coincidence.

From the beginning of the seventeenth century the discoveries made by the Dutch in the region of Australia gathered thick and fast. In the ordinary course of their trading voyages to and from Bantam, merchantmen incurred considerable chances of coming within sight of the continent, for they passed almost within the same longitude, and ships of the type used in those early days were liable to be blown out of their course for far greater distances than separated the trade route from the north-western shores of the great southern land. Many a vessel must have left her battered fragments to rot on the barren and uninviting shore of the west, with no survivor to tell the tale of how she had met disaster in the wild fury of some dark night when the navigator had considered himself far from land or rock. There would, indeed, be little chances of the stories of these grim tragedies of the unexplored sea reaching civilized communities, for sailors landing on the shore alive would probably either die from lack of food and water, or would fall in with hostile blacks, whose general inclination was to murder white men when they could.

Among ships to bring away accounts of the western coast of the continent was the “Endraght,” which was commanded by Dirk Hartog, who landed at Shark Bay, which was afterwards made familiar by the discoveries of Dampier. Dirk Hartog left an inscription on a tin plate on the northern end of the island which now bears the name of his ship. The writing was as follows:—“On the 25th of October, 1616, arrived here the ship ‘Endraght,’ of Amsterdam; the first merchant, Gilles Mibais van Luyck; captain, Dirk Hartog, of Amsterdam; the 25th ditto set sail for Bantam; under merchant Jan Steyn; upper steersman, Pieter Dockes from Bil; A.D. 1616.”

Eighty years afterwards the inscription was found by Van Vlaming, who commanded the “Geelvinck.”
He took away the original plate, replacing it by a new one, on which he had copied Hartog's writing, to which he added the following:—

"On the 4th of February, 1619, arrived here the ship 'Geelvinck,' Amsterdam—Captain, Commandant Gerrit Collaert, of Amsterdam; assistant, Jan van Bremen of Copenhagen; first pilot, Michiel Bloem van Esgit of Bremen; the hooker 'Myptaugt'—Captain Gerrit Colleart, of Amsterdam; assistant, Theodorus Heermans of the same place; then the galliot 'Weseltje' --Commander Cornelius van Vlaming of Vlielandt; pilot Coert Gerritz of Bremen. Sailed from here with our fleet on the 12th to explore the south land and afterwards bound for Batavia." More than a hundred years later—in 1801—the plate was found by an expedition led by the Frenchman Baudin.

Frederick Houtman, in the "Dordrecht," commanded a fleet of eleven ships which explored the western coast in 1619. This expedition resulted in some amplification of the knowledge of the coast line of the least fertile side of the continent, and it bears a rather unique interest from the fact that it resulted in the first suggestion that the country might be gold-bearing. Jacob d'Edel, who was supercargo of one of the vessels contained in the fleet, wrote the following account in a letter of the visit to the southern land:—"We anchored in 14 fathoms in 32° latitude, the bottom being level and hard; in full sight of the land the sea was a hundred fathoms deep. We used our best endeavours to make a landing, which, however, could not be conveniently done owing to the steep coast. . . . We then made all sail, and the wind coming round a little, we stood out to sea, not deeming it advisable to continue longer inshore in this bad weather, with such large, heavy ships and such costly cargoes as had been entrusted to our care, and with great peril to lose more precious time; but being content with having seen the land, which, at a more favourable time may be further explored with more fitting ships and smaller craft. We have seen no signs of inhabitants, nor have we kept always near the coast, since it formed large bays, which would have taken up much time. Still, we kept seeing the coast from time to time, until in 27° we came upon the land discovered by the 'Endracht,' which land in the said latitude showed as a red, muddy coast, which, according to the surmises of some of us might not unlikely prove to be gold-bearing, a point which may be cleared up in time."

Among other evidence collected during that portion of the seventeenth century of the part of the continent lying nearest to the regular route of trading ships should be mentioned data collected by Jan Cartensz, who visited the coast of what now is the Northern Territory. Portion of the party was murdered by the natives, and the account of the voyage contains the following statement:—"In this discovery were found everywhere shallow water and barren coasts; islands altogether thinly populated by divers cruel, poor, and brutal natives, and of very little use to the company."

Discoveries of the southern coast of Australia began to be made in 1627. In that year Francois Thysen, in command of the "Gude Zeepaard," sailed across the Great Australian Bight. The country was called Nuyts Land, in tribute to the chief passenger on the ship, whose name was Pieter Nuyts, and who at a later date filled the positions of Ambassador to Japan and Governor of Formosa. The coast is believed to have been followed from Cape Leeuwin to the eastern side of the Australian Bight. The evidence collected was not of a character to conflict with the unfavourable impression of the possibilities of the settlement of the continent which had been derived by discoveries on the western and north-western coast. The view of the land exposed to the Dutchmen consisted almost entirely of seemingly endless leagues of sand ridges and high forbidding cliffs. There were no rivers entering the sea, and no testimony of any latent wealth awaiting exploitation within the barren-looking country.

In the following year De Witt sailed along the north-western coast in the neighbourhood of Kimberley, giving to it the name of De Witt Land. He was not on an expedition of discovery, but was homeward bound from India. During the same year the Dutch East India Company sent out a fleet of eleven ships from Texel on October 28. The ships rounded the Cape of Good Hope, but in a subsequent storm one of them, the "Batavia," commanded by Francis Pelsart, became separated from the others.

The "Batavia" was overloaded with crew and passengers, and was unfit for many weary weeks of buffeting about searching for her bearings. The tale of the experiences of those who comprised her company form what is probably the most thrilling authentic account of adventure in early Australian exploration. For many days and nights the ship held to a course which the navigators fondly believed was taking them to Bantam. But on one bright moonlight night, when fortunately the sea was calm and little wind was blowing, the attention of the watch was directed to a long gleam of white immediately ahead of the ship. A few hurried sentences were exchanged, but doubts were set at rest by the assurance of some of those on duty that they saw but the reflection of the moon upon the surface of the sea. Every one believed the ship to be hundreds of miles from land, and the theory of the moon's reflection seemed perfectly sound. But in a very few minutes the crew and passengers alike learned that the white line was the curling crest of breakers flinging their bulk lazily upon an unknown line of rocks. In a very few moments the ship, which, small and inconvenient as were the craft of that day, drew a tremendous
depth of water, was in the midst of the angry chop of a deep ocean swell which had met with a pioneering obstruction after swinging unimpeded half round the globs. The "Batavia" struck and held fast amidst small islands off the western coast of the continent, and shortly afterwards, to make matters more desperate, a storm of wind and rain arose.

Pelsart gives an account of his dilemma in his journal:—"They could see no land, except an island which was about the distance of three leagues, and two small islands, or rather rocks, which lay nearer. They immediately sent the master to examine them, who returned at nine in the morning and reported that the sea at high water did not cover them, but that the coast was so rocky and full of shoals that it would be very difficult to land upon them. They resolved, however, to run the risk, and to send most of the company on shore to pacify the women, children, sick people, and several as were out of their wits with fear. About 10 o'clock they embarked in their shallop and skiff, and perceiving that the vessel began to break up they redoubled their diligence. They likewise endeavoured to get their bread up, but did not take the same care of the water, not reflecting in their fright that they might be much distressed on shore for want of it. But what hindered them most of all was the brutal behaviour of some of the crew, who made themselves drunk with the wine, of which no care was taken. In short, such was the confusion that they made but three trips that day, carrying over to the island 180 persons, twenty barrels of bread, and some casks of water. The master returned on board towards the evening, and told the captain that it was to no purpose to send more provisions ashore, since the people only wasted those they had already. Upon this the captain went in the shallop to put things in order, and was there informed that there was no water to be found on the island."

Eventually another portion of the ship's company was landed on a second island, but no water was discovered, whilst only a limited supply was on hand. Trouble broke out among the motley assortment of people thus thrust on tiny spots of land in an unknown and apparently uninhabited part of the globe. Water could not at first be found on any of the islands; and part of the crew desired to set sail in the boat in search of the needed supplies in the adjacent islands or the mainland, and, failing that, to steer for Batavia and obtain assistance for those they had left behind them. At first Pelsart would not agree to this suggestion, but
ultimately he consented to it. A deck was put upon the boat, and Pelsart set out in charge of the hazardous expedition.

Pelsart spent three days unsuccessfully searching for water among the surrounding islands, and he then steered for the mainland, where, owing to the heavy surf, he was unable to land. The boat was then turned to the northward, but kept close to the coast. On June 14, ten days after the wreck, they noticed smoke emanating from the land, and, though it was still impossible to put the boat ashore, six of the crew determined to swim through the surf and to discover if where there was fire there must not be men, and where there were men there must not be water. All six landed in safety, and the whole day was spent in searching for traces either of habitation or some stream. Towards evening they discovered four blacks crawling towards them on their hands and knees. On being observed the natives fled. The sailors swam back to the boat, but next day they landed again and obtained a small quantity of fresh water. Encouraged by the latter discovery, the men decided to explore the hills which lay back from the coast, hoping to there find what they sought. They met with no success, and Pelsart in his journal wrote:—"For behind the mountain chain the country was flat again, bearing neither trees nor vegetation nor grass, and being covered everywhere with high ant-hills built of earth, which in the distance were not unlike Indian huts. There were also such multitudes of flies that one could not keep them out of one's eyes." The only discovery during this inland excursion was the sight of eight blacks who would "neither speak nor stop."

Pelsart then left the locality, steering for some distance further along the coast in a northerly direction, but ultimately making a direct dash for Batavia, which he succeeded in reaching on July 5. On his arrival there the authorities made the frigate "Sardam" available for his use, and on July 15 he sailed in her for the scene of the wreck.

After Pelsart had left the refugees on the islands a grim tale of crime was developing. The supercargo, a chemist named Jerome Cornelisz, with a number of accomplices, had remained on the ship, with the hope of refloating her and using her for piratical purposes. Ultimately, however, the vessel broke up and the men on board her were forced to make for one of the islands. The original company was then divided over three important knowledge was gained of the land. Captain Pool set sail on a voyage of discovery to the great south land in 1636 with the "Amsterdam" and "Wezel," but he was murdered at New Guinea, and the expedition returned.

Six years later the Dutch equipped another expedition, which was placed under the command of Abel
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Janssen Tasman. The party was provided with two ships, the 'Heemskirk' and the 'Zeehaan,' which left Batavia on August 14, 1642, and Mauritius on September 5. On the 4th of the following month Tasman sailed again, the plan on this occasion being to steer along the 44th parallel of latitude until reaching the 150th meridian of longitude. If land had not been sighted on this route, the ship was then to be steered more to the northward. On November 17 Tasmania was discovered. Land was first seen bearing east by north. The spot has since been named Point Hibbs.

The attention of Tasman and his companions was at once arrested by the marked difference between the nature of the land ahead of them and those portions of the continent described by previous discoverers. In place of the interminable sandhills and all the traces of an arid interior, the country was clothed thickly in a dense green forest, and behind the forest rose tiers of mountains. Tasman kept sailing along the coast until December 1, when he anchored in Frederick Henry Bay. Next morning a landing was made. The party believed it was on what formed part of the main land of the continent, which was thereupon named Van Diemen Land, in honour of the Governor of Batavia of that time. For many years the title was retained for Tasmania, but it was discontinued in favour of the real discoverer of the island in an effort to rid the place of the unfortunate association which had attached to it during the days which it was used as a convict settlement.

The surprise which the navigators had felt at what they saw from the ocean of the new land was greatly increased on closer inspection. Everywhere the scenery was wildly magnificent—mountain chains rising up against the skyline in orderless profusion, whilst the growth of vegetation filled the Dutchmen with astonishment. The journals of Tasman were lost, but an account of the voyage was published in 1705 by Burgomaster Witsen, who states that he obtained his data personally from Tasman. What first excited the wonder of the explorers was the great size of the trees, some of which they described as being 60 feet from the ground to the lowest of the branches. Surprise was also created at the traces they found of the blacks having stripped the bark off many of the tree trunks, as is a well-known practice with Australian natives requiring material either for canoes or for huts. This, coupled with steps some seven feet apart which the blacks had used in order to climb to the branches, gave the impression that the place was inhabited by some mighty animals. On the 3rd instant the ships entered another bay, but the surf was strong, and for that reason no boat was sent ashore. However, the carpenter undertook to swim to land, and he erected a post and left a flag flying from it at a rock which has since been recognized from the description given. This was the last the expedition saw of Tasmania.

In 1644 Tasman sailed to explore the northern and north-western coasts of the continent. He was also instructed by his Government to find out whether New Guinea was separated from the mainland by water, the nature of the discovery of Torres not then being known. In the latter task he failed, but the expedition was rich in valuable results. The north-western fringe of the continent to as far as the 22nd degree was explored. The following extracts from Witsen are interesting in
showing how easily explorers may fall into error regarding weapons used by a strange people. The blacks whom Tasman saw certainly could not have used bows and arrows. What he mistook for such doubtless were spears and other wooden implements of warfare. The passages are as follows:

"In lat. 13° 8' south, long. 146° 18' [probably near Victoria River], the coast is barren. The people are naked and wicked, shooting at the Dutch with arrows without provocation, when they were coming on shore. It is here very populous."

"In 14° 58', long. 138°, the people are savage and go naked; none can understand them. In 16° 10', the people swam on board a Dutch ship, and when they received a present of a piece of linen they laid it on their heads in token of gratitude. Everywhere they are all malicious. They use arrows and bows of such length that one end rests upon the ground when shooting. They have also hazegayes and kalawayes, attacked the Dutch, but did not know the execution of the guns."

In Hullandia Nova (near Roebuck Bay) Tasman found "naked black people with curly hair, malicious and cruel, using for arms bows and arrows. They once came to a number of fifty, double armed, dividing themselves into two parties, intending to have surprised the Dutch, who had landed twenty-five men, but the firing of the guns frightened them so much that they took to flight. Their canoes are made of the bark of trees. Their coast is dangerous, there is but little vegetation, the people have no houses."

"In 19° 35' [about Dampier Archipelago] the inhabitants are very numerous, and threw stones at the boats sent by the Dutch to the shore. They made fires and smoke all along the coast, which it was conjectured they did to give notice to their neighbours of strangers being upon the coast. They appear to live very poorly, go naked, eat yams and other roots."

Australia began to be known under the name of New Holland after the last voyage of Tasman. It was he who first clearly demonstrated that the south land was one continent which did not extend to the south pole. However, Tasmania and New Guinea were both supposed to form parts of the mainland, whilst the eastern coast was unknown. Had as many visits been paid to the latter as took place to the western the rate of further discovery probably would have been accelerated greatly. All the explorers saw the worst and least hospitable portions of the coast, and with the exception of the fleeting glimpse of part of Tasmania caught by Tasman no one was aware of what the more fertile portions of the seaboard had to offer. No very important discoveries were made regarding Australia from the time of the voyage of Tasman until the close of the seventeenth century.

CHAPTER II.
LATER DISCOVERIES.

After the time of Tasman the first voyage of note to be paid to Australian waters was undertaken by an Englishman. This was Captain William Dampier, who ranks as the pioneer of British discoverers of the nature and coastline of this country. Dampier was born in 1652, and came of a Somersetshire family. He first entered the merchant service, but also served for a short while in the navy. When twenty-two years of age he began life as a planter in Jamaica, but five years later he joined a privateer and launched upon a career of buccaneering. In his published record of the voyage Dampier gives a particularly interesting description of his experiences in the little-known south land.

"The 4th day of January, 1688," he writes, "we fell in with the land of New Holland in the lat. of 16° 50'. We ran in close by it, and finding no convenient anchoring, because it lies open to the N.W., we ran along shore to the eastward, steering N.E. by E., for so the land lies. We steered thus about twelve leagues, and then came to a point of land from where the land trends east and southerly for about ten or twelve leagues, but how afterwards I know not. About three leagues to the eastward of this point there is a pretty deep bay, with abundance of islands in it, and
a very good place to anchor in. About a league to the eastward of that point we anchored January the 5th, 1688, two miles from the shore, in twenty-nine fathoms, good hard sand, and clean ground.

"New Holland is a very large tract of land. It is not yet determined whether it is an island or a main continent, but I am certain that it joins neither Asia, Africa, nor America. This part of it that we saw is all low, even land, with sandy banks against the sea, only the points are rocky, and so are some of the islands in this bay.

"The land is of a dry, sandy soil, destitute of water, except you make wells, yet producing divers sorts of trees; but the wood is not thick nor the trees very big. Most of the trees that we saw are dragon trees, as we supposed, and these, too, are the largest trees of any there. We saw no sort of animal, nor any track of beast but once, and that seemed to be the tread of a beast as big as a great mastiff dog. Here are a few small land birds, but none bigger than a blackbird, and but few sea fowls. Neither is the sea very plentifully stored with fish, unless you reckon the manatee and turtle as such. Of these creatures there is plenty, but they are extraordinarily shy, though the inhabitants cannot trouble them much, having neither boats nor iron.

"The inhabitants of this country are the miserablest people in the world. The Hodmadods of Monomatapa, though a nasty people, yet for wealth are gentlemen to these, who have no house, and skin garments, sheep, poultry, and fruits of the earth, ostrich eggs, etc., as the Hodmadods have. And setting aside their human shapes, they differ but little from brutes. They are tall, strait-bodied, and thin, with small, long limbs. They have great heads, round foreheads, and great brows. Their eyelids are always half closed to keep the flies out of their eyes, they being so troublesome here that no fanning will keep them from coming to one's face; and without the assistance of both hands to keep them off they will creep into one's nostrils close; so that from their infancy being thus annoyed with these insects they do never open their eyes as other people. And therefore they cannot see far,
unless they hold up their heads, as if they were looking at somewhat over them. . . .

"We anchored, as I said before, and seeing men walking on the shore, we presently sent a canoe to get some acquaintance with them, for we were in hopes to get some provision among them. But the inhabitants, seeing our boat coming, ran away and hid themselves. We searched afterwards for three days in hopes to find their houses, but found none; yet we saw many places where they had made fires. At last, being out of hopes to find their habitation, we searched no farther, but left a great many boys ashore in such places where we thought they would come. In all our search we found no water, but old wells on the sandy bays.

"At last we went over to the islands, and there we found a great many of the natives; I do believe there were forty on one island—men, women, and children. The men, at our first coming ashore, threatened us with their lances and swords, but they were frightened by firing one gun, which we fired purposely to scare them. The island was so small that they could not hide themselves; but they were much disordered at our landing, especially the women and children, for they went directly to their camp. The lustiest of the women, snatching up their infants, ran away howling, and the little children ran after squeaking and bawling; but the men stood still. Some of the women, and such people as could not go from us, lay still by a fire, making a doleful noise, as if we had been coming to devour them, but when they saw that we did not intend to harm them, they were pretty quiet, and the rest that fled from us at our first coming returned again. This their place of dwelling was only a fire, with a few boughs before it, set up on that side the wind was of."

Dampier and his companions ultimately became more familiar with the savages, and gave them clothes, hoping that in return the blacks would aid in carrying water barrels to the ship. "But," says the narrator, "all the signs we could make were to no purpose, for they stood like statues, without motion, but grinned like so many monkeys, staring one upon another. For these poor creatures seem not accustomed to carry burdens, and I believe that one of our ship boys of ten years old would carry as much as one of them."

Dampier stayed at the place till the following March, or something over two months. A week after the arrival they beached the ship by the simple process of taking her inshore, at a small sandy cove, as far as she could float at a spring tide, "for the sea riseth and falleth here about five fathoms." At low tide the ship was left high and dry, with dry sand for nearly half a mile between her and the nearest water.

During the subsequent weeks trouble arose between Dampier and his companions, whom he says, "I did endeavour to persuade to go home to some English factory, but was threatened to be turned ashore and left here." Dampier then decided to wait for some favourable opportunity for leaving the ship. On March 12 the vessel sailed from Australia, and as the immediate result of a quarrel, but also as an outcome of his own plans, Dampier and two others were put ashore on the Nicobar Islands. They reached England three years later, after suffering many hardships.

Some further discoveries were made in 1696 by the Dutch, who sent out an expedition under Wilhelm van Vlaming, with three vessels, to search for the ship "Ridderschap van Holland," which was missing. On Christmas Day of the same year they sighted land, which they discovered to be detached from the mainland, and which they called Rottnest Island, on account of the great number of wallabies' nests they found. Some wreckage was found here, but there were no evidences to indicate whether it was connected with the "Ridderschap van Holland." Vlaming, with a party of eighty-six men on January 5, 1697, landed on the mainland, and explored some of the country in the immediate neighbourhood, splitting up into three divisions for that purpose. An outcome of the enterprise was the discovery of the Swan River, which was named by Vlaming, on account of his having there found a number of black swans, three of which were captured and taken alive to Batavia as practical proof of the accuracy of the accounts of the birds which had hitherto been regarded as a myth.

In searching for the missing ship the expedition kept along the coast to the northwards, but obtained a very unfavourable impression of the character of the continent. Shark Bay was reached on February 4, and the tin plate already referred to was discovered on Dirk Hartog Island. Vlaming continued his voyage along the coast until reaching North-west Cape on February 21, when he returned to Batavia, having discovered nothing of the fate of the missing ship. The report of the expedition shows that the party considered it had found nothing but a bare and desolate country.

Three years later William Dampier, on January 14, 1699, again set sail for New Holland, of which he sighted the western coast on August 1 following. He took anchor at Dirk Hartog Bay, but renamed it Shark Bay. In his journal Dampier describes the great numbers of sharks found there, and how he discovered what he believed to be the head of a hippopotamus in the stomach of one of these great creatures. "The hairy lips," he writes, "were still sound, and the jaw was also firm. Out of this we plucked a good many teeth, two of which were eight inches long, and the rest as big as a man's thumb, small at one end, and a little crooked." Probably the head was that of a dugong, but certainly
it was not what Dampier thought it to be. A great deal of interesting material was collected by the same explorer about this region. Dampier manifested a love for natural history, and his observations have proved to be singularly accurate. The first description of kangaroos known to exist is given by him as follows:

"The land animals were only a sort of racoons, different from those of the West Indies, chiefly as to their legs, for they have very short forelegs, but go jumping upon them as the others do, and like them are very good meat."

Being short of water, Dampier sailed in search of it to the north, continuing along the coast. On the 31st of the month he landed about 150 miles south of Cygnet Bay, where he had previously been. He had established to his own satisfaction that the land was not connected with New Guinea, but he had not clearly proved whether New Holland consisted of a series of islands or in reality was a continent.

An encounter with the natives took place on the day of the landing, and Dampier's narrative of this part of the expedition is so vivid as to be worthy of quoting in his own words:

"On the 31st August, betimes in the morning, I went ashore with ten or eleven men to search for water. We went armed with muskets and cutlasses for our defence, expected to see people there, and carried also shovels and pickaxes to dig wells. When we came near the shore we saw three tall, black, naked men on the sandy bay ahead of us, but as we rowed in they went away. When we landed I sent a boat with two men in her to lie a little from the shore at an anchor, to prevent being seized, while the rest of us went after the three black men, who were now got on the top of a small hill, about a quarter of a mile from us, with eight or nine men more in their company. They, seeing us coming, ran away. When we came on the top of the hill where they first stood, we saw a plain savannah about half a mile from us, further in from the sea. There were several things like haycocks standing in the savannah, which at a distance we thought were houses, looking just like Hottentots' houses at the Cape of Good Hope, but we found them to be so many rocks. We searched about these for water, but could find none, nor any houses nor people where we landed, and there we dug for water. While we were at work there came nine or ten natives to a small hill a little way from us, and stood there menacing and threatening of us, and making a great noise. At last one of them came towards us, and the rest followed at a distance. I went to meet him, and came within fifty yards of him, making to him all the signs of peace and friendship I could, but then he ran away, neither would they nor any of them stay for us to come nigh them, for we tried two or three times. At last I took two men with me and went in the afternoon along the seaside purposely to catch one of them if I could, of whom I might learn where they get their fresh water. There were ten or twelve of the natives a little way off, who, seeing us three going away from the rest of our men, followed us at a distance. I thought they would follow us, but there being for a while a sand-bank between us and them..."
near me, closely engaged with them. Upon their seeing me one of them threw a lance at me, that narrowly missed me. I discharged my gun to scare them, but avoiding shooting any of them, till finding the young man in great danger from them, and myself in some, and that, though the gun had a little frightened them at first, yet they had soon learnt to despise it, tossing up their heads and crying ‘Pooh, pooh, pooh,’ and coming on afresh with a great noise, I thought it high time to charge it again, and shoot one of them, which I did. The rest seeing him fall, made a stand again, and my young man took the opportunity to disengage himself and come off to me; my other man also was with me, who had done nothing all this while, having come out unarmed, and I returned back with my men, designing to attempt the natives no farther, being very sorry for what had happened already. They took up their wounded companion, and my young man, who had been struck through the cheek by one of their lances, was afraid it had been poisoned, but I did not think that likely. His wound was very painful to him, being made with a blunt weapon, but he soon recovered of it.

"The land hereabouts was much like the part of New Holland that I formerly described; 'tis low, but seemingly barricaded with a long chain of sandhills to the sea, that lets nothing be seen of what is further inland. At high tides, the tides rising so high as they do, the coast shows very low, but when 'tis low water it seems to be of an indifferent height. At low water the shore is all rocky, so that then there is no landing with a boat, but at high water a boat may come in over these rocks to the sandy bay which runs along this coast. The land by the sea for about five or six hundred yards is a dry, sandy soil, bearing only shrubs and bushes of divers sorts. Some of these had then at this time of year yellow flowers or blossoms, some blue, and some white, most of them of a very fragrant smell. Some of them had fruitlike peasods, in each of which there were just ten small peas. I opened many of them, and found no more nor less. There are also here some of that sort of bean which I saw at Rosemary Island, and another sort of small, red, hard pulse, growing in cobs also, with little black eyes like beans. I know not their names, but have seen them often in the East Indies for weighing gold, and they make the same use of them at Guinea, as I have heard, where the women also make bracelets of them to wear about their arms. These grow on bushes, but here also are fruitlike beans, growing on a creeper sort of shrublike vine. There was great plenty of all these sorts of codfruit growing on the sandhills by the seaside, some of them green, some ripe, and some fallen on the ground; but I could not perceive that any of them had been gathered by the natives, and might not probably be wholesome food.

"The land further in, that is lower than what borders on the sea, was, so much as we saw of it, very plain, and even partly savannahs and partly woodlands. The savannahs bear a sort of thin, coarse grass. The mould is also a coarser sand than that by the seaside, and in some places 'tis clay. Here are a great many rocks in the large savannah we were in, which are five or six feet high, and round at the top like a haycock, very remarkable, some red and white. The woodland lies further in still, where there were divers sorts of small trees, scarce any three feet in circumference, their bodies twelve or fourteen feet high, with a small head of small knobs or boughs."

These were the last observations of New Holland made by Dampier, and he sailed from the coast early in September. For the following seventy years little effort was spent in exploring the coasts of Australia. Prospective enterprise in that direction had been killed by the discouraging accounts of the western and northern coasts.

CHAPTER III.

COOK’S VOYAGE ON THE EAST COAST.

By the latter half of the eighteenth century great changes had taken place in navigation, whilst the relations between European nations had materially altered. The Dutch and the Portuguese had lost their maritime supremacy, and the discoveries made by the earlier seafaring men to a considerable extent had sunk into oblivion. Up to this time the eastern side of Australia remained unknown. England was fast rising to the mastery of the seas, rivalled only by France. Yet neither nation embarked in a deliberate effort to investigate the great southern continent which was known to exist, but about which so little else had been learned. That behind the barren sandhills of the western beach there stretched the foundations of a great empire was discovered by the British almost accidentally through the agency of an expedition which the Royal Society in 1767 resolved to send to the South Sea to observe the transit of Venus. The Royal Society asked the Government for funds to carry out the enterprise, and the request was granted. James Cook was placed
in command of the ship to carry the expedition. He had served in the navy, and had established a reputation by reason of his scientific knowledge.

The party, consisting in all of eighty-five persons, sailed on July 1, 1788, in the "Endeavour," a barque of 370 tons burden. She was fitted with twenty-two guns, and carried provisions for eighteen months. The expedition landed in New Zealand, and after the astronomical observation, which had formed the primary object of the enterprise, had been taken, efforts were also devoted to exploring new lands. The latter enterprise was considered only a side issue to the main purpose of the expedition, but it was destined to add a new nation and a new continent to the British dominions. In April, 1770, the "Endeavour" set sail from New Zealand, and taking a north-western course she met with the south-eastern coast of Australia. The ship then turned north, following the land along the shores of what is now known as Gippsland, and which forms one of the most fertile provinces of the whole continent. But by a strange coincidence, as though a bad reputation were destined to always cling to Australia, the expedition was presented with the sight of a low, sandy shore, with no very pleasing prospect for as far beyond as they could see. In the distance the outlines of mountains were observed, and it was evident that the intervening country was timbered. But no inlet presented facilities for landing, and no evidence was afforded of the phenomenal wealth which lay beyond the sounding surf. At this point Cook became firmly convinced that Van Diemen Land, as Tasmania was then called, was separated from the mainland by water. He found support in this theory in the nature of the currents and the heavy seas rolling from the westward.

In the absence of any safe place for landing, the "Endeavour" was held to her course to the northward, but kept as close to the shore as was practicable. Changes in the character of the land became apparent. The low coastline gave place to more rugged features, whilst evidences began to accumulate of a plentiful rainfall and bounteous flora. Dense forests would give place to expanses of grass and the valleys of streams to broken hills and ranges, which, jutting into the sea, made rocky capes. Almost with every mile fresh points of interest were presented to the eager gaze of the scientists who had come across the globe to watch a star, but had found a new realm. As they proceeded farther north the mountains were found to lie nearer to the coast, and consequently appeared to become more lofty and broken, whilst the denseness of the timber and magnificent character of many of the trees grew apparent from the deck of the barque, which at times was so very close to land that natives could be plainly distinguished. Many of the scenes were of attractive variety, and filled the explorers with wonder that so promising and pleasing a continent could have been left undisturbed by the conquering hand of white men until that late date. A number of the prominent features of the coast was named by Cook as his ship sailed past them. Unfortunately the "Endeavour" sailed by Twofold Bay, one of the most beautiful as well as the best sheltered harbours on the Australian coast, without the inlet being seen, which, however, is easily understood owing to the physical features of the locality.

It was not until the "Endeavour" reached as far north as Botany Bay that a landing was made. The inlet received its name from Cook because of the quantities of new plants discovered there by Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, two botanists who had accompanied the expedition. The surrounding country, clothed thickly in all kinds of foliage and inhabited by quantities of bird and animal life, appeared to
After entering the heads, the crew saw an immense expanse of water open up ahead of them. Natives were seen on the shore whilst soundings at the entrance were being taken. The blacks were fully armed, and were quaintly painted, as was the custom with them when about to engage in battle. Their weapons consisted of spears and boomerangs. As the ship approached the savages gestured threateningly, and waved their weapons. The barque was brought to anchor about two miles from the entrance and under the south shore. Close at hand were several of the rude huts which the natives used, whilst four men were engaged in spearing fish, each being seated in a small canoe. Cook and his companions were very much astonished at the lack of intelligent interest displayed by the savages at what to them was an unprecedented sight, a characteristic which went to illustrate the low standard of the native's mind. While the ship was at anchor an old woman, accompanied by three children, emerged from the timber which lay some little distance from the water. Other children ran out from the huts to meet them. The old woman for a time appeared to regard the "Endeavour" intently, but immediately afterwards she quite calmly set about kindling a fire. The fishermen then landed, hauled up their canoes, and prepared their fish for cooking. None of them appeared to be surprised at the ship. Apparently they hardly felt interested in its appearance.

Preparations, meanwhile, were being made to land from the barque, and a boat was soon launched and pulled ashore. There then was enacted a scene of historic interest so well known as hardly to require relating here. It was hoped that the natives would prove as apathetic to the white men putting foot on their soil as they had been to the white men's ship having entered their bay. But expectations were not to be realized. The boat carried forty men, and as they approached the shore two of the natives came down to dispute the landing, though the others fled. The landing party could not help admiring the valour of the two blacks who were prepared to challenge twenty times their number. Cook tried to pacify the defenders, and threw them presents, with which they seemed well pleased, but every effort at further conciliation proved futile. Ultimately the landing party was forced either to abandon the effort at getting ashore or else do so by force. A charge of small shot was fired at the legs of one of the blacks, causing him to retreat. The party then landed, but no sooner had they done so than the wounded savage returned, armed with a shield, with which he hoped to protect his legs from further attack of the sort which had already drawn a considerable quantity of blood. Both savages threw spears at the invaders of their territory, but the weapons were dodged without difficulty, and in retaliation some more small shot was fired. The blacks then fled. Examination of the huts revealed the presence of several babies, which explained the frenzied resistance put up by the two men. The huts proved to be of the most wretched description, whilst each canoe was merely a strip of bark about fourteen feet long tied together at both ends, and kept open in the centre by sticks. The crew soon afterwards returned to the ship, leaving the property and children of the savages unharmed. The same day an excursion was made to the north side of the bay, and there the party found fresh water, which it stood in need of.

Next day Captain Cook revisited the huts, but he found that presents which had been left for the blacks were untouched. The children had been taken away; but there was not a savage about the locality. An exploratory voyage in one of the ship's boats was made round the bay, whilst another expedition was made inland. Although natives were frequently met with, on every occasion they fled at the sight of the strange white men. Cook and his companions were deeply impressed with many features of interest presented by the new land. In dealing with their experiences at Botany Bay, Captain Cook writes:—"We had a transient and imperfect view of a quadruped about as big as a rabbit. Mr. Bank's greyhound which was with us got sight of it, and would probably have caught it, but the moment he set off he lamed himself against a stump which lay concealed in the long grass. We afterwards saw the dung of an animal which fed upon grass, and which we judged could not be less than a deer, and the footprints of another which was clawed upon grass, and seemed to be about as big as a wolf. We also tracked a small animal, whose foot resembled that of a polecat or weasel. The trees over our heads abounded with birds of various kinds, among which were many of exquisite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos, which flew in flocks of several scores together. We found some wood which had been felled by the natives with a blunt instrument, and some that had been barked. The trees were not of many species. Among others there was a large one which yielded gum not unlike the Sanguis draconis, and in some of them steps had been cut at about three feet distance from each other for the convenience of climbing them."

The ship stayed several days in the bay, during which the company spent all available time in investigating the features of the country, collecting specimens of the flora, and obtaining what knowledge it could of the fauna. Natives were frequently met with, but every advance of a friendly nature made by the white men was misunderstood by the savages, who fled when approached. Evidences were collected of the racial curiosity being not confined to one side. The exploring
white men were given reason for believing that they were frequently under the observation of natives hidden among the trees, and that the latter had become fully acquainted with the deadly nature of firearms, which the explorers were frequently using to obtain specimens of birds and other game. On only one occasion after the first day of landing did the blacks adopt the offensive. That was when three or four of the white men, in the words of their leader, “took it into their head to march up to them (twenty-two blacks), but seeing the Indians keep their ground till they got pretty near them, they were seized with a sudden fear very common to the rash and foolhardy, and made a hasty retreat. This step, which increased the danger it was intended to avoid, encouraged the Indians, and four of them running forward discharged their lances at the fugitives with such force that, flying no less than forty yards they went beyond them. As the Indians did not pursue, our people, recovering their spirits, stopped to collect the lances when they came up to the places where they lay, upon which the Indians in their turn began to retire.”

That the locality was suitable for successful settlement, and that the soil was fitted for agricultural pursuits, was a conclusion soon arrived at by this party of the first white men to set foot on the eastern coast of the continent. The commander of the expedition writes:—“We went up the country to some distance, and found the face of it nearly the same with that which has been described already, but the soil was much richer, for instead of sand I found a deep black mould, which I thought very fit for the production of grain of any kind. In the woods we found a tree which bore fruit that in colour and shape resembled a cherry; the juice had an agreeable tartness, though but little flavour. We found, also, interspersed some of the finest meadows in the world. Some places, however, were rocky, but these were comparatively few. The stone is sandy, and might be used with advantage for building.”

Captain Cook goes on to relate how “the great quantities of plants which Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander collected in this place induced me to give it the name of Botany Bay.”

At daybreak on Sunday, May 6, 1770, the “Endeavour” sailed out of Botany Bay, and headed northward along the coast. At noon on the same day the ship stood abreast of what was to become Sydney Harbour, which Captain Cook named Port Jackson, “in which,” in the words of the navigator, “there appeared to be good anchorage.” The ship at this time was two or three miles from land. At sunset they were abreast of an opening which Captain Cook called Broken Bay.

The land, as the vessel reached farther north, was seen to be growing more mountainous, whilst dense forests everywhere prevailed, and the seashore at places shone with the gleam of white sand, which made a striking contrast with the deep green of the foliage behind and the dark blue of the towering ranges in the background.

Various points along what is now known as the North Coast of New South Wales were passed and named. Smoky Point received its title because of the great smoke being made there from several fires.

CHAPTER IV.
INVESTIGATION OF THE QUEENSLAND COAST.

On Wednesday, May 15, the “Endeavour” came abreast of what now forms the boundary line between New South Wales and Queensland, and so began the first known voyage of discovery along the southern portion of the coast of the northern State. On this day the ship was experiencing rough weather. Mount Warning was given its name because of shoals and difficulties of navigation passed within sight of that peak. Point Danger received its designation because of similar reasons. “To the northward of this point,” wrote Captain Cook, “the land is low, and trends N.W. by N., but it soon turns again more to the northward.” Later in the same day the ship again met with shoals and a projection of land, which was named Point Look Out.

During the succeeding night the ship made rapid progress to the north, and widened the distance between herself and the shore. A course was then steered towards the coast. The “Endeavour” was now close to Cape Moreton, which received its present name from Captain Cook, as also did Moreton Bay.

Captain Cook did not explore the bay, but he says that some of those on board the ship thought that a river emptied itself into the inlet because the sea at this point looked paler than usual. This conclusion was discounted by Cook himself, who, while not taking up a negative stand, considered the evidence insufficient for forming such a conclusion. The direction of the wind precluded those on board the “Endeavour” from clearing up the question, but future investigators were directed to
the locality by three hills which lie 'but a little way inland. They are remarkable for the singular form of their elevation, which very much resembles a glasshouse, for which reason I called them the Glass Houses.' These, of course, were the Glasshouse Mountains which form so familiar a sight to many Queenslanders. The only other point of interest noted about what was destined to become a centre of so much settlement and activity in relatively so short a space of time, was smoke rising inland from fires apparently kindled by the natives.

At 2 o'clock the next morning the ship made sail on her northern course. The coast immediately met with is described as being more barren and the soil more sandy than any part of Australia with which these navigators had yet come into contact. 'With our glasses,' wrote Cook, 'we could discover that the sands, which lay in great patches of many acres, were moveable, and that some of them had not been long in the place they possessed, for we saw in several parts trees half buried, the tops of which were still green, and in others the naked trunks of such as the sand had surrounded long enough to destroy. In other places the woods appeared to be low and shrubby, and we saw no signs of inhabitants. Two water snakes swam by the ship; they were beautifully spotted, and in every respect like land snakes, except that the tails were broad and flat, probably to serve them instead of fins in swimming.' Next day the 'Endeavour' passed Fraser Island, which was easily mistaken for portion of the mainland, and Indian Head received its name because the crew saw a great number of natives assembled there. Sandy Point obtained its name by reason of two very large patches of white sand which lay upon it. Cook rounded the point, and went on to explore Hervey Bay, which was called after Captain Hervey.

A landing was made at Bustard Bay on Tuesday, May 22, 1770. Probably this was the first occasion for white men to set foot on the soil of what afterwards was to become the State of Queensland. Captain Cook says:—'We landed a little within the fourth point of the bay, where we found a channel leading into a large lagoon.' After expressing the opinion that the soil was not so good as that of Botany Bay, he goes on to say, 'The sea seemed to abound with fish, but unhappily we tore our seine to pieces at the first haul. Upon the mudbanks under the mangroves we found innumerable oysters of various kinds, among others the hammer oyster and a large proportion of small pearl oysters; if in deep water there is equal plenty of such oysters at their full growth, a pearl fishery might certainly be established here to very great advantage.'

The 'Endeavour' passed Cape Capricorn on May 25. Three days later Cape Manifold, Keppel Bay, and Keppel Islands were named. Cape Townshend was rounded a day later, and the ship entered an area of shoals and islands, which were negotiated only with difficulty. The 'Endeavour' was ultimately brought to anchor in an inlet, which Cook named Thirsty Sound, because of his inability to find fresh water there. He had hopes of laying up the vessel at this spot and cleaning her bottom, but that intention was abandoned. A landing was made, however. An unfavourable impression was received of the surrounding country, but Captain Cook formed the conclusion that it contained iron ore, an opinion he arrived at by the eccentric movements of his compass.

On the last day of the month sail was set, and the following day Cape Palmerston was passed. After sailing through a passage between the islands of that locality Cape Hillsborough was brought into view. Cape Conway and Repulse Bay (which lies between the two projections) received the names which they are still known by. Keeping still to the north, the 'Endeavour' pioneered Whitsunday Passage, which title was bestowed by reason of the fact that the voyage through the islands there was made on Whitsunday, June 3. Cumberland Islands were also named by Cook. The beauties of the place could not fail to attract the admiration which has since made it notable. The commander describes the place in the following terms:—'The whole passage may be considered as one vast harbour, exclusive of the small bays and coves which abound on each side, where ships might lie as in a lagoon. The land, both upon the main and islands is high, and diversified by hill and valley, wood and lawn, with a green and pleasant appearance. On one of the islands we discovered with our glasses two men and a woman, and a canoe with an outrigger, which appeared to be larger and of a construction very different from those of bark tied together at the ends, which we had seen upon other parts of the coast. We hoped, therefore, that the people here had made some further advances beyond the mere animal life of those that we had seen before.'

Cape Gloucester was the next feature of the coast to be noted by Cook. Cape Upstart, Cleveland Bay, and Cape Cleveland also derived their present names from the commander of the 'Endeavour.' Magnetic Island was designated by that title because the compasses on the 'Endeavour,' in the words of the leader of the expedition, 'did not traverse so well when we were near it.' For the first time on the coast cocoanut trees were observed on the land, the crew remarking that the fruit at that time would have been very acceptable. Halifax Bay was found to provide good anchorage, on account of the shelter afforded by the islands. The vessel, however, was kept to her course, first Cape Sandwich and then Rockingham Bay being the next features noted. No attempt to enter
and investigate the latter was made. Dunk Island was named by Cook, and on June 9 Cape Grafton was reached. The ship was brought to anchor here, and Cook and a landing party went in search of fresh water. Several streams were found, but they all were in places made inaccessible by the rugged nature of the country or the rocks and surf of the shore. Sail was set again, and the exposed indentation on the coast which was next passed was called Trinity Bay.

Up to this stage Cook had successfully negotiated the many dangers and difficulties besetting the explorer along this unknown and island-dotted coast, with its many reefs and hidden perils in the shape of unsuspected currents and sudden violent storms. Cape Tribulation was so designated because of a narrowly-averted tragedy which threatened the whole company of the "Endeavour" within sight of that headland, and might have resulted in the wealth of Australia's latent resources lying undiscovered till a still later date, with a possible loss of the continent to the British Empire. On the night of Sunday, June 10, the ship was speeding along before a fair breeze in a clear moonlight night, with every cast of the lead showing deep water. A keen look-out was being kept, for once or twice during the evening the depth of water had fluctuated rather suddenly, but no real menace was seriously suspected, and the utmost tranquility prevailed on board, as, in consequence of the variations in the sea-bottom, the ship had stood out to sea for three and a half hours. But a few minutes past eleven the water shallowed at once from twenty to seventeen fathoms, and before the lead could be cast again the ship had struck fast on a reef, where she remained immovable.

Fortunately the weather was calm and the sea smooth. The crew knew that the ship could not be near land. "We had too much reason to conclude," writes Cook, "that we were upon a rock of coral, which is more fatal than any other, because the points of it are sharp and every part of the surface so rough as to grind away whatever is rubbed against it, even with the gentlest motion. In this situation all the sails were immediately taken in, and the boats hoisted out to examine the depth of water round the ship. We soon discovered that our fears had not aggravated our misfortune, and that the vessel had been lifted over the ledge of the rock, and lay in a hollow within it. In some places there was from three to four fathoms, and in others not so many feet." An anchor was taken out to the deep water by the long boat. The narrator continues:—"Our utmost force was applied to the capstan, hoping that if the anchor did not come home the ship would be got off, but to our great misfortune and disappointment we could not move her. During all this time she continued to beat with great violence against the rock, so that it was with the utmost difficulty we kept upon our legs, and to complete the scene of distress we saw by the light of the moon the sheathing boards from the bottom of the vessel floating away all round her, and at last her false keel, so that every moment was making way for the sea to rush in which was to swallow us up. We had now no chance but to lighten her, and we had lost the opportunity of doing that to the greatest advantage, for unhappily we went ashore just at high water, and by this time it had considerably fallen, so that after she should be lightened so as to draw as much less water as the water had sunk, we should be in the same situation as at first, and the only alleviation of this circumstance was that as the tide ebbed the ship settled on the rocks and was not beaten against them with much violence. We had indeed some hope from the next tide, but it was doubtful if she would hold together so long, especially as the rock kept grating her bottom under the starboard bow with such force as to be heard in the fore storeroom."

Strenuous efforts at once were made to throw overboard whatever was available for that purpose and promised to lighten the ship materially by its absence. Six cannon, iron and stone ballast, casks, hoop staves, and other things were hurled into the sea. "Everyone worked," writes Cook, "with an alacrity almost approaching to cheerfulness, without the least repining or discontent, yet the men were so far impressed with a sense of their situation that not an oath was heard among them, the habit of profaneness,
however strong, being instantly subdued by the dread of incurring guilt when death seemed to be so near.”

The crew was still engaged on the same occupation when day broke, and the coastline was revealed about eight leagues away, but without any intervening island which might offer a landing place. What perhaps formed the most terrifying aspect of the situation was that the ship did not carry boats enough to take away all those on her. An adjacent island would have afforded opportunity to land the party by making two voyages, but at the distance the land lay, the destruction of the ship must necessarily have involved considerable loss of life, besides presenting terrible possibilities during the last few minutes on the ship when there would almost inevitably have been a struggle for what means of escape were offering. High water was expected at 11 o’clock in the forenoon. When the critical time arrived, every effort to move the ship proved futile, and as the water fell once more the sea rushed into what now appeared to be the doomed vessel so fast that two pumps continually working were unable to keep it out.

There was now no hope of getting the ship off till the tide should rise again at midnight, and so badly was the ship leaking that grave doubts were entertained of her capacity to remain afloat if she should reach deep water. At 5 o’clock in the afternoon the tide began to rise, but so fast did the inrush of water increase that a third pump was rigged up, but yet the water continued rising in the hold. At 9 o’clock the ship righted herself.

The mental sufferings of all on board are graphically described by Cook:—“We well knew that our boats were not capable of carrying us all on shore, and that when the dreadful crisis should arrive, as all command and subordination would be at an end, a contest for preference would probably ensue that would increase the horrors of even shipwreck, and terminate in the destruction of us all by the hands of each other; yet we knew that if any should be left on board to perish in the waves they would probably suffer less upon the whole than those who should get on shore, without any lasting or effectual defence against the natives, in a country where even nets and firearms would scarcely furnish them with food, and where if they should find the means of subsistence they must be condemned to languish out the remainder of their life in a desolate wilderness, without possession or even hope of any domestic comfort, and cut off from all commerce with mankind, except the naked savages who prowled the desert, and whom perhaps were some of the most rude and uncivilized upon the earth. . . . . To those only who have waited in a state of such suspense death has approached in all its terrors, and as the dreadful moment that was to determine our fate came on everyone saw his own sensations pictured in the countenances of his companions. However, the capitan and windlass were manned with as many hands as could be spared from the pumps, and the ship floating about twenty minutes after 10 o’clock the effort was made, and she was hoisted into deep water.”

The ship was found not to make more water afloat than she had done when on the rock. But already there was a depth of three feet nine inches in the hold, and the inflow was gaining on the pumps. The crew, moreover, was becoming exhausted. Twenty-four hours had been spent in the most arduous toil, whilst the crew was also suffering the effects of the great anxiety to which it had been subjected. The pumps could be kept going only by the men working in shifts of from five to six minutes each, and those relinquishing the task temporarily would fling themselves on the deck, where they would lie almost motionless, with the water flowing all round and over them. After almost frantic efforts had been made the pumps began to gain slightly on the leak, but it soon became apparent that the strain which had accomplished this could not be maintained. In the meantime some sail had been put upon the vessel, as a kind of forlorn hope of reaching a harbour.

When the ship appeared doomed a suggestion was made by a midshipman named Monhouse which proved the salvation of the company. Acting on this proposal a sail, made as watertight as possible, was passed under the vessel by means of ropes, until it covered the hole which was letting in the water. Such was the success of this simple plan that instead of the leak gaining on three pumps it was easily kept under by one. “This was a new source of confidence and comfort,” writes Cook, “the people could scarcely have expressed more joy if they had been already in port, and their views were so far from being limited to running the ship ashore in some harbour, either of an island or the main, and building a vessel out of her materials to carry us to the East Indies, which so lately had been the utmost object of our hope, that nothing was now thought of but ranging along the shore in search of a convenient place to repair the damage she had sustained, and then prosecuting the voyage upon the same plan as if nothing had happened.”

The ship stood in for the shore, and early next morning she passed two islands which were named Hope Islands, because to reach them at one time represented the furthermost limit of the crew’s expectations. The following day, June 14, the entrance to a stream was discovered. The opportunity had come none too soon. After picking her way through shoals, and creeping as near to the coast as was possible, the vessel had become unmanageable, as the inflow of water had again obtained mastery over the pumps. Advantage could not be taken of the harbour at once. A fresh wind prevented the vessel entering, and it was not until three days later that she was taken in to the smooth water, and even then
she twice ran aground before being navigated into shelter.

While the ship was being repaired an excellent opportunity was presented for examining the flora and fauna of the country, as well as the physical features. With the exception of the stay of the expedition at Botany Bay, this was the first time for white men to investigate the east coast. At Endeavour River, as the stream was named, Cook managed for the first time to get into friendly contact with the natives. Naturally the new land opened many unheard of wonders to the eyes of the explorers. To the scientific members of the party every day was packed with interest. To the ordinary members of the crew some of the discoveries made were not divorced from fear. One of the seamen was greatly alarmed at the sight of a flying fox, which he described in the following language:—“It was as large as a one-gallon keg, and very like it; he had horns and wings, yet he crept so slowly through the grass that if I had not been afraid I might have touched him.”

A few days after landing Cook for the first time met with a kangaroo. The animal had previously been seen by other members of the expedition, and all sorts of varied accounts had reached the commander of the extraordinary creature which covered the ground by a series of gigantic bounds. He writes:—“As I was walking this morning at a little distance from the ship, I saw myself one of the animals which had been so often described. It was of a light mouse colour, and in size and shape very much resembling a greyhound. It had a long tail also, which it carried like a greyhound, and I should have taken it for a wild dog, if instead of running it had not leapt like a hare or deer. Its legs were said to be very tender, and the print of its foot to be like that of a goat, but where I saw it the grass was so high that the legs were concealed, and the ground was too hard to receive the track. Mr. Banks also had an imperfect view of this animal, and was of opinion that its species was hitherto unknown.”

After the party had been more than a week on land acquaintance was made with the natives, four of whom had appeared on the water with a small wooden canoe to which an outrigger was attached. On this occasion Cook decided to adopt a different means for inducing the blacks to become friendly, and none of the company took the slightest notice of the savages. Ultimately two of the latter came close to the ship, and talked in a loud voice. This was replied to by shouting in a friendly tone, and though neither side could understand a word of what the other was saying, the blacks at last came alongside the ship, when cloth, nails, beads, paper, and other presents were thrown to them. For these offerings no satisfaction was expressed; but when a fish was tossed to them they loudly proclaimed their joy, and by signs intimated that they would go away and bring their companions. Cordial relations were soon established with the four blacks. “Some parts of their bodies,” writes Cook in describing them, “had been painted red, and the upper lip and breast of one of them were painted with streaks of white, which he called Carbanda. Their features were far from disagreeable, their eyes were lively, and their teeth even and white; their voices were soft and tuneful, and they repeated many words after us with great facility.”

The natives brought others to meet the white men, on each occasion introducing the strangers by name and with much ceremony. On closer acquaintance it was discovered that the skins of the blacks were not nearly so dark as had at first been supposed; what had been mistaken for the complexion in reality was the accumulated leavings of smoke and dirt. The white men assumed from this evidence that notwithstanding the heat of the climate the savages contrived to sleep in the heat and smoke of fires, as the only means for keeping off the mosquitoes. Although not acquainted with the native language, the visitors learned that “kangaroo” was the native word for the strange animals, one of which was shortly afterwards shot, and on being examined at close quarters was minutely described in the official account of the voyage.

The party had good reason to be pleased with the country in which it was temporarily stranded. Kangaroo was tasted, and proved to be excellent meat to men who so long had subsisted on coarse ship fare. Turtle was secured in plenty, and was described as being greatly superior to the turtle obtainable in England. Abundant fruit was also secured, as well as substitutes for the customary vegetables. Just before the crew landed an attack of scurvy had broken out on board the ship. All traces of this disease completely disappeared the first few days on land.

Having been about three weeks on shore the party was afforded evidence of what a bush fire is like. This experience was encountered after a quite large body of natives had come on board the ship, who at first pleaded to be given one of a dozen turtle which were on deck, and afterwards attempted to secure the desired dainty by force. Eventually the natives returned to shore in a great passion, determined to wreak vengeance for not having obtained what they wanted. A conflict followed, in which it was necessary to pepper one of the blacks in the legs with small shot. A means of inflicting injury on the white men taken by the natives was by setting fire to the grass. This threatened to burn a quantity of the belongings of the expedition which had been landed and left where they could easily be consumed by fire, the members of the expedition not suspecting how rapidly the dry grass would burn or how strong a fire it would make. Only a few days before, by a lucky accident, almost all the ship’s powder had been moved
from a spot where the flames would certainly have exploded it. Fortunately a rescue was effected. The dispute with the natives was ultimately settled.

Meanwhile great anxiety was caused to Cook and his companions at the nature of the sea beyond the entrance to the river. The ship had been navigated in, but no passage could be discerned by which it could be floated out again. Excursions were made by means of boats, but nothing had been discovered except banks of sand and shoals one after another for as far as they were able to go. Observations were taken from the top of a hill some few miles away, and these showed almost endless sandbanks, which became quite dry at low water. Only to the northward were there any signs of the existence of a possible passage. Eventually, however, all difficulties were overcome, and the ship sailed into deep water.

Cook gives an interesting summary of what had been discovered on this part of the new, strange land:—"Besides the kangaroo and the opossum that have been already mentioned, and a kind of polecat, there are wolves upon this part of the coast, if we were not deceived by tracks upon the ground, and also several species of serpents, some of whom are venomous and some harmless. There are no tame animals here except dogs, and of these we saw but two or three, which frequently came about the tents to pick up scraps and bones that happened to lie scattered near them. There does not indeed seem to be many of any animal, except the kangaroo. We scarcely saw any other above once, but this we met with almost every time we went into the woods. Of land fowls we saw crows, kites, hawks, cockatoos of two sorts (one white and the other black), a very beautiful kind of loriquet, some parrots, pigeons of two or three different sorts, and several small birds not known in Europe. The face of the country is agreeably diversified by hill and valley, lawn and wood. The soil of the hills is hard, dry, and stony, yet it produces coarse grass besides wood. The soil of the plains and valleys is in some places sand and in some clay. In some also it is rocky and stony. In general, however, it is well clothed, and has at least the appearance of fertility. The whole country, both hill and valley, abounds with ant hills, some of which are six or eight feet high and twice as much in circumference. The trees here are not of many sorts. The gum tree which we found on the southern part of the coast is the most common, but here it is not so large. On each side of the river, through its whole course, there are mangroves in great numbers, which in some places extend a mile within the coast. The country is on all parts well watered, there being several fine rivulets at a small distance from each other."

After leaving the Endeavour River, the ship spent several days trying to find a passage leading to the open sea. Reefs and shoals appeared to hem in that part of the coast. Five days after sail had been set Cook named Cape Flattery, because he thought he saw a way out in that direction, but was disappointed. On that day the vessel appeared to get tangled in a regular maze of reefs and islands, and in the hope of finding a way out the commander landed and climbed a hill which he named Point Lookout. The effort was destined to meet with no success. Lizard Island and Eagle Island were also visited, but the reefs appeared to lie everywhere. On the following day, however, the ship was navigated safely out of the danger zone. Once outside the shallow water no ground could be found at a hundred and fifty fathoms, and a big sea was rolling, the latter circumstances being recognized as a sign that neither land nor shoals were near in the south-easterly direction from which the swell was coming. The utmost relief was experienced by everyone on board at having reached the open sea. For nearly three months the ship had been among shoals and reefs, surrounded by hidden dangers, and often escaping destruction by the narrowest possible margin. Three islands near the channel through which the "Endeavour" reached the open water were named the Islands of Direction.

But the perils which the "Endeavour" was to pass through on the coast had not nearly ended with having sailed out of the first ordeal. Only two days later, at 3 o'clock in the morning, a long line of breakers was discovered directly ahead. When the ship had stood out from the ridge of spray and surf, against a wind blowing directly on to it, for about two miles a calm suddenly set in. To make matters worse no bottom could be reached at a hundred and forty fathoms. Thus there was no escape to be found in anchoring. The ship began drifting steadily towards the long line of roaring breakers, where a deep ocean swell was hurling itself in a wild fury of flying spray. The only hope seemed to lie in the boats. These were got out, but at best they were able to do no more than postpone the fate of the ship, which continued steadily to drift to the long wall of angry foam and high-rising spray. By the aid of oars the crews of the boats tried to get the ship's head turned away from the rocks. "But it was 6 o'clock before this was effected," writes Cook, "and we were not more than a hundred yards from the rock upon which the same billow which washed the side of the ship broke to a tremendous height the very next time it rose, so that between us and destruction there was only a dreary valley, no wider than the base of one wave, and even now the sea under us was unfathomable, at least, no bottom was to be found with a hundred and twenty fathoms." When death seemed but the matter of a few minutes, a slight breeze sprang up, and with the aid of the boats it proved enough to give the ship a slight motion obliquely
from the reef. But suddenly revived hopes were doomed to meet with early disappointment. In less than ten minutes complete calm again set in, and the ship once more drifted directly towards the breakers, ultimately reaching to within two hundred yards of the reef. But once more a light breeze sprang up, and almost simultaneously the man aloft reported a small opening in the reef. The gap in the rocks was of no greater breadth than the length of the ship, and it lay about a quarter of a mile away. On the far side lay smooth water. Thus was a ray of hope introduced into what had appeared a position whence there could be no escape.

A desperate struggle to reach the opening then ensued, the rowers in the boats which were trying to tow the ship being aided by the lightest possible of winds. The most strenuous efforts, however, proved fated to meet with disappointment in a most unexpected way. The ship was brought opposite to the opening in the barrier reef, but it was only to meet with an ebb tide flowing out like a millstream, and against which it would have been utterly futile to attempt making any headway. Indeed, the current for a while postponed the danger to the "Endeavour" by carrying her for a quarter of a mile away from the rocks within a few minutes, and later in the day enabling the boats to get the ship two miles from the line of surf.

But the advantage was short lived, for when the tide turned, the current dragged the vessel closer to the rocks once more. The crews in the boats did their best to contend against the drift of the ship, but it was all to no purpose, and the thunder of the deep ocean swell breaking on the long line of coral grew closer. A second opening in the reef was now discovered, and a small boat was sent to ascertain whether it presented a possible passage, for the ship was now closer to it than to that first sighted. On a report being received that the vessel might possibly negotiate the channel, which however was full of dangers, it was resolved to make an attempt which offered the only gleam of hope. Again a light breeze arose, and with its aid, as well as that of the boats, the "Endeavour" approached the entrance of the channel, through which she was rapidly rushed by a violently running stream of water, that left her lying in the smooth water within. Her anchor was then cast in nineteen fathoms. Thus did Captain Cook discover the Great Barrier Reef, which lies parallel to the eastern coast of Queensland for almost its whole distance. The navigator describes the reef in the following words:—"Rocks and shoals are always dangerous to the mariner, even where their situation has been ascertained. They are more dangerous in seas which have never before been navigated, and in this part of the globe they are more dangerous than in any other, for here they are reefs of coral, rising like a wall almost perpendicularly out of the unfathomable deep, always overflowed at high water, and at low water dry in many places; and here the enormous waves of the vast Southern Ocean, meeting with no resistance, break with inconceivable violence in a surf which no rocks or storms in the northern hemisphere can produce. The danger of navigating unknown parts of this ocean was now greatly increased by our having a crazy ship,
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and being short of provisions and every other necessary, yet the distinction of a first discoverer made us cheerfully encounter every danger and submit to every inconvenience, and we chose rather to incur the censure of imprudence and temerity which the idle and voluptuous so liberally bestow upon unsuccessful fortitude and perseverance, than leave a country which we had discovered unexplored, and give colour to a charge of timidity and irresolution."

Although so many days had been spent in reaching the open seas, Cook now resolved that he would remain inside the reef and within sight of the land. He feared if he once again crossed to the eastern side of the rocks they might deflect his course too far from the continent, and he was anxious to ascertain whether New Holland was separated from New Guinea by water. The "Endeavour" was kept at anchor until certain needed repairs had been effected to one of the ship's boats. Land was about nine leagues distant, and within sight of the ship was a lofty promontory, upon which Cook bestowed its present name of Cape Weymouth.

At six the next morning sail was set, and the "Endeavour" resumed her course, cautiously feeling her way over the unknown waters which bristled with hidden dangers and innumerable reefs. Cape Grenville and Temple Bay were thus passed and named, the ship's pinnace preceding the barque and sounding the way. On Tuesday, August 21, the "Endeavour" was abreast of Cape York. Newcastle Bay was named and described by Cook, and on the same day a landing was effected.

"As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland," wrote Cook, "which I had coasted from latitude 38° to this place, and which I am confident no European has ever seen before, I once more hoisted English colours, and although I had already taken possession of several particular parts, I now took possession of the whole eastern coast, from latitude 38° to this place, latitude 103° S., in the right of His Majesty King George the Third, by the name of New South Wales, with all the bays, harbours, rivers, and islands situated upon it. We then fired three volleys of small arms, which were answered by the same number from the ship. Having performed this ceremony upon the island, which we called Possession Island, we reimbarked in our boat, but a rapid ebb tide setting under the wind, we found it very difficult and tedious. From the time of our last coming among the shoals we constantly found a moderate tide, the flood setting in to the N.W. and the ebb to the S.E. At this place it is high water at the full and change of the moon, about 1 or 2 o'clock, and the water rises and falls perpendicularly about twelve feet. We saw smoke rising in many places from the adjacent lands and islands, as we had done upon every part of the coast, after our last return to it through the reef."

A course was found to the westward through the innumerable islands which cluster round that portion of the coast. Wallis Islands and Prince of Wales Islands were among those named on this voyage by Cook, who here departed from the coast of New Holland, and continued his discoveries along the coast of New Guinea.

It was Cook's impressions of Australia which in so short a space of time brought British settlement to the eastern side of the continent. No very glowing description is given by him of the industrial possibilities of the continent, though his account differs materially from that of earlier discoverers, whose voyages took them no farther than the arid west coast. After leaving Cape York he wrote:—"New Holland, or as I have called the eastern coast, New South Wales, is of larger extent than any other country of the known world that does not bear the name of a continent: the length of the coast along which we sailed, reduced to a straight line, is no less than twenty-seven degrees of latitude, amounting to near 2,000 miles, so that its square surface must be much more than equal to all Europe. To the southward of 33° or 34° the land in general is low and level; farther northward it is hilly, but in no part can be called mountainous, and the hills and mountains taken together make but a small part of the surface in comparison with the valleys and plains. It is upon the whole rather barren than fertile, yet the rising ground is chequered by woods and lawns, and the plains and valleys in many places covered with herbage. The soil, however, is frequently sandy, and many of the lawns, or savannahs, are rocky and barren, especially to the northward, where in the best spots vegetation was less vigorous than in the southern part of the country; the trees were not so tall nor the herbage so rich. The grass in general is high but thin, and the trees, where they are largest, are seldom less than forty feet asunder; nor is the country inland, as far as we could examine it, better clothed than the sea coast. The banks of the bays are covered with mangroves to the distance of a mile from the beach, under which the soil is a rank mud that is always overflowed by a spring tide. Farther in the country, we sometimes met with a bog, upon which the grass was very thick and luxuriant, and sometimes with a valley that was clothed with underwood. The soil in some parts seemed to be capable of improvement, but the far greater part is such as can admit of no cultivation. The coast, at least that part of it which lies to the northward of 25° S., abounds with fine bays and harbours, where vessels may lie in perfect security from all the winds. If we may judge by the appearance of the country while we were there, which was in the very height of the dry season, it is well watered. We found innumerable brooks and springs, but no great rivers; these brooks, however, probably became large in the rainy season."
CHAPTER V.

THE FIRST SETTLEMENT OF AUSTRALIA.

After Cook's first voyage to the coast of what was destined to become the State of Queensland a long period of inactivity ensued, so far as that part of the continent was concerned. Indeed, the results accruing from the visit of the "Endeavour" were postponed generally. Only two powers were at that stage of the world's history likely to take advantage of the discoveries made. They were France and England. During the years when these countries otherwise might have been colonizing the southern continent, France was suffering the social and political unrest which was to break into the conflagration of the bloody revolution, whilst England was engaged in war with her American colonies.

In 1772 the French sent Captain du Fresne on a voyage of discovery to New Holland, and he landed on the coast of Tasmania, where an encounter took place between the Europeans and the natives. No important results accrued from the expedition, so far as the development of Australia was concerned, except that it served as an impetus to prompt other navigators to visit Australia.

During the next year Captain Cook again set out from England, this time with two vessels. Cook himself sailed in the "Resolution," whilst Captain Furneaux commanded the "Adventure." On the way the ships separated, and Cook sailed for New Zealand, whilst Furneaux made a course for Tasmania, which he reached on March 9. Impressions gained by the company of the "Adventure" of the dense vegetation with which Tasmania was clothed, and of the magnificent fresh-water streams entering the sea, added to the curiosity in England as to the possibilities of successfully colonizing New Holland. Furneaux left believing Tasmania to be joined to the mainland. For the following four years no visitor approached Australian waters.

In January of 1777 Cook once more touched upon the coast of the land he had done so much to make known. This time it was on the coast of Tasmania where he landed, having entered Adventure Bay, which Furneaux had previously discovered. Cook was filled with enthusiasm at the prolific and verdant nature of the vegetation, the beautiful hills, the towering forest, and the sparkling streams of fresh water. What he saw was further evidence to stimulate the colonizing activities of the British Government in regard to these new lands in the south. After spending a week at Adventure Bay, Cook sailed for New Zealand.

For eleven years after the final departure of Cook silence brooded over the new continent. No sail specked the horizon round her thousands of miles of coastline, and no white man's foot trod her soil. Great and far-reaching events were absorbing the whole attention of civilization on the opposite side of the globe, and for a few more years the natives of Australia's unknown interior were allowed, uninterrupted by any unwelcome civilizing hand of white men, to pursue the primitive savagery which had been theirs for so many generations. The subsequent settlement of New South Wales provided the beginnings of the colonization of Queensland.

The awakening came in January of 1788, when memory of the previous visits of the Europeans must have been almost forgotten by the natives who had come into contact with them. Botany Bay appears always to have been a comparatively thickly populated portion of the coast, possibly on account of the facilities for catching fish which its waters offered. It was here where Englishmen again landed, in a party consisting not of one ship's company paying a flying visit in order to carry away tales of the unknown southern continent, but no fewer than a thousand souls conveyed in a fleet of ships and equipped for the permanent occupation of the country. Altogether there were three men-of-war, six convict ships, and three vessels laden with stores, arms, and other necessary material for planting a penal establishment in an unexplored wilderness. The American War of Independence had closed the old outlet for convicted persons whom it was desired to deport from the parent country, and in consequence an expedition had been sent to Botany Bay under the command of Captain Phillip. Nothing could have been much more remarkable than the varied assortment of people making up the new colony. The prisoners included members of almost all classes of society. Educated men who were being punished for what then were regarded as political offences, but which now would not be regarded as any offence at all, were herded with the most brutal and hardened of hereditary criminals. The officials were inspired with the then prevailing idea that convicted persons could be managed only by the application of unrelenting force, and the whole party was awed at the task of founding a settlement on an isolated continent, about which so little was known, and which was separated from civilization by many weary months of sailing even in the best and fastest ships then afloat.

Unlike the landing of Cook at the same place, the approach of the first boatload of Captain Phillip's party met with no resistance from the natives. The crew of the first boat, which was followed at short intervals by others, made demonstrations of friendship which apparently were understood by the blacks. The white
men landed without conflict, and the blacks were soon mixing with them endeavouring to understand the strange collection of novel sights, and gazing admiringly at the gaudy naval uniforms of the officers in command.

Botany Bay had been selected for the site of the settlement by the British authorities on the strength of the description which Cook had given of it. Certainly that discoverer cannot be blamed for permitting his imagination to run away with him, or even of writing any account not characterized by accurate observation and keen critical judgment. That the examination of the place by the expedition led to disappointing results was not the fault of Cook but of the Home Government for not first making an examination of the coast with the object of finding whether the many bays with which it was marked might not offer some more favourable sight. Captain, or Governor, Phillip found that the eastern side of the bay, where fresh water lay, was shallow and exposed to easterly winds. The western side of the bay was more sheltered, and afforded deeper water, but no drinking water could be found in the neighbourhood. As the first object in view was the building of a town, Phillip naturally hesitated about starting operations on any site but which he thought might offer reasonable chances of permanent success.

The situation was filled with a good deal of perplexity. Here was a colony of people, the minority of whom were enforcing discipline, which for their own protection, as well as for other reasons, they could not relax on the majority, sent across the globe to found a settlement on a spot found to be unsuitable for the purpose. No one on board knew if any other part of the coast would supply the requirements they needed. Except what Captain Cook had written, nothing was known of the two thousand miles of the eastern coast on which he had been instructed to found a town. Governor Phillip did not dare to land his company at Botany Bay, fearing the difficulty of getting them embarked again, when the necessity arose for sailing elsewhere, as he intended to do if he could discover some more hospitable locality.

The fleet remained at anchor in Botany Bay while Phillip put out on to the ocean in an open boat and sailed northward along the coast. His enterprise was soon crowned with success beyond his wildest expectations. He had not proceeded more than a few miles before discovering a wide opening in the high cliffs of sandstone which form the coast in that region. On the summit of the cliffs natives stood waving spears at the intruder as he drew nearer to the land. Immediately behind the opening in the coast was a headland which gave the inlet the appearance of being no more than an indentation in the walls of stone which face the ocean just there. But as the boat penetrated the bay unexpected expanses of landlocked water opened up on both sides. In a very few minutes the little craft was sailing on perfectly still water, where not even a trace of the swell from without had penetrated. The crew was filled with wonder. The bay, which Cook had not troubled to examine, but had merely passed on his way and had named Port Jackson, was showing itself to be perhaps the finest natural harbour in the world. Estuaries, islets, points of land, and tiny coves stretched as far as could be seen in almost every direction, whilst the land was covered with thick timber and thickly laden with a great variety of luxuriant vegetation. The harbour bore an almost fairylke beauty, and the farther the boat explored the more numerous became the openings and landlocked waters stretching away in the distance. After proceeding about six miles up the bay, Phillip saw a spot which he thought offered particular facilities for forming a settlement. A landing was effected here, and the spot named Sydney Cove, after Thomas Townsend Viscount Sydney, who was a member of the younger Pitt's administration.

Governor Phillip spent three days exploring the neighbourhood of Sydney Cove, and so satisfied was he with what he found that he returned to Botany Bay with instructions that the ships should immediately sail for the newly-found harbour. Next day was chosen for the move, but at daybreak the little colony met with a startling surprise. As the rays of the rising sun lit up the horizon to seaward two strange ships came into sight. None on board believed that any European was within thousands of miles, and the utmost excitement prevailed to ascertain who the newcomers were. As the ships entered the bay, for which they proved to be bound, they were seen to be flying the French colours. They were the exploring ships "Astrolabe" and "Bossole," under the command of La Perouse. The Frenchmen had put in for wood and water with which to continue their expedition, and their surprise at finding a British fleet at anchor within the harbour was at least equal to the astonishment they themselves had produced in the minds of the first comers. The French expedition remained with the Englishmen until March 10, when it sailed away, never again to set eyes on Christian people.

As soon as the convicts and their guards had been got on shore, together with the necessary equipment, a commencement was made towards clearing the land and erecting storehouses and other buildings. The work necessarily was slow, for the prisoners could not be made to work as free labourers would have done. Escapes were of frequent occurrence at first, but the men who broke away had nothing to look to but starvation in an uninviting wilderness or death among unknown savages. Usually, after a few days spent alone, they were anxious to return and receive the
punishment they knew would be theirs. Many of these had implored La Perouse to take them away with him, but in each instance he had the applicants returned to their guards.

Meanwhile Phillip was making periodical journeys inland. The dense timber and undergrowth rendered such work most difficult; indeed, for years afterwards the Blue Mountains presented a barrier to the interior which resisted every attempt to cross so as to reach the opposite slopes. During his term of office as Governor of New South Wales, Phillip sent Captain Philip Gidde King to establish a settlement at Norfolk Island. It was there that the son of the latter, afterwards Rear-Admiral Philip P. King, the celebrated explorer, was born.

Within the second year of the occupation of the continent, the first claim of gold having been discovered was made. A convict named James Daley produced a piece of what appeared to be stone bearing a considerable quantity of precious metal. He refused to say where the stone came from, but Governor Phillip compelled the man to walk before him to the spot, threatening him with instant death if he did not reveal the locality. Daley then protested that he had filed down a yellow metal buckle, mixed with it some particles of gold filed from a guinea, and had blended the whole with clay which he had rendered very hard. Considerable doubt exists as to which of the man’s two statements contained the truth.

The following two years proved pregnant with suspense and difficulty for the infant colony. In January, 1789, provisions threatened to run short, and the “Sirius” had to be sent to the Cape of Good Hope for supplies. The vessel returned to Sydney in May of the same year, but in 1790 no other stores had been received, and a famine was threatened. The allowance of food to the inhabitants had to be cut down, and as the “Sirius” had been wrecked at Norfolk Island the same means for obtaining relief as had existed in the past were cut off. No ship had reached Sydney from England since the expedition had arrived. “On the one side was an unknown shore and a shipless sea, on the other an apparently limitless country inhabited by savages, in which not a step could be taken without danger of being totally lost, a country which produced no wild fruit or root fit for the sustenance of man, and, with the exception of a wandering kangaroo or a shy, swift emu, no game of any size fit for food.” The community was faced with starvation. This state of suspense and difficulty continued until half way through the year. On June 3 the “Lady Juliana” arrived from London with a cargo of provisions and livestock. At short intervals four other ships followed, and the position was thus alleviated.

After having been Governor for five years, Phillip sailed for England on December 11, 1792. Through constantly occurring difficulties and many privations he had never once lost his confident optimism in the successful future of the settlement. Undoubtedly the conditions of life during these first few years imposed the utmost strain on the endurance of the responsible officials, and it is recorded of Phillip that he voluntarily
and cheerfully shared with those under his command the hardships which shortage of food and the lack of facilities for production imposed. In many respects the colony was founded on lines quite unique in the history of the conquest of new lands. Phillip exercised the functions of the complete autocrat responsible to no power in the same hemisphere. That he exercised his wide functions wisely was shown by the subsequent success of the colony and by the skill in which the community in his charge was piloted through the perils of the early days. Had his command been more restricted, probably the same results would not have been attained. "Powers equal to those of the first Governor of New South Wales," writes an authority on Australian history, "if held, have never been exercised by any other official in the British dominions. He could fine £500, regulate customs and trade, fix prices and wages, remit capital as well as other sentences, bestow grants of land, and create a monopoly of any article of necessity. All the labour in the colony was at his disposal; all the land, all the stores, all the places of honour and profit, and virtually all the justice."

The same historian goes on to describe the difficulties with which the colony was faced and the dreary surroundings among which Governor Phillip maintained his happy expectations, in the following words:—"Under the absolute government described, the settlers were crowded together on a narrow space, a promontory cleared of dense forest. The soil was barren sand; every yard required for cultivation had to be gained by removing enormous trees of a hardness that tried the temper of the best axes wielded in skilled hands." When Governor Phillip left the settlement the number of livestock was 128, the land under cultivation totalled 1,703 acres, and the population about 3,500 souls, exclusive of those on Norfolk Island.

Governor Hunter succeeded Governor Phillip, but the intervening three years the charge of the settlement fell upon the shoulders first of Major Francis Grose and then of Captain Paterson. Of this period perhaps the most notable event was the arrival on January 10 of the "Bellona," which brought the first shipload of free settlers to Australian shores. Special terms had been offered by the Government to these daring pioneers of the unknown wilderness. Each was furnished with agricultural implements, provisions sufficient to last for two years, and assigned servants. The newcomers first settled a few miles to the west of Sydney, but they afterwards moved to Hawkesbury River, where the soil was so much more prolific. One of the handicaps under which the colony had to labour was the poverty of nearly all the soil within many miles of Sydney.

The search for more prolific land which could be cultivated without the enormous expenditure of labour in clearing away timber, which was entailed in founding any branch of agriculture in the coastal country, led to numerous efforts at crossing the Blue Mountains. For many years the attention of the colony was concentrated more on discovering what lay beyond the sandstone cliffs and rugged peaks than on any other exploration.

Little doubt now remains that a convict named Wilson crossed the Blue Mountains in 1799. Several attempts had been previously made to accomplish the same purpose, including one by Lieutenant Bass in 1796, but all had been fated to meet with disappointment. The account given by Wilson was disbelieved at the time by all but Governor Hunter. It has since been ascertained that the convict was strictly adhering to the truth in his statements, and historians are strongly of opinion that he penetrated as far as the Lachlan River. Unfortunately no advantage was taken of the very valuable discovery.

Lieutenant Barreiller set out in an endeavour to cross the range, but the deep ravines and unscaleable precipices baffled all his efforts, and he returned to confess failure. A couple of years afterwards Mr. Caley made the attempt, and though he succeeded in penetrating much farther into the unknown than any free explorer had done before, he was not able to reach the other side of the mountains. Successive other attempts met with similar failure. Deep ravines, high cliffs rising abruptly from the tangled forest below, craggy watercourses, dense undergrowth, and the chaotic lie of the ranges themselves, completely defeated the best thought-out plans of all the explorers until 1813.

In the latter year Lieutenant Lawson and Messrs. Wentworth and Blaxland set out to repeat the efforts which so often before had met with failure. The expedition was the result of dry weather, the effects of which had been accentuated by the colony, together with its flocks and herds, having outgrown the means of subsistence offered by the barren and limited space between the range and the sea. The grass had all disappeared, and sheep and cattle were dying fast. After crossing the Nepean River and becoming entangled in a maze of difficulties, the party at last found a spur which appeared to lead in the required direction. The explorers kept to the ridge of the rising ground, and though being compelled to fight a continuous series of obstructions, they at last found themselves upon the summit of the main range.

A beautiful valley opened out before the admiring eyes of the discoverers. Abundant grass clothed its slopes, and refreshing streams provided ample water. Here was relief for the whole colony, which was suffering such hardships, and which so ardently was hoping for the successful result of the efforts of the explorers. But from the lie of the rivers it was clear that the dividing line between the eastern and the western watersheds...
had not yet been crossed. For some distance the party penetrated the valley, and at each mile it advanced the country improved. Having established the fact that the worst difficulties of the passage to the interior of the continent had been passed, and finding themselves threatened with an early shortage of provisions, the party returned to Sydney, having discovered Bathurst Plains, and with the tidings of the relief to the colony.

Immediately upon the return of Messrs. Lawson, Wentworth, and Blaxland, the deputy surveyor-general of the colony (Mr. Evans) was sent out to follow up the welcome discoveries. On November 26 he reached the termination of the journey of the others, and four days later he crossed the great dividing range between the two watersheds. Mr. Evans discovered the Macquarie River, which he followed until December 18. Wide, fertile plains, where kangaroos, emus, and other native game abounded, were passed on either side. The luxuriant pasturage offered undreamed of opportunities for pastoral enterprise, whilst the stream teemed with fish. The land was untimbered, and free of stones, characteristics which at the time were considered as presenting difficulties to the settlement, owing to the absence of building materials, but which in reality meant that the country, instead of being fit for agriculture only after a mighty forest had been grubbed, as was the case nearer the coast, was ready for the plough without any preparation whatever. Mr. Evans and his party penetrated to a point 100 miles west of the Nepean River in a straight line before returning to Sydney.

The discoveries of the country beyond the mountains opened a new hope to the inhabitants of Sydney, and presented fresh and dazzling prospects for the future of the State. The first thought was to move the starving stock to where the pastures were so plentiful and water so abundant. The construction of the road over the range was undertaken without any delay, and in January, 1815, it was finished. This point marks the beginning of the real industrial future of New South Wales. How rapid was the immediate progress is illustrated by the following figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>March, 1810.</th>
<th>October, 1821.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Population</strong></td>
<td>11,590</td>
<td>38,778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Horned cattle</strong></td>
<td>12,442</td>
<td>102,139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sheep</strong></td>
<td>25,888</td>
<td>290,158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hogs</strong></td>
<td>9,544</td>
<td>33,906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Horses</strong></td>
<td>1,134</td>
<td>4,564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acres cleared and in tillage</strong></td>
<td>7,615</td>
<td>32,267</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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CHAPTER VI.

EARLY SYDNEY.

Until 1859, when separation was granted to the northern colony, the history of Queensland is contained within the history of New South Wales. It was the political evolution of the parent settlement which formed the basis of the mode of self-government afterwards applied to Moreton Bay, and it was from Sydney that exploring parties in search of pastoral land in the north radiated. Thus, following on the conquest of the Blue Mountains in 1812, came the discovery of the Darling Downs.

Up to Governor Macquarie's term of office, from 1810 to 1822, the colony proved the victim to many dimensions, in which the authorities themselves were torn into conflicting parties. In 1808 Governor Bligh, who had succeeded King, was placed under arrest and kept in captivity for twelve months, whilst Major Johnston, commander of the New South Wales Corps, carried on the functions of representative of the King. Bligh was popular among the free settlers and the better part of the emancipists, and ultimately he was allowed to take command of the "Porpoise," on the undertaking being given by him that he would sail for England. However, he sailed for Van Diemen Land, where an attempt was made to seize him, as a result of communications received by the authorities there from Sydney. The attempt failed. Bligh remained about Australian waters until Governor Macquarie arrived in December, 1809. He followed Macquarie into Sydney, and a few weeks afterwards sailed for England, where Major Johnston was afterwards tried by courtmartial on a charge of mutiny. The latter was cashiered from the service. The whole quarrel had arisen over commercial matters, and it served to very strikingly manifest the dangers arising from the constitution of such a settlement, situated so many months' sail away from the centre of government.

Rapid progress was made in all directions during Macquarie's term. Writing to Earl Bathurst just after his arrival back in England, the late Governor said:— "I found a colony barely emerging from infantile imbecility, and suffering from various privations and disabilities, the country impenetrable beyond forty miles from Sydney, agriculture in a yet languishing state, commerce in its early dawn, revenue unknown, threatened with famine, distracted by faction, the public buildings in a state of delapidation and
mouldering to decay, the population in general depressed by poverty, no public credit nor private confidence, the morals of the great mass of the population in the lowest state of debasement, and religious worship almost totally neglected. Such was the state of New South Wales when I took charge of its administration on January 1, 1810. I left it in February last, reaping incalculable advantages from my extensive and important discoveries in all directions, including the supposed insurmountable barrier called the Blue Mountains, to the westward of which are situated the fertile plains of Bathurst, and in all respects enjoying a state of private comfort and public prosperity. The opinion expressed here by Macquarie of the condition of the settlement when he took charge of it was fully corroborated by the views uttered by Bligh before the arrest of the latter. Bligh had painted the condition of the colony in the most gloomy of colours.

The foundations of a great and immediate industrial expansion had been laid in Macquarie's time, and during the years 1821-1825, when Sir Thomas Brisbane held the office of Governor, an increased stream of free immigration began to flow from the United Kingdom to Australia. Prior to then only a few families had voluntarily come to the colony. Accounts of the great fertile plains beyond the Blue Mountains, of the growing prosperity of the early pioneers, and of the untold potentialities of the new land generally, were beginning to make headway in the United Kingdom.

In the early twenties it was decided to establish penal settlements to the north of Port Jackson, and one was formed at Port Macquarie. Mr. Oxley was ordered to explore Port Bowen and Moreton Bay, which task was carried out by him in 1823. As a consequence of his discovery of the Brisbane River the settlement was moved from Port Macquarie, and what is now the city of Brisbane was founded.

The following year the Legislative Council was constituted, the Proclamation appearing in the Sydney Gazette of August 11, 1824. The Governor received the following despatch from Earl Bathurst, Secretary of State:

"Downing Street, January 19, 1824.

"Sir,

"It being provided by the Act of the 4th George IV., cap. 96, that His Majesty may, by warrant under His Royal sign manual, constitute and appoint a Council for the Colony of New South Wales, and that the Governor, with the advice of such Council, shall have power and authority to make laws and ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the said Colony, I have the honour herewith to transmit to you His Majesty's mandamus nominating the five principal officers in the Colony to seats on the Council.

"I am to desire that you will particularly explain to the gentlemen selected that the nomination of the present Council is only intended to be pro tempore, that the warrant will be revoked as soon as I shall have received from you the names of ten of the principal merchants and landholders whom you may consider eligible to form the Council, from which His Majesty will select as many as may be deemed proper. I, however, reserve to myself the power of submitting the names of any of the members of the present Council for re-appointment, should I consider it to be advisable.

"I have the honour to be,

"Your most obedient and humble servant,

"BATHURST.

"Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., etc., etc., etc."

This first Legislative Council was composed of the following officials:—William Stewart, Lieutenant-Governor; Francis Forbes, Chief Justice; Frederick Goulburn, Colonial Secretary; James Bowman, Principal Colonial Surgeon; and John Oxley, Surveyor-General. The following year these appointments were revoked in accordance with the intentions expressed in the letter already quoted. A new Council was appointed, but it consisted of all the same members as the old, with the exception of Mr. Oxley, whose place was filled by Archdeacon Scott. The new Council continued sitting, interrupted by only short intervals, until 1825, when legislation was passed regulating the granting of hotel licences and the sale of spirits and other liquor in New South Wales and Van Diemen Land, the relief of debtors, and the regulation of shipping, the regulation and collection of customs and duties, the prevention of smuggling, the regulation of postages of letters in New South Wales, and the naturalization of aliens.

The Imperial Parliament granted trial by jury in 1824, and the same year the Supreme Court of New South Wales was established. Mr. Francis Forbes was appointed to be the first Chief Justice, and the court, in its criminal jurisdiction, sat for the first time on June 10, 1824. The first civil jury was empanelled on November 1, 1824. During the same year the censorship, which previously had been exercised over the Press, was removed. During the four years of Governor Brisbane's term of office the population of the Colony increased from 29,783 to 33,675, and the revenue from £36,231 to £71,682. Brisbane was subsequently recalled as a result of commercial embarrassment which followed his action in establishing a colonial currency which raised the pound sterling 25 per cent. in value.

Several important events in the evolution of the settlement of Australia took place during the six years in which Lieutenant-General Ralph Darling filled the
position of Governor. His first official act was the declaration of the independence of Van Diemen Land, which ceremony was performed by Darling while on his way to New South Wales in 1825. This was the first separation of a political kind made in the administration of the colony. Queensland was still unexplored, and practically the whole of the white population on the continent was clustered about Sydney, except, of course, for the early settlement made by the penal authorities in Tasmania.

Governor Darling utilized his powers in a manner which appears distasteful to the democratic spirit prevailing in Australia during more recent times. One of his first acts was to appoint a new Legislative Council, consisting as follows:—President—The Governor; perpetual clause should be part of any temporary law; no law was to be re-enacted to which the Royal assent had once been refused without express leave for that purpose having been first obtained through the Imperial Government, nor was the enactment of any law repealing any law passed by the Legislative Council to be proposed, whether the same had or had not received the Royal approbation, unless a clause was inserted therein suspending and deferring the execution thereof until the King's pleasure should be known concerning the same; no laws whatsoever—except upon some unforeseen emergency—were to be made to continue for less than two years, neither was any Act to be passed whereby the revenue might be lessened or impaired without special leave or commands thereon; no law or ordinance was to

Official Members—Colonel Stewart (Lieutenant-Governor), Chief Justice Forbes, Archdeacon Scott, and Alexander Macleay (Colonial Secretary); Non-official Members—Messrs. John Macarthur, Robert Campbell, sen., and Charles Throsby. The non-official members were not included in the Executive Council. The Governor lost little time in limiting the self-governing powers of the colony, though, as he himself appointed the Council, it may easily be seen that these, in any case, were visionary rather than real. Just two months after the new Council had been sworn in Darling laid before it an extract of the King's Instructions, which was ordered to be entered in the minutes.

The Instructions laid down rules for observance in the enactment of laws. The chief points were:—No be proposed for the nationalization of aliens, nor for divorce, nor for establishing a title to lands, tenements, and real estates in the territory or its dependencies, originally granted to, or purchased by, aliens antecedent to naturalization; no law or ordinance of an unusual and extraordinary nature and importance whereby the Crown's prerogative or the property of the subject might be prejudiced; nor any law, whereby the trade or shipping of the kingdom should be in any way affected, was to be proposed until the draft of such laws or ordinances had been transmitted through the Secretary of State for Royal pleasure.

Considerable political controversy stirred the colony during the immediately subsequent years. One result was the institution, under the Governor's direction, of a
visions for giving effect to the Imperial enactments under was directed, under the Act, to make the necessary pro-

the colony during the then current month. The Council

Wales, and that it had been received and proclaimed in

Parliament for the better government of New South

an Act had been passed in the last session of the Imperial

miscuously mingled together every Thursday" at the

Governor Gibbs, in his opening speech, announced that

passed laws for New South Wales, was superseded in

high prices reached a culminating point a long

cattle market each striving to outbid the other. When

returns for pastoralists, who hitherto had lacked buyers

stock it could get, in order to make its various hold-

stated of land resubmitted for sale.

The industrial development of the colony was inter-

rupt by an unfortunate boom and consequent reaction,

beginning about 1826. About that time the Australian

Agricultural Company was extending operations over

land resubmitted for sale.

The stock market became a centre of gambling. "Barristers

and attorneys, military officers of every rank and civilians

every department, clergymen and medical men, mer-

chants, settlers, and dealers in general were seen pro-

ceeded by an unfortunate boom and consequent reaction,

series of libel cases. The libel law at that time con-

ained very drastic provisions, and the proprietors of

The Monitor and The Australian were both prosecuted
civilly and criminally, and were heavily fined as well as

imprisoned. In 1827 a stringent law regulating the

publication of newspapers was passed, but the provisions

of this legislation were amended in 1830. About the

same time legislation was passing providing for trial by

jury. A clause enacted that no man who had been

attained of crime, unless he had received a pardon, should

be qualified to serve on a jury. This was inter-

preted as excluding the great bulk of the Emancipists,

and a storm of conflict was aroused.

During the last year of Darling's term—on August 2,

1831—a notification appeared in the Sydney Gazette to

the effect that in future Crown lands would be disposed

of by auction sale only and at a minimum price of 5s.

per acre. The terms of sale were that 10 per cent. of the

purchase-money was to be paid in the form of a deposit,

and the rest was to be forthcoming within a month. In

the event of default the deposit was forfeited and the

land resubmitted for sale.

The official "History of New South Wales" gives the

following epitome of the measure:—"By it a Legislature

which a Parliament was to be constituted in the colony.
The Council had been summoned at an early date to

comply with these directions. The Council was there-

upon to commit political suicide by passing a Bill in

accordance with the Imperial legislation.

"An Act for the better government of New South

Wales and Van Diemen Land," as passed by the Imperial

Government, was then laid upon the table of the Council.
The official "History of New South Wales" gives the

following epitome of the measure:—"By it a Legislature

CHAPTER VII.

FOUNDING A CONSTITUTION.

The Legislative Council, which up to that time had

passed laws for New South Wales, was superceded in

1843. When the Council met in January of that year

Governor Gibbs, in his opening speech, announced that

an Act had been passed in the last session of the Imperial

Parliament for the better government of New South

Wales, and that it had been received and proclaimed in

the colony during the then current month. The Council

was directed, under the Act, to make the necessary pro-

visions for giving effect to the Imperial enactments under
of one House was constituted to consist of 36 members, of whom six were to be Government officers, six Crown nominees, the remaining 24 to be elected by the people, viz., 18 for New South Wales proper and six for Port Phillip. The franchise was a £20 rental, or a freehold of £200 in value; and the qualification for elective members was property to the amount of £2,000, or of £100 yearly value. Provision was also made for local government in different parts of the colony by means of District Councils, which should have power to make and maintain public works and buildings; to raise the means of defraying expenses connected with the administration of justice; to provide for the support of schools and kindred institutions; and for other matters specially subjected to their direction. Schedules were annexed to the Act providing for the yearly payment of £61,160 for the heads of the executive and administrative departments (Schedules A and B), and of £30,000 for public worship (Schedule C).” A Bill to provide for the division of the colony into Electoral Districts, and for the election of members to serve in the Legislative Council, was read a first time in the Council on January 24, and was finally passed on February 23, 1843, the old Council then terminating its existence.

The new form of government fell far short of meeting the wishes of the people of the colony, who were prepared to be satisfied with little short of complete local autonomy. One grievance was that any official appointed by the Imperial authorities should be paid a salary raised by New South Wales. This applied particularly to the Governor. Objection was taken to the expenditure of any money raised in the colony resting in the power of the British Legislature. But feeling ran most strongly on the management of the lands not having been entrusted to the local governing body. There were several reasons for this attitude. One was that whatever value the land possessed had been given to it by the settlers, and that morally the land belonged to them, and not to the Government of the United Kingdom. This was accentuated by what was strongly felt to be the blundering mismanagement of the land question. The colonists were of the opinion that statesmen on the opposite side of the globe were not in a position to decide most successfully what was the best policy of settlement to pursue; and a particular grievance lay in the high purchase price of £1 per acre, which had greatly retarded the alienation of the freehold. It was not doubted in those days that settlement, to be successful and permanent, must proceed on a basis of private ownership. Indeed, no other practical system was in operation. A further cause of complaint was to be found in the undemocratic nature of government without representation, which prevailed in so many spheres of legislative and administrative activity over which the local Legislature held no jurisdiction. The expenditure of the purchase-money of the land on objects outside Australia caused continual heartburning.

These sentiments found expression in the Legislative Council during 1850, when resolutions were passed on the motion of Mr. William Charles Wentworth, a barrister, who sat for Sydney. Next year the Council received in reply a despatch from Earl Grey, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies. He pointed out that “the Home Government was anxious to give to the Legislature the fullest power, consistent with safety, of amending the Constitution.” Those powers and their limitations were set out. Earl Grey pronounced himself as unfavourable “to any hasty attempt to establish a more elaborate Legislature than existed.” He declared it to be absolutely essential that the salaries of the principal Government officials should be granted permanently and provided for by Acts in the same manner as charges on the Consolidated Fund in the United Kingdom, and therefore only susceptible of alteration by Acts of the Legislature. Half the revenue derived from the sale of New South Wales lands was spent, he stated, on emigration and therefore directly benefited the colony.

Naturally little satisfaction was felt at the reply of the Imperial Government. No comfort was taken from the fact of half the proceeds of land sales being spent on immigration. The colonists had good grounds for knowing that whatever benefit such an outlay might otherwise have brought to them, it had been utterly nullified by the Imperial authorities having fixed so high an upset price on Crown lands. Assistance might be offered to immigrants, but that assistance would fail to attract them to the remote shores of Australia, when land could be obtained so much more cheaply in the longer-settled regions of America and elsewhere. It rankled in the mind of the inhabitants of New South Wales to think that the Imperial Government was perpetuating, in their case, the very errors of misrule which had led to the War of Independence and the loss of the American colonies.

In the following year the Legislative Council again formally protested at the method under which the colony was being governed. A Select Committee was appointed, and it drafted a “Declaration and Remonstrance,” in which the viewpoint of the inhabitants of New South Wales was expressed in strong terms. The document sets out the causes of grievance as follows:

We, the Legislative Council of New South Wales, do accordingly hereby solemnly protest, and declare as follows:—

1st. That the Imperial Parliament has not, nor of right ought to have, any power to tax the people of this colony, or to appropriate any of the monies by authority of the Imperial Legislature; that this power can only be lawfully exercised by the colonial Legislature; and that the Imperial Parliament has solemnly proclaimed this power by 18 Geo. III., cap. 12, sec. 1., which Act remains unrepealed.
2nd. That the revenue arising from the public
lands, derived as it is mainly from the value
imparted to them by the labour and capital of
the people of this colony, is so much their prop-
erty as the ordinary revenue, and ought there-
fore to be subject only to the like control and
appropriation.

3rd. That the Customs and all other departments
should be subject to the direct supervision and
control of the Colonial Legislature, which should
have the appropriation of the gross revenues of
the colony, from whatever source arising; and
as a necessary incident to this authority the
regulation of the salaries of all colonial officers.

4th. That offices of trust and emolument should be
conferred only on the settled inhabitants, the
office of Governor alone excepted; that this
officer should be appointed and paid by the
Crown; and that the whole patronage of the
colony should be vested in him and the Executive
Council, unfettered by instructions from the
Minister of the Colonies.

5th. That plenary powers of legislation should be
conferred upon and exercised by the colonial
Legislature for the time being; and that no
Bills should be reserved for the signification of
Her Majesty's pleasure unless they affect the
prerogatives of the Crown or the general
interests of the Empire.

The petition went on to urge that the colony be
granted a Constitution constructed on similar lines to
that of Canada.

A despatch was received in reply from Sir John
Pakington, who had succeeded Earl Grey as Secretary
of State. The document was favourable in tone towards
the wishes of the colonists. It set out:

In compliance with the opinion expressed by the
Council in favour of a Constitution similar in outline
to that of Canada, it was the wish of Her Majesty's
Government that the Council should establish the new
Legislature on the basis of an elective Assembly and
a Legislative Council nominated by the Crown.

A Select Committee was appointed for this purpose,
and on September 17, 1852, it presented its report, which
provided for a Parliament consisting of two Chambers.
Considerable difficulty had been experienced in drawing
up a scheme for the formation of a Legislative Council
which would properly discharge the functions of a House
of Review and would provide what was in those days
regarded as a sufficient check on the democratic tending
encies finding their vent in the Legislative Assembly. The
members of the Committee were by no means unanimous
in their findings as to the Council. Some of them
considered that the nomination of the Council should be
left wholly to the Executive, with an understanding that
not more than one-third of the former was to hold posi-
tions of emolument. Others preferred an elective body,
on the lines subsequently adopted in Victoria and in
Tasmania, with a high property qualification. Still
others favoured the Second Chamber being elected with-
out restriction. A section of the Committee favoured
the Governor having the nomination for life of two-thirds
of the Legislative Council out of persons who had been
elected members of the past or present Council, or who
might be elected to any future Assembly, the other third
holding office during pleasure. The recommendations
were embodied in two Bills, which, however, were
ultimately discharged from the notice paper.

A year later another Select Committee was ap-
pointed, with Mr. Wentworth as chairman, to prepare
a Constitution for the colony. This body suggested cer-
tain alterations in the scheme recommended by the
Committee of the previous session as regards the con-
stitution of the Legislative Council. It considered that
the House was pledged to one on similar lines to that of
Canada. It desired to have a form of government
analogous to that of Great Britain. It had no wish to
sow the seeds of a future democracy, and until it was
satisfied that the nominated or the future elective
Council, which it recommended, would have the
object it had in view, of placing a safe, revising,
deliberative, and conservative element between the

The new Legislative Council was determined not to
let the matter of constitutional reform sink into oblivion.
Indeed, feeling through the colony was such that the
matter would not have been permitted to rest, even
though the Council itself had been hostile to reform. A
Select Committee on Grievances was appointed, and it
drew up two draft petitions to the Queen and to both
Houses of the Imperial Parliament. The committee's
report, together with the petitions, were adopted by
21 votes to 8. The petitions included that drawn up by
the previous Council. It also went on to say:

That these grievances having formed the subject
of repeated representations and complaints from the
former Legislative Council, all of which have met with
neglect or disregard from your Majesty's Colonial
Minister, we owe it to ourselves and to our constituents
to denounce to your Majesty, as the chief grievance
of which the people of this colony are subjected, the
systematic and mischievous interference which is exer-
cised by that Minister even in matters of purely local
concernment.

That while we are most anxious to strengthen and
persevere the connection which still happily exists
with our fatherland, we feel it a solemn duty to your
Majesty and our fellow-countrymen in the United
Kingdom to declare that it will be impossible much
longer to maintain the authority of a local Executive
which is obliged by its Instructions to refer all measures
of importance, no matter how great the urgency for
their immediate adoption, for the decision of an
inexperienced, remote, and irresponsible department.

The petition went on to urge that the colony be
granted a Constitution constructed on similar lines to
that of Canada.
Lower House and Her Majesty's representative in the colony, it did not feel inclined to hazard the experiment of an Upper House based on a general elective franchise. Actuated by these views, it had introduced into the Constitution Bill two clauses analogous to those in the Imperial Act for making more effective provision for the Government of Quebec. That Act authorized the Crown, when it thought proper, to confer any hereditary title of honour, rank, or dignity, and to annex thereto an hereditary right of being summoned to the Legislative Council. It was not prepared to recommend the introduction into New South Wales of a right by descent to a seat in the Upper House. But it was of opinion that the creation of hereditary titles—leaving it to the option of the Crown to annex to the title of the first patentee a seat for life in such House, and conferring on the only. This was to be in addition to the franchise already existing. The number of members in the Assembly was not to exceed the number of the then existing Council, whilst the 18 additional elective members, who would be substituted for the nominees, would be distributed among the Electoral Districts which had been constituted by the Electoral Act of 1851 when the previous constitutional change had been brought about. An important clause of the Bill gave to the Parliament of the colony full power to alter the Constitution whenever there should be a majority of two-thirds in both Houses favourable to such change, reserving to the Queen the right of assent.

Another important feature of the Bill was in regard to the Civil List proposed, which was less by £24,700 than the Civil List proposed by the Select Committee of.

Carting Timber to Lamington Mill, Beaudesert District.
An interesting feature of the report of this Committee, sitting in the early fifties, was the recommendation it contained for the institution of a system of Federal Government, which, however, was not destined to materialize until very nearly half a century later. The Committee found "that one of the most prominent measures required by the colony, and the Australian colonies generally, was the establishment at once of a General Assembly to make laws in relation to the inter-colonial questions that had arisen or `thereafter might arise among them." As the incorporation of such a jurisdiction in the Constitution Act might excite jealousy the Committee confined itself to making a suggestion that the establishment of such a body had become indispensable, and to the expression of a hope that the Minister for the Colonies would at once see the expediency of introducing into the Imperial Parliament a Bill for that express purpose.

The Select Committee had prepared two Bills which were presented to the Legislature at the same time as the report. These were "A Bill to confer a Constitution on New South Wales and to grant a Civil List to Her Majesty," and the draft of a Bill which it was proposed should be passed through the Imperial Parliament, authorizing the Queen to assent to the Constitution Bill.

The political creed which obtained most play in those days was often widely separated from the convictions of the bulk of the people. Widespread protest found expression in all populated parts of what then was New South Wales at what was regarded as far too conservative a scheme of government. The free, open life of the new country had led men to hope for a breaking down of many of the class differences which they hoped to have left behind them in the land of their birth. Where men are to spend a few years contending against the primitive difficulties of Nature, the tendency is towards the destruction of artificial social barriers. Except within the immediate neighbourhood of the convict settlements, where necessarily officialdom reigned supreme, such certainly has been the experience in Australia. But officialdom was strongly entrenched within the single-chamber Legislature prevailing at the date we are considering. It was a form of officialdom drawn with few bonds of sympathy or recognized mutual interest with the body of the people. In Victoria it had produced bloodshed at Eureka, and in New South Wales much discontent had been hidden through finding no constitutional channel of expression. But the people were, nevertheless, determined that when the colony adopted a Constitution they would, if need be, contend hard to secure what they regarded as adequate and efficacious popular representation.

A few days after the Select Committee's report, when the accompanying Bills had been published through being presented to Parliament, a public meeting was held in Sydney, and as a result a "Constitution Committee" was formed. The latter body quickly organized a much larger meeting, which was held on August 15. Resolutions were enthusiastically carried protesting against what was regarded as the creation of a colonial aristocracy and what was looked on as the undue rural representation proposed by the Select Committee. The next day Mr. John Bayley Darvall, a barrister who represented the County of Cumberland, presented to the Legislative Council a petition which had emanated from the meeting and was signed by 2,630 persons. Other meetings were held in the various centres of population throughout the colony, and like resolutions were arrived at. The popular feeling of the time was representatively expressed at a meeting held in Sydney whilst the Bill was passing through the Legislative Council. This gathering decided the best method of Parliamentary Government to be by two Houses, both based on popular suffrage, the Upper House to consist of one-third as many members as the Lower House, and to be elected for a longer period and to retire at different intervals of time. These opinions were sent to the Queen in the form of a petition. The Constitution propounded was somewhat similar to that now in operation in Tasmania, excepting that in the island State the Upper House is elected on a property qualification.

The "Constitution Committee" in November completed a somewhat different scheme. It asked (1) that there be two Houses of Parliament, (2) that both be popularly elected, (3) that the Lower House consist of not more than 54 members who should come up for re-election at least every three years, (4) that the Upper House consist of not less than 18 members elected by not more than six electorates and to hold their seats for nine years, and (5) that no Civil List be established by the Constitution Act.

The voice of the people, as represented in the various protests which had been made, was destined not to sway the Legislative Council. The Bill was introduced in charge of Mr. Wentworth, and it passed through all its stages without material alteration. The measure provided for a Legislative Council consisting of not less than 21 members holding their seats for five years from the date of the summons to the Council, but all members who were summoned after the expiration of the first five years to be entitled to hold their seats for life. The Assembly was to consist of 54 members, who were to retain their seats for not longer than five years without re-election.

The following resolutions, which were adopted by the Legislative Council without division on the passage of the Constitution Bill, served better than anything else could, to display the mind of the Legislature regarding the formidable task which it had just done so much
to solve in the manner most in accordance with its ideals:—

1. That in the opinion of this House a "Bill to Confer a Constitution on New South Wales and to Grant a Civil List to Her Majesty," which has just passed this House, is an embodiment of all the rights for which this House and preceding Legislative Councils have for years past been contending, and will, when passed into law, redress all the grievances enumerated in the petition to Her Majesty and both Houses of Parliament adopted on December 5, 1851.

2. It gives plenary powers of legislation in all matters of local and municipal concernment.

3. It prevents, except in certain enumerated cases relating solely to the prerogative of the Crown and Imperial interests, the double power of veto, which has hitherto been the source of much uncertainty and dissatisfaction.

4. It greatly enlarges the basis of popular representation.

5. It establishes among us, for the first time, an independent judiciary.

6. It abolishes the schedules annexed to the Imperial Act now in force, and involves the necessary implication that the Imperial Parliament has no right to tax the inhabitants of this colony or to appropriate any portion of its revenues.

7. It surrenders to the control of the Legislature the waste lands of the Crown, subject to the maintenance of the vested rights and other interests that have grown up under existing laws; and

8. To the like control and appropriation the entire consolidated revenues of the colony, from whatever source arising, except that portion which is voluntarily granted to Her Majesty by way of Civil List.

9. And as a necessary consequence it establishes Responsible Government, properly so called, and places in the hands of responsible Ministers the appointment of all offices of trust and emolument within the colony, thus giving to the inhabitants thereof, as nearly as circumstances will admit, the same rights and privileges which belong to their fellow-subjects in the United Kingdom.

10. In framing this Bill it has been the anxious desire of this House that the Legislative Council and House of Assembly should form as close an approximation as possible to the constitution of both Houses of the Imperial Parliament, and the whole scope of this measure is to give stability to those British institutions which we have, to introduce those which we have not, to consent that union which now happily exists between this colony and the parent country, and to perpetuate, if possible, that identity of laws, habits, and interests which it is so desirable to render enduring.

11. Such being the intention of this Bill, and the power of framing it having been delegated to this House, under an admission that it was more competent than Parliament itself to devise a suitable Constitution for this colony, this House desires to record its earnest hope that His Excellency the Governor-General will lose no time in forwarding to the Minister for the Colonies this Bill for the signification of Her Majesty's pleasure thereon; and that His Excellency will be pleased to accompany it with such explanations as he may deem necessary, to show the large majorities of both the nominated and elective members by which it has been supported in all its stages, and ultimately passed.

12. That the draft Act of Parliament brought up by the Select Committee to authorize Her Majesty to assent to the Bill, of which a copy is hereto appended, be transmitted to the Governor-General, with a request that His Excellency will be pleased to forward it to His Grace the Secretary of State for the Colonies, as being a fit enactment to give the required validity to this Bill.

The House then resolved, on the motion of Mr. James Macarthur, that the Hon. Edward Deas-Thomson, the Colonial Secretary (or Premier) of that time, and Mr. William Charles Wentworth, who were both about to visit England, should be "requested and empowered" to give the Constitution Bill their advocacy and to combat any objections likely to be taken to the passing of the legislation through the Imperial Parliament to give it validity. The two emissaries left Sydney on their mission early in 1854.

The Legislative Council having adopted the recommendations of the Select Committee, and having passed the Bills which that body had recommended, did not in any way serve to allay the public hostility to the kind of Constitution proposed to be conferred upon the colony. Feeling still ran high among the majority of the people at what was regarded as the inadequacy of the representation given to those who formed the larger portion of the community. This unrest gradually began to find expression in Parliament itself. Although the list of resolutions already quoted had been carried without division a totally contrary set of motions was next year brought forward in the Legislature and was supported by a substantial minority of members. The author of these was Mr. Darvall, who already had identified himself with the more democratic tendencies of the times.

They were as follows:—

1. That the New South Wales Constitution Act, sent home for the consideration of the British Parliament, was passed by this Council in opposition to the wishes of a large majority of the colonists, who desire, as a basis of their future local government, a Representative Legislature, and a just distribution of the elective franchise.

2. That if this Act shall unhappily become law, the Government of the colony will fail to obtain that confidence of the people without which it cannot be either useful or powerful, and the future welfare and peace of the colony will be disturbed by the introduction of those changes which can now be effected without difficulty or confusion.

3. That it is the manifest desire of Her Majesty's advisers, and of the Imperial Parliament, to confer upon the colonists a form of local government in accordance with their wants and wishes; and as this Council, as now constituted, does not represent the opinions of the people of New South Wales, and is constructed on principles fundamentally opposed to the British Constitution, it is expedient and just that the constitution of the local Government should be determined by the wisdom of Parliament, and not by the now existing local Legislature.

4. That the foregoing resolutions be embodied in an address to the Governor-General, with a request that His Excellency will be pleased to communicate them to the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies for the information of Her Majesty.
A considerable debate followed the moving of these resolutions. There was, however, but little chance of them being carried. The Legislature represented officialdom and the wealthy classes in an overwhelming preponderance. When the House went to a vote, the question was decided in the negative by 24 to 10.

Meanwhile Mr. Wentworth and the Hon. Edward Deas-Thompson had reached England on their mission. On July 3 the latter sent out a despatch to the Speaker of the Legislative Council. He informed the House that the Constitution Bill had been amended by the Colonial Office and had passed the House of Commons. The House of Lords was expected to agree to it without further alteration. But the amendments which had been made were important. He stated that the Colonial Office had introduced a power of destroying majorities, and that legislating by bare majorities of the members present in all cases (excepting only the squatting question) had been introduced. He declared that the only securities the measure contained against the destructive innovations which had been made lay in the fact that the vested rights of the Crown tenants were upheld and the nominated Upper House was permitted. The communication was read to members of the Legislative Council on October 2. On the last day of the same month that body received official notification that the legislation had passed both Houses of the Imperial Parliament and that it had received the Royal assent. The information was conveyed by the Governor-General in a message accompanied by an Act of Parliament "by which Her Majesty had been enabled to assent to a Bill (as amended) of the Legislature of New South Wales to confer a Constitution on New South Wales. Together with these a despatch was received from Lord John Russell, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies. The latter statesman pointed out that the local Legislative Council had exceeded its powers by passing the Bill. "However," he continued, "it was more expedient to preserve in form, as well as in substance, the measures which had been fully considered and finally enacted by that Legislature than to substitute direct Parliamentary legislation. Clauses of a purely local nature were therefore unaltered. But those portions of the provincial enactment which controlled and regulated the future power of the Crown as to the reservation and disallowance of the Colonial Acts, and as to the instructions to be given to the Governors respecting them, had been omitted by the Imperial Parliament."

An interesting feature of Lord John Russell's despatch was contained in that portion dealing with the proposal New South Wales had made regarding the establishment of a federal union of the Australian colonies. The Legislative Council was assured that the matter had received the fullest consideration by the Imperial Government, which, however, had concluded that the time was not opportune for taking such a step. The Colonial Legislature was informed attention would be bestowed upon any further propositions regarding the same subject received from any of the Australian Legislatures.

A month later the Council was notified that Her Majesty's assent had been granted to the Constitution Act. Thus was established the Constitution of the colony of which Queensland then formed a part. It was the Parliament constructed on the lines laid down by this legislation which resolved upon the separation of what hitherto had been known as the Moreton Bay District some four years later.

CHAPTER VIII.

EARLY LAND TENURE.

As the first settlement in Queensland took place while the northern colony still formed part of New South Wales, and while both were subject to the same laws and government, a proper understanding of the conditions of tenure and the history of pastoral and agricultural settlement of what was first known as the Moreton Bay district must be based on some acquaintance with the first occupation by stock-breeders and others of the parent State.

Sydney was the centre from which all the earliest excursions in search of new territory set out, and the Parliament in Sydney to which the settlers in the Moreton Bay district, including the Darling Downs, held whatever right they possessed to country being used by them for stock-raising or other purposes. When a separate State was constituted in 1859 the new-born Queensland Parliament took over a set of conditions moulded by the Legislature of the neighbouring colony.

In the space of half a century the attitude of the Australian people has completely changed regarding the land question. This has been due to two causes. Economic thought has altered. Till fifty years ago, and later, freehold was regarded as the one sure foundation upon which to build an enduring agricultural and pastoral settlement. All the older economists had preached the virtues of freehold and the evils of leasehold; whilst no one had sufficiently differentiated between the merits of leasehold from a private owner and
leasehold from the Crown on a wisely-devised plan of fixity of tenure and proper compensation for improvements in the event of change of tenants. The early colonial legislators were always ready to part eagerly with the public lands, because they considered that the increase in the area of alienated freehold and the increase in industry and production were synonymous terms. One of the keenest disputes with the Imperial authorities was caused by the latter insisting on an upset price of £1 per acre being charged for the fee-simple of all areas in what was then New South Wales, and by the inhabitants considering that settlement and industry were unduly retarded by so high a figure being demanded. The other cause for the complete change of conviction regarding the land problem has been due to the force of circumstances. The problem of settling the continent seemed so tremendous to the small community with homes on the eastern side, in the forties and fifties, that no one then foresaw the possibility of who pushed out into the unknown with a flock or herd with which he intended to found a station, though naturally he was admired as being of the type doing most to build up the future prosperity and well-being of the colony. In some instances grants of land were made, and in 1831, as already mentioned in these pages, the Sydney Gazette contained a notice that in future Crown Lands would be disposed of by auction sale only, and at a minimum price of 5s. per acre. But no considerable progress was made with the disposal of the land. The great bulk of the country would find no purchasers because the extent was so vast and settlers so few. Indeed, the interior of the colony was officially referred to as "Waste Lands," and its unauthorized occupation was recognized. It was, of course, impossible for the settlers indefinitely to continue taking what land they required without reference to any authority. Although most of the country was still unexplored, unrestrained and unregulated occupation.

half-a-century bringing a condition in which the farming industry, and the more productive forms of settlement generally, might be retarded by all the best land having gravitated into the hands of a few, and the natural demand caused by refrigeration and other improved means of transporting products having increased land values beyond the wildest dreams of early speculators. While the problem perplexing the Australian Parliaments now often is to find the right sort of land to meet the needs of the settlers who desire to follow a particular occupation, thus causing the creation of Closer Settlement Acts, the question confronting the early Legislature of the parent State was to find settlers who would take even the best of the land.

The earliest pastoral enterprise of Australia was largely carried on without legal right to the land used. But a few thousands of people were settled upon a continent approximating three million square miles in area, and no envious eyes were cast upon the pioneer must necessarily breed discord in those localities where industry could be most practically carried on. Certain legislation protecting Crown lands from "encroachment, intrusion, and trespass" had been passed in 1832. In 1836 Governor Bourke had found it necessary to present a Bill to the Legislative Council of New South Wales aiming at the restraint of the unauthorized occupation of Crown lands. The Governor informed the House that the Bill had been prepared at the special request of a number of respectable colonists, who had claimed that a number of offences were being committed as a result of the absence of regulation of use of "Waste Lands." The measure proposed that within certain limits "Waste Lands" would be accessible under regulations already in force for those areas. Permission to occupy land outside those limits might be obtained from the Government in the form of licences, which would be renewable annually, and would be granted to persons of "good repute" to depasture sheep and stock. These
licences would protect the holders against proceedings being taken against them under the proposed Act. The measure, which thus prohibited the occupation of any lands without some sort of legal authority, was passed a month later.

Three years later, further legislation dealing with the same matter was passed by the Legislative Council. This was a measure laid on the table by Sir George Gipps, who was then Governor. It made provision for the establishment of a certain police force to operate outside what was called “the limits of location”—that is, in those wide areas in which the licences applied. The police were to be paid for by means of an annual assessment on stock depastured beyond the “limits of location.” The assessment was at the rate of 5d. per head on sheep, 14d. per head on cattle, and 3d. per head on horses. A commissioner, armed with power for keeping peace, was to be appointed for the districts beyond the “limits of location.”

Some years later this Act was discontinued, the grounds being that the Governor had frequently represented that Her Majesty was the sole owner of the “Waste Lands,” and therefore interference by the Council was unnecessary; that, so long as that ownership existed, the Council was not justified in imposing a peculiar tax on squatters in particular; that the powers conferred on the commissioners were arbitrary and unconstitutional; that the Act had been passed on the understanding that the licence fee should not be increased, which compact had not been kept, and that new regulations had been made by the Crown regarding waste lands, in spite of the remonstrance of the Council.

Meanwhile great discontent had been generated throughout the colony at the interference of the Imperial authorities in raising the minimum price at which Crown lands might be purchased. Originally the upset price had been 5s. per acre, whilst the minimum rental of leased land was fixed at 20s. per area lot. The former figure had been increased, first to 12s. and then to 20s. This raised objection in two ways. Colonists who would have liked to become proprietors of freehold found themselves restricted to such an extent that as much money was now required to buy one acre as previously would have purchased four. The resentment was increased by the knowledge that the step had been taken by a Department at the other side of the globe, and at the order of people who had never seen the continent. People who had no wish to become settlers or landholders also entertained resentment. They had good reason to know that the restriction had decreased the sales. The quantity of land to be disposed of annually had materially declined since the minimum price had been raised. All classes of the community were anxious to see settlement extend on a permanent basis as rapidly as possible. In September, 1846, the opinion of the country was reflected in Parliament, when Mr. Robert Lowe moved, among other resolutions, “That the raising of the upset price of land, first to 12s. and then to £1 per acre, has rendered waste land unsaleable.” This motion was carried. The House also resolved, “That while this price is maintained the squating question can never be settled on a just and satisfactory basis,” and “That the minimum upset price of land ought to be reduced to a sum not exceeding its value.”

To the disappointment of the colonists, these protests produced no effect on the Imperial Government. In June of the same year a despatch was received from Earl Grey enclosing a copy of certain regulations which it was contemplated to establish in pursuance of an “Act to amend an Act for regulating the Sale of Waste Land belonging to the Australian Colonies, and to make further Provision for the Management thereof.” This measure had recently been passed by the Imperial Parliament. The Act imposed penalties for the unauthorized occupation of waste lands. During the following month a Select Committee was appointed, on the motion of Mr. John Fitzgerald Leslie Foster, a member for Port Phillip, to inquire into what ought to be the minimum upset price of land in New South Wales.

Only a few days later a despatch came to hand from the Secretary of State on the subject of the proposed Orders. In this document Earl Grey stated that, before proceeding further with the contemplated measure, he had considered it important to obtain the opinion of the late Governor of New South Wales, and that before his recent death Sir George Gipps had given him advice and assistance in the revision of the proposed regulations.

The Orders-in-Council annexed to this despatch divided the colony into three districts—the settled, the intermediate, and the unsettled. Leases for runs of land within the unsettled districts were to be granted for not more than fourteen years, the rent being proportioned to the number of sheep, or equivalent number of cattle, which the run should be capable of carrying. Each run should be capable of carrying at least 4,000 sheep, or an equivalent number of cattle; and it should not in any case be let at a lower rent than £10 per annum, to which £2 10s. should be added for every additional 1,000 sheep, or equivalent number of cattle, which the run was able to carry. The Commissioner of Crown Lands was to name one valuer, the occupier another, and the two together were to appoint a referee. The rents of runs were not to interfere with any existing assessments on sheep or cattle, nor with the right of the Colonial Legislature to impose from time to time such assessments as might be deemed advisable. The rules applicable to intermediate lands were to be the same as those for unsettled lands, except that the leases were
to be limited to eight years, and that it should be
competent for the Governor, after sixty days' notice, to
offer for sale all or part of the lands of such runs. Leases of the settled lands, exclusively for pastoral
purposes, were to be granted for terms not exceeding
one year; and it was to be competent for the Governor
to make general rules under which holders of purchased
lands in the settled districts should be permitted to run
stock on any adjacent Crown lands.

The local Legislature, as soon as receiving this
despatch, referred it for report to the Committee of
which Mr. Foster had secured the appointment.

The Committee just referred to, of which Mr. Lowe
was chairman, presented a lengthy and detailed report
on September 27. It declared it seemed, from the
evidence of all the witnesses, that the sum of £1 per acre
did not represent in any degree the exchangeable value
of land in New South Wales. The declaration of Par-
liament, therefore, that land should not be sold till
quality could be obtained in New South Wales at 5s.
The present and actual interests of the latter had there-
fore been sacrificed to the present and visionary
prospects of the younger settlement. But the ruin of
the land fund of the colony, the dispersion of her
people, and the stoppage of immigration had not been
the only results of this minimum price being fixed. The
most serious consequence lay in the Act of the Imperial
Parliament and the Land Orders issued thereunder,
which had been referred to the Committee by a vote of
the Council. The Imperial Government, it was pointed
out, could prohibit land being sold at less than £1 per
acre, but could not make the land worth that sum, nor
declare, because it was unsold, that it should be unoccu-
pied; nor prevent those who occupied it from drawing
the inferences which their position naturally suggested.
The Committee pointed out that the squatters, forced to
carry and prevented from buying, virtually obtained
without purchase all the advantages which purchase

it realized £1 per acre amounted to a declaration that
it should not be sold at all, except under abnormal
circumstances. As a result of the increase in price, the
sum realized from the sale of land in 1846 was less than
one-fourth the amount derived from the same source in
1837. During the five years immediately succeeding
the raising of the minimum price to £1 the total sales
had brought in but two-thirds of the amount derived
from land sales in the year 1837. This was in spite of
the fact that the population of the colony had increased
from 85,000 in 1837 to 196,000 in 1845. It could be
proved, said the Committee, by unquestionable evidence
that it was not with a view to the welfare of New South
Wales, but of South Australia, that the prohibitory
price had been imposed. Colonel Torrens and his
brother Commissioners (the founders of the South
Australian Colony) felt it would be impossible to
obtain £1 for land there while land of the same
could give them. The law which rendered these lands
unsaleable practically made them a present to the
occupants. Consequently there had arisen in the colony
a party which held a vested interest in maintaining the
prohibitory price, which stood as a guarantee that their
occupation would never be disturbed.

Dealing with the Orders in detail, the Committee
commented that if the minimum upset price were to be
maintained the lands would be substantially divided by
the Orders into two classes—the confiscated and the
unconfiscated; the former being equivalent to the inter-
mediate and unsettled and the latter to the settled
districts. If land were to remain in the possession of
its present occupant till sold at £1 an acre it mattered
little whether his lease were held for eight or fourteen
years, as it was his for ever, not because his title was
good, but because no one would be able to take
advantage of its defects. The Committee expressed
surprise that in the local division of the colony so narrow a space should be allotted to the settled and intermediate districts respectively, and that these divisions should have been formed with so singular a disregard to the local peculiarities of the colony. The Committee also objected to a prohibition to cultivate which was contained in a section of the Orders. The prohibition had been inspired by a desire to compel the purchase of land by granting a monopoly in agriculture to holders of freehold. But as land could never be sold to any extent at the then established minimum price the rule amounted to an absolute prohibition of cultivation altogether. Out of a territory of 300,000,000 acres, not 25,000 acres had been sold in the previous four years, and if the 300,000,000 acres were to remain desolate until bought at this rate, it would require 48,000 years for the completion of such an operation. The Orders proposed that each run was to be capable of carrying 4,000 sheep. This would mean that a number of the humbler squatters would be dispossessed in order to make room for their more wealthy neighbours. In other ways the squatter was made absolutely dependent upon the will of the Crown. The provision for granting leases for purely pastoral purposes would ruin many industrious people, who, though quite unable to purchase land at £1 per acre, had cultivated waste lands to the great advantage of the surrounding district. The Committee quite disagreed with Earl Grey's contention that a high-priced land and the squatting system might mutually support one another. In no case, it contended, could a system of sale, and of occupation without sale, support one another. Sale was antagonistic to temporary occupation, which in turn was conversely antagonistic to sale. If sales were brisk temporary occupation was destroyed, whilst if temporary occupation were prevalent it destroyed sale.

A reply was received from Earl Grey to the Select Committee's report on September 22, 1848. The arguments he used in opposition to the agitation for the speedy alienation of land at a cheap price were very much the same as would be advanced to-day in the light of subsequent experience. He saw, in his mind's eye, the aggregation of great areas in the hands of single individuals. His despatch stated that the opinion of the Committee seemed to rest on the assumption that there ought to be an almost unlimited facility for the acquisition of the public lands; they appeared to consider it a fault if the sales of such lands as belonged to the Crown should intermit. That system, however, had until a recent date been applied to the settlement of all the British colonies, and everywhere had been attended with universal failure. In British North America large areas had fallen into the hands of single individuals to the detriment of the colony. The same policy had ruined settlement in Western Australia. Since a fair price had been demanded for land in New South Wales upwards of a million sterling had been collected from sales, and the money had been applied to obtaining a supply of labour, which was still deficient. However, immigration had increased the population by nearly 63,000 persons, whose passage had been aided from the Land Fund, besides 18,000 persons who had paid their own way after assisted immigration had been established. This increase in population had advanced the colony in wealth and prosperity, and had enabled its change from a convict to a free colony. Long before Sir George Gipps had declared that if they were to be guided by colonial advice in fixing the price at which lands could be sold for pastoral purposes, the smallest coin would be too large a sum for an acre. This opinion was born out by other observers. Considering the importance of the subject, Earl Grey had called together the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, and they had entirely concurred with his views.

A Select Committee on Crown Lands had been appointed on June 12, with Mr. Lowe as chairman. It submitted a lengthy report on October 3, reiterating the objections against the high price of land, and affirming that this great instrument of colonization would be forestalled and pre-occupied until its price was reduced to 5s. per acre. It emphasized the anomaly of the local Legislature, which had been entrusted with the appropriation of the ordinary revenue for the purpose of public works, not being similarly empowered to spend the moiety of the land revenue, which was devoted to the same purpose. Serious evils had sprung into existence from placing that portion of the Land Fund applied to emigration at the disposal of the Home Government. The colony and the Home Government had an equal interest in promoting migration, but it was in the interest of each to make the other pay as much as possible. In settling these conflicting interests the colonies had gone practically unrepresented. The colony of New South Wales had been compelled to pay all, and she had involved herself in debt for this object. Had the moneys been at the disposal of the Legislative Council a system would have been formulated by which Government, parish, emigrant, and colonist would have contributed equally to that in which they were equally interested. But the emigrant was there to defend himself, the Government had its Ministers and the parish its guardians; so upon the colonists the whole weight of migration fell. The quit rent of 2d. per acre on most of the land was more than a rack rent. The Committee made an ardent appeal for the question of the expenditure of its money to be left to the local Legislature, as being the body best qualified to spend it wisely, both because of holding responsibility directly to the people most interested, and because of possessing a degree of local knowledge impossible of attainment by any
Department of the Imperial Government. The Legislative Council duly adopted this report and ordered it to be forwarded to the Secretary of State.

About this time attention was being increasingly turned to the Moreton Bay district, as Southern Queensland was then termed. A penal station had been established and land settlement was proceeding with a fair degree of rapidity. The increasing population of what since became New South Wales, as separated from the northern colony, proved sufficiently powerful to push a convict settlement to Moreton Bay. On July 14, 1850, a despatch was laid on the table of the Legislative Council informing the House that independently of such immigrants as it might receive as a result of the expenditure of colonial funds, Moreton Bay would be entitled, on account of the number of ticket-of-leave men sent there, to at least two ships sent to it with free immigrants, carried at the expense of the United Kingdom, and that the ships would be dispatched at once. Incidentally to the same subject, Mr. Darvall, about the same time, moved the following series of resolutions, and they were passed without division:—

(1) "That since the year 1836 the Land Fund, amounting to £1,179,000, has been expended under the direction of Her Majesty's Government in relieving Great Britain of a portion of her distressed population, in all 78,500 souls, comprehending 27,700 adult labourers.

(2) "That this revenue has, for the same purpose, been charged with a debt of £100,000.

(3) "That although this expenditure has been beneficial in some respects, it has exhausted the means of obtaining that continuous supply of labour which the colonists most urgently require, while unmixed advantages have been derived from this outlay by Great Britain, by whom no part of the expense has been borne.

(4) "That during the whole of this period the colonists were justly entitled to the administration of their own Land Fund, and that if such power had not been withheld from them they would have procured contribution towards the cost of emigration from Her Majesty's Government, or the over-populous parishes in England, Ireland, and Scotland.

(5) "That it is no part of the duty of the colonists to pay for the importation of immigrants nor to receive criminals, and that the same principles of sound policy which have induced Her Majesty's Government to give compensation by way of free labour for the introduction of exiles entitle colonists to expect that the same amount of Imperial funds shall be expended in the introduction of free labour into New South Wales which has been disbursed for this purpose out of the colonial revenue.

(6) "That these resolutions be embodied in a humble address to the Queen, and that the Governor be requested to transmit the same to the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies."

In August of the same year the Legislative Council passed further resolutions of a similar character. The second of these, which are quoted below, deals with the old-standing dispute centralizing round the expenditure by the Imperial Government of moneys derived from the sale of public lands in New South Wales. The mover was Mr. Wentworth, and three of the resolutions read as follows:—

(1) "That it is a grievance that the salary and establishment of the Governor, so long as he continues to be a strictly Imperial officer, appointed by the Home authorities and responsible only to them, are not defrayed to the extent of half out of Imperial funds.

(2) "That in the opinion of this House the Schedules A, B, and C appended to the Imperial Act, 5 and 6, Victoria, cap. 76, are a grievance; that they are opposed to the Declaratory Act, 18 Geo. III., cap. 12, sec. 1, which places the appropriation as well as the imposition of all taxes in the several Legislatures of the colonies; and that the tendency of these schedules, independent of the fundamental objection to their enactment by the Imperial Parliament, is to encourage a wasteful expenditure of the public moneys and to destroy all responsibility in the governing power to the people's representatives.

(3) "That in the opinion of this House the Imperial Act, 5 and 6, Victoria, cap. 30, which places the management of the lands of the colony and the appropriation of the revenues thence arising beyond the control of the House, is a grievance; that inasmuch as the whole value of these lands has been imparted to them by the settlement of the colonists, and by the labour and capital which they have expended upon them, and this value consequently belongs to the whole colony, it follows that the entire revenues thence arising, whether by sale or rent, ought of right to form part of our ordinary revenue and be subject to the sole control and appropriation of the local Legislature, and although by the Bill now before Parliament for the better government of the Australian Colonies it is proposed to vest in the General or Federal Assembly to be thereby constituted, the power to redress this grievance, this House—seeing the uncertainty that any two of these colonies will agree to set this General Assembly in motion—that the process for calling it together, even though they should so agree, is very dilatory, and that there is little chance of any unanimity in regard to a uniform price for the public lands of these colonies, so diverse in climate, production, and soil, does not look to any relief from a legislative body so unfitted to deal with this grievance, and insists on the justice and expediency of vesting plenary powers with reference to the public lands of these several colonies in their several Legislatures."
During 1851 the Council was called together to consider measures needed for giving effect to the provisions of the Imperial Act which had lately been passed for the better government of the Australian Colonies, and to deal with the separation of Victoria, which up till then had been known as the Port Phillip Bay district of New South Wales. Queensland, of course, still formed part of the latter colony. A despatch from Earl Grey was laid upon the table of the House. In it he stated that land revenue was of a totally different character from revenue raised by taxation. The practice had been to expend half the income derived from the sale of land on emigration. This was an appropriation tending directly to increase the value of the land till then had been known as the Port Phillip Bay district or the sale of land on emigration. This was an appropriation tending directly to increase the value of the land from which it was derived. After providing for this and necessary expenditure on aborigines, and sundry other charges, the land revenue ought, as far as possible, to be spent in local improvements in the districts from which it arose.

On April 8, 1851, the Legislature, on the motion of Mr. W. Wentworth, appointed a Select Committee to prepare a remonstrance against the new Constitution Act which the Imperial Parliament had passed. The report of this body has already been dealt with in the seventh chapter of this work. It is, however, necessary to quote here the opinions the Committee expressed regarding the policy the Imperial Government had adopted regarding the alienation and administration of colonial lands. The report sets out, among matters already dealt with:—"After the reiterated reports, resolutions, addresses, and petitions which have proceeded from us during the whole course of our Legislative career against the Schedules appended to 5 and 6 Victoria, cap. 76, and the appropriations of our ordinary revenue under the sole authority of Parliament; against the administration of our waste lands, and our territorial revenue thence arising; against the withholding of the Customs Department from our control; against the dispensation of the patronage of the colony at the discretion of the Minister for the Colonies; and against the veto reserved and exercised by the said Minister, in the name of the Crown, in matters of local legislation— we feel that we had a right to expect that these undoubted grievances would have been redressed . . .; or that power to redress them would have been conferred on the constituent bodies thereby created, with the avowed intention of establishing an authority more competent than Parliament itself to frame suitable constitutions for the whole group of the Australian Colonies. These, our reasonable expectations, have been utterly frustrated. The Schedules, instead of being abolished, have been increased. The powers of altering the appropriations in these Schedules, conferred on the Colonial Legislatures by this new Act, limited as these powers are, have been in effect nullified by the subsequent instructions of the Colonial Minister. The exploded fallacies of the Wakefield theory are still clung to; the pernicious Land Sales Act is still enforced; and thousands of our fellow subjects (in consequence of the undue price put by that mischievous and impolitic enactment upon our waste lands, in defiance of the precedents of the United States, of Canada, and the other North American Colonies, and even of the neighbouring Colony of the Cape of Good Hope) are annually diverted from our shores, and thus forced against their will to seek a home for themselves and their children in the backwoods of America. Nor is this all. Our territorial revenue, diminished as it is by this most mistaken policy, is in a great measure confined to the introduction among us of people unsuited to our wants, and, in many instances, the outpourings of the poor-houses and unions of the United Kingdom, instead of being applied in directing to this colony a stream of vigorous and efficient labour, calculated to elevate the character of our industrial population." The Committee went on to declare "that the revenue arising from the public lands, derived as it is mainly from the value imparted to them by the labour and capital of the people of this colony, is as much their property as the ordinary revenue, and ought therefore to be subject only to the like control and appropriation." Later in the same year further protests were formally passed by the Legislature.

Little satisfaction was gained by the local Legislature by its remonstrance sent to the Secretary for State, and Earl Grey's reply was transmitted to the House by message from the Governor on July 13, 1852. The Secretary for State for the Colonies denied that the waste lands of New South Wales, or the revenue derived from them, were in any reasonable sense the property of the inhabitants, or that their representatives ought to have, as of right, the control and disposal of that revenue. The waste lands of the vast colonial possessions of the British Empire were held by the Crown as trustee for the Empire at large, and not for the inhabitants of the particular provinces, divided by arbitrary geographical limits in which any such waste lands happened to be situated. Otherwise the first inhabitants of any of these vast provinces were indefeasibly entitled to administer all the lands and revenues of the great unexplored tract, called a province, of which they occupied an extremity, wholly without regard for the interests of the nation which had founded the settlement, perhaps at great expense, in order to form a home for her own emigrants and a market for her own industry. When, and on what conditions, it might be desirable to transfer the control of the waste lands of a colony to its local Legislature was a question of expediency and not of right, and he considered that the Australian waste lands were for the present wisely,
as well as rightfully, vested in the general Government. The Waste Lands Act had been adopted on the recommendation of a Committee of the House of Commons, and its object was to give permanence and more complete effect to a course of policy then already adopted. The extraordinary advance the colony had made in wealth and prosperity was due to the adoption of that policy.

Of course, such a communication was not permitted to go unanswered. In the following month Mr. Wentworth moved the appointment of a Select Committee to prepare a reply to the despatch of Earl Grey. Three only eight nominated members against it. It was denied that the present value of the waste lands had been mainly given through the expenditure incurred by Britain in founding, maintaining, and defending them. It being obvious that whatever value was imparted to the waste lands was derived from the labour and capital of the colonists, it followed that such value of right belonged to those who had created it, and that therefore the Crown was a trustee, not for the inhabitants of the Empire at large, but for the colonists alone. Therefore the territorial revenue ought to be as much under the control and appropriation of the Council as the ordinary

days later the Committee brought up its report, which was adopted in the form of resolutions by the Council and transmitted to the Secretary of State and to the Imperial Parliament. The reply particularly dealt with a portion of the despatch which alleged that the remonstrance had not proceeded from a body accurately expressing the feelings of the community. The reply pointed out that, of the Council of thirty-six members concerned, twenty-four were elective and twelve nominated. Of these, seventeen elective members and one nominated member voted for the remonstrance, and revenue. It was not the least of the manifold Australian grievances that the Emigration Commissioners had placed in their hands the expenditure of territorial revenue wholly derived from the exertions of the settlers. It was the belief of the Committee that the Emigration Commissioners were mainly influenced by those to whose interest it was that the less desirable class of people should be shipped to Australia.

In May of next year the Council received a despatch from Sir John Pakington, who had succeeded Earl Grey as Colonial Secretary. The change was happy
The new Minister rose to the realization of the impotence of the Government in the United Kingdom to manage the details of administration of the local affairs of a little-explored country on the opposite side of the globe. It was largely to him that New South Wales, which at that date embodied Queensland, owed its thanks for the greater degree of self-governing powers which followed his elevation to office. The despatch stated that the Home Government was fully impressed with a sense of the importance to be attached to the petition, not only as proceeding from the great majority of the Legislature of the colony, but as reiterating that statement of the causes of their discontent which had been deliberately urged by their predecessors. It also had been influenced by the gold discoveries, which had imparted unforeseen features to their political and social conditions. It had now to deal with a state of affairs which had no parallel in history, and which must, in all human probability, stimulate the advance of population, wealth, and material prosperity with a rapidity alike unparalleled. The general good order and conduct of the multitudes attracted to the gold deposits rendered the self-governing powers of the people the more necessary. The present Imperial Government, however, concurred fully in the conclusions with their predecessors as to a portion of the grievances. It agreed with Earl Grey that there was no just cause for complaint as to the distribution of Crown patronage in the colonies. It was unable to concede the claim advanced by the colonists to the administration of the lands as one of absolute right; but it concurred in Earl Grey's opinion that when and on what conditions it might be desirable to transfer the control of the waste lands of a colony to its local Legislature was a question of expediency and not of right. It had, however, arrived at the conclusion that the time was come at which it was their duty to advise Her Majesty that the administration of these lands should be transferred to the colonial Legislature after the constitutional changes adverted to in the petition had been effected. Without believing that the operation of the Land Sales Act had been in truth pernicious to New South Wales, and with a strong persuasion that much benefit had resulted to the Australian colonies in general from that adherence to fixed principles in the disposal of the Land Fund which it enforced, it was of opinion that those benefits were no longer such as to countervail the disadvantages attending its restrictions.

This meant that in regard to the control of the lands the colonists had attained all they had agitated for over so long a period. But Sir John Pakington was not destined to remain long in office. He was succeeded by the Duke of Newcastle. The new Government, however, concurred fully in the conclusions arrived at by those in power immediately before them. A despatch from the Duke of Newcastle, written, of course, when he was already in office, was received by the local Legislature simultaneously with that written before the change in Government had taken place, by Sir John Pakington. The Duke of Newcastle said that he and his colleagues cordially adopted the conclusions arrived at by the late Government regarding the future administration of the waste lands of the Crown. He was informed that a Committee of the Council was engaged in the preparation of a scheme for the amendment of its Constitution. As soon as a new Constitution had been passed, and had received Her Majesty's assent, the disposition of the waste lands and the appropriation of the accruing funds would be placed without reserve under the supervision and control of the Legislative authority of the colony.

After the Constitution Bill had passed through all its stages during the following December, the Council, among other declaratory resolutions, passed the following:

"It [the proposed new Constitution] surrenders to the control of the Legislature the waste lands of the Crown, subject to the maintenance of the vested rights and other interests that have grown up under existing laws; and

"To the like control and appropriation the entire consolidated revenues of the colony, from whatever source arising, except that portion thereof which is voluntarily granted to Her Majesty by way of Civil List."

The Council also declared that the "Bill to confer a Constitution on New South Wales and to grant a Civil List to Her Majesty was an embodiment of all the rights for which the then existing House and preceding Legislative Councils had for years been contending, and would, when passed into law, redress the grievances enumerated in the petitions to Her Majesty and to both Houses of Parliament."

The land question still remained of supreme importance in the minds of the people of New South Wales and of what is now Queensland. They held no doubt about pastoral enterprise lying at the base of whatever progress the colony was likely to make in industry, prosperity, or growth of population, and they well knew that pastoral enterprise could not proceed at any fast rate when squatters were not able to obtain land by purchase at a price which the profits of their industry would enable them to pay, or to acquire any security of tenure without purchase on practical terms. Leases and cheap rentals, on long terms and with compensation for improvements on the expiration of the term, would have attracted many more producers than cared to risk their labour and capital on the terms then offering.
On November 29, 1854, a Select Committee on Crown Lands, which had been appointed on the motion of Mr. Charles Cowper, the member for Cumberland, brought up a report. However, a majority of the members decided that owing to the great importance of the whole question, and the much more extended inquiry which it would receive, it was not expedient to pledge the Committee to that report.

In January of 1857, a Constitution and control of her waste lands having by that time been conferred on New South Wales by the Imperial Parliament, Mr. John Hay introduced a Bill “to regulate the Sale of the Waste Lands of New South Wales.”

Parliament was prorogued on March 18, 1857. The Governor’s Speech on that date made reference to the land question. He said that until a period of sufficient leisure to admit of careful deliberation was afforded it had been considered necessary to postpone any general measures relating to the administration of the waste lands of the Crown.

The Governor’s Speech at the assembling of the second session of 1857, which began on August 11, dealt further with the land problem. His Excellency announced that a Land Bill would be introduced which, while preserving the good faith of the Crown, would render the acquisition of land in fee-simple more easy to all who were likely to bring it into profitable use and thus facilitate the permanent settlement, and, at the same time, the productiveness of the colony. One of the most important objects of the measure would be to augment, without pressing upon any class of the community, the means available for public improvement, and more especially for those great works of internal communication which were so much desired.

In August of the same year Mr. Stuart Alexander Donaldson, member for Sydney Hamlets, and Treasurer, made the first financial statement in which a responsible Government of the colony had been called upon to review a self-devised system of finance. He estimated the proceeds of land sales at £210,000 and the rent of lands at £248,000. Whilst explaining the latter item, the Treasurer said it was the intention of the Ministry to introduce legislation to consolidate the laws relating to the waste lands, but he would not go into details, as they would be fully dealt with, he said, in the Land Bill of Mr. Hay.

The Bill referred to was duly introduced on October 22, 1857, by Mr. Cowper. The measure classified the waste lands of the colony under four heads—town, suburban, agricultural, and pastoral. The minimum upset price per acre was to be:—For town lands, £3 per acre; for suburban land, £2 per acre; for agricultural land, £1 per acre; and for pastoral land, 5s. per acre. The House agreed to the second reading of the Bill by thirty-six votes to eight. However, during the Committee stage, Mr. Robertson moved that the further consideration of the measure be postponed for six months, and the resolution was negatived only by the casting vote of the Chairman. The Bill was withdrawn in consequence.

In the following year land legislation was passed through all stages and received the Royal assent. This was represented in a measure to impose an assessment on runs in the unsettled and intermediate districts, and to increase the rent of lands leased for pastoral purposes within the settled districts of New South Wales. The Bill was introduced by Mr. Robertson on August 12.

In 1859 three Land Bills were introduced by Mr. Robertson, who held office as Secretary for Land and Works. They were entitled the Crown Land Sales Bill, the Crown Lands Occupation Bill, and the Leased Lands Occupation Bill. However, all three measures were discharged from the business paper, two of them on the motion of Mr. Robertson himself.

No further land legislation was passed prior to the separation of the Moreton Bay district, now known as Queensland, which took place the same year. It is, therefore, to be noted that before Queensland became a separate colony the parent Parliament had fought for and obtained complete self-government, including the administration of Crown lands, coupled with possession of what revenues were received from leasing or selling the areas which settlers were able to use.

CHAPTER IX.

THE BIRTH OF QUEENSLAND.

The people of New South Wales appear to have first seriously turned their attention to the resources of Queensland, or the Moreton Bay district, as this State was called at that time, in 1823. It was in that year when the wide, fertile expanses of the Darling Downs were discovered by Allan Cunningham, the distinguished botanist. In September of the same year the Government cutter “Mermaid” was sent with stores to Newcastle, and with instructions to afterwards proceed northward to Port Bowen, Port Curtis, and Moreton Bay. On the vessel was the Surveyor-General, John Oxley. Port Bowen and Port Curtis were to be
investigated, and all three harbours were to be reported upon as to their suitability for use as sites for forming new convict settlements, where men, not usefully employed in the older stations, and incorrigible prisoners might be sent.

Moreton Bay had, of course, been discovered by Cook and afterwards visited by Flinders. When the "Mermaid" dropped anchor in her wide waters a tribe of natives rushed down to the waterside, and among them was a man much larger and of lighter colour than the others. To the astonishment of the ship's crew, he addressed them in English. Though naked and painted, little observation was required to discover that he was a European. Meanwhile the natives were demonstrating affection for their alien comrade with many wild gestures. The stranger was taken on to the ship, but so potent had been the influences of living several years among the natives, and so deep was his excitement at being discovered by his countrymen—for he was an Englishman—that little information could be obtained from him that night.

Next morning it was ascertained that the man's name was Thomas Pamphlet. His tale was taken down in writing. Pamphlet said he had set out with three others—Richard Parsons, John Finnigan, and John Thompson—for Illawarra. They had left Sydney in a large open boat, the object of the voyage being to obtain cedar. However, they were overtaken by a violent gale, which blew with hurricane violence for five days and five nights, and drove them many miles out of their course. The four men, who had no means of locating their position when the storm died down, imagined they were to the southward of Tasmania—or Van Diemen Land, as it was then called. In consequence they turned the boat in a due northerly direction, and for twenty-one days they were so badly in need of water that John Thompson died of thirst. Then the boat was wrecked on Moreton Island; but the three survivors still imagined themselves far to the south of Port Jackson. The party easily reached the mainland and set out on foot to reach Sydney, but as they were so much footsore after they had advanced about fifty miles, and he had returned to the starting-point, meeting and remaining with the tribe he had been found among. Shortly afterwards Finnigan and Parsons fell out, and the former had returned. At the time of the "Mermaid's" visit, however, he was away on a hunting expedition with the chief of the tribe. Till then Parsons had not been heard of again, though the following year he also was discovered. Finnigan arrived the following day.

The greatest benefit accrued to the expedition and to the progress of British settlement by the crew of the "Mermaid" having found these two men. Both Cook and Flinders had sailed away without suspecting the existence of the Brisbane River. They both believed that no considerable stream emptied itself into Moreton Bay. Finnigan gave such information that Oxley, in the whaleboat was able to steer into the mouth of the stream and by sundown had sailed up its majestic waters for twenty miles from the sea. The next day the expedition was continued, and Oxley realized that he had found what, for purposes of navigation and commerce, was one of the most useful streams on the Australian coast. Oxley declared himself as feeling justified in believing that the sources of the river were not to be found in a mountainous country, but rather that it flowed from some lake, which would prove to be the receptacle of those interior streams crossed by him (Oxley) during an expedition of discovery in 1818.

Pamphlet and his companions appear to have been treated with peculiar kindness by the Queensland blacks, who supplied them with such housing as they themselves possessed and with the best of the food they had. The same attitude was adopted to the white men by all the tribes with which they came into contact. One remarkable feature about the natives was their ignorance of boiling water. Whenever the white men brought water to the boil the blacks would bolt away as fast as their legs would carry them, and they would refuse to return until the fluid was emptied out again. The blacks appear to have been industrious and kindly in their habits. Both men and women spent the days either in collecting food or in preparing nets and other traps with which to procure fish and meat. Fish and kangaroo nets were made from the bark of kurrajong trees. During several months spent among them, Pamphlet declared that he never saw a man hit or otherwise ill-use a woman. The men, however, fought duels which often ended fatally.

The expedition and the discovery of the Brisbane River was destined to be fraught with potent results at an early day. In September, 1824, John Oxley again set out for Moreton Bay. This time his ship was the brig "Amity," which carried a civil establishment, prisoners, and stores. The intention was to plant a settlement somewhere on the shores of Moreton Bay. A detachment of the 40th Regiment, under the command of Lieutenant Butler, was also on board as a guard. For a beginning the new settlement was placed on Red Cliff Point, and the "Amity" returned to Port Jackson, carrying with her Captain Pearson, Oxley, and the King's botanist (Allan Cunningham), reaching Port Jackson on October 21. But before leaving Moreton Bay Oxley had made a thorough examination of the neighbourhood, and he had ascended the Brisbane River to a point forty miles higher up than that which he had penetrated on the occasion of his first excursion. The
Surveyor-General returned fully convinced that the stream communicated with the interior waters. One reason for this opinion lay in the fact that he had found fish hitherto known only in the western watershed. During this expedition the "Amity" picked up Parsons, the third member of the party of wrecked white men, of which the first had been discovered by the crew of the "Mermaid." On her return voyage the "Amity" left Moreton Bay by the Southern Passage, which was called after her. By this route fifty miles were cut off the distance to Sydney. During this expedition the "Amity" picked up Parsons, the third member of the party of wrecked white men, of which the first had been discovered by the crew of the "Mermaid." On her return voyage the "Amity" left Moreton Bay by the Southern Passage, which was called after her. By this route fifty miles were cut off the distance to Sydney.

Francis Stephen. After an exceedingly rough passage the "Amity" entered Moreton Bay by the northern passage. Afterwards Sir Thomas Brisbane and the Chief Justice proceeded twenty-eight miles up the river, and expressed surprise at the magnificence of the stream, as well as at the size of the trees they saw. Upon his return the Governor insisted on the removal of the settlement some miles up the river, and thus was laid, in 1824, the foundations of the City of Brisbane. The "Amity" arrived back at Port Jackson on December 4.

A strange tale of the bush came from Cape York some years later, and this time it was a woman who played the leading part. The survey ship "Rattlesnake," under the command of Captain Stanley, was lying at anchor when a landing party brought off a white woman and some of a tribe of natives, who had come to the mainland from Prince of Wales Island. The European had been five years with the blacks, and she had almost forgotten the English language. For some time she could only be understood with difficulty, but she ultimately succeeded in making it plain that she desired to be rescued and carried back to civilization. The natives had always treated her with every kindness, but they had always refused to permit her to communicate with any passing ship. She had gained access to the "Rattlesnake," however, by inducing her captors to take her on board in order that she might shake hands with her countrymen.

The woman's maiden name had been Barbara Crawford. Her father had been a tinman, and was a Scotchman living at Sydney. She had married a man named Thompson, and together with him had resided at Moreton Bay. However, they had left that settlement in the cutter "American" for Port Errington, where they intended to make a new home. After having made a considerable portion of the voyage, the ship fell in with one of the storms which rage so fiercely on the Queensland coast, and the little vessel was cast upon Prince of Wales Island, all the ship's company, except herself, being drowned. Captain Stanley liberally rewarded the blacks for their good treatment of the woman, who was afterwards able to provide useful testimony of the habits of the natives of Torres Straits.

On March 17, 1825, the "Nancy," dispatched to Moreton Bay with supplies for the settlement of Brisbane, was compelled to return through being in a leaky condition. In the following May the "Hercules" made the voyage, having on board Archdeacon Thomas Hobbes Scott. He held services in the church of St. James on June 9.

A few months later Major Lockyer set out from Sydney in the cutter "Mermaid" to explore the Brisbane River to its source, in company with a pilot named Gray. In his ultimate report he writes, among other conclusions: — "I think it very probable that the large swamp, into which the river at Bathurst loses itself, occasionally overflows and is the cause of the tremendous floods that at times take place in the Brisbane River." In June, 1827, Captain Logan made an interesting excursion on foot up the Brisbane River. On July 25,
1827, he forwarded a report to the Colonial Secretary, part of which is well worth quoting. He wrote:—

"I proceeded up the Brisbane River on June 7—as will appear by my journal—with the view of heading the river lately discovered (the Logan), reaching Mount Warning, and from thence taking the most direct route to the Tweed. However, I found it impossible, notwithstanding every exertion, to get through the thick scrub which covers the mountain in that direction. I was in consequence obliged to return to the settlement without accomplishing the object of my journey. However, I have much satisfaction in reporting that the country through which I travelled exceeded my most sanguine expectations, and is everywhere exceedingly well watered, and I have no doubt, whenever it may suit the views of Government to open it for settlers, it will be found the most desirable district for that purpose hitherto found in the colony. After the sailing of the 'Wellington' I will take the opportunity of proceeding to the spot from whence I saw what I supposed to be the Tweed, and from thence endeavour to make a direct route. The distance did not seem to me to exceed fifty miles."

Portion of the journal referred to reads as follows:—

"June 7.—Left the settlement at four o'clock in the morning, proceeded up the Brisbane, and arrived at Limestone Hills, on the left branch, at ten o'clock at night. Distance, fifty-seven miles.

"June 8.—Sent the boat back to the settlement and proceeded overland. Directed my course S.S.W. in the direction of Mount Dumaresq. The country very fine. Black vegetable mould on limestone bottom. The timber consists of eucalyptus—viz., ironbark, blue gum, box, appletree, and a variety I have not hitherto seen. Men being very much fatigued, halted for the night; distance, thirteen miles. Resumed at eight o'clock next morning. Country superior, for eight miles, to yesterday's. Shot two beautiful parrots—a new species not hitherto found in the colony. Came to a large swampy plain well adapted to graze cattle. Saw a large flock of emus, the first seen in the vicinity of Moreton Bay. The course of the river making a detour to the west, left its bank; the grass thereon being on fire obliged me again to cross the river. Proceeded up the left bank for some miles; the mountains towering on every side reminded me of a Pyrenean valley. At four o'clock killed a large kangaroo, which was very acceptable to the men. Distance, twenty-five miles.

"June 10.—Commenced this day's journey at half-past eight o'clock. Crossed a beautiful plain two miles in width and about three miles in length; very lightly timbered; no preparation necessary for the plough share. At half-past nine entered a thick scrub at the foot of Mount Dumaresq, which continues to the summit. Found several turkeys and a remarkably large pigeon, upwards of three pounds weight. Gained the top of the mountain at three o'clock. Had a grand and extensive prospect. The Limestone Hills bore N.E. I had traversed the valley of the Brisbane for about thirty-six miles, and it appeared about the same in breadth. I may safely rely that there is in this beautiful vale at least half a million acres, excellently watered and fit for any purpose to which it may be applied. I could likewise distinctly see the windings of the Logan through an extensive and beautiful country eastward from Mount Dumaresq, and only separated from the valley I had quitted by moderately elevated ground. In descending the mountain on the southern side I had to encounter a difficult scrub, which I could not clear before sunset. Luckily I found water in a ravine where I stopped for the night. Distance this day, twelve miles.

"June 11.—Resumed my descent through the scrub at eight o'clock; after much difficulty cleared it at ten o'clock. Found a branch of the Logan at the base, running northward; the river here passed through a large swampy plain well adapted to graze cattle. Saw a large flock of emus, the first seen in the vicinity of Moreton Bay. The course of the river making a detour to the west, left its bank; the grass thereon being on fire obliged me again to cross the river. Proceeded up the left bank for some miles; the mountains towering on every side reminded me of a Pyrenean valley. At four o'clock killed a large kangaroo, which was very acceptable to the men. Distance, twenty-five miles.

"June 12.—Continued my route to the south. The river branched into several streams; we were evidently near its source. Walked for some hours over a hilly country, admirably adapted for grazing sheep; came to a creek at the foot of Mount Shadford, and shot an emu on the bank. Ascended the mountain, which was the most fatiguing part of the journey. It unfortunately began to rain on my reaching the summit, accompanied by a thick fog, which prevented me from having so extensive a prospect as I expected. I was surrounded by mountains on all sides, but I could not get a view of Mount Warning. To continue my route to the southward would have been very difficult, and would have protracted the journey beyond the time; I therefore determined to steer eastward and gain the low country. Descended the mountain to the eastward and halted for the night in a native encampment. Distance, fifteen miles.

"June 13.—Continued my route eastward over a very difficult and mountainous country. At length perceived Mount Warning directly in my course; on approaching the base found the principal branch of the Logan. The stream was so rapid I had some difficulty in crossing. Encamped on the right bank, and immediately commenced to ascend, in hope of reaching the summit, but could only gain a peak not more than half way to the top. All attempts appeared to be hopeless.
at the east and north sides, and it would have detained me two days longer to have made a detour to the westward, probably with as little chance of success. I therefore returned to the encampment with the intention of proceeding on my journey in the morning. Distance, fourteen miles.

"June 14.—Made another attempt to ascend the mountain on the north side; had a very extensive view. recommenced my journey to the east. Proceeded for some miles without much difficulty. Crossed another river, which washed the S.E. side of the mountain and united with another a few miles below. Crossed some beautiful valleys, well watered with mountain streams. Got into an extensive scrub, which prevented my making way to the east. Towards evening made a detour to north to clear the scrub, and got into open forest country before sunset. Distance, twenty miles.

"June 15.—Started at sunrise. Proceeded east; passed through a fine hilly country covered with a most luxuriant mould. This part of the country is the best I have seen either for sheep or cattle, and is most abundantly watered, each valley possessing a beautiful rivulet. Passed several considerable streams which unite with the Logan. Towards evening my route eastward was completely terminated by mountains covered with pine scrub to the summits. Perceiving a stream running north, I determined to follow the course for a few miles for the purpose of finding a more even way to cross the mountains to the sea coast. Distance, twenty-five miles.

"June 16.—Started N.E. over a hilly country, somewhat inferior to yesterday, but well adapted to pasturage. Distance, fifteen miles.

"June 17.—Ascended a ridge of mountains; could see nothing but mountains to the eastward, covered with pine scrub. Provisions were nearly exhausted and the men's shoes worn out; determined to steer northward and join the settlement. Proceeded down the banks of a river through a rich tract of country. Saw several kangaroos, but the dogs were so weak they could not run them down. Fortunately, before sunset killed one; stopped for the night. Distance, twenty miles.

"June 18.—Continued my route. Passed through a rich valley. Towards midday left valley on my right. My route now lay over some rocky ridges; the worst country I have passed through. The men greatly fatigued. Distance, sixteen miles.

"June 19.—Continued north the first part of the day. Country was very good; much improved in appearance to that traversed yesterday. Towards noon it became swampy. At two o'clock we arrived at the Logan; not fordable. Stopped for the night. Distance, twenty miles.

"June 20.—Made several unsuccessful attempts to cross the river; moved up the bank about eight miles.

“June 21.—Proceeded up the river about two miles. Crossed at a ledge of rocks. Steered north for the settlement. Timbered with finest oak; considerable number of swamps. Distance, twenty-two miles.

“June 22.—Recommenced my route for Brisbane town, for a few miles through a swampy country; towards midday arrived at Cooper Plains and crossed Canoe Creek. Reached the Brisbane River opposite the settlement at four o'clock."

On July 16 of the same year several points of Moreton Bay received their names by Government order. The "Isle of Stradbroke" was so called "in compliment to the Honorable J. H. Rous, commanding H.M.S. 'Rainbow'—the first ship of war to enter Moreton Bay."

Another order deals with the spot now so well known in Queensland as the position of a Government benevolent asylum. It sets out: — "The point of land on the Isle of Stradbroke (which is intended as the site of a public establishment) [quarantine], opposite to Peel's Island, is named Dunwich; and the anchorage where the 'Rainbow' lay, Rainbow Beach. The channel between the Isle of Stradbroke and Moreton Island is named Rous Channel." A further order announced that the river recently discovered at Moreton Bay—immediately to the southward of Brisbane—should be called the Logan, as a record of the Governor's approbation of the zeal which Captain Logan, the commandant of Moreton Bay, had evinced in adding to the important discovery made by Mr. Oxley, the Surveyor-General, of the River Brisbane in the year 1823. April, 1829, was stamped with one of the ugly stains which did so much in the early days to blacken the name of the new continent in the eyes of people in the Old World. On the eighteenth of the month, two convicts, named Thomas Matthews and Thomas Allen, were hanged for having knocked down and brutally battered to death one of their comrades named John Carroll. A few days later James Sullivan was hanged for having killed a companion, Patrick McConderan. Both were convicts. The former declared that he had committed the crime in order that he might "himself be freed from suffering worse than death."

There is little room for doubting that the prisoners were treated with exasperating brutality. Very much of the crime committed was brought on by the severity of the control; whilst men, transported for trifling offences, whom tactful and considerate treatment might have turned into valuable colonists, were transformed into hardened criminals.

In 1828 the eastern settlement of Australia suffered a deep loss in the death of one who had done so much in exploration and development work. On February 26 of that year Oxley obtained leave of absence because of ill-health. Major Thomas Livingston Mitchell, the
well-known explorer of new country in south-eastern Australia, was appointed temporarily in his place; but on May 25 Oxley died from sickness produced by overwork. The following day Major Mitchell was gazetted to the appointment. The deceased official had entered the public service at an early age, and for sixteen years he filled the post of Surveyor-General, which was one of the most important the colony at that stage of its growth had to offer. In the Government Order which appointed Major Mitchell, the following is part of the reference made to Mr. Oxley:—“His exertions in the public service have been unwearyed, as has been proved by his several expeditions to explore the interior. The public have reaped the benefit, while it is to be apprehended that the event, which they cannot fail to lament, has been accelerated by the privations and fatigue he endured during the performance of these arduous services. Mr. Oxley eminently assisted in unfolding the advantages of this highly-favoured country, and his name will ever be associated with the dawn of its advancement. It is always gratifying to the Government to record its approbation of the services of meritorious public officers, and in assigning to Mr. Oxley’s name a distinguished place in that class, to which his devotion to the interests of the colony has so justly entitled him, the Government would do honour to his memory in the same degree as it feels the loss it has sustained in his death.”

A tragic event occurred in the Moreton Bay district in 1830. Captain Logan had then been four years in command of the settlement. At the end of the year he was to have returned to Sydney, after having energetically, if somewhat harshly, discharged his duties to the infant colony. Very much of his term of office he had spent in leading exploring parties, both on sea and land, and greatly had he added to the knowledge of the nature of the land about Brisbane, and indeed for a big radius beyond. His last desire was that, before relinquishing the duties he had discharged for nearly half a decade, he might complete a map which would show the results of all the efforts made by himself and others to examine the neighbourhood of Brisbane. On October 9 he set out with a servant named Collison, of the 57th Regiment, and five prisoners to correctly lay down the twistings of the Brisbane River between Pine Range, Lockyer Creek, and Mount Brisbane. He intended to examine the windings of Lockyer Creek, which left the main channel at the foot of Mount Brisbane and returned by the Pumice-stone stream and Glasshouse Mountains. The party took its requirements on two pack-bullocks. When it was nearing the Pine Range it found itself faced by a band of two hundred hostile blacks. The latter were well up on the side of the hill, and when the party was beneath the savages rolled down large stones; but they did not succeed in inflicting any damage upon the explorers. Collison fired a shot over the heads of the natives, causing them to withdraw, and no spears or other weapons were used. Other natives were encountered, and in every instance their demesnour was threatening and manifestly hostile. However, Captain Logan apparently felt little alarm. On the return journey, when near Mount Irwin, he remained some time behind the others in order to carry out some geological investigation. He had instructed the party where to camp for the night, and he arranged to catch up with them later in the evening. That was the last time he was seen alive. During the night the party thought they heard several coo-ees and four or five gunshots. They replied, but the sounds died away.

At dawn two men were sent to follow the horse tracks of Captain Logan. This they continued doing until about noon, when between fifty and sixty blacks made their appearance, waving their implements of warfare. For some hour or more the natives followed, endeavouring to get at close quarters, but ultimately they broke away in the direction of Mount Irwin. That was the way Captain Logan had gone the night before. The two searchers met with no success in their quest. But three days later another party found a space eaten round, where a horse had been tethered. They also discovered the tracks where Captain Logan had taken the animal to water, and where he had lit a fire at the stump of a tree and roasted chestnuts. The body of neither man nor beast could be found, and it was concluded that the former had sprung upon his horse when suddenly attacked, and that he had succeeded in making good his escape. The party then returned.

As Captain Logan made no appearance, a third party set out to discover his whereabouts. They fell in with still another body of men bent on the same mission. The latter was under the command of a surgeon named Cowper. After a lengthy search Mr. Cowper found Captain Logan’s waistcoat and some leaves of his notebook. They were covered with blood. The next day Mr. Cowper found the horse, which had been killed, covered with branches of trees and lying at the bottom of a shallow creek. On the bank of the stream, and only a few yards away Captain Logan’s body was found in a grave, only about two feet deep. The back of the head had been beaten to pulp with waddies. The body was taken to Brisbane and finally sent to Sydney. A Government Order bestowed high praise upon the deceased commandant, who had “on several occasions, at great personal risk, explored the country to a considerable extent, and on one of these he discovered a river which, in compliment to his services, was named the Logan.”

About this time feeling towards the convict element was running high. Arising from this
there was a persistent rumour at Moreton Bay that poor Logan’s death had been brought about by the blacks having been incited to active hostility by runaway prisoners who were living among the natives. However, there was certainly no evidence advanced in support of this somewhat wild theory.

The prisoners at Moreton Bay comprised many grades of men. Some had been transported because of stealing small quantities of bread for hungry children, or other offences which to-day would meet with no greater punishment than the infliction of a light fine. Others were brutal and irreclaimable criminals, who exercised a contaminating influence on all with whom they came in contact. All were treated with unrelenting and debasing severity. The officials in charge of the penal establishments held full power to inflict the most heart-rending punishment upon prisoners, about whose guilt they were the sole judges. The wonder was that some of the convicts, after regaining their liberty, managed to live successful and reputable lives, and in some instances to honestly amass considerable sums of money.

An illuminating illustration of the official attitude to the human beings who had been transported to penal servitude is afforded by a proclamation issued by the Governor, Lieutenant-General Darling, in October, 1830. The important portion of the proclamation read as follows:—“Now I, the Governor aforesaid, do, by this proclamation, declare and direct that the commandants or persons in charge of the several penal settlements now established in this colony, or its dependencies respectively, or any two or more magistrates in any reason why the punishment should not be carried into effect, will state the same to the commandant in writing; and no number of lashes beyond twenty-five shall be inflicted without the actual presence of a medical officer, who is to be answerable that no greater number of lashes shall be inflicted than the bodily strength of the offender can bear without endangering life.

In 1833 the “Isabella” brought to Moreton Bay twenty of the class of convicts called “specials.” These were men drawn from the higher classes of society, who were held by the authorities to have possessed all the benefits of good education and early moral training, of which they had failed to take advantage. Idle and dissolute habits had made them industrially useless, even when engaged in forced labour. Early in the same year a number of...
these "specials" managed to make good their escape in a Government boat, and though the "Isabella" made a long and tedious search for them the effort proved quite futile. The "Isabella" afterwards returned to Sydney laden with specimens of the prolific nature of the locality where the Brisbane settlement had been established. Among these were cedar-tree rails, and specimens of Moreton Bay wood. In August, 1834, a cargo brought from Brisbane by the "Harriet" was sold by auction. Among the sales resulting were 32,000 feet of cedar in plank at 1½d. per foot, and 8,000 bushels of maize at 3s. to 3s. 2d. per bushel.

In 1835 all the south-eastern portion of Queensland, from the spot where Rockhampton now stands to the County of Macquarie, in New South Wales, ran a very narrow escape of falling into the grip of a mighty private monopoly. The moving spirit in this happily abortive enterprise was one Major Benjamin Sullivan, who endeavoured to form a joint stock company which would use poorer people from the United Kingdom, whom it would assist to migrate on a grant of over 20,000,000 acres of the best of the coastal land.

The prospectus of this cool proposal is sufficiently interesting to be worth quoting in part, even at this late date, when private trusts, combines, and monopolies are regarded with so much suspicion. The document reads as follows:—

"1. It is proposed that a joint stock company shall be formed, to be called 'The Eastern Australian Company,' with a capital of one million sterling, to be raised by twenty thousand shares of £50, and paid in five instalments.

"2. That the said company shall petition the Crown to grant to it all the territory from 24° to 31° 10' south latitude, and from the eastern seacoast of Australia, including its adjacent isles, to 150° east longitude, or from the coast to as far westward as the dividing mountain range will permit, free from all reserves and rights on the part of the Crown, save that of the right of erecting such military and naval buildings as from time to time may be found necessary for the protection of such territory and for the honour and dignity of the Crown."

A great number of clauses here follow, giving a mass of detail and quoting authorities. The document then goes on to say:—

"The place where it would be advisable for such a company to commence operations from should be Brisbane town, on the Brisbane River, which empties itself into Moreton Bay, where the Crown possesses at present several buildings of brick and stone, as also cattle, all of which will be acquired by the company; therefore it is recommended by the sixth clause that land should be purchased at a fair and reasonable valuation from the Crown, at three years' credit.

"According to the existing regulations, His Majesty has directed that none of his Crown lands shall be given away, but that such should be sold, and that in New South Wales such sale shall not be under the minimum price of five shillings per acre, for the purpose of establishing a fund to assist individuals of Great Britain and Ireland in emigrating to it.

"Such a company as the one proposed cannot expect to have land granted to it by the Crown but by purchase; nevertheless it may be presumed that His Majesty would be favourably disposed towards such a company, and that he would therefore be induced to command that the proposed lands should be allowed to be purchased by such company at the aforesaid fixed valuation, in the course of fifty years, by annual instalments."

Probably not before or since has so startling a suggestion ever been made for the alienation of Australia's natural resources. These, however, were not the days when great aggregations of capitalistic control were regarded with the suspicion prevailing at the present day. The Standard Oil Trust had not arisen like a mighty giant to crush competition. The American Beef Trust had not ruined stock-raisers at the same time as increasing the price of meat to consumers. Shipping combines had not arbitrarily fixed freights to suit only themselves. The forces of active competition were still clearly at work in all the industrial and commercial spheres. Monopoly had not begun the slaughter of the natural forces of demand and supply. Yet the proposal of Major Sullivan contained a good deal more than the Government of that day could swallow. The proposal to hand over what was perhaps the most prolific portion of the continent to a private syndicate, which was to pay only five shillings per acre, spread over a period of fifty years, the Government retaining only the right of defending the company's property from foreign aggression, was something more than the Imperial Government could consent to. The proposition was rejected.

Then Major Sullivan addressed a letter to the people of New South Wales. The epistle is quoted in full in "The Genesis of Queensland," by Mr. Henry Stuart Russell. The document reads as follows:—

"To the free inhabitants of New South Wales.

Port Macquarie, August 20, 1836.

"Gentlemen—In the latter end of 1832 I undertook the laborious task of drawing up a systematic plan for colonizing the different parts of this immense island without imposing any additional burden upon His Majesty's Home Government, and proposed therein that the experiment should be tried by an incorporated joint stock agricultural, commercial, and political company on the eastern coast—that is, from 31° 10' to 23° 30' south latitude."
"That plan, from several unforeseen circumstances, I was prevented from transmitting to His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Colonies till the month of September, 1833.

"In December, 1834, I was honoured with an answer from Mr. Spring Rice, through Mr. Lefevre, the Under-Secretary of State, dated the previous month of July, stating that 'His Majesty's Government, having no intention of forming any settlement in that quarter, Mr. Spring Rice regrets that he is thus precluded from entertaining any project of the nature of that which you have submitted, and that he is the more concerned in being obliged to come to such a decision from the care and attention which you have bestowed upon the subject.'

Dr. Lang had in 1836 made application to the local Government for assistance towards establishing German Presbyterians at Moreton Bay, but met with no favourable reply. Subsequently two more appeals were made, and at length the Government promised a sum equal to what might be raised by private subscriptions for the purpose. When Dr. Lang went home he visited Germany and arranged at Berlin for the selection of twenty persons, clergy and laity, who consented to join the undertaking. They had sailed from Greenock under the charge of the Rev. Mr. Schmidt, and, as already shown, had arrived just a year ago, proceeded to the settlement, and been principally engaged ever since in building their dwellings, etc. The full amount of £517

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contributed and granted had been slightly exceeded by disbursements.”

There is little doubt that these practically assisted German immigrants formed the magnet which afterwards drew to Queensland so large a number of their countrymen, who have so much added to the perplexity of the Federal Government during Great Britain’s war against the German Empire.

About this time the Government appears to have grown tired of the penal settlement at Moreton Bay. The blacks had grown particularly troublesome, whilst the 1,400 odd convicts showed great ease in escaping. The physical features of the country appeared to favour such enterprises. Consequently the steamer “Sophia Jane” was sent to Brisbane to bring back a large portion of the Government paraphernalia. She returned with the Commandant, Major Colton, and his family; Lieutenant Aitken, of the 28th Regiment; Mr. Parker, the Superintendent of Stock; Messrs. White, Spicer, Sheridan, and Hallan, Mr. and Mrs. Cox and four children, 57 female and 19 male prisoners, 23 soldiers, and others. Left behind were a subaltern, commissariat officer, assistant surgeon, and some prisoners. The penal station was allowed, however, to remain. It was the discovery and exploitation of the wonderful land west of Brisbane as well as along the coast which gave the quick subsequent spurt to the development of the settlement.

CHAPTER X.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOUTH-WEST.

The growth of Brisbane and of southern Queensland is due largely to the settlement of the Darling Downs. That fertile region offered to pastoralists something more promising in productiveness than most of what they had yet discovered. The exploration of the colony will be specially dealt with in a separate part of this work; but to understand the industrial and commercial evolution of the place it is necessary to trace the impressions gained by the earliest travellers of that region of which Toowoomba is now the commercial capital.

The first comprehensive knowledge of the Darling Downs was obtained by Allan Cunningham, the Government Botanist, in 1827. Fourteen years before the explorers Messrs. Blaxland, Lawson, and Wentworth had passed over the Blue Mountains. Subsequently Mr. Oxley had penetrated as far north as the latitude of 31°. Cunningham desired to know what lay beyond. He placed before Governor Darling a project for journeying from Liverpool Plains to the shores of Moreton Bay. His Excellency immediately fell in with the project, and the necessary equipment was prepared for the expedition. It was arranged that the party should proceed as far to the westward as circumstances permitted. Six servants accompanied Cunningham. They had eleven horses and provisions enough to last for fourteen weeks.

Cunningham reached the Darling Downs in the middle of the winter of that year, and wecan well understand the enthusiasm with which he regarded the panorama of rich land which stretched away before him as far as the eye could reach, and unaltered day by day as he made his progress northward. The impressions following on the discovery of this fertile region are sufficiently interesting to be worth quoting. They are in extracts from Cunningham’s journal, and read as follows:—

“June 1.—The smokes which we had for the last two days observed to rise from the country to the northward and eastward of us, considered with the frequent screeching in that direction of the white cockatoo (a bird loving to inhabit forest lands in the neighbourhood of rivers), fully satisfied me that we were on the verge of a desirable country. At our usual hour of departure in the morning we, hastening from the spot on which we had passed the previous night, pursued our way in an east-north-east direction.

“Beyond a patch of stony forest ground of rather open character we crossed (at our second mile) a rocky creek dipping easterly, having some clear pools of water in its channel and grass on its margin. From the pitch of a ridge immediately above this watercourse we had a most agreeable though confined view of an extensive range of open country lying in the direction of our course, which from its ample feature and prospect I doubted not would in its examination abundantly reward all our labours in penetrating to it, through a considerable tract of desert country, stretching back to the southward of the parallel of 29°. A hollow in the forest ridge immediately before us allowed me distinctly to perceive that, at a distance of eight or nine miles, open plains or downs of great extent appeared to extend easterly to the base of a lofty range of mountains, lying north and south, distant about thirty miles. With the fullest expectation of being able to reach the western margin of these downs at an early period of the day, we proceeded forward at a quickened pace through an open growing forest to our eighth mile, when our observed latitude appeared to be 28° 11’ 10” S. Already had the
land become much thinner of timber, and we had not advanced half a mile further before we came upon a patch of open plain, skirted by a low ridge of forest hills on its western side, and by a closely-wooded forest ground on the opposite point.

"On climbing a low stony ridge in our way it was really with the greatest satisfaction that we perceived we had approached within two miles of the downs, and as small patches or strips of mist extended throughout their whole length, and a line of swamp oak stretched along their south-western extreme, it was clearly shown us that these extensive tracts of timberless land were not wanting in water. Upon accomplishing a journey of thirteen miles (the last one extending over a commencement of the great plains) we arrived at the left bank of a small river, about fifteen yards in breadth, having a brisk current to the north-west. There was in

PINEAPPLE PLANTATION. WOOMBYE, NORTHERN QUEENSLAND.

all parts of its channel, in the neighbourhood of the spot at which we had made, very deep water, which affording every encouragement to my people to employ a period of the afternoon in fishing, I sent them away along the left bank, furnishing each with hooks and lines.

"In the meanwhile I obtained some sets of lunar distances with the sun, the mean result of which gave me for the meridian of my tent 151° 39' 45"; but as for the accurately measured distance between it and the north-easternmost encampment of this journey (the situation of which was determined by several observations aided by correct bearings to certain fixed points on the coastline), upon being reduced placed the position of my encampment 1° 2' to the eastward. Its situation may be stated as follows:—Long., 151° 41' 30" E.; lat., by observation at noon of 5th, 28° 9' 37" S.; its mean elevation above the seashore, by barometer, being 1,402 ft.

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following day we travelled throughout their whole extent to the base of the mountains that bound them on their eastern extreme, and during the progress of our journey made the following observations on their apparent extent, soil, and capability. These extensive tracts of open country, which I subsequently named (by permission) Darling Downs, in honour of His Excellency the Governor, are situate in or about the mean parallel of 28° 8' S., along which they extend, each eighteen miles, to the meridian of 152°. On the northern side they are bounded by a very gentle rise of lightly-wooded ridge, and on their opposite margin by a level forest of box and white gum of ordinary timber. A chain of deep ponds, supported by streams from lofty ranges immediately to the eastward, passes along the central lower flats of these downs throughout their whole length, and uniting in seasons of heavy rains falls westerly into
Condamine River. Their breadth varies in different parts of the lengthened surface, appearing at the western extremity not to exceed one and a half miles, whilst towards the eastern limits it was estimated at three miles. The lower parts, by a deeply-grooved water-course, form flats, which, in consequence of their permanent moisture, furnish a very considerable range of cattle pasture at all seasons of the year, the grasses and herbage exhibiting generally in depth of winter an extraordinary luxuriance of growth. Among the mass of excellent vegetation produced on these flats, no plant appeared more striking in its growth than a species of rib grass (Plantago struthionis), the leaves of which measured from 12 to 15 in. in length.

"From these central grounds rise downs of a rich black and dry soil, which extend several miles to the eastward, and as they furnish an abundance of herbage, and are conveniently watered, yet perfectly beyond the reach of those irrigations which take place on the flats in wet seasons, they constitute a most valuable sound sheep pasture, the permanently dry nature of which may be inferred from the fact of there being a difference of 300 ft. between the upper or eastern limit and the Condamine River, as shown by the mean results of barometrical admeasurements.

"Towards the close of the afternoon of the 7th, having gained the forest ground on the eastern verge of the downs, we continued our course to the northward and eastward about one and a half miles through a truly beautiful apple-tree forest, abounding in kangaroos; when upon reaching the base of a remarkable flat-topped mount, forming the termination of a portion of the lateral range to which I had taken a bearing when twenty-five miles to the south-west, I encamped on the bank of a narrow creek, furnishing plenty of water, and upon a patch of the finest meadow pasture I have seen in New South Wales.

"Here I gave my wearied horses two days’ rest, some having been reduced to a state of extreme debility and all having suffered considerably in condition by the severity of the journey from Liverpool Plains.

"Whilst, therefore, they were recovering a degree of strength by rest and sound pasture, I was busily engaged examining the dark brushes which clothed the adjacent mountain from its base to its very summit, the vegetation of which appeared altogether tropical.

"The morning of the 8th proving exceedingly fine I set out from the encampment, accompanied by one of my party, to ascend the table mount above our tents, from the elevated summit of which I had promised myself an extensive prospect around. After pushing our way through a mass of dense thicket investing the foot and flank of this eminence, we gained an open spot on its flat summit in about two hours, and were gratified exceedingly by the extensive view afforded us of the country from the north by way of west, and thence to south and south-south-east to the more remarkable points, of which bearings were taken.

"At north-north-west, and especially at north, the country presented a broken and irregular surface, forming a series of heavily-timbered ridges, extending laterally from the more elevated chain of mountains immediately to the eastward, and which, stretching in the direction of the meridian, appeared to constitute the main or dividing range of this part of the interior.

"From the north-west to west, and thence to south, the eye surveyed a vast expanse of open country tame and uninteresting in the distance, but exhibiting within a range of twenty miles every feature of hill and dale, woodland and plain, to diversify the ample, outstretched landscape.

"Large clear patches of land lying to the north of Darling Downs were named Peel Plains, whilst others, bearing to the south and south-east of an ample undulating surface, were entitled Canning Downs, in honour of the late Right Hon. George Canning. The extent of these downs easterly we were unable from the point on which we stood to observe, but on the south they were bounded by a lofty ridge of hills, lying nearly east and west, which was named Harris Range.

"Directing the view to the north-west beyond Peel Plains an immeasurable expanse of flat country met the eye, on which not the slightest eminence could be observed to interrupt the common level, which, in consequence of the very clear state of the atmosphere, could be discerned to a very distant blue line of horizon verging on the parallel of 27° and meridian of 151°.

"Extremely gratifying as it was to take a bird’s eye survey of so extensive a range of pastoral country as appeared beneath us (the discovery of which had compensated us for the privation we had met with in our journey extending by admeasurement 340 statute miles from Hunter River), still the question arose in my mind from what point so fine a country could be approached, seeing that at east and north-east, in the direction of Moreton Bay, a very lofty range of mountains, immediately bounding us, constituted a barrier very difficult to be passed.

"As all observation easterly towards the coastline was thus prevented we descended to the tents, heavy weather having come on from the north.

"This flat-top eminence, which I observed formed the north-western angle of a body of lateral hills extending from the leading range of these mountains, was named Mount Dumaresq, and along its northern side a grassy valley, stretching from the great downs north-easterly to the immediate foot of the main range, received the appellation of Millar Valley.

"Rain having set in, it continued almost without intermission for forty-eight hours, until the morning of
the 10th inst., when fair weather was again restored to us, and we quitted our encamping ground with the intention of penetrating towards the higher points of these mountains, from the summits of which I expected to obtain bearings to the fixed points on the coast. Pursuing a course to the south of the base of a thickly-wooded ridge, stretching from Mount Dumaresq, about four miles to a second hill of tabular figure, we passed round its foot, and altering our course to north-east entered a very beautiful grassy vale, bounded by a lofty lateral ridge, and like Millar Valley, leading directly to the base of the principal range.

"Advancing about five miles up this vale, which I named after Captain Logan, the present indefatigable commandant of the penal settlement at Moreton Bay, I again halted on a small brook meandering through north-north-east, was, however, remarked, to the pitch of which the declivity from the head of Millar Valley seemed very moderate, and as this gap appeared likely to prove on examination a very practicable pass through these formidable mountains, I determined to employ a day in exploring it. The next day was spent in exploring the Gap."

"These mountains," wrote Cunningham, "to the western base of which we approached from a sterile southern region, form the dividing range in this part of the country, and give rise to the waters falling as well on the coast as westerly to the distant interior; and as the barometrical observations made on the lateral range gave a result of 3,735 feet, and the extreme ridge appeared at least 300 feet higher, its elevation above the level of the sea may be considered about 4,100 feet.

to the south—a remarkable double-headed mount of the same range, bearing north-east by east, about ten miles. Dense brushy forests clothing the bases of the lateral ranges immediately overlooking our encampment were productive of a number of curious plants not before known; and it was in these I first clearly and satisfactorily recognized the pine (araucaria), which I had formerly observed in greater numbers in the dark brushes of the Brisbane River."

Cunningham then remained at this depot for three days, examining the surrounding country and its vegetation. The weather proved unfavourable for an examination of the main range in order to discover how best to find a pass by which to reach Brisbane. But "a very singular, deeply-excavated part of the range, bearing from my station on the lateral ridge

GATHERING GRAPES AT ROMA, WESTERN QUEENSLAND.

The forest ridges, which were heavily timbered with stringybark of great bulk, were found clothed to their summits with grass of the most luxuriant growth, and being well watered by numerous trickling rills, originating between the shoulders of the hills, constitute a very specious range of the richest cattle pasture.

"Upon examining the hollow-back of the mountain ridge it was found to be very rugged and difficult, large masses of rock having fallen down from the lands on each side into the gap, which was overgrown with strong twining plants. Immediately to the south, however, the range presented a very moderate surface, over which a line of road might be constructed without much labour, as the rise from Millar Valley proved by no means abrupt, and the fall easterly from the range to the forest ground at its base appeared of singularly easy
declivity. Looking north-easterly the eye wandered with pleasure over a fine open grazing country, very moderately timbered, with patches of clear plain, and detached wooded ridges to diversify the surface, and in no part did there appear the slightest obstacle to prevent a communication either with the southern shore of Moreton Bay or the banks of the Brisbane River.

In taking a general view of the very superior country at which the labours of my party terminated, northerly, it was gratifying to observe the range of luxuriant pasturage, this subject of our discovery, in its plains, rising downs, open woodlands, valleys, and even elevated forest ranges, has thrown open to our most extensive flocks and herds, in a genial climate, and at an elevation of 1,800 feet above the seashore.

"Its timbers, moreover, add to its importance. The summit and flanks of the ranges produce great abundance of well-grown stringybark, whilst the lower ridges furnish stately pine of the species already well known on the Brisbane, varying from sixty to eighty feet in height, and as small saplings of the red cedar were observed on the margin of the brushes investing the base of the hills, large trees of this valuable wood are doubtless to be met with in their more remote recesses. Although neither coal nor limestone was found in this tract of country, a quarry of freestone, seemingly well adapted to building, could be easily opened on the bank of a creek about two miles south of Logan Vale. In fine, upon the consideration that we are occupying a country in which, in the absence of navigable rivers, an expensive land carriage must ever be resorted to in the conveyance of produce of the inland to the coast, the value of this extensive range of pastoral country is not a little enhanced in its proximity to the seashore, and the seeming facility with which we may reasonably conclude from the moderate appearance of the intervening country to the eastward of these mountains, the sheepfarmer, the varied richness of herbs and grasses, the depth of the flat soil, the open plains, on which 4,000 sheep could be watched with as much ease as 500 in the closely-timbered forest land to which they had been accustomed, and above all things, the evidence that the climate was of so happy a medium that catarrh lost its terror, and the prognostications of knowing-ones far away south that the wool would, so near the tropics, quickly become 'poor,' were set at nought by manifest improvement—I was assured, in some respects which I did not understand, no burr, no grass seed, no—well! I was in an Elysian field; and truly it was, as I learned to take in all its features, a scene of great beauty, and beauty stamped in value I had no sense of yet. And this tarpaulin triangled upon the ground by a few poles, lashed together at the top by greenhide, was a head station! only temporary, however. One little tree leant away from it; the trees were very sparse on the ridge at the back; a dog, cross of greyhound and I know not what else, in fact, 'lucher-like,' was chained to it; the ashes of a fire which was played out by sun heat; a few quart pots, iron pots, a double-barrelled gun (Rogers), and under the tarpaulin a cask which was full of salt mutton; half the inevitable damper on top of it; and hidden by another tarpaulin pegged to the ground, the necessaria quadam alie vivendi, tea, sugar, tobacco, etc."

While camped at Logan Vale Cunningham encountered one native, who fled in great alarm to the thicker bush. Cunningham concluded that from the man's fear of the strangers that he must fear white men because of never having heard of the settlement on the shores of Moreton Bay. This he considered was evidence of there being but little communication between the blacks on the east and on the west sides of the Dividing Range. Upon quitting Logan Vale on June 18, the party commenced its journey to the southward through what the leader described as "a fine open forest country, abounding in excellent pasture and tolerable timber, and watered by a reedy creek falling westerly, evidently into the Condamine River."

Cunningham's discoveries led to the occupation of the Darling Downs. He returned overland to Sydney, having enjoyed but one glance through the mountain barrier to the country surrounding the settlement of Brisbane. The settlement of the Downs did not advance for thirteen years, and then went through the usual pioneering stages which have characterized most of the conquest of the Australian inland resources.

Another early traveller through the Darling Downs was Henry Stuart Russell. His opinion of them he wrote as follows:—"After a few day's rest, during which my first impression of the Darling Downs was quite and forever effaced, as I became less green to their real worth, apart from the wealth which they bore upon their bosom in essential adaption to the requirements of the sheepfarmer, the varied richness of herbs and grasses, the depth of the flat soil, the open plains, on which 4,000 sheep could be watched with as much ease as 500 in the closely-timbered forest land to which they had been accustomed, and above all things, the evidence that the climate was of so happy a medium that catarrh lost its terror, and the prognostications of knowing-ones far away south that the wool would, so near the tropics, quickly become 'poor,' were set at nought by manifest improvement—I was assured, in some respects which I did not understand, no burr, no grass seed, no—well! I was in an Elysian field; and truly it was, as I learned to take in all its features, a scene of great beauty, and beauty stamped in value I had no sense of yet. And this tarpaulin triangled upon the ground by a few poles, lashed together at the top by greenhide, was a head station! only temporary, however. One little tree leant away from it; the trees were very sparse on the ridge at the back; a dog, cross of greyhound and I know not what else, in fact, 'lucher-like,' was chained to it; the ashes of a fire which was played out by sun heat; a few quart pots, iron pots, a double-barrelled gun (Rogers), and under the tarpaulin a cask which was full of salt mutton; half the inevitable damper on top of it; and hidden by another tarpaulin pegged to the ground, the necessaria quadam alie vivendi, tea, sugar, tobacco, etc."

The same writer goes on later to describe these early impressions in the following language: "The long reach of treeless (barring those absurd grass-trees and their top-knots) grass plain from the east and up the watershed, narrowing as it ascends in that direction, widening as it descends to us, and yet widening until it elbows itself into the expanse of prairie through which we had ridden from the crossing-place; the long, rank grass wavering and shimmering under a light breath of
air now and then, soothing the glare of the sun; the ridges and forest dwarfed by distance, always, in me at least, raising the wish to know what was beyond them again: the feeling among the few who, having run Leslie (the pioneer of the pastoral resources of the Darling Downs) to earth, had yet set eyes on these new spots, which themselves, as yet untrodden, beckoned us on and on, all combined to light up a panorama of present enchantment which receded into a dissolving view of recesses yet in gloom."

The journals of Cunningham contain an interesting account of an expedition made to the Gap which bears his name, from the eastern side. On August 18, 1828, the party set out towards the Limestone Hills in a south-westerly direction, facing the hollow in the main range, which can be seen from elevated positions even from Brisbane. The first portion of the journey was through a variety of nearly level country. At first of the feet of the bullocks which were being used, and which had travelled over stony ground. Considerable difficulty was met with in climbing the rapidly rising ground, through which it was necessary to pass in order to get to the Gap. A halt was called early in the afternoon, within four miles of the mouth of the Gap, which a man was selected to push forward to and examine. He found himself, however, faced with a wall of perpendicular rock, rising from a ravine, stopping his progress after he had advanced in direct distance about three miles. Cunningham here writes: "From the precipitous aspect of this hollow in the main range, its elevated appearance, its breadth between the boundary heads, added to the impracticability of gaining its level from the spot on which our tents stood, I was induced to conceive that the Gap into which I had simply looked from its western side in June, 1827, and which certainly did appear to offer a very practicable passage through

the timber was thick, but gradually the land became more open. It was apparent that open downs were being approached. Near Mount Forbes, which had been named in 1824 by Mr. Oxley, water was discovered after a very uncomfortable experience caused by the lack of it. A few miles further on a pleasing aspect of well-grassed plains was met with. In many parts the pastures were very verdant, and the locality was watered by a large creek to which Cunningham gave the name of Bowerman, in compliment to the third officer in charge of the Government magazine at Parramatta. The country next passed through contained abundant grass, but a scarcity of water was conspicuous. The locality was suffering from the effects of a drought, which had for a long while prevailed over the surrounding districts. On approaching to the Gap the progress grew necessarily slow, because of the extreme tenderness to the eastward, was very distinct from the one now before us, and as the Dividing Range to the north of us trended out easterly, I felt disposed to believe it was to be discerned a few miles in that direction. With this impression on my mind we left the spot on which we had rested in the morning of the 22nd to proceed round the extremes of the lateral ridges, a day's journey to the north, intending to observe attentively as we travelled along the grassy valley we had crossed every indentation of the main range. We immediately entered the valley, and in five miles reached its head, which to the eastward is bounded by rather elevated open forest hills." After continuing for a couple of miles the explorers descended to an apple-tree flat, watered by a creek running to the northward, beside which they camped.

Cunningham determined to remain encamped in the same spot until a fuller knowledge of the immediate
neighbourhood should be ascertained. With that end in view he sent two of his men to climb to the top of the highest peak of the main range they could find, and from there to look for the pass through which their leader had looked to the eastward during the previous year. Late in the afternoon they returned with a full description of the country to the westward, and with the news that no other gap in the mountains could be found. From this and other evidence "it was rationally concluded that either the hollow-back we had just left was the identical pass of last year, or it was in the immediate vicinity."

A return was then made to the Gap first approached. The party was possessed "of the fullest determination to examine leisurely the main range about it, from the extreme points of which I felt quite certain the last year's gap would be discovered." A camp was made about three miles from the entrance of the Gap. An experienced member of the party was sent to attempt the pass by means of ascending ridges which appeared to lead to the highest point of the pass. At dark he returned with news of his success, and related how he had looked over an extensive panorama to the west of the main range. Included in the landscape spreading before, and of which he was able to recognize, were the Darling and Canning Downs, patches of Peel Plains, and several remarkable points of the forest hills on that side. The latter served to fully identify the Gap with that through which Cunningham had seen the coastal country during the previous year. Thus was the Government botanist in a double sense the discoverer of the Gap in the mountains which rightly bears his name. He had found it both from the west and from the east.

Naturally Cunningham was determined not to quit the gateway to the prolific western downs until he had thoroughly explored the practicability of the pass. The botanist early next morning, accompanied only by his servant, set out to penetrate the hollow-back. He utilized a ridge, on which the acclivity was very gradual, though the surface made transit rather slow because of the great number of stones which were met with. Keeping to the ridge, however, the two men found their way with no particular difficulty to opposite the summit of the pass, over which towered a great mountain on either side. The real difficulties now began. The foot of the pass had been gained, but directly ahead was a steep slope leading to the level of the entrance. After proceeding some distance through dense timber the explorers reached the foot of a wall of bare rock, stretching into the pass from the south. But investigation showed that to the north this barricade dropped to the common level. With the utmost ease Cunningham was thus able to reach the highest point in the pass. They then walked through to the spot at which the western country could be seen. Afterwards Cunningham gave a detailed explanation of how a road might be constructed through the Gap.

The real settlement of the Darling Downs began after the thirties. Allegations have been made of an earlier beginning. But no station was formed there before 1840. The country available for the stock-owner in those regions displayed all evidences of abundant fertility. Those who had set out on excursions of discovery found that the grasses and herbage generally possessed peculiarly nourishing quality, horses and oxen being able to accomplish more work when not stable-fed in the interior of what is now Queensland than the same animals could get through in more southern regions. But Moreton Bay was far from the centre of Australian pastoral activity; and every year was adding to the quantity of rich, suitable country known of but as yet unexploited. There was, moreover, the element of speculation and risk in carrying enterprise far to the north, where sheep-farming had not yet been tried, and where many pastoralists confidently believed that the wool would deteriorate in quality.

The first settler of the Darling Downs was Patrick Leslie. In contradiction to certain statements to the contrary he himself wrote: "I believe no white man (but runaway convicts, and I believe none such ever were on the downs) ever set foot on Darling Downs from the time Cunningham discovered them till I went there. As for any stations being formed before 1840 it is simple rubbish." Russell in "The Genesis of Queensland" adopts the same view. He writes: "It took thirteen years (from 1827) for the rare stalk on which he (Cunningham) had grafted the first shoot of civilization to bear ever a bud; but then how rapid the blossoming; how plenteous the harvest!"

On February 21, 1840, Dr. John Dobie, Walter Leslie, and Patrick Leslie arrived in the New England district of New South Wales in search of a road down the Clarence River. Before leaving Sydney Patrick Leslie had heard from Allan Cunningham a full account of the marvellous new country which he had discovered to the westward of Moreton Bay. In company of a servant named Peter Murphy, Patrick Leslie left New England and proceeded in a northerly direction; and on March 14, after crossing the Severn River, they came to Pike Creek, and on March 20 they made the Darling Downs. They explored the Condamine to Canning Downs, and other portions of the Downs, ultimately returning to Falconer Plains, where Dr. Dobie was encamped. They unavailingly besought him to accompany them back to the Darling Downs; but he refused to leave the Clarence. This was in April. A few days later Walter Leslie arrived from Sydney with sheep, drays, and other equipment. In his diary Patrick Leslie writes: "We had twenty-two men, all
ticket-of-leave, or convicts, as good and game a lot of men as ever existed, and who never occasioned us a moment's trouble; worth any forty men I have ever seen since."

The party set forth with 4,000 breeding ewes, 24 working bullocks, a team of horses and dray, and 10 saddle horses. That was the equipment with which they determined to begin to conquer the pastoral resources of the Darling Downs, and incidentally of Queensland. The expedition arrived on the Condamine River on June 4 without the loss of a single animal, or the breaking of even a bullock-chain, so suitable was the land over which it had passed for pastoral enterprise. Two days later the Leslies and Murphy left the plant in charge of the men on the river, and went out to investigate the surrounding country.

The pioneers of those days were explorers as well as the founders of industry in the unknown wilderness. Drawn by the subtle romance of conducting big undertakings on a skeleton scale, where no white man had previously set foot, the first graziers were continually inspired to take bold risks and accomplish big things. The Leslies and Murphy were determined that their effort should not fail through lack of either courage or energy on their own part. Having parted from the others, they shaped their course to the north, and crossed what are now known as Allora, Spring Creek, King Creek, Hodgson Creek, Gowrie, and other settlements. Later they crossed through Cunningham Gap to the coastal side of the main range, and passed on to the Bremer River, intending to reach Brisbane. Afterthoughts generated fear of arriving at the settlement without credentials, and the three men returned to the Condamine, where they reached the camp on July 1. Next day they formed their head station about four miles down the stream, at Toolburra. This place was afterwards sold to a squatter named Gordon. The Leslies then formed Canning Downs head station. They took up all the country from the bottom of Toolburra to the head of the Condamine, including the tributaries. At a later date they gave up what came to be known as the Glengallan Creek to the Campbells, and Sandy Creek to the Aberdeen Company, besides some other country to others. Thus was a beginning made with the settlement of the interior of what was to become Queensland.

In his diary Patrick Leslie writes: "We (on July 2) encamped the drays, etc., on the knoll on which Toolburra head station was afterwards built, and on July 7 I left Walter at Toolburra, and making my way by our own marked tree line, I met Dalrymple on the 9th, with our cattle, at Quart-pot Creek, camped the night with him, and next day I went on and made the Severn River on the 12th. Found Cox had formed a cattle station since we passed up. Stopped the night there, and having next day made Blaxland's station on Fraser Creek, also formed since we passed up; on July 14 came on to Wyndham's station, where we commenced blazing our line on our way up. . . . Hodgson must have reached the Darling Downs early in September, being the first who went off on my line. We were the only people on Darling Downs for fully three months, we arriving on June 4, Hodgson in September. . . . I think King and Sibley were the next settlers, or probably Isaac, who went out with Hodgson, may have selected Gowrie before King and Sibley arrived. I am not sure of this, but if Isaac selected before King and Sibley, the latter had their stock up before Isaac. It was Frederick Isaac who went up with Hodgson.

"It is a fact beyond any doubt that the farthest northern stations in New England when I went out to the Downs were Garden and Bennett's, on the east side of New England, and George Wyndham's station on the west side of the same district; and drawing a line
from Garden and Bennett's to Wyndham's, no squatter had ever a hoof to the northward until we took ours.

"When our blacks became so far tamed as to hold communication with us they told us that the thing which terrified them most (when they first saw me and Murphy four miles below Toolburra on March 20) was our dismounting, their full impression being that man and horse were one animal. Is it likely such would have been their impression had any white man ever been on the Downs, as Messrs. Sutherland say?

"As to Warwick, it was never thought of till the end of 1847, when the Government instructed me to select a spot for the township on the Condamine below Canning Downs, and it must have been in 1848 when the first settlement took place.

"In 1847 George Leslie had a sheep station on the very spot where Warwick now stands. I think it was in 1848 that the first land sale was held, and I was the first man who bought a lot, being instigated to such speculation, extending to £4, by a sawyer named John Russell, a well-known character in those days, who when the first lot was put up addressed me as follows: 'Come here, Patrick Leslie, buy that -- little lot for luck; you were the first man here, be the first to buy.' And I bought it."

Leslie states that neither Drayton nor Toowoomba existed till long after. In 1848 Drayton consisted only of "Bill Horton's" public-house and a shanty or two, with one well for the town. Toowoomba also first began to exist long after the first pastoral settlement.

In 1841 Cunningham Gap was first crossed by wheeled vehicles. Messrs. Hodgson and Gilbert Elliot, two partners, the latter having been aide-de-camp to Sir G. Gipps, made the Pass with drays from west to east, but found themselves utterly unable to return. Then an effort was made by the Commandant, Lieutenant Owen Gorman, to get across from east to west. He had an Irish jaunting car specially constructed for the purpose. A convict named Baker, who knew the country better probably than anyone else, was questioned and taken with the Commandant. A pair of armed constables completed the party. Baker had lived as an escaped prisoner for some years in the neighbourhood of the Gap. The ultimate objective was to visit Hodgson and Elliott, who had returned home by a longer route. For days Gorman traversed through the timbered land, with occasional open plains, which intervened between the mountains and Brisbane.

Having reached the bottom of the pass, all but Baker were unable to believe in the possibility of ascending the height appearing to tower before them. But the convict knew his way, and he knew it practicable of negotiation even to a vehicle. Away went Baker ahead, showing a route which obviated the sudden rises, and brought the party to the summit with less effort than had appeared possible before the attempt had been made. Before them swept the Darling Downs, prolific, clothed thick in pastures, with plains interlocked by timber belts. Behind stretched the coastal forests, whilst on either side towered mighty heads, thrusting skywards their dizzy summits for some 2,000 feet above where the travellers stood.

The descent was duly negotiated, and the party began a delightful journey through the rich and luxuriant pastures, over some of the most prolific soil yet found in Australia.

The development of the Darling Downs, and indeed of south-western Queensland generally, henceforth became more rapid. The fertility of the land, coupled with its soundness for stock, soon became known abroad. The finding of a passage through the mountains for straining teams and heavily laden drays had made access to the coast the easier. Provisions could be obtained the more readily and wool taken with less labour to the seaboard than hitherto. The Darling Downs began its rapid growth in industrial prosperity and general well-being.

CHAPTER XI.

TRANSPORTATION.

The first penal settlement at Moreton Bay was established in 1824. The officer in charge was Lieutenant Miller, of the 40th Regiment, who had been sent from Sydney in charge of prisoners. The site first used was Red Cliff Point, which had been fixed upon for temporary use by Oxley. The expedition sailed from Port Jackson in September. The same year Captain Bishop took command, and was succeeded by Captain Logan in 1825.

The horrors of penal servitude in other parts of Australia were certainly repeated at Moreton Bay. Persistent statements were made by men on the gallows that desperation had driven them to murder as a means whereby they might find relief in the forfeiture of their own lives. It was in the penal days current statement that the men would cast lots for cutting each other's throats in order to get rid of their own lives by being hanged. The Commandant at Moreton Bay against whom were made the most serious statements of treating the prisoners with unnecessary and often barbarous cruelty was Captain Logan.
There is no doubt that others in charge of the settlement besides Captain Logan were guilty of a degree of severity and brutality in dealing with prisoners which would not be tolerated now in any British colony or by any modern civilized community. But Moreton Bay, with usually between 1,200 and 1,500 convicts at the settlement at a time, was remote from other habitations of white men, and the isolation was intensified by the infrequency of visits by vessels from Sydney or elsewhere. William Coote, in his unfortunately uncompleted “History of Queensland,” estimates that from April, 1836, until four years later, the settlement remained, with one exception, unvisited save by prisoners and officials and small vessels bringing the necessary supplies, and at a later period by a few who had obtained permission to reside for purposes of trade. The surrounding country was peopled by treacherous and war-like tribes of savages, whom, it was commonly believed, were incited to acts of plunder and murder by the influence of escaped convicts, who preferred living among the blacks to returning to the horrors of penal servitude. Under circumstances such as those, brutality towards the convicts would arise not so much from a natural hardness of heart as from the moral deterioration bound to be produced among the ruling class under such conditions of life as prevailed. Timidity in administration necessarily would carry with it harshness verging on ferocity in punishing breaches of discipline, and especially attempts at escape. Flogging was common, toil at a treadmill was frequently imposed, and the use of chains formed a common expedient for keeping the prisoners in check. What would have been the results of a more humane method of management it would be futile now to speculate. Certainly likely larger than that prevailing in any other Australian convict settlement. The influence of these men would necessarily be all in the direction of hardening and debasing those who, in different surroundings, might have presented a more promising field for the efforts of the reformer. Perhaps the most blameworthy factors in the early policy of administration lay in the absence of proper classification of the convicts according to character, record, and crimes for which they were respectively convicted, coupled with isolation of the different types, and in the absence of such occupations as, by employing and as far as possible developing the mental capacity of the unfortunate beings, might have germinated and stimulated the growth of whatever slumbering moral attributes even the worst of them held beneath the ill-effects of a pernicious early environment. Quite to the contrary of what would have been at once the most successful and most humane method of treatment, the prisoners were employed for long hours at the most monotonous of manual toil, were guarded in the closest confinement at night, and were cut off from the uplifting influences which would have been derived from literature by some of those among them able to read. No interest in life was permitted to the convict either in hours of work or of rest, whilst those holding control themselves were exposed to the evils of a kind.
of life which could not do other than exercise a progressively harmful influence on moral and mental traits.

Some illuminating lights are cast upon the penal settlement by James Backhouse, a Quaker missionary and also something of a naturalist, who in 1836 visited Moreton Bay accompanied by his friend, George Washington Walker, and who afterwards published a journal of his observations, which, being long since out of print, is not now readily accessible to the general reader. Referring to the absence of literature, Backhouse wrote:—

"At Eagle Farm we again visited the female prisoners, for whom a selection of tracts was left with the superintendent; they expressed thankfulness for them, being very destitute of books, even of Bibles, which the prisoners generally have not access to even on First-days." Elsewhere he expresses the belief that, "as in most other cases, crime has been nursed by the presence of their miserable condition." Some of the women were and among them no doubt are some of the most depraved of their sex, yet they received from us religious visits and some of them seem far from being properly sensible.

But "notwithstanding the warmth of the climate they became so far accustomed to the labour by long practice as to bear the treadmill with comparatively little disgust after working upon it for a considerable number of days." Backhouse found many of the convicts occupied in landing cargoes of maize, or Indian corn, from a field down the river, and others in divesting it of the husks. The missionary, referring to what he saw when inspecting these tasks being carried out, complains:—

"To our regret, we heard an officer swearing at the men and using other improper and exasperating language. The practice is forbidden by the commandant, but it is not uncommon, and in its effect is perhaps equally hardening to those who are guilty of it and those who are under them." An extraordinary lack of all sense of proportion is manifested by the protest at a practice which, after all, the bulk of the prisoners must have been quite as familiar with before transportation as afterwards, in the face of the revolting cruelty and slow-drawn torture so often shown to exist in the methods by which convict settlements at that period were managed. Backhouse mentions that at the time of his inspection the main Moreton Bay prisoners' barracks, though constructed to accommodate 1,000 men, was occupied by only 311.

Backhouse was one of the few visitors to Moreton Bay in convict days not biased towards sympathy with officialdom by plainly apparent personal motives. At that time little in the nature of independent and healthy criticism penetrated the dark wilderness which had engulfed the hapless convicts, together with their guards. But Backhouse, like most of the visitors, assimilated and by acquiescence accepted the general attitude of the Government officials, backed up as it was by the opinion of very many of the free private colonists, though the latter were clearly inspired with the desire for cheap labour. Officials were autocratic in their methods, and were fortified in their positions by the knowledge that information of happenings at penal settlements could reach the ears of higher authorities only by channels controlled from the penal settlements themselves. The free, unofficial section of the population was bound to the officials by many social and political bonds, the former being strengthened by the isolated nature of the population to an extent long since passed away. Very many of the early free settlers of Australia generally either displayed an apathetic lack of interest towards the convict system or else were ready to accept the barbarities, so far as they knew them to exist, of the settlements as an evil inseparable from the prevention of crime in the countries from which the prisoners were drawn. That the latter attitude was adopted by many people otherwise of a generous character is rendered abundantly manifest by the writings of such men as Backhouse—men who, while ready to devote their lives to the welfare of others, yet failed to see the quite unnecessary horrors grafted on to the convict system by the prejudice, ignorance, and fear displayed by so many of the officials sent to Australian shores with autocratic powers, and sent from Sydney to Moreton Bay holding powers of life and death over chained gangs of their fellow-beings. Of all human activities probably the last to show signs of a developing civilization has been the suppression of crime and the
treatment of breakers of laws. The doctrines of advanced contemporary penologists show that there still remains a primitive savagery even in twentieth-century gaol administration. The critic of to-day, therefore, with the advantage of a broadened Christianity and nearly a hundred years of added psychical research, may very easily unduly blame missionaries and other comparatively independent people of the thirties and earlier who, unconsciously biased by all the forces of usage and accepted standards, failed to see, in what we now believe to be their true light, methods which debased and brutalized the old-time convicts, at the same time carrying danger to the lives of warders and officials who so actively stirred the hatred of the abandoned wretches with everything in life worth living for irrevocably lost to them. Missionaries, naturalists, and others likely to write records of their observations, for the most part visited the early penal settlements in no critical frame of mind, and it is not to the records they left which the historian must search for enlightenment as to the practices carried on at the penitentiaries. On the other hand, the officials themselves took all the care possible that such information should be safeguarded, and when the convict settlement was broken up at Moreton Bay all the records which might have thrown light upon the previous management were carefully removed.

However, the writings of Backhouse, who certainly was no hostile critic of the authorities, contain odd statements illustrative of the senseless severity of the discipline. When leaving Moreton Bay the little vessel conveying the missionary and his companions back to Sydney was temporarily prevented by contrary winds and rough seas from putting out upon the ocean. The party landed upon Amity Point, being rowed ashore by convicts. April had not passed, and the weather was oppressively hot. The passengers thereupon took compassion upon the crew, who were perspiring freely at their oars beneath a glaring sun. Handkerchiefs were passed to the straining men, and Backhouse writes:—

"Though prisoners they may be allowed to wipe perspiration from their faces with them, but so strict is the discipline that they would not be allowed to tie them round their necks. . . . Some of the soldiers and prisoners applied for tracts, which they received gratefully along with a few books—including Testaments. They were very destitute of books, the only Bible I heard of at the station belonging to the pilot."

The same writer's description of his voyage from Sydney to Brisbane, made during the previous March, yields a tale pregnant with its suggestion of the intense suffering which must have been borne by the unfortunate convicts. The excursion was made on the sailing ship "Isabella," of 126 tons burden. On this small craft were crowded 44 prisoners, a guard of 15 soldiers, a sergeant, two corporals, the wife of a soldier, 16 of a crew, including the master (James Boyle) and the mate (Joseph Moffat), together with Backhouse and his companion (G. W. Walker), making a total of 78 people. Backhouse writes:—"I went among the prisoners, who
came on board, and their prison was fresh whitewashed, so as to allow only to them to move a few feet. These men were very clean when they came on board, and their prison was fresh whitewashed, so as to make it as comfortable as such a place could be to men fastened on a chain, without blanket or other bedding, on the bare boards. Most of the prisoners looked pale from seasickness, not being allowed to come on deck, for since the attempt at mutiny on board the 'Governor Phillip' about a year ago, which occurred when a chain of the kind described above was opened for the purpose of taking off a few prisoners to let them have air on deck, the captains of these vessels, for their own safety, have kept the prisoners constantly below." Backhouse, during the voyage, entered the hold to preach to the prisoners, but says his companion was unable to accompany him. The reason for this incapacity is made evident from a subsequent passage in the journal, which describes the conditions in the interior of the ship in the following words:—"The rolling of the vessel and the warmth of the weather have made the prisoners look very sickly; many of them hardly attempt to sit up." Under these dreadful conditions the voyage was made in five days, which, with the ships then used, must be regarded as a fast passage. And this experience was not uncommon. The prisoners were being conveyed in the customary method.

A general reluctance has been displayed by recorders of early Australian events towards dwelling on the conditions prevailing at the penal establishments. The tendency has lain not in the direction of distorting facts so much as of passing hastily over the period constituting so deep a blot on the story of British colonization, and it was left, not to an historian, but to Marcus Clarke, the novelist, to give the only graphic and substantially the most accurate and complete picture of a phase of the conditions incidental to the transportation system. Coote, a skilled and accurate selector and compiler of the records of colonization, whom death, unfortunately for the State, overtook before he had finished his excellently-begun "History of Queensland," in commenting on the settlement destined to form the nucleus of the city of Brisbane, writes:—"I have seen one book of memoranda, by which it would seem from the kind and quantity of tailoring and cobbling recorded, that the higher class of officials were not unmindful of the value of an economically supplied wardrobe; in fact, from all I can learn, the prisoners, when not employed on such cultivation as was indispensable, were generally engaged in the most useless possible avocations. As to moral improvement, we may judge of the effort made towards it by the good Quaker's (Backhouse) narrative. When the formality of an official religious instruction was omitted, books almost unknown, and all labour reduced to a mere mechanical routine of the simplest and dullest kind, it is not to be wondered at that the criminal became desperately wicked, the simple idiotic, and the active mad. They who emerged from that slough fit for the association of the ordinary society of a civilized community deserve far greater credit than most of their one-time gaolers, for such an escape must be regarded as in direct opposition to the inevitable influences of the system those gaolers were appointed to and did encourage and enforce."

Again, the same authority writes:—"I have heard narratives of punishment so ingenious in their refinement of torture that I am almost disinclined to give credence to the facts they embodied, and yet from the general concurrence of testimony can hardly refuse assent. And, moreover, statements of the kind involve a citation of authority—a citation in most cases from the evidence of sufferers, and therefore in these days almost as grievous as the original infliction. It seems almost indispensable to abstain from particular instances although the general conclusions I have derived are exceedingly unfavourable to the commandants of the day." And again:—"That from 1824 to 1839 Moreton Bay must have been a place of torment to every conscientious man of right feeling in it can scarcely be doubted, when we consider the facts, as to either Government or convicts, which have been allowed to escape from the dark secrecy at first enforced to conceal still darker deeds, and since acquiesced in from a sense of common disgrace."

Following upon the discovery by Allan Cunningham of the overland route from Moreton Downs and the interior of south-western Queensland came the declaration of Brisbane as a free settlement on May 4, 1842. Another development for which the colony was indebted to the same explorer was the opening of overland connection between Brisbane and the Upper Hunter River. The transportation of prisoners to New South Wales was discontinued in 1840, but no criminals were sent to Brisbane after 1839, whilst on May 5 of that year all the convicts were sent away from the latter settlement, except those few without whom necessary work could not be carried on. The task of clearing away the traces of the penal establishment had been commenced by Lieutenant Gorman, then the Commandant, in 1839, whilst the survey of the city and its environs was commenced during the same year.

The removal of the convict settlement from Moreton Bay was met with general satisfaction. The authorities, indeed, had themselves grown sick of the place. It was far from headquarters, and the physical features of the surrounding country made the possibility of escapes very great. This was emphasized by the comparatively large number of men who actually did get clear away into
the unexplored wilds, some of them to live hermit-like lives in the silent interior, whilst others took up with the blacks. The treatment of these unfortunate people was such that they would prefer death to returning to their former captors.

The news that Moreton Bay was to be thrown open created no small stir in Sydney, and the Hunter River Steam Navigation Company arranged to put on a steamer to start from Port Jackson for Brisbane on February 18. On March 19 following the same company sent the “Shamrock” on the voyage. Among the passengers were the Governor (Sir George Gipps) and several high officials. The object of the vice-regal visit was to officially proclaim Moreton Bay a free settlement, as had occurred in the case of Port Macquarie before.

At that time shipping could not easily proceed up the river to Brisbane because of the bar stretching across its mouth. An agitation was on foot to move the headquarters to Cleveland Point, which juts out into the bay. The Governor was asked to decide the knotty problem; and at his request the party was taken to Cleveland before approaching Brisbane. It was found that so low and shelving was the shore that dry land could be reached only by walking a considerable distance. Nor was that nearly the worst. As soon as the boat was left the landing party found themselves floundering deep not on a clear sandy bottom but in black mud. The chances of Cleveland being selected as the position of what was to become the capital of the future Queensland had been completely smashed by the effort at landing in a low instead of a high tide. Brisbane henceforth remained the chief centre of the settlement. On the 28th inst. the official ceremony of declaring Moreton Bay a free settlement took place, and the “Shamrock” returned to Sydney on the 30th.

As late as 1856 the people of Moreton Bay in particular, and of New South Wales in general, became greatly alarmed at a rumour that what is now Queensland was about to be separated from New South Wales for the purpose of reviving transportation to the former territory. On the motion of Mr. (afterwards Sir) Henry Parkes the following resolutions were carried without division:—

"1. That this house, with feelings of sincere and unmingled gratitude recognizes in the act of Her Most Gracious Majesty, by which the transportation of British criminals to these Australian Colonies was made to cease and determine, the concession of a great and complete measure of justice which was sought by the unanimous prayers of the colonists, and has been productive of general and permanent satisfaction.

"2. That in the opinion of this House the compliance of Her Most Gracious Majesty with the prayers of the colonists in the settlement of a question so long agitated, while it has confirmed the feelings of loyalty and attachment to the Mother Country, which happily exists in these communities, has led to the most beneficial results, in their improved social condition, and their rapid progress in political character and commercial prosperity.

"3. That in the opinion of this House any steps on the part of Her Majesty’s Government to revive the transportation of convicts to the northern portion of New South Wales, or to any part of eastern Australia, or the islands adjacent, would be regarded as a breach of faith by the colonists, would create universal discontent and lead to consequences greatly to be deplored.
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"4. That the foregoing resolutions be embodied in an address to the Governor-General, with a request that His Excellency will be pleased to transmit them to the Principal Secretary of State to Her Majesty."

Some years before these resolutions were passed transportation to the Australian colonies had been wholly ceased. This was the result of colonial public feeling. The vast majority of the population was opposed to the system under which Great Britain dumped her criminals into this new and fruitful land. A small minority was of a contrary belief, but so obviously self-interested was their attitude that it carried but little weight. The class which held this opinion was composed of employers desiring cheaper labour. With the discovery of gold in the southern States great scarcity of workmen threatened to cripple all industry except mining, and the dearth of shepherds represented a very big problem for pastoralists to face. But the movement in favour of abolishing the transportation system had started long before the gold rushes began. Happily the rumour ended in nothing material being done to alter the existing state of affairs.

The Legislative Council of New South Wales in July, 1839, received a despatch from Lord Glenelg, Secretary of State, intimating the concurrence of the Imperial Government in the colonial view as to the expediency of discontinuing the assignment of male convicts, as a step towards the entire discontinuance of assignment throughout the colony at as early a period as practicable.

Each year the desire of the colonists to have transportation terminated grew more vigorous, and was more persistently expressed. For a long while the Imperial Government appeared to be inclined to continue sending convicts to these shores whether they were wanted or not. However, before the gold rush broke out the anti-transportation movement had created so lively a public sentiment regarding the matter that the end was won. Yet in October of 1846 the Legislative Council of New South Wales received a despatch from Mr. Gladstone, who was then Secretary of State for the Colonies, stating the intention of the Government of Great Britain not to alter the practice of transportation to New South Wales so far as New South Wales was concerned, without the general approval of the colony or the portion of it affected by such alteration. At the same time, while the Government desired to lessen the number of convicts yearly sent to Van Diemen Land (Tasmania), it was disposed to doubt whether the absolute exclusion of transported convicts from New South Wales should continue. The Home Government sympathised with the impatience of the colonists of New South Wales under the system which prevailed there some years ago, and could well understand that the recurrence of that system, the resumption of transportation on a scale even faintly resembling the former one, must be regarded with a just jealousy and alarm.

As a result of this despatch the Legislature, on October 13, in accordance with a motion from Mr. Wentworth, resolved upon the appointment of a Select Committee to consider the issues raised and to report to the House. Meanwhile public opinion had been aroused to a high pitch of excitement. Many meetings were held, and on the 13th of the same month numbers of petitions were presented to Parliament. They came from most of the important provincial centres of population, as well as from the capital itself. At one of the gatherings held at the latter a resolution was adopted, and was embodied in one of the petitions, setting forth: —"That this meeting has heard with the deepest feeling of alarm and regret that it is proposed to renew the system of transportation to this colony, and they cannot conceive any circumstances under which such a measure was justifiable." Some 7,000 signatures were attached to this petition. On the 31st of the same month, the day following the presentation of the petitions and eighteen days after its own appointment, the Select Committee brought in its report. Considering the state of the public mind, expressed so emphatically during the same month and the well-known hatred of the great bulk of the people to the transportation system, the finding of the Committee constituted a remarkable document, tacitly concurring with the despatch of the Secretary of State and contemptuously disregarding the colonial sentiment.

It carried recommendations that an equal number of female and male convicts should be transported, that free immigration be fostered simultaneously, and that there be no aggregation of convicts in masses.

Naturally a report of this character increased the alarm which already had swept the country. People began to feel that they were abandoned by their own representatives in what ranked among the dearest of their collective aspirations—that of ridding the colony of the name it had earned as a dumping-ground for the worst criminals of the United Kingdom, besides other serious evils which the system had introduced, such as the introduction of many of the most undesirable hereditary traits. But the good sense of the Legislative Council ultimately corrected the harm done by the Select Committee, and the following motions moved by Mr. Cowper were carried in September, 1847, by eleven votes to seven:—

"(1) That this Council disapproves of the principles avowed and recommendations contained in the Report of the Select Committee appointed to inquire into and report upon the Despatch of the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies to Governor Sir Charles Fitzroy, dated April 30, 1846,
respecting the renewal of transportation to this colony; and desires to record the expression of its opinion that a return to the system of transportation and assignment would be opposed to the wishes of this community, and would also be most injurious to the moral, social, and political advancement of the colony.

"(2) That an address be presented to His Excellency the Governor, transmitting a copy of the above resolution, and respectfully requesting that His Excellency will be pleased to forward the same to the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies, for the information of Her Majesty's Government."

In March, 1848, the Legislative Council received a despatch from Earl Grey, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, setting out terms on which the Imperial Government would be prepared to send exiles and ticket-of-leave holders, who would be followed subsequently by their wives and children, and by an equal number of emigrants, to New South Wales at the expense of the British Treasury.

On April 1 the House carried a resolution announcing a willingness to co-operate with the British Government in the scheme of reformative discipline which had been outlined, and in the suggestion that the colony should receive the people named. But it was urged that greater success would be more likely to be attained by the exiles being accompanied rather than followed by their families.

On May 22 a despatch was received from Earl Grey stating that in consequence of the resolutions passed by the Legislature of New South Wales in September, 1847, no change would be made in the existing arrangements of transportation. A second despatch from the same source enclosed the copy of a despatch received by the Secretary of State from the members of the employing class in Sydney, and alleging a great scarcity of labour in the colony. The petitioners asked for the resumption of transportation on the lines laid down in Mr. Gladstone's despatch of 1846. A third despatch, received on the same day as the others, dealt with the question of ticket-of-leave men and those holding conditional pardons. These, of course, constituted quite a different class to the real convicts. The latter were congregated together and worked in gangs under the eye of overseers. But the holders of tickets of leave and of conditional pardon were more of the character of free men in all but the matter of returning to the United Kingdom, which was forbidden. In the document referred to, Earl Grey stated that he had first thought the idea of sending exiles to New South Wales would have to be abandoned, because of the condition that an equal number of free emigrants must be sent at the expense of the Imperial Government. Reconsideration, however, had led him to believe that the colonists would prefer receiving a moderate number of convicted persons to the entire abandonment of the system. He therefore proposed that the Order-in-Council by which New South Wales was declared no longer a place for receiving convicts under sentence for transportation should be abolished.

No sooner had the contents of these documents been revealed than a storm of public protest swept the country like a wave of flame. The Anti-Transportation Committee formed the centre of effort which was to be directed in opposition to what appeared the determination of the Imperial Government, and a few of the large employers among the colonists, to bring back the evils of the past. The committee organized an immense meeting, from which a petition was presented to the Legislative Council, representing the duty and determination of the colonists by every legal and constitutional means to oppose the revival of transportation in whatever form it should appear. Nor was this the only protest from the people. Meetings were held on the subject in almost every centre of settlement throughout the colony. Nor did Parliament on this occasion speak with any uncertain voice. The following resolution was carried on the voices, no division being called for:

"That a humble address be presented to Her Majesty, respectfully setting forth that this Council, having maturely considered the despatch from the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies, dated September 3, 1848, declined to accede to the proposal therein contained for the renewal of transportation to this colony, and strongly protests against the adoption of any measure by which the colony would be degraded into a penal settlement. That this Council, therefore, would earnestly entreat Her Majesty to be graciously pleased to revoke the Order-in-Council by which this colony has again been made a place to which British offenders may be transported."

Meanwhile public feeling had been generating to a white heat. It happened that only ten days after the Legislature had passed the resolution just quoted, the ship "Hashemy" arrived from England with 212 male convicts on board. This created a storm of indignation that appeared likely to put the loyalty of the young colony towards the Motherland to a severe test. The convicts appeared to have been thrust upon the settlement in spite of the deliberately and frequently
expressed sentiments both of the people themselves and of their constitutional representatives in the local Legislature. On the arrival of the ship an immense meeting of 5,000 persons assembled in unfavourable weather at Circular Quay. Mr. Robert Campbell presided. Resolutions were carried solemnly protesting against the landing of the convicts, and requesting the local Government to send back the prisoners, if necessary at the colony's own expense. A deputation then waited on the Governor in connection with the matter; but it was unsuccessful in attaining its object, being informed that deputations could not be received without previous notice of their visit having been given. A week later a second meeting was held. This time a petition was drawn up, asking for the dismissal of Earl Grey and asserting that the differences between the sentiments of the Governor and the opinions of the people had demonstrated the necessity for Responsible Government being established for the colony.

The Legislative Council's address of June 1, 1849, was replied to in a despatch from Earl Grey, which reached the Council on June 11, 1850. The Secretary of State for the Colonies had displayed an unfortunately obstinate determination to oppose the will of the colonists in a matter which could hardly fail to raise the bitterest of antagonism. The despatch began with an explanation of the class of convicts sent. That was calculated to go but a short distance towards allaying the indignation of the colonists at the Imperial Government having sent any prisoners in the teeth of the oft-repeated protests. Earl Grey then pointed out that the convicts had been sent in conformity with the arrangement approved by the Legislative Council in April, 1848. It had been determined that no more convicts would be sent to New South Wales while the colonists objected, but the Government had considered the revoking of the Order-in-Council naming New South Wales as a place to which convicts might be sent as unnecessary till it should clearly appear that the Legislature had deliberately adopted, as its final conclusion, a determination that no more convicts ought under any conditions to be sent to any part of the colony.

Then followed the portion of the despatch most likely to arouse the anger of the people living in New South Wales, with their future bound up in the welfare of the colony. Earl Grey continued that as it appeared that convicts were more needed and would be more willingly received at Moreton Bay than in the other districts, for the present they would be sent thither. Of course, the Moreton Bay district at that time formed portion of New South Wales. The despatch was full of self-contradiction. It appeared that in spite of one profession to the contrary, the Imperial Government was determined to send convicts to some one or other part of the colony. This view was corroborated by a later despatch received on July 14, from the same source. This document announced that independently of immigrants sent into New South Wales and paid for from colonial funds, Moreton Bay would be entitled to have not less than two ships sent to it with free immigrants, introduced at the expense of Great Britain, in consideration of the number of ticket-of-leave men sent to the same settlement. The immediate dispatch of the two ships was also announced. On the receipt of this communication the Legislative Council, without a division being called for, passed the following resolutions on the voices:

“(1) That since the year 1836 the Land Fund, amounting to £1,179,000, has been expended under the direction of Her Majesty's Government, in relieving Great Britain of a portion of her distressed population, in all 78,500 souls, comprehending 27,700 adult labourers.

“(2) That this revenue has, for the same purpose, been charged as a debt of £100,000.

“(3) That although this expenditure has been beneficial in some respects, it has exhausted the means of obtaining that continuous supply of labour which the colonists most urgently require, while advantages have been derived from this outlay by Great Britain, by whom no part of the expense has been borne.

“(4) That during the whole of this period the convicts were justly entitled to the administration of their own Land Fund, and that if such power had not been withheld from them they might have procured contribution towards the cost of emigration from Her Majesty's Government, or the over-populous parishes of England, Ireland, and Scotland.

“(5) That it is no part of the duty of the colonists to pay for the importation of emigrants, nor to receive criminals; and that the same principles of sound policy which have induced Her Majesty's Government to give compensation by way of free labour for the introduction of exiles entitle the colonists to expect that the same amount of Imperial funds shall be expended in the introduction of free labour into New South Wales which has been disbursed for this purpose out of the colonial revenue.

“(6) That these resolutions be embodied in a humble address to the Queen, and that the Governor be requested to transmit the same to the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies.”
On the 30th of the following month a further series of resolutions was moved in the Legislative Council, and was passed after several amendments had been either negatived or withdrawn. This was adopted partly in response to the request from the Imperial Government for a final declaration of the colonial view regarding transportation. Two of the motions read as follows:

"(1) That a humble address be presented to Her Majesty, respectfully setting forth (with reference to the despatch of the Rt. Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies to His Excellency Sir Charles A. Fitzroy, dated November 16), that this Council adopts as its final conclusion that no more convicts ought under any conditions to be sent to any part of this colony.

"(2) That as there can be no security for the social and political tranquillity of the colony until the convict question is set at rest, this Council humbly repeats the prayer which was contained in an address to Her Majesty from this Council dated June 1, 1849, viz.: That Her Majesty will be graciously pleased to revoke the Order-in-Council by which this colony has been again made a place to which British offenders may be transported."

These resolutions were transmitted to the Imperial Government with a request that what was asked for should be acceded to "with the least possible delay."

Meanwhile a section of landholders, particularly in that part of New South Wales which after separation became the southern portion of Queensland, had determined to leave no stone unturned to secure and retain a supply of cheap convict labour. Probably the efforts of these pastoral pioneers would have been still more strenuous had they known all the ordinary industry of Australia to be on the verge of a labour famine, when flocks and herds were to be deserted by shepherds and stockmen, when ships were to be stranded in ports for lack of crews, and when work everywhere was to be brought to a standstill because of most of the population having flocked to the newly-discovered goldfields. New population was destined to pour into the south at the rate of a quarter of a million per annum, and to be sucked up in the mining rushes as soon as it arrived. These stirring times had not begun when the squatters of northern New South Wales entered upon a campaign in support of the transportation system. Their efforts took the form of two petitions forwarded through the Governor to the Imperial authorities, praying for the continuance of the inflow of prisoners.

In October of 1851 the Legislative Council received despatches from the Secretary of State. The first was in reply to the petitions favouring transportation. Earl
Grey announced his willingness to comply with the request put before him; but the Government was not prepared to act in opposition to the desires of the Colonial Legislature. If, however, the Legislative Council cared to alter its opinion, requesting that convicts in limited numbers should be sent to the northern district, he did not know why it should not be done.

The other despatch received at the same time was in reply to the resolutions passed by the Council, and which have been already quoted. The document stated that Her Majesty would be advised at an early opportunity to revoke the existing Order-in-Council declaring New South Wales a place to receive convicts. But if the new Legislature of New South Wales, after the separation of Victoria, should adopt the view in favour of transportation which had been given expression to by the squatters in the north, or if in order to procure prison labour for themselves, the northern district of New South Wales should apply for a further division of the colony, then another Order-in-Council might be substituted limiting the districts to which convicts might be sent to those areas where their services might be required.

The effect of the latter of these despatches was for the Legislative Council to reaffirm the former decision “that no more convicts ought under any conditions to be sent to any part of this colony.” The Council also pointed out, in a series of resolutions which it carried, that as productive goldfields had recently been discovered, added weight would be given to the objections against transportation. On December 10 the Legislative Council received a copy of a despatch from the Secretary of State revoking the Order-in-Council appointing New South Wales as a place to which convicts might be sent.

When the pending separation of the Moreton Bay district of New South Wales and its formation into a new colony assumed increasingly concrete form, a fear sprang up throughout the general bulk of the community that the step was being taken as a means to revive transportation to the northern region. The feeling against the system had increased rather than diminished in intensity as time had worn on. The belief that the year 1841 might not have seen the last of the transported felons arriving in the settlement on the Brisbane River extended into the Parliament in Sydney; and in November, 1857, a number of resolutions dealing with the matter passed the Assembly on the motion of Mr. (afterwards Sir) Henry Parkes without division. The principal of these was:

“That in the opinion of this House any steps on the part of Her Majesty’s Government to revive transportation to the northern portion of New South Wales, or to any part of Eastern Australia or the islands adjacent, would be regarded as a breach of faith by the colonists, would create universal discontent, and lead to consequences greatly to be deplored.”

Fortunately, transportation was not revived; and the Colony of Queensland, neither before nor after becoming separated from New South Wales, has never again been the dumping-ground of convicts from across the seas. Brisbane had seen the last of the bad old order of things in 1841.

CHAPTER XII.

DAWN OF DEVELOPMENT.

The beginnings of the separation of Queensland from New South Wales date from 1825, when Van Diemen Land was created a State, and Queensland given separate representation in the Parliament at Sydney. Ten years later a slice was cut off eastern Australia, and was termed South Australia. For many years the main part of the continent remained in the hands of the Government of Western Australia, whilst a narrow, though much more fertile and better watered strip of territory lay under the jurisdiction of the authorities at Sydney.

What may still be regarded as the natural boundary of the south of Queensland was indicated by Sir Thomas Mitchell, then Surveyor-General of New South Wales. This famous explorer showed how a remarkable line of demarkation in soil and flora lay at the twenty-fifth parallel. He proposed to call the country to the north of the tropic “Capricornia.” Under this suggestion, a colony between “Capricornia” and New South Wales would thus possess 350 miles of coastline.

The story of the separation of Queensland from New South Wales is not a plain narrative of a movement growing steadily to full maturity. While a considerable section of those living to the north of what is now the boundary between the two States were altogether in favour of a separate seat of Government being set up north of Sydney, there were settlers in the same area of quite different opinions. Particularly among the latter was a class of people who feared that separation was desired only as a forerunner to the establishment of convict labour in the Moreton Bay
country. Very many of the large landholders still entertained anything but friendly feelings towards the abolition of the convict, whose labour was so much cheaper to the employer than was that of the free worker. This latter question formed the bitterest political warfare of the time.

In the very early days life in the Moreton Bay district was full of dangers and difficulty. To the north of Moreton Bay, which is about sixty miles long and twenty wide, and is bounded on the east by three islands, lies Fraser Island, stretching for about sixty-five miles along the coast, and having an average breadth of ten miles. In the early days Fraser Island was infested with savage blacks. The number of natives was estimated at no less than 2,000. The island receives its name through Captain Fraser, of the ship "Sterling," being wrecked at the entrance between the island and the mainland, and as soon as he reached dry land on the island being slaughtered. It was considered that the comparatively large population subsisted mainly from fishing, the surrounding waters being infested with life, whereas the soil is of a poor description. These workers in the far north of Australia experienced darker dangers than were met by the settlers in the southern States, where the natives were neither so numerous nor so hostile.

An interesting examination was made of the neighbourhood of Port Curtis by Captain Flinders. Portion of that explorer's own account is worth quoting in his own words: "This part of the east coast," he says, "had been passed in the night by Captain Cook, so that both the openings escaped his notice, and the discovery fell to our lot. In honour of Admiral Sir B. Roger Curtis, who had command at the Cape of Good Hope, and been so attentive to our wants, I gave it the name of Port Curtis, and the island which protects it from the sea, in fact, forms the port, was called Facing Island. It is a strip of rather low land, eight miles in length and from two to half a mile in breadth, having Gatcombe Head for its southern extremity. The northern extremity to Port Curtis is accessible only to boats, but ships of any size may enter the port by the south opening."

The same locality was visited by Mr. Oxley in 1823, when he was in search for the site for a penal establishment. This voyage was described by Mr. Uniacke, a scientist who accompanied the explorer, but who died soon after his return to Sydney. Referring to Port Curtis, Mr. Uniacke observes: "On arrival on board the ship, the master reported that he had discovered a fine fresh-water stream emptying itself by an outlet which was visible astern of the vessel to the southward. From his account Mr. Oxley was induced to defer our departure to Port Bowen for another day in order to have an opportunity of viewing it himself. Accordingly he and Mr. Sterling started early the next day, while I remained behind to collect specimens of minerals on Facing Island for the Governor. Late in the evening they returned, having proceeded up the river to about where the tide reached, and Mr. Oxley deemed it of sufficient interest to remain three or four days in order to examine the country more minutely. Accordingly the next morning early we again left the vessel, taking three days' provisions, and proceeded with our boat about twelve miles up the river, where we pitched our tent on a bank about 40 feet above the level of the water. The soil was of the richest description, and calculated to grow cotton, sugar, indigo, and all other Indian productions. There were, however, marks of the flood having reached at least fifteen feet higher than the level of our encampment, owing to which the whole surface was covered about two inches deep with drift sand. Indeed, the floods here in the rainy seasons must be tremendous, as we observed in many of the trees, at least sixty feet above the level of the water, the remains which had been deposited by successive inundations. On the banks we saw three or four different kinds of timber, but the small quantity rendered them unimportant. The river was covered with multitudes of teals, widgeons, and wild ducks, and on the banks I shot two swamp pheasants (a pretty black bird, not unlike the English pheasant in shape), and a very beautiful species of small deer not known in Sydney. Shortly after dinner we proposed to get to rest, with an intention of proceeding farther up the river at a very early hour next morning. We turned out the moment it was light, dispatched our breakfast, and getting into the boat, proceeded about six miles further up the river. The country which we passed this day was similar to what we had seen on the day before. The timber, however, was becoming larger and more plentiful. In many places the right bank of the river was composed of a remarkably fine slate, while the left was a hard, close-grained, grey granite, and the soil everywhere rich and fertile. Before we returned we ascended a high hill, on the left of which was a beautiful and extensive view for many miles through a rich brush country, the banks in many parts being clothed with timber. To the river we discovered here Mr. Oxley gave the name of the Boyne."

A glowing description was given of the surrounding district; and the people of New South Wales learned that another and prolific province was included within their wide-flung borders.

In the early thirties, and indeed until the abolition of the convict system, the penal establishment effectually held up the populating of the country, as well as its industrial development. Private persons were not allowed to approach to within fifty miles of the prisons; and, with the exception of what Allan Cunningham had discovered of the country to the west of the main ranges.
of mountains, nothing was known of the country outside the Moreton Bay district. To make the utmost use of the convicts was therefore the only means, in any way approaching adequacy, to give to the territory any compensation for having to maintain the stigma of keeping the criminals. Yet at Moreton Bay nothing useful or successful appeared ever to be accomplished by the prison labour. No substantial permanent works, such as necessary wharves or lasting public buildings, were erected. The prisoners should have been used to perform such functions as would have laid the foundations of private settlement and private enterprise. But that course was not followed. In his book on Queensland, Dr. Lang points out: "(1) The overseers had a small allowance for every acre of land cleared by the convicts under their superintendence. To render the source of revenue more productive, it was only necessary to select thinly-timbered land, without reference to its quality; and accordingly Moreton Island, a mere collection of sandhills, of no use whatever for cultivation and but thinly covered with cypress pine trees, was cleared by the convicts. The timber, which would now have been very valuable for ornamental furniture, was in the meantime destroyed. (2) A wharf or jetty for lading and unlading vessels was constructed at considerable expense, towards the mouth of the Brisbane River, on the Government establishment of "Eagle" Farm; but after it was completed it was discovered that there was a mud flat or sandbank between the wharf and the deep water, which effectually prevented any vessel from getting up to it. (3) A swamp on the Brisbane River, near Brisbane, was drained at a very considerable expense, under the idea that it would be well adapted for the growth of rice, and the superintendent had it sown accordingly; but instead of sowing the grain in its natural state of paddy, it was sown in its manufactured state of rice, procured for the purpose from a merchant's store in Sydney. It was much the same as if an English farmer had sown his field with pearl barley. Of course, the settlement was pronounced unsuited for the cultivation of rice." Under management of this kind, it is easily to be seen that the eastern side of Australia held districts which on the only evidence available had attractions greatly superior to those presented in reports of the Moreton Bay territory.

James Backhouse, in the diary relating to his visit to the Moreton Bay settlement in 1836, about two years before the establishment of the station of German missionaries, which was introduced as a result of the efforts of Dr. Lang, gives the following brief description of the infant town of Brisbane, as it appeared then to him:—

"Brisbane town is prettily situated on the rising north bank of the river, which is navigable fifty miles further up for small sloops, and has some fine cleared and cultivated land on the south bank, opposite the town. Adjacent to the Government House, and on the same side as the town, is the Commandant's garden and twenty-two acres of Government garden, for the growth of sweet potatoes, pumpkins, cabbages, and other vegetables for the prisoners. Bananas of two varieties grow here in abundance. The best flavoured goes under the name of plantains. It is full of seeds, and is not the plantain of many other countries. Grapes, guavas, pineapples, citrons, lemons, shaddocks, etc., thrive luxuriantly in the open ground, the climate being nearly tropical. Sugar-cane is grown for fencing, and there are a few thriving young coffee plants, but not old enough to bear for two or three years, if they survive transplanting. The bamboo and Spanish reed have been introduced; the former attains to about 70 feet in length, the upper 20 feet bending down with a most graceful curve. Coffee and sugar will probably at some period be cultivated here as crops. The surrounding country is undulating and covered with trees. To the west is a range of high woody hills, distant in a direct line five miles."

(For continuation of "The History of Queensland" see Vol. II.)
Governors of Queensland.

SIR GEORGE FERGUSON BOWEN, G.C.M.G. (1859-1868).

The first Governor to be appointed to the infant colony of Queensland was Sir George Ferguson Bowen, who was born in Ireland in 1821. Sir George Bowen was the son of the Rev. Edward Bowen, and was educated at the Charterhouse School and at Trinity College. At an early age the future governor became conspicuous by reason of his literary attainments. Among his works which attracted widespread attention were "Ithaca in 1850" and "Mount Athos, Thessaly, and Epirus." When thirty-six years of age Sir George Bowen was appointed President of the University of Corfu, which position he held for four years. He then became Chief Secretary, and remained at that post until 1859, the year when he accepted the Governorship of Queensland. Three years previously Sir George Bowen had married Countess Roma, the daughter of Count Roma, who was President of the Senate. Sir George Bowen was enthusiastically received by the people of the newly-constituted colony, and he quickly gained in popularity. But unfortunately his eight years of office were destined not to pass without unhappy incidents. A wave of depression swept the colony during the early sixties. The cause of this setback lay in no single factor; but in many quarters the Governor was blamed for what was happening. Very much of the hostile criticism was certainly quite unjustified, and there now is no doubt that misfortunes over which he could have exercised no control were laid at his door. The high degree of competence possessed by Sir George and the high estimate in which he was held by the Imperial Government were made manifest by the career of that gentleman after leaving Queensland shores. In 1867 he was appointed to the Governorship of New Zealand, a position which he held for five years. During that term he enjoyed the utmost popularity, and his departure was met with universal regret. In 1872
he received a highly-complimentary despatch from the Imperial Government. He spent several years in Victoria, and when leaving was appointed Governor of Mauritius. During his term of office in Victoria Sir George Bowen displayed considerable ability, and his departure was keenly regretted.

**COLONEL SAMUEL WENSLEY BLACKALL (1868-1871).**

Colonel Samuel Wensley Blackall, who was Governor of Queensland from August, 1868, to January, 1871, was born in Ireland on May 1, 1809. He was the eldest son of Major Robert Blackall, H.E., I.C.S., of Colam- ber Manor, in the County of Longford. The future Governor of the young colony graduated at Trinity College, Dublin, taking his degree as Doctor of Law in 1833. He served in the 85th Light Infantry, afterwards becoming major in the Longford Militia and subsequently honorary colonel in the Leitrim Militia.

Colonel Blackall was elected to the House of Commons by the constituency of Longford, and held his seat for three years. He was at another period High Sheriff for Longford and for Tyrone in 1861. Colonel Blackall accepted the Lieutenant-Governorship of Dominica in 1851, a post which he retained until 1857. In 1862 he became Governor of Sierra Leone and in 1865 Governor-in-Chief of West African Settlements. Two years later he vacated the latter appointment and in 1868 became Governor of Queensland, in succession to Sir George Bowen. Colonel Blackall died at Brisbane on January 2, 1871, and was buried there. The deceased Governor had married twice. His first wife, whom he married in 1833, was Georgina, the daughter of Henry Rowles, of London. His second wife was Kate, the daughter of James Bond. The last-named lady died in 1864, after sixteen years of married life.

**MARQUIS OF NORMANBY (1871-1874).**

The Marquis of Normanby, George Augustus Constantine Phipps, was the third of Queensland’s Governors. He arrived at Brisbane in August, 1871, and departed in November, 1874. Born in 1819, the early period of his career was devoted to the army. He entered the Coldstream Guards as ensign, and when nineteen years of age became lieutenant. In 1844 he married the daughter of Captain Russell, R.N., and the same year was appointed deputy-lieutenant of Yorkshire. Three years later he entered the House of Commons as member for Scarborough, voluntarily resigning after four years in order to accept the office of Comptroller of the Queen’s Household. Two years later the Marquis was appointed Treasurer of the Queen’s Household. In 1858 he became Governor of Nova Scotia. In 1863 his father died and he succeeded to the peerage; but not till three years later did he deliver his maiden speech in the House of Lords, when he moved the adoption of the Address-in-Reply to the Throne. Five years later he came to Queensland. In his Australasian career the Marquis of Normanby followed in the footsteps of Sir George Bowen, the first Queensland Governor. The first appointment of each was as Governor of Queensland; each left Queensland in order to become Governor of New Zealand; and each became Governor of New Zealand. The Marquis was appointed to New Zealand in 1875 and to Victoria in 1879.
Sir William Wellington Cairns, C.M.G., was the fourth Governor of Queensland, being appointed in 1874 and holding office until 1877. Few colonial Governors have had so wide and varied an experience of oversea Imperial matters as that gathered by Sir William Cairns. At a time when the nation was most in need of capable administrators and officials to work on the outposts of Empire, the future Governor of Queensland was throwing himself into the service of his country with whole-souled ardour. The son of Mr. W. Cairns, owner of estates in Ireland, he was born in 1828. His father was the younger brother of Lord Cairns, Lord Chancellor of England.

Before he had passed from his teens Sir William had decided upon a career of activity in the more distant parts of the British dominions, and when only twenty years of age he proceeded to the East. Four years later he was appointed a writer in the Civil Service of Ceylon. For the next fourteen years he continued this occupation, but in 1866 he visited England, and some twelve months later was made Lieutenant-Governor of Malacca. The latter position, however, he retained for only a year, as in 1868 he was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of St. Christopher, Nevis, and Anguilla, in the West Indies. Two years later he was promoted to British Honduras, where he remained for four years. In 1874 further advancement was made by Sir William Cairns, who in that year became Lieutenant-Governor of Trinidad. But very soon after receiving this last-named appointment failing health compelled him first to obtain leave of absence and then to resign. The same year he was offered and accepted the Governorship of Queensland.

In 1877, when leaving Queensland, Sir William Cairns accepted the Governorship of South Australia, but bad health again asserted itself, and the same year he was compelled to sail for his native country. In 1877 he received the honour of K.C.M.G. in recognition of his services to the Empire.


The fifth Governor of Queensland was Sir Arthur Edward Kennedy, G.C.M.G., C.B., who had enjoyed a long and brilliant career before coming to these shores.

Sir Arthur was descended from the ancient Scottish family of Kennedys, at the head of which was the Earl of Cassilis. Sir Arthur, who was born in 1809, was the third son of Hugh Kennedy, of Culha, in County Down, Ireland. The future Governor of Queensland was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and when eighteen years of age he entered the army, becoming ensign in the 11th regiment. In 1832 he was made a lieutenant, and in 1840 he became captain in the 68th Light Infantry. Eight years later he retired from the army. In 1846 he had been selected, though at the time serving in the army, to fill the position of county inspector under the Board of Works. He afterwards became relief commissioner and subsequently inspector of poor-laws until the latter office was abolished in 1851.

After Captain Kennedy left the army he entered the Colonial Department of the Civil Service, where he speedily rose to an important position, being appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Vancouver Island and its dependencies in
British North America. In 1854 he became Governor of Western Australia, a post he held for eight years to the satisfaction both of the colonists and the Imperial authorities. Indeed, so highly did the latter appreciate his services that as a mark of Queen Victoria’s approval he was knighted on August 23, 1867.

The following year he left Australian shores to assume the office of Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the British Possessions in West Africa. Sir Arthur Kennedy’s next move was in consequence of having been appointed Judge at Sierra Leone in the Courts of Mixed Commission with Foreign Powers for the suppression of the slave trade. In 1872 he became Governor of Hongkong, which office he retained for five years.

Sir Arthur Kennedy took up his duties as Governor of Queensland during April, 1877, and he held office until May, 1883.

SIR ANTHONY MUSGRAVE, G.C.M.G. (1883-1888).

Sir Anthony Musgrave, who arrived in Queensland during November, 1883, was the son of Anthony Musgrave, M.D., of the Island of Antigua, and was born in 1828. In 1850 he was appointed private secretary to Mr. Mackenzie when the latter was Governor-in-Chief of the Leeward Islands. A year later young Musgrave entered as a student of the Inner Temple, but he was never called to the Bar. In 1852 he was appointed treasury accountant at Antigua, and two years afterwards assumed the office of colonial secretary at the same place.

Sir Anthony’s busy colonial life brought many changes of scene, and in 1860 he became Administrator at Nevis, and six months later at St. Vincent. He was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of the latter place in May of 1862. Two years later he became Governor of Newfoundland, and in January, 1869, he filled a similar position in British Columbia. In 1872 he became Lieutenant-Governor of Natal, in 1873 Governor of South Australia, and in 1877 Governor-General and Captain-General of Jamaica. Sir Anthony was made C.M.G. in 1871 and K.C.M.G. in 1875. In 1884 he married Christiana Elizabeth, the daughter of the Hon. Sir William Ryan, of Antigua. Five years after marriage the lady died. The future Governor of Queensland afterwards married Jeannie Lucinda, the daughter of David Dudley Field, of New York. While in occupation of the positions of Governor and Commander-in-Chief in Queensland Sir Anthony died in October, 1888. He had then been five years all but a month in the colony. He was the author of "Studies in Political Economy" and several pamphlets.


Of Governors of Queensland, Sir Henry Wylie Norman, who reached the colony as representative of Queen Victoria in May, 1889, and held office for six years, was certainly one of the most distinguished. Born in 1826, the future governor was the son of James Norman, who led a seafaring life for many years, but afterwards settled down to commercial pursuits in Cuba, where he married Charlotte Wylie. James Norman died at Havana in 1853, but he was survived by his widow till 1902.

Henry Norman started his career with but few advantages, his subsequent progress being due to a keen brain and strong character. After some little schooling, which left but the slenderest of education, he joined his father at Calcutta when sixteen years old, being then consumed with a keen desire for a life on the sea. For a while, however, he had to content himself with such clerical work as he could find. But the spirit of adventure was destined to be not long curbed, and on March 1, 1844, he secured appointment as a cadet in
the infantry of the Bengal Army. The following month he joined the 1st Bengal Native Infantry as ensign. With a splendid enthusiasm, of which in those stormy days the Indian Empire stood much in need, the young officer threw himself heart and soul into the profession of arms. While on active service the number of his escapes from death formed the subject of comment among his brother officers. At the outset of his career the attention of Earl Roberts was attracted by his "extraordinary memory" and his "natural liking and aptitude for work." Norman was almost continuously on active service in India for some years, and he rapidly rose in rank, being an undaunted worker, not only at practical undertakings on the field but also at such studies as were necessary to more than make up for the defects in his early education. Few young officers have left the memory of so brilliant a career; but, says a biographer, "his reward lagged because his years were fewer than his services." By 1859 he had been mentioned twenty-three times in despatches. On August 16, 1859, he became C.B. In 1863 he was appointed A.D.C. to Queen Victoria, which honour he retained until 1869, when he was promoted to major-general.

In 1859 Norman returned to England much worn in health by the exceeding activity of more than a decade of campaigning. He was warmly welcomed in the mother country, and during the following year was appointed assistant military secretary to the Duke of Cambridge; but a year later he was ordered back to India to take part in the great scheme of army reorganization then going on in that part of the Empire. From then on Norman turned his attention more to civil administration than to military service, and what the army lost colonial government gained. In 1862 Norman was appointed first secretary in the military department of the Government of India, a position he retained for a little over eight years. During the seven years following he was a member of the Council of the Governor-General of India, where he displayed a high standard of diplomatic skill. He was made K.C.B. in 1873, and was promoted to lieutenant-general in October, 1877. Five months later he was appointed a member of the Council of India. In 1882 he became general, and was sent to Egypt to settle various complicated problems which had cropped up there. In 1883 he became Governor of Jamaica, and for service rendered in that country he received the G.C.M.G. in 1887, the same year as he was decorated with the G.C.B. for military service. The next post Norman filled was that of Governor of Queensland, to which colony he came under unusual circumstances. In describing Sir Henry Norman's appointment to the vice-regal position in Queensland, "The Dictionary of National Biography" states:—"In 1889 he disinterestedly accepted the Governorship of Queensland in order to relieve the home Government of a difficulty caused by the unpopular appointment of Sir Henry Blake." In Queensland quiet times succeeded to angry constitutional controversies. The colony was, however, soon involved in financial troubles, and Norman showed his public spirit in offering to share in the reduction of salary to which the members of the Legislative Assembly had to submit. The responsible Minister freely sought his advice, and when he retired, after the close of 1895, Mr. Chamberlain expressed high appreciation of the Governor's long and valuable services.

Sir Henry Norman's active career far from ended on his departure from Southern shores. While in Queensland he was offered the post of Governor-General of India, on the death of Lord Lansdowne. This position Norman accepted, though he was then 67 years of age. However, he found the excitement and worry attached to the responsibilities too great for his physical strength to cope with, and a few days later he withdrew his acceptance, to the regret of Lord Kimberley, the Secretary of State for India, by whom Norman had been approached, through Lord Ripon, Secretary of State for the Colonies. This was in 1893. On his return to England the ex-governor undertook and successfully discharged a large number of public functions. During the latter end of 1896 he was appointed President of a Royal Commission constituted to investigate the conditions of sugar-growing colonies. In pursuing these inquiries Sir Henry found it necessary to cruise round the islands, an occupation well suited to his personal liking. In 1901 he was appointed Governor of Chelsea Hospital, and on June 26, 1902, he was raised to the rank of field-marshal. During the following year he took part in the South African War Commission. But at that time his health was fast failing, and on October 26, 1904, he died, being buried with full military honours at Brompton Cemetery.
Sir Henry Norman married Selina Elia, daughter of Dr. A. Davidson, in 1853. That lady died in 1862 at Calcutta, leaving four daughters and one son, Henry Alexander. The latter died in childhood. In 1864 Sir Henry married Jemima Anne, the daughter of Captain Knowles, but during the following year the husband was again left a widower. In 1870 he married a third time, being united to Alice Claudine, the daughter of Teignmouth Sandys, of the Bengal civil service. By the last marriage there were one daughter and two sons, Walter and Claude, both of whom entered the army.

**LORD LAMINGTON, G.C.M.G. (1896-1901).**

Lord Lamington, the second baron (created 1880) (Charles Wallace Alexander Napier Cochrane Baillie, G.C.M.G., cr. 1900; G.C.I.E., cr. 1903; D.L., J.P., B.A., F.R.G.S., lieutenant-colonel in the Lanarkshire Yeomanry), was Governor of Queensland from April, 1896, to 1901. He was born on July 29, 1860, being the son of the first baron, who had married Annabella, the daughter of Andrew Robert Drummond and the grand-daughter of the fifth Duke of Rutland. The future Governor of Queensland was educated at Eton and at Christchurch, Oxford, where he took the degree of Bachelor of Arts. During the parts of 1885 and the following year he acted as assistant private secretary to the Marquis of Salisbury, that statesman at the time mentioned being Prime Minister of England. Lord Lamington was elected to the House of Commons for St. Pancras in 1886, and he held the seat four years. After relinquishing politics Lord Lamington set out on travels, and portions of 1890 and the following year he occupied in a journey from Siam to Tonquin.

In 1895 Lord Lamington was appointed Governor of Queensland, though not until April of the following year did he arrive in the colony to take up his new duties. He departed about five years later, amidst the general regret of the community, among whom both he and Lady Lamington had become deservedly popular. Two years after leaving Australia the ex-Governor of Queensland was appointed to a similar vice-regal position in Bombay, where he remained until 1897. Lord Lamington owns about 12,000 acres of freehold property in England. His heir is his son, the Hon. Victor A. W. B. Cochrane Baillie.

**SIR HERBERT CHARLES CHERMSIDE, G.C.M.G., C.B. (1902-1904).**

Among colonial Governors who abandoned active and successful military careers for the more peaceful occupation of civil administration ranks Sir Herbert Charles Chermside, G.C.M.G., K.C.M.G., C.M.G., C.B., who arrived in Queensland as the official representative of the Crown in March of 1902 and left during 1904.

Sir Herbert Chermside was born at Wilton, near Salisbury, on July 31, 1850, and was the second son of the Rev. Seymour Chermside and the grandson of Sir Robert Chermside. In 1899 he married Geraldine Webb, of Newstead Abbey. There was one child, a daughter, born of the marriage in 1910. Sir Herbert was educated at Eton, and he entered the army in 1868. Two years later he became lieutenant in the Royal Engineers, and during 1882 he was promoted to the rank of captain and then of major. Three years later, and again in 1887 he received further advancement. In 1898 he was raised to the rank of major-general. During portions of 1877 and the subsequent year he held the position of military attaché in the Turko-Russian War; in 1878-9 he was engaged in duties relating to Turkey; and from 1879 to 1882 he held the post of military vice-consul at Anatolia. Immediately after leaving the last-named post, Sir Herbert joined the Egyptian Expedition of that year and he was awarded a medal in recognition of the services he rendered. From 1883 to 1888 he served in the Egyptian Army,
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during the latter portion of the period being in the Soudan and forming a member of the Suakin expeditions during 1884 and 1885. These years represented a busy and responsible period in the life of Sir Herbert. For two years, beginning in 1884, he was Governor-General of the Red Sea Littoral, and from 1886 to 1888 he was commanding the forces on the Egyptian Nile frontier. He was in command in action at Sarra. In 1888-9 he held an office as consul, and during the latter year he became military attaché at Constantinople, a post he retained for seven years. From 1896 until 1899 he held the post of British military commissioner and commander of the British troops in Crete. From the last-mentioned year until some twelve months later he acted as commander of the Curragh district. In the South African war he commanded the Third Division.

Thus after active and strenuous years, during which arduous military service was mixed with responsible administrative duties, Sir Herbert Chermside brought to Queensland the kind of reputation most likely to gain for him the admiration and goodwill of a community themselves engaged upon the Empire-building task of founding a new and important portion of the British dominions. The record of his term of office on Australian soil shows that as a Governor in a land far removed from the theatres of military strife Sir Herbert was able to succeed to an extent no less marked than he already had done in the profession of arms.


Lord Chelmsford was the tenth Governor of Queensland and the third member of his family to hold the title, which was created in 1858. He was born on August 12, 1868, and was the son of the second Baron Chelmsford, who had married Adria Fanny, the eldest daughter of Major-General Heath, of the Bombay Army. The future Governor of Queensland was educated at Winchester College and at Magdalene College, Oxford, where he took his B.A. degree, which he followed up in 1892 by taking his M.A. He also graduated in law and became a barrister by profession. From 1892 to 1899 he was a Fellow of All Saints' College. At an early age Lord Chelmsford took a keen interest in public affairs, and in 1900 he became a member of the London School Board, a body exercising a deep and wide influence over a large educational field. He remained attached to that authority until 1904, when he became a member of the London County Council, an institution more intimately touching the lives of some millions of people than does any other legislative machine in any part of the world. A year later he was forced to sever his connection with the municipal life of the capital of the United Kingdom on account of accepting an appointment to come to Australia as representative of the King. However, in 1913, on his return to London, Lord Chelmsford became an alderman of that city.

Lord Chelmsford was about four years Governor of Queensland, leaving the northern State in 1909, when he assumed a similar position in New South Wales. The latter appointment he retained until 1913, at which date he returned to England. In 1894 he married the Hon. Frances Charlotte Guest, the daughter of the first Baron Wimborne. Two sons and four daughters were born of the marriage. Lord Chelmsford, whose full family name is Frederick John Napier Thesiger, was decorated with the distinctions of K.C.M.G. in 1906 and G.C.M.G. in 1912. He is a Knight of Grace of St. John of Jerusalem in England and Chancellor of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.
Rarely has so large a measure of spontaneous good feeling gone out from the people of an Australian State to the official representative of the Sovereign as that which expressed itself in regret at the departure from Queensland of the Right Hon. Sir William MacGregor in 1914 after that gentleman had filled the position of State Governor for five years. Sir William was the eldest son of John MacGregor, and was born in Scotland in 1847. In 1883 he married Mary, the daughter of R. Backs. One son and three daughters resulted from the marriage.

In the early years of his life Sir William followed the profession of medicine, and among the positions he held in that connection was that of resident surgeon and resident physician at the Glasgow Royal Infirmary and resident doctor at the Royal Lunatic Asylum, Aberdeen. He was appointed assistant Government medical officer at Seychelles in 1873, surgeon at the Civil Hospital, Port Louis, Mauritius, in 1874, and chief medical officer at Fiji in 1875. From the early eighties onwards Sir William turned his attention increasingly to functions of civil administration on the outlying parts of the Empire. He became receiver-general and administrator of the Government and acting high commissioner and consul-general for the Western Pacific, administrator of British New Guinea in 1888, and lieutenant-governor of the same possession in 1895; Governor of Lagos in 1899 and Governor of Newfoundland in 1904. The latter post he retained until 1905, when he left the Northern Hemisphere to assume an analogous position in Queensland.

Among the distinctions with which Sir William was honoured were: K.C.M.G. in 1889, C.B. in 1897, and G.C.M.G. in 1907. He became a Privy Councillor in 1914, and he holds many honorary and other University degrees. Among these are Hon. D.Sc., Camb.; M.D., Aber.; Hon. LL.D., Edin.; LL.D., Aber.; F.F.P.S., Glasgow. He is a Fellow of the Royal Geographical Societies of England and Scotland and of the Royal Anthropological Society of Italy. He holds the Albert Medal (second class) and the Clarke Gold Medal for saving life at sea. He attained the Watson Gold Medal in 1872, and also the Founders' Medal of the Royal Geographical Society of England, as well as the Mary Kingsley Medal.

To Sir William fell the distinction of declaring the sovereignty of Queen Victoria over British New Guinea on September 4, in the year 1888. At the Coronation of His Majesty King Edward in 1902 Sir William officially represented the West African Colonies and Protectorates.

While in Queensland Sir William identified himself intimately with the local University, which was established during his term of office. The inauguration of the University of Queensland took place on December 10, 1909, in the presence of a large and distinguished audience, the ceremony passing off with great eclat.

Following his departure from the State a number of prominent Brisbane and country residents interested in education inaugurated a movement to establish a medical school to perpetuate, in connection with the main Queensland seat of learning, the memory of the departed Governor. But the European War broke out at that time, and all thoughts of collecting substantial voluntary subscriptions not connected with the struggle on the opposite side of the globe had to be indefinitely postponed. But the popularity of the late Governor was amply demonstrated by the enthusiasm with which the public received the project and by what appeared to be its assured success until the public thought became clouded with the tragic events following the first few days of August, 1914.

Although well advanced in years, Sir William never wearied of traversing the wide State of Queensland and thereby obtaining a first-hand knowledge of its far-spread people and its many and varied resources. In gathering facts about the State's needs and possibilities, the Governor was materially aided by the familiarity with principles of natural science which he had gained in studying and practising medicine. Nor were the people slow to recognize the strenuousness with which the representative of the Crown was performing his duties. His popularity rapidly spread through the influences of his visits to remote bush centres, and the last few weeks of his residence in Brisbane were filled with a long round of functions expressive of appreciation of his late work and regret at his departure.
MAJOR SIR HAMILTON JOHN GOOLD-ADAMS, G.C.M.G., C.B.  
(March, 1915—still in office).

Major Sir Hamilton John Goold-Adams, G.C.M.G., C.B., the twelfth Governor of Queensland, was born in County Cork, Ireland, on March 15, 1858, his father being the late R. W. Goold-Adams, of that county, where also his ancestors had been settled for several generations. He received his education in his native place, and chose as a vocation the Imperial Army, in due course being appointed to the Royal Scots Fusiliers. At twenty years of age he had risen to the rank of lieutenant, and six years later proceeded to South Africa, where he served under Sir Charles Warren in the Bechuanaland Expedition. In 1885 he was gazetted to a captaincy, in August of that year being appointed commanding officer of the Bechuanaland Border Police. He was again commandant in 1888, and in the following year received promotion to his majority. In 1893 he took command of the field force operations against the Matabele tribe, and for his services in this campaign was presented with the Matabele medal.

Subsequently he acted as Resident Commissioner of the Bechuanaland Protectorate, which post he held until 1896. He served for practically the whole of the duration of the war between the British and the Boers, and received the honour of being mentioned in despatches. Sir Hamilton holds the South African medal with clasps, the conspicuous part played by him in the defence of Mafeking, on the occasion of the memorable siege of that town, entitling him to signal credit. In January, 1901, he was appointed Deputy Administrator of Orange River Colony, became Lieutenant-Governor in August of the same year, and in 1907 Governor of the colony, which office he held until 1910. He was appointed High Commissioner of Cyprus in 1911, and on November 5, 1914, formally annexed the island on behalf of the British Crown, to which it had been ceded by treaty many years previously.

Sir Hamilton’s appointment to the Governorship of Queensland was gazetted at the close of 1914, and on March 15, 1915, he made his advent to the State which was to be the scene of his future administration. He was immediately installed in office, the oath being administered by the Chief Justice, Sir Pope Cooper, and from the first he demonstrated his ability to cope with the unusual difficulties in legislation and statesmanship brought about by the conditions resulting on the unprecedented conflict of Nations inaugurated in Europe in August, 1914. Prior to his arrival, Sir Hamilton already had established his reputation as a tactician and diplomat, and throughout the stirring times that followed his installation he maintained his grip of the public esteem which was accorded him immediately following his appearance on Queensland soil, and achieved a measure of popularity which he has since retained.

In 1894 Sir Hamilton had conferred upon him by Her late Majesty Queen Victoria the Order of C.M.G., and this honour was followed by that of C.B. four years later. The further distinction of K.C.M.G. became his in 1902, and in 1907 he was created Grand Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

In 1911 Sir Hamilton celebrated his marriage with Elsie, youngest daughter of Mr. Charles Riordan, of Montreal, Canada, and of this union there is issue one son. Lady Goold-Adams has evinced great zeal and energy in promoting patriotic work among the women of Queensland, and in every respect has demonstrated herself a true supporter and sympathizer with all forms of worthy philanthropic effort.