OUR AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.
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OUR AUSTRALIAN COLONIES:
THEIR
Discovery, History, Resources & Prospects.

BY
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WITH MAP AND PLANS

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PREFACE.

The rapidity with which Australia has risen into importance is without parallel in the history of the world. Eighty years ago the Great South Land was a *terra incognita*, whose outline was uncertain and whose interior was unexplored. Within the memory of persons now living the first detachment of European settlers landed upon its shores. Yet the colonies then founded probably surpass, in wealth and population, England in the days of the Tudors. In the course of a single generation Australia has reached a position which few nations have attained by the slow growth of centuries. From the vastness of its resources, the energy of its settlers, and its commanding position, it is impossible to prescribe limits to its future. Every English village, almost every family, has helped to people its towns, cultivate its soil, cover its pastures with flocks, or explore its mineral treasuries. Some of our most important manufactures depend for their prosperity upon the raw material which it supplies. Its yield of gold affects the money-markets of the world.

The design of the present volume is to trace the history of this progress, to describe the soil and climate, the flora and fauna—so strange to English eyes—of its different
colonies, and to give exact information upon the points likely to interest persons about to emigrate. It is believed that in no other work on Australia are the statistics so recent and so full. Statistical returns are indeed somewhat uninteresting to the general reader, yet in no other mode can the progress of the colonies be so clearly traced, or their present position be so accurately defined.

The Author writes from long and familiar acquaintance with the country and the people. He has visited all the colonies, has resided in most of them, and has enjoyed special advantages for arriving at a just estimate of their history and prospects. Differences of opinion will, of course, exist as to many of the questions discussed: he does not pretend to infallibility; but he claims to have spared no pains in his investigation of the facts, and sedulously to have aimed at impartiality in his judgment of them. For all the statements made and opinions offered he alone is personally responsible.

The plans of towns and harbours add greatly to the value of the volume. For these acknowledgments are due to Messrs. Blackie and Sons.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONTENTS.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER I.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA ................................ 1—32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPLORATION OF THE INTERIOR .............................. 33—58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER III.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATURAL HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA .............................. 59—76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER IV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEW SOUTH WALES ........................................... 77—127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER V.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TASMANIA .................................................. 128—171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER VI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VICTORIA ................................................... 172—240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER VII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOUTH AUSTRALIA ............................................ 241—282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER VIII.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEST AUSTRALIA ............................................. 283—315</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONTENTS.

CHAPTER IX.
QUEENSLAND .........................................................316—332

CHAPTER X.
PROSPECTIVE AND RETROSPECTIVE SUMMARY ..........333—341

INDEX ................................................................. 342

MAPS AND PLANS.
GENERAL MAP OF AUSTRALIA ...................... Frontispiece
SYDNEY AND PORT JACKSON ......................... 126
HOBART TOWN .................................................. 132
MELBOURNE AND PORT PHILLIP .................... 238
BRISBANE AND MORETON BAY ..................... 318
CHAPTER I.

DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA.


For upwards of a century before the actual configuration of Australia was ascertained, the most distinguished European astronomers, geographers, and navigators entertained the theory that there must be a continent in the southern hemisphere equal in extent to those of Asia and Europe in the northern. They argued, that in order to preserve the equilibrium of the globe, the land of the southern division must extend through the tropical and temperate zones into the antarctic circle, in the same manner, and in corresponding meridians to what was then either known, or supposed on good grounds, to extend from the equator into the arctic regions. They presumed that
the world could not revolve equably upon its axis, unless there was an area of land, above the ocean, between the south pole and the equator, equal to that in the northern hemisphere. A glance at the terrestrial globe will show to what a small extent this theory has been carried out by facts. Australia will be seen to counterbalance scarcely the area of Europe, while the vast Asiatic continent has no other equivalent than the boundless ocean. It was in the pursuit of this imaginary continent that the navigators of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and probably before these periods, discovered the coast of Australia. As the Spaniards, Portuguese, and Dutch in those days were the most enterprising seamen, always in search of new lands to conquer and colonize, they were the most assiduous in endeavouring to solve this great geographical problem.

Since the extent and nature of the country has been ascertained, the honour of first discovery has become a subject of much enquiry and discussion. First, it was considered that the Dutch were entitled to that honour, then the Spaniards, but the most recent investigations tend to yield the priority of the discovery to the Portuguese. The various claims are impartially considered in a volume published by the Hakluyt Society, under the editorship of Mr. R. H. Major of the British Museum, who clearly shows, from charts in the library of that institution, that the coast line of Australia from the north-west round by the east to the southern shore, was known to the Portuguese as far back as 1542, and there is reason for concluding that it may have been explored between 1511 and 1529. There are no accounts, however, handed down to show who were the navigators that constructed those charts,
so that it rests on the testimony of the charts alone. In the absence of such accounts, the first authentic narrative of discovery of the mainland rests with the Dutch; but the name of the discoverer has not been handed down to posterity. He was the master of the yacht _Duyfken_ (Dove), and when sent out by the Dutch Government at Bantam to explore the island of New Guinea, he sighted Cape York, which was previously supposed to be the southern part of that island. This was in March, 1606.

About the close of that year a Spanish navigator named Luis Vaez de Torres appears to have been in the same waters, with his ship the _Almiranta_ and a tender, and to have sailed through the strait between New Guinea and Australia; which has since been named Torres Strait by our countryman Dalrymple, who found the account of this voyage in the archives of Manilla, when that city surrendered to the British. Torres visited this part of Australasia with the sole view of discovering a southern continent, under the auspices of the Spanish Government at Callao. With him was a pilot named Don Pedro de Quiros, experienced in the navigation of the South Seas, who was on board another vessel, called the _Capitana_. The two vessels reached an island of the Australasian group in latitude 10° S., and anchored in a bay, naming the land Tierra del Espiritu Santo. Here they separated, Torres sailing west through the strait, and Quiros returning to Spanish America. It would appear that this pilot formed most exaggerated notions of the small discovery this expedition had made, for we read of his arrival in Spain, in 1609, and reporting that he had discovered a tract of land equal in extent to the aggregate area of the whole of Europe and Asia Minor combined. He
presented several memorials on the subject to the Court of Madrid, desiring assistance for the conquest of the country and its settlement, giving it the name of Australia del Espiritu Santo. Apparently, his suit was rejected, as we hear nothing more of him afterwards. It is worthy of notice that he was the first navigator who named this country appropriately, and by the name which it now bears. Its derivation is from Austral Asia, or Southern Asia. Hence it was used by the Spaniards in their discoveries in the Southern Hemisphere, and this usage Quiros adopted when he gave his supposed continent the above designation.

These first discoveries of Australia were made by navigators approaching the mainland from the north and north-east. The next authentic accounts are, where the discoverers of new parts of the coast came from the west; and it is worthy of remark that they were chiefly accidental. At the commencement of the 17th century, the Dutch East India Company had established a lucrative commerce between Holland and their possessions in Java; consequently a goodly fleet of merchantmen was employed in the trade. After rounding the Cape of Good Hope, the masters of these vessels found that they had the most favourable winds to cross the Indian Ocean, by keeping well to the south of the equator before crossing it towards their destination. In doing so several of these outward-bound ships unexpectedly made the west coast of Australia.

The first mentioned in the Dutch annals was the Eendraght (Concord), commanded by Dirck Hartog; who anchored in Hartog Roadstead, now called Shark's Bay, where he put up a plate of tin on the rocks, bearing an inscription that the Eendraght arrived there
on the 25th October, 1616. He afterwards sailed along the coast between $26^\circ 30'$ and $23^\circ$ S., naming the country Eendraght Land. Two years afterwards, Zeachen sighted the north-west coast in latitude $15^\circ$ S., sailed in a north-easterly direction to the west cape of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and called it the Land of Arnheim. In the following year John Van Edels made the west coast, south of these discoveries, between $24^\circ$ and $29^\circ$, which has received the name of Edels Land. In 1622 another Dutch skipper, whose name has not transpired, came upon the extreme south-west coast which he called Landt van de Leeuwin, or Land of the Lioness; but for what reason is not recorded, although the name is retained in Cape Leeuwin. The Guldee Zeepaard in 1627 passed this cape and sailed "for a thousand miles" along the coast to the E.N.E., discovering all that tract of land designated Nuyts Land, in honour of Pieter van Nuyts, who was on board on his way out to Batavia, as an ambassador to Japan.

These accidental discoveries, made by merchant captains who could not spare the time to prosecute them in detail, induced the Dutch East India Company to fit out a small flotilla of ships under the command of Commodore De Witt, to ascertain their correctness and to make further research. The result of this expedition, which sailed from Batavia in 1628, was the discovery of that tract of country between the Tropic of Capricorn and $15^\circ$ S. latitude, named De Witt Land. But none of these discoverers furnish any but the most meagre account of the country and its inhabitants. A somewhat fuller account was given by Francis Pelsart, also a commodore in the Dutch East India Navy, who sailed for Java in the armed vessel Batavia, with ten traders under convoy. On the 4th June, 1629, while
sailing across the Indian Ocean, a storm came on which separated his ship from the fleet, and it was driven ashore on some rocky shoals off the west coast, in latitude 29° S.; afterwards named Houtmans Abrolhos. Excepting some rocky islets, no land could be seen by the shipwrecked crew; and as there were 230 men on board, with the prospect of the ship breaking up, it was necessary for Commodore Pelsart to seek for fresh water on the mainland, which, as they calculated, was not far off. Accordingly the ship's long-boat was launched, and he proceeded with a volunteer crew, although the stormy weather continued. They were not long in making land, but found it impossible to approach the shore until they reached 24° latitude, where smoke was seen, and some of the crew, who swam on shore, saw four natives who fled at their approach. For six days Pelsart sailed along this inhospitable coast, landing at several places without finding more water than barely sufficed for their own wants. Under these circumstances he deemed it most advisable to proceed northwards for Java, to report the loss of his ship, and send succour to the shipwrecked crew—which was satisfactorily accomplished.

The account given by Pelsart of the country and few inhabitants he saw, though meagre, has since been found remarkably correct, and free from those fabulous exaggerations to which navigators in those days were prone. He describes the country as "a parched and barren plain, covered with ant-hills, and the air infested with multitudes of flies;" the aborigines as "wild, black, and altogether naked." He saw no animals, but from the bones found near the native fires, he concluded that there were some in the country fit for food. No doubt this unfavourable
account of the new region, together with De Witt's report, tended to deter Dutch adventurers from undertaking voyages in search of the precious metals—the chief incentive to discovery—where no indications of gold or silver were seen on the persons of the natives. Such ornaments would doubtless have been worn, had these poor children of the wilderness possessed even the intelligence of the negro on the coast of Guinea, by whom grains of gold were brought to the first discoverers of that country. Thus it is that travellers often erroneously estimate the resources of unexplored lands, from the imperfect data furnished by the aboriginal inhabitants.

We learn nothing further of any Dutch ships visiting the coast with a view to further exploration. No profitable trade could be carried on with a people who evidently were so poor and wretched as to be without clothing, and who, according to Pelsart's journal, "lived in the open country like the beasts of the field." Even the Government at Batavia ceased to consider these discoveries of any value, excepting as a solution of the great geographical question concerning the existence of a southern continent, which again agitated the savans of Europe about the middle of the 17th century.

In 1642, however, the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies was a man of enlarged views, and encouraged those who wished to prosecute this important question. Among his officers was a skilful navigator named Abel Jansen Tasman, who had his full confidence, and was a suitor of his daughter Maria. Whether the father held out hopes to the young officer of securing his daughter's hand in the event of success in his discoveries, history sayeth not; but he was
selected by Governor-General Anthony Van Diemen to proceed on a voyage of discovery into the "South Seas," as the Pacific and Southern Oceans were designated at that time. Like Columbus and other brave navigators, Tasman undertook the voyage in a small yacht, the Heemskirk, with a "flying boat," the Zeehaen (Sea-hen), as tender. He sailed from Batavia on the 14th August of the above year for the Mauritius, the Governor furnishing him with minute instructions, containing a concise account of all that was previously known of these regions. It is chiefly from this letter of instructions that we are indebted for information concerning the discoveries prior to Tasman's voyage; for notwithstanding their importance, it would appear that the Dutch never published any account of them. It has been suggested that the captains of the merchant ships did publish their narratives in Holland in a cheap form, but as they contained nothing marvellous to whet the public appetite, none of the accounts were preserved, and their stories fell into oblivion.

Leaving the Mauritius, Tasman steered across the Indian Ocean in a general south-east course, reaching a higher latitude south of the line than any of his predecessors had attained, but after sailing with his tiny vessels upwards of six thousand miles, he found nothing beyond the wide waste of waters. On the 20th November, however, his perseverance was rewarded by the discovery of land in about 43° S. latitude, and 146° E. longitude. Here he discovered a bold mountainous coast, indented with deep bays and inlets. He anchored his vessels in one of these and named it Frederick Hendrick Bay, after the then Prince of Orange; and landed to take a view of the country and its productions. There was nothing very tempting to be seen;
the soil was sandy and rocky, and the vegetation remarkable only for the size and peculiarity of the trees, from some of which he collected gum.

No natives were visible, but he observed smoke curling up among the branches of the primeval forest, which he considered an indubitable mark that the land was inhabited; and he observed the bark of the trees cut with steps, evidently to assist them in ascending to take birds' nests. Tasman was not then acquainted with the fact that the chief food of these aborigines were the opposums and other animals that live in the trees of Australia. This mode of chasing animals up the trees by cutting notches in the thick bark, in which to rest the toe while ascending, is very curious, and we are not aware that it is practised by any other race of savages. They still hunt in this fashion with success. The animals they capture are nocturnal in their habits, lying dormant during the day, which makes them an easy prey to the climber, who would not be successful at night, or if they were active in daylight.

At the spot where he landed, Tasman erected a post with the brand of the Dutch East India Company upon it, and Prince Frederick Henry's flag flying from the top. The land thus discovered he named in honour of "our master who sent us to make discoveries, Anthony Van Diemen's Land." That well-known name in the annals of transportation was considered inappropriate when the country was ascertained to be an island, so it was suggested that it should be called Tasmania, after its discoverer; but it was not until the inhabitants petitioned Her Majesty's Government, in 1853, that it was legally adopted. While Tasman honoured the father by naming his first discovery after him, he did
not forget the daughter, the object of his affections, as may be seen by the name Maria Island, off the east coast of Tasmania. This was the last point he explored in these latitudes; and he concluded that he had determined the southern boundary of the land previously discovered on the west and north coasts.

Satisfied with the success of this part of his voyage of discovery, he continued his course in an easterly direction, in search of other unknown regions in the South Pacific. Of these it is not necessary to make mention here. But we again find him pursuing his researches on the north coast of Australia, where he explored that extensive indentation west of Cape York, called the Gulf of Carpentaria. Hitherto it has been supposed that this gulf was discovered by Pieter Carpenter, a general in the Dutch East India Company’s service, while homeward bound from Java, with five richly laden ships under his command. This is an error, as clearly shown by Mr. Major, in the work already referred to, where there are satisfactory data for concluding that Tasman was the discoverer, and that he named the gulf in honour of Carpenter, while he was president of the Dutch East India Company, as he named Van Diemen’s Land after the governor-general. These two discoveries of the northern and southern extremities of the Great South Land became known throughout Europe about 1645, and determined its latitudinal extent, but without solving the problem of the southern continent. The Dutch, assuming to themselves a national property in this vast territory, consolidated the discoveries of their navigators, and gave it the general name of New Holland.

During this long period of geographical exploration,
and up nearly to the close of the 17th century, it would appear that no English navigator had turned his attention to this region. The first of our countrymen who saw any part of Australia were William Dampier and some others, forming the crew of a buccaneering vessel under the command of an Englishman named Cook, (not the renowned navigator). They sailed from a place named Acomack, in Virginia, doubled Cape Horn, and entered the Great South Sea to cruise against the Spaniards, with whom England was then at war. From these waters they probably crossed the South Atlantic, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and sailed eastwards along the Indian Ocean, probably expecting to come across some richly laden Spanish galleons from Manilla and other ports in the Phillipine Isles. Be that as it may, this privateer and its English captain and crew unexpectedly fell in with the west coast of Australia on January 4th, 1688, in latitude 16° 50' S. situated between the territory discovered by Dirck Hartog to the south and that explored by Zeachen to the north; so that this party made a genuine discovery of an unknown part of Australia, which has been named Dampier Land. They appear to have sailed slowly along the coast within view of the shore, examining the bays and inlets with some degree of care, and landing at various places where it was safe to do so. In this manner they spent two months on the coast, during which time they careened and watered the ships, and afterwards resumed their privateering expedition.

Nothing was known in Europe of this discovery, until ten years had passed away, when William Dampier published an account of what he saw, including some things which he did not see, during his
buccaneering voyages; but especially dwelling on the discovery of an unknown part of Australia, spiced with a few marvellous exaggerations. It must be remembered that he was only a common sailor, ranking as one of the crew in the privateer, and possessed only an ordinary amount of education; but he was a man of marked character, with large powers of observation. These qualifications, together with his reputation as a thorough seaman practically conversant with navigation, recommended him so powerfully to the Earl of Pembroke, then at the head of the Admiralty, that he induced his Majesty King William III. to give him the command of the *Roebuck* man-of-war, and sent him on a voyage of discovery to Australia in 1699. He made the west coast in 26° S. latitude, and anchored in the bay discovered in 1616 by Dirck Hartog. In his account of this voyage he appears to have been ignorant of the prior discovery by the Dutchman. But this is not surprising, as it was the policy of the Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese in those days to keep all their discoveries secret, the governments either suppressing or preventing any account being published. It is said that the Portuguese were so jealous on this point that they made it a penal offence on the part of any navigator of their nation to make public an account of his discoveries; and some authorities go far to prove that capital punishment was inflicted upon such an offender. Under these circumstances, it is to be supposed that Dampier was but imperfectly acquainted with the discoveries of the Dutch; consequently he called this harbour Shark's Bay, from the number of sharks seen in it, which name it retains on English charts, while the Dutch still call it, after the original discoverer, Hartog Roadstead.
He remained a week in this harbour, exploring the shore as far as possible, which he found steep and sandy, covered with flowers and grass in tufts, but without fresh water. As a supply of this necessary element was pressing, he continued his course northwards, anchoring occasionally, until he reached latitude 18° 21' S., where he observed numerous fires on shore. Concluding that these were at a native encampment, and consequently near fresh water, he landed with an armed party of ten or eleven men. They soon perceived three aborigines, who ran away at their approach. However they found water for drinking by digging wells in the sand. While thus occupied nine of the natives came towards them making a great noise, with violent angry gestures. One, more bold than the others, having his head, face, and body painted with red ochre, came within fifty yards; but he and his companions taking a sudden panic fled away as fast as they could. Dampier then formed an ambuscade to try and seize some of them but failed; while in the attempt one of his men was wounded in the cheek with a spear. This caused him to fire on the natives, first in the air, but afterwards with ball. One of them was wounded, his companions hurriedly carrying him away. This terminated all communication with the aborigines; and as it was the only occasion when he had a near view of their persons, his account of them is incorrect and exaggerated. "They have great heads," he states, "round foreheads, and heavy brows. Their eyelids are half closed, to keep the flies out of their eyes; so that from infancy they never open them like other people, and consequently cannot see far, unless they hold up their heads as if they were looking at something over them. They have great bottle-noses, pretty full lips, and wide mouths. In
short, setting aside the human shape, they differ but little from brutes." The assertion about the eyes is sheer nonsense: the Australian aborigines are famous for the keenness of sight, and their features are more regular than the best of the negro races.

Dampier is the first who makes mention of the dingo, or Australian dog, which he saw in the company of these natives. He describes their track as the "footstep of some beast as large as a mastiff dog:" subsequently he saw "three beasts resembling wolves, but nothing but skin and bone." In his rough mode of expression the latter account is graphic; for they are wretched looking animals, especially among the natives, to whom they are much attached. Their general appearance, however, is more like the fox than either the dog or wolf, and they have a bushy tail like reynard, with even a stronger offensive odour. They have also a great taste for fowl and mutton, and are the dread of the farm-yard and sheep-pen; while the howl, or rather yell, which they set up at night during their depredations is of the most unearthly kind; hence the dingo is hunted and shot down by the settlers wherever he is found.

It seems that Dampier's unfavourable account of Australia and its inhabitants had a similar effect upon his countrymen, as the previous reports of Dirck Hartog and the other Dutch skippers had upon theirs. At all events, no venturesome trader, or association of speculators, such as the famous South Sea Company, had the courage to start a colonizing expedition to the barren shores of New Holland. Nor did the British government deem the discoveries of Dampier worth following up in other latitudes of the southern continent. For seventy years after that rough but
energetic navigator visited Australia, the maritime states of Europe abandoned further attempts to explore what they considered a worthless wilderness. Thus the uncivilized and unclad aborigines were left to roam over their verdant valleys and forests, sole monarchs of a land that held unbounded treasures beneath their feet.

At last the genius of Australian maritime discovery—as the precursor of colonization—arose in the person of Captain James Cook; one of nature's noblemen, whose deeds, in the field of exploration, to which he became a martyr, will shed lustre upon his name through all time. Although he was cut off in the prime of life by the savages of Owhyhee, still he had the satisfaction of seeing his important discoveries in the South Pacific appreciated by his king and country, which he deemed the greatest reward for his exertions in the cause of science and humanity. It was in the year 1768, that he set out on his first voyage of discovery round the world, chiefly to determine the moot point of the existence of a great southern continent, which was once more revived in Europe. As the most suitable kind of vessel for this purpose, he fitted out a barque of 370 tons, originally built for the coal trade, and named her the _Endeavour_, to signify the modesty of his intentions. After two years cruising on the west coast of South America, and among the South Sea Islands, as they were then designated—during which time he observed the transit of Venus across the disc of the sun, and discovered parts of the coast of New Zealand not visited by Tasman—he steered westwards towards the _terra incognita, Australis_; which had baffled, for upwards of two centuries, the combined hydrographic skill of the civilized world to ascertain its configuration.
It must be observed here, that while previous navigators had approached the land from the west and the north, Cook was the first who did so from the east. Hence he calculated his longitude from Greenwich continually west of that standard, until he arrived at the meridian of 211° W., or as now computed 149° E. On the morning of the 19th April, 1770, being in latitude 38° S., his first lieutenant saw the land, which Captain Cook named after him, Point Hicks. Steering further west he saw nothing but a low sandy beach, which runs for 120 miles in that direction. Turning to the south, no land was visible after sailing a considerable distance; this caused him to remark in his journal that he could not determine whether the shore he had discovered was joined to Van Dieman's Land or not. So he steered his course easterly and northerly until he made the great elbow of south-eastern Australia, where the coast trends to the westward on the one side for 1,800 miles, and northward on the other for 2,000 miles. He named this point Cape Howe, in honour of his admiral.

To follow his course past the numerous headlands, or into the many bays and inlets he discovered and named, would occupy more space than our volume can afford; but we refer the reader to the accompanying map as a faithful record of this unexampled hydrographic feat, accomplished in four months; during which his ship was nearly wrecked upon a coral reef, that detained him seventeen days in harbour. Without entering into detail, a brief sketch of the chief points of discovery will suffice to give continuity to this narration of those localities which have since become so famous in the world's history.

After an unsuccessful attempt to land at Red Point,
near the present town of Wollongong, where he first saw some of the inhabitants on the beach, he had to content himself with looking at a distance on the novel aspect of the country and its vegetation. Next morning, however, he descried, at day-break, a bay which seemed to be well sheltered from all winds; so he resolved to take his ship in thither. This was safely effected in the course of the afternoon, and he anchored off the south point of the entrance. As the wind was fair, the good ship *Endeavour* had all sails set, and rounded to, as she dropped her anchor, in such gallant style, that at any civilized port it would have attracted the attention of the people on shore. Here the ship's company plainly saw the native inhabitants on both sides of the bay; men, women, and children, moving about among their open huts, while four men in canoes were busily employed in striking fish with their spears; and strange to say, that although the ship passed within a quarter of a mile of them, they never once turned their attention towards an object which to them must have been a perfectly new and extraordinary spectacle. Not half a mile from where the vessel was anchored appeared a cluster of six or eight bark huts, where an old woman and three children came out of the forest with firewood; she often looked at the ship, but expressed neither fear nor surprise. In a short time the canoes went in from fishing; the men landed, hauled up their boats, and cooked and ate their fish, apparently as unconcerned about the ship as if they had been accustomed to see one every day. Captain Cook thought this very remarkable, and was inclined to think that it arose from their being so much engaged in their own affairs, that they did not observe his ship and crew; while he sup-
posed the noise of the surf drowned that of the rattling of the anchor and cable, and the shouts of the seamen. Probably, however, these aborigines not only saw the great canoe, but, with their keen eyesight, every one on board; and that they distinguished the rattling of the chain cable from the roar of the surf. Any other conclusion would be a distinct contradiction to their extraordinary perceptive powers. On the other hand, it is the chief mental characteristic of this race that they are almost deficient in the imaginative faculties, and evince no curiosity in any object that does not immediately concern their appetites or personal safety. Not possessing sufficient foresight to apprehend danger from the new-comer, because it was on the water, it was a matter of indifference to them. But the moment Captain Cook attempted to land with a party of men in his boats, to look for fresh water, thereby arousing their fears of danger, they were up in arms, and disputed the landing, brandishing their clubs and spears, shouting in harsh dissonant tones, and determined to defend their country to the uttermost. The leaders of these native warriors, were a youth apparently about nineteen and a middle aged man. Captain Cook could not but admire their courage, as they were but two to his forty. He was obliged to discharge a musket loaded with small shot at them, which hit the elder savage on the leg, and dispersed the whole tribe, before he could effect a landing.

This important event, of Captain Cook first stepping on shore in Australia, has been commemorated by the Philosophical Society of Sydney placing a plate of copper, with a suitable inscription, on the overhanging cliff above the spot where he landed with Mr. (afterwards Sir Joseph) Banks and Dr. Solander, on the
28th of April, 1770. Here they remained until the 6th of May, during which time Cook surveyed the harbour and examined its shores, having formed a favourable impression of its capabilities for a settlement. Meanwhile his scientific coadjutors in the field of discovery enriched their collections of natural history with new and strange specimens. These more especially consisted of numerous and beautiful flowers; hence Captain Cook was induced to name the harbour Botany Bay. Those of the rising generation to whose ears this name is not familiar, will consider it a very appropriate and pleasing one. But few of their fathers will hear it without a shudder, by their recollection of its associations with the most depraved of mankind, who were banished from the prisons of the United Kingdom to its shores.

During the time the expedition was in this harbour, several excursions were made to the head of the bay and into the adjacent forests, to observe the natural history of the country. The trees were considered to be larger than the English oak, and growing wide apart, so that it would not be necessary to cut them down for cultivation; while between them the ground was covered with tufts of grass growing together. One tree yielded gum like the *sanguis draconis*; and a small stunted one, a yellow gum like gamboge. The former was the red gum-tree or *eucalyptus*, the latter the grass-tree or *xanthorea*. Neither of these gums, or rather gum-resins, have been utilized, as Cook expected they would be; and only that from the *acacia* or wattle-tree has become an article of commerce.

Birds of exquisite plumage were seen, chiefly of the parrot kind, and crows like those in England. There was abundance of water-fowl, most of which were pre-
viously unknown. One, the most remarkable, "was much larger than a swan, in shape resembling a pelican, with black feathers, except under the wings, and having a red bill." This is the first account of the black swan *Cygnus atratus*, which is now well known, and may be found consorting with its white namesake in our ornamental waters. Like many other anomalous objects in the flora and fauna of Australia, this bird falsifies the old Roman proverb that "It is as impossible as to find a black swan." The habits of the bird are peculiarly interesting. The male watches the floating nest, while the female sits on it during the time of incubation; and he seldom relinquishes his charge until the cygnets are afloat on the water, and able to screen themselves from the swoop of the eagle or hawk.

It was Sunday morning when Captain Cook left Botany Bay with a fair wind, sailing within two or three miles of the land; and in a run of three leagues the ship passed a bay or harbour that "appeared to have good anchorage," which he called Port Jackson. Although not mentioned in Cook's journal, it is stated on good authority that this harbour was first observed by the look-out mariner at the masthead, while the captain was at breakfast, and that taking his word for it presenting the appearance of a sheltered anchorage, he named it after him as a port. Be that as it may, it is just possible that the sailor Jackson obtained a glimpse of the inner harbour over a break in the high cliff near the South Head, which could not have been seen from the deck; and as the ship came abreast of the place, the opening leading to it was shut in amongst the frowning precipices which rise perpendicularly, from one to two hundred feet, at its entrance from the Pacific. In this way the great discoverer passed
without examination one of the most magnificent harbours in the world, where all the navies and merchantmen in Europe could ride at anchor in safety.

On sped the gallant barque *Endeavour*, and at every league some new and interesting part of the coast was opened up to view. Now it was a cape, then a bay, here a headland, there a sand-spit, again remarkable hills were seen, and numerous islands strewn along the coast, all of which obtained "a local habitation and a name" on the navigator's chart. So numerous were the discoveries, that at times he was at a loss to find appropriate names, while, with the modesty of true genius, he never once thought of giving his own name to any landmark or haven. In this respect posterity has proved, hitherto, as ungrateful as he was modest; excepting some paltry creek or hill, there is no portion of this vast domain which he unfolded to his country for its good, that bears his honoured name; while those of others, who have little claim to such honour, are repeated *ad nauseam* over hill and dale, by stream and bay.

Running down this latitudinal course in the southern regions, the further north he sailed the warmer grew the climate, until he entered the tropical seas of Australia, which on the east coast begin about lat. 28° S., near Moreton Bay. Here the vegetation reminded him of the West Indies; a reminiscence which was further strengthened by seeing turtle in the bays. At one place where he landed, his companions shot a large bird of the bustard species, which on being cooked proved as excellent eating as a turkey, though weighing 17½ lb. They all agreed that it was the best bird they had tasted since leaving England; and in grateful remembrance, the harbour was named Bustard Bay.
In this pleasant manner the voyagers sailed into the Tropic of Capricorn, and cruised between beautiful coral islands and the mainland, where fresh objects of interest everywhere met their view. The weather was fine and the wind was fair, so that they had nothing to fear as long as they kept a good look-out. Every one was in good spirits, as they anticipated an early and safe conclusion to the voyage. But these coral islands and their treacherous reefs were as dangerous as they were beautiful, and the immunity from distress hitherto experienced was suddenly checked by disaster near that point on the map which, in consequence, was named Cape Tribulation.

One beautiful moonlight night, as the ship was speeding on her course with a fair wind, among the shoals of that Coral Sea, and while most of the officers and crew were tranquilly asleep, she suddenly struck upon a reef, and instantly roused every one on board to the horrors of shipwreck on an inhospitable coast, where they might linger for years without succour. However, the captain and his officers and crew were equal to the emergency, and by throwing everything weighty overboard that could be spared, the ship floated, but was making water rapidly. Had the weather been at all stormy, no human power could have saved their vessel. As it was, the fine weather continued long enough to enable them to draw a sail over the leak, with fothering on it. This served the purpose of keeping her in sailing trim, until she was safely moored at the mouth of a creek, which was named Endeavour River. This was on the 17th June, and they remained there repairing the damage to the ship, as well as circumstances permitted, until the 4th of August.

During this long sojourn in harbour, every one, from
the captain and his scientific companions down to the ordinary seamen, improved the occasion to obtain further information concerning the country, its inhabitants, animals, and vegetable productions. Contrary to what they had experienced at Botany Bay, the aborigines in this locality did not run away at their approach, and after one or two interviews, became friendly, and went on board the ship. It was observed that they differed in appearance from the natives in the south; their skin was more of a chocolate colour, their features agreeable, teeth white, and voices soft and tunable. They gave in perfection that peculiar call of the Australian savage, which cannot easily be written, with its prolonged cry and abrupt termination, without musical notes; but the nearest approach would be, *coo-oo-oo-oo-ê*. The difference in the skin and the superior aspect of these natives results from an admixture of Polynesian blood in their veins; otherwise they present the same features as the tribes on the south and west coasts of Australia, and like them, were in a state of nudity. They were, however, cleaner in their persons, and some of the girls had pretty necklaces of shells, which they could not be persuaded to part with for anything. Their friendly disposition, however, did not last long. One day ten men were on board the ship, when some turtle had been caught, which they coveted more than anything else, and tried, forcibly, to take one away in their canoes. As this fresh food was of great value to the sick and the crew generally, (among whom symptoms of scurvy were beginning to appear), the turtle could not be spared. Off these black fellows rushed in angry mood, and as soon as they reached the shore, set fire to the tall grass, which damaged some of the
ship's stores, and nearly burnt a tent and other combustible articles that had been landed during repairs. Had it happened a few days before, when the gunpowder was on shore, the consequences might have been very serious.

Here a kangaroo was seen for the first time by white men. One day some of the sailors were sent to shoot pigeons for the sick, and when they returned, reported having seen a creature as large as a greyhound, of a slender make, a mouse colour, and extremely swift. Next day everybody got a glimpse of this animal, and Captain Cook had a good view of one while out walking in the morning. It puzzled him sorely, as it did not run on all fours, but leaped on its hind legs. At last Mr. Gore, one of the lieutenants, had the good fortune to kill one, and the mystery was solved. On enquiry of the natives they called it *kangaroo*, a name which Captain King considers accidental, as, afterwards, on visiting that part of the coast, they called the animal *men-u-ah*. They dressed the kangaroo for dinner, and being a young one, it was considered excellent food. No doubt any kind of fresh meat would have been good to these junk-fed mariners; but the flesh of this animal is, at the best, dry and flavourless. The tail, however, makes capital soup, and it is of great size, in comparison with the rest of the body; that of the forester kangaroo will make more soup than a dozen ox-tails.

The peculiar form of the interesting and curious genus of *marsupials*, or pouched animals, is now familiar to all, from the specimens seen in menageries; and, no doubt, many have wondered at their awkward stoop while feeding, when their little fore paws seem to be useless, and their great hind legs a
burden and encumbrance. Those, however, who have observed them feeding in their native glades, where the grass grows as high as wheat in a corn field, have seen the beautiful adaptation of its form to its mode of feeding. Standing erect, it holds the stalks of grass in its fore paws and nibbles away at the flower or seed of the native herbs, without ever bending to the ground for the blades or leaves. Its power of bounding over the grass, unimpeded by the stalks, renders it able to leave the swiftest four-footed pursuer far behind; as Mr. Banks found, when he sent his dogs after them. Since then, wherever the tall grass has disappeared, from sheep or cattle grazing, the kangaroo has left his old feeding ground.

For the first time, Mr. Banks now captured an Australian opposum, a female, with two young ones. This class of animals was previously supposed to be peculiar to America, from whence its name is derived. Being nocturnal in their habits, nothing is to be seen of them in the day time, unless you can catch a glimpse of one at noon-tide, sleeping soundly in the hollow of a tree. When night comes, they leap from bough to bough with the greatest animation, especially if it be moonlight. Some species, with thin membranes between the fore and hind paws, can take a flying leap of, sometimes, thirty yards from tree to tree; and hence they are called flying squirrels, though perfectly distinct in their nature from that animal.

While the naturalists were thus adding to their store of knowledge concerning the fauna of Australia, one of the sailors thought he would not be behind hand in exploration. On his return from a ramble in the woods one day, he told his messmates that he had seen the “devil.” Every one was anxious to have a
description of the enemy of mankind, and Jack described him as follows:—"He 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." It turned out that he had seen a large bat, of which there are many in the northern parts of Australia, to which the name of flying-foxes has been given, as at a distance they have some resemblance to that animal. Some have considered them like the fabulous bat called the vampire, which was supposed to suck human blood and fan its sleeping victim with its wings.

Besides being the first to discover specimens of the principal animals forming the Australian fauna, the members of this expedition saw numerous less important species of the feline and reptile families; of the latter were snakes, venomous and non-venomous, and large lizards, guanas, and frogs, that broke the silence of the night with their deep-toned croaking. The birds were also plentiful and of great variety; many with brilliant plumage, such as the loriquets, parrots, pigeons, ducks, and many small birds not known in Europe. Of the duck kind they saw that anomalous species commonly called the whistling duck, which, as its name implies, does not quack but makes a kind of whistling noise; while it is less aquatic in its habits than its fellow species, and is frequently found roosting on trees some distance from lakes and ponds. In the sea, also, among the coral reefs, the water seemed to abound with fish, some whose scales were as brilliant in colour as the feathers of the parrots. But few were good eating, as experience has proved of all the fish in the waters of Australia and Tasmania, with the exception of the trumpeter-fish, found in the
Derwent at Hobart Town, where English salmon are now introduced and are expected to thrive well. In Weymouth Bay they found enormous cockles, some having 20 lbs. of meat in them; and among the mangrove trees and mud banks, innumerable oysters of various kinds, among them the hammer-headed oyster and pearl oyster, plentiful enough for a profitable fishery. One curious little fish of an amphibious nature was found leaping, by means of its breast fins, over the small stones at low-water, as nimbly as a frog, and seemed to prefer the land to the water, until the tide rose, when it returned to its native element. Here, also, were seen on a calm day, looking to the bottom of these coral caves through the transparent water, the coral itself, of delicate red and pink hues, and crabs of the most brilliant colours, like their prototypes the fish and birds. One was adorned with the finest ultramarine blue above, and below white, so exquisitely polished that it resembled the purest porcelain in brightness and tint. Nothing can exceed the beauty of these submarine gardens, covered with delicate seaweeds and corallines, and tenanted by such beautiful creatures. None of these bright coloured fish or crustacea, however, are edible; but the cray-fish, crab, and lobster, which are edible, are found plentifully at certain seasons in all parts of Australia—these having the homely hues of those in Europe.

Of insects an infinite variety was found, especially butterflies, where one species appeared in millions, filling the air and covering the trees over an area of two to three acres. These clouds of lepidoptera prove desolating in their progress, where they lay their eggs on the vegetation, which in due season produce larvae sufficient to eat up the grass to its very roots, over
many square miles of land, in a few days. Flights of white butterflies have been seen on the east coast, estimated at half a mile wide, which continued to fly southward for ten hours, like a thick shower of snow; and in the following season the land they passed over was denuded of its vegetation. Equally destructive are the flights of locusts, which resemble those of Egypt, and prove a plague to the country, stripping it bare in a day or two of its luxuriant grass. Sometimes a pestilence arises from their rotting in a valley, where they have been driven by a cold wind and killed, lying many inches deep on the ground.

But the coleoptera or beetle tribe surpass all the bright-coloured crabs, fish, and birds in the brilliancy of their elytra or wing-cases. To see them flying among the bushes or feeding on the flowers, one would imagine that the gems of a jeweller's shop had suddenly taken to flight in the sunshine. Not so beautiful, but even more interesting are the strangely formed insects of the phasma and mantis genera, some of which so closely resemble decayed leaves and rotten twigs of shrubs, as to deceive the eyes of man, and voracious animals which would feed upon them.

Equally curious and unknown were the plants that Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander (a learned Swiss naturalist who accompanied Captain Cook in this expedition) discovered in this strange region; which being scientifically described by them in Europe, so upset the previous classifications of theoretical botanists, that their jealous spirit cast doubt upon the reports of the discoverers. So disgusted were Mr. Banks and his assistant Mr. Brown at the reception of their views, that they refrained from completing the prodromus they had prepared. Since that time, however, their
researches and profound knowledge of the science have been fully appreciated.

The great characteristic of Australian trees and shrubs is that they are all evergreen. Hence, although the leaves decay and fall off continuously, there is no general stripping of the foliage in winter, as in Europe, where the trees are deciduous. Hence, also, there is no budding in Spring, so that the forests present a leafy aspect all the year round. This gives a monotonous appearance to the landscape, compared with northern regions, where the fresh verdure clothes the woods every Spring, and in the Autumn exhibit their charming varied tints. In this strange southern land "the fall of the year," which is a household expression in America, is unknown. In like manner the term "umbrageous," which we apply to our groves and woods where the oak and sycamore prevail, is inapplicable. The *eucalyptus* or gum tree forms nine-tenths of the forest trees. It has a leaf like the mistletoe, having no distinct upper and under surface, and hangs from the leaf-stalk with its edge upwards. Thus it does not intercept the light, or the sun's rays; consequently, the grass and other small plants grow as luxuriantly in the forest as in the open plain. It is true that there are dense "scrubs" or thickets, where the underwood spreads gloom around, but such are exceptional and occur in patches. Australian forests generally are less thickly timbered than our open parks, and the sunlight and breeze can always penetrate them.

Among the flowering plants, those of the heath kind predominate, and though the flowers are small they are brightly coloured. Few of any species have scent, with the exception of the acacias, which grow in groves
that perfume the air for miles. The fern-trees, which attain twenty feet in height, present a more graceful appearance in their long hanging fronds, than the leaves of the palm or cocoa-nut trees. Everywhere to the eye of the botanist the flora of Australia presents something strange, yet peculiarly adapted to the climate. Even the grasses are not like those in Europe, where the stems are hollow and the leaves succulent. The stems have a pith like a rush, and the leaves are brown and dry; yet they contain a large amount of nourishment, and stand the hot blasts of summer, where European grasses would crumble into dust.

Very little more remains to be told concerning this voyage of scientific as well as maritime discovery which, at the time, was the theme of the civilized world, and will be handed down to posterity as unexampled in the history of exploration on this terraqueous globe.

It must not be omitted, however, to mention that even after Captain Cook had patched up the *Endeavour* sufficiently to warrant his prosecution of the voyage, further dangers and tribulations were in store, among the rocks and shoals of the Coral Sea. On this head he remarks in his journal:—“Rocks and shoals are always dangerous to the mariner, even where their situation has been ascertained. They are more dangerous in those seas which have never been navigated; and in this part of the globe they are more dangerous than any other; for here they are reefs of coral rock, 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 so abrupt a resistance, break, with inconceivable violence, in a surf which no rocks or storms in the northern
DANGERS OF THE CORAL SEA.

hemisphere can produce. The danger of navigating unknown parts of this ocean was now greatly increased by our having a crazy ship, 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 successful fortitude and perseverance, than leave a country which we had discovered, unexplored, and give colour to a charge of timidity and irresolution.”

After many hair-breadth escapes, this courageous navigator and his officers piloted the crazy *Endeavour* safely through the Great Barrier Reefs of the Coral Sea, and sailed round Cape York, anchoring in safety among a cluster of isles to the westward. On one of these they landed, as Cook relates:—“We immediately climbed the highest hill, which was not more than three times as high as the mast head, and the most barren of any we had seen. From this hill no land could be seen between the S.W. and W.S.W., so that I had no doubt of finding a channel through. As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, (which I had coasted from latitude 38° to this place, and which I am confident no European had ever seen before), I once more hoisted English colours; and though I had taken possession already of several particular parts, I now took possession of the whole eastern coast, from latitude 38° to this place 10° 30′ south, in right of his Majesty King George III., by the name of New South Wales, with all its 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, we called it Possession Island."

When these facts were published in London, together with the long roll of discoveries, accompanied by charts of the most correct character, determining the great geographical problem in which every maritime state was interested, the whole of Europe, by tacit consent, acknowledged England's claim to the territory, comprising nearly one-half of this vast island-continent.
CHAPTER II.

EXPLORATION OF THE INTERIOR.

Surgeon Bass determines the Island of Tasmania, and the strait named after him in 1798—Survey of the Coast of Australia—Twenty-five years exploration around Sydney—The Duck-billed Water Mole—The Lyre-tail Pheasant—The Australian Eagle—The Emu—Evans crosses the Blue Mountains in 1813—Bathurst Plains—Rivers with large fish—Oxley determines the Australian Cordillera—Explorations by Hume, Cunningham, Sturt, Mitchell, Strzelecki, Leichhardt, and Kennedy—Pine-trees of the Tropic—The Sea-cow, Alligator, and Buffalo found in Tropical Australia—Attempts to reach the Central Region—Gregory from the West and North fails—Stuart succeeds in 1858; and in 1862 crosses the Continent from South to North—Burke and Wills succeed also in 1861, but perish in the attempt—Leroy and Gregory explore the Western section—Geographical character of that region—Numerous Salt Lakes in Central Australia—Eyre explores the South Shore from Spencer Gulf to King George Sound—Physical Geography of Australia; divided between the Temperate and Tropical zones—Altitude of the Mountain Chains—Varied character of the land; its sterility and fertility—Universal salubrity of the Climate—Geology of Australia; showing the character of its Gold-bearing Rocks—Great Plateaux of Basalt, intersected with Granite and Porphyry—Carboniferous formation in the East Region—Tertiary Formation in the South-east, Central and West Regions—Australian Alps—Evidence of this Island Continent having been an Archipelago during the Tertiary Epoch.

If the reader had a dissected map of Australia with the coast line in sections, as described in the chronological order of discovery in the preceding chapter, and dove-tailed them together, a tolerably well defined configuration of this vast island-continent would be obtained. The only difference would be, an hiatus at Bass Strait, between the island of Tasmania and the mainland. This portion was filled in with a dotted
EXPLORATION OF THE INTERIOR.

line on the earlier charts, as if that space were land instead of water. The island (under the name of Van Diemen's Land) was, by Tasman, laid down as part of the mainland. This erroneous conjecture was held until the year 1798—twenty-eight years after Cook's first voyage of discovery, and ten years after the formation of the settlement at Sydney. Between these periods, Captain Cook twice visited Tasmania, and his coadjutor, Captain Tobias Furneaux, once. At each time a few new headlands and bays were added to the chart of its eastern coast, also a group of islands in the strait that bears the latter navigator's name. But strange to say, neither of them ventured far enough to the westward, to determine whether there was a passage or not in that direction. This unusual oversight on the part of Cook, can only be accounted for by the fact that Furneaux, who sailed farthest into the strait, (but in thick and stormy weather,) had given it as his decided opinion that there was "no strait between New Holland and Van Diemen's Land, but a very deep bay." Acting on this supposition, ships bound for Sydney, made the voyage round the island of Tasmania, thereby lengthening the route several hundred miles; which could have been saved if they had known of the existence of Bass Strait.

This strait was named by Philip Gedley King, the second governor of New South Wales, in the year 1798, in honour of Mr. Bass, surgeon of His Majesty's ship Reliance, who discovered its existence and was the first to circumnavigate Tasmania. This he performed in a small decked sloop called the Norfolk, built of the pine from Norfolk Island. It was his second attempt to explore that part of the coast. In the first he was frustrated by not having a boat large enough to
encounter the heavy sea and swell west of Cape Howe; but he was confirmed in his opinion that an open passage of considerable width existed beyond. After a cruise of three months he returned and solicited the governor to grant him a suitable craft to prosecute his voyage further. This was acceded to, and his request that Lieutenant Flinders of the Reliance, with a picked crew from that and other of the king's ships in harbour, should accompany him, was likewise granted; with instructions to both officers that they should examine carefully as to the existence of a strait, or otherwise. Bass was successful, and his companion Flinders afterwards became famous as a maritime surveyor of the coast discovered by Cook, and the navigators that preceded him. From this circumstance, some writers have rendered to Flinders the honour of first discovery, which without any evidence, he is represented to have named Bass Strait, out of courtesy to his companion and fellow officer. To Bass is due the whole credit, as his journal amply testifies—a narrative which exhibits the superior knowledge of a university graduate conversant with the physical sciences, as compared with that of a merely naval education. It does not detract from the subsequent reputation of Flinders to say that he was only a fellow voyager of Bass during his successful determination of the geographical problem.

The general outline of Australia being properly defined, it now became a matter of importance to survey correctly the indentations and sinuosities of the coast in detail. This desideratum was the constant study of the British Government, after the country had been practically taken possession of by establishing the penal settlement at Sydney, in the harbour of Port Jackson. Instructions were sent out to the governors
to forward the progress of discovery by fitting out local expeditions to explore the adjacent bays and rivers; while surveying ships were dispatched from time to time to ascertain correctly the latitude and longitude of every cape, point, or headland, with a boat survey of the shore, so that the outlet of no river should escape them. Soundings of all channels and harbours were also to be made. Some idea of the herculean task before these hydrographers may be formed from the fact that the coast line of Australia, following its sinuosities, is not less than ten thousand miles in extent. Upwards of half a century was devoted to this work; and it has been efficiently carried out, regardless of cost, by the Admiralty under every government; so that the charts published by them are unequalled for correctness of detail, and are used to pilot the ships of every maritime nation through these seas. To furnish even a slight sketch of what our hydrographic surveyors have accomplished would be chiefly of technical interest, and would take up too much space. But the reader will glean sufficient from the map to comprehend the nature and variety of this extensive fringe of coast. At the same time, as the history progresses, the details of navigable harbours will be given in chronological order, as they lead to the formation of new settlements and colonies.

Having thus far traced the progress of maritime discovery to a satisfactory solution of the general configuration of Australia, it is necessary now to follow the footsteps of the undaunted explorers of its terra incognita, who personally encountered dangers and privations which none of the navigators experienced. Many of them have fallen a sacrifice to their enthusiasm in the cause of geographical discovery.
FIRST ATTEMPTS.

When the first expedition landed on the shores of Botany Bay, to take practical possession of the whole country, the map they had for their guidance was an entire blank. Even the land they first located themselves on, after abandoning the spot originally marked out, was perfectly unknown, and it was by mere accident that it turned out more suitable for their purpose than could have been expected. From necessity they were the first explorers of the interior, and slow indeed was their progress, in consequence of more pressing duties requiring all their time and attention. Even after a residence on shore of fifteen years, the extent of country actually traversed by successive parties sent out to explore the land, was not much larger than an English county.

In contemplating the position of England, only sixty years since, in her Australian dominions, it seems almost ludicrous to find that infant colony—a bad and feeble child of the Anglo-Saxon stock—assuming the task of exploring the vast undiscovered regions beyond. It was as if a party of a thousand people locating themselves at Lisbon, had attempted to explore the whole of Europe, from that city to the farthest confines of Russia, and from the regions bordering on the North Sea to the Mediterranean. Nevertheless, a territory of more than half the extent of Europe has been explored by the unflinching pluck, and indomitable perseverance of these travellers through the wilderness.

Sydney, the foundation of our Australian Colonial Empire, stands on the bays and coves of Port Jackson, where the points of land rise into rocky sandstone hills. The highest of these, some 200 feet, was cleared of timber, and a windmill erected on it, from whence the country could be seen for a considerable distance.
north and south, with the ocean to the eastward. In the far west, a glimpse was obtained of some high mountains, which were distinguished from the intervening hills by a cerulean hue in the landscape. Hence they were familiarly termed the Blue Mountains. For twenty-five years after the formation of the settlement, these mountains were the object of continual speculation as to what they contained, and the aspect of the country beyond. To reach them was the ambition of every one in the colony. As the excursions of the parties already alluded to gradually extended, they became more familiar with the country, and many glimpses of this mountain barrier were obtained which the more incited the enterprising to ascend it. Like the circles in a pool of water after a pebble is thrown in, so did the known boundary of the settlement widen in circuit from year to year. Still, it was not to be expected that the military and civil officers on the establishment could spare much time from their regular duties for exploration. Hence the governors urged the home government, from time to time, to send out competent surveyors with an efficient staff to explore the interior.

Meanwhile, as the colonists penetrated inland, they discovered animals and plants of different genera and species from those found near the coast. So slow, however, were the additions to the fauna and flora of the country, that ten years after the settlement was established on the shores of Port Jackson, scarcely anything had been added to the stock of natural history since the time of Captain Cook. In 1797 one of the strangest of all the strange animals in that country, was discovered on the banks of a lake near the Hawkesbury River. This animal, of from twelve to
eighteen inches long, had been frequently observed rising to the surface of the water and blowing like a turtle; after which, it descended to the bottom, where it fed upon something in the muddy places, and then crept on shore, and burrowed in the soft ground like a mole. Some of them being caught, they were found to have a flattened body and tail covered with soft fur, like a beaver; and the feet were webbed between the claws. But the most extraordinary part of its structure was the head, with very small eyes, and instead of the mouth of a quadruped, it had the upper and lower mandibles of a duck. Other peculiar parts of this amphibious creature were described, and specimens sent to Sir Everard Home, the famous anatomist of the day, who described it as a lusus naturae, giving it the name of ornithorynchus paradoxus. Since then another species has been discovered, and they are classed by naturalists as monotrematous edentate mammals, the body covered with hair, a bill like a duck, teeth planted in a kind of gums, webbed feet, and on the hinder leg a venomous spur connected with a reservoir of poison in the soles of the feet, which is supplied by glands situated by the side of the spine, above the pelvis. Thus in this animal we have a link in creation between the reptile, quadruped and bird.

In the month of February, 1798, a beautiful addition was made to the birds hitherto known, by an accidental circumstance peculiar to the settlement. Three runaway convicts returned exhausted with fatigue, after endeavouring to live in the interior without labour, having travelled in a westerly direction about 140 miles, which was further than any one had previously gone. In their weary travels they heard a bird sing delightfully in the morning for an hour and more,
imitating the notes of other birds; and on following up the sound, discovered the songster standing on a small hillock. It was about the size of a pheasant, but had a beautiful spreading tail like a peacock. These men brought some of the skins with them which were much admired. This induced others to capture or shoot specimens, so as to observe the true characteristics of this newly discovered bird. It was the lyre-tail, or *menura superba lyra* of naturalists, belonging to the family *megapodina*, of which this is the only known species. "Its size is a little less than that of a common pheasant. The tail of the male is remarkable for the three sorts of feathers that compose it, and notwithstanding the sombre hues of this bird, the magnificence and peculiar structure of the tail, which imitates the form of an ancient Grecian lyre, give it a superb appearance." The female has not this appendage, her tail being plainly composed of twelve feathers a little curved and plumed, having the upper side dark, rufous, and grey, and the under of a pearly colour.

Another splendid addition to the feathered tribe was made in January 1800, when the Australian eagle was first seen, and a specimen captured. This occurred at Broken Bay, a short distance north of Port Jackson, where he pounced down upon a convict (who was lying in the bottom of a boat with his legs tied together,) and struck his talons through the man's foot. "It stood three feet high, and during the ten days that it was a prisoner, was remarkable for refusing to be fed by any but one particular person. Among the natives it was an object of wonder and fear, and they could never be prevailed upon to go near it. They asserted that it would carry off a middling-sized kangaroo. It had
been intended to be sent to England; but one morning it was found to have divided the strands of a rope with which it was fastened, and escaped."

This unsuccessful capture was shortly followed by the crowning ornithological discovery of the Australian ostrich, which has been erroneously called the emu, after the cassowary of the Eastern archipelago, to which it bears resemblance, only it has not the helmet on its head by which that bird is distinguished. These birds are, however, all closely allied to each other, having only the rudiments of wings, without the power to raise their heavy bodies from the ground; but by their aid they can run as fast as a swift horse. The emu differs from the ostrich in having only three toes. Its eggs are about the size of a cocoa-nut, indented like orange-peel, and of a dark green colour. They are simply laid on the grass; and as many as eleven are hatched without any nest to protect them. The feathers are small considering the size of the bird, and are joined together in pairs; those round the neck are more like hair than feathers.

It was not until the year 1812, that an efficient surveying staff was formed in the colony of New South Wales, with Mr. Oxley, as Surveyor-General, and Mr. Evans as the Deputy Surveyor of Lands. The latter gentleman arrived first in the settlement, and set about his business with alacrity, ascertaining to what extent the country had been explored, and what were the difficulties to be overcome in its further exploration. On enquiry he found that two enterprising colonists named Wentworth and Blaxland, the former a native of the colony, had penetrated into the interior, and discovered fine grassy plains, beyond the great mountain barrier. All agreed that it was of paramount
importance to ascend and cross the Blue Mountains to explore the western country, in order to find a path to these new pastures for the sheep and cattle of the free settlers, which were increasing so fast that the feed was becoming insufficient on the east side of the range. Mr. Evans thereupon formed a strong party, well equipped for the task, and started on his journey into the interior, on the 15th March, 1813. On reaching the mountains they presented a most formidable barrier to his progress; precipices rose in mural grandeur composed of granite and basalt, towering in many places to a perpendicular height of 1500 feet, and in others forming wild, rocky, impassable glens and ravines of many miles in extent. What surprised him most was to find that everywhere these mountains were covered with trees, chiefly of the gum-tree kind, most of them of gigantic growth, and growing where the soil was scanty, among the clefts of the rocks or on the steep mountain slope. These gave a sombreness and grandeur to the forest scenery, which struck the pioneers with a feeling of awe, as they toiled up the ascent. Occasionally, however, they were charmed by the contrast of some pleasing spot with a verdant mead, through which trickled tiny rivulets, flowing into some stream in the undiscovered country beyond.

After travelling upwards of fifty miles among these rocky defiles, Mr. Evans and his party successfully accomplished the ascent, through a narrow pass; when they suddenly emerged from a dense forest on to an open plain, thinly wooded with stunted and small trees, but covered with high and luxuriant grass. To the west, south and north, the plain extended, forming nearly a level horizon to the eye, from which it was
evident that they had reached a table land, like the savannahs of America, or the steppes of Tartary; only these lands had the pleasant appearance of an English park in some places, and in others were as if in a state of cultivation. Through these plains a beautiful clear stream ran over a pebbly bed, in which fish, weighing from twenty-five to fifty pounds, were caught, while abundance of ducks, black swans, and wild geese floated on its surface. On the grassy plains were seen numerous kangaroos, emus, bustards, wild turkeys, quails, and in the trees, bronzed-winged pigeons and other kinds of birds. After passing through the inhospitable barrier that divided this region from that on the coast, it seemed to these explorers a Garden of Eden. Two years afterwards, this spot was visited by Governor Macquarie and suite, which they reached on a good road formed by convict labour. Here the Governor fixed the site for the town of Bathurst, near which, thirty-eight years subsequently, the great gold discovery of Australia was first made.

During the latter part of 1813, Mr. Evans made further explorations in the western country, and traced the river at Bathurst for 140 miles. He found it flowing in a general north-west direction; from which he concluded that it was the upper part of a river as long as any of the great American rivers, traversing the entire continent, with its outlet in the Indian Ocean, or somewhere on the far northern coast. In this supposition he was mistaken, as it proved to be only one of the affluents of the Darling River, itself a tributary of the Murray, which debouches on the south coast. There is nothing so uncertain in geography as the probable course of unexplored rivers, and those of Australia turned out to be most deceiving.
EXPLORATION OF THE INTERIOR.

Mr. Oxley, the Surveyor-General, followed up the explorations of Mr. Evans in 1816-17; when he traced the Macquarie and Lachlan rivers, until they were apparently absorbed in the extensive marshes of the interior. But the chief point he determined was the fact that the Blue Mountains were only a small section of the great dividing range, trending north and south to the extreme latitudes of Eastern Australia, and forming the great system of rivers upon its east and west flanks, which will be seen on referring to the map. There it may be observed that the eastern streams are very numerous and none of any great extent, as their general course is direct to the sea; consequently, having on an average not more than a hundred miles to run from their sources, at an elevation of 1200 to 1800 feet, they are all rapid streams. On the other hand, the western rivers, have to run from ten to twenty times that distance before they reach the sea level, hence they are sluggish in the greater part of their course, and form, by the way, extensive marshes and marshy lagoons. Although there is no river in this system of waters to be compared to the Amazon or the Mississippi, yet the Murray River and its affluents drain an area as large as the whole of France; and the length of its course from the furthest source is not far short of 1500 miles.

To explore this region and define its mountains and rivers, together with those that flow down the opposite flanks of the dividing range, all the efforts of the local government and the skill of the surveying staff, were directed for thirty years after Evans and Oxley had determined the general physical geography of that region. At the time, as each fresh discovery of a river, a chain of mountains, or, what was
more important, new pastoral and agricultural lands was made known to the world, the interest of the British nation became centred therein for the time being, until subsequent explorations eclipsed their predecessors. Many volumes have been written by these travellers, detailing their daily march through the wilderness, with a minuteness and fidelity that stands in favourable contrast with the romantic and incorrect narratives of the early discoverers on the west coast.

Among these, the names most conspicuous are those of Hovell and Hume, two enterprising settlers, who followed down the Murrumbidgee and Yass rivers to their junction with the great Murray River, and thence to the western shores of Port Phillip, now the wealthy colony of Victoria; of Allan Cunningham, who, after discovering extensive grazing downs and plains west of the dividing range, was lost, and died somewhere in the wilderness; of Captain Sturt, who has been designated the "Father of Australian exploration," as he was the first to penetrate furthest inland, towards the central part of the continent, and point out the position of the colony of South Australia in 1829; of Sir Thomas Mitchell, who, in 1832-36, traced the course of the Lachlan River and its tributaries, which flow into the Murray, and the extensive grazing lands through which they run; and of Count Strzelecki, an adventurous Polish nobleman and exile, who penetrated the dense forests of the Australian Alps, and determined the height of the highest mountain in Australia among these peaks at 6,500 feet, which he named Mount Kosciusko, in memory of the renowned national patriot of his native country.

On referring to the map, it will be seen that this area of exploration is within the temperate zone of
EXPLORATION OF THE INTERIOR.

the Southern Hemisphere; and although the country was almost or entirely unoccupied, still the explorers, by judicious management, could return to the settlement at Port Jackson for succour, if distress befell them. From the salubrity of the climate none of them fell victims to disease, though at times they were reduced to great straits for want of food. Those, on the contrary, who explored the northern system of waters, were so far removed from the settled districts, and suffered so much from the humid heat of the tropical zone, that few survived to tell the tale of the difficulties they had to encounter, and live to enjoy the fame of their discoveries. Among these martyrs to geographical science, was Ludwig Leichhardt, a German doctor of medicine, an enthusiast in the study of botany and kindred natural sciences. Had a longing desire, amounting to a passion, to explore the unknown regions of Australia. For this purpose he saved what little money he could, and aided by the bounty of an English physician of Bath, named Nicol-son, he arrived in New South Wales, to undertake the herculean task of crossing from the east to the west coast. The local government having faith in his ability, and several wealthy colonists being persuaded by his enthusiasm, supplemented his means; whereby he formed a party of volunteer explorers, but still with slender equipment. They started on their journey in September 1844, and, although the object of crossing the west coast was not accomplished, they explored tropical Australia for a distance of 1500 miles to the central northern coast, at Port Essington, reaching that haven in December 1845, after being given up by the colonists as lost. Notwithstanding the dangers encountered, especially from hostile aborigines—who killed
one of his little band—he resolved on making another attempt to penetrate as far as the shores of the Indian Ocean, and again started with a volunteer party, this time well equipped, in March 1848. He and his brave companions never returned, and no tidings of their fate or their remains have transpired.

In the same year, a government expedition, formed under the direction of Edmund Kennedy of the survey department, endeavoured to explore the eastern flank of the Australian cordillera within the tropics, but it came to a disastrous termination before anything important could be accomplished. Out of a party of thirteen, including an aboriginal guide, only three survived, and the native guide was the only one who travelled the whole projected route. Six of the party died from starvation, and four fell victims to the ferocity of the natives, among whom was Mr. Kennedy, the leader. The friendly native who saw him die, after the spear was drawn that caused his death wound, related the circumstance, and how he buried him, in the following simple and affecting words: "He then said, 'Jackey give me paper, and I will write.' I gave him paper and pencil, and he tried to write; and he then fell back and died. And I caught him as he fell back, and held him, and I then turned round myself and cried; I was crying a good while until I got well; that was about an hour, and then I buried him; I dug up the ground with a tomahawk, and covered him over with logs, grass, and my shirt and trousers; that night I left him near dark."

The fauna and flora of Eastern tropical Australia, though presenting the same general characteristics as the temperate region, yet include additional genera and species peculiar to the higher range of temperature.
In the botanical field, there are many rare trees and shrubs, which give a diversity to the forest scenery not found in the south. Of the former, the most conspicuous is the *auracaria*, belonging to the family of coniferae, and analogous to the pines of Europe. It is obvious, however, that those which grow in equatorial latitudes, must be very different in their habit to their congeners which flourish up to the Arctic circle. Either species die if transplanted to the region of the other. And what is also strange, eminent botanists have discovered that these auracarias are precisely similar in structure to the extinct fossil conifers found in the coal formation of Europe. As an ornamental tree of the pine family, there are none to equal the graceful beauty of the Moreton Bay pine, (*auracaria Cunninghamii*), or the Norfolk Island pine (*A. excelsa*). But the largest in height, size of leaf and cone, is the bunya-bunya tree (*A. Bidwillii*), found in Queensland only, within a circumscribed limit of a few degrees in area, between 26° and 28° S. lat., and 152° and 153° E. longitude. This magnificent pine reaches 200 feet in height, branching only within a third of the top, on which grow the cones as large as a man's head. These cones contain from fifty to a hundred seeds, which are edible and very nutritious. In taste and size they resemble the chestnut. The aborigines are very fond of them, and grow sleek and fat upon this diet. It is remarkable that the trees bear these cones only once in four years, then lasting a period of six months. At this season the natives assemble from far and near, frequently coming from a distance of 200 miles, to hold what they term the great "bunya-bunya" festival, when a larger number congregate than at any other place or occasion known on the con-
tinent. The demolition of these trees is prohibited by an act of the legislature, under heavy penalties.

Among the birds in this tropical region is a crane, from three to four feet high, with beautiful metallic-tinted plumage, and a bill twelve inches long. Several large and bright feathered parrots, paroquets, and cockatoos, and some of the smallest and most beautiful doves in the world, roost in the trees. Tortoises, and sometimes crocodiles, are found in the rivers, and turtle in the bays; here, also, an animal familiarly named the sea-cow, is seen feeding on the grassy sea-weed. This creature is cetaceous, and weighs from ten to thirteen hundred weight. Its flesh is tolerably good eating, something like beef. Between the skin and flesh is a rich blubber, from which an oil is extracted, which has proved efficacious in arresting consumption, by strengthening the patient, and is now an article of commerce. Leichhardt, in crossing the streams that flow into the Gulf of Carpentaria, came upon crocodiles; and as he travelled through the forests to the extreme north, he found buffaloes. As no indications of the buffalo are met with beyond a small distance from the northern shore, it is doubtful whether that animal is indigenous to Australia. Moreover it is exceptional to the peculiar marsupial character that distinguishes the fauna of that country. The same exception applies to the dingo, which is not unlike the jackal of Asia; so that it is not unscientific to conclude that these animals have migrated from that quarter of the globe, having crossed by the chain of islands from the great Eastern Archipelago.

The failure of the expeditions under Leichhardt and Kennedy, in 1848, seemed to damp the energies of the local government and colonists in prosecuting further
explorations. The home government, however, had their attention drawn to the advisability of endeavouring to ascertain the true nature of central Australia; which was supposed to be a desert, in consequence of the hot winds proceeding from that quarter in the summer towards the east and south coasts. It was first mooted at the Royal Geographical Society, and brought formally before the head of the administration, who, without hesitation, gave his assent to a small grant of money for the purpose. At this time (1854) a gentleman named Gregory was in England, who had some experience in Australian exploration, and he was entrusted with the command of an expedition to try and reach central Australia from the north-west coast. In the following year he ascended the Victoria River of Stokes, and penetrated upwards of three hundred miles into the interior. His discoveries confirmed all previous suppositions that it was desert land.

This expedition to determine the nature of the central *Australis incognita*, which still appeared on the maps, revived the dormant desire of the colonists to know the best or the worst of their adopted country—a feeling in which the local authorities agreed; and the Victoria Government, in order to encourage enterprising men, offered a reward of a thousand pounds to the first party that should cross the central region from south to north, or vice versa. Meanwhile, a South Australian colonist named John McDouall Stuart, in 1858, penetrated to a distance of about 500 miles in a north-west direction from the head of Spencer Gulf, making a detour through the country, when he discovered some good grazing land, several mountain ranges, and numerous small streams and salt lagoons. Being an intrepid bushman, he ventured almost alone in exploring the
country. He concluded that such expeditions might be extended to any distance, provided he could get companions like himself, who would be content to subsist on the smallest possible quantity of food, without hampering themselves with baggage. He succeeded, in 1860, in getting two companions of this kind, with whom he crossed the centre of the country; and reached as far north as lat. 18° 40', when he was compelled to retrace his steps, on account of meeting a hostile tribe of natives, who barred his further progress. When Stuart returned to Adelaide, announcing that he had discovered a comparatively fine tract of country, extending even to the centre, (where a mountain stands named after him, in commemoration of the event) the Government at once acceded to his request to send him forth again with a stronger party, properly equipped. This was done in March 1861, and with four companions inured to bush travelling, he started on his journey, keeping the same route as he had done previously. He penetrated beyond his former farthest point, and did not meet with the same hostility from the natives; still the party had to use their firearms to keep them at bay. Without any serious mishap, the journey was successfully accomplished on the 19th July, 1862, when he and his little band of explorers stood upon the shores of Van Diemen Gulf, which is washed by the waves of the Arafura Sea. It was upwards of fifteen hundred miles, in a straight line, from their starting point at the head of Spencer Gulf, where the swell of the Southern Ocean rolls with tremendous force into its open estuary.

These intrepid explorers were, however, not the first to travel from sea to sea, across this vast island-continent. That geographical exploit was achieved twelve months previous to their arrival at Van Diemen Gulf,
by a party of explorers from Melbourne, under the leadership of Robert O'Hara Burke, a superintendent of the Victorian mounted police; who was accompanied by William Wills as surveyor and astronomer; Herman Beckler, medical officer and geologist; Ludwig Becker, artist and naturalist; John King, and eight associates; Purecell and Gray, working men; and three Indian Sepoys in charge of six camels. It was a cumbrous and expensive expedition, and though the object was attained, yet the whole party suffered disaster. The camels were lost and the majority of the men turned back or were left behind, ere they reached half way across, while three died of scurvy. Out of the remainder, only four had strength and courage to prosecute the journey. They crossed the central region between 300 and 400 miles east of Stuart's track, and reached the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria on the 11th February, 1861—a month previous to the departure of the more compact South Australian expedition. Stuart returned to enjoy the fame of his explorations. But it is painful to relate the fate of the other party. Burke and Wills, with the men Gray and King, reached the northern coast; but of this remnant of a great party, only King returned to give an account of its success, and the fate of its gallant leader; who, with his no less worthy coadjutor Wills, died on their return to the south, within 150 miles of the settled districts. The result of these latest and most famous of Australian explorations proves that a small lightly equipped party is better for such expeditions than those that are large and heavily furnished. It is a melancholy satisfaction to add that the remains of Burke and Wills were afterwards conveyed to Melbourne and buried with all possible honour at the
public expense; and that an appropriate monument has been erected in that city to the memory of these martyrs to the cause of Australian exploration.

While the fate of these explorers remained uncertain, the governments of Victoria and New South Wales sent expeditions to the head of Carpentaria Gulf, to succour them if possible, and return overland. Accordingly one party under Landsborough, followed up Flinder's River in 1862, which Burke and Wills had crossed in the previous year. In returning he traced that river up to its source in the mountains of Queensland, and then discovered the source of the Thomson River flowing south, which added considerably to the geographical knowledge of that country. Another party, under McKinlay, started in the same year from the Leichhardt River, about 100 miles west of the Flinder's, and traversed a great tract of unknown country in central Australia. While these parties started from a northern point, one under Howitt proceeded from the south, and were fortunate in rescuing King from an untimely fate at Cooper Creek, but too late to save the lives of Burke and Wills, whose remains were found on the banks of that stream.

To complete this sketch of the subject it only remains to glance briefly at the progress of discovery in West Australia. Here a comparatively small part of the terra incognita has been explored; still that is sufficient to furnish data, approximately correct, to determine the general character of the remainder. The most indefatigable of travellers through this region has been Gregory, now Surveyor-General of Queensland; who, after his fruitless journey towards the interior in 1856, from the north coast, made a second effort from the western shore, where ten years
previously he had opened up the country, which hitherto had been but imperfectly known. Nor must the name of Lefroy be omitted, who, in 1863, penetrated to a distance of 400 miles in a north-east direction towards the interior, from the Swan River settlement at Perth. These and numerous short explorations, indicate the existence of better descriptions of land and herbage inland, than that situated near the coast. The general character of the country is, however, not so uniform as that in the eastern colonies. No great mountain chain has been observed to correspond with the one on the east coast. The mountain ranges are short and isolated, with salt lakes between, sometimes at an elevation of 1400 feet above the level of the sea; apparently a continuation of the extensive salt lakes in South Australia, at a lower level. Between these lagoons, the country has not been explored, but the coast line was traversed on foot in 1840 by Edward John Eyre and a small party, who encountered the greatest privations, under which several succumbed; but this undaunted explorer arrived at Albany, King George Sound, after a journey of 1400 miles from the head of Spencer Gulf. In all that distance he did not meet with the outlet of a river worth mentioning, so that he concluded the drainage of the water sheds was inland. Along the great Australian Bight, a precipitous ridge of cliffs rises to a height of 400 feet close to the sea, which forms an effectual barrier to the encroachments of the ocean on the one hand, and the waters of the land upon the other. The aspect of the country, as far as he could see from the limited range of his track, was of the most sterile character, in many places appearing like a turbulent sea of drift sand.
Presuming that the foregoing concise account of maritime discovery and inland exploration has rendered the reader familiar with the contour and superfices of Australia, a summary of its physical geography and geology will complete the description. It is important to observe, that its meteorological position in the southern hemi-atmosphere is very nearly divided between the tropical and temperate zones. A line drawn along the parallel of 26° latitude nearly bisects the island, and divides the influence of these solar belts pretty equally. Its extreme length is upwards of 2500 miles from east to west; the greatest breadth from north to south, 1960 miles; with an average width of about 1000 miles, and forming an area estimated at 2,967,500 square miles—equal to about three-fourths the extent of the European continent, and thirty-two times the size of England. Its great mountain chain, or Cordillera, possesses all the varieties of climate incident to its position between 10° and 40° of south latitude, which is further influenced by the altitudes varying from the sea-level in the tropical region to the snowy alps in the temperate clime. So that to speak of the climate of Australia as one would of England or Scotland, would be more erroneous than an estimate of the whole of Europe from this small island of Great Britain.

Moreover, under these atmospheric influences, the land presents no one great distinguishable feature. We see in its varied surface of mountains, valleys and plains, a congeries of lands, intersected by rivers and lakes, and alternating between the most barren and fertile soils, often side by side. Its physical geography, being of this chequered character, will account in some degree for the contradictory statements concerning the
weather and the qualities of the soil, which have appeared in the public journals from settlers writing in different localities. There is, however, amongst all accounts—good, bad, and indifferent—a general acquiescence in praising the purity of the atmosphere, the dryness of the climate, the intense brightness of the sky, and its extraordinary salubrity, even in the tropics.

Of its geological structure not so much is known as of its fauna and flora. There is, however, sufficient to determine the general character of its rocks and primeval history. There is a remarkable uniformity in the general direction of the mountain chains, which trend north and south; a character which Sir Roderick Murchison, the eminent geographer and geologist, compared with the Ooral Mountains in Russia as gold-bearing rocks, and suggested to him the prediction, long before the gold discovery, that they would be found auriferous. However, it must be observed that the general direction of the richest gold-bearing mountains in Victoria, trend east and west; although, be it noticed, the spurs from that chain strike generally along the meridian lines. It is with no desire to detract from Murchison's renown that this exception is pointed out, but simply to show that such an exception exists to the general rule advanced.

The nature of the rocks composing this back-bone of Australia is chiefly basalt, with alternate sections of granitic, porphyritic, and palæozoic rocks; the whole forming an immense plateau sloping gradually inland to the central meridian, from an elevation averaging 1800 feet above the sea. Between that ridge and the east coast occur sandstones of the palæozoic period, and superimposed at intervals with carboniferous
strata, as in the valley of Hunter River. Amongst the fossil remains found in these strata, it is remarkable how similar are the genera to those of living species. This is exemplified in the coniferae and ferns, the former of which are seen in the aurocarias, and the latter in the arborescent ferns, while these, as already observed, are analogous to the fossil plants of the coal formation in Europe. Tertiary rocks are found extending over the south-east region inland from the alpine range, where the Murray, and its affluent the Darling, traverse an immense plain before they disembogue in Lake Alexandrina. Another immense plateau of the same formation is calculated to extend from the bluff coast on the Great Australian Bight, far inland; and a similar description of table-land forms the country south of the Gulf of Carpentaria for an unknown distance. As far as has been ascertained, the rocks in West Australia are chiefly tertiary, but broken up into small mountain ranges.

From the absence of any great mountains commensurate with the enormous extent of country, and from the general horizontal formation of its rocks, it has been inferred that the convulsions of the globe have been less active in this region than on the other continents. No active volcanoes are seen among its many mountains, nor do recent strata indicate their existence; its surface geology therefore presents a region undisturbed since the tertiary epoch; at the same time it is evident that the upheaval of the country has been regular, though slow, and some geologists have observed that it is still going on in certain localities. Be that as it may, Australia may be regarded as representing an extinct Archipelago, with its sea-bed upheaved beneath the rays of a burning sun, which through ages has dried up
its superincumbent waters. The sea became shallower from evaporation and continued upheaval, until it has disappeared; except in the chasms and depressions of the old ocean-bed, where it still remains, forming the salt lakes of the west and central parts—the former above the level of the present sea, and some of the latter with the adjacent land below it. During that epoch, those streams which now flow through the marshy interior, from the mountain chains, once mingled their floods with the tide that rippled upon their shores, when they were islands studding the extinct Australian Sea.
CHAPTER III.

NATURAL HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA.

Differs from Europe in its Fauna and Flora—Seasons in opposite Months of the Year—Their division irregular—Trees and Shrubs evergreen—Australian plants brought to Europe blossom in Winter—Anomalous nature of the native Pear-tree—Native Cherry-tree—Affinity between Australian Flora and extinct fossil plants of Europe—The She-oak or Casuarina tree—Virgin's Bower climber—Vegetation generally low in scale of plants—Vast extent of primeval forests—The Wattle-tree—Eucalyptus comprises the mass of vegetation—White-gum tree—Decortication of Gum-trees—Geographical distribution and limits of the Eucalyptus—Economy of evergreen forests—Extensive tribe of Pha-langers—Opossum; Flying-squirrel; Opossum-mouse—Native Bear or Sloth—Mode of cooking and eating animals by Aborigines—Hunting among the trees for game—How they ascend the trees by notching the bark—Variety of Marsupials in form and habits—Kangaroo a biped in locomotion—How the colonists hunt the great Kangaroo—How the Aborigines hunt the Brake Kangaroo or Wallaby—A Battue of Game—Marsupials a link in Creation between Mammals and Reptiles—Marsupial remains of Animals found in the Coal formation—Shells of the secondary formation still found in Australia—Natural History of Australia exhibits general harmony through Creation.

Throughout the preceding chapters, a brief notice of each important discovery has been given, as the discoverers by sea or land found novel objects in natural history to attract their attention. But, as the general characteristics of the fauna and flora of Australia differ so widely in many respects from those of Europe, a glance at their leading characteristics will be instructive and interesting. The strange features of the country, its climate, vegetation, and indigenous animals, have been the theme of every traveller since the days
of Tasman. Of the seasons, we learn that Australia being situated in the opposite hemisphere to Britain, its seasons are exactly the reverse of ours. July is the middle of winter, and January of summer. The festivities of Christmas and of the new year are celebrated here, not, as in the old country, with doors and windows shut, and a cheerful fire to dispel the winter cold, but amid the oppression and the heat of summer, with doors and windows thrown open to invite the refreshing breeze. We no longer hear, in this Australian climate, of the gentle south wind, nor of "Rude Borcas, blustering railer." The north is here the region of heat, as the south is of cold. The summer extends from the first of December to the end of February.

While the extremes of heat and cold occur in the opposite months of the year, the division of the seasons into spring, summer, autumn, and winter, is by no means so clearly defined as in this country. In Tasmania, where the climate approaches more to that of England than the mainland of Australia, when the snow falls on the mountains it remains for weeks, and there is a decided winter. The spring and autumn are short and indefinite; while the summer begins in October, and lasts from five to six months. In Victoria, the winter prevails in a milder degree. Northwards, within the temperate zone, the spring and autumn become less marked towards the Tropic of Capricorn at Queensland. There the cold season is so mild that it cannot be called winter in the sense known in Europe; and as vegetation is luxuriant all the year round, the seasons may be divided into six months summer, and six months autumn.

The anomaly of this division of the seasons is, to a
certain extent, more apparent than real. Their separation in the northern hemisphere is plain and obvious, in consequence of the deciduous vegetation that prevails—the budding in spring, the blossoming in summer, the fall of the leaf in autumn, and the denudation of foliage in winter. Without these marked changes in the vegetable kingdom, we should be at a loss to divide the seasons. In Australia the trees and shrubs are evergreen. There the foliage apparently never dies; and it is only by the flowering of plants and the appearance of small animals and grasses, that even the indefinite divisions of seasons can be fixed. Of course, deciduous trees and shrubs from Europe, when transplanted, shed their leaves and shoot forth buds at periods analogous to their seasons; but even these remain longer on the boughs than in their native country, with a shorter season of denudation. As they become acclimatized, this retention of the leaf increases, in some trees more than others, such as the oak; and there is reason to conclude that in time this tree and others may become evergreens, like the South African oak, which was imported many centuries ago from Europe, where it was deciduous.

It has been observed that plants from Europe, and other exotic regions in the north, rapidly become acclimatized in Australia; while the contrary is the case among Australian plants brought to Europe. The horticulturist has not yet succeeded in changing the flowering season of many species from their indigenous summer in December and January, to June and July. Hence the Australian heaths are the gems of our winter gardens. Thus it would appear that the Australian flora clings to its own climatic habits in a strange clime with greater tenacity than most others.
This may arise from the hard woody fibre that prevails, and the essential oils that pervade the foliage. Though easily destroyed by frost, they will stand the greatest heat without injury, from possessing these properties. Hence the eucalyptus, or gum-tree, can stand the hot blasts of the sirocco, while the cold damp air of winter in England would destroy that monarch of the Australian forest.

Among the curiosities of vegetation which the Australian settler points out to the new-comer, is the native pear-tree, with the fruit springing from its stalk at the thick end, and the cherry-tree, having the stones outside the pulp. The former is of the size, shape, and colour of the ordinary pear; but it is as deceitful as those apples of the Dead Sea, which, when a man bites them, fill his mouth with ashes. This native pear-tree of the colonists, is as distinct from the pear-tree of Europe, as a pine-tree, with its hard resinous cones, is distinct from the juicy fruit of the jargonel. They have no affinity whatever to each other. This is a woody seed vessel that splits up and discloses two beautifully formed black-winged seeds, like the wings of a butterfly, which are protected by their strong shell until they attain maturity. The tree received its name from the first settlers, on account of the shape of this seed vessel resembling a pear inverted.

In like manner, the native cherry-tree, "grows to the height of ten or twelve feet, forming an elegant shrub, and a scarlet or yellow fruit, rather larger than a big pea and of a dry and acrid flavour. The singularity of this fruit is, that instead of having its stone, or seed, in the core, like the fruits of the old world, it has turned it out of doors, and carries it on the outer and inferior side, opposite the stalk."
is just as great a difference between this tree and the cherry-tree of Europe, as in the case of the so-called pear-tree; and it received its name from the early settlers for want of a better. So, also, there are the native currant-trees; native mulberry; native apple-tree; the Moreton Bay chestnut, and so on. But in every instance they bear only the most distant resemblance to the true species of this country. It was a feeling of home association that caused these pioneers of the Australian wilderness to give familiar names to the trees and shrubs of their adopted country; in the same manner that they gave names to the streams, mountains, valleys, and plains, to remind them of their beloved mother country. Few, if any, had the requisite knowledge of botany to classify the strange types of vegetation that surrounded them, further than distinguishing the most prominent anomalies, to excite the sentiment of wonder.

To fully understand the great disparity between the flora of Australia and Europe, it must be borne in mind that of the many thousand species of plants enumerated, only one, the fern-brake, is common to both. To the eye of the botanist, every tree, every shrub, every flower, presents characteristics different to the indigenous plants of Europe. And if he has travelled in Asia, Africa, or America, there is even the same disparity between the flora of these quarters of the globe and that of this unique region. What, however, is most remarkable, is the affinity that exists between the living flora of Australia, and the extinct flora of Europe, the remains of which are found in the coal formation. It is well known that the fossil conifers found in that strata, are distinct from existing pines, yet they are almost specifically the same as the
Australian auracarias. There is another class of trees in Australia, named *casuarina* by botanists, which bears great resemblance to the sigillaria and lepidodendron of the coal measures. This curious tree is abundant, and named the she-oak by the colonists, being a corruption of the American word *sheack*, applied to a tree, in that country. It has no leaves proper, the pendulous articulations which serve for that purpose are formed in the same manner as the whorls of the common mare's tail. They are long, green and wiry, and hang droopingly from the branches. The average height is about twenty feet, the trunks disproportionately thick compared to their height, and spreading out at the butt with firmly embedded roots. The colour of its scanty foliage is of the darkest green, which, together with the dark hue of its rough bark, renders a clump of those trees like a black patch in the landscape. Its frequent habitat is by the borders of running streams, and hence it is looked out for especially by the pioneers of this arid country. But its most characteristic location is by the seaside, where it flourishes in dense groves. Here, upon the poorest soil, and at the utmost verge of the land, these hardy trees brave the salt spray which showers upon them from the surf.

While the forest scenery of Australia present generally a cheerful character, like that of a park in England, these casuarina groves may, with equal propriety be designated melancholy. Seated under the dark canopy of thread-like foliage, the wind sighs overhead as it creates a stridulous murmur amongst the fronds, producing a mournful sound, which is heightened by the distant surge of the ocean. These strange thread-like leaves are nourishing, and relished by horses and cattle. On the ground where they fall they
are slow in decomposition and prevent the vegetation of grasses and herbs. The timber is of a hard and tough kind, and is much prized by the aborigines, who cut their boomerangs and clubs from portions of the butt, while the tree is growing.

In contrast to the gloomy aspect of these casuarina groves, are the beautiful climbing plants that entwine themselves over their branches. Of these, the finest is the Australian Virgin Bower (*Clematis Mossmanae*), which was discovered amongst the scrub forests on the Australian Alps by the botanist after whom it is named. It has a four-leaved, white, waxy calyx, from two to three inches in diameter, inclosing a profusion of yellow stamens and styles, which give forth a delicious orange perfume. The flowers blossom from October until January. Towards March and April its beauty is scarcely diminished, although the flowers are gone; for these are succeeded by fasciculae of long feathery awns, depending from the pericarp, like bundles of floss-silk. In the locality named, it climbs up the trunks and between the branches of casuarina and auracaria trees, hanging in festoons from tree to tree. Its climbing stem is sometimes fifty feet long, with trifoliate leaves and serrated cordato-ovate leaflets. Nothing can exceed the delicacy of contrast between the form and colour of this climber and that of the foliage of the darkest of the dark-hued Australian trees. Even the aborigines of the country are not insensible to the beauty of its silky hair at seed-time. The dusky children of the forest at that time adorn themselves with these vines, by entwining them several times round their heads. This silvery wreath upon the jet-black hair of the young women has a most pleasing effect.
As a rule, the vegetation of Australia is low in the classification of plants. There are very few roots or fruits suitable for human food, though the herbage, and even the trees, furnish a plentiful supply of fodder for the lower animals, indigenous and exotic. This is exemplified in the abundance of pasture land for the feed of sheep and cattle, which made the first step towards prosperity in the country. At the same time, whenever any explorers have unfortunately had to depend upon supplies of food in the wilderness, where nothing but vegetation could be procured, they have died of inanition. Even the natives fail to procure much in the shape of vegetable food, and depend chiefly upon animal. In the southern zone there is a small orchid that yields a tuber, and in the north a kind of yam is dug out of the ground; but both are scarce, and contain very little nourishment. The cabbage palm yields an edible farinaceous bud; the seeds of the cycas are roasted and eaten, as also the seeds of the bunya cone in Queensland. These and a few others comprise all the indigenous edible roots and fruits in Australia.

The extent of the Australian forest-lands is inconceivable to an inhabitant of this country, where the primitive woods have almost disappeared before the hand of man. There they stretch along the plains and valleys, and even across the summits of the highest mountains, in one unbroken line for hundreds of miles. When the grass is luxuriant, and the bright coloured heaths sprinkle the pastures, with the trees in blossom, it is like travelling through a vast park. There are few plants in Australia that possess much perfume, and some flowers have a disagreeable odour; but when the acacia trees are in blossom, the air is
fragrant with the scent from their beautiful yellow apetalous flowers. Of this class of plants there are upwards of a hundred species, and these comprise a large section of the vegetation. One species, the Wattle tree (*Acacia dealbata*), exceeds the others in beauty and usefulness in commerce. It is a handsome tree, from fifteen to thirty feet high, with minutely pinnate leaves, like the mimosa plant, from which circumstance its bark is called the mimosa bark, and forms an article of export, from containing a larger percentage of the principle *tannin* than any other bark. It also yields a gelatinous gum, of little or no value for the purpose of commerce; but another species, (*Acacia implexa,* ) furnishes a soluble gum, not much inferior to gum Arabic. Another species is remarkable for having branches of pinnate leaves, alternate with lanceolate foliage, on the same stem.

But the largest, both in size and in number, of the trees in these vast forests are the gum trees, or *eucalypti.* They frequently attain the height of 150 feet, with a girth of 24 feet at about a yard from the ground. One in Tasmania was found to measure 260 feet in length, and 16 feet in diameter at the base. However, the butts of such enormous trees are seldom, or never, solid; the core becomes decayed, and the trunk supported by the external wood; so that a dozen people, or three or four on horseback, can stand inside. The gum exuding from those trees is not soluble in water, and is, properly speaking, a gum resin. From the colour of the wood caused by this resinous matter, the colonists name the principal species, blue, red, and white gum. The timber is hard, and sinks in water. It is very durable for shipbuilding and ordinary purposes.
The appearance of a white gum-tree forest has no counterpart in Europe. From the base of the trunk up to the minutest branches, the bark of the tree is white, as if it had been brushed with white paint. The leaves are of a leek-green hue. What is remarkable, also, with this and other species of eucalyptus, is their annually undergoing a natural process of decorticition; as if nature made this provision for its renovation instead of the denudation of the leaves. The stripping of the outer lamina of the bark takes place in autumn. It peels off the tree in long flakes, which hang from the trunk and branches until they drop off. The extraordinary ragged appearance of the trees at this period, as these ribbon-like streamers with a rustling noise are waving in the wind, is something unique in forest scenery.

Under the name of gum trees are included all species of *eucalyptus*; such as iron-bark and stringy-bark trees, which the colonists distinguish from the ordinary blue, red, and white gum trees. In that case it may be said, at an approximate calculation, that nearly one-half of the mass of vegetation in Australia is comprised in this genus of plants, trees, or shrubs, of which there are no species indigenous to any other part of the globe. Yet, as already remarked, the whole family shrink from a cold climate, thereby indicating the mildness of the Australian atmosphere. They become gradually scarcer up the mountain flanks, until, on attaining a certain altitude, they disappear. On the elevated plateaux even with the thinnest forest, they seldom cover the land to so great an extent as on the sea level in the coldest latitudes. On the bleak plains of Maneroo, they cluster in the hollows where the land is broken into gullies, as if grouping together for shelter from the
inclemency of the weather. The external appearance of these trees suggests the idea of extreme hardiness in their constitution instead of delicacy. The rough hard bark of some species, and the leathery structure of their leaves, would seem to close their inner fibres with a coat of mail that might defy all climates and seasons. At the best, however, these giants of the Australian forest are most tender to rear in a cold region. They are rarely met with where snow lies on the ground, although they grow tallest at the most rigid latitude in Tasmania. They are seldom found at an altitude of 3000 feet. An interesting instance of this is seen on Mount Wellington, near Hobart Town, which rears its summit 4200 feet above the level of the sea. Rather more than half way up, there is a belt of dead gum trees; the leafless skeletons of a giant forest, which flourished before the island was discovered. So conspicuous is this dead forest from the luxuriant woods around, as seen from the city six miles below, that it is a prominent feature in the aspect of this picturesque mountain. The inference is, that some unusually cold season killed them; and as there is no appearance of the forest renewing itself, it may be that the climate has become permanently cooler. The maximum of their altitude may also be seen on the Australian Alps, where they cease to grow at a similar elevation.

These evergreen forests provide food for the numerous animals that inhabit them, and these again furnish the staple diet of the aboriginal inhabitants. There is no other region on the globe where the trees and shrubs are so prolific of indigenous animals. Of these the tribe of *phalangers* is most numerous, as exemplified in the opossum. They are so named from
the hind feet having a large opposable thumb, enabling them to spring from branch to branch and tree to tree, while many have prehensile tails by which they swing to and fro on the branches. Others, such as the flying squirrel (*Phalangista*), have the skin between the fore and hind paws so pliable and thin, that they can stretch it out like the membrane of a bat's wing, and leap from one tree to another at the distance of from twenty to thirty yards. Its food consists of the tender buds of trees and flowers, honey and insects. Like all the other members of the tribe, it is nocturnal in its habits. All day long it sleeps in the hollow of a tree, or lies hid among the foliage, drowsy and almost unable to open its eyes. No sooner, however, does the sun go down than it rouses itself up to forage for provender. If it is a moonlight night, these pretty little creatures gambol among the trees in the most lively manner, filling the air with their noise, which is more like the grunt of a pig than any other sound. The smallest of this tribe of animals is the opossum mouse (*Acrobates pygmaeus*), not more than three inches long in the body, and two and a half in the tail; yet, like all its congener, it is marsupial, the female having a pouch to nurture its tiny offspring before leaping into independent life. Nothing can exceed the perfect form of this interesting pygmy of an animal, as it is seen leaping among the trees perfectly fearless of danger. Probably, from its diminutive size, it is not sought after by the aborigines, and therefore does not require to protect itself. At all events, it is not scared by the presence of man; and if found asleep in its hiding-place during the day, it will quietly fold itself up and resume its slumbers in the hand of its captor.
If taken when young, these phalangers are so easily domesticated as to remain about the huts without running away, and in time they become pets of the settlers. The only drawback is their nocturnal habits; they disturb the slumbers of the inmates by screaming and leaping about the rooms. To keep them in cages is cruel, for they soon pine away and die.

Allied to the phalangers is a curious animal called the native bear (*Phascolarctos fuscus*), from its having some resemblance to a bear, though not more than two feet high. From its sluggish movements and habits, it is more of a sloth than a bear. It is herbiverous and lives entirely among the gum trees on the leaves, which seem to afford it abundance of nourishment. Australian animals, as a rule, display more muscle and sinew than fat, but the sloth is an exception. When killed and skinned, a young one looks not unlike a sucking-pig; and when roasted in a ground-oven, it is tolerable eating even for a white man, if he be hungry after a day's hunting; but at other times the strong flavour of the gum tree in the flesh turns his stomach. Not so the native denizen of the woods; this is his choice food, and when he catches one he hails it as a great prize. His messmates assemble round the fire to partake of the repast. They do not trouble themselves much about gutting and skinning the animal, but plunge it bodily into the fire, and rub the skin with a boomerang as the hair is singed off. Without waiting until it is thoroughly cooked, the captor of the bear pulls it out of the flames and with his teeth tears away at the legs until he gets one off; or probably he will take a dainty bite from the car. He then hands it to his wife, who passes it on to the rest of the family. Thus they
proceed until the raw flesh is laid bare, when it is again thrust into the fire, half roasted, withdrawn, and a second time goes the round of the domestic circle; and so on, until everything but the bones is consumed.

As the native bear, opossum, and flying squirrel form the principal food of the aborigines, it is interesting to observe their mode of hunting these creatures among the trees. Not being visible during the day, the savage strains his powers of observation to the utmost, in order to detect the smallest indication of their presence. The slightest scratch of an opossum's claws on the bark is sufficient to guide his keen eyesight to the hiding-place of his prey. A decayed trunk, with a hollow where some limb has dropped off, is a favourite haunt; and the native strikes the tree with his hatchet or club to ascertain the fact, by rousing any lurkers from their sleep. Having satisfied himself that there is game at hand, he prepares to ascend the smooth trunk of the highest and thickest tree, by cutting notches in the soft thick bark, wherein to place his fingers and toes while ascending. Before the country was settled, this operation was tediously effected by means of a rude stone implement, shaped like an adze; but these were soon discarded for the steel hatchet of the white man. The first notch is cut on a level with the thigh, on the left side, and the second opposite the right shoulder. These notches are formed by two cuts, one slanting, the other horizontal, and about an inch deep, when the bark is sufficiently thick. Into these, the big toe of each foot is inserted, where the native supports himself with sufficient firmness to cut two similar notches higher, and so ascending until he climbs to the requisite height, which may be sixty or eighty feet before he reaches
the branches. Sometimes when he ascends a tree, he finds it hollow at the top, with his game so far down that he cannot reach it. In that case he cuts one or more holes into the trunk, inserts some burning sticks or dry bark, to smoke out his prey, and lying in wait at the top, he captures him without any difficulty. Frequently these hollow trees, when thus set on fire, will blaze away for a whole day and night, sending forth sparks and flames which often kindles the surrounding grass and trees, and thus causes those bush conflagrations so much dreaded by the settlers.

While this class of animals inhabit the evergreen trees of Australia, the kangaroo tribe feeds exclusively on the grass, and roams over the wide domain of its vast wilderness, disappearing at the approach of the colonists and their live stock. Although the female possesses the remarkable characteristic of external pouches on the abdomen for sheltering her young, there is a marked difference between the kangaroo and opossum. While the flying squirrel can bound from tree to tree like a bird without touching the ground, and the opossum swing like a monkey with its prehensile tail, the kangaroo depends entirely for locomotion on its hind feet and legs, with a great clumsy tail to balance its body. The kangaroo cannot be considered a quadruped in the ordinary acceptation of the term. At no time are the small fore-paws of the kangaroo used in walking or running. Indeed it may be said that it never runs or walks, for its movements are simply a series of jumps. In this respect, therefore, the kangaroo is a biped; and the carcass of the large forester (Macropus major), when skinned and hung up, has haunches resembling those of a human being. The strength of the muscles and sinews in these limbs,
together with the long sinewy feet, enables them to make leaps at a standing jump of greater length than any acrobat; and springing, bound after bound, from fifteen to twenty feet, they can soon distance an ordinary horse and his rider. They are hunted by the settlers with a pack of dogs of the stag-hound breed, and it is not until after a good day’s run that they can close upon their game. The male animals generally stand at bay, and defend themselves with their hind paws against the dogs with such strength, that frequently the latter are ripped up by the sharp claws. In the herds of twenty or thirty, it is interesting to observe at such a time the anxiety of the females to save their offspring. They place them in the pouch, and, though wounded or overcome by fatigue, hasten without stopping till some safe spot is reached to deposit them out of the way of danger.

Besides the gigantic kangaroo of the plains and open forest country, which attains a height of six feet, there are numerous other species, from the size of a greyhound to a rat, which inhabit the thickets and denser woods. Of these the brush kangaroo is most numerous; and, next to the opossum, is most eagerly hunted by the aborigines, not only for food, but for their skins, which are excellent for making the rugs worn in the cold season.

Although the dingo has been domesticated yet it has not the instinct of the hound to chase the kangaroo. The natives are therefore obliged to adopt some stratagem to capture those active leapers in the brushwood. For this purpose, a number congregate together and surround a place where it has been ascertained that game is plentiful. All are armed, either with spears, clubs, or boomerangs, and station
themselves in a circle, far apart at the outset, but as they gradually close in, they set up a loud shout, and thus drive the animals into a centre. In this respect it is similar to a battue in deer-stalking; only the savage occasionally surpasses the murderous stratagem of his civilized brother by surrounding his victims with a circle of blazing bushes, so that much of the game is suffocated before yielding to the spear or club that causes its death-blow.

Before the discovery of Australia and its unique fauna and flora, there was a wide gap in the classification of animals, between the reptilia and the mammalia, which was unsatisfactorily filled up by the marsupial opossum of America, and a few Asiatic species. The magnificent additions to this class of animals by Sir Joseph Banks, who accompanied Captain Cook, furnished ample data to fill the gap in natural history. This the eminent French naturalist, Cuvier, satisfactorily arranged as a fourth order of mammals, forming a link, as it were, between that division of the animal kingdom and reptiles, while it rendered the chain of creation more complete. Moreover, the strange forms of the kangaroo and the duck-billed platypus (noticed elsewhere) furnished the geologists with data to determine the nature of many of those extinct animals whose fossil remains are found in the various geological formations of this country, which resemble the skeletons of these Australian animals. This circumstance is another proof of the affinity between the living plants and animals of Australia, and the extinct races of the eocene period. Further illustration of this wondrous chapter in creation is found in the seas of that region. Among the fishes that frequent the harbours on the east coast is a shark that belongs to the cestracionte
fishes, whose remains are found in the oolite formation, and have not been ascertained to exist anywhere else in the world. Some of the shells, also, are of a structure extinct in Europe: the bivalves are divided across the shells, as in the terebratula of the secondary and tertiary formations. Other striking examples might be given, tending further to illustrate this remarkable affinity between the existing natural history of Australia and the extinct fossils of Europe; but these will suffice. It must be understood, however, that these variations are not mere lusus naturæ, as old writers called them—no deviation from the general harmony of creation—but, on the contrary, they exhibit still further the sublime blending of the works of the Creator, throughout this globe, and show the unity of plan and design which pervade all his works. Wherever we turn, we find the same Almighty hand, the same omniscient wisdom at work. Amidst infinite diversities of outward form, it is One God who worketh all in all, and who has created for each age of the world’s history, and for each spot of the earth’s surface, beings in which his wisdom, his power, his goodness may be displayed. "O Lord, how manifold are thy works! in wisdom hast thou made them all: the earth is full of thy riches."
CHAPTER IV.

NEW SOUTH WALES.


From the contemplation of the wondrous works of the Great Creator, as manifested in the formation of this vast region of Australia, and in the organization of his creatures, so beautifully adapted to the country and clime, we must now turn to the arrival and settlement of civilized man upon its shores; but, alas! in his
most depraved state, and as a punishment for the crimes committed against his fellow men. However, at the outset of these annals, be it observed, that an all-wise Providence foresaw in these men the pioneers of future God-fearing communities: and designed that ultimate good should come out of evil. If the foundation of the Australian colonies, and the arduous unprofitable task of clearing the wilderness had depended upon free emigrant labour and private capital, in all probability the pioneer settlers would have abandoned the barren shore of New South Wales within a year or two of their landing. From the privation and famine that subsequently befell the convict population, it was only by the strong arm of the law, the stern duty of the local authorities, and the supply of means from the British treasury, that the infant colony could have been maintained. If the reader, therefore, looks upon the early history of New South Wales from this point of view, not only will he arrive at a correct estimate of the importance of this undertaking by the government of the day, but it will incline him to consider, in a charitable spirit, the backslidings of the felons, and the mistakes of the rulers, who first cleared the paths to prosperity for this portion of our colonial empire.

Prior to the transportation of convicts to New South Wales, offenders against the laws, liable to this sentence, were banished to America. The memorable epoch of its origin was the year 1619, during the reign of James I. of England. At that time they were sent to Virginia, where the planters, during its first settlement were greatly in want of labourers to clear away the impenetrable forests which impeded cultivation. These were chiefly criminals whom the courts of law deemed not sufficiently guilty for
capital punishment. The planters hired their services for a limited term, under the superintendence of contractors, who were obliged to prove that they were properly disposed of; they received a remuneration of twenty pounds each convict from the employer. This system, with various modifications, was continued among the other settlements as the colonists required labour; but there not being a sufficient supply of labour of that class, the colonists adopted the cruel system of enforced negro slave labour.

The contest between the American colonies and the mother country issued in their separation from Great Britain, and the traffic in felons ceased after the declaration of Independence on the 4th of July, 1783. The mother country having been relieved from the burthen of subjects who were not only useless but pernicious at home, by this system of transportation, it became an important object to know where they should next be sent to. Parliament discussed the question in much the same temper and spirit as it has recently done on the kindred question as to what should be done with incorrigible or highly guilty criminals. All kinds of expedients were proposed, and several tried, among which was the transportation of some convicts to the coast of Africa; but this expedient was abandoned on the humane consideration "that what was meant as an alleviation of punishment, too frequently ended in death." Consequently, one of the chief reasons that recommended New South Wales to the Parliament and Government, was Captain Cook's report of the salubrity of the climate of that part of Australia.

That renowned navigator also pointed out Botany Bay as the most eligible spot for the first settlement. The government lost no time in carrying out the
recommendation. It was a matter of urgent policy to take practical possession of a desirable country, where that had only been nominally performed by the discoverer hoisting the British flag, which might be supplanted by rival nations covetous of the land. Accordingly, in May 1787, the first fleet of convict-ships, bound for New South Wales, started on the voyage to Botany Bay. It must not be supposed that this expedition was got up hurriedly, and the felons banished from their native land indiscriminately. On the contrary, the greatest care was exercised in choosing the convicts, of whom a due proportion were females, and the major part of the males were mechanics and husbandmen, selected on purpose by order of the government. The greatest discrimination was also displayed in the appointment of the civil and military officers and men, into whose hands were placed the success or failure of this great national experiment upon a vital question affecting the body politic. From the governor downwards, men of the highest probity, the greater number remarkable for their moral and religious sentiments, were the chosen directors of these people. An attentive perusal of the documents and accounts connected therewith, prove the earnest solicitude of all concerned, to carry out the instructions of the government, for the honour of their country; in which, after encountering great obstacles, they were eminently successful.

On the 20th January, 1788, the whole fleet was safe at anchor in Botany Bay. "Thus," writes Collins, "under the blessing of God, was happily completed in eight months and one week, a voyage which, before it was undertaken, the mind hardly dared venture to
contemplate, and on which it was impossible to reflect without some apprehension as to its termination.” “Heavily, in clouds, came on the day which ushered in our arrival.” Tench remarks, “To us it was a great, an important day, though I hope the foundation, not the fall of an empire will be dated from it.” The deaths in the fleet on the way out were few, being one marine out of two hundred and twelve; and twenty-four convicts out of the seven hundred and seventy-five which were put on board in England.

Without delay, the country around Botany Bay was examined, when, to the grievous disappointment of every one, the spot so much recommended by Cook was found to be almost a sandy waste, without water. It must be observed, however, that they arrived in the very middle of summer, when, in that antipodal climate, the country is parched up, while the navigator saw it in May, which is at the beginning of the mild winter, when all is green. However, no time was lost in looking about elsewhere for an eligible spot; and in exploring what was supposed to be a mere boat harbour, they found in Port Jackson all, and more than could have been expected, to suit their purpose. This providential discovery animated the responsible leaders of the expedition with buoyant hopes of success in every way, though the sterile aspect of the land they were originally destined to occupy had made them full of apprehension. Some idea of its unfitness for a settlement may be gathered from the fact, that, although only about six or eight miles from Sydney, the shores of the bay (with the exception of a small township and a hotel for visitors, on the eastern shore) where Cook landed, are as wild and barren at the present day, as when the first fleet sailed into it.
A curious circumstance happened just as the fleet was getting under sail for this new destination. Two French ships of war were seen in the offing endeavouring to enter the bay, but were unable to do so until an officer and boat's crew boarded one of them and pointed out the channel. These were two surveying ships, the *Astrolabe* and *Boussole*, under the command of Commodore La Perouse, who was circumnavigating the globe, and knowing before he left France that the British intended forming a penal settlement at Botany Bay, he looked in on his route to get wood and water. After remaining several weeks in harbour, he took his departure to explore some of the islands in the Pacific, but neither he, his officers, crew, or ships were ever heard of afterwards. An obelisk to his memory has been erected by his countrymen on the spot where he first landed.

The 26th of January is to this day a great holiday in Sydney, in commemoration of the landing of Governor Phillip and staff on the shores of Port Jackson, as the founders of the colony of New South Wales. Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, of the Marines, describes this event in the following language:—"The spot chosen for this purpose was at the head of a cove, near a run of fresh water, which stole silently through a very thick wood, the stillness of which had then, for the first time since the creation, been interrupted by the rude sound of the labourer's axe, and the downfall of its ancient inhabitants—a stillness and tranquillity which, from that day, were to give place to the noise of labour, the confusion of camps and towns, and the busy hum of its new possessors. That the greater part of these did not bring with them 'minds not to be changed by time or place,' was fervently to
have been wished, and if it were possible, that on taking possession of Nature in her simplest garb, as they had thus done, they might not sully that purity by the introduction of vice. In the evening of this day the whole of the party then present were assembled at the point where they had first landed in the morning, and on which a flagstaff had been purposely erected, and an union jack displayed; when the marines fired several volleys, between which the healths of His Majesty and the Royal Family, with success to the new colony, were most cordially drunk."

The new colony consisted of the following elements:—Captain Arthur Phillip, of the navy, Governor and Commander-in-Chief, &c.; Major Robert Ross, Lieutenant-Governor; Richard Johnson, Chaplain; Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, Judge Advocate; and seven other officials on the staff belonging to the civil departments. The military forming the garrison, all belonging to the Royal Marines, consisted of a major-commandant and staff, four captains, twelve subalterns, twenty-four sergeants and corporals, and 160 privates—less one who died on the passage. The convicts consisted of 565 men, 192 women, and eighteen children, making a total of 775, less twenty-four who died on the voyage. So that this nucleus of the future colony consisted of 973 persons; but as there were ladies, private servants, and others not included in the public returns, every person belonging to the settlement being landed, they amounted to 1030. Of live stock they had one bull, four cows, one bull-calf, one stallion, three mares, and three colts, which were for breeding only, as also were a supply of fowls for the farm-yard; but all were intended for the general benefit, when they should have increased sufficiently. As the government had
judiciously placed no dependence on obtaining supplies of food in the country at the beginning; three store ships laden with provisions, besides implements of husbandry and clothing, formed the commissariat for two years, and it was arranged that before the expiration of that time fresh supplies would arrive.

If a spectator could have stood on one of the adjacent heights and observed the pioneers of Australian colonization locating themselves, the sight would have been fraught with intense interest. The disembarking of the troops and convicts at first would have presented a scene of confusion, as they stepped from the boats literally into a forest. Parties of people might have been seen or heard scattered among the trees and shrubs, employed in necessary occupations. Some hewing down trees to clear the ground for the different encampments; others pitching tents, or bringing up such stores as were more immediately wanted. The spot which had so recently been the abode of silence and tranquillity, save the wild coo-oo-ë of the aborigines, was now changed to a perfect babel of noise and clamour. But it must not be supposed that the governor and his staff indiscriminately landed their charge broadcast upon the country; this apparent confusion was the necessary consequence of a thousand people being safely placed on terra firma after a voyage of nearly nine months, and who for the first time mingled all together. A few days sufficed to restore order, and as the woods were opened and the ground cleared, the various encampments were extended, and all wore the appearance of regularity and decorum.

Nor were the spiritual wants of the community neglected, for they were accompanied by an able Christian minister. This was the Rev. Mr. Johnson,
who was appointed chaplain to the settlement on account of his eminent religious and benevolent qualities, which he exercised on every occasion among the meanest sheep of his flock that had gone astray from our Saviour's path. On the voyage out he distributed plentifully amongst the convicts such tracts and books as were applicable to their lost condition, and failed not to impress on them the duty of repentance in the new land they were proceeding to, where they could throw off their old habits of iniquity and enter on those of righteousness. The Sabbath was observed regularly on board the ships; and when they were in port he exhorted his charge to repentance and faith by preaching, and pleaded for them in prayer. On the Sunday, after the people had landed, the whole of the community assembled in the open air, and Mr. Johnson conducted Divine service under a great tree, improving the occasion by delivering an impressive sermon, at which, it is recorded, the behaviour of the convicts was "regular and attentive."

In this careful manner the sickly child of colonization was cradled in the lap of that region so far distant from the mother country. Fortunately, Governor Phillip was a man pre-eminently qualified for the task by his superior natural abilities, which had raised him, like his great contemporary Captain Cook, from the forecastle to the command of the quarter-deck. While displaying the higher qualities of administrative talent and decision, he exhibited the rare combination with it of a gentle and benevolent disposition. The latter qualities were especially manifested in his orders that the natives should be treated with every kindness, their persons and property, however trifling, respected, and that all should endeavour to gain their
confidence and esteem. Notwithstanding his laudable attempts to civilize these savages, they shunned the spot wherever the people went. Several collisions between them and the convicts ended in disaster to both parties, which on investigation showed that the white men were the first offenders. At last he adopted the expedient of capturing some of them, and by kind treatment endeavoured to show their fellows that no injury would be done to them. Out of three thus caught only one was prevented from escaping, and he became so attached to the governor that he remained with him until he went to England. But all efforts were fruitless in the attempt to preserve amity between the natives and the convicts; strifes constantly arose which ended in many being killed on both sides.

Efforts were made to induce the convict population to turn to the paths of virtue, by offering rewards, abridging sentences, and even granting freedom for good conduct; but few, if any, made a step in that direction. While on board the transports the sexes were rigidly kept apart, but, on landing, their separation was impracticable, and the unavoidable consequence was a return to their old habits of depravity. To counteract the evil effects of a state of licentiousness, the governor promoted marriage among them, holding out special advantages to those who followed his advice, which had the effect of lessening the evil. One would have supposed that in so small a community, where detection was certain, and property, if stolen, of little value, that theft and robbery could scarcely happen. Alas! for the depravity of human nature, this disposition to steal was so engrained in these people, that crimes of this character were the first to be complained of. As the articles stolen were chiefly food, on which
the very existence of the settlement depended, the punishments were severe, and the lash and gibbet had to be employed.

Not only was the disposition to theft incorrigible, but the old habits of cunning and deception were practised to avoid labour or secure any temporary advantage. Among many schemes, one is worthy of record, as it anticipated the gold discovery more than sixty years afterwards. One day the settlement was amused by a convict announcing his discovery of a gold mine down the harbour. Guiding an officer to the spot, there he left him and fled into the woods, but was soon caught and punished with 150 lashes for his imposition, in fabricating what appeared to be natural ore out of a guinea and a brass buckle. In after times the convicts came upon the precious metal without knowing it, when they broke up some gold-bearing quartz at Bathurst, and metallised part of the road with it, as was subsequently ascertained. It is also worthy of remark that Governor Phillip entertained the conviction that there were valuable metalliciferous minerals in the country, but he strongly discouraged any search for them, as he considered "the discovery of a mine would be the greatest evil that could befall the settlement." This feeling was entertained by every governor, even up to the real discovery in 1851; and there can be no doubt that if that event had occurred when New South Wales was purely a penal colony, the anarchy would have been infinitely greater, than, as it happened, during the peaceable administration of a free community, possessed of abundance of food and labour.

Time wore on, and the provisions were being consumed, yet there was no appearance of fresh supplies
from the mother country, so that the food of the community was diminishing to an alarming extent. The settlement at this time became like a crew of shipwrecked mariners on a barren coast with famine staring them in the face. In vain the natural resources of the country were tried to supplement their stock of food, but an occasional haul of fish was all that could be procured; while rats and other vermin were destroying their stores. One ship did arrive, but to their dismay another was lost, laden with the largest supply of provisions for their relief that had yet been sent; and that happened at a time when the population was increased by a fresh arrival of female convicts in a ship that brought no stores. In this emergency the weekly ration was reduced to 2½ lbs. flour, 2 lbs. pork, and 2 lbs. rice, which was served out to free and bond alike, from the governor downwards—that generous-hearted man refusing to receive more than any convict under his charge. To relieve the consumption of food, 200 convicts and marines were sent to Norfolk Island, situated at 1,200 miles distance, in the Pacific Ocean; who only escaped being starved to death by the providential supply of food from an immense number of sea-fowl alighting on the island to lay their eggs. To add to their miseries, scurvy broke out among the people, from being so long fed on salt provisions, of which many died, while dysentery added to the list of mortality. In their enfeebled condition, had the climate not been of the most salubrious character, and the country free from malarious diseases, from want of proper food, few would have survived the terrible straits of the colony. In June, 1790, succour happily came; and although dearths occurred afterwards, yet these were unimportant compared with this famine time.
During this trying period, the governor, with the heads and subordinates of the various public departments, nobly supported the maintenance of law and order; while the chaplain was among the most active in endeavouring to ameliorate the condition of the people. "Notwithstanding the pressure of important business," writes Collins, "the discharge of religious duties was never omitted; Divine service being performed every Sunday that the weather would permit; at which time the detachment of marines paraded with their arms. The whole body of convicts attended, and were observed to conduct themselves in general with the respect and attention due to the occasion on which they were assembled." "On one occasion a ship arrived with female convicts, who attended Divine service on the first Sunday after their landing; when Mr. Johnson, with much propriety, in his discourse, touched upon their situation so forcibly as to draw tears from many of these unfortunates, who were not yet so hardened as to be insensible of truth."

Among the mishaps of the colony at this time was the loss of two bulls and four cows, belonging to the public stock for breeding; the herdsman who had them in charge having left them for a time, they took advantage of his absence and strayed, no one knew whither. As will appear afterwards, these animals instinctively reached the finest pasture land in the colony, and were virtually the first practical discoverers of those vast grazing lands of Australia, which will remain for all time its most certain wealth.

Not so fortunate were many of the convicts who attempted to explore the far interior of the country, with a view to escape. An impression prevailed among them that the nearest place was China, so that if they
could only get upon the right track to it, they would soon reach that land of tea. At one time forty-four men and nine women were lost in endeavouring to find this path, or to seek for some imaginary settlement. Many of these people, after wandering about the woods and existing on roots or anything that would deaden the pangs of hunger, perished miserably. Others found their way back to the settlement, after being absent several weeks, and reported the fate of their wretched companions. One instance is recorded of an "Irish convict who had wandered about for several days in search of a road to China, or the colony where no labour was required. On being questioned how he found his way back, he said: that a paper compass which had been given to him was of no use at all at all; he therefore kept his face towards the place where the sun came from; but if the Lord had not been on his side, he should have been lost." To show the absurdity of this attempt, the nearest point of China to Sydney, in a straight line, is 4,550 miles, while Paddy's greatest distance was but fifteen.

From this time forward the colony progressed with rapidity, and soon left its leading strings to walk alone. Governor Phillip, who had nursed it from the cradle with the most anxious solicitude, was the first to rejoice at the success of this infant dependency of the mother country; and seeing that his presence was not urgently required, while his health had suffered from the cares and responsibilities of his post, he determined, after a service of five years in the colony, to return to England. Without detracting from the merits of succeeding governors, it is only just to state that no one, under the trying circumstances, could so
GOVERNOR PHILLIP LEAVES THE COLONY.

Courageously yet so kindly—so strictly and yet so benevolently—have performed the arduous task of founding the present flourishing colony of New South Wales.

On his departure, in December, 1792, the reins of government were handed over to Lieutenant-Governor Grose, who administered the affairs of the colony with caution and prudence for two years. Meanwhile Governor Phillip arrived in England, and represented to the government the necessity of sending out free settlers, both as affording the best means of controlling and superintending the convicts, by the formation of a magistracy and police; and likewise of creating within the colony the first elements of constitutional government. He showed that as there were none but felons to fill offices of trust, in whose eyes property had never previously been sacred, it was manifest that moral anarchy must prevail. But many difficulties opposed themselves to a compliance with Governor Phillip's suggestions. Amongst others may be enumerated the extreme length of the voyage, which at that period frequently occupied from eight to twelve months—now reduced to an average of three months by sailing ships, and two months by steamers. Besides this the unfavourable accounts of the soil around Sydney, the failure of the crops, together with the great hardships and privations, (which we have seen amounted almost to starvation at one period,) naturally operated as serious discouragement to voluntary emigration. Consequently, while ship after ship discharged its freight of felony on the shores of Port Jackson, there was no counteracting force of honest and industrious emigrants to share the work of colonization, and by their presence to neutralize the evil effects of the convict element. The only free settlers who obtained grants
of lands for many years, were those transports who, through lapse of time or special good conduct, had become emancipated, and a few of the military whose time of service had expired. The latter accepted the government offer to remain in the country on advantageous terms to employ convict labour in agriculture.

Among these was Captain Macarthur, who commenced farming about fifty miles beyond the settlement—not far from the Cowpastures, as the place was named where the lost cattle and their progeny were found. On his farm he had a few sheep selected from the public stock for breeding purposes; and although he knew nothing previously of the different breeds of sheep for quality of wool or weight of carcass, he observed that, though the latter was inferior to what he had seen in English sheep, the former possessed a softness and superiority of texture that surprised him. On inquiry, he found that these sheep came from the Cape of Good Hope, where the Dutch had imported them from Holland, and these were the produce of Merino sheep originally brought from Spain. Notwithstanding this roundabout descent, the wool of these sheep had but slightly deteriorated from that of the parent stock, although the animal was much thinner in the body, and had an unusually large fatty tail. Captain Macarthur concluded from these indications that the climate and pasturage of Australia was eminently adapted for the production of fine wools, and the propagation of Spanish sheep. Accordingly, in 1797, he procured three rams and five ewes from the purest breed in Spain, free from any deterioration in carcass. This enterprising settler had the satisfaction of seeing his little flock thriving and increasing with wonderful rapidity, having twin lambs frequently from the ewes,
while the fleeces augmented in weight, and the wool very visibly improved in quality. His next experiment was to cross these pure bred rams with the mixed and inferior breed imported from the Cape and elsewhere. The lambs produced from this cross were much improved; but when they were again crossed, the change far exceeded his most sanguine expectations, as the quality of the wool approached that of the Spanish breed.

In this manner he continued his experiments in crossing the pure stock and their progeny with every kind of breed he could find. He considered himself fortunate in purchasing thirty ewes out of a ship from India, which visited the settlement in 1798. After this he picked up some eight or ten Spanish and Irish sheep, making a total of forty-five imported. From these his breeding stock had increased in eight years to upwards of 4,000 sheep, amongst which there were no rams but of the Spanish breed. These apparently trifling details may seem uncalled for in this brief history of Australia, but the intelligent reader will not think so, when he considers that this small flock was the precursor of the pastoral era. Wool remains to this day the staple product of the country, and will continue so when other sources of wealth are exhausted. The names of the benefactors to this country from the discovery of its natural resources, will doubtless be handed down to posterity with honour; but none more deservedly so than that of John Macarthur, the father of its pastoral pursuits.

While this public-spirited colonist was improving the live stock of the settlement, others were attempting to produce cereals; but their efforts were not so fortunate, as the land proved unsuitable for grain. The most
successful farms were at Parramatta, now the site of a large town. These, from the continued influx of convicts without sufficient supplies, however, were not sufficient to meet the wants of an increasing community; so that, in 1795, great distress prevailed, which was only relieved by the opportune arrival of a store-ship. On the arrival, in that year, of Governor Hunter, as the successor of Governor Phillip, this precarious supply of provisions occupied his chief attention, and large stores of maize and foreign grain were husbanded to prevent the recurrence of famine. Even in after years, when there was scarcely a chance of it (from the increase of live stock) the dread of such an event caused the governors to increase the store of grain, and preserve it in deep pits excavated out of the solid rock on an island in the harbour. These were plastered round with compost and hermetically sealed, after the manner in which the ancient Egyptians constructed their siloes, or underground granaries.

Hitherto the convicts were chiefly employed in and around the settlements of Sydney and Parramatta, between which places there grew up considerable traffic both by land and water. Passage boats were used on the river, or rather inlet, leading from the Cove; and as the intervening lands became settled, it was found necessary to make a good road. This was the main route into the interior. Hence large parties of the convicts were employed laying out a turnpike road, which in time equalled that of any in the mother country. This was the commencement of the road system in Australia, which, up to this day, is deemed the most important and expensive of all the public works. Those who live in old countries where the highways are the growth of centuries, have no con-
DIFFICULTY OF CONSTRUCTING ROADS.

ception of what it is to want them. Our readers may have seen a picture, by an eminent artist, showing the "Queen's highway in the reign of Elizabeth," where a carriage is stuck in the mud, with men prizing it out by levers, while the ladies have to walk forward to a better spot, to which the "hinds" convey the vehicle. This is but a faint picture of the roads through the bush of Australia, before they are metalled and kerbed. To do this, in the first instance requires more labour than on English roads, as the foundation has to be laid on the virgin soil, or the rock hewn away through which the road passes. The labour, also, is of the most toilsome description in that hot climate; consequently, it could not have been expected that free emigrants—had there been such at the foundation of the colony—would have voluntarily set to work to construct roads into the interior, without which the best lands were not accessible to the seaport and city, from whence they chiefly derived their value.

The construction of roads throughout New South Wales, by convict labour, at the expense of the parent state, prepared the way for free colonization. It is a question, whether so much would have been done by free emigrant hands, at the cost of the colonies, even up to the present day. As it was, the task was only accomplished by forced labour, under the most stringent penalties of the law. The "road gangs" were composed principally of felons re-convicted in the colony, and who were obliged to be manacled with leg-irons to prevent them escaping from their keepers. To be sentenced to "work on the roads" was considered by the convicts themselves one of the severest punishments; especially when it was known that the "triangles" accompanied each gang, to which delinquents
were fastened when undergoing the penalty of fifty or a hundred lashes. Under such circumstances what could have been done in this most essential public work, if the colony had depended upon voluntary free labour? In all probability it would have been abandoned in disgust, or, at the best, have been feebly and intermittingly carried forward. In that case, it is hardly too much to say that one of the greatest boons Australia received from the mother country at its first settlement, was the introduction of convict labour; so that transportation then not only benefitted the nation by relieving it of its refractory subjects, but at the same time the colony that received them was made by their labour.

The question next arises—Were the convicts improved by transportation? Morally they were not so, as long as they continued to form the majority of the population; but materially, banishment was to a large proportion, the road to fortune and independence. Indeed, so strongly did the wealthy section of emancipated felons feel on this point, that on the arrival of free settlers afterwards, they looked upon them as interlopers, for they considered that the colony was theirs by right. A government commission injudiciously reported that, “New South Wales was a convict colony, established for their benefit, and had been brought into its state of prosperity by their means.” Be it so. The Australian colonist of free descent can afford to admit as much at this day, as he sees the last lingering effects of the convict leaven disappear from the social sphere. To the historian it appears the first link in the chain of civilization, that has led Australia to rank amongst the foremost rising nationalities of the age, without which it is just
possible that the succeeding links of freedom, independence, and a golden prosperity might not have been attained.

With roads came traffic; with traffic came commerce, industrial pursuits, and manufactures. With roads came markets for the sale of live stock and agricultural produce. Towns sprung up from the facilities of communication thus afforded. With roads came the occupation of the far interior; and the formidable barrier of the Blue Mountain range, at last succumbed to the pick and hammer. The lines of traffic were gradually rendered easy and safe; while they all converged to the first settlement, and made Sydney a flourishing city. Under successive governors this capital of the new colony grew in importance externally; and internally edifices of elegant structure arose, built out of the native stone. Fortunately, its very site was a freestone quarry, out of which a vast metropolis could be reared. The builder had only to excavate a foundation in the rock to erect a house, when he obtained the material for half-a-dozen, in doing so. Streets, therefore, of white stone buildings soon displaced the huts of the pioneers. Warehouses and shops were opened, and all the bustle and traffic of an English city was seen in Sydney. And last, though not least, a printing-press was established in 1795 by Governor Hunter, and in March, 1803, in the time of Governor King, the Government published the first newspaper, under the title of the Sydney Gazette.

It has been a pleasing task hitherto, to applaud the acts of the first governor, Captain Phillip, and under his care to see the administration of the colony carried out with effect under the most trying circumstances. This brief history now arrives at a period when the
supreme government of the colony fell into the hands of a governor of a different character. This was Captain William Bligh, R.N., who commanded H.M.S. *Bounty*, when the crew mutinied and escaped to Pitcairn Island. At that time (1806), and for a long time afterwards, the governors of the colony were armed with extraordinary powers, having all the legislative and executive authority centred in themselves. Bligh used these powers in such a manner that the military, naval, and civil officers under his authority combined to depose him, after eighteen months' service, and sent him back to England in a sloop of war. The chief act which made him so obnoxious to the free community was the persecution of Captain Macarthur, the enterprising introducer of Spanish sheep, whom he endeavoured to ruin. "He was a tyrant to the weak and a coward to the strong;" for when he learned the approach to Government-house of the exasperated military under the command of Colonel Johnson, he went and hid himself beneath a feather bed, from whence he was taken with his coat sprinkled with down; and with a craven though sulky demeanour he was marched down to the ship.

He was succeeded in 1810 by Governor Macquarie, a man of quite an opposite character, whose amiability and sympathy for the bond, rather than the free, led him to commit questionable acts in rewarding the convicts, while he neglected the interests of the colonists. In regulating the discipline of the convicts, Governor Macquarie’s humane disposition led him to view their crimes in the light of misfortunes, which they were to repair in New South Wales by success, rather than as violations of the law, for which they were to atone to their country by the bitterness of exile, or by the
severities of toil and privation. In the dispensation of early indulgences to the convicts, he appears to have been guided partly by this feeling and partly by the recommendations of persons in England in whom he felt he could place confidence; but he seems to have forgotten that however just on other principles this consideration might be, it was a violation of that which he professed to make his only rule in giving rewards, viz.: good conduct in the colony. However, compared with his predecessor he was an estimable ruler, and the colony continued to progress during his governorship of twelve years.

In reviewing the subsequent history of the colony, it will not be necessary to record the arrivals and departures of each governor or his term of office chronologically, as these events did not materially affect the material and social progress of the community. It will be sufficient to notice any special acts of theirs, or of the administration, where it indicated any important change in the condition of the body politic. As to the real development of the country and its resources, few after Governor Macquarie's time stretched forth a helping hand to the enterprising settlers employed in the brave work of colonization, except where duty compelled them to render aid. It would appear, from an impartial digest of the annals handed down, that instead of being an assistance to the free settlers in their labours to raise the colony from the slough of convictism, and introduce liberal institutions, the governors were frequently more obstructive than otherwise. They clung to the irresponsibility of office, and opposed the formation of any legislative body with power to control their acts. Moreover, as long as the colony was supported entirely
by money and means sent from the mother country, they considered themselves amenable only to the imperial government and parliament for their conduct of affairs. It was not until five millions sterling (£5,301,023) had been thrown into this "Serbonian Bog," that a revenue was derived from the colony to meet the expenses of its government; for thirty-five years after its first settlement it was more or less dependent on the money and supplies of the parent state for its existence. It was in the year 1823, that the Secretary of State for the colonies intimated to parliament that there would be a considerable reduction in the estimates for maintaining the penal colony of New South Wales, as it was gradually becoming self-dependent.

Meanwhile the flocks of Macarthur increased and his example was followed by other enterprising colonists, among whom the names of Blaxland, Lawson and Wentworth should be recorded, the latter being a son of the first staff-surgeon, Dr. Arcy Wentworth, and born in the colony. The rapid increase of sheep so surprised these settlers that they had to go far into the country, beyond the Blue Mountains for pasture. Not only did the increase serve to relieve the supply of imported salt meat, but the fine wool, samples of which were sent to England in 1807—11, was valued at prices higher than the finest Spanish wools, for while the latter was quoted at 4s. 6d. per lb., the Australian wool, from Macarthur's pure bred stock, was valued at 6s., and the fleeces of cross-bred animals 3s. These, however, must have been fancy prices, as the article was a novelty in the English wool markets and of course could not be maintained after a large quantity was imported, which first took place in the year 1815.
Before that period, Australia contributed no more to the wealth and progress of the world than it would have done if its shores had been submerged beneath the waves of the South Pacific Ocean.

Now commenced the export of an article of produce that was as marketable as gold throughout the civilized world. This is the essential point in the productions of a new country; they must bear an extrinsic value to the producer, to give in exchange for the foreign commodities he consumes. If the articles he produces are only valuable within the community, then external commerce is checked for want of an export; and although the people in such a country may live, yet they cannot become prosperous. This was the position of New South Wales before the export of wool, when the balance of trade against the colony was met by a subsidy from the mother country.

In illustration of the importance of this valuable article of export, it is only necessary to quote a few figures to show its rapid increase. The quantity exported in 1815 weighed 32,721 lbs.; in 1835, 3,776,191 lbs.; and in 1865 it was not less than 50,000,000 lbs. from all the Australian colonies.

It soon became generally understood that, after all, the despised "Botany Bay" country was a place peculiarly suitable for the increase of Spanish sheep, and the growth of fine wools; and that by the investment of capital in the proper description of live stock, large profits could be realized. This practical result of colonizing came home to the self-interest of people who otherwise would not have moved a step for the regeneration of a convict community. When they found that government would assign the delinquents as shepherds to sheep-masters, without cost, this was a
still more attractive view of the matter; and many persons of wealth ventured to convey their families and fortunes to the penal colony of New South Wales.

The system of sheep-farming pursued by the colonists was very different from anything of the kind in England; and, of course, adapted to the circumstances of the country. In the first instance the government granted a licence to depasture sheep on waste lands, which the settlers had themselves selected and occupied without survey, defining the boundaries by any natural feature of the country, such as a river, a creek, a lake, or a range of hills. In some cases the proprietor of stock possessed the fee-simple of the lands, on payment of a trifling annual quit-rent; but, as the flocks increased, the tracts of country required were of such large extent, that the crown retained the fee-simple and charged an annual rent, according to the number of stock on the "run"—as these tracts of land were termed. The renters were also named "squatters," to distinguish them from landowners, and they called their homesteads "stations." As their flocks increased they established "out-stations" on their runs. On application to the local government, the squatter could select the shepherds and hutkeepers he required at the convict depot; when the persons selected were "assigned" to him—that is, he had them entrusted to his care as prisoners of the crown, who were bound to perform all lawful service on penalty of being returned to the government prisons. In case of disobedience or other offence to his master, the assigned servant was liable to severe punishment at the nearest magisterial court. At first the government clothed these prisoners, and allowed them food out of the public stores, but the latter allowance was discontinued, and in time
the clothing also. As the demand for such labour increased, the master employing them was bound to give a stipulated yearly wage of £9. Where the assigned convict was skilled at any mechanical work, his master received all the earnings, but allowed him better wages than that fixed by law. It may be as well to notice in this place that the assignment system was general throughout the colony; so that all the female as well as male servants and skilled labourers were of this class. Many evils attended the system, especially when convicts were assigned to emancipated felons and disreputable free emigrants; and the homes of the virtuous portion of the community also became demoralized by the presence of female prisoners among the young people, who frequently corrupted them by their conversation.

While evils arose from the assignment of convicts to the townspeople, who looked upon it as a mode of obtaining profit, without reference to the punishment of crime or the improvement of the convicts, those assigned to the sheep-farmers were of great benefit to their masters, and, in the end, were generally benefitted themselves. This arose from the sheep requiring constant attention on the part of the shepherd, so that his mind was fully employed; while in the un-tenanted pasture lands there was a seclusion from the temptations to crime, which was well calculated to produce reformation. Like many other anomalies in this strange land of contrarieties, these rough convict shepherds presented a very different picture from the Damons of the pastoral classics, or even the shepherds of England and Scotland. While following his flock the Australian shepherd was armed with a musket instead of a crook, for the purpose of defending himself
from hostile aboriginals, or guarding his flock from the attacks of the dingo. Instead of playing upon the shepherd's pipe to while away the time, as his flocks were feeding, he indulged in smoking a short black pipe, when he was fortunate enough to obtain some tobacco.

Not only are the Australian pastures excellent for producing fine wool, but the climate is eminently adapted for the increase of the flocks. So salubrious and mild is it, that during the lambing season the ewes drop their lambs in the open air, and the lambkins almost immediately have strength enough to follow their dams; so that the shepherd has not the same care and anxiety in looking after his flock as in more rigid northern climes, while the flock-master has rarely, except in continued droughts, more than a small per centage of mortality to calculate upon. Twin lambs are also more common; and hence the increase is frequently cent. per cent. and sometimes more, while few stations reckon less than ninety per cent. increase from ewes. It is a remarkable fact that in the year 1820, at which period the wool of the colony first began to assume importance in the English market, yarn spun from the finer description of combing wools first became an article of export from Great Britain to the continent of Europe. The import of Australian wool in that year was 99,416 lbs.; the export of yarn from Great Britain was 3,294 lbs. Progressively increasing with each other, the import of wool from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land in 1835 was 4,347,640 lbs.; the export of yarn in the same year, 2,357,336 lbs. The average annual importation of wool from Spain, during the three years 1833 to 1835, was also 2,428,605 lbs. This is exclusive of what our manufacturers of
fine woollen cloths imported from Germany. At the present day the largest buyers at the periodical sales of Australian wools, held in London and Liverpool, are from Spain, Portugal, France, and Germany—who consider that there is no class of wool better adapted for the manufacture of their finest woollen fabrics.

The climate and pasture were also found to be peculiarly favourable to horses and cattle, and great pains were taken to introduce the best breeds. Horses soon became plentiful in the colony, both for saddle and draught; and they increased so rapidly that the surplus stock was exported to India for the use of the cavalry regiments, which could not be reared in that tropical climate. In like manner cattle became so abundant that surplus meat was salted down and exported; while the tallow and hides became important items on the export sheet. As beasts of burden in traversing the bush-tracks in the far interior, the oxen became more useful to the squatters than their horses; so that in time these denizens of the "bush," as they termed the country, lived in rude plenty, and enjoyed perfect dependence on their own resources. Here was realized in its material aspect the life and occupation of the patriarchs of Israel. The yoke was hung about the necks of the oxen, and they dragged their heavy burdens far into the wilderness. The bullock-drivers baked their unleavened bread in the wood-ashes of their fires by the way-side, which they called "damper." In addition to these primitive cakes, the ordinary fare of master and man alike consisted of beef, mutton, and strong tea. They built their own huts out of the twigs of the bushes, wattled and plastered, or with slabs from the gum trees, roofed with shingles. These afforded sufficient shelter in a climate where the traveller can
sleep with impunity in the open air. In this manner the country became rapidly settled; and as new arrivals raised the demand for grazing lands, the adventurous squatters explored the country to the westward, and discovered the finest of all pasture lands, around Port Phillip. In fine, the colony became a great pastoral province, comparatively free and independent.

The climate and soil were also found well adapted for the production of fruit in the highest perfection and of all varieties, from the currant and gooseberry of colder climes to the banana and pine-apple of the tropics. Even within the immediate vicinity of Sydney, apples, pears, plums, strawberries, cherries, raspberries, mulberries, medlars, apricots, lemons, citrons, loquats, olives, pomegranates, grew intermingled on the light soil, and produced fruit each of its kind abundantly, and of the richest flavour. In the neighbourhood of Parramatta the orange tree took kindly to the situation and produced fine fruit. One orange grove in course of time covered sixteen acres, and its produce yielded the proprietor upwards of a thousand pounds a year. His neighbours participated in his success; for the bees which they reared fed upon the orange blossoms, and thus produced the most delicious honey, in such abundance that it became cheaper than sugar.

Of vegetables the same holds good; so mild is the climate, that green peas are gathered in winter as well as in summer, and the potato produces two crops in the year. In certain situations the vine flourished amazingly, and produced abundance of fruit for the table, as well as for the manufacture of wine. Some Greek convicts, assigned to Captain Macarthur, at Camden, being skilled in making wine, were the first to produce this important article of commerce.
Although the culture of the vine was checked in consequence of the gold discovery, it is now pursued with vigour, chiefly in the valley of the Hunter River, where the best wine is made. So great is the demand for native wines, that the production, though considerable, is not sufficient to meet the local consumption, and in time Australia will be a wine-exporting country.

To enumerate every article that the colony of New South Wales produced for the necessaries and luxuries of life, through the energy and enterprise of the free settlers, would occupy too much space. Suffice it to state, that in 1835, before the settlement of Port Phillip, now Victoria, was formed, the population of the colony was nearly independent of foreign supplies, and the export and import trade afforded large profits to the merchants and bankers who had established themselves at Sydney. In that year the imports amounted to £945,127, and the exports to £630,881. The excess of the former over the latter was attributable, in a great degree, to the amount of capital introduced in the shape of machinery and other articles, not for consumption, but to be applied to permanent improvements within the colony. The balance was paid partly in treasury bills, drawn on account of the military and convict establishments, and partly from the capital introduced by private individuals. At this time (1836) the number of free inhabitants was 30,285 males, 18,680 females, a total of 48,965, and the convict population 25,254 males, 2,577 females, a total of 27,831, altogether 76,796. The colony was no longer dependent upon the mother country for its support, as the revenue derived from customs duties, the sale of crown lands and other sources, was more than sufficient to meet the expenditure; the land sales being applied to aid free
immigration, by giving bounties to eligible persons inclined to emigrate. In 1837, upwards of £100,000 was applied to the latter purpose, besides the estimated income of £284,545 from other sources. Land sold in the country at 5s. per acre, in many cases was resold at the same number of pounds sterling; while town allotments in Sydney, which had originally been granted free, realized in the principal street £10,000 an acre.

Thus although Australia originally possessed but a minimum of animal and vegetable food for human sustenance, barely maintaining a sparse population of attenuated aborigines, yet it contained the elements for the production of every description of human food in the highest degree. So that we have seen this region of barrenness and famine turned, by the skill and energy which God has given man, into a land “flowing with milk and honey.” Shall it be said then that this fair and fertile portion of our common mother earth was destined by the Almighty to be perpetually occupied by the indolent savage? Such a conclusion would be contrary to His mandate, where He commands us to “multiply and replenish the earth.”

Still it is a duty that is incumbent upon the civilized possessor of these lands to improve and ameliorate the condition of the indigenous inhabitants. In this good work the devout Missionary has been the most active instrument. From the reports of the Rev. W. Watson, and the Rev. J. C. T. Handt, at Wellington Valley, and the Rev. L. C. Threlkeld, of Lake Macquarie, we gather some interesting details of the success of the missions under their charge.

After a residence of three years in that neighbourhood, which is about 180 miles from Sydney, and
beyond the Blue Mountains, they had reason to believe that many of the aboriginal natives were improving in Scriptural knowledge. The great difficulty was to keep these wandering people around them. Sometimes a few would remain for months, but the most only for a few weeks or even days, when they again rambled into the bush. The girls proved more tractable than the boys, while the attention of adults was not easily gained, as their thoughts were diverted even while listening to the exhortations of the missionaries. When the children were spoken to on religious subjects, their minds appeared seriously impressed; but no real spiritual-mindedness was manifested. They did not want ability to learn, but lacked steadiness and a desire to improve. The missionaries discoursed to the adults in their own language; though at the time they could converse in broken English. Their memories were good and they could recollect what had been said. As an instance: while one of the missionaries was addressing a company of females, forty miles from Wellington, one of them, whom he did not remember seeing before that time, said:—“You talk that way at Wellington.” And when asked to what place she expected to go at death, she replied, “to Heaven, I believe.” When it was suggested that that was very questionable, she answered, “No, I believe when want to go, devil, devil, pull down again, not let go.”

It was found extremely difficult to form an accurate idea of their opinions in reference to the creation of the world, the Creator, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of existence. They have a general idea of a Creator who is himself uncreated, and a vague belief in the immortality the soul, but no notion of
their state after death. They attribute all their troubles and afflictions to an evil being who is said to be only visible to the doctors of the tribe. Their laws chiefly relate to abstaining from food at certain ages; and they had no punishment for the murder of wife, child or relation. Human life they disregard, and sport with the sufferings of man and beast. The mother kills her offspring without regret. Even at that time it was observed that their numbers were diminishing. Since then they have constantly and rapidly diminished from some mysterious cause that renders the females barren. The last of the Sydney tribe died in 1846.

During this period, whilst the colony was arriving by rapid strides at a degree of prosperity in its material condition that its most sanguine friends never dreamed of, it is satisfactory to find that the religious welfare of the community and the instruction of the rising generation were not altogether neglected. Still the means were inadequate to meet the growing wants of the people—free as well as bond—and the active intervention of the government and ecclesiastical authorities were found requisite.

Sir Richard Bourke assumed the governorship in 1831, and while he held office for a term of seven years, he administered the affairs of the colony with impartial justice to both classes, and with a wise, enlightened policy that compares favourably with the obstructiveness of some of his predecessors. Under his government especial care was paid to the spiritual and educational wants of the community, in which he was ably seconded by the Bishop of Australia. Sir Richard said,—"In no part of the world is the general education of the people a more sacred or necessary duty of the Government than in New South
The more I see of the colony, the stronger is the impression that a general system of education, provided by the Government on an extensive scale, and conducted by able teachers, is absolutely required by this people.” Bishop Broughton addressed the inhabitants of Maitland thus—“I am every day more confirmed in the persuasion, that to the operation and influence of a religious education alone we must look for any confirmed and satisfactory improvement of morals in the community.” With two such zealous advocates, aided by the votes of the Legislative Council, places of worship and schools rapidly sprung up in all parts of the colony. An Act was passed in July, 1836, to promote the building of churches and chapels, and to provide for the maintenance of ministers of religion, whereby the colonial treasurer was authorized to pay an equal sum towards private contributions for building to the extent of £1000, and issue stipends to officiating ministers from £100 to £200 per annum, which were also supplemented by £50 annually from the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, in addition to a free passage and outfit from the Colonial Office. Endowments were liberally bestowed upon ministers of all denominations.

A census of the population was taken on the 2nd September, 1836, which furnishes the following returns under the head “Religion”:—Protestants, 54,621; Roman Catholics, 21,895; Jews, 477; and Pagans, 100. Among the Protestant sects, the followers of the Church of Scotland form a small proportion, but are amongst the most respectable of the inhabitants, and are to be found, with few exceptions, in the class of free immigrants.”
The educational institutions were at first placed under the control of a body called "The Church and School Corporation," to whom lands were granted for the support of schools. This association was dissolved and the lands vested in the crown. In the animated discussion upon the various systems of education pursued in the United Kingdom, the Irish National System was strongly advocated, but the Denominational System of Education was ultimately adopted.

Thus have we traced the rise and progress of the material, political, social and religious condition of New South Wales to 1836, when it had reached such a state of maturity as to decide the future prosperity of the colony, and exhibited to the world resources that only required to be developed by the Anglo-Saxon race to rival the United States of America. Its history from that date, for the next fifteen years, exhibits no special feature to call for much notice, it was simply a period of expansion, when the various elements of its constitution multiplied and extended. The pastoral system increased in a compound ratio with the prolific character of the live stock; so that at the close of 1850 there were in the colony 5,660,819 sheep, 952,852 horned cattle, 63,895 horses, and 23,890 pigs, while the pasture lands were extended to the Port Phillip country, from 600 to 800 miles distant from Sydney, so that it was formed into a separate colony. Agriculture progressed until the number of acres under cultivation amounted to 69,219, besides 995 acres of vineyards, producing 103,606 gallons of wine. Commerce flourished with a list of imports amounting to £1,333,413, and the exports £1,357,784, being larger than the imports for the first time and comprising 14,270,622 lbs. of wool, valued at
£788,051, besides 128,090 cwt. of tallow, worth £167,858. The revenue reached the large sum of £248,613, and the bankers, with a paper currency of £266,602, held specie to the amount of £690,582. The shipping trade numbered 421 square-rigged vessels inwards, measuring in the aggregate 126,185 tons, and outwards 506 ships of 176,762 tons. Manufactories for weaving native wool had been established, producing 200,000 yards of tweed cloths; there were also five distilleries, twenty breweries, three sugar-refineries; sixteen establishments for the manufacture of soap and candles, fifteen for tobacco and snuff, four for hats, thirty-six tanneries, five salting and preserved-meat establishments, ninety-three for tallow-melting, gas-works, seven potteries, glass-works, smelting works, thirteen iron and brass foundries, and five ship-building yards; sixty-four steam-mills, thirty-eight water-mills, twenty-six wind-mills, and thirty horse-mills, chiefly for grinding corn.

In that time the population, with the civil and religious institutions of the colony, had progressed in proportion. On the 31st March, 1851, a census was taken, which showed the population to be 106,229 males, and 81,014 females, forming a total of 187,243, exclusive of Port Phillip, which was separated from New South Wales in that year, and received its present name of Victoria.

After the division of the two colonies, a new constitution was granted to New South Wales in 1858, whereby the political privileges of the colonists are assimilated with those of the mother country, but with even greater advantages. A local parliament is elected by manhood suffrage and vote by ballot. The executive ministers are selected from the upper and
lower houses forming the legislature, the members of the former being nominees of the Governor.

In like manner, the religious and educational institutions were formed on broad basis of liberty and freedom of conscience. Members of all Christian sects enjoyed equal rights, and none were disqualified from public posts on account of their creed. The census return of the above date classified them as follows:—Church of England, 93,137; Church of Scotland, 18,156; Wesleyan and Methodists, 10,008; other Protestants, 6,472; Roman Catholics, 56,899; Jews, 970; Mahommedans and Pagans, 852; other persuasions, 740. The schools had increased to 423, educating 21,120 scholars, of whom 11,118 were boys and 10,002 girls. In Sydney a University was established upon the most liberal principles; and professors of all denominations were admitted without being subject to sectarian test. Mechanics' institutions were also established both at Sydney and throughout the colony, besides public libraries, botanic gardens, museums, horticultural societies, and various other organizations connected with literature, science and religion. Lastly, the newspaper press, as supplying the general information that circulates daily through the body politic, had its representative journals in the capital and largest provincial towns, comprising two daily and eight weekly newspapers at Sydney, besides a Government Gazette, and two others twice and thrice a week; also one in Goulburn, two in Maitland, one at Brisbane, and two in Bathurst.

From the foregoing data, it will be seen that New South Wales possessed all the vital elements of a vigorous state at this period (1851); and that, in the natural course of events, it would continue to flourish.
and expand its pastoral, agricultural, and manufacturing resources. In that year, however, the gold discovery in Australia occurred. This for a season interfered with its steady industrial progress, but ultimately gave an impetus to its further colonization by free immigrants, so that in a few years the whole country was advanced fully half a century on the track of nations.

The account of the first indications of auriferous mines in the Blue Mountain regions around the Bathurst Plains dates many years before 1851; but these are too general or too vague to command much attention in recording the practical development of this discovery by an emigrant named Edward Hammond Hargreaves. Mr. Hargreaves had been resident for some time in the Bathurst country, when the announcement, in 1848, of the gold discovery in California reached him. The accounts were so attractive to young men bent on bettering their fortunes, that a great many went for this purpose from New South Wales to the “diggings,”—as the American miners familiarly named the alluvial workings. Among them was Mr. Hargreaves. While working among the hills and valleys of the Sierra Nevada, he observed that the peculiar soil in which the gold dust was found very much resembled what he had often seen on the banks of the streams near Bathurst, and that the adjacent rocks presented a familiar structure to his eye. It does not appear that he was at all versed in geology or mineralogy, but from his intuitive faculties of observation, he concluded that, where there was so great a similarity, there might also be auriferous deposits. With this impression strong in his mind, he made his way back to New South Wales about the
end of 1850, and at once proceeded, but with great caution and reticence, to "prospect" the localities he deemed the most likely to contain the coveted metal. This was on the banks of a small stream about twenty miles inland from Bathurst, named Summer Hill Creek. Here his most sanguine anticipations were realized, by finding some grains of gold after trying a few pans of the soil, which he knew from his Californian experience was that in which it existed.

How to divulge the secret to the best advantage was his next consideration. As he did not overestimate the importance of the discovery, as likely to affect injuriously the social and settled condition of the colony, from what he had witnessed in California, he judiciously made it known privately at first to the local government. At that time, the Colonial Secretary, Mr. Deas Thomson, an official of long standing in the colony, was acquainted with some previous communications on the subject that ended in no practical result; consequently, he advised the Governor, Sir Charles Fitzroy, to decline giving any special benefit or premium to Mr. Hargreaves until the value of the discovery was ascertained. Under these circumstances, he proceeded to Bathurst, where he assembled the inhabitants of that secluded pastoral township, and exhibited the gold he had washed from the banks of Summer Hill Creek, offering to escort a properly equipped party to the spot, to prove his assertions. This was done by a number of the more enterprising settlers, and in a few days they were enabled to affirm the truth of the discovery, which had the effect of attracting every man in the place, who could leave to seek his fortune at the diggings. These pioneers of the gold-fields, impressed with a sense of wonder
at the astounding fact, called the picturesque spot the valley of Ophir, after the region mentioned in Scripture as a place from whence gold was extracted. Other localities in this vicinity were examined, and several of them found to be richer in the size and quantity of the gold—pieces weighing one, two, three, and four ounces being dug up, which were named "nuggets," after a term in use at California. This mode of working continued for some time, until at last the richness and extent of the deposits were evidenced by the discovery of a mass of quartz containing 106 lbs. of gold, by a native, who knew nothing previously of its value.

The news of the discovery and richness of the Bathurst gold-fields spread through the colony with the most exciting effect upon all classes of the community. As predicted and dreaded by the Government, should a discovery occur, the whole fabric of society was unhinged. The male population hitherto plodding at their steady vocations in the office or the fields, whether in town or country, with almost one accord ceased to work and prepared to join the gold-diggers in their exciting occupation, each desirous of becoming the fortunate owner of a lump of gold that would render him independent for life. Those who first left their old employment were the shepherds tending the sheep that produced the "golden fleece," which had advanced the colony to its prosperity. It may well be supposed that the squatters who owned these flocks saw with dismay their desertion by the shepherds. They considered that ruin must inevitably follow to the pastoral interests by this "accursed discovery of the gifts of Mammon!" Like many other short-sighted calculations of man, not only was such an evil averted, but it proved in the end an increased source
of wealth. Before this period, the flock-master was obliged to boil down his surplus stock for the sake of the tallow, skin, and wool, which realized not more than 3s. 6d.; while large flocks of sheep were sold at 2s. 6d. per head, and legs of mutton sold at less than 1d. per pound. The influx of new comers to the gold-fields, which yielded the means to pay for supplies, soon raised the value of a sheep double, treble,—until it became ten-fold, and the frightened squatters thus became the wealthiest and most independent colonists.

In the towns the social confusion was more apparent than in the country. Labourers and mechanics left off work, and he who had some previous knowledge of mining was looked up to as the leader of a party. Clerks left their counting-houses, and shopmen their employers' shops, heedless of warning that they would lose their situations. Many civil servants in government offices, and the book-keepers of bankers and merchants threw up good appointments, ranging from £200 to £500, and even £1000 a year, for the glittering chances of the gold fields. Even tradesmen closed their places of business, and however unfitted for a life in the bush, equipped themselves with pick and spade for their new pursuit. While the trade in ordinary merchandise was at a stand-still, ironmongers and store-keepers having a stock of implements suitable for gold-digging obtained fabulous prices for them in consequence of the demand. Those also who dealt in flour, sugar, tea and portable provisions, benefited likewise by the rush to the diggings; and consequently they remained at home to lay in fresh supplies. On the other hand, the traders in commodities not in request shut up their shops, and went to participate in the general scramble.
Nor did the gold mania alone seize the people on shore, the sailors afloat in the ships in harbour deserted, leaving their pay behind, and made their journey on foot across the Blue Mountains, where a crowd of people unceasingly thronged the road by day, or awakened the echoes of the forest by night, singing and rejoicing in drunken ecstasy around their bush fires. Many of the captains of these vessels, seeing how they were being deserted, arranged to go with their sailors and form parties, while the ships were dismantled until their return. Thus for a time the regular trade of the colony was paralyzed, until the traders found new channels of business in the altered state of affairs, and that more profitable than before.

The Government had now a practical demonstration of Mr. Hargreaves' discovery, much to its consternation and alarm; so he was appointed a Commissioner of Gold-fields, under Mr. Hardy, Chief Commissioner, with a promise of further pecuniary reward. In this emergency the utmost promptitude and judgment was required to prevent a state of lawlessness and anarchy, such as prevailed at California during the first years of its gold discovery. At once a proclamation was published according to the old English laws relating to the precious metals on crown lands, which were declared to be the property of Her Majesty; but these were modified, so that only a royalty of thirty shillings per month was demanded from every person on the gold fields, each one having a license to that effect. To collect this license fee, and maintain order among the diggers, all the available police and military forces were sent up the country. Although there were greater causes than usual for people committing breaches of the peace amidst the confusion that prevailed, yet, it is satis-
factory to state, that during the subsequent eighteen months, the returns of crime in New South Wales show no increase on the previous ratio, which is recorded to the credit of the population. The licensing system, however, proved to be unfair for the diggers who were not successful, and obnoxious to them generally; consequently it was rescinded, and a duty on the export of gold substituted. By the close of 1851, the quantity of gold exported to England amounted to 144,120 ounces, valued at £468,336. Here was actual evidence before the people of the mother country, that the Australian _El Dorado_ was no fiction or imposture, but a region teeming with the coveted treasure. Then commenced a rush of emigration unexampled in history; but, as the stream was chiefly directed to the still richer gold-fields of Victoria, it will be more appropriate to treat of it in relating the history of the gold discovery in that colony.

The effects of the gold discovery in Australia are not merely matters of local consideration, because these colonies have been benefited by the addition of a new article of export from their resources; but they have produced results of the greatest national importance to the British Empire, and to the progress of the world at large. The discovery in this hitherto neglected region of such a mass of treasure, which the policy, custom and interest of mankind has set up to regulate the value of his industry and other products, is a subject of interest to the historian and statesman. After the occupation of that vast territory, doubtless from a very remote period, by a keen, observing, though socially degraded race of aborigines, and for more than sixty years inhabited by no mean class of observers amongst our own countrymen, it is
remarkable, to say the least of it, that this discovery should have been made so late in the day. If the first specimens of the precious metal had been found in unexplored and less accessible localities than they were, we should have wondered the less. But Mr. Hargreaves, to whom all credit is due for being the first demonstrator of the great fact, discovered it near the surface of the ground, and subsequently others picked out loose grains of gold from their garden soil; while the stones which formed part of the foundation of a bridge, and the metal on the adjacent road, were pieces of gold-bearing quartz striated with feathery veins of virgin gold.

When the fact of these auriferous deposits was made patent to the world, credible statements were put forth that the local authorities had been apprised of the existence of gold in the Australian mountains at various periods anterior to Hargreaves's discovery, and that they suppressed the information, fearful of its consequences on the industrial progress of the colony. These prudential motives on the part of the earlier local governments are commendable, for the condition of the colony, then composed chiefly of a convict population, was not prepared to receive intelligence of such boundless treasure lying open to their hands. Moreover, the gradual increase of live stock, which furnished so much animal food to the people at the time of the discovery, was in itself a providential circumstance, when so little of other kinds of provisions could be had upon that emergency. Therefore, although late in the history of this remarkable southern continent, the discovery of its auriferous deposits could not have been made at a more propitious time.

Notwithstanding these favourable circumstances of
time and place, we have seen that much social and commercial confusion prevailed during the first year or two; and, with the exception of occasional outbreaks of insubordination on the gold-fields, where the diggers maltreated the Chinese and other aliens attracted to the diggings, no extraordinary increase of crime resulted from the discovery. In a few years the first excitement had not only subsided, cooling the fevered imaginations of the colonists, but many, especially among the educated classes, returned to their former occupations. They were lucky men whose services were again engaged at the salaries they had thrown up; the greater number had to work up the ladder of promotion once more, as "wiser but sadder men." In like manner, shepherds, stockmen and bullock-drivers, gradually returned to their old employments, as they found that large gold nuggets were as rare as prizes in a lottery. They preferred steady pastoral pursuits, with increased wages, to the fickle freaks of fortune at the gold fields. To those unaccustomed to hard labour the romance of gold-mining was soon dissipated, when they found that the most arduous toil was necessary in procuring the coveted metal, and when obtained rapidly disappeared in paying extravagant prices for the most ordinary necessaries of life. A reaction in favour of industrial occupations was the consequence; and there was a want of hands to develop the numerous fresh discoveries of gold all over the country. Moreover, the greater attractions of Ballarat and Bendigo, in Victoria, drew away the most skilful miners from the Bathurst and other diggings. At the present day, and for the future, the development of the golden resources of New South Wales is, and promises to be, conducted in the same
THE COLONY DIVIDED INTO FOUR PROVINCES.

steady manner as the other remunerative employ-
ments of the colonists are pursued.

Fourteen years have elapsed since the advent of this literally golden era in the annals of New South Wales, and the strides of colonization over its auriferous mountains, its pastoral plains, and agricultural valleys, have eclipsed anything of the kind in the history of nations. The original boundaries of the colony, as defined by the British Government in their instructions to Governor Phillip, which comprised the eastern half of Australia, or a territory nearly as large as a moiety of Europe, has become peopled, more or less, throughout its length and breadth by industrious and enterprising colonists. From its immense area it became in time too unwieldy for the efficient control of the central Government and Legislature at Sydney. Hence New South Wales proper has been largely shorn of its proportions—first, by the formation of the independent free colony of South Australia, in 1836; second, by the separation of the district of Port Phillip, under the title of Victoria, in 1851; and third, the separation of the Moreton Bay district, with all the territory north of that, and its formation into the colony of Queensland, in 1859. Notwithstanding this curtailment of its jurisdiction, the colony of New South Wales has an area of 323,437 square miles—nearly as large as the superficies of France and the United Kingdom together. The population on the 30th June, 1864, amounted to 385,893, of whom 213,290 were males and 172,603 females. The extent of land under culture in 1862 was 260,798 acres, yielding 1,581,597 bushels of wheat, and 1,484,467 of Indian corn, 39,801 of barley, 98,814 of oats, 28,127 tons of potatoes, 9,704 cwt. of tobacco, 50,927 tons of hay, 99,791 gallons of wine, besides
other produce. The value of the fruit exported, chiefly oranges, was £61,466. In the same year there were 6,119,163 sheep, 2,408,586 head of cattle, and 251,497 horses. The pastoral products of that year exported were—wool, 12,000,000 lbs., valued at £1,250,000; hides to the value of £68,576; and tallow, 13,647 cwt. The value of gold exported was £1,876,049, and the quantity of that new product raised in the first ten years was 3,281,000 ounces, valued at £11,683,857. A mint was established in 1855 to coin sovereigns and half-sovereigns, which are a legal tender in India and Hongkong, but not yet in other British possessions. In 1863, 1,334,500 of the former and 556,500 of the latter were issued. The imports for 1860 were valued at £7,519,000, and the exports at £5,072,090. The shipping inwards consisted of 1424 vessels of 427,835 tons, and outwards 1438 ships. For the same year the public revenue amounted to £1,309,000; expenditure, £1,312,777; and the public debt, £3,820,000. This last-named item was contracted for the construction of railways throughout the country by the Government. Already 36 miles have been laid down in the north, 34 to the westward of Sydney, and 51 from the same terminus to the south, which will shortly be extended to Goulburn, 120 miles distant on the Great Victoria line.

Other public works of utility and adornment have been erected in the chief towns of the colony. Amongst these towns may be enumerated Paramatta, Bathurst, Goulburn, Braidwood, and Maitland, in the inland counties; and Newcastle, Wollongong, Eden, with other places, with the harbours of Two-fold Bay, Jervis Bay, Broken Bay, the Hunter River, and Port Stephens in the maritime districts, the
localities of which may be found on the general map of Australia.

But none of these towns and harbours, or, indeed, any in the Australian colonies, can compare to the magnificent harbour of Port Jackson, and the metropolitan city of Sydney. It is the sailor's delight to be snugly moored in Sydney Cove at the present day, as it was to the captains of the first fleet that entered Port Jackson. As the traveller or emigrant passes between the perpendicular and overhanging precipices that stand at its entrance like the portals of some giant edifice, he is struck with feelings of dread at the swell of the Pacific Ocean and the rocky desolation around. This is suddenly changed to pleasure, as the picturesque scenery of the inner harbour opens up its panoramic beauties, and he sails along a lake-like inlet where the agitation of the sea ceases. As the ship passes between a succession of bays and coves, indented by picturesque points of land and guarded by small islets, he is charmed with the fairy-like aspect of the scenery; and when the captain informs him that each of these bays is deep enough to float a line-of-battle ship, with sufficient room to hold all the navies of Europe, he cannot but marvel at the maritime advantages of Sydney Harbour. Then, as the ship comes to anchor in the cove, the city appears the perfection of a great seaport. It has landing facilities at quays where the largest merchantmen moor alongside, and there is no current or impetuous tide to endanger the shipping and boats. No dirty, muddy stream around the ship, nor dingy-looking warehouses on shore to offend the eye and nostrils, as too frequently happens in seaport towns. All is bright, clean, and wholesome, spreading a cheerful aspect around the haven. The clear waters
1. Government-house.
2. Town-hall.
3. Legislative Council-chambers.
4. Fort Phillip.
5. Jail.
7. Railway-station.
8. St. Mary's Cathedral.
9. St. Andrew's Cathedral.
10. St. Philip's Church.
11. Christ Church.
12. St. James's Church.
a. Botanic Garden.
b. Inner Domain.
c. Outer Domain.
d. Hyde Park.
below, and the blue sky overhead, throw out in bold relief the white freestone buildings that compose the city. The public edifices are perched on the surrounding heights, and the church spires arise out of the densely packed streets beyond. Sydney is admirably situated for a city in a hot climate, as it is built upon hills where the natural drainage is flushed by the rains that clear the streets of anything that otherwise would create malaria. Extensive suburbs spread in every direction as far as the eye can reach from any of these elevated points, and numerous villas dot the landscape to the extreme horizon. Within this area dwells a population of 93,686, surrounded by all the luxuries, adornments, and amenities of life; and the architectural designs of Greece and Rome have a habitation and a name beneath a sky that surpasses in purity and intensity of hue the far-famed skies of Italia.

The annexed chart of Sydney and Port Jackson will serve to illustrate the foregoing description.
CHAPTER V.

TASMANIA.


In the first chapter, treating of maritime discovery in Australia, it is mentioned that Captain Abel Jansen Tasman, sailing on a voyage of discovery from Batavia, rounded the southern coast of this island in December 1642, and concluding that it was part of the southern continent, he named it Van Diemen’s Land, in honour of his master, the Governor-general of the Dutch East Indies, Anthony Van Diemen. Further, it has been related how Mr. Bass, the surgeon of H.M.S. Reliance, discovered, in 1798, that it was an island, divided from the mainland by a strait 130 miles wide, which Governor King named after him. On that occasion
he was accompanied by Lieutenant Flinders of the same ship, who afterwards made a correct survey of the coast, besides many portions of Australia, which justly entitle him to the highest position as a hydrographer of the country, but not to the exclusion of other eminent marine surveyors. What brought him chiefly into notice, was his detention in the Isle of France (Mauritius) during the war between England and France; when his charts were scandalously copied by the authorities, and French names prefixed to all the discoveries he and his predecessors had made. These were repudiated by the world at large, though the few additions to the topography by Captains Baudin, D'Entrecasteaux and Hamelin, have been retained. With a more generous spirit, and by common consent of the local authorities and settlers, immediately after Bass's exploration, this island was named Tasmania, in recognition of the eminent services which Abel Jansen Tasman rendered to maritime discovery; but it was not until the year 1852 that the home government adopted it, on the petition of the colonists, at the period of the cessation of transportation to its shores.

Apparently these questionable efforts of a rival nation (with whom this country was then at war) to add maritime renown to the annals of the first Empire, awakened the suspicions of the British Government that they might form a settlement or naval station in one of the harbours on the south-east coast of Tasmania. Accordingly they communicated with the Governor of New South Wales, in 1802, instructing him to lose no time in forming a subsidiary penal settlement, on an eligible spot in that locality; accompanied with a secret dispatch from the Secretary of State for the colonies,
furnishing him with the reasons for this step. Immediately an expedition was formed under the command of Captain John Bowen, R.N., of H.M.S. Salsette, consisting of a small detachment of marines, and a sufficient number of convicts to clear land and erect houses. This pioneer band arrived at the Derwent River in June 1803, after a boisterous voyage. In that region it was mid-winter; and being so far south, the climate was much colder than the one they had left. After surmounting numerous difficulties, and encountering much privation in taking a survey of the surrounding country, they fixed on what was deemed an eligible spot on the left bank of the river, about eighteen miles from its entrance, and fifty-five miles from the extreme south cape of the island. Here Captain Bowen, fatigued with his survey and anxious to commence the formation of the first settlement, called it more feelingly than appropriately “Rest-down,” which subsequently resolved itself into Risdon, which name it retains to this day.

During the remainder of the year the embryo settlement progressed considerably, especially towards September, when the fine weather set in. Captain Bowen proved himself to be a most able man for his post, as he possessed an ardent and enterprising disposition, as well as a clear and discriminating judgment. Had he continued to rear up the colony he had planted, there is every reason for concluding that he would have proved a competent and popular governor. He was, however, unexpectedly superseded by Colonel Collins, R.M., in the following year. This officer was Judge Advocate of New South Wales during the foundation of that colony, and secretary to Governor Phillip. To his pen we are indebted for the best detailed
accounts of its early history. He arrived in England in 1801 and published an "Account of the Colony of New South Wales," which, combined with his services during a trying period, recommended him so strongly to the notice of Government, that he was appointed to the command of an expedition, which it was deemed advisable should form a settlement on the shores of Port Phillip, for the same reasons that the one on the banks of the Derwent was established.

Colonel Collins arrived within the Heads of that well-known harbour during the summer of 1804, with a fleet of convict ships, having on board all the necessary staff and appliances for the foundation of a penal settlement distinct from, yet in a measure subordinate to, the Government at Sydney. After his fleet had passed safely through the narrow entrance of this spacious harbour, he steered to the eastward, where the channel is narrow and surrounded by shoals, on which two of the ships, the Calcutta and the Ocean grounded. He then landed on the adjacent shore, which is sterile and sandy, and penetrated some distance inland towards Western Port. The isthmus between presented no promising lands for agriculture, and suffered from scarcity of fresh water. Like his predecessor, Captain Phillip, when he abandoned Botany Bay for similar reasons, Colonel Collins left Port Phillip in disgust without disembarking his people, and sailed for the Derwent, where he knew there was good land and plenty of fresh water.

It does not appear that Colonel Collins was cognisant of Captain Bowen’s expedition to the same locality, or that the latter knew anything concerning the expedition of the former, until he saw his fleet enter the river. Of course it was a mutual surprise. As two
settlements could not be formed in one place, the smaller became merged in the larger; so Bowen left, and Collins assumed the position of Lieutenant-Governor of Van Diemen's Land. On examining the site fixed on by his predecessor, he deemed it not the best—overlooking the magnificent harbour; consequently, without breaking up the establishment at Risdon, he fixed on the opposite side of the Derwent.
as a more eligible spot. This was at the foot of a mountain 4,320 feet high, where a perpetual stream of limpid water flows down from its highest springs. Here he laid the foundation of Hobart Town—which was named in honour of Lord Hobart, at that time a member of the British ministry—in April, 1804. For six years the settlement made rapid progress, and a town was gradually rising under the eye of Governor Collins, when, in the early part of 1810, he died, to the regret of all who had the interests of the young colony at heart.

Meanwhile, as very little was known of the country beyond the coast line, it was necessary to explore the interior, to ascertain its capabilities for agriculture and pastoral purposes. As it happened, the land in the immediate neighbourhood of Hobart Town was not much better than that around Sydney; consequently, the first inhabitants were subject to many privations from the want of fresh meat; game however was plentiful, especially kangaroos. It is remarkable that, at the outset, the first settlement should have been fixed on the least fertile part of the country; for Hobart Town, like Sydney, to this day is dependent for its supplies of beef, mutton, and grain, upon other parts of the colony. To the traveller and artist, however, in search of the picturesque, the surrounding scenery is of the most attractive description, rising into Alpine sublimity, and intersected by gorges of the most varied and fantastic forms. The view from the summit of Mount Wellington, which stretches away to the westward in a level plateau, is unsurpassed for its prospect in the whole Australian colonies. Here from a height of 4,320 feet, after an ascent of ten miles from Hobart Town, the climber may look down
on the city and harbour, and see their forms as distinctly as in a map. If the day be clear, he can discern the shipping and houses below, through the pure atmosphere as distinctly, with the naked eye, as if he were looking down on some toy model within a few yards of his gaze. Around, on the flanks of this venerable mountain—whose hoary head is snow-covered half the year round—are forests of primeval trees of gigantic growth. Amongst these the fern-trees form the underwood—more graceful than tropical palms.

This mountainous character prevails, more or less, throughout the whole island, so that it has been appropriately named the Highlands of Australia, from the resemblance of its scenery to the Highlands of Scotland. Its area is only one-eighth less in extent than the whole of that division of the United Kingdom; not a few of its mountains are named after Ben Lomond and others, and the chief settlers in Tasmania are Scotchmen. So anxious were some of the emigrants to realize home associations in their adopted country, that they imported seeds of the Scotch thistle, which have taken root so readily and spread so rapidly that the fields are overrun with the weed, and it costs annually some thousand pounds to keep down the growth of this, the farmer’s pest and Scotchman’s pride.

Unlike its neighbour, the island of Tasmania rises towards its centre to an average height of 1500 feet; whereas Australia is depressed in some parts below the sea level. On referring to the map, it will be seen that all the rivers flow from some central source towards the sea on every side; the two largest streams being the Derwent and the Tamar, the former running south and the latter north; while there are inland lakes at a high elevation, which feed these and
many other streams. It will be readily supposed that this mountainous character of the country presented great obstacles, at the beginning, to open up the interior for colonization. Here again convict labour became most beneficial, in clearing the wilderness and making roads into the interior. As it happened in making the road from Sydney to Bathurst, across the Blue Mountains, so did it prove in the construction of a turnpike road across the island, from Hobart Town to Launceston, a distance of 121 miles. Here is a public work that would have required half a million sterling, with the employment of all the available free emigrants for not less than ten years, to complete. The Government accomplished, with convict labour, off-hand this public work, which was of paramount necessity in opening up the rich lands of the interior to free-settlers and traders. The individual most prejudiced against transportation to the Australian colonies cannot but admit this fact, if he travels from Hobart Town to Launceston by the road, where the engineering difficulties overcome, and the bridges constructed, are of such a formidable nature, as no free community of pioneer settlers would attempt to accomplish. It is with no desire to question the grievances of the colonists with regard to transportation that these remarks are made. On the contrary, it will serve to show what material benefits were sacrificed by the free community in securing its cessation. At the same time, the impartial historian is bound to record the facts which assisted in developing the material prosperity of the colony and colonists.

Although this mountainous aspect denotes the prevailing character of Tasmanian topography, still the interior of the country is interspersed with some of the
most fertile valleys and plains in the world, where the alluvial soils suitable for culture were found in their virgin state by the first settlers, with depths varying from three feet to nineteen feet, and covered with the most luxuriant meadows of indigenous grasses. Moreover, if the mountains limit the area of land available for pasturage and cultivation, they supply a most valuable equivalent in the shape of never-failing streams that flow from their summits, where the primeval forests collect the moisture denied to the open plains below. Hence there is no section of Australia, equal in extent, so well watered as the picturesque and fertile island of Tasmania. As the traveller leaves behind the rugged scenery near the coast, the face of the country in the upland districts is richly variegated and diversified by ranges of moderately-sized hills and gently undulating valleys, forming the most exquisitely beautiful amphitheatres, fertile with whatever a rich soil and salubrious climate can yield. The hills, whose ridges generally form irregular circles, are for the most part well wooded, and from their summits may be seen an expanding area of level pasture land, with but few trees, the grass growing in the utmost luxuriance, while their beauty and richness are heightened by the various streams and ponds, with which the plains are everywhere profusely watered.

As these rich tracts of country were discovered by the early settlers they were immediately taken up for future cultivation or pastoral pursuits. Here the same land regulations were in force that prevailed in New South Wales. According to the means of the person applying for a grant of land, a proportionate tract was allotted, reckoned upon a fixed scale, which was limited to a maximum of four square miles, or 2,560 acres, and
not less than 320 acres, or half a square mile. The ratio of capital to land was in the proportion of one square mile, or 640 acres, for every £500 sterling. But an important clause in the act was the definition of what was capital, namely: stock of every description, implements of husbandry, and other articles which may be applicable to agricultural purposes; likewise, any half-pay or pension, which the applicant received from the Government.

Upon these liberal terms many retired officers in the army and navy availed themselves of the regulations, and became the leading settlers in the work of colonization. Indeed, long after their pioneer labours were over, this element in the body-politic preponderated above any other in Tasmania, and distinguished its social condition from that of the other colonies of New South Wales. From this circumstance also the tone of the upper class of society was rigidly maintained, especially where there was no medium class to blend them with the convict community, as in Australia. Between the ex-military or ex-naval officer and the convict labourer there was a wide gap. Hence the discipline of the one was intolerable to the other, which led ultimately to a state of outlawry and brigandage among escaped felons unexampled in the history of Australian colonization.

The manner in which these officers turned their “swords into ploughshares” was very simple, and will be best described by one of themselves, Lieutenant Jeffreys, R.N., in his account of the country:—“The author, having fixed upon a spot, was supplied by the governor with three or four convicts (labourers), to whom were added a ploughman and overseer, both free men. The site of his intended farm was previously
well known to his overseer. These men were provided with three weeks’ provisions, and such tools and implements as were necessary to their labour. Having a cart to carry their tools, &c., they arrived at the spot about four o’clock in the afternoon. It was out of the author’s power to accompany them, but as they themselves relate the story, the ploughman was appointed cook, and whilst he was making the necessary arrangements for refreshment, the rest, with their axes, cut down such timber as was requisite to erect a temporary hut. This they completed, and rendered perfectly water-tight, before sunset, when they all sat down to such a repast as the cook had provided for them. Their meal consisted of the hind-quarters of a kangaroo cut into mince-meat, stewed in its own gravy, with a few rashers of salt pork—this dish is called a ‘steamer.’ They added to that a sufficient quantity of potatoes and a large cake (damper) baked in the wood-ashes of the fire. These people have often declared that they never in their lives ate a meal with greater relish and appetite than they did this supper. Afterwards the grog went merrily round, and the plains and valleys rang with three times three, in ‘Success to the Captain’s farm!’ A small fire having been made at the foot of the hut, they retired to rest, and after a refreshing sleep, rose at daylight to renew their labours. In a few days the plan and foundation of a garden were laid out, after which they all set to work to build a more commodious house for themselves and their master. This house consisted of two rooms, occupied by the overseer when his master was not there, and a large kitchen and sleeping place for themselves. In a very short time the author had the satisfaction to see twenty acres of land broken up, and about two hundred
acres fit for the plough. In doing this it was not necessary to cut down more than five hundred trees. In this manner it is possible for hundreds of settlers, at a very moderate expense, to establish themselves in this delightful part of the globe, the abode of peace, plenty, and rural happiness.” Upwards of half a century has passed away since this incident occurred on the banks of Pittwater, and although the condition of the colony has gone through many phases, social, political and material, the farms have continued their progress without alteration as the abodes of peace and plenty, with a hospitable welcome to the traveller.

While the retired naval officers verified the proverbial saying that “sailors being accustomed to plough the deep invariably take to ploughing the land,” so the military officers seemed to prefer sheep and cattle-grazing. For these purposes they had to import stock, at first from New South Wales, and afterwards from Europe. The average temperature of Tasmania being colder than any part of Australia (except on the Maneroo Plains, near the Australian Alps,) this consideration affected the quality of wool and the breed of sheep. Consequently English-bred ewes—chiefly Teeswater—were crossed with Spanish rams, producing a moderately fine wool, with a larger fleece, which made up in quantity for deterioration in quality. Although the climate affected the wool in this manner, the increase was not diminished; if anything the sheep were more prolific than on the mainland, as they regularly dropped their lambs within the seven months, seldom having less than two, frequently three at a birth, but they were not allowed to rear more than two. This rapidity of increase soon spread the settlers’ flocks over the limited pasture lands of Tasmania; and
notwithstanding the fact that the grass was richer and denser than on the pastures of the older colony, they had to sow English grasses in moist places, to feed their stock. It must be understood that however well adapted the Australian grasses are to the climate, they afford but small nourishment in proportion to the area as compared with those of Europe. Where the latter may feed three sheep to an acre, the former often requires three acres to a sheep. The result was that sheep fell in value, and pasture lands rose, until at last not an available spot was to be found for increase on the island. Hence the settlers were forced to cross Bass Straits for new pastures in Australia.

As these pioneers of Tasmanian colonization penetrated into the interior, they were the discoverers of new streams, hills, valleys and plains; and, like their more renowned predecessors in exploration, they, each in his way, gave these geographical features a "local habitation and a name." There is much room for criticising the incongruity of local names in these countries, where there is no affinity with the places they are named after. On this head, however, writers sometimes make mistakes, as in the case of New South Wales, as though named in fancied resemblance to old South Wales. This is an erroneous conclusion, and contrary to Captain Cook's custom of naming his discoveries after individuals, especially those in high authority. In this he has not departed from the general rule—that colony was named after the Prince of Wales; New from its being first known, and South from being in the southern hemisphere. The practice of using the adjective new so frequently is puerile, and the repetition of common and familiar
names shows a meagreness of invention. Native names are preferable, which in Australia are both euphonious and characteristic of the indigenous people.

In Tasmania it would appear that the early settlers were sadly at a loss to find names for new places. It is related in the country that within a certain district they had recourse to the only two books the community could boast. One of these was the Bible, and from it they named the Plains of Jericho, the River Jordan, and Jerusalem Plains. The other book was the Arabian Nights’ Entertainments, from which the Valley of Bagdad was named. So the traveller in Tasmania may traverse the delightful Plains of Jericho until he comes to the River Jordan, and passes through the Valley of Bagdad on his way to Jerusalem.

Besides the “gentlemen farmers,” as they were called, many non-commissioned officers, free emigrant farmers of small means, and emancipated convicts settled upon small grants of land, and succeeded as well as their wealthier neighbours. Those who had a previous knowledge of agriculture or grazing not only outstripped the amateur farmers, but many laid the foundations of large fortunes by their practical knowledge. As an instance:—for many years the value of the wool was so depreciated, from its bad condition and want of attention to the sheep, that few thought it worth while to clip the fleeces, often throwing skin and fleece away, or using them as litter for pigs. At last one practical sheep-farmer collected these skins, took off the wool and washed it; he was thus enabled to give fourpence per pound for greasy wool. When it was cleaned and properly packed in bales, it fetched from a shilling to one shilling and sixpence per lb. in the English market. This enterprising settler amassed
a large fortune, and by his example encouraged others to wash the fleece on the sheep's back, after using medicine to cure the cutaneous disease. This largely increased the profit from stock, which previously had no value save for the carcass. Even that value was only comparative, as actual money in the shape of gold or silver coin was rarely seen; for a system of barter prevailed in the early days of the colony. So many sheep, bullocks or pigs, were bartered for a horse, or served to liquidate a merchant's bills. Six sheep were at one time equivalent to a gallon of rum, and a horse was worth two or three hundred acres of land, valued at half-a-crown an acre.

During this rude system of commerce, where the metallic currency was scarce, a paper currency was in circulation, of promissory notes from sixpence to twenty shillings, issued by any person who thought his credit good enough to warrant this attempt at banking. This kind of money was called "currency," to distinguish it from His Majesty King George III.'s coin, and was of a depreciated standard, however good the issuer's credit. From lack of specie, during the time of war with France, when gold was at a high premium in England, Spanish dollars became a standard currency both in notes and metal, and at one time the latter grew so scarce that a piece was struck out of the middle, about the size of a shilling, for which sum it passed, and was called a "dump," while the mutilated coin was called a "ring-dollar," as legal tender for four shillings, both stamped with the king's head. This bastard money was not plentiful, as the only source from whence it could be obtained was at the commissariat, where the supplies to that department were monopolized by four or five contractors.
This was the largest and most lucrative business in the colony, and it increased in proportion as the convict population was augmented from the mother country. It was through the fostering means sent for the maintenance of her delinquent children that the mercantile community of Hobart Town became at one time the wealthiest in Australia. As already pointed out, that locality had very limited sources of wealth within itself; it was the government expenditure, derived from the British treasury, that enriched the free settlers, while the labour of the convict population made the streets and roads of the capital of Tasmania. The proof of this may be seen at the present day; for that bustling city and port, since the cessation of transportation, has dwindled down into a secondary town and harbour.

While the material prosperity of the colony was thus advancing with rapid strides, the moral and social condition of the community was retrograding; not only among the felon portion, assigned or emancipated, but amongst the free settlers, not excluding those who had held the king's commission. Profligacy was tolerated even within the walls of the Government House; and as few of these retired officers were married men, they selected mistresses from among the female convicts. No doubt the absence of virtuous women, in their own station of life, led to this state of demoralization, for it is recorded that Mrs. Fry, that good and benevolent woman, hearing of the disparity of the sexes among the free population, sent out twelve respectable, though poor ladies, who were married immediately on landing, and became the most exemplary wives and mothers in the colony.

This lax state of society existed during the gover-
norship of Colonel Sorell, who was removed from his post in 1823. He was succeeded by Colonel Arthur, an able and energetic officer, who cleared out the Augean Stable left by his predecessor, and restored the character of the colony to a more respectable status. In performing this task he encountered much opposition from those who preferred a loose state of society. Of these were many influential individuals, who carried their opposition into politics, and banded together to thwart Governor Arthur in carrying out his stringent measures for the better government of the colony. Among his opponents was the editor of a newspaper—a man skilled in writing satirical and abusive articles. The columns of his journal were filled with libellous leaders, which caused the Governor to bring him before the court, where he was sentenced to fine and imprisonment. Unfortunately Governor Arthur leagued himself with other colonists of small ability, whom he appointed to posts they were not qualified to fill, simply because they sided with him against the bitter faction opposed to him. Nevertheless under his energetic rule the public works progressed, and the business of the colony was ably administered. Prison discipline was regulated with greater efficiency than it had ever been before.

About three years previous to Governor Arthur's accession to office, coal was discovered on Tasman Peninsula, and it was determined to form a penal settlement at the spot, for the purpose of working the coal, and at the same time establish a place of secondary punishment for crimes committed by transported offenders in the colony. Another settlement of the same character was formed at Macquarie Harbour on the west coast, where these pioneers were employed
cutting timber for building purposes. Notwithstanding the stringent measures adopted at these places, many of the convicts endeavoured to make their escape, and reach the settled districts, where they lived as outlaws in the fastnesses of the country; their hands against every man, and every man’s against theirs. This was the commencement of a system of brigandage throughout the country, known as “bushranging,” which carried terror into the homes of every settler. To relate the exploits and evil deeds of these brigands or bushrangers would fill a large volume, so that we can only cite a few instances in illustration of their daring, and the lawless condition of the colony.

Fourteen of these men escaped from Macquarie Harbour in a boat, and landed on the coast about twelve miles from Hobart Town, where they formed a secret retreat, from whence they could issue and pounce upon the settlers, whom they robbed, and in many instances murdered. Two of the most daring were selected as leaders, from whom they were known as Brady and McCabe’s gang of bushrangers. Their first depredations were for the purpose of obtaining arms and ammunition, which they succeeded in doing, and soon became the terror of the island. In their sanguinary career they were most cruel towards those masters who were severe upon their assigned servants and had them flogged for misconduct; consequently the prisoner population sympathized with them, and aided them with provisions and timely information. There was a dash of romance about many of their acts, that showed an inclination to imitate the exploits of famous highwaymen in England.

On one occasion a party of eight soldiers of the 40th regiment of infantry, quartered at Hobart Town, were
dispatched under the command of Lieutenant Gunn, of the Madras infantry, to go in quest of Brady and his gang. This appears to have been known to that redoubtable bushranger, for he had the effrontery to intimate that he would be at Sorell Town on a certain day and a certain hour.

Lieutenant Gunn—who was a very tall man, standing, it is said, six feet seven inches—paid little heed to this piece of bravado, and on that day scoured the neighbouring country with his men, but could not get a glimpse of the enemy. The soldiers returned wet and weary to their temporary quarters in the gaol, and Mr. Gunn went to a friend's house. In less than an hour a man came to the door and requested to see him concerning the bushrangers. Suspicious of foul play, he approached the man with a loaded musket in his hand, when the villain discharged the contents of a rifle at him, shattering his arm from the wrist to the shoulder, and he fell apparently lifeless. The man, supposed to be Brady himself, thereupon proceeded with his gang to a house where a party of ten gentlemen were dining. They marched in and captured them, ordering them, upon pain of death, to walk before them to the gaol, where the soldiers were, calculating that they would not fire upon their hostages. When they reached the gaol the soldiers were taken by surprise, their hands and legs tied, and the whole party kept in durance for two hours, under an armed sentinel at the gate, who was told to shoot them if they moved, while others of the gang robbed the stores. This they effected, and decamped with several pack-horses laden with supplies. One gentleman at last ventured to the door, but on looking round observed the armed bushranger. An hour afterwards one
of the townspeople, ignorant of the affair, was passing, and walked up to the sentry asking him what was the matter, but received no answer after repeating the question. On closer examination of this formidable-looking personage, he discovered he had been addressing a post dressed up as a dummy, standing “at ease,” with musket and fixed bayonet. The captives then ventured out, laughing heartily at the bushrangers’ exploit in so successfully deceiving them.

The foregoing account of an exploit by these lawless men illustrates the better side of the picture; but there is a fearful list of crimes on the records of Tasmania against the bushrangers, who roamed the island from 1820 to 1840, at many of which humanity shudders, and to detail in these pages would serve no good purpose. On the other hand, it is only fair to state that many of the men became outlaws in consequence of retaliation for cruelties they had suffered at the hands of severe masters. In those days the lash was the instrument of punishment resorted to, often on the slightest occasion, for chastising offenders, especially by the retired military and naval officers, who were so accustomed to its use, in keeping up discipline in the services to which they belonged, that they did not spare it on the prisoner population under their irresponsible control. The slightest provocation, or saucy answer, from an assigned servant, was the signal for his conveyance handcuffed to the adjoining magistrate, who almost invariably sentenced the wretched prisoner to twenty-five or fifty lashes there and then, with a lash of heavy-knotted whip-cord, that drew blood from his bare shoulders at every wale, until the victim presented a sickening sight. As there was seldom any discrimination in awarding
this punishment, frequently on the bare assertion of the master, without inquiry into the cause of offence, the educated and more intelligent class of prisoners suffered equally with the boorish and ignorant. It was men of the former stamp that chiefly formed the gangs of bushrangers, and hence they were a match for the cleverest of the police and military, whose efforts to capture them they eluded not only for months but years.

The circumstance which chiefly favoured them was the mountainous nature of the country, covered with almost impenetrable forests, affording secure and secret fastnesses for their abode, while the fears in some cases and sympathies in others of the convicts, servants on the farms and stations, secured them from their pursuers and furnished them with food. Besides a feeling of revenge against the free community generally, and a desire to retaliate on certain task-masters, the motive which first led many to become bushrangers was that of trying to escape from the island altogether. Very few, however, perhaps not one in fifty, succeeded in doing this, and many were given up by the masters of the vessels on board of which they managed to secrete themselves. The difficulty of escaping, and the stringent laws of Governor Arthur, which empowered any settler to shoot down a prisoner in arms, rendered these desperadoes utterly reckless; so that for many years no one travelled without being armed, and every farm throughout the country was barricaded at night in case of attack. Thus while on the one hand the free colonists benefited from convict labour, on the other the moral and personal evils counterbalanced the material good. At the same time it is only justice to state, that where the convict servant of
ordinary character was assigned as shepherd, ploughman, or mechanic, to a discriminating master of kindly disposition, no employer could be better served; and, in case of danger, he or his family were protected by his people from the depredations of the bushranger. Many cases have been recorded by such colonists, of devotion and disinterestedness by both male and female convicts to them in times of emergency, when life and property were imperilled, not only at the hands of bushrangers, but hostile aborigines.

This allusion to the native inhabitants of Tasmania naturally leads to some account of that interesting people, who are now to be reckoned amongst the extinct races of humanity. All that was known of them to the discoverers of the island has been mentioned already, and that is but meagre, as it was evident that they rarely came to the coast from their inland places of abode, living upon the produce of their hunting grounds in preference to fishing in the bays. The little known of them was of a more favourable character than that of the tribes of New South Wales. Such being the case, when the first party settled down to form the colony its leaders were instructed to use every means of conciliation towards them by Governor Bowen. However, he had no opportunity of showing his intentions of treating them well or ill, as none made their appearance at Risdon for some months after he landed, and his plans were frustrated by the cruel and inconsiderate conduct of an officer belonging to the New South Wales corps attached to his small military contingent.

It appears that one day while the governor was on an exploring tour in the interior, and this officer was on duty, a considerable number of natives were seen.
descending from the neighbouring hills. Immediately the soldiers were turned out, with loaded muskets and fixed bayonets, ready to repel any attack upon the embryo settlement. After descending the hills the natives approached the camp along the plain, each one holding a green bough in his hand, and all of them singing a plaintive *corroboree* song, according to their custom when anything new excited their curiosity. Whether these signs of amity were misunderstood, by the officer in command, as signals for attack, does not appear. But the unsuspecting visitors had just come within gunshot when he ordered the troops to fire. The volley took effect, many of them fell, and the remainder fled from the invaders of their country, carrying their wounded comrades with them to the hills. Nothing can justify the perpetration of this deed, and it is not creditable to the colonel of that disbanded corps—notable in its day for many questionable acts unworthy of a British regiment—that the officer was not tried by Court-martial. There is no record of any official inquiry into this outrage on the part of the Government, but it is presumed that the officer was severely reprimanded.

From that day these innocent and well-disposed people never again approached the settlement or farms in the interior with tokens of friendship. The confidence they had displayed at their first interviews with the white man, was completely destroyed by this cowardly attack upon a defenceless, unarmed tribe, bearing the signs of amity and peace. Apparently the account spread from north to south, and from east to west, throughout the island, for wherever they were encountered afterwards by the settlers the natives showed always a hostile front. This led to further ill-usage
by the vagabond convicts, until at last the spirit of revenge and retaliation was aroused in these otherwise friendly natives. This caused a conflict to arise between the two races, which became a war of extermination against the black aborigine. From what subsequently transpired, as the character of these children of nature was better understood, there is reason to believe that the most friendly intercourse would have followed the first interview, if this foolish officer had restrained the soldiers from firing.

Under the most favourable circumstances it is always difficult to make even an approximate calculation of the erratic population in these savage countries. This unpardonable act rendered it still more difficult to do so. From the most authentic source the natives of Tasmania were computed, at the foundation of the colony, to be between 5000 and 6000, or about one individual to four square miles of territory. As far as general physical character is concerned they resembled the aborigines of New South Wales, although they differed in some respects. The hair of the men inclined to the woolly hair of the negro, which they cut short, and it became curly. There was, however, no difference in the harsh straight hair of the women. Both sexes were jet black, like the Australian aborigine, while the women were much better proportioned in their limbs, their features were more agreeable, and they were cleaner in their persons than their sisters at Port Jackson. Although the males exhibited the greatest hatred to the white men, the females held them in the highest regard, and numbers abandoned their own tribes and native haunts to consort with them; attaching themselves to English sailors, who were stationed on different parts of the
island engaged in seal hunting. The children of these European fathers and native mothers were a remarkably handsome race. They are described as being a light copper-colour, many of them with rosy checks, large black eyes, the white tinged with blue, long fringed eyelashes, teeth pearly white, and limbs admirably formed.

From the colder character of the climate, the natives in the winter season clothed themselves in large rugs, made of kangaroo and opossum skins, well sewn together by the tendons of the former animal, and the smooth parts of the skins ornamented by scratching on them rude designs with a sharp-pointed bone. Their habitations also were built to keep out the rigorous weather at that season; being more like the wigwam of an Indian than the mere “breakweather” of the Australian. Thus necessity becomes the mother of invention, and man improves in his social condition when he has to overcome the obstacles that surround him. But the most marked circumstance in their manners and customs was the absence of the boomerang from amongst them—a piece of handiwork that distinguishes the Australian aborigine from all other races on the habitable globe. It is a proof that there could have been little or no intercourse between the Tasmanian savage and his brother on the mainland from the time of his first migration, or at all events since the invention of that curious weapon.

Here it may be stated also, that a carnivorous animal exists in Tasmania, about the size of a wolf, with its skin striped like a tiger, but of a dull brown colour, and which has not been found anywhere in Australia. In other respects there is no marked difference between the fauna and flora of the island and the continent.
In addition to the hostile reception and bad usage which the aborigines of Tasmania met with at the hands of the free settlers and the military, they were subject to the most ruffianly treatment from the convict population, who at different times attacked these poor creatures, many of whom they basely murdered. Some horrible accounts are related of the inhuman barbarities committed by the more brutal bushrangers upon the males, whom they incensed by their familiarities with the females. From a proclamation issued by Lieutenant-Governor Collins in 1810, it appears that many were murdered in cold blood, and it was enacted that the perpetrators, if found, should suffer the extreme penalty of the law. Yet a wretch who exhibited the ears of a native he had mutilated only received a few lashes, and the same punishment was allotted to another who had cut off a finger to make a tobacco-stopper for his pipe. After the death of Collins, the maltreatment of the natives became even worse, under the lax governments of Davey and Sorell, and the persecuted creatures retaliated upon the white inhabitants without discrimination. Cases continually occurred of travellers along the roads being suddenly set upon by them in ambush, throwing their spears with deadly aim, while the flocks and herds of the settlers likewise suffered from their attacks. On the other hand, parties of police, military, and volunteers, were frequently made up to punish a tribe that had committed some depredation more important than usual. Like the contest between the authorities and the bushrangers, every man's hand was directed against the natives to shoot them down and exterminate them wherever found. Altogether it was a state of affairs unparalleled in the social history of our colonies, and shows what trials the early settlers
and their families passed through during its continuance. Everywhere surrounded by an atmosphere of crime, the homesteads of the industrious and high-minded colonists appeared like as many oases in the moral desert, but for which the land of fair Tasmania would have become accursed of God and man.

When Colonel Arthur assumed the post of governor, in 1823, it was expected that among the stringent measures he initiated, something would be done to suppress the war of races going on between the settlers, convicts, and natives. But these expectations were disappointed, and for seven years the colony continued to be in a state of anarchy. At last it became necessary for the government to take some decisive measure for the suppression of this native warfare and the restoration of peace to the island. After consulting with his advisers, Governor Arthur projected a scheme of a Quixotic character, to try and drive the whole surviving native race from the interior of the country to Tasman Peninsula, as if he were driving a battue of deer. For this purpose he called upon all the colonists, capable of bearing arms, to join the available military and police force, and form an army stretching across the country inhabited by the natives and drive them before it. By this means a force of about 4850 men was mustered, armed with guns and ammunition from the public stores, while the expenses of the expedition were to be disbursed out of the commissariat treasury. This was in 1830, when the commercial affairs of the colony were very dull. All the colonists readily engaged in the affair, as it would circulate a good deal of money amongst them.

On the first of October in that year the force was marched into the interior of the island, sufficiently far
from Hobart Town to be north of the districts occupied by the hostile natives. Here they were formed into a line, stretching east and west, over hill and dale, mountain and valley, forest and plain, until they formed a complete cordon of military posts moving towards a common centre. As they advanced, this line extended sometimes to sixty miles, where the country was sufficiently open to admit of their spreading. At others it became narrowed to half that width, when they had to pass through dense forests and thickets. It was estimated that there were at least 1800 natives in the island, and that this mixed army had surrounded nearly the whole of them.

On they marched towards their goal almost sure that the enemy would be captured on the peninsula. Scattered over such an extent of country, it was no easy matter to provision this motley army, while the rough country they had to traverse wofully damaged their boots and clothing. Excepting a few faint-hearted volunteers, the colonists stuck to the main body; and after six weeks' toil and privation by flood and fell, this cordon narrowed to the rallying point at East Bay neck, where the peninsula is only half-a-mile wide. Here the regulars were sent on to secure their game after such a formidable battue, which cost about £30,000, never doubting but that they would find the frightened aborigines crowded towards the extreme point of land. They returned with one old woman and a sick man. Of course the natives slipped through their lines while they advanced, and returned to their camping grounds after the grand army had passed on. Great ridicule was bestowed on the result of this expedition, which realized the old adage of the mountain labouring and bringing forth
a mouse. The ragged appearance of the army, with toes and elbows peeping out in their nakedness, caused much amusement. But all agreed that it was a capital campaign, as so much money had been spent, and the fortunes of many previously needy colonists were laid.

The failure of this expedition rendered the aborigines bolder than before, and they committed depredations on the settlers in the rear of the army sent out to capture them. In this emergency an English emigrant named Robinson, who earned his weekly wages as a builder, came forward and proposed to Governor Arthur a scheme of winning over the natives by gentle means, promising them food and clothing if they would come into Hobart Town, where they might be safely guarded or sent to some place of security. All he wanted from the government was supplies of necessaries to equip himself and two half-civilized natives, from whom he had acquired a knowledge of their language. With but faint hopes of his success his terms were acceded to, and he departed on his mission, which was deemed one of danger and difficulty, accompanied by the aboriginal man and woman dressed up with gewgaws and ribbons, as guides and persuasive interpreters. Mr. Robinson was a man of deep and fervent religious character. His faith in God's special providence was very strong, and it rendered him perfectly fearless in undertaking the dangerous task of penetrating into the fastnesses of these exasperated aborigines. Prompted by love to God and man, he had great faith in using gentle means to subdue the natives, and thereby showed that he was a better judge of their character than those who believed only in harsh measures. The result proved the correctness of his views, for in a very short time he returned
to Hobart Town accompanied by a whole tribe of men, women and children, from the vicinity of Oyster Bay, who were considered the most ferocious in the island. The surprise and gratification of the Governor and colonists at this unexpected success was very great, and Mr. Robinson was looked upon as a public benefactor.

Following up this mission he proceeded again into the interior and returned with another tribe, and repeated his journeys until in a few years he brought in upwards of three hundred, which was found to be nearly the entire population of these aboriginal possessors of the country. What to do with them was the next question. As they came into Hobart Town the government fulfilled Mr. Robinson's promises to give them food, blankets and clothing, with a liberal hand, so that these poor creatures became quite docile. It was deemed expedient to remove them from their old hunting grounds, and deprive them of the opportunity of again reaching them; consequently they were removed by a pardonable piece of stratagem on board a ship, which sailed with them to Flinder's Island, the largest of the Furneaux group, at the eastern entrance to Bass Strait. Here they were well cared for, possessing a flock of sheep and abundant supplies of provisions, dispensed to them by a regular establishment under the superintendence of Mr. Robinson, who was appointed Protector of Aborigines at a salary of £150 per annum, which was afterwards raised to £500; and as a reward for his services he subsequently received an annual pension for life of £150. His mode of treating the natives proved quite satisfactory to the government, while the aborigines regarded him with affection and esteem.
Notwithstanding this kind treatment, they pined and died in their island prison, until in 1838 only eighty-six were left; and it is a remarkable fact that no children were born during their captivity. In that year it was proposed by the government to remove them to Port Phillip, which was afterwards done; but they were always quarrelling with the Australian aborigines, so the remnant of them were sent back to Hobart Town, where they dwindled down to eight males and ten females, all adults. They were located at comfortable quarters near Hobart Town, where all their wants were supplied. Nevertheless they continued to die out, without any progeny being born to prolong the existence of the race. In November, 1861, a ball was given at Government House, where the last man and three women of the tribe were present; and as the latter were of an age not likely to add to their number, the Tasmanian race of aborigines became virtually extinct. Thus in sixty years did this family of the human race disappear before the encroachments of the white man. The chronicler of the foregoing incident remarks:—"There is only one man left. With whom does the blame rest? most assuredly not altogether with the natives themselves. No one can say with truth that they were not as much sinned against as sinning in the disasters that befell them. But they are gone, and their extinction, as a race, was probably as inevitable as it is inscrutable. As savages they were found, as savages they lived, and as savages they perished!"

Having disposed of this aboriginal difficulty, the government next applied themselves to get rid of the bushranger pest. Large rewards were offered for the capture of these outlaws, and when the captors were
convicts they received their freedom. This plan had
the desired effect. In a very short time the gangs
were broken up, and their leaders brought to condign
punishment; several of them being delivered up to
justice by their quondam followers. Instances also
occurred of bushrangers giving themselves up, in con-
sequence of the difficulty of obtaining means of sub-
sistence or clothing. Many of these men lived by
hunting, shooting and fishing, only occasionally plun-
dering the settlers when in want of ammunition.
Some continued to evade pursuit for the space of
three years and more. They made their clothing
out of kangaroo and opossum skins, displaying fur
jackets, waistcoats, trousers, shoes, hats, and rugs
like the dress described by De Foe in his tale of
"Robinson Crusoe." Their thread was made from the
sinews of the kangaroo, and their needles from the
bones. Of course they were subject to numerous pri-
vations from the want of such articles as tea, sugar,
tobacco and bread. As a substitute for bread they ate
the wild yam, and for tea they drank a decoction of
sassafras and other shrubs, especially one known as
Captain Cook's tea-tree (*Leptospermum scoparium*),
which that circumnavigator gave to his sailors as a
preventative of scurvy.

Although considerable relief was felt by the free
community at the suppression of these bushrangers,
still the convict element continued to increase by the
influx of transported felons from the mother country,
so that robberies and petty offences increased. At one
period, when the population reached about 25,000, it
was calculated that two-thirds were convicts. The
condition of the colony became so alarming that the
colonists petitioned again and again for the government
to cease transportation, while many of the wealthier class left the country in dread, taking up their abode in the neighbouring colonies or in England. At last, in 1836, Governor Arthur left the colony, and was succeeded by Sir John Franklin, the celebrated Arctic navigator, accompanied by Lady Franklin. Great rejoicing was manifested on the occasion, especially by those colonists to whom Lieutenant-Governor Arthur was obnoxious. Unfortunately that energetic Governor, while administering the affairs of the colony with a stringent hand, raised such a hostile feeling among some of the influential settlers that the prosperity of the country was in a great measure retarded by political warfare; so that his departure subdued the discontented, and advanced the public welfare. At the same time, it is only just to record the fact that his acts were approved by the Home Government, and in appreciation of his services he received the honour of knighthood on arriving in England.

Sir John Franklin, immediately after his arrival, made a tour of the settled districts of the island, in order to acquaint himself personally with the condition of the colony under his charge. He was surprised at the progress made on the farms in the interior, especially those near the main line of road from Hobart Town to Launceston; with a turnpike road which in its finished parts compared favourably with any he had seen in England. When he reached Launceston he was astonished to see the large number of respectable inhabitants who turned out to welcome him, and the flourishing aspect of a town that he scarcely had heard of before. Hitherto almost everything in the way of government patronage and assistance had been granted to Hobart Town, while a few.
coasting vessels from there supplied the wants of the Launceston people. The surrounding country was found to contain the finest and most extensive tracts of land for agricultural and pastoral purposes in the island; so that in a short time it supplied the Hobart Town market with grain and mutton. At the time of Sir John Franklin's visit the comparative resources of the two districts in this respect were as follows:- Launceston, 11,731 acres under cultivation, and 95,852 sheep; Hobart Town, 2,769 acres, and 3,107 sheep. The total live stock in the colony numbered 745,556 sheep, 82,219 cattle, and 6,459 horses; with 69,662 acres in crop. Immediately the resources of Launceston were known, its trade increased so rapidly that it exceeded that of Hobart Town, notwithstanding its being the seat of government. In 1838 the shipping numbered 188 vessels of 22,135 tons, carrying imports valued at £230,399, and exports, £262,183. At this time the population of Launceston was upwards of 8,000; the town contained two English churches, one Scotch church, one Wesleyan chapel, one Independent chapel, and one Roman Catholic chapel, besides two schools for boys, two for girls, and one infant school. The total population of Tasmania in the same year was, in round numbers, free, 23,040; convicts, 16,000. The former were classed religiously as 16,000 Church of England; 2,500 Church of Scotland; 2,250 Church of Rome; Wesleyans, 1,280; Independents, 630; Baptists, 170; Quakers, 80; and Jews, 130.

During Sir John Franklin's term of Governorship, which lasted seven years, the material prosperity of Tasmania progressed steadily; but there was not much improvement in the feeling subsisting between the government officials and the free colonists. He was
not blamed for any harsh measures like his predecessor; on the contrary, his faults were said to be on the side of undue leniency. It is hard to judge in such a case, but it appears from an impartial view of the conduct of the leading men in the colony at this time that they indulged in bitter personal animosities, which, occasionally, produced disgraceful scenes in the Legislature and Courts of Justice. The newspapers became partisans of the contending parties, and fanned the flame of contention. Angry vituperation became the order of the day; all parties had forgotten that "A soft answer turneth away wrath, but grievous words stir up anger." Sir John tried to soothe the community by throwing oil upon the troubled waters, and Lady Franklin assisted him in that desirable object.

Lady Franklin took a great interest in the natural history of Tasmania, and with her ample purse and benevolent disposition forwarded every movement for the public good. Among other acts of the kind she was the means of almost extirpating the black snake from Tasmania, which had previously caused serious danger to human life as well as that of live stock, from its poisonous nature. Out of her private purse she gave so much a head for every one decapitated and burnt; and to give an idea of the number killed at a shilling each, in one year she spent £750. The subsequent career of Sir John Franklin is a matter of world-wide history—how he renewed his arctic explorations, and fell a martyr to his zeal for geographical discovery.

Meanwhile the colony was relapsing into its old bushranger condition, and the influx of convicts threatened to drive the free population away. This
unsatisfactory state of society continued undiminished under the governorship of Sir Eardley Wilmot, who succeeded Sir John Franklin. His conduct and policy were offensive to a large section of the community. Public and private meetings were held, and the state of affairs was discussed in strong language. This exasperated the Governor to such a degree, that he openly set his enemies at defiance. This course served to increase public animosity. A petition was got up and signed by a large number of influential colonists and dispatched to the Home Government, requesting that Sir Eardley Wilmot be recalled without delay. The prayer of the petition had weight with the Secretary of State for the Colonies, who sent out the order for his recall. But the effect of these proceedings was more than he could bear in his declining state of health; he at last succumbed to the painful excitement, and died at Hobart Town in 1846.

He was succeeded by Sir William Denison, an officer of the corps of Royal Engineers, and a man of high reputation and administrative capacity. His presence and that of his lady and family were welcomed by the better class of colonists as the inauguration of a new state of society, which continued during his term of office. But even he had his failings in the eyes of that captious community. From his profession as an engineer, acquainted with the construction as well as demolition of public works, he directed his attention chiefly to the improvement of Hobart Town and other penal establishments throughout the island, so as to employ the convict labour which was being rejected by the free colonists for emigrant hands that were arriving in considerable numbers. In his efforts he was most successful in utilizing that labour, not only
for the benefit of the colony but for the convicts themselves. For example:—In Hobart Town he planned some docks, to be cut out of the government reserved lands, and regulated the labour of the prisoners so that the active and well-disposed men could lessen their term of punishment by industry. For this purpose he estimated what was a fair amount of work to be done in a day, under the old system, and all above that went to the credit of the labourer in reducing his time of imprisonment or labour on government works. Moreover he gave those men a certificate of good character, if they were entitled to a ticket of leave, so that they might the sooner obtain remunerative employment. The effect of this system was to get on with such works as the docks quicker than it could have been executed by free paid labour. The material result was beneficial to the colony at large, and the government in particular, who thereby sooner got rid of the men who were consuming the public stores.

The reports sent to England of the success attending this improved system of convict discipline, encouraged the government to increase rather than diminish transportation to Tasmania; so that the free settlers rose in opposition to Sir William Denison, and publicly branded him as the curse of the colony. Again were meetings convened to remonstrate with the governor, and petitions got up earnestly entreat ing the British Government, and even the Queen in person, to stay the flood of demoralization cast upon the shores of their adopted country. After several years of consideration, the requisition of the colonists was agreed to, by an Order in Council terminating transportation to the colony on the expiry of three years, when the
numbers sent out would gradually diminish. This took effect in 1853, about the same time that the name of the island was changed from Van Diemen's Land to Tasmania. From this date may be traced a retrograde movement in the material condition of the colony, especially in Hobart Town, which was no longer supported by the government expenditure.

Meanwhile the gold discoveries in New South Wales and Victoria attracted both free and bond from the colony, which subtracted further elements of capital and labour from its resources. Many of the most wealthy and enterprising merchants left Hobart Town and Launceston for Melbourne, where they ultimately became leading men in commercial circles. The proximity of Launceston to Port Phillip rendered the communication quicker and easier than with the neighbouring chief ports on the mainland. Moreover as it was the port of the grain districts of Tasmania, and the demand increased in Melbourne beyond all local supplies, the farmers in the surrounding country obtained high prices for their produce, and the traffic across Bass Strait was daily increased, both by sailing vessels and steamers. Besides agricultural produce, there was a large traffic in timber for building purposes and the construction of wharves, railways, and other works going on in Victoria, so that an unusual amount of shipping was employed by the Tasmanian traders. In these vessels there was likewise a large passenger traffic, and that almost exclusively in one direction, towards the region of gold. From 1851, an exodus of the population has taken place which continues up to the present day.

At first, in the confusion produced by that event, there was not much discrimination in the class of
people who migrated, and many convicts escaped in vessels from want of proper supervision. The respectable class who remained behind did not object to their departure, or show any desire to direct the attention of the authorities to the fact. Indeed there is reason to conclude that many ruffians were assisted in crossing the straits by a liberal allowance of cheap or free passages. Be that as it may, there are proofs that tickets-of-leave were seldom refused to any applicants who could show that they were eligible for its extension to Port Phillip, a privilege that was seldom granted in former times. Thus, while Tasmania was lessening her population and her resources, society was being purged of the convict leaven that previously had poisoned it. But Victoria rebelled against the influx of these depraved people, who carried rapine and bloodshed through the province, and augmented the state of anarchy which the gold discoveries had produced on her quiet pastoral home. So frightful was the increase of crime from this cause that the Victorian colonists, in defiance of the imperial laws of the mother country, boldly refused to allow these Tasmanian felons to land on their shores. Notwithstanding their efforts in that direction, an immense number of the most incorrigible villains left Tasmania never to return. The effects of this voluntary deportation upon the social condition of that regenerated colony has been of the most beneficial description. A more peaceful and better behaved community does not exist in the Australian colonies. The huge gaols and penitentiaries in Hobart and Launceston are either empty or turned into warehouses, while the interior of the country is as free from bushrangers as Hounslow Heath is now from highwaymen.
MATERIAL CONDITION RETROGRAD.ES. 167

This continued withdrawal of capital and labour in a few years so impoverished the colony, by reducing the value of landed property and raising the rate of wages, that a revulsion ensued in the state of public feeling, and the loss of material prosperity counteracted the moral advantages obtained. Those who contended formerly for the continuance of transportation, as the chief source of their wealth, now pointed to the ruinous condition of their once flourishing towns. Hobart Town especially illustrated the altered state of affairs. Whole streets of houses became untenanted and deserted, and the splendid harbour with its docks and jetties no longer presented the bustle of commerce, consequent on the arrival of transport ships, and vessels with supplies for the government establishments. Launceston fared better, as it shipped its produce to the gold colonies, and kept up a profitable traffic with Melbourne. In the interior, "the thirst of gold" withdrew many of the enterprising settlers from their farms to try their fortunes in the neighbouring colony. A stagnation prevailed in town and country, which affected the pecuniary interests of every one who remained in the island; so that those who had rejoiced most at the circumstances which had combined to purge the community of its moral evils, looked back with regret to the "old times" when the cause of these evils had enriched them, and, as they had calculated, made them independent for life. Now, however, house property was a drug, and the small rents, with difficulty obtained, could no longer meet their expenditure. Many landlords not only had to reduce their establishments, but again to put their shoulders to the wheel and work for a living. In these days of humility, many who had condemned Sir William Denison for
fostering the convict system, now withdrew their censures, and looked to him for government assistance to restore prosperity to the country. But his powers were no longer of that irresponsible and unlimited character they had been; the advent of the gold discovery and the cessation of transportation came at the time when a new constitution had been granted to the Australian colonies, conferring self-government upon them. Consequently the real power of the governor was placed in the hands of his responsible advisers and the two houses of legislature, elected by popular suffrage and vote by ballot, in whose power the control of the public purse and framing of local laws was centred.

This local Parliament, seeing the exodus of the colonists to the Australian gold fields, endeavoured to arrest it by offering rewards for the discovery of the coveted metal in Tasmania. They argued generally, that as the formation of the country approximated to that of Victoria, it was logical to suppose that some portion of the island would prove to be auriferous. In order to ascertain the exact geological character of the districts which seemed to promise the existence of gold-bearing rocks, an invitation was sent to the Rev. Mr. Clarke, of Sydney, a skilful geologist, who had written a pamphlet to prove that he was aware of the gold deposits in the Bathurst country long before Mr. Hargreaves' discovery, who evidently had profited by what Mr. Clarke had written about it in his printed statements. After diligent survey, many places were pointed out as auriferous, and small specks of gold were washed out of auriferous soil, but no sufficient quantity was found to encourage people to venture working long at the diggings. For upwards of ten
years this "prospecting," as it is technically called by
gold miners, was carried on by parties fitted out at
the cost of the colony, and their exertions met with
variable success. The most promising district was
found at Fingal, some distance from Launceston, where
a good many ounces of gold have been washed out of
the soil, and gold-bearing quartz found to yield a fair
per centage on being crushed. But even these indi-
cations failed to rouse the settlers from their apathy.
At last Mr. Hargreaves, the first discoverer, was
invited over from New South Wales to explore these
regions, and he arrived in November, 1864. On ex-
amining the districts already "prospected," he reported
favourably concerning the quartz-mining resources, and
by experiment showed that with proper machinery it
might yield a good profit. This has buoyed up the
hopes of the Tasmanians that their island has its
payable gold mines, and they look forward to renewed
prosperity from that source.

Meanwhile, Sir William Denison left the colony,
in 1854, and was succeeded by Sir Henry Young,
formerly governor of South Australia. In 1862,
Colonel Gore Brown, from New Zealand, was appointed
as his successor.

"Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown," is an old
adage peculiarly applicable to the post of Governor in
that colony. Throughout this narrative it has been
seen that the worst feature in its history has been
that tendency to party strife and animosity which has
so often prevailed. Those whose province it was to
aid and direct the humbler class of industrious colonists
in developing the resources of their adopted country,
rarely gave an helping hand. Energies and abilities
which might have been usefully employed have been
too frequently wasted in criticising the conduct of
the rulers.

In the face of these drawbacks, it is satisfactory to
find that Tasmania is again progressing, and developing
the natural advantages it possesses for the support of a
numerous and contented population. It has splendid
harbours for the extension of commerce and whale-
fisheries, rich indications of mineral wealth, and
facilities in the shape of fuel and water-power for the
establishment of manufactures which none of the
other colonies can equal. The latest published statisti-
cal returns for the year 1863 show that the imports
amounted in value to £902,940, being an increase of
£45,527 over the previous year; and the exports
reached £999,511, an increase of £79,862. There was
also a marked increase in the shipping, the entries
inwards amounting to 107,664 tons in 1862, and
117,681 in 1863; while the clearances outwards were
respectively 108,915 tons and 116,143. The stock of
sheep, 1,661,225 at the end of the previous year, was
returned as 1,800,811 at the close of 1863. Of the
lands under cultivation the total average had increased
from 253,050 acres to 267,173 acres. But no corre-
sponding increase appears in the population returns;
the great want was, and is, more people. The birth
rate of the year was nearly 3·3 per cent., and the death
rate only 1·5 per cent., but the estimated population
on the 31st December, 1863, was only 791 more than
on the 1st January, numbering 91,519. The gold
fields of the neighbouring colonies continued to attract
more to leave the island than the number of arrivals
could counterbalance, so that half the natural increase
of population was lost by the migration of the adults.
By the census of 1861 the religious division of the
inhabitants was as follows: — Church of England, 49,233; Church of Scotland, 6,616; Wesleyan Methodists, 6,169; other Protestants, 6,450; Roman Catholics, 19,454; Jews, 456. Although Tasmania cannot compete with its younger but more prosperous and powerful colony, Victoria, in the construction of railways, yet it possesses a most complete system of electric telegraphic communication from one end of the island to the other. At the cost of the colony a submarine telegraph cable was also laid, in 1859, across Bass Strait, but it was worked only a few months. The Tasmanians are united in intercourse with the Victorians, whose magnificent colony they were the first to develop, by carrying their live stock and experience to lay its foundations. A superstructure of prosperity has hence arisen whose rapidity is unexampled in the history of the world. In that prosperity and progress they must ultimately share. If Tasmania has made a less rapid advance than its sister colonies, it may look forward to a happy and prosperous future.
CHAPTER VI.

VICTORIA.


WHEN the account of the discovery of Bass Strait reached England, and the want of a proper boat for surveying purposes and making further discoveries was made known through the representations of Governor King, the chief Lord of the Admiralty, the Duke of Portland, directed Lieutenant James Grant to proceed in the Lady Nelson, an armed surveying vessel of sixty tons, to New South Wales. Much interest was excited
by the departure of such a small craft on so long a voyage; her commander, however, was an officer of skill, not only as a navigator but in the construction of boats; and his crew had great confidence in him. After a successful voyage of eight months and a half, which was considered a good passage in those days, she made the Australian coast on the 3rd December, 1800, at a point hitherto unknown. The first prominent objects Lieutenant Grant saw were two mountains, which he named Mount Gambier and Mount Schanck; and a conspicuous jut of land, Cape Northumberland, after the Duke of Northumberland, who then commanded the British army. These geographical features form the extreme southern boundary of South Australia. Sailing along the coast in an easterly direction, he named the headlands and bays as he passed along, such as Cape Bridgewater, Cape Nelson, Portland Bay, Lady Julia Percy Island, and Cape Otway. When he reached the height at the entrance to Port Phillip, he considered it to be a bay, so he named it Governor King's Bay, after the Governor of New South Wales. King Island, situated to the south of Cape Otway, was named after the same governor by the captain of the merchant ship Harbinger, the first trading vessel that sailed through Bass Strait.

After a fortnight's cruise on this flying survey, Lieutenant Grant sailed for Sydney, where the Lady Nelson was employed during the whole of 1801, in surveying more carefully the coast and harbours of New South Wales proper, from Cape Howe to Hunter River. This enterprising surveyor and discoverer of new headlands and bays in Australia has been completely overlooked in the accounts of the country, and yet he was the first who discovered the seaboard of
Victoria, which leads to its finest harbours and bounds the richest agricultural, pastoral, and gold regions of the whole island continent. It is, therefore, only an act of justice that the historian should record his name in the annals of discovery, especially as it is only recently that one island has been named after him, at the entrance to Port Western, previously named Phillip Island. Had he remained in the country he would have continued his maritime survey, and doubtless discovered the spacious harbour of Port Phillip, which was made by his successor in command of the *Lady Nelson*, Lieutenant John Murray, on the 10th January, 1802, just one month after the departure of Grant for England. On the report reaching Sydney of this further discovery of a harbour, even of greater extent than Port Jackson, Governor Philip Gidley King named it after his friend the first governor of New South Wales, Captain Arthur Phillip, and not after his own first Christian name, as some writers erroneously state. Hence the various spelling of this famous port, sometimes with one *l*, and at others with two. The latter mode is the correct orthography. These details may appear trivial, but they add interest to the early history of Victoria, by showing the accidental circumstances which prevented the development of her resources until a late period, and mark the general character of her annals.

At that time Matthew Flinders, late of H.M.S. *Reliance*, who had accompanied Dr. Bass in his circumnavigation of Tasmania, was promoted to be captain of H.M.S. *Investigator*, specially fitted out to make accurate surveys of the Australian coast, from which to construct sailing charts. Among the first published by that eminent hydrographer was one of
Collins Abandons Port Phillip.

Port Phillip harbour. He entered in his vessel between the Heads in March, 1802, and sounded the channels leading up to Hobson Bay and Geelong Harbour, where he ascended a granite mountain 1100 feet high, and named it Station Peak, upon the summit of which the surrounding country could be viewed for a circuit of forty miles. A chart with sailing directions for this new port was dispatched to the Admiralty without delay, and arrived in time to determine the Government in sending out the second nucleus of a penal colony, under command of Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, previously Judge-Advocate at Sydney, and the best historian of New South Wales up to that time. He arrived safely with his fleet of convict ships and anchored them within the eastern head of the harbour, as already stated (page 131), where the Calcutta and the Ocean, touched on the sand banks that form the channel on that side. This accident apparently prejudiced him against the harbour, and as the adjacent shore is the most barren part he could have landed upon, especially in the summer season when it is parched up by the hot blasts from the interior, he left this magnificent locality in disgust and settled on the Derwent in Tasmania. This was another of the accidents that turned the current of events in the future career of Victoria. Had Colonel Collins crossed to the western shore of the harbour, and examined the country pointed out by Flinders on his chart, in all probability he would have come upon the Barwon River and the richly grassed lands between it and Corio Bay, and founded a penal colony where the city of Geelong now stands; or if he had directed his explorations on the eastern shore, northwards up the harbour, instead of going in an easterly direction.
towards Port Western, a day's travel by boat and on foot would have brought him to the Yarra River at Melbourne, where, in all probability, he would have fixed his settlement. It is recorded that a party did sail to the head of the bay, and up what is called the Salt-water River, where that inlet becomes a cul-de-sac. They returned and reported that no fresh-water stream existed in that direction, having passed up and down without noticing that the Yarra River joins the other at right angles. These circumstances show on what trifling points the destiny of a new country hinges. Had either of these sites been reached, there can be no doubt that Collins would have landed his convicts and formed as large a penal settlement on the shores of Port Phillip as that on the heights of Port Jackson, and the subsequent history of strife and contention in Tasmania in all probability would have been enacted in Victoria. Even thirteen years after Collins abandoned Port Phillip there was still a chance of that colony becoming a penal settlement, for a party of soldiers, under the command of Captain Wright, of the New South Wales corps, landed at Port Western to reconnoitre for the foundation of a penal settlement, under the jurisdiction of Captain Weatherall, which was also abandoned, and with it all attempts on the part of Government to colonize Port Phillip.

It was reserved by Providence that the riches of that magnificent country should be gathered by the hands of free settlers, and that the wealth secured by their industry should furnish them with ample means to pay honest labour in developing its resources, without the aid of the Imperial Government or the felon-labourers from the mother country. This is the light in which the progress and prosperity of Victoria must be viewed
from the outset; there never was a penal settlement established within its boundaries, and its colonization was by private enterprise alone.

The first pioneer of the Australian wilderness, who penetrated through its park-like pasture lands to the shores of Port Phillip, was a native-born colonist, named Hamilton Hume. Being a good bushman, he found pleasure in exploring new tracts of country, and had offered his services to the Governor at Sydney to aid him in his praiseworthy efforts at opening up the colony. In repeated applications for the formation of a party he met with poor reception, and all the additional equipment he could get from the government consisted of a few pack-saddles. A Captain Hovell, hearing that Hume was in want of means, joined him, and equipped three men and horses, with two carts and horses, for an expedition to the south of the Murrumbidgee River, the furthest point explored in that direction.

On the 17th October, 1824, Hume and his party started from his station near Yass, and after much toil reached a large river which is now called the Murray, but which the colonists in early days named the Hume, and on some maps this name is still applied to the upper portion of that river, which may be considered the Mississippi of Australia. From thence he continued in a south-westerly direction, and travelled for two months through a finely watered region, of the most varied character, surpassing anything to be seen in the northern part of the colony. In his narrative he says,—"On the 17th December, we reached the shores of Port Phillip, and camped on the spot where the town of Geelong now stands." This exploring expedition is not mentioned in most accounts
of the country, as it was considered merely to be a squatter's journey in search of a new run for his stock. Compared with the exploits of other Australian explorers, Hume's journey may appear to some insignificant. But it must be borne in mind that the former were conducted by men of science, well equipped, and with instruments to guide them in their travels; while Hume, with his seven companions, and a cart containing a few bags of flour, a little tea and sugar, a tarpaulin and frying-pan, had no more science at his command than enabled him to steer by compass; yet he opened the way to the splendid province and pastures of the famed Australia Felix. Mitchell, Sturt, Leichhardt, Stuart, Burke and others, were great explorers, and their services can never be too much appreciated; but still, the native-born colonist was as successful with his exploration as the best of them, and may be allowed to stand in as honourable a position as his successors. In commemoration of his journey, a tablet has been erected by his fellow-colonists near the present town of Albany, at the spot where Hume crossed the Murray, into the territory of the now flourishing colony of Victoria. Subsequently, Captain Sturt and Major Mitchell followed on the track of this enterprising bushman, and many settlers pushed on with their flocks towards the banks of the Murray or Hume River; but none from the Sydney side attempted to go and settle on the distant pasture lands he had discovered around Port Phillip, because they were between 600 and 700 miles away from their base of operations.

In Hume's narrative of this first overland expedition to the shores of Port Phillip, he mentions an interview he had with the aborigines of Geelong, who seemed to
be familiar with the appearance of white men. They intimated by signs that they "had seen ships and sailors in a south-westerly direction, where they had landed on the coast, and were engaged in sawing timber, representing this by see-saw movements. They described the sailors, and vessels under sail, and made use of some English expressions." These ships proved to be whalers, which frequented the harbours on the coast for the purpose of obtaining wood and water. It was observed, also, that whales entered the bays at certain seasons, where the natives succeeded in capturing them. This suggested, to some enterprising owners of whale ships, the desirability of establishing a station for the whale fishery on the coast. Accordingly, in 1831, three gentlemen, named Henty, established a whaling station at Portland Bay, in connection with their extensive business as merchants at Launceston, Tasmania. This was the first bonâ fide settlement in the colony of Victoria; and, although it has not risen into importance, still it is the site of a pleasant town, named Portland.

By this time the accounts of the whaling crews who had visited these harbours dispelled the erroneous impression entertained for more than twenty years, that Port Phillip was a harbour without fresh water or pasture land. Consequently the graziers and sheep-farmers in Tasmania, whose flocks and herds had increased beyond their grazing lands, resolved on making a thorough exploration of the surrounding country. For this purpose an association was got up at Launceston, by an active newspaper editor and farmer, named John Pascoe Fawkner.

Meanwhile a bold adventurer and native-born colonist, named John Batman, sailed from Hobart
Town, arrived in Port Phillip harbour May, 1835, and landed on the western shore. Here he entered into a contract with the natives to cede a thousand square miles of territory for a few blankets and gew-gaws to be given to them every year. With this aboriginal conveyance of land he returned to Hobart Town, where he was joined in the enterprise by fifteen others, who sent over with him live stock and farming implements to take practical possession of this noble estate—which, if they had been allowed to retain in fee-simple, would have been worth many millions sterling. Of course, the government afterwards ignored the validity of Batman's enormous territorial claim, but compensated him with a grant of some town and country lots, and a sum of money. In like manner, Fawkner, who followed Batman in November of the same year, entered into a contract with the Yarra natives for a concession of their land, which the government did not recognise, but allowed a claim for compensation in land and money, as in Batman's case.

In these dealings between the pioneer settlers of Victoria and the aborigines, whom they looked upon as the rightful owners of the soil, it is worthy of remark, that however much they took advantage of their ignorance in the value of the land, they were always on the most friendly terms. This arose in a great measure from the circumstance that an Englishman had been living amongst the natives for thirty-two years, and hence they learned a good deal concerning white men, which disarmed them of that timidity or hostile feeling savages commonly entertain towards the white man at seeing him for the first time. This Englishman was a convict named Buckley, who, with three others, escaped from Colonel Collins' fleet of
transports when he abandoned the design of forming a penal settlement at Port Phillip, in 1803. He was the only survivor of the runaways, and a man of extraordinary stature, measuring six feet nine inches, but of weak intellect. The party, in effecting their escape, landed on the west shore, opposite to where Collins reconnoitered the country, and thus they discovered the Barwon River at Geelong, where they took up their abode among the Barrabool tribe of natives, located on the banks of that river. Here Buckley's comrades died, and he associated himself with that tribe, joining in all their fights against other tribes, and taking a black wife or two. One would suppose that any civilized man of ordinary activity of intellect, would have improved the occasion and taught these simple people how to improve their condition. Instead of doing so, or even retaining his position in the scale of civilization, he adopted their savage habits, and lived like the beasts of the field, until he virtually forgot that he had been born in the foremost country of the age. When he was rescued from this state of savage apathy, he had almost forgotten his mother tongue, and jabbered some incoherent sentences of English to those who first encountered him. He was clad in opossum and kangaroo skins, with spear, club, and boomerang, like his adopted countrymen, and like them, was covered with the dirt of years. This case is a melancholy instance of the depravity of human nature, notwithstanding the material advantages of a civilized birthright, when the individual is deficient in moral and religious principle. Those who conversed with him afterwards, describe his mental deficiencies as bordering on idiotcy, which is the only charitable way of accounting for his indolence and stupidity.
In contrast to the conduct of this European savage, there are many pleasing records of the benefits conferred by God-fearing men on the aborigines, showing that "godliness is profitable unto all things, having promise of the life that now is, and of that which is to come."

Among the pioneer settlers from Tasmania was a medical man named Thomson. On one occasion, while addressing a meeting in that town, upon his reminiscences of the early struggles of the colonists, he dwelt upon the friendly connection and intercourse which existed between the settlers and the aborigines. He said he should never forget the first Sunday he spent in Port Phillip, upon the banks of the Yarra River, where the city of Melbourne now stands, and which, in those days, was covered by a few huts and tents, which they called the "Settlement," in the absence of any proper name. He had twelve Sydney blacks with him, who had been domesticated for a long time in the family of Batman. He sent them round to give notice to all the white people in the settlement that he would conduct service at his tent at eleven o'clock. There was a very good muster. Almost every person in the settlement attended, and to his surprise, there were more blacks than whites. They came, quietly took their places and listened attentively to all that passed. Six weeks afterwards, the Rev. Mr. Arthur preached in this settlement. He was the first ordained minister that ever preached in Victoria. The blacks on that occasion again outnumbered the whites. The settlers commissioned Mr. Arthur to write to his society in London to send out two missionaries exclusively for the aborigines. Two gentlemen came out in due course, and for years devoted their energies towards the natives. The settlers contributed liberally to the expense of this establishment,
ARRIVAL OF THE FIRST SETTLERS.

which was continued as long as there was any prospect of success in the mission.

The accounts of the rich lands for culture and pasture in the vicinity of Port Phillip soon spread throughout New South Wales, as well as Tasmania, so that there were new settlers arriving overland, to get their share of the country. Fortunately, there was abundance of good land for all comers, and the nearest sites occupied by those who came overland were fifty miles apart from those who came by sea. Hence all that section of country from Geelong harbour to Portland Bay, back to the mountain ranges, was first taken up by “Vandemonians,” and the country north of the Yarra occupied by “Sydneyites,”—which were the colloquial names for these early settlers. A good deal of jealousy subsisted between the rival colonists, which might have brought them into collision, if their race in the field of colonization had been over the same tract of land, but, as already shown, they were wide apart. As it was, a good deal of altercation ensued as to the rights of the two old colonies over this embryo colony which had been planted by private enterprise. On the one hand, the Vandemonians claimed it by right of occupation and compact with the aboriginal lords of the soil; and on the other, the Sydneyites held it as a section of New South Wales, which had been explored by one of themselves eleven years before. These rival claims were not merely urged by the settlers, but the governors entertained similar views. Colonel Arthur endeavoured to annex the new territory to his jurisdiction in Tasmania, while Sir Richard Bourke pointed to his imperial instructions that gave him control over half the continent of Australia. Of course, the legal jurisdiction
lay in the hands of that energetic Governor of New South Wales, and he lost no time in issuing a proclamation to that effect, defining its boundaries, and designating the territory as the "District of Port Phillip," subject to the laws, and in every way a dependency of New South Wales. This was carried out by the arrival of Captain Lonsdale, with a small military detachment from Sydney, who assumed the position of chief magistrate of the district. Shortly afterwards, Governor Bourke visited the place with a surveyor, and fixed upon the sites of the chief towns—Melbourne, on the Yarra, named after the British premier of that day; and William Town, in honour of His Majesty King William IV. Geelong is a native name; but this town was named at first Coraiya, also aboriginal. These native names are very pretty and have a local significance, as Yarra, Yarra, means "flowing, flowing," from the perennial flow of the stream.

As these pioneer settlers drove their sheep and cattle into the pastures of this "Land of Grass," they were surprised at its luxuriance, and the extent of open forest land clothed with verdure. These again were intersected by the most refreshing streams, with here and there beautiful lakes and romantic waterfalls. But they had no time to spare in contemplating the poetry of nature in the wilderness. They had an eye to the useful more than the ornamental; those were deemed the most charming spots which furnished their worn out live stock with the best provender, after a long journey by land, or a stifling voyage by water. They were all experienced in the work of colonization, from having passed an apprenticeship in that art in the parent colonies. They were accustomed to the roughness of a bush life, and they
knew how to overcome those obstacles which the newly-arrived emigrant from the mother country could not accomplish without several years’ training. Moreover, their bases of operations were comparatively close at hand, and what had been forgotten at the outset could be easily obtained afterwards. Hence the country became occupied in a marvellously short time, compared with the tedious settlement of the first colonies from England.

In 1837, just two years after the Launceston party landed on the site of Melbourne, there were few spots of a suitable character for a “run,” as the grazing lands are termed, unoccupied within sixty miles of Port Phillip, and the live stock comprised 140,000 sheep, 2,500 cattle, and 150 horses, with a population of 450. As there was no authority to restrict the boundary of these runs, the settlers had to come to an understanding on that point, according to the number of sheep or cattle they possessed, and their estimated increase for three or four years. Of course, some were greedy and claimed more land than they could stock, so that they had to give up their surplus pastures to fresh comers. As they took possession of their runs by rule of thumb, and without the leave of any authority, they called themselves “squatters,” and their homesteads “stations,” after the backwoodsmen of America, who derive their title from the characteristic but not elegant phrase, “to squat” on the ground. Afterwards, when the government staff of officials was strong enough to carry out the regulations of New South Wales, these runs were defined, and their occupants received licences to depature live stock, by paying ten pounds for 4,000 sheep or 400 head of cattle, so that they were “grazier” tenants of the
crown, and "stockholders." But they preferred their own cognomen and have retained it to the present day; and, strange to say, the most aristocratic title a Victorian colonist aspires to is that of "squatter." "What's in a name," when we find the signification of this one reversed by change of location.

The system of sheep-farming introduced into Victoria by these pioneer squatters, was based upon the experience of the pasture and climate on the runs in New South Wales and Tasmania. Those from the former colony were accustomed to feed their flocks upon open plains, where the herbage was scanty, water scarce and uncertain, and subject to periodical visitations of desolating droughts that decimated their live stock. The Tasmanian settlers, on the other hand, were accustomed to a more humid climate, with a limited pasture in the valleys of a mountainous country, where the peaks are covered with snow in the winter. There is no animal so sensitive to these influences of climate and food as the sheep, and even the growth of its fleece is affected by them. The warm dry region produced a small carcass and light fleece, but of fine quality; while the cold humid region produced a coarser wool and larger breed of sheep. It was found after a few seasons' trial that the Port Phillip country combined the advantages of both climates, being favourable for the growth of an abundant and good staple, with a superior quality of mutton.

This section of south-eastern Australia,—so denominated from its compass-direction from the centre of the continent,—will be seen, on reference to the map, to have a larger area of riverine territory than any other. Throughout its longitudinal extent it is divided by the western continuation of the great Australian cordillera,
from which numerous streams have their source. The watershed passes through the rich lands to the southern shore, and on the other side slopes through equally fertile country to the river Murray, where the streams are intercepted, and the watershed is carried into the province of South Australia. At its eastern boundary the Australian Alps rise in all their majesty of snow-capped peaks, which not only moderates the temperature during the heats of summer, but, by the melting of the snow, affords a supply of water throughout that season to many streams which would otherwise be dried up. The great Southern Ocean beyond, throws up clouds of moisture which descend in abundant rains at all seasons; so that although the greatest rain-fall is in the winter months, there is no particularly dry season, for it is showery every month of the year as in England.

It is worthy of notice as conveying to the reader's mind some idea of the superficies of Victoria, that if a map of England be placed over one of the colony, on the same scale, they are nearly of the same shape and extent. From an intimate knowledge of the resources of the colony, it may be confidently affirmed that it is capable of supporting as large a population as England, with means and appliances at hand for the prosecution of every species of industry, even more abundantly, than the parent state possesses.

The enterprising squatters very soon discovered and appreciated the value of the runs in this new country, for the improvement and the increase of their sheep. Of these, the best breed and cleanest stock came overland, as the flocks that crossed the strait were in bad condition. Being huddled in the ship during the voyage, many of them were afflicted with
cutaneous disease, which became contagious, and caused the wool to fall off. Much loss and trouble were caused by this disease, but it was the only one the sheep were subject to, and remedies were applied which mitigated it, although it is not even yet thoroughly eradicated. Otherwise, circumstances were most favourable for rendering sheep-farming a most profitable pursuit in Port Phillip. Its advantages were put fully before the public of the United Kingdom. This attracted the attention of capitalists intending to emigrate to some of the British Colonies. Not the least of its advantages was the fact that sheep-farming in that genial clime did not require the intimate practical knowledge requisite in this country. Of the squatters who first occupied Port Phillip from the adjacent colonies, only a few were practically conversant with the method of breeding live stock in Europe, and they were not the most successful. To a certain extent, it was against them if they pursued this costly and unnecessary system in Australia. At home the flocks are small, and graze either on fields fenced in, or are followed over the downs of England, and the hills and valleys of Wales and Scotland, with a shepherd to every one or two hundred, who has much care and anxiety at the lambing and shearing seasons. There, sheep graze on the plains or open forest lands in flocks, numbering not less than 500, and frequently as many as 1000 up to 1500. The lambs are dropped in warm weather, as the ewes are feeding in the wilderness, without fear of dying from cold, while the fleeces are clipped at a season that requires no one to "temper the wind to the shorn lamb." The only danger to be apprehended was from the attacks of the wild dogs or *dingoes* of Australia, which necessitated the flocks being
surrounded by hurdles at night, to form a temporary sheepfold; beside which the hut-keeper slept in a watch-box with a loaded musket, ready to turn out and shoot this voracious nocturnal visitor. In time, these have been hunted down and destroyed, so that they have disappeared from the old settled districts.

So different, therefore, was the occupation of sheep-farming in Port Phillip from what it was at home, that gentlemen with means, or educated for the learned professions, but having no occupation, were induced to try their fortunes in this new pursuit. Of course they did not venture blindfold into it, but read up all sorts of books upon the ovine and bovine races of animals, and on arrival in the colony, many spent a short apprenticeship on the stations formed by the early settlers. Here the "new-comers," as they were called, found a class of colonial gentlemen much like themselves, as they chiefly consisted of the sons of the retired naval and military officers in Tasmania, or the bankers and merchants of New South Wales. Consequently, though the Victorian squatters are, strictly speaking, the graziers of the country, still they are very different in their antecedents from the same class in this country; for, as a body, they may be considered gentlemen of good education, many of them having previously practised the liberal professions. Compared with the English graziers, they are more like amateur wool-growers and cattle-breeders: few, if any, ever bred a lamb or a calf until they set foot in Australia. The majority of them have been private gentlemen, doctors, lawyers, bankers, merchants, retired military and naval officers or their sons, who have invested capital in sheep and cattle, as a means of obtaining good interest for the money employed, by selling the
annual crop of wool; besides filling up their time by a not unpleasing pursuit, and living a life of freedom and independence. Hence, in society the squatters and their families are, as before observed, ranked among the first class of colonists.

As these immigrant capitalists from the mother country arrived, they became eager purchasers of sheep and cattle, so that their value rapidly rose in price. As the natural increase was not sufficient to supply the demand, all the available stock was driven over-land from the Sydney side, or conveyed across from Launceston. A pastoral mania seemed to possess all corners to the shores of Port Phillip, up to 1841; at that time it presented an aspect of colonizing adventure second only to the gold mania that followed ten years afterwards. Even at this period the “settlement” at Melbourne had grown into a considerable town, for the business consequent on the pastoral occupation of the country was transacted there. Sheep which were valued at from three to five shillings in the old colonies, were sold at thirty, forty, and sometimes as high as fifty shillings. Cattle, in the same manner, valued at fifteen shillings to a pound per head, rose to twelve and fifteen pounds; while a horse of ten pounds value would fetch from eighty to a hundred pounds. In like manner all kinds of provisions required at the stations rose in proportion—flour from fifteen pounds to eighty pounds per ton, tea from three pounds to eighteen pounds per chest, sugar from threepence to one shilling per pound, and the ordinary two-pound loaf from sixpence to one shilling and ninepence. So that the cost of maintaining the people necessary for conducting these pastoral establishments became a heavy item
on the debit column of the profit and loss returns. This was further augmented by the demands of the shepherds, stockmen, hut-keepers, and bullock-drivers, for double and in many cases treble their former rates of wages, and even then there was a scarcity of hands. It will be concluded, therefore, that these pioneer settlers of the now flourishing colony of Victoria had much to contend with in their early struggles.

During this rapid advance of the value of stock and stations in the interior, Melbourne and the surrounding country participated in the run of prosperity by the increased value of the land. After the plan of the town was laid out, and the streets surveyed, the first sale of allotments took place in Sydney, at the upset price of thirty-seven pounds ten shillings per half acre, many of which were bought at that sum, and the others at a trilling advance, where situated on an eligible frontage to a main street or on the river bank. In 1837, a sale of the remaining lots took place in Melbourne, at upset prices of £150 to £300, most of them realizing double and treble these sums. Then set in a land mania far more speculative and exciting than the pastoral fever. Although the community was not more numerous than that of an English village, the bustle and excitement was equal to that of a considerable town on the days when any large sale of land took place by auction in the open air or under a spacious marquee. Thus, a class of land-jobbers and land-auctioneers grew up that formed a marked feature of the time. It exists to this day in all the towns of Victoria, although it is not so prominent in society. As an illustration of this phase in colonial life, it will be interesting to peruse the following extract from an advertisement in the Port Phillip Patriot, the first newspaper started there,
wherein an auctioneer, who affected the grandiloquent style of the famous George Robins, announced to the public that he would sell a suburban allotment of land on December 31st, 1839:—

"'Is Melbourne likely to become a place of great importance?' was a question put the other day by a gentleman recently arrived from India, to an intelligent townsman. The answer was, 'My friend, three years ago, the allotments on which we now stand were purchased for forty pounds each; three months since, they were sold by public auction for TEN THOUSAND POUNDS. Six months ago, the first merchant ship from Britain dropped anchor in Hobson Bay; at this moment twenty square-rigged vessels, besides smaller craft, are riding in the bay. Two years since, the population of Melbourne did not exceed 300, and now it numbers more than 3000. Looking to the surrounding country, who can speak in sober praise? Behold the beautiful banks of the Yarra, the Salt-water River, the country on the Moonee Moonee Ponds, possessing virgin soil of the best quality, capable of producing food for a numerous population, of which Melbourne must be the emporium.' For the benefit of newly arrived emigrants, and for the consideration of the inhabitants of Melbourne generally, Mr. —— has deemed it advisable to make these remarks, having been directed to submit 'Suburban Allotment No. 24' to public competition by auction. Its commanding views, its gentle undulating fertile grounds, ornamental trees, and delightful south-easterly exposure, all—all combine to make it such that oft 'We cannot hope to look upon its like again.' Gentlemen who prefer riding to walking, shall be accommodated with seats in carriages, which will start
from Mr. ——'s auction rooms at eleven o'clock precisely, and upon arrival at the ground can refresh themselves with the choicest wine and a splendid déjeuner."

On these occasions, the concluding invitation was generally liberally responded to by the bidders before the sale commenced, so that competition was lively, and after the sale the auctioneer himself quaffed many a glass of champagne with the purchasers, sometimes becoming oblivious of the day's proceedings, until the reckoning of the morrow.

In this irregular manner the district of Port Phillip progressed with astonishing rapidity, without any settled plan of colonization, or the fostering care of government. In fact the connection with New South Wales and its administration tended to retard its progress, as all the money derived from the land sales was merged into the general treasury at Sydney, without an equivalent being given in the shape of expenditure on roads, bridges, and other public works. For many years after its foundation, the chief streets of Melbourne had the giant gum-trees of the forest still standing in them, they were without gutter or pavement, the rains rushed down them with such velocity that they were converted into temporary rivers; belated people were occasionally drowned in the dark unlighted thoroughfares. The roads through the interior were not much better, and the tracks over the rich lands were utterly impassable at times for wheeled vehicles, so that the drays of the squatters taking up supplies to the stations, and returning with wool, would be frequently three months on the way from Melbourne to the Murray River, a distance which may be done by railway at the present day in three hours. Notwithstanding these drawbacks, and the neglect of
the parent colony, the free colonists overcame all obstacles, and prospered in a manner unknown in the penal settlements, though established under careful supervision and receiving help in men and money from the mother country.

However, as the population increased, the Sydney Government deemed it necessary to appoint a representative with more extended powers, and a larger official staff than a police magistrate and a few clerks. Accordingly, Charles Joseph Latrobe, a gentleman of Canadian descent, and favourably known as an author of books of travel, arrived in 1838, as Superintendent of the district. In his private capacity he was a good and amiable man, much respected by all who knew him personally, but he was thought deficient in administrative talent. This was excusable in the early days of the colony, as his functions were prescribed by the Governor of New South Wales, to whom the most trifling transaction must be referred for his sanction before being allowed; so that Latrobe had no independent executive or legislative power. But even those who most severely censure his administration admit that his faults were those of omission and not of commission. That he was a good servant of the Government is shown by the length of time he held the reins of power in Victoria. But as far as the advancement of the colony was concerned, he is not generally considered to have been entitled to much credit.

This absence of a fostering care for the embryo colony, on the part of the local or home governments, was not much felt so long as the colonists individually were prospering. But adversity came upon them in 1841, and continued for several years afterwards, to
an extent which required all the assistance a liberal Government could bestow, to prevent a general collapse from which the colony might not recover. In the year above mentioned, the rapid rise in the value of land and live-stock reached its culminating point: a depreciation in the value of all these kinds of property then set in and prices fell with greater rapidity than they had risen. The land speculators, who had sold on credit for bills at long dates, found that their profits were merely nominal, and although choice building-lots maintained a fair price, yet where these were not situated favourably, or the soil was indifferent for cultivation, they were worth little more than the original upset price, and even unsaleable at that. In like manner, sheep, cattle, and horses returned to the valuation of the first importations from the neighbouring colonies. The capabilities of the country for grazing purposes proved the very cause of their depreciation in the market. So rapid was the increase, that the squatters' runs became overstocked, as there was not sufficient population to consume the surplus, or new runs to be had for establishing new stations. These pioneer settlers became embarrased by the richness of the country.

In this dilemma it occurred to some who were more shrewd than others to boil down their surplus stock for the sake of the tallow, hides, horns, and fleeces. This simple expedient arrested the downward progress of live-stock, which had reached the low valuation, in the sale of flocks and herds by auction, of two shillings and sixpence each for sheep, and twelve shillings for cattle. Under the new process these prices were respectively raised to six shillings and thirty shillings, and for many years these were the ruling rates for selling large
numbers. Breeders now paid as much attention to
the fattening of stock as to the growth of wool, which
also had declined in the market from two shillings per
pound, to one shilling and sixpence, for clean washed
of best quality. "Boiling-down establishments," as they
were termed, for rendering the tallow on a large scale,
became a new and profitable occupation for the colonists,
many of which had steam power, with boilers capable
of holding the carcasses of four hundred sheep, or forty
head of cattle, cut up and denuded of their extremities
and offal. As the legs contained little or no fat, these
were sold to the butchers, who retailed rump-steaks at
a penny a pound, and gigots of mutton, weighing eight
to ten pounds, at sixpence a-piece.

This abundance and cheapness of animal food caused
it to be consumed in large quantities. Though prices
are not so low at the present day, this is still charac-
teristic of the style of living among the colonists. At
three meals a day, breakfast, luncheon, and dinner—
suppers are rarely indulged in—meat is eaten by men,
women, and children. A robust man will eat from
half a pound to three-quarters at each meal. Such
heavy meals of animal food could not be indulged in
with impunity in any country but Australia, where it
has no bad effect on a sound constitution. On the
contrary, it is beneficial, and seems to be necessary for
its support, where the climate is of that peculiar cha-
racter that makes great and exhausting demands on
the system. From whatever cause this may arise—
whether from a larger proportion of oxygen and
carbonic acid gas in the atmosphere—has not yet
been determined; however, the dry and salubrious air
breathed in that region, gives persons such an appetite
for animal food as they would seldom feel anywhere
else. The lamp of life seems to require replenishing from this source more than from vegetation, as it burns quickly in that sunny land.

The buoyant atmosphere and salubrious climate had a beneficial effect, in those days of adversity, upon the hardy bushmen, who roamed through the fine pasture lands; and notwithstanding the gloomy prospects of sheep and cattle-breeding, none of them desponded. Under these genial influences they saw their flocks increase; and, from the open nature of the country, they were kept larger on their runs than in those of the older colonies. The general plan of a sheep-run may be described thus:—About its most central part, (provided there is a good soil and a convenient supply of wood and water,) the homestead is built. From this, at distances of five or six miles, and about the same apart from each other, out-stations are placed, where two shepherds and a hut-keeper reside, who have the charge of two flocks, each consisting of twelve or fifteen hundred sheep. The business of the shepherd is to proceed with his flock every day, soon after sunrise, to the feeding-ground pointed out to him by the overseer, with injunctions to let them feed at their leisure, and be well spread over the ground. Before noon they travel in this manner a distance of four or five miles, when they are brought to rest under the shade of some trees. This gives the shepherd an opportunity of eating his dinner, which he carries in his wallet, making tea, and eating damper and mutton in the usual bush fashion. After an hour or so, he resumes his task, rousing the sheep with the aid of his dog, and returning to the out-station by a different route, contriving to reach it before sunset, and watering his sheep on the way. On his arrival, he meets his fellow-shepherd
similarly engaged. Each then drives his flock into a yard of hurdles—which the hut-keeper shifts daily during their absence—sometimes counting the sheep, to see if any are missing, for which the shepherds are held responsible. These men have a weekly ration allowed them of ten pounds of meat, ten pounds of flour, two pounds of sugar, and a quarter of a pound of tea, with an annual wage of twenty pounds to thirty pounds, varying according to circumstances. The duties of a hut-keeper are less important, and his wages are from three pounds to five pounds less, but with the same ration of food. In the morning he cooks breakfast for all hands, and after the shepherds depart, he sweeps out the yards, if fixed, or shifts the hurdles, if moveable. This over, he puts on his meat to boil, and bakes a damper. Sometimes the shepherds manage to come home to dinner. By the time the flocks return in the evening he has everything snug, and supper ready for the shepherds; who, after the sheep are safe in the yards, are supposed to resign the charge of them to the hut-keeper, as watchman for the night, to guard the sheep from the attacks of the native dogs. For this purpose he is armed with a musket, and sleeps in a moveable watch-box close by the sheep-yard. When the morning sun peeps out, he gets up, lights a fire, awakes his companions, and makes breakfast as before. When the shepherds are married, one of the wives often acts as hut-keeper. In this manner, the 20,000,000 of sheep in Australia are reared. Nearly one-half of the whole number are grazing on the pasture lands of Victoria. The number on each run varies according to the extent and richness of pasture, and rarely exceeds 30,000, or is less than 10,000. In some cases, where the run admits of very large flocks, the cost of
AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

management is not much more for maintaining the larger than the lesser number. As a rule, it does not pay to farm sheep on a small scale in Australia. Some wealthy squatters have several runs of cattle as well as sheep. A few have been known in this way to possess from 100,000 to 150,000 sheep, valued at twenty-five shillings a head, and others 5000 or 6000 head of cattle at ten pounds per head.

Besides its pastoral resources, this favoured region is rich in arable lands, where, on the banks of rivers and in fertile valleys, extensive areas of virgin soil are found from five to twenty feet deep. While the spirit of speculation in buying land existed, very few settlers took the trouble to ascertain its productive powers, and for many years the community was dependent upon Tasmania for their chief supplies of grain and potatoes. The season of adversity caused them to turn their attention to cultivation, and herein they reaped the reward of their industry from a generous soil and climate, that yielded from twenty to thirty bushels of wheat to the acre. These returns soon rendered the colony independent of imported bread-stuffs. In like manner, others turned their attention to dairy produce, and the articles of cheese and butter soon disappeared from the import list. The production of every description of garden produce and fruit speedily followed, until the people were in a condition of self-dependence for food. This is the true system of colonization, nay, of national prosperity, all over the world. No nation can be prosperous that does not produce the food of its inhabitants, or an equivalent saleable in a foreign market to pay for the same. Thus, while the speculative land and live-stock jobbers raised these to a fictitious price, it was merely
a nominal value, confined to the limits of the colony. When these dealings were abandoned for legitimate and industrial pursuits, the season of adversity soon passed away, and the prospects of the colony were as bright, and certainly of a more substantial character than they had been in the palmiest days of the first settlement.

Under these favourable circumstances the colonists in town and country pursued the even tenor of their way, each year increasing in numbers and material prosperity. For ten years its march in the path of colonization was steady and progressive, until the humble dependency of New South Wales grew into the colony of Victoria—so named after our beloved Queen. The reader will best understand this material progress by a comparison of the statistics at these periods. In 1841 the total number of inhabitants, exclusive of aborigines, was 11,738. This was increased in 1846 to 32,879, and on the 2nd March, 1851, to 77,345. The proportions of the sexes at these periods were as follow:—For every 100 females there were, in 1841, 239 males; in 1846, 159 males; and in 1851, 148 males—showing a return to the comforts of a home and family life, in which the presence of woman is indispensable. The disparity between the sexes has always been, and still is, the chief drawback in the social progress of the Australian colonies. Hence the governments there vote large sums of money to pay the passages out of families with a certain proportion of females and single women, a fact which cannot be too widely known for the benefit of all concerned.

In consequence of the returns of live-stock for 1841 being included in those of New South Wales, we cannot
RAPID INCREASE OF LIVE-STOCK.

give trustworthy statistics under this head. But the enormous and rapid increase will be seen by comparing the returns of 1851 with the estimate, in round numbers, made in 1837—a period of fourteen years. In the latter year there were as follows:—Horses, 150; cattle, 2500; and sheep, 140,000. On the first January, 1851—Horses, 21,219; cattle, 378,806; pigs, 9,260; and sheep, 6,032,783. A curious fact may be pointed out here, that whereas the greater portion of the sheep and cattle in the early days were imported from Tasmania, this young offshoot from that colony actually exported part of its surplus stock back to the parent fold. In 1851 these numbered 69,224 sheep and 6,281 cattle. For the twelve months preceding the 1st of January of the same year, the wool exported to England weighed 18,091,207 lbs.; tallow, 4489 tons; salted beef, 975 tons; and gold, nil.

At this day, knowing the extraordinary revolution in these items on the export list of the colony, it is interesting to contemplate its condition on the eve of the gold discovery. Here was a plethora of food for the limited population, who literally ran the surplus to waste out of the boiling pots; all the refuse meat and its nourishing juices being thrown on the land and into the rivers. It was a waste of God's mercies that food should be so disposed of, when the starving population of the mother country would have been so glad to get it. At this rate of increase the evil would, in a few years, have reached such gigantic proportions that the settlers would have been obliged to stop breeding sheep and cattle altogether. They urgently called across the vast world of waters for emigrants to come and help them to eat of their abundance: but the call was only feebly responded to. If
the hungry mouths in the manufacturing districts of England had been within easy reach, it would have been an immense relief to them to purchase animal food at a cheap rate, while the exchange would have been scarcely less profitable to the seller. So scarce was the metallic currency of the realm in that distant part of Her Majesty's dominions that a gold sovereign was rarely seen in the towns, and in the country even a penny or a shilling was a curiosity. The squatters conducted their business transactions with the merchants by a system of cash orders that completely superseded the use of coin, while the banks issued notes by which the heavy dealings in the towns were settled. How strange! while all this time untold gold lay under the pastures over which their sheep and cattle grazed, and these were destined to be food for the hungry immigrants who would come to dig it up. So that it was ordained, if the plethora of food did not go to the mouths, the mouths came to the food.

Another remarkable circumstance that happened on the eve of the gold discovery in Victoria, was the separation of the district from New South Wales, and its erection into an independent province of Great Britain, with a Lieutenant-Governor, Executive Council, and Legislative Chambers. This event took place on the first day of July, 1851, to the great joy of the colonists, who were almost in open rebellion against the government of the older colony. Hitherto, the measure of political self-government accorded to the district was of the most meagre description, while the proceeds of the land sales, as previously noticed, flowed into the Sydney treasury. It was represented in the parliament held in that city by six members, who were obliged to live half the year six hundred
miles away from Melbourne. This, combined with the small minority they formed in the House of Assembly, prevented local candidates standing for the constituency, and members were elected from New South Wales, who therefore could feel but little sympathy for the grievances of the Port Phillipians. So feeble was the representation of this constituency that, on several occasions, they elected men who could not attend at all, and turned the elections into a farce by voting for the Duke of Wellington and Earl Grey. Very earnestly they petitioned the Queen and her ministers to grant them separation from the old colony. The prayer was acceded to, but not until the finances of the district had suffered much depletion from the sale of 365,543 acres of land up to the 30th June, 1851.

Notwithstanding this, the colony was in a flourishing condition, as illustrated by the external commerce in that year, which amounted to £1,056,437 of imports, and £1,422,909 of exports, or £366,472 in favour of the balance of trade. The shipping inwards numbered 669 square-rigged vessels, having 126,411 aggregate tonnage. The total revenue amounted to £379,824, and there were three banks with a circulation of £180,058; specie, £310,724, and deposits, £822,254. The valuation of Melbourne at this time was set down at £174,723. The streets were being paved and kerbed, and the city was under the active control of a mayor and corporation. Moreover, Geelong on the bay, and Williamstown, had progressed considerably, while numerous towns were scattered over the interior, each with its municipality. Altogether, Victoria, on the eve of the gold discovery, was in a flourishing condition, and if that event had never
happened, there is no doubt but that her progress would have continued to surpass that of all the other Australian colonies.

When the announcement of the discovery of gold in the Bathurst district reached the inhabitants of the newly formed colony, about a month before the formal ceremony of naming it and swearing-in the Lieutenant-Governor and his Executive Council, a feeling of chagrin was felt by some at the "luck" of the elder colony, while the public mind generally became unsettled, as the glowing accounts reached them from time to time. It so happened that it was the winter season, when the roads, at that time, were unsuited for travelling so great a distance. This prevented the labouring classes undertaking the journey by land. A good many, however, went by sea to Sydney, and from thence travelled to Bathurst, so that a marked and immediate effect took place in the labour market and the prices of provisions. There followed a general preparation amongst the male adults, especially of the labouring classes, to start in the spring-time, which begins there in August, for this Australian El Dorado. Landholders and house-proprietors in Melbourne and Geelong, anticipated upon ruin at the departure of the inhabitants, and a sudden depreciation in property took place. In the country, stockholders and farmers were likewise affected by the threatened departure of the bone and sinew, on which the prosperity of their farms and stations depended, and an immediate rise took place in the rates of wages. Therefore, while hopes of the adventurers were buoyant, the prospects of the proprietors, who were obliged to remain behind, were of the most gloomy character.

At this juncture, some shrewd colonists calculated
that it was just possible that gold existed in Victoria as abundantly as in New South Wales, the geological formation of the rocks being precisely the same. Moreover, some three years previously, an Italian jeweller had bought in Melbourne a mass of gold, weighing upwards of thirty ounces, which he stated had been found at a station near Mount Buninyong, seventy miles to the west of Melbourne, by a sailor lad who was a shepherd there. Other shepherds had picked up small grains also in the same district, so that the report of a gold-field having been discovered in the colony got wind; and as it was shortly after the discovery of gold in California, there existed a predisposition to believe in the fact. Consequently, a large number of persons went to Buninyong, but as the jeweller had no exact information of the locality, and the young sailor had apparently left the colony, their adventure was fruitless. After two or three months' scraping around the flanks of the mountain, they returned to their homes disappointed. Now, however, that the fact of large auriferous deposits having been found in Australia was unquestionable, renewed search was made in the neighbourhood of Buninyong, and this time with success, in the world-famed gold fields of Ballarat, (or Bal-lärat, as it should be pronounced after the native name,) which, at that time, was a sheep-station. Almost simultaneously with this discovery—within the second week of August, 1851—and by separate gold-seekers, deposits were found at Anderson Creek, sixteen miles from Melbourne, and at the Clunes station on the Loddon river, about a hundred miles to the north-west of the city, over the range that divides the north and south shed of waters. Thus did it happen, that within the short space of
three months, the district of Port Phillip—hitherto a
dependency of a dependency—became the independent
Colony of Victoria, with its own Governor and Council;
and its growth into a nation was greatly accelerated
by the discovery of its gold-fields.

As day by day news arrived that these deposits
equalled, if they did not surpass in richness, those
found near Bathurst, the colonists at first were struck
dumb with amazement at their good fortune, which
was followed by a state of excitement and turmoil in
Melbourne and Geelong that eclipsed all that had
happened in Sydney. Those who had prepared to
start for Bathurst, were now the first to be off to
Ballarat and their own diggings. Many having taken
passages to Sydney, forfeited their deposit money, and
even some who had landed there returned to Melbourne.
No account of the state of the colony at this eventful
period of its history, can equal that of the Governor,
who has described every phase of society in the most
graphic manner, in a voluminous dispatch, with enclo-
sures, to Earl Grey, dated October 10, 1851, from
which the following is an extract:—“It is quite im-
possible for me to describe to your lordship the effect
which these discoveries have had upon the whole com-
_unity, and the influences which their consequences
exercise at this time upon the position of everyone,
high and low. The discoveries within our own bounds,
coming as they do at the close of the wet season, in
localities in comparative proximity to our towns, ex-
ercise a far wider influence upon our excitable popu-
lation, than did the discoveries of New South Wales
upon that colony, under the advantages of a larger
population, and the greater remoteness of the gold-field.
Within the last three weeks the towns of Melbourne
and Geelong, and their large suburbs have been in appearance almost emptied of many classes of their male inhabitants, the streets, which for a week or ten days were crowded by drays loading with the outfit for the workings, are now seemingly deserted. Not only have the idlers, to be found in every community, and day labourers in the town and the adjacent country, shopmen, artisans, and mechanics of every description, thrown up their employments, and in most cases, leaving their employers and their wives and families to take care of themselves, run off to the workings, but responsible tradesmen, farmers, clerks of every grade, and not a few of the superior classes have followed; some, unable to withstand the mania and force of the stream, or because they were really disposed to venture time and money on the chance; but others, because they were, as employers of labour, left in the lurch and had no other alternative. Cottages are deserted, houses to let, business is at a stand-still, and even schools are closed. In some of the suburbs not a man is left, and the women are known for self-protection to forget neighbours' jars, and to group together to keep house. The ships in the harbour are in a great measure deserted, and we hear of instances where not only farmers but respectable agriculturists have found that the only way, as those employed by them deserted, was to leave their farms, join them, and form a band, and go shares; but even masters of vessels, foreseeing the impossibility of maintaining any control over their men otherwise, have made up parties among them to do the same. Fortunate the family, whatever its position, which retains its servants at any sacrifice, and can further secure the supplies for their households from the few tradesmen who remain, and
retain the means of supplying their customers at any augmentation of price. Drained of its labouring population, the price of provisions in the towns is naturally on the increase, for although there may be an abundant supply within reach, there are not sufficient hands to turn it to account. Both here and at Geelong, all buildings and contract works, public and private, almost without exception, are at a stand-still. No contract can be insisted upon under the circumstances.

"In the country your lordship will easily conceive that viewing the season at which these circumstances have occurred, and the agricultural and, particularly, the pastoral interests at stake, that this is the commencement of the shearing season, and that shortly the harvest will call for labour, great embarrassment and anxiety prevails. Convinced as I am that a reaction must very shortly take place, I cannot but be alive to the difficulty and anxiety under which all are labouring, and should have been glad if it had been in any measure in the power of the government to alleviate it. Some would wish to see the government decline to sanction the issue of gold licences, and to forbid the working, at this season of the year, till the shearing and harvest are over. Your lordship may, however, readily conceive that, if really held expedient, it would be quite impossible to withstand such a general popular movement, excited by such a cause, by any practicable measures whatever. There is but one way, and that is, to let the current spend itself; and, meanwhile, see that, as far as possible, it is kept within proper bounds."

Weeks and months rolled on, and still the quantities of gold, dug out of the alluvial soil and broken from the quartz-matrix, increased, while new fields were opening up to the astonished eyes of the diggers. In
the neighbourhood of Mount Alexander, situated to the north-west of Melbourne, distant about seventy miles, an area of many thousand acres was found more or less impregnated with deposits; and the discoverers were enriched with "nuggets" (i.e. large pieces of gold) of clean solid metal, weighing hundreds of ounces; so that a temporary exodus took place from Ballarat. When the news reached those who had migrated to Bathurst, most of them returned to the colony where their interests were centred; large numbers of New South Wales diggers abandoned the workings in that colony and travelled to Victoria, where the yield was richer to the experienced miner. We have already alluded to the emigration from Tasmania to this attractive region. In like manner, the gold mania spread to South Australia, Western Australia, and New Zealand. There were daily arrivals overland from the first-named colony, and by sea from the others. Even California could no longer lay claim to the first place in auriferous production, and numbers of miners left the diggings in that country for Australia. The gold discovery agitated the subjects of the Celestial Empire about Hong Kong and Canton, so much that the ships that brought tea to the colony added their quota of Chinese adventurers. This ultimately increased to considerable emigration from thence—to add to the motley population on the gold fields. From these sources the community, in twelve months after the date of the gold discovery in Victoria, had received an accession of about 65,000 to its numbers.

Up to September, 1852, very few emigrants from the United Kingdom had arrived, beyond the usual immigration. It took nine months to inform and convince the British public of the great fact that
Victoria was the richest gold region in the world, and to induce the adventurous to risk their fortunes at her diggings. By that time, ship after ship had arrived in England from Port Phillip, with its gold freight of £30,000, £50,000, and even £100,000. Then a thirst for the coveted metal seized all classes of the people, as it had done in the colonies. A tide of emigrants set in from all parts of the three kingdoms to the great shipping ports of London and Liverpool. The energies of ship-owners and agents failed to find sufficient accommodation for applicants. A better idea of the emigration to Australia at this time cannot be given than that which the following extract from The Times of August 9, 1852, conveys:—"Notwithstanding the thousands of 'fortune seekers' who have sailed during the last few months for the 'golden regions' of Australia, from the ports of London, Liverpool, Glasgow, &c., the tide of emigration does not appear to have much subsided, as from thirty to forty first-class ships, varying from 500 to 2000 tons, are entered to sail during the present month from London, Plymouth, or Liverpool, for Melbourne, Geelong, Adelaide, and Sydney. The greatest activity prevails in the St. Katharine, London, and West and East India Docks, in fitting up the vessels for the accommodation of the adventurers. The following are the names of the ships that leave the port of London this and the next week:—For Port Phillip, Victoria: the South Sea, 2000 tons; Waterloo, 900; Atalanta, 1300; Moselle, 1200; Gloriana, 1200; Bru, 1050; Velore, 1100; Wandsworth, 896; Countess of Elgin, 1200; Ballarat, 1100; Blackwall, 1000; Prince Alfred, 1400; Cornelius, 850; Hyderabad, 850; Windermere, 850; Prince of Wales, 850; Victory, 800; Louise, 800;
EMISSION FROM GREAT BRITAIN.

Bloronge, 800; Tulloch Castle, 800; Syria, 800; British Isle, 800; Galway Ark, 800; Duke of Norfolk, 800; Eliza, 800; Enchanter, 800; Brightman, 600; Sir Walter Raleigh, 600; Beulah, 500; and Sea Park, 835. For Sydney, New South Wales: Catherine Jamieson, 1100; Robert, 950; Hermione, 830; Sarah Metcalfe, 800; Hydaspes, 700; and Washington Irving, 600. The Australian Steam Screw Navigation Company's packet Formosa, sailed from Southampton on Saturday last. The following are a few of the principal vessels to sail from Liverpool: Una, 1500; Orestes, 1100; Eldorado, 2000; Ben Nevis, 3000; South Sea, 1800; Great Britain, iron screw-steamer, of 3500 tons and 500 horsepower, with berths for 1000 passengers; and the Sarah Sands, steamer of 1300 tons; besides several others. So great is the emigration enterprise, that a considerable number of clerks who had excellent situations in the Bank of England, South-Sea House, East India House, the Post Office, Customs and Excise, banking houses, merchants' counting houses, solicitors' offices, &c., have resigned and set off to 'the diggings.'

This magnificent fleet of forty-five merchantmen, making an aggregate of fifty thousand tons, sailing within a fortnight, with not less than fifteen thousand passengers bound for Australia, each of whom paid an average passage-money of twenty-pounds, or a total of £300,000, is unparalleled in the annals of shipping. Nineteen-twentieths of these emigrants were males, and a considerable proportion of them married men who had left their wives and families behind, with a view to make money and send it home for them to pay their passages out. The first of the remittances sent for this purpose show that a hundred and thirty-six
persons could afford nearly £3000 from their earnings after a few months' residence. On the other hand, many were unsuccessful, and at one period it was calculated that upwards of eleven thousand wives and families so forsaken received out-door relief from their parish funds. Many also were left destitute in the world from the death or desertion of their protectors on arriving in the colony. These evils, however, were only transient and small in proportion to the benefits resulting to the community at large; for so great a migration had the effect of improving the wages and salaries of those who were left behind.

The first batch of British gold-seekers arrived in Hobson Bay (the port of Melbourne in the extensive harbour of Port Phillip), during the month of September, 1852. It augmented the arrivals of the previous month from 6552 to 15,855. This increased to 19,162 in October; after which the number fell off to 10,947 in November, and rose in December to 14,255, making a total of 60,219 arrivals. There were 15,621 departures, however, to be deducted from these numbers, giving an accession to the population of 44,598, being at the average rate of 2623 per week, or 375 daily. Although the number slackened at times during the following year, yet this average gives a fair criterion of the influx of people into Victoria during the early days of the gold discovery. As a natural consequence, on the arrival at Melbourne of such a concourse of people, where the house accommodation was barely sufficient for the settled population, a state of privation and social anarchy was produced which no pen can describe. In reviewing the material progress of Melbourne before the advent of the gold discovery, we have drawn a favourable and
true picture of its material resources, public and private, but that was in view of its gradual development as the out-port of a pastoral colony. The new era of gold had entirely changed that state of things. It withdrew the greater part of the male population from their homes. This though it made temporary room for a portion of the newly-arrived immigrants, yet disorganized the whole fabric of commerce. Even facilities for traffic were no longer afforded. The mass of the English immigrants being unused to the rough life they were entering upon, it is not surprising that great privations and much distress had to be encountered from the moment they landed at Port Phillip.

Indeed, it may be said, that their troubles commenced before they landed, for when the ships which brought them out anchored in Hobson Bay, the captains informed their passengers that the voyage was ended, and they must get ashore the best way they could. As Melbourne was nine miles distant by the river Yarra, they had to pay exorbitant charges for themselves and baggage to reach that point, which deceptive agents had told them in England they would be conveyed to at the ship's expense. Those who had luggage or merchandise had to pay a wharfage rate at the town of forty-shillings per ton. This transit of nine miles cost as much as the charge from England—sixteen thousand miles altogether. Few of these immigrants had much spare cash after paying for their outfit and passage. These, and corresponding charges for cartage, food and house accommodation, soon drained them of their surplus moneys. The active and prudent lost no time in the town, but started at once, with pick and shovel, for the golden goal they had
come so far to reach. This was accomplished without much difficulty, as long as the weather continued dry, but when the heavy rains came on it was a matter of the greatest toil for man or beast to travel along the muddy roads. At one time the charge for carrying provisions and other merchandise reached twenty shillings a mile per ton; so that at Bendigo, a gold field distant a hundred miles, the diggers had to pay one hundred pounds for the carriage only of a ton of flour.

At that season many were deterred from, or found themselves physically incapable of, undertaking a journey to the gold fields. The consequence was, that as the tide of immigration continued, and the cry was “Still they come, not in single files, but in battalions,” the city and suburbs of Melbourne became so crowded that fears were entertained by the authorities of anarchy or pestilence arising from the densely packed community—such as arose at San Francisco on the gold discovery in California. Although the utmost turmoil and confusion prevailed, happily the salubrity of the Australian climate and the genial weather warded off any special disease or mortality accruing from this exceptional state of society. There is no better evidence of the salubrity of the climate than this immunity from epidemic disease of that badly-sheltered, ill-fed mass of humanity located on the banks of the Yarra during the year 1853. We have all read of the disease and mortality that decimated the British troops in the Crimea during the Russian war, notwithstanding their military discipline and the services of a commissariat staff—an army of not more than forty thousand men, landed during a couple of years. Here was an immigrant army one hundred and fifty thousand
strong, landed in sixteen months, on the shores of Port Phillip, without any discipline, very slender equipment, one hundred thousand of whom had gone to battle on the gold fields, removed from seventy to one hundred miles from their city base of operations, encountering the greatest privations from irregular supplies of food, and exposed to all the changes of weather, and yet the amount of disease and mortality was not appreciably greater than the natural deaths and illness of such a community. Even that was at a minimum rate among sections of it living in every stage of squalor and destitution.

A most characteristic sight was the population of "Canvas-town," which was so named from being composed entirely of tents. It arose from the immigrants continuing to arrive after every room and cellar in the city was crammed with people. They were therefore obliged to pitch the tents they had provided themselves with, and live in them until they were able to proceed up the country, or occupy some temporary barracks the government was erecting to meet the emergency. A spot easily accessible to the passengers as they landed was marked out for this purpose, on the opposite side of the river to that on which the city is built, and about three miles from the beach, where they could land by boat. Notwithstanding the outward prosperity that existed and the profuse expenditure of money that went on in the city, there were many, very many cases of terrible destitution in Canvas-town, where every necessary of life was sold at famine prices.

The tents were arranged so as to form streets and squares, each with some familiar name given to it, and suggestive of the localities from whence the emigrants
came. Evidently not a few were Londoners. Regent Street was the name of the principal thoroughfare, at one corner of which was a round tent of a military cut, having a flag that directed the stranger into Piccadilly. Other thoroughfares were named Oxford Street, Holborn, the Strand, &c. Tents for refreshment were named after many well known London hotels, as if the name could bring back to the distressed cockney the comforts and pleasures of his native city. Many of the tents were pretentious marquees in quality and size, set off with blue and silver or green and gold fringes, and hoisting gay flags; others were coarse and small. When first set up, they presented an appearance of cleanliness and comfort, very different to that which they offered before they were removed. The occupants, likewise, changed from decently dressed though desponding immigrants to be like the scum and offscouring of the purlieus of Whitechapel. Peeping into the tents, each displayed some articles for sale, and these frequently told a mournful tale. A pianoforte might be seen in one, which spoke of happy days gone by in the old country, and of wrecked hopes in this golden land. Books were exposed for sale in many tents, many of them standard and classic works, evincing the taste and education of the owners, who were forced to dispose of their literary treasures to obtain the means of subsistence. In others were furniture and fine dresses, which had been brought half round the globe, now sacrificed to buy daily bread. The majority were of that class of emigrants unfitted for a new colony, and who often leave a small certainty at home for an uncertainty abroad, repining because their talents are of less avail than the hands of the common labourer in the work of primary colonization.
In time these gay tents became ragged and dirty, and the lazy occupants, or others of a lower grade that succeeded them, allowed Canvas-town to become the abode of filth and misery, thick with dust in dry weather and deep in mud when it rained. In many of these canvas dwellings there was only one common space, where two or three families of both sexes were huddled promiscuously together. In the morning, clustering swarms of half-dressed women and children gathered before the various tents, busily cooking breakfasts at their small stoves; while around them were all the discomforts that mark the hovels of an Irish village. But the worst feature of the locality was that it became and long remained the hot-bed of crime and immorality, where the vicious inhabitants went to spend their ill-earned gains in the sly grog-shops with no publican’s licence. Thence used to emanate those night prowlers, whose occupation it was to stop and rob the wayfarer quietly returning to his home. At last the government resolved on sweeping away this intolerable nuisance, and the last tent disappeared in April, 1864.

During this time the state of society was completely unhinged, and neither person nor property was safe from the gangs of marauders and robbers in town and country. As already noticed, the increase of this class was chiefly from Tasmania, the government of which allowed every facility for doubly and trebly convicted felons to cross over to Victoria, where they became the terror of the peaceable inhabitants, and defied the authorities. On one occasion a gang of ruffians took possession of a suburban road for a whole day, robbing and maltreating every traveller that passed; another gang had the audacity to seize and rob the chief
constable of Melbourne, who was accounted one of the strongest men in the colony. The diggers, returning with their gold from the mines, were the chief sufferers from this state of anarchy, when they were pounced upon, and frequently tortured and murdered when showing resistance. For the safety of the conveyance of gold to the towns of Melbourne and Geelong, the government organized a corps of mounted police, that formed an armed escort travelling at stated periods to and from the mines. Even these were attacked and robbed by formidable gangs, when many lives were lost, and thousands of ounces of gold stolen. So daring were these villains, that a ship loading for London, with twenty thousand ounces of gold on board, was successfully plundered, and nearly the whole of the gold abstracted and carried away. For a time the worst state of anarchy prevailed.

While crime was thus stalking rampant through the towns and suburbs, and along the roads of the country, the social and political affairs of the miners on the gold fields were assuming an alarming aspect, that added to the confusion which prevailed. Governor Latrobe in his proclamation for the regulation of these workings, at first levied a licence fee of thirty shillings per month, which yielded the very large sum of £580,616. With a view to increase that amount, so as to meet the greatly increased expenditure for police and gaols, and also to induce the less fortunate gold diggers to return to the ordinary industrial occupations, which were suffering from want of labour, he contemplated at one time doubling the fee. Had he done so, in all probability the miners would have risen en masse in open rebellion to the constituted authority. As it was, the policy of Latrobe rendered
him so unpopular, that his acts were assailed by the public press in the most forcible language, and he himself went in dread of bodily harm. Conscious of his inability to administer the laws by the authority invested in him under the colonial system as it then existed, he sent home his resignation, which was accepted. In June, 1854, his successor, Sir Charles Hotham, arrived in the colony.

The daring acts of robbers so paralyzed the police authorities, in consequence of the inefficient staff of constables, that the London police were applied to, and an experienced body of constables and detectives were sent out, who were paid high wages for their services. Numerous captures of the highwaymen and burglars followed the strengthening of this arm of public authority, and many of the most daring and blood-thirsty villains were tried and punished. On inquiry, it was found that the majority of these were convicts and emancipated felons from Tasmania, whom the laxity of the laws allowed to arrive in Victoria on tickets of leave and free pardons. Immediately this was found out, the legislature passed an act to prevent the landing of these felons on their shores, with power to search all vessels arriving from thence, and to deport doubtful characters. As this act infringed on the Royal Prerogative, the Lieutenant-Governor referred it to the Privy Council, who advised the Queen to dissent from the measure, as contrary to the spirit of the British Constitution. During this reference the provisions of the act were carried out, and many convicts prevented from landing in Victoria. On receiving the Imperial dissent to the measure, the legislative body, nothing daunted, passed it again with slight modifications; and the respectable colonists sent a petition at the
same time to Her Majesty, praying for her assent to the act, as one absolutely necessary for the maintenance of law and order in the community. These were submitted to her ministers, and without complying with this request, it was resolved that a new and liberal constitution should be granted to all the Australian colonies, based on that of the parent state, which satisfied the colonists for the time; but in order to watch the question, an anti-convict league was formed to prevent transportation altogether.

Notwithstanding the highly productive character of the gold fields, great discontent existed amongst the miners at the licence fee. In the first place it was not an equable tax, as the miner who was unsuccessful, securing only an ounce a month paid the same fee as the lucky digger who found a prize of a hundred or a thousand ounces. Some did not find enough to pay the fee. In the second place, the mode of levying it and collecting payment by armed troopers and police was obnoxious to every one, and the unscrupulous took every occasion to avoid payment. As it was collected in advance, at the beginning of every month, the flame of discontent was fanned at the frequent appearance of the gold commissioner and his staff, and collisions between them and the miners took place. At Bendigo several thousand diggers went in a body to the commissioner and said they would no longer pay thirty shillings, but would have no objections to give ten, which they tendered to him. Of course he could not accept what he had no power to take. Thereupon they declared that they would not pay any licence fee, which led to many being taken up and fined.

At Ballarat a more determined feeling existed against
the obnoxious tax, which reached its climax at the end of November, 1854, as the commissioner went his rounds to collect for the following month. Upwards of eight hundred men united together, declaring that they would pay no licence fee, armed themselves with rifles and revolvers, formed an intrenched camp, with a stockade in the middle of the gold field, and resolved to resist the collection of the tax at the risk of their lives, called the spot "Eureka," and raised the flag of independence, while they made a bonfire of their licence papers.

This defiance of authority raised the ire of Governor Hotham, and he at once issued a proclamation declaring the disturbed district under martial law; ordering out all the available force from Melbourne to proceed to Ballarat and quell the insurrection. At that time H.M.S. Electra was in harbour, so a body of marines and blue-jackets was added to the military, forming a force six hundred strong, with six guns. Before they arrived at the scene of action, the mounted troopers, infantry, and armed foot police in the district had turned out to the number of two hundred and seventy-six, and attacked the camp with a sharp fusillade, which took effect, for in ten minutes the enemy surrendered, the ringleaders were captured, and one hundred and twenty-five prisoners taken. In this affair about fifty of the miners were killed and wounded, and fifteen of the attacking force. On the arrival of the forces from Melbourne peace was restored, and the miners saw that physical resistance was not the way to obtain their ends. Although this unfortunate collision between the government and the diggers was much deplored at the time, yet it had a wholesome effect upon many lawless men, aliens from California,
who thought they could do in a British colony what they had done there, in defiance of all authority. Ultimately, however, this demonstration against the licence fee had its desired effect. The Governor appointed a commission to inquire into the grievances of the mining population, which furnished a report confirming their complaints, suggesting a code of miners' rights, the abolition of the personal tax, and substituting an export duty on the gold, which was adopted at the rate of two shillings and sixpence per ounce.

While this gold discovery was working a social and political revolution in the body politic, the interests and position of the squatters and other pioneer settlers were apparently ignored, and thrown into the background by the exciting events of the time. This was not really the case, for they were quietly influencing the action of the government in the important matter of disposing of the crown lands, while they were acquiring immense wealth from the sale of their surplus stock for food to the diggers. On the one hand they stood upon the leases of their runs, contending that the government could not dispossess them until the term of lease expired. Governor Latrobe believed them, and prevented the sale of land in fee-simple. The consequence was that those who were anxious to invest their golden earnings in the soil became disgusted, and left Victoria for the neighbouring colonies, where it could be had cheaply and freely. Doubtless the land regulations would have been in a more satisfactory state for the agriculturist or small landholder if, in the first instance, the export of grain had yielded as profitable a return to the settler as the export of wool. The distance, however, from any great market for bread-
DEMAND FOR AGRICULTURAL LAND.

stuffs, and the high rate of labour, had almost pro-
hibited the cultivation of grain beyond the wants of the
scanty population. After the gold discovery a change
came over the prospects of the farmers, when the influx
of immigrants had created such a demand for their
produce, at the highest remunerative prices, that the
united efforts of all in Australia could not supply one-
half the consumption. Consequently there was a
pressing demand for small sections of good land, by
the more prudent and fortunate labouring classes who
had saved money.

In cultivating the soil to produce the golden
grain, they saw not only a steadier description of
employment, than the fitful, exciting and often dis-
appointing toil of looking for gold-dust, but one which
gave them a territorial holding in their adopted
country. It would appear at this time, the Govern-
ment of Victoria was not prepared with a sufficiency
of surveyed lands of the description required to meet
the wants of the colonists, and when the surveyors
went in quest of new tracts, they found that the
richest soil, what were termed the "eyes of the
country," were locked up in the pastoral leases granted
to the squatters; moreover, that the regulations for
the disposal of crown lands prohibited the sale of any
section less than a square mile, or 640 acres, beyond
the town and suburban allotments. Hence there was
a unanimous cry amongst the non-squatting population
for the Government to "unlock the lands," and dispose
of them in small lots to meet the applications of those
who wanted them for immediate tillage. This was not
accorded until sometime afterwards, when the colony
obtained its new constitution. On the other hand the
squatters claimed the right of pre-emption should the
lands be put up for sale. This right secured to them the choice of the best lands at the upset price of £1 per acre, which in most cases were worth from five to ten times that value. There was, however, a limit to this right, as only a certain quantity could be selected in one name. But this was overcome by every member of a family being a claimant, and happy the man whose “quiver was full of arrows.” Thus the squatters became the largest land-owners, and remain so to this day.

During 1854 the disturbances on the gold fields affected the production of gold materially, as shown in the returns of value exported, according to the subsequent calculations of the Registrar-General. In 1852 the amount was £10,899,733; 1853, £12,600,083, and in 1854, £9,568,262. A return to a more settled condition in 1855 raised the value to £11,172,261. There were fifteen gold fields in full operation, named as follows: Mount William, Avoca, Maryborough, Tarrengower, Ballan, Anderson’s Creek, Plenty Ranges, Mount Alexander, Bendigo, Ballarat, McIvor, Goulburn, Ovens, and Omeo. This last mentioned gold field is situated in the midst of a magnificent country named Gipps Land, after one of the Governors of New South Wales, which, previous to that event, was almost unknown excepting to the few squatters who monopolized its pasture lands with their flocks and herds. As in the case of the colony itself, the golden key unlocked these lands, and they were soon opened to the enterprising colonists, who have founded there a new province that bids fair, in time, to become the richest in the country.

Thus the colony continued to expand in every direction, while the governor and his imperfect system
of administration was unable to cope with the rapid progress of colonization. Moreover, while his predecessor erred in omitting to provide for the public safety, Sir Charles Hotham rushed into the opposite extreme of endeavouring to control the miners by harsh measures. The difficulties of his position, acting upon an irritable disposition, brought on paralysis, of which he died on the 31st December, 1855.

According to the regulations provided by the imperial government in such cases, the commander of the forces assumed the reins of power during the interregnum, until the arrival of a new governor. The acting governor in this instance was Major-General Macarthur, eldest son of the first introducer of the Merino sheep into Australia. He continued in office exactly one year. It so happened that in his time the new constitution, granted by the British parliament and assented to by the Queen, was inaugurated, and the colony received its full measure of self-government, which it retains, with still further liberal modifications, to the present day. Under its provisions every male adult has a vote for the members of the Legislative Assembly, equivalent to the House of Commons, there is no property qualification, and the voting for members is conducted by ballot. There is an Upper House, where both voters and members must have a property qualification. Out of this parliament the Governor selects a chief secretary, as Her Majesty chooses a premier, and he forms the ministry. Thus the colony is governed in a similar manner to the mother country, with the representatives of the three estates of Queen, Lords and Commons, but having manhood suffrage and vote by ballot.

From this year (1855), when the new constitution
was inaugurated, it may be said that the settled history, not only of Victoria but all the Australian colonies, begins. Though the youngest in point of time of actual settlement, that colony has taken the lead of the whole group in the march of civilization, and she bids fair to be the queen of the richest states in the southern hemisphere. Exactly twenty years had passed when her majority was attained, and the pioneer colonists who first tenanted the wilderness were men still in the prime of life. Such a rapid progress in the foundation and building of the permanent fabric of a future nation is unparalleled in the history of the world. Here we have, in the short space of time which barely gives man his majority, a land peopled with the most highly civilized branch of humanity—a land which at his birth was the abode of a few poverty-stricken and degraded aborigines. To set forth that progress it is necessary to have recourse to the statistical returns which the government and legislature deemed it one of their first duties to place before the world, as a monument of the industry and perseverance of the workers who assisted in rearing this extraordinary fabric.

As pastoral pursuits were those which led to the settlement of Victoria, they demand our first attention. On the 31st December, 1855, the returns of live stock were as follow: Horses, 33,430; horned cattle, 534,113; pigs, 20,686; and sheep, 4,577,872. The last item shows a diminution of 454,911 from the return in 1851, which was caused by the consumption of mutton by the influx of immigrants, who supplied the long-cherished wish of the squatters for mouths to consume their surplus stock. That the increase of sheep was very little affected by this is shown in the increased
export of wool, notwithstanding the disturbing influences which affected its production. In 1851, the quantity of wool exported was 16,345,468 lbs.; and, in 1855, the total was 22,353,373 lbs. Some alarm was expressed at the time that the consumption of butcher's meat in Australia was trenching on the powers of production, but this fear has proved fallacious. It was found that the stock on purchased lands was rapidly increasing, and that any deficiency on squatting runs was compensated by this. It was found also that by cultivation the products of the land may be almost indefinitely increased in Victoria, where upwards of sixty million acres of virgin soil remain untitled. So that there will be abundance of provender for all animals for many generations to come; and it will be time to discuss the artificial increase of meat for consumption a hundred years hence. The cultivation of arable land was in a great measure stopped during the first years of the gold discovery, as the chief supplies of bread-stuffs came from Tasmania, South Australia, and California. These returns show, in ten districts, that in 1855 there were 1040 cultivators, and 23,893 acres cultivated—a very small quantity in proportion to the consumption of cereals. With the return of settled habits, however, there was a rapid increase of this important branch of industry, as exhibited by the returns in the following year; in the same number of districts the cultivators had increased to 1854, and the number of acres cultivated to 43,077.

Next comes the new product, which had such a revolutionizing effect upon the destiny of the colony. Gold was discovered at Ballarat in August, 1851, and the estimated quantity dug up during the remainder of the year was valued at £845,523. During 1852, the
average per month was greater by sixty per cent., amounting to £1,324,974, or a total for the year of £15,899,733. Allowing seventy thousand miners to have been employed (which is a fair calculation) this would give £227 to each digger. This is the largest amount taken in one year since the discovery, and may be attributed to the large numbers actually employed at the first, and the fact that these gold mines, like all others, must gradually diminish in their yield until they become exhausted. It took two centuries to exhaust the gold mines of South America, and it is only reasonable to compute that with the improvement in machinery and other appliances the gold fields of Australia will be much sooner impoverished. In 1853, the value of the gold produce was £14,100,083; in 1854, £9,508,262, a considerable falling off, as we have noticed, resulting from the disturbances on the gold fields; in 1855, £11,172,261; and in 1856, £11,942,783—from which date there has been a gradual decrease to £6,685,192 in 1862.

The progress of commerce and manufactures was equally rapid during that period. In 1851, the shipping inwards was 712, of 129,426 tons; 1852, ships 1657, tonnage 408,216; 1853, ships 2594, tonnage 721,473; 1854, ships 2596, tonnage 794,601; and 1855, ships 1907, tonnage 551,726. At times from three hundred to four hundred large square-rigged vessels were at anchor in Hobson Bay, and sometimes one-third of them abandoned by their crews, who had gone to the gold mines. The value of the merchandise brought by these within that time, and the produce which they carried away, is stated as follows: 1851, imports £1,056,437, exports £1,422,909; 1852, imports £4,069,742, exports £7,451,549; 1853, imports
£15,842,637, exports £11,061,544; 1854, imports £17,659,051, exports £11,775,204; and in 1855, imports £12,007,959, exports £13,493,338. It must be remarked that where the exports are less than the value of the product of gold, the whole of that produce does not appear, as at the time there was no duty on gold, and hence the customs returns make no mention of the large quantities taken by private hand. Moreover the value of that shipped was put at the local prices, varying from £3 to £3 15s. per ounce, when its actual value was £4, from the quality being so fine that some Ballarat gold was valued at £4 1s. per ounce.

The number of passengers brought by these ships to Victoria was not less than 300,000; and it is one of the most wonderful facts in the history of the colony that these people were accommodated with houses, with employment, with food, and that no permanent disorganization of society took place. At the close of 1851, the population was estimated at 97,489; in 1852, at 168,321; in 1853, at 222,436; in 1854, at 312,307; and in 1855, at 364,324. The proportion of the sexes in the last year being 234,450 males and 129,874 females. On the 31st December, 1855, there were in the colony 349 churches or chapels, which were estimated to accommodate 76,549 persons, and which were generally attended by 65,242 persons; and 438 schools, attended by 24,478 scholars. For that year the division of the people into their denominations is only approximate, so that it does not give a correct view of the religious elements of the community. However, on the 29th March, 1857, a detailed census was taken, when the population had reached 410,766, in which the religious condition of the colony is given as follows: Church of England, 175,418—including 15,520 sub-
scribing themselves simply as "Protestants;" Presbyterians, 65,935; Wesleyan Methodists, 20,395; other Protestants, 27,521—including Independents, 10,858; Baptists, 6484; Lutherans, 6574; Unitarians, 1480; Roman Catholics, 77,351; Jews, 2208; Mohammedans and Pagans, 27,254; 6774 furnished no return.

The most remarkable figures in this return are those under the last head, who were chiefly Chinese. Much alarm was created by the influx of these peculiar people, especially as they were all males. Their appearance was not in their favour, as they were almost all of the lower class, from the province of Quang-tung, and presented a most forbidding aspect as they landed in their strange garb. In order to check the influx a poll-tax of £10 was levied upon every Chinese immigrant, and an annual fee of £2, with a licence giving him privilege to remain. The poll-tax was in a measure evaded, as the ships from China landed them in South Australia, where no such tax existed, and they trudged overland to Victoria. After some years' experience it was found that the Chinese were the most harmless people in the community and at the same time the most industrious, so that the legislature struck off the taxes, and they are now tolerated as any other people. Many of them have become wealthy, and intermarried with emigrant women from the United Kingdom, chiefly Irish orphan girls.

We have no account of mills, manufactories, or other industrial works in Victoria in 1851; but they were in truth scarcely worth enumerating. In 1855, however, the Registrar-General reported the following as an active operation. Flour-mills: thirty-nine steam, six water, two wind, four horse, total fifty-one. Also thirty saw-mills, three foundries, three water-works,
thirty-two breweries, twenty-one candle and soap manufactories, four vinegar manufactories, twenty-five soda-water and lemonade manufactories, one hair-carding manufactory, four potteries, one stove manufactory, one hundred and fifty-nine quartz-crushing machines, one gasometer, four cordial manufactories, fifteen fellmongers, seven tanneries, three curriers, one bone-dust manufactory, two planing machines, one thousand five hundred and seven puddling machines, six moulding mills, one sash and door manufactory, one tobacco and snuff manufactory, eleven coffee-roasting and grinding mills, fourteen machinists, twenty-three coach-builders, one organ-builder, one turning-machine, four boiler-makers, one pianoforte manufactory, one steam chaff-cutting machine, five boat-builders—in all, 1893 manufactories. It is proper to explain that the quartz-crushing and puddling machines are used on the mines for the production of gold.

From these statistics the reader will derive a clear idea of the rapid progress of the colony made in the first five years of its golden era. Ten years have elapsed since then, and every year marks the onward progress of Victoria, but it may be considered only the expansion of its previous condition. No essential change has taken place in its institutions. As far as human foresight can penetrate, it will remain the same in general character for many generations to come, when the pursuit of gold-mining has been abandoned for others more profitable, and the supply of gold become exhausted. That this consummation is nearer at hand than the sanguine miners anticipated in early times is shown by the government statistics of 1862, where, the value of gold exported, amounted only to
£6,685,192, or little more than half the export of 1855. The exports generally have not diminished, however, being £13,039,422, or about the same, while the imports are a million and a half greater, or £13,487,787. The shipping is about the same, numbering 1715 ships, of 556,188 tons, and the wool they carry away is nearly double the value, or £2,350,956; tallow, £66,515; hides and skins, £130,350. The live stock has increased to 86,067 horses; 576,601 horned cattle; 6,764,851 sheep, and 52,991 pigs. The number of acres under cultivation, 465,430; so that the colony is perfectly independent of external supplies of bread-stuffs, thereby saving in this item a large withdrawal of money for farm produce. In the same year the population was 555,744, of whom 325,768 were males, and 229,976 females; births, 21,391; deaths, 10,080; marriages, 4525; immigration, 37,836; emigration, 38,203. These two last items show that more people went away from the colony in that year than those who arrived, and but for the increase by upwards of 14,000 births over deaths, there would be a diminution in the population. Since that time the increase is small but steady from this natural cause, and the arrivals and departures which are pretty equal. On the 30th September, 1864, the total population was 596,529, of whom 343,525 were males, and 253,004 females.

A brief glance at the leading events which happened during that period, will suffice to fill up the interstices of history between these statistical pieces of network. The first Governor appointed to Victoria, under the new constitution, was Sir Henry Barkly, who arrived on 23rd December, 1856, after an interregnum of twelve months from the demise of Sir Charles Hotham,
when the administration of affairs devolved upon the commander of the forces. As the colonists had agitated, in parliament, and through the public press, the question of the unfitness of naval or military men to govern a purely mercantile colony, these opinions had weight with the Secretary of State for the Colonies and Her Majesty's Government, and Sir Henry was chosen because he had previously been a West India merchant and was conversant with business. Moreover, the colonists, in order to secure the services of an efficient governor, raised the salary from £5000 a year to £10,000, and £5000 staff expenses, together with a house to live in, and other advantages, making his pay equivalent to some £20,000 a year. These pecuniary emoluments were by no means overlooked by Sir Henry Barkly, who had just left the governorship of a West India colony, where the salary was not a tithe of that paid by this colony. On his arrival he produced the most favourable impression upon all classes of colonists. He was comparatively a young man, just in the prime of life, and accompanied by his lady, who only lived long enough to make herself beloved by all who knew her.

The task of the new governor was easy and pleasant as compared to that which had devolved on his predecessors. They had to bear undivided responsibility, to discharge all the duties of the post, and on their shoulders all the odium of failure was thrown. Now, these onerous duties devolved upon his responsible advisers, chosen from the parliament, while he stood in the calm irresponsible atmosphere above them, acting simply as the representative of royalty. Then followed the natural contention for the power and sweets of office, among a class of politicians as active
as any in the mother country. Men aspired to the highest positions, and succeeded in attaining them, who had risen from the humblest ranks of colonial society, with obscure home antecedents; while numerous political agitators emigrated to this El Dorado of political freedom as well as material prosperity. At one time the post of chief secretary or premier was filled by a self-educated English tradesman, who swept out his own little shop as a grocer at the time of the gold discovery; at another, by a publican who had been a butcher's clerk; before that period, a Scottish stone-mason was elected a member of the Legislative Assembly, who worked at his trade throughout the day and attended his place in parliament at night; an Irish political refugee acted as one of the ministers for many years, and retired with a pension for his services of £900 a year.

These examples are not cited in order to cast odium upon the individuals or the parliament of which they were members, but to illustrate the democratic condition of the new political constitution. All honour to those self-educated men who were the architects of their own fortunes and position in the colony. The knowledge of these facts among the aspiring colonists spread an honourable feeling of emulation in the community.

The great business of the Victorian parliament was to dispose of the large revenue which the new act placed under their control. In one item of the expenditure, and that the most important for the material progress of the colony, all members and constituencies were unanimous; namely, the construction of roads and bridges and the promotion of facilities of conveyance throughout the colony. In the history of New
South Wales and Tasmania it has been shown that this great desideratum was accomplished by convict labour, chiefly at the expense of the mother country. As the colonists had rejected that objectionable class of emigrants, they had to perform this gigantic task with free labour at their own cost; and cheerfully did their representatives vote the required means. Indeed, before the inauguration of the new legislature, or before the separation of the colony from New South Wales, the public works formed one of the largest items in the expenditure, and it was the chief grievance of the colonists that the governor did not spend enough. The advent of the gold discovery raised the revenue to such a sum as the dreams of the most sanguine could not reasonably have calculated upon. In 1850 the gross revenue amounted to £259,433; in 1851 it rose to the respectable sum of £486,332; 1852 sent it up to £1,577,181; which was increased in 1853 to £3,490,932. But what financier could have calculated upon a revenue of £6,154,928 in 1854; or even £4,716,696 in 1855. In the former case it is actually an increase of one hundred-fold in ten years from 1844. It must be stated, however, that these items include sales of land in 1853 for £1,548,441; 1854, 1,357,965, and in 1855, £763,554.

With such a swollen public purse to draw upon, it may be imagined that no one regretted the absence of patronage and supplies from the British treasury, while the expenditure of the money on free labour gave employment to the influx of immigrants who preferred working on the roads; and the numerous contracts were profitable to capitalists. Although the revenue fell to an average of three millions sterling per annum during the subsequent ten years, yet
upwards of one-third of that income has been expended on roads, bridges, and other public works; so that the cost of these up to the present time has been not less than twenty millions sterling—every shilling of which has come out of the pockets of the colonists. It is upon this monetary independence and freedom of labour that the Victorian colonists with justice pride themselves; and in receiving the military protection of England they supplemented the pay of the soldiers, while a vessel of war was built and continues to be maintained at the public expense. So far, therefore, as the parent state is pecuniarily concerned, she is not required to pay for a single regiment or ship of war in protecting this richest gem in her colonial diadem.

But the government and parliament were not even satisfied with this enormous expenditure on the ordinary highways of the country—they must have railways and electric telegraphs to unite the chief centres of population. As any trenching on the revenue to construct railways was met with opposition by every district in the colony—especially as the scheme involved a costly system of construction—it was resolved that money should be borrowed for this purpose, and the interest paid out of the revenue. One company had already been established to lay down a line between Melbourne and Geelong; and there were three other short lines to the suburbs of the capital city. Several projects were put before the government of an economical nature, whereby the greatest number of miles could be constructed at the least possible cost. But these were rejected for the most expensive mode of construction, at an average of £40,000 per mile. The sum of £8,000,000 was borrowed and expended upon
the construction of some 200 miles in six years—from Melbourne to the westward and to the northward; so that a traveller or intending gold miner now-a-days can proceed to Ballarat or Bendigo, and witness the famous “diggings,” with the same ease and expedition that he could travel by railway from London to Birmingham. The old name is no longer applicable to these gold mines, especially the former, where the workings are almost entirely by machinery, blasting and crushing the auriferous quartz-rock. No description can portray the extraordinary aspect of the Ballarat valley, which was a quiet pasture land only fourteen years ago; where formerly the bleating of sheep or the tinkling of a cattle bell were all that disturbed the solitude. Now the sound of grinding and stamping machinery, amidst the shrill scream of steam-engines, fills the air. Where a few shepherds strolled through its silent glades, the hum of a busy population of 50,000 industrious people working at their avocations may be heard; where the alluvial soil and rocky heights yielded no more value than the herbage for a few thousand sheep, gold to the value of twenty-five millions sterling has been extracted since the discovery in 1851, and still it yields its annual quota.

But Melbourne with its magnificent harbour forms the most remarkable feature in the colony of Victoria. The traveller arriving in Hobson Bay is particularly struck with its animated appearance, where a fleet of large merchantmen may be seen at anchor or loading and discharging at the railway pier and other jetties. It looks more like a harbour in old England than one at the other end of the globe, not thirty years in existence. To the British emigrant there is nothing strange about it, as he lands upon the pier there is
nothing foreign to his eye, all seems familiar, and he may wonder how he has journeyed fifteen thousand miles, during three or four long months, finding at the end a place similar to that which he left, and people speaking his own mother tongue. From the pier he arrives in ten minutes by railway at the city, and finds the streets just like those in England. Melbourne
in itself is quite a little London, with all the conveniences and luxuries of the great metropolis. Collins Street presents a style of street architecture, with banks and public edifices, that will compare favourably with some of the best streets in London, while the shops are not inferior to those at the West-end. To enumerate the public buildings of this city would occupy more space than this little volume can afford; but to overlook the Parliament House would be unpardonable. Here are two chambers, one for the Assembly and the other for the Council; the former is a modestly decorated apartment, consonant with the business character of its members, but the latter is one of the most highly ornamented chambers one could conceive for legislative purposes, and, though different in style, equals the House of Lords in elegance and richness of ornamentation. It is more after the style of the Hall of the Senate in Paris, and has a most cheerful and agreeable aspect. It stands on the highest part of the city. From here the eye takes in the whole panorama of the town and suburbs, with Port Phillip harbour in the distance. To the westward lies the mass of buildings, with numerous church spires betokening the houses of worship of various denominations. Northwards is Collingwood, now a considerable town in itself, stretching away down to the banks of the Yarra (which may be seen skirting the landscape to the eastward), where the heights are dotted with beautiful villas and gardens. The eye then ranges over the suburb of South Yarra and Prahran, with the Botanic Gardens intervening, between which and the Zoological Gardens the “ever-flowing” river winds its way, crossed by half-a-dozen bridges. Beyond, to the south, lies St. Kilda, on the bay, the favourite resort of the townspeople when in
quest of cool breezes from the south and the invigorating walks on the beach. Here at one glance are seen the homes of one hundred and thirty thousand colonists, who have daily to encounter the "battle of life" in search of affluence or a maintenance in this busy city and port. And here is the most wonderful monument of Anglo-Saxon enterprise and genius for colonization on the habitable globe, and the type of progress in this remarkable Colony of Victoria.

It is impossible to read such a narrative as this without tracing the workings of Divine providence in it, or without coming to the conclusion that God has some noble purpose in planting a great colony of Englishmen in that great southern continent. May our brethren carry with them the Christianity to which our mother country owes all her greatness; thus advancing the glory of God and securing their own prosperity.
CHAPTER VII.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.


About the same period that the Tasmanian settlers were engaged in colonizing Port Phillip, and the pioneer associations were bargaining with the aborigines for the possession of their land, considerable agitation was going on in England among a body of theoretical colonizers, who were bargaining with the British Government for the colonization of South Australia on a new and untried principle. These gentlemen had been impressed with the unexpected success attending the penal colonies of New South Wales and Tasmania, and with the opening which Australia presented for the employment of capital and labour. They calculated that if so much could be done under a demoralizing
convict system, a vast deal more could be accomplished by establishing settlements formed only of free immigrants, and thereby rescuing some portion of the Australian continent from the contamination of felons from the mother country. With this praiseworthy object in view, a committee was formed in 1834, composed of thirty-two gentlemen, of whom eighteen were Members of Parliament, with a chairman, treasurer, and secretary, to carry out their views in a practical form. At first they projected schemes of the most fallacious character, under the direction of a political economist named Edward Gibbon Wakefield. They petitioned the Secretary of State for the Colonies to grant them a charter, which would virtually transfer to the association the sovereignty of a vast unexplored territory, under a republican system of government; a proposal which that minister rejected as contrary to the spirit of the British Constitution.

After many alterations in their scheme, in order to make it acceptable to the government, it was ultimately acceded to. The basis of this new theory of colonization was the assumed principle that land is of no value without labour; it was proposed, therefore, to create a revenue by the sale of land at a price sufficiently high to pay for the passages of free emigrant labourers to cultivate it. It was argued by these experimentalists, that if the fixed price of land in the new colony was one pound per acre, it would prevent labourers from becoming proprietors, and the capitalist would have a fair return for his investment from the produce of that labour. Then, the emigrants were to be chosen with a view to the greatest benefit of those capitalists who should be induced to go and reside upon their property. In the opinion of Whately, who
commended the scheme, "A colony so founded would fairly represent English society: every new comer would have his own class to fall into, and to whatever class he belonged, he would find its relation to the others, and the support derived from the others, much the same as in the parent country. There would be little more revolting to the feelings of an immigrant than if he had merely shifted his residence from Sussex, to Cumberland or Devonshire." Moreover, it was considered by Mr. Wakefield as an essential element in the success of his colonization theory, that there should be a centralization of the community in towns, farms, and factories; so that the colony should spread from its nucleus, and in time gradually reclaim the primeval wilderness, without weakening its central power.

To those who have no experience of the foundation of a colony, these arguments will even at the present day carry weight; and a fresh project on the Wakefield system of colonization would in all probability have its followers, although the scheme has repeatedly been tried and failed.

The South Australian Association having obtained the sanction of the Government to their scheme, a bill was passed through Parliament in August, 1834, forming South Australia into a British province. This Act fixed the boundaries of the colony, provided for the appointment of a board of commissioners to carry it into effect, and enacted that convicts shall at no time be transported there. The Act was not to come into force until the sum of £35,000 should be raised by the sale of land, and £20,000 of bonds were to be invested as a guarantee that the colony would at no time be a charge on the mother country. The
projectors found these monetary conditions difficult to comply with, until a new association was formed, entitled “The South Australian Company,” which settled the matter by purchasing land to the required amount, at the rate of £81 for one acre of town land, and one hundred and thirty-four acres in the country. The money being deposited, the Government appointed eight commissioners to carry out the provisions of the Act, in May, 1835.

In the meantime the propounders of the new theory of colonization propagated their views with untiring activity, and met with great success. The applicants for land, and for passages to South Australia were more numerous than they had the means of providing for. On the 19th August, 1836, the surveying staff arrived in Nepean Bay, Gulf St. Vincent, to plan out the settlement. Here they found three ships belonging to the South Australian Company, which had brought out a large number of emigrants and landed them on Kangaroo Island, at the entrance of the gulf. Notwithstanding the many years of talking and writing about the new free colony, there was nothing practically done in the real work of colonization; and the first batch of emigrants actually arrived before the site of the settlement was fixed upon; so that these poor creatures were left upon a barren, sandy, and inhospitable island. All that Colonel Light and his surveying staff knew of the country was from Captain Sturt’s exploration down the Murray, when he obtained a cursory glance of the Mount Lofty range that trends along the shore of the gulf; and Captain Flinders’ flying survey of Gulf St. Vincent, Investigator Strait, Kangaroo Island, and Spencer Gulf.

According to the Act 4 and 5 William IV., the
colony extended from the 26° latitude south, to the sea-coast, and from 132° to 141° E. longitude; comprising an area of not less than 300,000 square miles, equal to twice the superficies of the British Isles. But this was only on paper, for these pioneer colonists and surveyors had no knowledge of the existence of a safe and convenient harbour when they arrived in Gulf St. Vincent. Fortunately they found one in a narrow inlet, among some mangrove swamps, and fixed the site of the future city of Adelaide on some rising ground, seven miles inland, across drift sand, on the banks of a watercourse which is nearly dry in summer. When the first Governor, Captain Hindmarsh, R.N., arrived, this inconvenient site, so far from good anchorage, was a subject of dispute between him and the Surveyor-General, which led to unseemly quarrels and controversies. This had the effect of delaying the survey of the public lands for the immigrants who were demanding to be put in possession of their sections, and thus led to much distress and misery among the pioneer colonists. As ship after ship arrived with their freights, these were in a measure cast upon a desolate shore, to trust to the chapter of accidents or their own energies for a bare living in the colony. Fortunately the climate is of the most genial kind, and the locality healthy, otherwise disease would have decimated their ranks at the outset, and probably led to the abandonment of the enterprise.

Another fatal blunder, committed at the outset of the colony, was the anomalous and divided authority of a resident Commissioner besides a Governor, the former representing the interests of the promoters of the colony, and the latter His Majesty’s Government. When Governor Hindmarsh endeavoured to change
the site of the future capital, this functionary opposed it, and held that his appointment gave him no power to interfere with the officers empowered to execute the surveys and to dispose of the lands. This difference between the chief authorities created a party feeling among the officials and leading colonists, who arrayed themselves as partisans on each side, until the matter assumed such scandalous proportions that the Colonial Minister of the day, Lord Glenelg, deemed it advisable to recall both Governor and Commissioner, and appoint a successor invested with full authority to supersede this unsatisfactory division of functions in the administration. Accordingly, Captain Hindmarsh was relieved of his duties on the 12th October, 1838, by the arrival of Colonel Gawler, K.H, uniting in himself the two offices of Governor and Resident Commissioner.

Notwithstanding the continued representations of the immigrants, that there was no provision made for their settlement on the unsurveyed lands, and that they were spending their substance in the newly-created town of Adelaide, the colonization commissioners and the South Australian Company were flooding the settlement with settlers. After a time the first immigrants ceased to complain, as they benefited by the expenditure of the subsequent arrivals, in providing them with food and house accommodation at enormous charges.

The despatch of Governor Gawler to the Colonial Minister, descriptive of the state of affairs on his becoming acquainted with them, gives a graphic account of the settlement at the time, two years after its foundation. On the 23rd January, 1839, he writes:—"The affairs of this province are involved in most aggravated and complicated difficulties. On arriving
here, about three months ago, I found the public offices with scarcely a pretension to system; every man did as he would, and got on as he could. There were scarcely any records of past proceedings, of public accounts, or of issue of stores. The non-fulfilment of one of the leading principles on which the regulations made for the disposal of land were based, that the surveys should be in advance of the demand, had produced a number of complicated questions with regard to leasing of pasturage, order of selection, and so forth, which the letter of the law, as it stood, could not rectify. Sections for occupation were only laid out in the plain about Adelaide, in a district not exceeding a square of ten miles on the side. Scarcely any settlers in the country, no tillage, very little sheep or cattle pasturing, and this only by a few enterprising individuals risking their chance as squatters. The two landing places, Holdfast Bay and the Old Port, of the most indifferent description; the expense of transport to and from them to Adelaide, most ruinous. The population, shut up in Adelaide, existing principally upon the unhealthy and uncertain profits of land-jobbing. Capital flowing out, for the necessaries of life, to Sydney and Van Diemen's Land, almost as fast as it was brought in by passengers from England. The colonial finances in a state of thorough confusion and defalcation. This, my Lord, is certainly not a complete, and I can conscientiously affirm, to the best of my judgment, not an overdrawn statement of the difficulties in which I found the colony. If to these, your Lordship will add those serious dangers which must accompany a new population of persons unrestrained by mutual acquaintance, or old habits and associations, flowing in with what may be called fearful
rapidity, upon a colony which stands alone, at the breadth of the world from its only point of assistance or reference, I think that your Lordship will justify the persuasion that is on my mind, that, of human agency, nothing but a strong and steady hand at the helm of government can guide this colony through its early dangers."

In endeavouring to remedy these evils, credit is due to Governor Gawler for at once placing the various departments on an efficient footing, dismissing corrupt or incapable officials, and ordering the immediate survey of land in sufficient quantities to meet the land orders issued in England. Colonel Light, the first Surveyor-General, had resigned, and was succeeded in that office by Captain Frome, of the Royal Engineers, who was accompanied to the colony by a party of sappers and miners. With an efficient and powerful staff, the surveys were now rapidly proceeded with, the colonists were put in possession of their land, which, by directing their attention to agricultural operations put an end to the discontents, which had been engendered by the delay in the surveys. Up to August, 1839, 7412 settlers had arrived, and 250,320 acres of land had been sold, producing £229,756.

So far, this energetic opening up the lands for occupation was satisfactory, but the colonists showed little or no desire to render them productive, while the Governor, in ignorance of the true principles of colonization, adopted the most effectual means to prevent the labouring class from cultivating the lands, by giving them plenty of work, at high wages, in the unnecessary improvement and adornment of Adelaide. At the close of the year 1840, out of a population of 14,610 in the whole colony, 8489 were located within the municipal
district of the town, and 6121 in the environs and rural districts. The city was planned out on a scale of metropolitan magnitude, and nearly all sold in building lots; yet the people lived chiefly in huts made of *pise*, or rammed earth, and portable iron or wooden houses imported from England; some even lived in tents. As the immigrants arrived, numbers fell into the ranks of idleness and dissipation in Adelaide, where seventy public-houses were established, driving the most flourishing trade in the place. Few of them attempted to go ten miles beyond its boundary, and the country beyond the Mount Lofty range, which bounds the sandy plain on which Adelaide stands, was a *terra incognita* to the majority of the inhabitants. Moreover, the class of immigrants sent out by the commissioners, were not all of that character suitable for a country life and occupation; while most, if not all, who paid their own passage out, were townspeople, a large proportion Londoners, chiefly from the middle class of society, and unused to manual labour. Among these unassisted immigrants were young men, sent out by their relatives, with a few hundred pounds and an outfit, to try their fortune in the new colony; many of whom squandered their slender patrimony in a few months, and were obliged, from sheer necessity, to earn their daily bread at labourer’s work. At the same time the government had erected immigrant’s barracks, for the accommodation of the *bona fide* labourers and their families, who had been brought out under the commissioner’s regulations, according to which they were promised employment on the government public works at remunerative wages, until such time as they should be hired by the farmers in the country.
As the ranks of the unemployed were increased by successive arrivals, it was necessary to project extensive public works to meet the emergency. If these had been of a character to open up the interior by roads and bridges, they would soon have led to the more rapid cultivation of the soil, but this was not done. The immigrants were employed in little but erecting a fine government-house, public offices, &c., in Adelaide. Even this mode of employing the people on ornamental government works would have been more excusable if the cost came out of the colonial revenue. But no such resource existed. It had all been absorbed in the debts contracted for similar purposes by the first Governor, who had exceeded his instructions by borrowing money at a ruinous rate of interest, after expending the small income of £12,000, in 1838, during the first quarter. Without taking warning from the financial errors of his predecessor, and acting upon some vague "general authority," to deviate from his instructions under circumstances of undoubted necessity, he launched into an expenditure of £169,966 in 1840, with a revenue of £30,199; and in 1841, of £104,471, and income of £26,720. The mode in which Governor Gawler raised money to meet this expenditure was by drawing on the British Treasury, his drafts being freely taken by the contractors and others who benefited by the contracts for the public works.

Of course during this lavish circulation of paper money, Adelaide for the time being, was, apparently, the most prosperous city in Australia. As the labour of the people was employed on non-productive works, and the whole extent of land under cultivation in 1840 was only 2503 acres, (chiefly in kitchen gardens, on the "reed-beds" around the city,) they had to send their
money away to Launceston and elsewhere in exchange for flour. The amount thus expended in that year was £277,000, consequently bread rose up to famine prices, and in January, 1840, one hundred sovereigns were paid for one ton of flour, being the surplus stores of an emigrant ship. On one occasion, also, the bakers' shops were besieged by eager purchasers of bread at three shillings and sixpence the four-pound loaf, as it was known that only a day's consumption existed.

It was impossible that this unnatural state of affairs could last long. The bubble burst by the British Government repudiating the drafts of the Governor, who was recalled from his post in May, 1841, and superseded by Captain Grey, of the 83rd Regiment. This officer had acquired colonial experience in West Australia, and had published an account of his expeditions in that colony, which had brought him under favourable notice of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The subsequent career of this able Governor places him in the highest rank of administrative capacity for ruling a colony. In illustration of this, an extract from one of his despatches upon the erroneous views of his predecessors may be quoted. He writes:—"In the early stage of a colony (as has been the case here up to a very recent date) there are no producers either of the necessaries of life, or of articles of export. Under such circumstances, a large outlay upon extensive public buildings and town improvements is no further benefit to the colony than that these improvements are obtained. The whole of the sum expended in labour is carried out of the colony to purchase every article of consumption and clothing. The colony thus depending altogether upon imports, and the demand being uncertain, the necessaries of
life fluctuate extraordinarily in value, and are generally extremely high. This circumstance, combined with the great employment of labour by the government, raises inordinately the price of labour. The country settler cannot thus become a producer of food or articles of export. His agricultural operations are limited, his capital eaten up by the high rate of wages, and unless the necessaries of life retain an exorbitant value, he is soon ruined. It is impossible under such circumstances for the settler to compete with other colonies, when the price of labour and of provisions is only half what it is in the colony where he resides. He could not do this if his farm was actually broken up and enclosed, so that in this respect he stood on an equality with agriculturalists in other colonies, much less then can he do it, when he has a farm to create from an untrodden wilderness."

Governor Grey not only perceived the financial errors committed by Governor Gawler, but he was prepared to carry a rigid system of retrenchment into effect, in the face of undeserved obloquy, which at one time bordered on open rebellion among the labourer immigrants. His first step was to reduce the estimates from £94,000, as the actual expenditure of 1841, to £34,000 in 1842; the principal reduction being in the storekeeper's department, which was lowered from £23,748, to £340. The effects of this excision of the unhealthy excrescences on the body politic, was an immediate collapse of all the inflated and fictitious prosperity of the land speculators. Then followed bankruptcy among employers and difficulty of obtaining employment among the labouring classes, so that in the latter part of 1841, nearly two thousand men, women, and children, were thrown upon the
Government for support, as absolute paupers, numbering about one-fourth the inhabitants of Adelaide.

Affairs now began to assume a threatening aspect. The unemployed people used violent language, threatening that unless they were relieved, or obtained wages sufficient for their subsistence at government work, they would support themselves by rapine and pillage. "That which had been at first conceded to them as an indulgence they now demanded as a right," according to a despatch of Governor Grey. He was urged, by petitions from the contractors and others, to finish the buildings commenced in Adelaide, on which he calculated that £150,000 had been expended in twelve months before his arrival, equivalent to £10 per head for every man, woman and child, in the colony, or an average of £32 per adult male, paid out of the British exchequer. These petitions he would not entertain, but he met the case by employing the people on constructing roads and bridges, to open up the country and wean them from the town. This had the desired effect, and he drew upon home for funds to meet the expenditure, notwithstanding the contrary tenor of his instructions. As it was however, his duty to be economical in that expenditure, he reduced the wages of these immigrants from one shilling and sixpence per diem, with rations, which they had been receiving under Gawler's administration, to one shilling and twopence per day, without rations. This bold step towards further retrenchment renewed the feeling of discontent: "tumultuous meetings were held, seditious language was used; on one occasion several hundred men, in an organized body, marched up to the government-house, threatening personal violence; and a popular outbreak was more than once anticipated, which the total absence of a military force would have made serious."
What a contrast this state of anarchy presents to the Utopia pictured by the projectors of the colony! Happily this chapter in the history of South Australia is one of brief duration, for the colony has in the most praiseworthy manner secured a reputation for industry and honourable dealing, with the most loyal feelings for law and order towards the constituted authorities. But it would be a grave oversight to omit these passages in her annals, which were the result of a fallacious theory, carried out by incompetent governors and corrupt officials.

While this was the unsatisfactory state of affairs in the town, those who had settled in the country were prosperous beyond their highest expectations, especially those who had cultivated wheat, and obtained the enormous prices for flour. They found the land of the richest description, yielding, without manure, the greatest average per acre, and producing wheat of the finest quality in Australia. This being ascertained by many of the townspeople who had land or money left out of the wreck of their fortunes, they abandoned their homes in Adelaide, went into the country, and commenced agricultural pursuits. These settlers found occupation for such of the immigrants as preferred being farm servants to working on the roads; the road-makers only continued at the low rate of wages until they could get better from private employers. In this manner the exodus from town to country progressed so rapidly, that in December, 1842, the emigration barracks were empty, and one-third, or 642 houses out of 1915, then in Adelaide, were totally deserted, while rents had fallen from exorbitant to moderate rates. Out of sixty-seven public-houses, twenty-three were shut up, while the others were not paying expenses for lack of
customers. Ships with grain and flour were no longer seen in port. Provisions of all kinds continued low in price, and general merchandise was at a discount, excepting ploughs, harrows and other implements of husbandry, which were in great demand. Then commenced the true success of the colony, proving the soundness of Governor Grey’s policy, and the fact that dispersion and not centralization is the first element of colonization.

In the language of a successful colonist, when commenting upon the measures which led to this desertion and apparent ruin of Adelaide:—“To the colony, however, this reduction in the expenditure was for a time necessarily full of trial. It may well be likened to a young fruit tree, which had been allowed to shoot up with straggling branches of luxuriant growth, but barren of fruit. The careful gardener saw that to make it produce fruit, it was absolutely necessary to apply the pruning knife with an unsparing though kindly hand. Stripped of its gaudy and unprofitable branches, the spectator looked with pity and contempt upon the bare stump that was left; he, not knowing the power left in the roots, thought the poor tree ruined by such treatment, and was inclined to think ill of the gardener for his reckless destruction of the leafy branches. But behold that self-same tree once more, the resources concentrated in its healthy roots, in time throw forth branches as luxuriant as ever, covered with smiling blossoms and golden fruit, whilst the gardener, to whom this result appeared as a matter of course, now received praise for his foresight from him who at first felt inclined to censure him.” Even so it was when Governor Grey was leaving South Australia to conduct the still more difficult administration of New Zealand,
which was also a colony based on the Wakefield system, and the history of whose settlement had been no less disastrous. On the occasion of his departure, a deputation of the colonists waited upon him and gratefully thanked him for inaugurating a new and prosperous era, by his able, zealous and diligent administration, not forgetting the cares, anxieties and responsibilities, in his conscientious discharge of the functions of a governor and worthy delegate of sovereign power.

By December, 1842, the settlers from the city, who had taken to farming, increased the number of acres under cultivation—from 2503 in 1840, and 6722 in 1841—to 19,790. This area was further extended to 28,690 acres in 1843, when the population in the rural districts numbered 11,259, against 6107 within the precincts of the municipality of Adelaide. The crops from this extent of land were so abundant, that not only was there sufficient for the inhabitants, but the surplus was exported to Port Phillip, New South Wales, and Tasmania. When samples of wheat were sent to London, the Mark-lane authorities pronounced it equal to the finest in the world.

With this plethora of corn, there was a dearth of hands to garner it. So great was the deficiency of labour to reap the abundant harvest, and the danger of losing a large portion of it, that the governor allowed the soldiers and all government employés who could be spared to render their assistance wherever it was required. Owing to the aridity of the climate, and the dry weather that prevails when the corn ripens, it is of great importance that it should be reaped and thrashed speedily, or the loss is great. By the ordinary hand system this entailed much expense. The reapers demanded from fifteen shillings to
twenty shillings per acre, with an allowance of wine or beer. The farmers therefore offered a premium for a reaping machine, which should be effectual in its operations, and be generally applicable to the wants of the colony. Various plans were exhibited after English models, but none were accepted. In the meantime, a farmer named Ridley, of an ingenious turn of mind, invented the very description of machine that was required, and the first his fellow-colonists knew of it was an invitation to see it at work on his farm, where it reaped and thrashed seventy acres of wheat in seven days. The saving of labour and expense by this machine made up for the want of hands, and the inventor became a public benefactor, as it was universally adopted by those who could afford to buy it.

Peace and plenty now prevailed in the towns and rural districts. The farms produced grain and vegetables of all kinds, the pasture lands furnished a sufficiency of animal food; and wool, hides, and skins, were becoming items of importance in the total exports of £66,140 in 1843. The live-stock in the colony was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Sheep</th>
<th>Horned Cattle</th>
<th>Horses</th>
<th>Goats &amp; Pigs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1838</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>2,500</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1839</td>
<td>108,700</td>
<td>7,600</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1840</td>
<td>200,160</td>
<td>15,100</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1841</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>1850</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>1843</td>
<td>350,000</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>2000</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1844</td>
<td>450,000</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>2150</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The exports during the last-mentioned year amounted to £82,268, a favourable increase on the preceding year. But what is most notable in the
annals of South Australia, among the items appears that of a new export, namely, Copper Ore.

The discovery of copper in South Australia was but the precursor of the still more important gold discovery in New South Wales, which led to a complete revolution in the destinies of Australia, forming a new and permanent era in the annals of her history. From a sparse population scattered over the pasture lands, shunning the rocky regions in their selection of spots for farms and agricultural pursuits, the colonists were changed into a mining community, concentrating round the metalliferous strata they had discovered, and forming centres of population on localities hitherto neglected, because barren. To this cause must be ascribed, in a great measure, the length of time that elapsed before the mineral wealth of the country was discovered. Those who had come to settle on the lands looked for fertile soil and good pasture; moreover, few, if any of the English immigrants and capitalists knew much about mineral ores. They followed their flocks over plains and valleys from sunrise to sunset, avoiding the rocky places, and if perchance a shepherd saw a stone more curious than usual, he would probably pick it up and throw it away as only a plaything, although it might have led to the discovery of the metallic riches of this inexhaustible region of mines.

The first discovery of its metalliferous resources may be attributed to the German immigrants who form an important section of the inhabitants. The first body of these people were religious refugees from Prussia, belonging to the Evangelical Lutheran persuasion, who had expatriated themselves from their beloved "Fatherland" on account of persecution. They arrived at the end of 1838, in two ships, one of which,
the Zebra, was commanded by Captain Hahn, who behaved with so much kindness to his passengers on the voyage, that the settlement formed by them was named Hahndorf, now one of the prettiest and most flourishing towns in the country, about fourteen miles south-east from Adelaide, across the Mount Lofty range. In the lap of those mountains these persecuted believers worshipped God in the wilderness, under the care of their spiritual pastor, the Rev. Mr. Kavel; thankful to their Maker for the religious liberty they possessed in that free, though far-off land. To those who visited that simple industrious community in the early days of South Australia, as the writer of this volume did, nothing was so striking as the condition of this noble-hearted pastor, and his God-fearing, law-abiding flock. While the people in Adelaide were rebelling against the authorities, or living in riot and dissipation, those in Hahndorf obeyed their minister, as children their father, without the interference of any legal authority in their few disputes, and the greatest punishment was a rebuke from the pulpit after divine service. And while the improvident immigrants were wasting their substance in buying imported provisions and strong drinks, these abstemious people grew their own food, and supplied the Adelaide market with garden and dairy produce. Hahndorf, with its little primitive church, and the trim gardens of the inhabitants, appeared then an oasis of industry and piety to the traveller coming from the desert plain and riotous city of Adelaide, which can never be effaced from the memory.

Among these German immigrants were some men who had worked in the mines of their native country, and consequently had a knowledge of minerals and
metalliferous rocks. As they frequently crossed the rocky mountains on their way to and from Adelaide with their produce, they naturally cast inquisitive glances at them. In this way some were led to explore the sides of Mount Lofty, which slopes up from the plain to a height of 2334 feet, and the result was that near its base, pieces of lead ore (galena) were found. Whether these indications of the metalliferous nature of the rocks induced one of their number to devote his time to the pursuit, or whether the accounts transmitted by these people to their friends in Germany prompted an experienced mineralogist to emigrate, is not certain, but the fact that a German, named Menge, was engaged in mineralogical explorations as early as the latter part of 1839, shows that they were alive to something of the kind, and we find that he even publicly affirmed his conviction that there was abundance of mineral wealth in the colony. His opinions were pooh-poohed by the land-jobbers and speculators, who were too busy with their bubble paper-system to heed the substantial indications of metallic treasure. However, some, more acute than their neighbours, purchased a section where these specimens of lead ore were most abundant, and sent to England, in 1841, a quantity for analysis. The returns were most favourable, as some of the ore (Argentiferous Galena) was found to contain silver. They raised two or three tons, but the times were so bad, and they being without means to prosecute the working of this mine, it was left in abeyance for better days.

No doubt this discovery of lead caused many of the people living in the interior to look about them in hopes that some more valuable metal might be found. Many brilliant specimens of iron pyrites were picked
up in this way, in expectation that the nobler metals might be part of the ore, but these only proved the great extent of iron ore in the country. This could not be profitably worked without coal, capital, and cheap labour; none of which they had. Besides these glittering iron ores, many heavy pieces of stone were picked up with dull blue and green streaks as if covered with moss or lichens. The son of a sheep-farmer on the river Light, was out gathering wild flowers one day in the summer of 1842, and came upon some pieces, which he brought home to his father, who, as usual, put them on the chimney-piece as ornaments. Shortly after this, the overseer, while looking for some lost sheep, dispersed during a thunder-storm, ascended a slight eminence to survey the surrounding country, when, as he got off his horse, he kicked against some of the same kind of stones. On breaking them he found that green streaks, like moss, intersected the matrix; and having some knowledge of mineralogy from his early education at an institute in Switzerland, where the master gave practical lessons in the study, among the Alps, he concluded that it was copper ore, and he was not mistaken.

On returning to the station he communicated the discovery to his employer, who thereupon referred to the specimens his son had brought home, and on going to the two places where the stones were picked up they were found to be contiguous, while the ground in every direction showed that it was a great deposit of copper ore. Of course they kept the matter secret, and became partners in its development and profit. These lucky settlers, who had struggled with the times, were Captain Bagot, the squatter, and Francis Dutton, his friend and overseer, both of whom subsequently amassed
fortunes out of the Kapunda Mine, as it was called, and the latter has given the world an interesting volume on "South Australia and its Mines," relating the history of his discovery.

Thus, although indications of metalliferous minerals were met with occasionally during the early settlement of the penal colonies, yet the attention of the Government and the settlers was not seriously drawn to investigate their nature up to 1843. It was reserved for the enterprising colonists of this free province to establish the fact that Australia was possessed of great mineral wealth. It was not, however, until the discovery and working of the famous Burra Burra copper mine in 1844, that the extent of these mineral sources was patent to the world. The rich deposits of copper ore it yielded, close to the surface of the ground, surpassed everything experienced in Cornish mining. It was literally quarrying the ore, (green and blue carbonated copper ore) containing from forty to fifty per cent of pure metal. During the first three years' working of this mine, 33,386 tons of ore were raised, which produced upwards of 10,000 tons of pure copper, valued at £700,000. For several years afterwards this mine yielded an average of 18,000 tons annually, and would doubtless have continued to do so, but the effect of the gold discovery was to check the pursuit, by drawing the miners away to the neighbouring colony. The fact, however, is significant, that the quantity of copper, and copper ore exported from South Australia during 1850 was valued at £275,000, or more than half the total exports, amounting to £453,668.

When it was fully ascertained, beyond a doubt, that the despised stony ridges contained so much wealth, there was a general search for copper and lead mines,
and those who had previously laughed at the suggestion, were the most zealous with their hammers among the rocks. Toiling up hill and down dale with heavy bags of stones, in their anxiety to hit upon malachite or green carbonate, they heeded neither the scorching sun, the hot blast, or the cold rains. Some were lucky, but the mass of explorers were unsuccessful. Others, less honest, strewed specimens of good ore in places where none was to be found, and claimed the rewards offered by a mining association. Of course the land where these were found rose to fabulous prices. The Kapunda proprietors had bought their lot at the upset price of £1 per acre, although it was kept open for one month after selection, and might have been pounced on by the holder of a land order of previous date.

When the Burra mine was discovered by the accidental turning up of the ore by the wheel of a bullock dray, the whole colony knew it, and in order that every one should have a chance of getting a share of the prize, a special survey of 20,000 acres was demanded, for which the Governor would accept nothing but hard cash. It is said that the scarcity of coin in Adelaide was so great, that the claimants of the survey had to scrape up the money by giving notes-of-hand for a few sovereigns, at a premium, to those who would advance them for the occasion, and that many a housewife yielded up her secret store, saved out of her husband's earnings, to his surprise and delight. Then the land was divided into two portions, and while the proprietors of the one-half of 10,000 acres scarcely realized their outlay from the Princess Royal mine, those holding the other moiety, the Burra Burra mine, made their fortunes. While the £50 scrip of the former was not worth £12 in 1850, the
£5 shares of the latter were saleable at £293. This was all legitimate in the pursuit of mining, but a case occurred where the owner of a tract of land, combined with accomplices to strew the ground so ingeniously with rich ore that it deceived practical surveyors. The owner was in Tasmania at the moment of the alleged discovery by a shepherd: he returned immediately to secure an offer from a company, who never obtained a pound weight of ore from the ground, beyond the ton or two strewed over it. By the close of 1850, not less than fifty-two mining associations were before the public in England, as well as in the colony, of which thirty-nine never paid a dividend.

The effect of the discovery of copper upon the neighbouring colonies was scarcely perceptible, though many colonists were tempted thither to take advantage of the new excitement. Few of these, however, were workmen skilled in copper-mining, so that the various companies had to apply to the mother country for competent miners. By offering liberal wages a large number of Cornishmen and their families were induced to go out, and they became a valuable acquisition to the colony, not only in bringing skilled labour for the new product, but by the consumption of bread-stuffs and animal food, they supported the agricultural and pastoral interests. Then came a large influx of English capital to work the mines, so that every branch of trade and banking flourished, and general business in Adelaide assumed a livelier aspect than in the palmiest days of Governor Gawler, but with this difference, that instead of the colony getting into debt with the public creditor, the local government paid principal and interest contracted at that period.
Under this mining impetus the colony progressed with wonderful rapidity, so that on the eve of the gold discovery it was beginning to rival Port Phillip and the older colonies in its material prosperity, and but for that event it is very probable that it would have passed them in the race of colonization. The following statistics will illustrate its position in 1850:—Population: 63,900, of whom about 7000 were Germans. Live-stock: cattle, 100,000; sheep, 1,200,000; and horses, 6000: these figures are, however, only approximate as there were no correct returns. The imports amounted to £887,423, being nearly double the exports, on account of the large quantity of machinery imported for working the mines. The exports amounted to £453,668, of which £211,361 was in copper ore; £63,729 in ingots of copper; £113,259 in wool; £20,279 in flour; £11,212 in wheat; and £8,188 in tallow. In the same year there were 61,728 acres under cultivation; of which 41,807 acres were in wheat; 13,000 hay; 1780 potatoes; 1370 gardens; and 282 in vineyards. Unimportant as this last item appears, it was the forerunner of an industry that now commands great attention in the colony—the cultivation of the vine. No gold deposits of a profitable character have been discovered, yet the extraordinary capabilities of the soil and climate for the growth of a wine-grape, bid fair to make up for this deficiency by the production of a new and valuable export.

At the first blush of the gold discovery in New South Wales, very few South Australians were inclined to undertake the long journey overland to Bathurst. But when the still richer gold-fields of the colony of Victoria were found, the western portions of which were within a hundred and fifty miles of the eastern
boundary of South Australia, nearly the whole community was attacked with the gold-mania. If they could, they would have migrated across the border in a body. As it was, fifteen thousand men, or more than half the adult population, abandoned their occupations in town, at the mines, and on the farms and pastures, for the gold-fields of Ballarat, Mount Alexander and Bendigo, within six months. The majority were married men, with families; they considered that it was only a temporary removal, and that they should return soon, to spend their earnings in their own colony. A large proportion being practical miners, they considered that they were best able to work the gold diggings. The result was just as they calculated. The Cornish and German miners were quite at home in their new operations, and it was in a great measure to their superior skill and knowledge of mining that the deep-sinking and quartz-crushing at Ballarat came to such perfection. While others were wasting their time and means upon barren ground, these men were rarely mistaken, and struck the richest lodes in the mines. When they were successful in "making their pile," they returned to South Australia and spent their rich gains liberally. The Government with a judgment that does them credit, never attempted to throw any obstacle in the way of this migration. On the contrary, they appointed an efficient officer to strike through the country, by the shortest route, to the gold-fields, making wells and bridges by the way, so that an easy communication could be kept up, to and fro. This had the desired effect, many returned who otherwise would have remained away. Moreover, a gold-escort was established, which brought the produce of the South Australian miners safe to Adelaide, where it was melted into
ingots, assayed and stamped, making it a legal tender in the purchase of lands, or payment of duties and taxes. These judicious arrangements for meeting the drain upon the country succeeded admirably, and prevented any considerable retrograde movement.

By this time, also, the province had a Legislative Council, preparatory to the constitution of an elected parliament, on the same basis as those in the neighbouring colonies. That body promptly aided the government in their measures to maintain the prosperity of the country during this emergency, by passing resolutions offering a reward of one thousand pounds to the first discoverer of gold within the territory of South Australia, in sufficient quantity to become a valuable export: in the event of success, the auriferous ground was to be rented at the rate of ten shillings per acre, in advance, in leases not exceeding fourteen years. These resolutions were assented to by Governor Young, and immediately carried into effect, which partially assisted in checking the migration. In hopes of securing the reward, numbers roamed through the country "prospecting" for gold, and there were scientific grounds for success, as the Mount Lofty range trends in a general north and south direction over five or six degrees of latitude, bearing out the principle laid down by geologists, that all gold-bearing mountains trend along the meridian lines. Several alleged discoveries were soon reported; but when the officers appointed to examine them reached the places, they pronounced the reports to be attempts to mislead the Government and public, and that the particles of gold first produced were not the natural deposits of the soil. The government explorers, however, succeeded in January, 1852, in finding some genuine specks of gold.
near the Onkaparinga River, at its embouchure some twenty miles south of Adelaide, but the discovery was considered not of sufficient importance to render necessary the issuing of licences to dig.

Six months after this, a spot was found sufficiently promising for the issue of these at Echunga, a pastoral station about twenty miles in a south-eastern direction from Adelaide. For several months a number of diggers ventured their time and means in digging for the precious metal, but their labours were so poorly rewarded that most of them soon left for the Victoria gold-fields, while the Government, seeing that it was not found in paying quantities, did not consider themselves warranted in giving the reward, as the resolution had a proviso, that there should be "bonâ fide raised and produced from the said tract or field, within two months of the date of the issue of the same licences, an amount in gold equal in value to not less than ten thousand pounds." From time to time further explorations were made by the government officers and private individuals, who succeeded in discovering indications of auriferous ground, but on close examination and a large expenditure of time and means, none proved sufficiently remunerative to attract either people from their ordinary industrial pursuits, or the practised miners from the rich eastern gold-fields. This went on for twelve years without any spot being found richer than Echunga. At last the Government invited Mr. Hargreaves, in 1864, to survey the northern as well as the southern parts of the colony, hoping that the first discoverer of gold in New South Wales might be as fortunate in South Australia. After a careful examination of many promising localities during half a year, for which he was handsomely remunerated, he
brought his search to a close in June, 1864, reporting that he had made no discoveries in the northern part of the colony, and that the most likely locality at which to look for a remunerative gold-field would be in the neighbourhood of the Onkaparinga, to the east of Adelaide. Since then the search has been abandoned, and South Australia cannot rank as a gold-producing colony.

This want of a remunerative gold-field, though, in one sense, retarding the expansion of the colony, has benefited the colonists in another way, by fixing their attention upon the productions and fertility of the soil. While every branch of agriculture has progressed satisfactorily from year to year, the new source of profit derived from the vintage at once exhibits the numerous resources of Australia, in producing the luxuries as well as the necessaries of life, and specially points to the enterprise of the South Australian colonists. The attention of the farmers was first drawn to planting vineyards, by the splendid grapes grown on the few vines brought from Germany by the Hahndorf colonists. Their size and flavour were fully appreciated in the Adelaide market, where they brought a good price for the consumption of the table. Some of these Germans had been acquainted with wine production in their own country, and it was natural for them to try and produce some of their favourite beverage, if only to remind themselves of the famous Rhine wines. So, many of these industrious settlers began to extend their little vineyards, and to press the grape in the simplest manner; they found that they produced a wine not much inferior to the light wines of Germany and France.

The English settlers soon followed their example,
prompted by the fact that the best ground for a vineyard was the least suitable for growing cereals, consequently they profited by what was otherwise waste land. At first the kinds of grape they cultivated were chiefly for the table, but the supply increased so far beyond the demand, that their value was reduced below the cost of production; they therefore turned their attention to the growth of the choicest wine-grapes. Already the colonists of New South Wales had shown that good wine could be produced in localities corresponding to those in South Australia, and James Macarthur had produced a wine at the Great Exhibition of 1851, nearly equal in strength and flavour to the rich Hungarian Tokay. With these facts before them, the planting of vineyards was prosecuted with great energy, until there was scarcely a farm in the colony without its vineyard and wine-press, and when flour and wheat barely remunerated the farmer for his outlay, he supplemented his income by a few hogsheads of wine sold in Adelaide. In that city merchants conversant with the quality of these growths, pronounced them to be superior to the best Catawba wines in Sydney, and to compare favourably with Sauterne, Chablis, Maçon and other favourite wines of Europe. Indeed they surpassed these white and red light wines, as they possessed greater body from being the pure juice of the grape, unadulterated and unsophisticated by any artificial means. Some soils and localities were found to produce better wines than others. These were selected by the wine merchants, some of whom went into the vatting of wines extensively, classifying the growths according to the grape from which they were produced, or the locality of the vineyard; one merchant called several sorts after his own name. A
small export of the choice kinds to the neighbouring colonies is carried on at a good profit, for the local consumption is not equal to the supply, nor likely to be for some time to come. Ultimately there is every probability of South Australia being an extensive wine-exporting country, and it may pay to ship the best qualities to England.

In 1862, the quantity shipped was 20,574 gallons, or sevenfold that of the previous year. In 1863, 27,705 gallons. The acreage under vines is returned as 1777 acres, against 3918 in the previous season, and the number of bearing vines, 2,929,756, with 2,920,941 not in bearing. The former produced 472,797 gallons of wine, and 26,551 cwt. of grapes were disposed of in Adelaide, or sent to Melbourne and Tasmania. So abundant are grapes that they are retailed during the height of the season at one penny or twopence per pound.

Other branches of agriculture progressed steadily during the period subsequent to the gold discovery. As the cultivation of wheat was almost abandoned in Victoria, that proved the best market for flour and grain, enriching the farmers beyond their most sanguine expectations. The land under tillage in 1862-3 amounted to 494,511 acres, or 7844 acres more than in the previous season, of which no less than 323,160 acres was under wheat; the harvest producing 3,841,824 bushels, against 3,410,756 bushels in 1861-2. The area of country and suburban land sold by the crown during 1862 amounted to 129,803 acres, making a total of 2,508,851 acres alienated to that date, or 18.6 acres per head of the population. Enclosed pasture land is returned at 1,611,366 acres. The number of horses is stated at 56,251, against 52,597 in the previous year; an increase of 3654 chiefly in the
counties, where horses are displacing bullocks on farms; the number of cattle being 258,342. A considerable increase appears in the number of sheep, being 3,431,000, against 3,038,356, or an addition of 12½ per cent, producing 13,229,009 lbs. of wool, against 13,164,391 lbs. in 1861, the declared value being £635,270 and £623,007 respectively. The total shipment during five years was 55,396,289 lbs., or an average of 11,079,342 lbs. per annum.

In like manner, the export and production of lead and copper, with their ores, gradually recovered after the first blush of the gold discovery. During the ten years ending 1862 the value of the mineral produce amounted to £3,524,641; the first half of that period being £1,294,013, and the second half, £2,230,628; or nearly double the amount. The value of the export in the last year was £547,619, or £95,447 more than in the previous year; of which 85,872 cwt. was fine copper, smelted and cast into ingots, and shipped to Great Britain, Melbourne, and India, in nearly equal proportions. The rapid strides made in the export of produce during that decennial period are shown in the following returns:—1853, £731,595; 1857, £1,744,184; and in 1862, £1,920,487—the latter comprising: bread-stuffs, grain, &c., £633,241; wool, £635,270; copper and other minerals, £547,619; and miscellaneous products, £104,357. There are other exports not the produce of the colony, chiefly gold from Victoria, which raised the total to £2,145,796, against £1,145,796 in 1861; and imports, £1,820,656 and £1,976,018, making a combined export and import trade amounting in these years to £4,008,329, and £3,996,452 respectively. The falling off occurs in the imports, showing an increase
in 1862 of £81,848 of exports—one of the healthiest signs in the commerce of nations. From the United Kingdom the colony received £1,178,963 worth of merchandise, being an excess of £235,422 over the exports; showing a direct trade with the mother country of nearly two millions sterling.

With Victoria the trade fell to £754,696, from £1,191,803 in 1861; showing that the consumption of bread-stuffs by that colony had decreased. This general progress in the trade of the province is seen in the returns for 1864, which amounted to £2,412,931 value of imports, and £3,305,545 of exports, or a total external commerce of £5,718,476. The public revenue during the same year amounted to £766,635, and the expenditure to £612,078; there being in the hands of the treasurer, on the 31st December, a total balance of a quarter of a million. The receipts from the customs, and the revenue generally, were in a most satisfactory condition.

As the Government found that, without a continuous stream of well-selected emigrants from the mother country, the working power of the population could not be maintained, a large portion of the revenue was voted to pay for their passages. In 1864, the sum voted was £60,000, and was subsequently raised to £70,000. During the five years—1853-7—38,457 persons were added to the population by immigration, of whom 33,420 were introduced at the public expense. The immigration diminished in the next five years—1858-62—to 7,168 government-immigrants. In the last year of this term the population numbered 135,329, composed of 69,608 males, and 65,721 females. In this respect, South Australia shows the least disproportion of the sexes among the whole Australian colonies. The
number of immigrants that arrived at Port Adelaide, from the commencement of the year 1861, to the 17th December, was 5,517; and 2,471 emigrants departed, exhibiting an accession of 3046 to the population of the colony, which was computed in round numbers at 150,000. The statistical tables for 1862 show that the native-born amount to 38.85 per cent.; English, 35.36 per cent.; Irish, 10 per cent.; German, 6.98 per cent.; and Scotch, 6.03 per cent. There was one-sixth more English men than women, and one-third more Irish women than men.

At the general census in 1861 the total aboriginal population in this province was 5,016. In the pastoral districts the proportion of the sexes was found to be nearly equal, but in the counties or settled districts, the males considerably exceeded the females—the former being 1,022 in number and the latter, 799. The children throughout the colony numbered only 850. The behaviour of the South Australian colonists towards these aboriginal possessors of the country is most praiseworthy. On their general condition and disappearance before colonization, the following remarks by Governor Daly are very appropriate:—“It is the melancholy and all but unanimous testimony of the early settlers and of others best qualified to form a correct opinion, that the aboriginal population is fast dying out; but there are no records from which to ascertain the rate of decrease. The causes of the decrease are disease, sterility of the females, and infanticide, which, it is believed, is a crime of very frequent occurrence. Opinions are very conflicting as to how far their social condition is affected by the new settlements. From evidence given before a select committee of the Legislative Council in 1860, it
appears that the natives in general have been in no way benefited by being brought into contact with Europeans. But I think this view is open to modification, since it cannot be denied that the squatters, who are justly called the 'pioneers of civilization,' treat them with much forbearance and kindness, and encourage the natives to remain upon their 'runs' for the sake of their services. The young men, especially, soon becoming useful as shepherds, shearers, reapers, stock-keepers, colt-breakers, &c., and the lubras as washerwomen, and in other domestic occupations. About a fourth of the able-bodied males were employed by the settlers in 1861, and the proportion is now (1863) probably greater. Generally, they are well remunerated, and some of them obtain as high wages as the best white labourers. It is pleasing to be able to inform your grace, (the Duke of Newcastle), that the reports of the missionary establishments at Poonindie and Point Macleay are encouraging. At Poonindie there are thirty-six natives who receive careful religious and moral instruction, and who are trained to habits of industry. The experiment there may prove in its results the possibility of the civilisation of the race, and confirms the opinion so often expressed by missionaries, that Christianity is the only efficient instrument for its accomplishment. Further evidence is afforded by the success of the missionary institution at Point Macleay. Dr. Walter, the Protector of Aborigines, to whom I am chiefly indebted for this information, informs me that the beneficial effects of the religious instruction imparted to the natives is apparent without, as well as within the establishment. Many of their superstitions have been abandoned, their character for honesty has improved,
they observe the Sabbath as a day of rest; and a considerable number appear at morning and evening service, neat and clean, and conduct themselves with great propriety; that the capacity of the young to receive education is beyond dispute, and that from frequent and personal examination, he is of opinion that they make as rapid progress as the average of white children. The crime of infanticide is also less prevalent, and this is the only locality in the province where the aboriginal population, instead of gradually declining, is evidently increasing. The extension of such agencies affords the only hope of the social as well as the moral and spiritual elevation of the race.

A sum of money is annually put on the estimates, and voted by the Legislature for provisions, blankets, medical attendance, &c., for the aborigines. The amount voted last year (1861), was £3195 5s., and this year a further sum of £500 has been added. Depôts have been formed in the localities where the natives are most numerous, and flour, tea, blankets, &c., are distributed amongst the infirm and destitute, according to their necessities."

This kindly spirit towards the benighted native population is highly praiseworthy.

A high regard for religion, and attendance at public worship, is manifested by the South Australians. Throughout the colony there are churches and chapels with sittings sufficient to accommodate three-fifths of the whole population. With but few exceptions, these were erected in the early days of the colony, by the unaided voluntary efforts of the colonists; and there never has been any state-aid to religion. Perfect religious equality exists in the eyes of the law. In 1862, the number of churches and chapels was 410, besides which 172 rooms were used by congregations; with sittings for
RELIGION AND EDUCATION.

72,816 and 5,800 hearers respectively; making a total of 582 places of worship, and 78,616 sittings, provided for a population of 135,329 souls. Of the 410 churches and chapels, 359 have Sunday schools connected with them, at which 20,705 scholars attend, or more than half the children in the colony from five to fifteen years of age. The number of teachers was 2,840, of whom 1,348 were males and 1,492 females; or nearly one teacher for every eight scholars. Every year schoolhouses are enlarged, ministers' residences erected, and handsome edifices constructed for public worship, showing marked activity in this respect amongst the leading denominations.

While religious training is left entirely to the voluntary efforts of the people, secular education receives pecuniary support from an annual vote of the legislature; and the schools and schoolmasters are licensed under the supervision of a Central Board of Education. During the ten years ending in 1862, the money devoted to the cause of education amounted to £133,828; of which £16,179 were expended in that year upon 227 licensed schools, 155 schoolmasters, and 72 schoolmistresses. The number of scholars on the rolls was 11,417, with an average attendance of 8,810—an increase of 504 on the previous year; of whom the proportion of boys to girls was 53·7 to 46·3 respectively—nearly the same as in the three previous years. In addition to the regular expenditure in that year, the sum of £860 12s. was paid by the Government in the shape of fees for the education of destitute children and orphans, giving an average of £1 19s. for each child. There are twenty-seven educational institutes, receiving a government-grant of £1500, in addition to voluntary subscriptions from 2,157 subscribers; making an annual
income of £2228. The total number of books in their respective libraries being 24,166 in 1862. Besides these public schools, there are a considerable number of private seminaries not receiving state-aid, raising the proportion of scholars to the whole population to 1 in 7·6.

To the circumstance of this province never having been a receptacle for transported offenders, is to be attributed its comparative immunity from attacks upon life and property—serious offences being of unfrequent occurrence. After an interval of eight years, during which period no white person suffered the extreme penalty of the law, two offenders were convicted in 1862 of the crime of murder, and the sentences of death were carried into execution. With these exceptions the number of convictions in the Supreme Court, for offences against the person, during that and the two preceding years, were only eight in each year; whilst the offences against property brought to a conviction were only thirty-six in 1862, and forty in 1861. The total number of offenders convicted before a jury was sixty-four, being two more than in 1861; but many less than in either of the nine years preceding. These facts go to prove that crime diminishes with the increase of population, which is one of the best evidences of a prosperous and law-abiding community.

Amongst the most important legal institutions of the colony, is one for the conveyance of land upon a cheap, easy, and effective principle, which places South Australia far above all the other colonies in Her Majesty’s dominions in that respect, and even holds up a praiseworthy example to the parent state itself. This is due to the indefatigable exertions of Mr. Torrens. In 1858 that gentleman succeeded in
passing a Real Property Act for the registration and transfer of titles to land, in lieu of the old cumbersome and costly system of conveyance. Based on this act, a Lands Title Registration Office was established, wherein the purchaser of land gave up his parchment title-deeds, that cost from £5 to £50, and had his name registered in a book, from which the transfer was copied on a certificate, that cost only a few shillings. The great benefit conferred by this act is, that it fixes, by the stamp of official authority, every transaction in land under its provisions, thus doing away with the necessity for the investigation of the prior title, and the long and expensive abstracts of title which are the result of the old system. It is obviously of great advantage to those landowners, whose titles, though good for holding, are not marketable, on account of some technical defect, or through the absence of the means of strict legal proof, which the principles of the old system rendered necessary. All the title-deeds are preserved in a fire-proof apartment, to be consulted in the event of a title being disputed; and should the transfer be wrong, an assurance fund is provided to meet the loss, which amounted to £4329 in 1862, when no demand had been made on it, although the act had been five years in operation. The total number of transactions in the office during that year was 2,891, and the value of the land brought under the operation of the act was £477,502; in 1861 the transactions were 2,183, and the money value, £451,475. The facilities for borrowing money on landed property by this act are likewise most advantageous, and held so high in public estimation that there is a general disposition not to lend money on any property which is not under it. The amount lent
on mortgage under the Real Property Act in 1862, was £213,829, against £53,719 in 1859. It is impossible to estimate the saving to the colonists by this admirable institution. In October, 1864, both Houses of Parliament in South Australia voted thanks to Mr. Torrens for his exertions as to the Real Property Act. This admirable land system and conveyance has been introduced into Victoria, New South Wales, and Tasmania.

Ever active in developing the resources of the country under their control, the South Australians lost no time in extending their boundary to the northern shores of Australia, including all the country discovered by Mr. Stuart. Under the name of North Australia, that immense tract of territory is placed under the provisional government of South Australia, and a government-resident, with a staff of officials, is located on the shores of Van Diemen's Gulf, to found a new colony. A competent surveyor fixed on a site for the future capital of the colony at Adam Bay, near the mouth of Adelaide River. This stream is described as being navigable for vessels of the largest tonnage, at least sixty miles inland, flowing through a rich alluvial country, well watered everywhere, abounding in good timber and abundance of pasturage for cattle and sheep. Although the climate is tropical, there is evidence that it is neither so hot nor so humid as countries within the corresponding latitudes north of the equator; and there is every reason to conclude that it will partake of that general salubrity which characterises the southern regions of Australia. When once this new colony is fully organized and matured, a large influx of Malays and Chinese may be expected, since they value British rule above all others, as a government
under which to live in peace and security. So soon as they learn that the land is good for cultivating tropical products, and that the flag of England flies there to protect them, they will come in large numbers, to settle as coolies, or as small cultivators of rice and cotton. Already the natives of Timor and the adjacent islands visit the bays on the coast to fish for trepang, or sea-slug, so much prized in the East as an article of food. These people used to call at the settlement of Port Essington, in these parts, before it was abandoned by the British in 1849, and they evinced a great desire to trade with the naval and military depot there. There is every probability, therefore, of considerable traffic arising between the colonists of North Australia and the inhabitants of these isles, many of whom are Christians. Moreover, many French creoles, from the Island of Bourbon or Reunion, are desirous of emigrating from that over-peopled little isle, and of settling in the northern territory of Australia as cultivators of tropical produce.

In view of these advantages for the successful colonization of this newly-acquired territory, a number of enterprising colonists and settlers have formed themselves into a company for the purpose of developing the scheme, which promises to be a profitable investment. The first and main object of the North Australian Company's proprietary was to secure large tracts of freehold land at the public sales established in London, in March, 1864, under the auspices of the Agent-general for South Australia. At this sale 124,960 country acres, and 781 half-acre town lots, were sold at seven shillings and sixpence per acre, which realized £47,006. In June of the same year a sale took place in Adelaide, at which 118,880 acres of country land,
and 743 half-acre town lots, were disposed of at the same rate, realizing £44,719; making an income for this embryo settlement, including £2000 interest, of £93,725, with an expenditure of £17,900 during its first financial year.

Thus have these South Australian colonists by their indomitable energy and perseverance colonized the extreme latitudes of this vast island-continent, and in time, doubtless, will have a pathway across the central wilderness. They are proposing to extend the telegraph wires across it, and a railway is in contemplation from Port Augusta, at the head of Spencer Gulf, to some point 150 or 200 miles northward, which may be extended the whole way. Already upwards of a thousand miles of telegraph have been constructed throughout the colony, and fifty-seven miles of railway. The former connected with the Victorian, New South Wales, and Queensland lines, and the latter extending from Port Adelaide to the Kapunda mines. Thus, also, with resources slender when compared to the other Australian colonies, South Australia is advancing with rapid strides in the grand work of colonization. And it may be said, that where fortuitous circumstances, and extraneous aid in men and means, in a great measure assisted in the development of New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania, South Australia has progressed chiefly through the skill, public spirit, and indomitable energy of her colonists.
CHAPTER VIII.

WEST AUSTRALIA.


EASTERN AUSTRALIA having been successfully colonized by the British, other European nations began to cast an eye upon the western territory of this great south land. One moiety of the continent, designated New Holland by the Dutch, having been abandoned by its discoverers, was open for any European power to occupy, that was bold enough to plant its flag upon the shores, and form a settlement. Some years after the peace of 1815, when France had recovered from her desolating wars, her ambitious sons finding themselves shut out from territorial acquisitions in Europe and America, thought it desirable to look for new possessions
in the far East and South. Accordingly, among other projects, an expedition was proposed to the French Government, in 1825, to colonize some part of the south-west coast of Australia. This coming to the knowledge of the British Government, instructions were sent out to the Governor of New South Wales to forestall the French by sending a military party to take formal possession in the King's name, and to hoist the British standard. In 1826 this was effected by Major Lockyer and Captain Barker, of the 39th Regiment of Infantry, with a detachment of their corps, and a commissariat staff. They fixed upon the south shore, at King George Sound, an inlet from the Indian Ocean, discovered by Captain Vancouver in 1792. This is one of the finest roadsteads in Australia as a port of refuge. It opens the land-locked waters of Princess Royal Harbour, where the entrance is only two hundred yards wide, yet deep enough to float a thousand-ton ship. When the French heard of this new English possession, they abandoned their Australian scheme for other localities of better promise.

The military settlement was located on the north shore of this inner harbour, where the town of Albany now stands. Although the port was found to be unexceptional for shipping traffic, yet the surrounding country presented the most sterile aspect. Here the rivers King and Kalagon flow into the roadstead through an arid country, destitute of pasture or agricultural lands sufficient to make it a self-supporting colony. However, the climate and soil were found favourable for garden produce and all kinds of European fruits, so that in time the soldiers grew their own vegetables, but for all other supplies of provisions they were dependent on Sydney or Hobart Town.
the latter settlement many whaling-ships visited the harbour for wood and water, or to refit. Consequently this military post was not entirely shut off from connection with the settlers in the old colonies at the outset. It served its political purpose by holding possession of the country for three years, when it was supplanted by a new settlement from England, formed on the banks of Swan River, round Cape Leeuwin, on the west coast.

About this time, the success of the Australian penal settlements, and their capabilities for the increase of live-stock and the growth of wool, created much interest and discussion among the wealthy, as well as the industrial classes in the mother country. From time to time, if the subject flagged, there were several zealous successful Australian colonists at home, who published glowing accounts of New South Wales and Tasmania, to encourage free, or bounty emigration. In reviewing these attractive statements of material prosperity, there was always the moral blackness in the picture, that they were convict communities, and those who had a dread of Botany Bay life relinquished the prospects of wealth on that account. Then it occurred to some enterprising men that there were no reasons why a new colony, based upon free labour, should not succeed as well as a penal colony. This idea gained ground as it was discussed in the public press, until it was taken up by some Members of Parliament, and even gentlemen belonging to the aristocracy. Among the latter, the Peel family and Sir Francis Vincent took an active part in the question. Large capitalists, with considerable influence, thought it a good scheme to acquire large tracts of land at a small cost in these colonial possessions, as others had previously done in
the American colonies. The British Government encouraged these views, as such a colony would be the means of keeping possession of other parts of Australia without the cost of a penal or military settlement, and pointed out the west coast as the best for all purposes, as it would be farthest from the dreaded Botany Bay, and at the same time relieve the military post at King George Sound.

As soon as the Government entertained this new project of free colonization in Australia, a commission was appointed to draw up the principles upon which the colony should be founded, how emigration should be carried out, and where was the most eligible site for the first settlement. On this last point Captain (afterwards Sir James) Stirling, R.N., was consulted, as he had surveyed a part of the west coast; so, at his recommendation the commissioners fixed upon Melville Harbour, into which the "Swan River" flows, so named by the discoverer Vlaming, in 1697. In order to encourage people with property to emigrate, they adopted a system of free grants of land at the nominal rate of one shilling and sixpence per acre, to all who brought live-stock or agricultural implements, or who paid the passages of labourers to cultivate the land in the colony. In fact, grants of land were to be given as an equivalent for part of what otherwise would have been paid in money on government account. The surveyors who parcelled out the land were partly paid in grants, and the builders who erected public works were to be treated in the same way. Even the Governor himself and the employés in the various departments were to have part of their salaries in land. This land-holding principle was most attractive in theory, and induced many to emigrate who had not the slightest notion of
what the land was like. All they thought of was to be on the spot early to get the first selection. So eager were these emigrants to go out, that they did not wait for the departure of Governor Stirling and his staff of surveyors to fix upon the site of the first town, but many sailed a couple of months beforehand. He found on his arrival, in August, 1829, several ships at anchor, with anxious settlers on board, who were seriously disappointed at the barren aspect of the country. A spot up the Swan River was fixed on for the settlement, where the immigrants landed with their lares and penates.

Unforeseen delays prevented the surveyors parcelling out the land, so that the immigrants settled down anywhere, and erected their tents in the wilderness. Most of them were unaccustomed to manual labour, and not a few were persons from the upper ranks of society, who had never done a day's work in their lives. Disastrous results soon followed, and the greatest privations were endured from want of house accommodation, as the immigrants arrived in the Australian winter, which was unusually rigorous. No adequate provision had been made for regular supplies of food, while there was a scarcity of money in the community, to pay for cargoes of provisions brought from New South Wales and Tasmania for sale. In six months twenty-five ships arrived in the new port, and 850 immigrants had landed, with 1096 sheep, 204 cattle, 57 horses, and property to the value of £41,550, giving claims to land, but which was of small avail in opening up the resources of that poor country; so that many of the implements were exchanged for flour, and the hard cash was paid away to non-residents for sheep and cattle.
Had the adjacent country possessed anything like good pasture, the live-stock would soon have multiplied and enriched the settlers. But the grass was so sparse, and the soil so sandy, that there was little herbage, excepting some small bushes which sheep would not touch, while they fed upon a plant that killed them. This was a grievous discovery, for the pasture lands were looked to as the future source of their prosperity. The existence of this poisonous plant, and the scarcity of pasture in the neighbourhood of Swan River, no doubt has prevented the colony advancing. But the settlers lacked the enterprise of those in New South Wales, who crossed the Blue Mountains, and reached the shores of Port Phillip, in search of fresh pastures. Some squatters have recently penetrated to the north and north-east of the Swan River, and discovered as good grazing lands as any on the south and east parts of Australia. It would appear, therefore, that these pioneer-colonists of the west were not very well qualified for the great work of colonization.

During 1830 the arrival of ships with immigrants increased to thirty vessels, landing 1,125 settlers, representing a proportionate amount of property entitled to its equivalent in land. These ships also brought cargoes of merchandise for sale, to the value of £144,177. As it was inconvenient to take the cargoes up to the first settlement, named Perth, a seaport was established at the entrance to the harbour, fourteen miles distant by water, on a barren sandy shore, and named Freemantle; here, and at the town-site of Clarence, the goods were landed. In 1831 the number of vessels gradually diminished, and emigrants were deterred from sailing by the disastrous accounts transmitted home, so that only seventeen ships arrived during that
DEPLORABLE STATE OF THE COLONISTS.

year; and before the expiration of the first quarter of 1832, immigration was confined to a few individuals who went out to join their families or friends. A period of only one year and nine months, therefore, had elapsed from the time of the first arrivals, when this colonizing bubble burst, and the unfortunate settlers had no other alternative but to remain and deplore the wreck of their hopes and fortunes.

The account of their hardships and misfortunes is embodied in an address to Governor Stirling, signed by every non-official settler, together with the magistrates, of which the following is an extract:—"The entire material for a settlement, the official staff, settlers, property, and live-stock, were hurried out to an unknown wilderness, before one acre of land was surveyed, before one building had been erected, before even a guess had been formed as to the proper scene of their labours, and before the slightest knowledge had been obtained of the soil, climate, products or inhabitants. Nay, further, it was absolutely made a condition of the grants of land, that the emigrant should not only arrive, but bring his family, dependents and property, into the colony while in this state. The ghastly spectacle of the town-site of Clarence—its sole edifices crowded, hurried, and neglected tombs—its only inhabitants corpses, the victims of disease, starvation and despair—the sea-beach strewn with wrecks—the hills and borders of the rivers studded with deserted and half-finished buildings—bear witness to these consequences, and speak of brave men, delicate females, and helpless children, perishing by hundreds on a desert coast, from want of food, of shelter, and even of water, and surrounded by armed hordes of angry savages. It were wholly impossible, sir, to estimate the vast amount of
property of every sort buried for safety in the sands of the shore, and never again recovered; or the multitude of most valuable and high-bred stock of all descriptions, whose skeletons whitened the beach, or filled the morasses they had been forced to enter in the desperate search even for fresh water. Can we wonder, then, that thousands rushed from such a scene with the relics of their capital, to people other colonies; or even that numbers sat down in the frenzy of despair beside the spirit-cask, never to rise from it alive? Can we wonder that the name of Swan River should, throughout the civilized world, become identified with failure and ruin, and that the survivors of such carnage should be left alone by their fellow men to carry on an enterprise so dreadfully begun? Or, may we not rather indulge in a justifiable pride in the resources of a country, and the energies of a people, who, from the commencement, have, under Providence, elaborated even the civilization which your Excellency may already see around you? But these terrible scenes, brought on by the unjustifiable attempt to hurry a colony into existence, before steps had been taken for its security, are far from being the termination, or even the most injurious, of the errors which have plunged us into our present difficulties. At the time when the unhappy immigrants were crowding on the beach, wasting and losing all their means, the conditions of their immigration told them that they had but a limited time to select and improve their grants. And more monstrous still, this time had actually expired before those grants were surveyed."

From the use of such phrases as "armed hordes of angry savages," "the multitude of most valuable and high-bred stock," and "that thousands rushed from such a scene," the address may be taken as an
EXAGGERATED STATEMENT.

exaggerated statement. There were not a hundred natives within the vicinity of the settlement, and the stock consisted of only an ordinary flock of sheep, a herd of cattle, and a few horses, while the population, resident and non-resident, barely numbered two thousand. It was written and endorsed by settlers smarting under heavy losses in consequence of the blunders of an ill-planned scheme.

In another portion of the address a less sensational paragraph describes the grants of land as follows:—"A minor, but yet very ruinous error, consisted in limiting the investments of capital, which produced a vast accumulation of the same articles, and total want of others, and of money. The majority of the imported articles could not be of use for some years, and each settler was induced to bring more than he required, in hopes of sale. The want of storehouses caused the destruction of all these. As if sufficient means had not been used to destroy our capital, the system of location-duties was added; by which the settler was compelled to prove that he had wasted 1s. 6d. per acre in permanent improvements. The result was, the erection of multitudes of cottages, fences, &c., in remote, and at the time, wholly uninhabitable places, which were, of course, allowed to become the prey of the elements, as soon as the expensive farce had been performed."

Another act of the authorities, much complained of, was, granting preferential claims of land to military and naval officers, and others connected with the Government, the recipients often being not settlers in the country, but absentees. The bonâ fide farmer, when applying for land, found that the surveyors had reserved the best lots of arable soil convenient to the
settlement, to people who knew nothing of farming, and to land-jobbers, who entered into it as a speculation. In this manner, according to a parliamentary document, eleven military officers had 30,862 acres assigned to them; sixteen naval officers, 33,680 acres; and nineteen civil officers of the crown, 162,062 acres. There were also private individuals who had prior assignments to the extent of 60,880 acres; making a total of 287,484 acres, amongst sixty-one individuals. Moreover, there were reserves for townships of an equally extensive character, which precluded the farmer from acquiring arable land near the settlements. The site for Perth had 3,840 acres; for Clarence, 7,680; for Plantagenet, 17,000; and for York, 38,400; besides others, making in all, 98,500 acres. Such a system of dealing with the land in West Australia could not last long, and the sale by auction at twenty shillings per acre upset price, adopted by the other colonies, was substituted. The land alienated in the whole colony on this system, in 1848, averaged 350 acres for every man, woman, and child.

Under these circumstances, if the land about the Swan River settlement had been the richest in the world, and the plan of colonization carefully carried out, the industrious practical settler could not make a living. But when it is considered that ninety-nine acres out of a hundred were unfit for cultivation, and the remainder with scarcely any grass, it was evident that the colony was a failure. Those who could gather up the wreck of their property emigrated to Tasmania and New South Wales, and many returned to England, where they made their complaints known, and of course deterred further emigration to the colony. Its history therefore, up to 1849, is that of a small, poor, struggling
community, endeavouring to obtain the bare means of subsistence from the stubborn soil; isolated and almost forgotten by the flourishing colonists of the eastern and southern shores of Australia, which the projectors of this western settlement had despised. To the credit of the few who remained, they rose up from their despondency after a time, and manfully endeavoured to develop the resources of the country, whatever these might be. After exploring the unknown parts to the north, east, and south, they were gratified to find that better lands, well watered, lay in the interior. Overland communication was made with King George Sound, as the Government of the settlement of Albany reverted to the authorities at Swan River in 1831. Governor Stirling left the colony in September, 1832, for the purpose of rendering an account of the disastrous failure to the Home Government, which he appears to have done satisfactorily for himself, as he received the honour of knighthood. He was absent two years, during which the Government of the petty settlement devolved upon Captain Irwin, of the 63rd Regiment, in the first year, and Captain Daniel, of the 21st Regiment, in the second. Sir James Stirling returned in August, 1834, and, to his credit be it recorded, infused new vigour into the colonists, by surmounting the errors committed in the early proceedings of the settlement. But for him, the colony would have been abandoned; and it made satisfactory progress during his further tenure of office, when he again left in 1838. He was succeeded by Governor Hutt, a civilian, in January, 1839, who administered the affairs of the colony, with credit, up to February, 1846, when Lieutenant-Colonel Clarke assumed the reins of government, which he was destined not to hold long, as he
died in February, 1847. Major Irwin resumed his post as acting-governor, and continued to do so for upwards of two years, when his successor, Captain Fitzgerald, arrived in September, 1849.

The material condition of the colony, during the fifteen years before the arrival of that Governor, may be briefly shown by the following statistical returns:—In 1834, the European population numbered only 1,600; land under cultivation, 918 acres, of which 564 were in wheat; live-stock—horses, 162; cattle, 500; sheep, 3,500; exports valued at £1,020; shipping inwards, 3,120 tons. These details prove that the colony of West Australia, the intended free model-settlement, after five years' existence, was not equal in population and material prosperity to one of the small townships in New South Wales. No statistics have been furnished of the condition of the settlement previous to that year, excepting the amount of property introduced by immigrants, on which applications for land were based, valued at £120,000, and consisting of live-stock, implements of husbandry, provisions, wearing apparel, furniture, and other goods. If we double this amount from the value of merchandise landed for sale, which was either consumed or destroyed, we have a fair statement of the capital expended in bringing about the condition in 1834. Thus it may be said that nearly a quarter of a million sterling was absorbed in this lamentable experiment. However, from that year a period of prosperity began; the progress, though trifling compared with the rapid strides of Port Phillip, was satisfactory. In 1839 we find the population increased to 2,151—males, 1,302, and females, 852; land under cultivation, 2,725 acres—wheat, 1,471; other crops, 1,254; live-stock, 23,948—comprising 367 horses, 1,308
horned cattle, 21,038 sheep, and 1,235 swine; commerce —imports valued at £10,000, exports, £5,448; shipping inwards, 16,805 tons; wool, 36,450 lbs.: revenue, £3,912; parliamentary grant, £7,008; military expenditure, £13,199. Thus it will be seen that upwards of £20,000 was disbursed in the colony out of the imperial treasury, of which one-third was a grant from the House of Commons, to maintain the survey and judicial departments, the salary of the Governor, Secretary, Chaplains, &c., while the other two-thirds were commissariat disbursements, for which no equivalent service was required. But for this expenditure, there is no doubt that the settlement would have languished and died out from financial inanition.

During the fourteen years, 1835-48 inclusive, the money expended by the British Government to nourish this weak colonial offshoot amounted to £233,271, of which £96,279 was a parliamentary grant, and £136,992 commissariat expenditure. Had the influx of new settlers with capital and labour been proportionate to this, a healthy recovery might have ensued. An effort of this kind was made in 1835, by a company, called the "Western Australian Association," for the purpose of forming a settlement at Leschenhault Bay, to be named "Australind;" but the scheme was abandoned just as the first ship had arrived with the pioneer-staff of officials and emigrants. Perhaps this was judicious, for the promoters of the project do not appear to have made adequate preparation for founding the settlement, and similar disasters to those of Swan River might have taken place.

During the ten years, from 1839 to 1849, the progress of West Australia was steady; so that in 1848 the population was 4,622—males, 2,818; females,
1,804; land under cultivation, 7,047 acres—3,316 in wheat, 1,411 in barley, oats, rye, &c., and 2,320 in green crops; live-stock, 157,855—comprising 2,095 horses, 10,919 horned cattle, 141,123 sheep, 2,287 swine, and 1,431 goats; revenue, £10,723; parliamentary grant, £7,695; military expenditure, £11,545; trade—imports valued at £45,411; exports (including 301,965 lbs. of wool, valued at £9,666) £29,598; and shipping inwards, 15,494 tons. Thus we have a glance at the progress and material condition of the colony up to the 1st January, 1849.

From that date a new era dawned upon the colony, and a complete revulsion of feeling came over the colonists with regard to penal settlements. After twenty years’ experience as a free community, they now petitioned the Government to be made a convict colony. During that period they found that land without labour is worthless, and that free emigrants shunned their shores. They came to the conclusion that if they had convict-labour, with its imperial expenditure, prosperity might come, and their expectations might not be disappointed. This is worthy of remark, that after the old penal colonies became free, repelling with indignation the landing of felons on their shores, this feeble settlement craved for that labour as a blessing, which in its youth was looked upon as a curse. Such is the mutability of human foresight. And it is just possible, that if the government-commissioners in 1829 had sent out a body of pioneer convicts to clear the wilderness around Swan River, and construct roads and bridges to the arable lands, at the Government cost, instead of sending out a body of emigrants without means even to cultivate small patches of land for their subsistence, West Australia might at this
day have rivalled her eastern sisters in wealth. From being a colony remarkable for its high moral tone, and immunity from serious crimes, it now became a great gaol with a depraved population, a nursery of desperate criminals, who carried terror into the gold colonies, and excited their colonists to acts of rebellion against the parent state.

To ascertain the social and religious condition of the community, prior to this era, we must again refer to the statistical returns. We find in October, 1848, nearly three-fourths of the inhabitants members of the Church of England, or 3,063; Independents, 187; Wesleyan Methodists, 276; other Protestants, 311; Protestant dissenters, 188; and Roman Catholics, 337; with 90 Mohammedans and Pagans, and 170 not specified. There were seven clergymen and an archdeacon of the English church, who were partly maintained out of a bishopric-fund created by 8,000 acres of land, the gift of the colonists, who had also built by subscription a church at Perth, which cost £3,500, capable of seating a thousand persons; one at Fremantle which cost £1,500, and eight others throughout the country; besides dissenting chapels, with three ministers; and three priests under a Roman Catholic bishop. There were also twelve public schools, with 444 scholars—238 male, and 206 female; three of these schools were in connection with the Romish church, with 166 scholars, and the others governmental schools for secular instruction, under a board of education. The occupations of the colonists are classified as follows:—agriculturists, 300; labourers and gardeners, 476; employed on sheep farms, 121; on cattle stations, 24; trades—shopkeepers, 64; bricklayers and masons, 32; smiths, 22; carpenters, joiners, plumbers, and
The condition of the aboriginal population compares favourably with that of the natives in the eastern and southern colonies; this has arisen chiefly from the kindness and consideration in their treatment of the first settlers in Swan River. It is true that at first the immigrants occasionally came into collision with them, but as immigration ceased, and the class of settlers who remained were mostly from the educated ranks of society, they, with praiseworthy conduct, not only treated the natives kindly, but strove to reclaim them from their savage mode of life by giving them employment, and by instilling into them the truths of the Christian religion. Their efforts in this direction were attended with success, and numbers entered the services of the settlers, both in town and country, while others were ready to undertake any casual employment. Not the least important feature in this utilization of native labour consisted in the liberal wages given, and the conscientious fulfilment of a bargain with them, as it would have been with a white man. The latter consideration is of the first importance in dealing with these children of nature, and we speak from much experience on the subject, when we aver, that the non-fulfilment of bargains entered into with the aborigines has led to most of the sanguinary feuds between them and unscrupulous settlers, who have cheated them of their promised pay or reward.
On the other hand, if the liberal colonist gives a little over the stipulated sum, or an extra ration of food, they clap their hands with glee, and become his sworn friends, even protecting him and his property from attacks by the neighbouring tribes. Acting upon this principle, the West Australians have always liberally remunerated the original possessors of the soil, so much so, that many of them are hired as shepherds and stockmen, getting the same wages as the white men, while their wives are useful as hut-keepers, and in rough domestic work. They are also employed on the farms, especially at harvest time; making excellent reapers. The number of natives thus employed in 1848, out of a population of 1,960, was 541, comprising 418 males, and 123 females. They are not to be depended upon, however, for steady labour, and often return to their wild life, with its filthy clothing and lodging, revelling in laziness, and gorged with half-raw meat, after having spent some years in the cleanliness and comfort of a civilized home. There are exceptions to this picture, where the religious teachers at mission stations have induced them to cultivate the soil, for the support of themselves and families, having previously gone through the marriage ceremony. The Wesleyans have been most active in this respect, and have succeeded in teaching the children the principles of religion, and the rudiments of secular instruction. These zealous missionaries report extraordinary progress, stating that not only do their scholars show an aptitude for learning, but in some instances are quicker of apprehension than the ordinary run of white children. In the same liberal spirit the Government gives the aborigines the same rights as British subjects, which they fully appreciate, referring their disputes with the
settlers to the courts of law, and even bringing disagreements between each other to be settled by the English authorities. Strong hopes are entertained that they may be preserved from the extinction which threatens their race elsewhere.

Notwithstanding this appreciation of British law and justice, the natives have a strong propensity for stealing, especially sheep. The number of thefts for which they were convicted in 1848, was forty-seven, against fourteen among the white population. On the other hand only four natives were punished for offences of other kinds, against fourteen whites convicted in the same period. At the same time only twenty-five convictions of settlers, in a community of 4,622, is a very small percentage; and, if we are not mistaken, up to that year no execution had taken place in Western Australia.

Here then we have a poor, but virtuous community, founded upon the principle of excluding convicts from their shores, becoming anxious to receive the worst criminals for the sake of the government expenditure. A majority of the influential colonists petitioned the Home Government to send a small batch of convicts out to them as an experiment. This was previous to 1849, when the eastern colonies so energetically protested against transportation to their shores, and secured its final cessation in 1851. In lieu of banishment from the mother-country to the colonies, a system of penal servitude, with tickets of leave, was adopted, which resulted in a serious increase of crime. Under these circumstances the Government were only too glad to accede to the requisition from Western Australia; so a few ships were sent out in that year, with prisoners stated to have been selected for good
conduct, and having to undergo but a short period of imprisonment prior to becoming qualified for a greater degree of freedom.

The system on which these convicts were to be dealt with in the colony, did not include assignment to the settlers, as was formerly the case in New South Wales and Tasmania. They were to be employed at first on making roads and bridges, cutting timber, and constructing jetties in the harbours, and other public works, at the expense of the Government. As their sentences expired, or they became entitled to tickets of leave for good conduct, they were then at liberty to hire themselves to the colonists. It was also understood that the free constitution of the colony should be in no way interfered with. The original charter, however, explicitly declared against the reception of convicted felons, so that this introduction of them was in direct contravention of its constitution. Forgetful of all old antipathies to penal settlements, the colonists, immediately benefiting by the contracts for maintaining the convicts, and the sale of material for public works, rejoiced as their material prosperity increased with the arrival of convict ships, which brought on an average five hundred annually.

During the first five years of this importation of convicts, before any large number were free from expiry of sentence, or had obtained tickets of leave, the community saw very little evil accruing from the influx of criminals. They were, on the contrary, enriched by an expenditure to which they were not called upon to contribute; while the public works constructed by convict labour were of a nature to facilitate the development of the country. As long as the criminals were within the precincts of the gaols, and well
watched when in gangs on the public works, there was little to fear from them; consequently the colonists deemed all apprehension of increased crime a mere bugbear, and held meetings to request the Government to double the number sent out annually. It was stated that—"The system adopted in this colony has been marvellously successful, and if it is carried out in its full integrity, it will be a wonder to succeeding generations; it will effect a wonderful revolution in the criminal world; it will solve the problem which has long been agitating the wisest and best of our statesmen and philanthropists; it will, by the combination of punishment and reformation, check crime, and people wild countries with men reclaimed from vice, saved from the prison and the gallows, hereafter to contribute to the world's wealth, and add to the power and riches of the country from whence they were sent."

These hopes were fallacious. The real state of the case was, an increase of crime, and repeated re-convictions of the convict class. It was stated by the Under Secretary for the Colonies in the House of Commons, that the "reformatory system attempted in West Australia ran a chance of breaking down under the public discontent, which was growing up in consequence of the increase of crime." Moreover, the emancipated convicts, or ticket-of-leave men, turned adrift into the community, had the effect of lowering the rates of wages, so that free labourers and skilled workmen could not make a living, and many began to leave for the neighbouring colonies. A favourable memorial was nevertheless prepared by the largest landholders, who found their previously-unsaleable allotments in the country enhanced in value, and
rendered marketable, by the formation of highways from the chief city to them. Instead of the limit fixed by the Home Government of five hundred convicts, they prayed for a thousand to be sent annually. On the other hand, a memorial from the tradesmen and employers of free labourers, stated that—"By admitting convict-labour we have allowed our free mechanics, artisans, and labourers, to be gradually driven out of the field, and our labouring population may now be stated to be of a far inferior description to that which originally existed here." Subsequently, a third memorial was presented to the Governor, praying for the discontinuance of transportation; for abolishing the penal settlement altogether; and for substituting, at government expense, a great sanitarium in its place, for the resort of military invalids from India and other parts of the world to that truly salubrious climate. It will be seen that this community, hitherto unanimous in the time of adversity, was set by the ears in its material prosperity. While desirous of getting rid of the moral evil, they clung to the material good. The memorials had no effect upon the local or imperial authorities; and the Secretary of State for the Colonies, in reply to the first memorial, stated that Her Majesty's Government, while not adopting "the proposal for a large increase of transportation, contemplated no change in the number of convicts which had for fourteen years been annually banished to West Australia." The number sent during the first ten years, ending 1859, was 5,465, and their cost to the British exchequer £987,573, averaging upwards of £180 per convict.

Meanwhile the gold discoveries in the eastern colonies affected this western settlement, as they had done
the southern colonies. All the able-bodied immigrants who could afford to leave, emigrated, or made a temporary sojourn in Victoria and New South Wales, to try their fortunes at the gold-fields. At one time, fears were entertained that all the free labourers and artisans would depart from the colony, leaving the settlers, who remained, with nothing but a convict population. It was found, however, that the latter, as soon as they obtained tickets of leave, or their term of sentence expired, were off to the diggings also. In fact, it was only the stringent measures adopted to keep them in penal servitude, that prevented a wholesale desertion of prisoners. The convicts saw that the best way to secure their end, was by patience and good behaviour for a short time, when they would be at liberty to pursue their criminal course in the neighbouring wealthy and populous colonies, where there was abundance of prey for the highwayman and burglar. Accordingly, it was found that amongst those who left the colony, a large proportion were emancipated convicts or ticket-of-leave men. It appears that in the year 1850, the population of West Australia was 5,886; between 1850 and 1859, there were introduced—convicts, 5,169; emigrants or families of prisoners, 6,364; total 17,419. At the end of 1859 the population was only 14,837, of whom 9,522 were males, and 5,315 females. These returns include the excess of births over deaths, which in that colony reaches the maximum of Australia, it being the healthiest region in the world. In spite of this it will be seen that there was a decrease of 2,582 persons who had left, as ascertained, for South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales. Of that number it was estimated that about one-half were of the convict class.
This was a contingency which the Home Government did not anticipate. They seem to have taken for granted that all the convicts sent out to West Australia would remain there, and that the only question as to the propriety of sending them, lay between the mother country and that colony for whose benefit they were transported; ignoring the interests of the eastern colonies who had just purged themselves of the convict immigration. But Victoria and South Australia, on whose shores this vitiated tide of humanity chiefly flowed, did not remain supine. The Government and Legislature of the former colony passed an Anti-convict Act, prohibiting any felon from landing in the country. This was annulled by the Queen in Council, as an act beyond their power; nevertheless it was repeated in another form; and so far as Tasmania was concerned, had a beneficial effect in checking the arrival of ticket-of-leave men from that colony. In like manner the immigration of convicts and ex-convicts into South Australia created so great an excitement, and crime so much increased, that the Legislature and Governor passed an Extradition Act, restraining all convicted criminals from coming in, and inflicting upon them the penalty of three years penal servitude, or to be sent back to West Australia, if found in the colony. It was stated in evidence by the Police Magistrate at Port Adelaide, that from the year 1855 to 1860, 1,559 persons came there from West Australia, the greater number of whom were expirees, and conditional-pardon men; and the crimes which were committed in the colony were found on examination to be chiefly by Swan River immigrants of the convict class; the offences being mostly assaults, robberies, and burglaries.

This unsatisfactory state of affairs between the east
and west colonies continued up to 1863, without the evil diminishing, for it was found that the expirees resumed their old criminal habits shortly after their arrival, instead of endeavouring to earn an honest livelihood. Consequently a feeling of intense indignation was roused among the comparatively populous and wealthy communities of the aggrieved colonies, against the colonists in that poor petty settlement, for having renewed all the evils of convict contamination, which they had fondly hoped were banished for ever. Seeing, also, that their Acts of Parliament were powerless in preventing the influx of expirees, the whole group of eastern colonies, led on by Victoria, simultaneously combined to have their grievances remedied, by appeal to the Imperial Government. Inside the legislative chambers resolutions were passed; and outside public demonstrations were made, to remonstrate with the colonial minister, and to petition the Queen in Council to rescind the obnoxious law that made West Australia a place of banishment for English felons. This led to the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the grievance, and take evidence upon the question. Excepting one member of that commission, who had been in Victoria, all the others endeavoured to elicit information from the witnesses to prove that the evils complained of were imaginary. Hence in their report they actually recommended an increase of transportation to West Australia. Something of this kind was foreshadowed in Parliament by Sir George Grey, and by the Duke of Newcastle in his dispatches as Secretary of State for the Colonies; which, on reaching Melbourne, roused the people and Parliament into a state of indignation that bordered on treason against the parent state, political separation
being openly advocated. Even the advisers of the Governor met in secret conclave and passed strong resolutions; and were only prevented publishing them by a motion that they should await the reply to their remonstrance. The public showed their earnestness to resist the further importation of convicts from the mother country, by subscribing a sum sufficient to pay the passages to England of two hundred expirees of the worst class; and the ship sailed with them from Melbourne in February, 1865.

During this interval better councils prevailed with Her Majesty's Government; and the Queen was advised to discontinue transportation to West Australia, by a gradual diminution of banishment, in three years, commencing with January, 1865. On the receipt of this intelligence the utmost satisfaction prevailed among the aggrieved colonists, and even those in Swan River felt relief, as any other course would have estranged them entirely from commercial or friendly relationship with their rich neighbours in Victoria, who threatened to lay an embargo upon ships from one colony to the other, and to discontinue the subsidy for the mail steamers calling at King George Sound.

While this political and social agitation was going on in the eastern colonies, West Australia was progressing in her material condition, and retrograding in her moral career. Governor Fitzgerald, who assumed office at the inauguration of the convict era in 1849, was succeeded by Governor Kennedy in 1856. During his term of office he opened the first Parliament under the new constitution for the Australian colonies; but from the sparsity of the free population, and the limited revenue of the colony, the measures they passed were feeble in their effect. On the other hand, the
administration of the convict department, and the large imperial expenditure, had become of paramount importance; so that the colony assumed the executive of a penal Government, with the aspect of the early days of Van Diemen's Land and New South Wales. All its pristine freedom and simplicity was gone; and, as if to mark its degradation, Mr. Hampton, the successor to Governor Kennedy, was the oldest and most able superintendent of convicts in the former colony during the worst periods of its history.

It must be stated also that the system planned out by the Government was not so severe as in the old penal colonies. Though strict discipline was maintained, it was more with a view to the reformation than the punishment of the convicts. Though they were subject to severer penalties than under the ordinary criminal laws, yet the infliction of the lash was rarely resorted to. Nevertheless, the herding together of male prisoners in gangs of twenty and thirty led to the most disastrous consequences. As no female convicts were sent out, the disparity of the sexes reached an alarming preponderance on the male side. In 1863, the proportion of single men to single women was 4,550 to 801, giving a surplus of 3,749. The total number of convicts received up to that date was 7,781, of whom about 2,300 had left for the eastern colonies, so that scarcely a thousand of this class were married men with their wives and families in the country. The want of female domestic servants was here, as elsewhere in the Australian colonies, a great social grievance, and the colonists managed to get out several hundred free emigrant girls in 1862-4, but owing to the convict character of the community, and the higher wages ruling in the eastern
colonies, they re-emigrated thither in a few months after landing.

This exodus of the free inhabitants was not confined to the male and female immigrants. Many of the educated settlers, who had remained from the foundation of the colony, took their departure as soon as they could dispose of their property, or leave it as an investment yielding an income to spend in the mother country, or to try their fortunes in the other colonies of the British crown, where their families would be free from convict contamination. Throughout 1863-4, scarcely a month elapsed but the departure of such colonists was recorded, as will be seen by the following extract from the *Perth Inquirer*: "Our social intelligence, never too lively, is this month more lugubrious than usual. At this season of the year (December) when our export laden ships take their departure, we generally lose, temporarily or permanently, some of those who have been long residents in the colony. This year (1863) our loss has been unusually heavy, and several whom we could ill spare have left us, we fear, never to return." Thus it appeared that the very expenditure that had enriched the colonists was the means by which they were enabled to abandon the colony. To those who remained, preferring moderate wealth with a virtuous population, to riches produced by convict labour, the prospect of the speedy cessation of transportation proved a boon, and with characteristic energy they applied themselves to the task of still further exploring and developing the resources of the country beyond the settlements of Swan River and King George Sound.

Hitherto very little was known of this vast territory bearing the name of West Australia, and subject to the
jurisdiction of the authorities at Swan River. When we look at the map and calculate its extent, with the slender means at the disposal of a feeble settlement, barely able to support itself or explore the immediate neighbourhood, we are not surprised that it should remain undiscovered beyond the coast line, or that three-fourths of the interior is still a *terra incognita*. Its extent north and south is nearly thirteen hundred miles, with an average width of about eight hundred miles, containing an estimated area of 978,000 square miles, or about one-third of the Australian continent. The belt of land along the coast for fifty or sixty miles is generally of a barren and sandy character, with occasionally patches of grass land or fertile soil, where the rivers give fertility. None of these streams are navigable for large vessels, even for a short distance, like those on the east coast. Although the mountain ranges from which they derive their source are not elevated above the sea, nor so continuous in their line as the Australian cordillera from Wilson Promontory to Cape York, yet they present similar geographical features in trending parallel with the coast, and having a great inland watershed. As in the case of the Blue Mountains, near Sydney, forming a barrier between the barren sandy coast region and the fertile plains of Bathurst, so do these ranges in West Australia divide the grassy plains and valleys in the interior from the sandy country around Swan River and along the coast.

It was not until Gregory, in 1846, Roe, in 1848, and Lefroy, in 1863, penetrated beyond these mountains that the interior was known to possess well grassed and arable lands, similar to those in the east and south provinces. Farther north, on the borders of the tropic of Capricorn, at an elevation of from
1,000 to 1,500 feet, extensive grassy downs have been discovered, capable of depasturing many millions of sheep and cattle. Experienced squatters in the eastern colonies, dissatisfied with the altered conditions on which they held their runs, visited these pasture lands, and considered them equal to the sheep-walks in New South Wales. As an inducement to have this country stocked by land communication, the Government offered the first "Overlander" arriving in the colony with sheep or cattle, a hundred thousand acres, free of rent, for twelve years from his arrival. Companies for the shipment of live-stock were formed in 1864, in Melbourne and Sydney, under the management of most experienced squatters. Under these circumstances there is great probability that in a short time West Australia may become an extensive pastoral colony like its neighbours. The question of success or failure depends upon the presence of the poison plant, which has not yet been seen on these inland downs, or if at all, not to a great extent.

When the early settlers found that pastoral pursuits could not be carried out to such an extent as to yield sufficient wool, tallow, and hides, to pay for their imports from England, they turned their attention to the barren rocky lands to discover what mineral exports they contained. This idea did not, however, occur to them until the discovery of copper and lead in South Australia in 1841. With renewed hopes of prosperity, and much enthusiasm, they found on the banks of Canning River, a tributary of Swan River, flowing into Melville Water, ores of lead, copper, zinc and iron; but, unfortunately, after much time and money had been expended on working a mine in that locality, it was abandoned as unprofitable. Several other places
were tried with similar results, and it was not until discoveries of copper and lead ores in large quantities were made in the vicinity of Champion Bay, about two hundred miles to the north of Swan River, that mining was found to be in any degree profitable. Here several lodes of copper and lead ores were opened in 1849, and continue to yield a quantity sufficient to form an item of importance on the list of exports; but the companies working them have hitherto failed to make them remunerative.

With these proofs of the existence of mineral wealth in the rocky regions of the colony, it may be supposed that on the discovery of gold they formed sanguine hopes of having auriferous deposits in some part of the district. Many were the anxious eyes that gazed upon every glittering stone as they searched the spots likely to contain the coveted metal; and many were the reports that such had been found, as the country people brought in scales of mica, and pieces of iron or copper pyrites that looked like gold, but which on examination were found not to be so. Months and years passed away, and some grains of gold were actually discovered, but these were only tantalizing indications, that though there, it was not in sufficient quantities to form a profitable gold-field.

In 1863, Mr. Hargreaves, the first discoverer of gold in Australia, was invited to explore the country and report upon these indications. He crossed from King George Sound overland to Swan River, but saw nothing that would warrant his pronouncing it an auriferous region. From Perth he travelled north to the Geraldine mines at Champion Bay, and far beyond that locality; traversing, and retraversing places presenting the most favourable features, until he had gone over a course of
2,220 miles, and returned without success. Thus the mineral riches of West Australia have proved of very little profit to the settlers, and delusive to the colony.

Although deficient in the ordinary staple products which have raised the eastern and southern colonies of Australia to rank with the richest colonies of the British nation, West Australia possesses in an eminent degree some of the minor natural productions suitable for export. Of these, timber is the most important, and a kind of mahogany, named jarrah by the natives, belonging to the genus eucalyptus of botanists, the gum-tree of the colonists. This timber is prized in ship-building, as it resists the perforations of the teredo navalis and other destructive marine worms or insects. It is found in abundance, within eighteen miles of Perth, where a forest, twenty miles wide, extends for more than two hundred miles north and south. Sandal-wood is also found, and forms an article of export to China and other eastern countries, where it is valued for its odour and fine texture in the manufacture of articles of ornament. The value of the latter as an article of export is shown in the returns for 1861, where it figures for £22,429; against copper ore, £7,554; timber, £2,835; whale oil and whalebone, £1,390; wool, £55,781; making a total of £96,640. In 1862, this total amount had increased to £119,313; but was still insufficient to meet the balance of trade shown by imports to the value of £172,991. The revenue in that year, £69,406, showed a deficiency in endeavouring to meet the expenditure of £72,267, though it included imperial disbursements for civil and military purposes amounting to £37,221. In 1864 these items were in round numbers, £98,000 expenditure,
while the colonial revenue was only £57,000, so that £41,000 of the money expended in the colony was provided by the Imperial Government. Besides that annual expenditure, the Government Emigration Board sent out, between the years 1840 and 1862, 4,926 emigrants, the passage money of whom amounted to £67,478; the total population on the 1st January, 1862, being 17,246. Of these, 3,186 resided in Perth—1,647 males, and 1,539 females; and in Freemantle, 2,356—1,301 males, and 1,085 females, exclusive of convicts in prison. The returns for those towns in 1863 show a decrease in Freemantle to 2,331, of whom 1,201 were males, and 1,130 females, while in Perth they had increased to 3,321; of whom 1,695 were males, and 1,626 females—a result as respects equality of the sexes, not equalled by any other town in Australia. Consequently the traveller or immigrant visiting Perth sees a community similar to that of a small country town in England; but the streets, houses, and gardens, are of a different aspect, as the following graphic description by Montgomery Martin so faithfully portrays:—

"Generally speaking, however, the aspect of this country (Perth) is discouraging to the farmer. On arriving, the prospect from the sea naturally gives rise to the exclamation, 'Sand! sand! is there nothing but sand?' Little evidence of active life or prosperous industry greets the eye of the immigrant, save in the towns of Freemantle and Perth, and the craft on the river. For twelve miles inland he does not see a farm. Looking back from the top of Greenmount, the first hill of the range on the road to York, the eye wanders over an apparently unbroken forest plain, the great height of the trees effectually concealing all signs of
farms or houses. The first view of the town of Perth is, however, singularly pleasing. Situated about eleven miles from the sea-coast, on the bank of the pretty sheet of water (formed by the Swan River) which bears its name; with the wooded shores opposite; the forest plain stretches away to the east, and the ‘range’ rises in the distance, while the air, although so clear as to render the very stems on the trees distinctly perceptible, has yet all the charm of the soft haze, the many tinted lights and shades of a semi-tropical climate. Gazing on this tranquil panorama from the top of Mount Eliza, the English immigrant views with surprise, in the gardens lying between the cliff and the estuary, the banana, peach, nectarine, apple and pear; the lemon, orange, guava, loquat and pomegranate; the almond, fig and mulberry; while the melon and its fellows creep among their stems. But yet more pleasing is the effect of the endless interlacing of trellised vines, beneath which the people are pursuing their avocations, and the successive terraces of vines and olives, rising almost to his feet; yet the question, Where are the farms? still remains unanswered."
CHAPTER IX.

QUEENSLAND.


From the circumstance of this colony having been proclaimed Queensland, in honour of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, on the 3rd June, 1859, an impression prevails that it was then first colonized by British subjects. Instead of being one of the youngest colonies in Australia, as this would imply, it is one of the oldest settlements. Under the name of the Moreton Bay District, the southern section, where it forms the boundary with New South Wales, was flourishing as a pastoral region, after a progress of twenty-five years; while the middle section, with Port Curtis as a central point, had been established as a gold region for eleven years before that date. And if the first penal settlement at Brisbane be taken into account, its foundation
goes as far back as 1825. At that period Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane administered the affairs of New South Wales, and, as usual, the first settlement was named after him, as well as the river on which it stands, which had been discovered by Surveyor-General Oxley two years previously. Moreton Bay, into which the Brisbane river flows, is one of the largest bays in Australia, being second only to Port Phillip. It is formed by two narrow islands parallel with the coast, and has three entrances, whereas Port Phillip is an inlet on the mainland with only one entrance. However, it is important to note that Moreton Bay stands in geographical position to Port Jackson and Sydney, to the north, what Port Phillip does to the south of the old seat of government; the former being five hundred miles, and the latter six hundred miles distant, either by land or water. Both are navigable and safe harbours, with fertile country around, and are good for centres of population.

When the penal settlement was formed in 1825, it was with a view to re-transport new offenders and incorrigible convicts from the establishments at Sydney and Paramatta. It was considered so far distant, at that time, that there was little chance of any of the doubly and trebly-convicted felons sent there, returning to the head settlement from whence they were banished; so that Moreton Bay was a sort of supplemental Botany Bay. It may be hence conjectured that this class of convicts was of the most desperate character. If the annals of that period were given, it would disclose a list of crime and punishment that even the darkest records of Van Diemen's Land could not equal. Suffice it to say that the gibbet had its monthly crop of criminals, and the hangman, with his
cat-o'-nine-tails and triangles, daily went his rounds, even into the fields where the convicts were at work, and plied his avocation.

Although Brisbane is situated in latitude 27° 30' south, or four degrees into the temperate zone from the tropic of Capricorn, yet it has all the character of a tropical climate, whilst the summer heats are rendered oppressive to the constitution by periodical heavy rains, almost continuous during that season. The climate at Brisbane was, in consequence, found to be unsuitable
for the growth of wheat and other European cereals; so the cultivation of maize was substituted, which formed the chief food of the convicts, made into a kind of porridge, called hominy.

Besides labouring in the fields, the convicts were employed in erecting public works at Brisbane, and in constructing roads and bridges into the country. As there were from 2,000 to 3,000 in the settlement, during the greater part of the seventeen years it remained under penal jurisdiction, and at least half that number were so employed, considerable improvements and material progress was made by these pioneer convicts, prior to its being thrown open to free settlers in 1842. In consideration of the outlay on these public works, the Government put up the allotments in the town of Brisbane at the high upset price of £100 per acre; in consideration of the value of the many substantial stone buildings, erected as barracks and offices thereon.

This site is a high ridge on the left bank of the river, sixteen miles from its mouth, where the windings form the letter S; a deep flowing stream, three hundred yards wide; the surrounding scenery is most picturesque. Across the river the suburban allotments could be purchased at a fourth of the above sum, and here the first free settlers, who could not afford to buy the town lots, located themselves at Kangaroo Point, to the east, and in the suburb to the south of Brisbane. The consequences were that Brisbane, as the chief settlement of the Moreton Bay District, made very little progress beyond that of a straggling village during its early occupation by free settlers.

But this important district did not depend on the
town and suburbs for its prosperity; its wealth lay in the extensive pasture lands of the interior. These were occupied by squatters with their herds and flocks some time before the opening of the place to colonists, and its final abandonment as a penal settlement. A glance at the map will show where the Darling Downs spread over a very large tract of country. They form a plateau fifteen hundred feet above the sea level, consisting of open undulating land, thinly timbered, but well grassed, and adapted for depasturing sheep of the finest fleece. As Liverpool Plains and the New England District, further south, became occupied, the squatters drove their flocks into this territory, and for some years carted their wool to the Hunter River as their port, from the circumstances of there being no accessible track known down the precipitous range on the east side, and of the port at Moreton Bay not yet being open for commerce.

On the formation of Moreton Bay into a harbour, these enterprising pioneers of civilization in the wilderness of Australia soon found a way down to the coast; and the whole of the unoccupied land on the east side of the main range was quickly taken up for cattle runs, as experience taught them it was not so well fitted for sheep as the downs. This arises from the coarseness of the grass, caused by the humidity and heat, which is not felt so much on the elevated land, where in winter it is comparatively cool. Still the sheep here have much lighter fleeces than in the more southern districts, but the quality is of the finest staple grown, which makes up for deficiency in quantity. Moreover, where the grass was too coarse for sheep, it was found to have great fattening properties for cattle, and Moreton Bay became one of
the chief districts for tallow, which was produced on a large scale. There was a very limited population to eat the surplus animal food, so a large trade was done in salting rounds of beef, and manufacturing mutton hams.

In this manner the district progressed as a pastoral settlement, up to the period of the gold discovery, almost equally with its southern rival, Port Phillip; it had not however a tithe of the population. The effect of the discovery of gold was to inconvenience the squatters by withdrawing some of their men from the stations to the gold fields, and to increase their expenses from the high wages demanded by those who remained. Otherwise it did not much retard the progress of pastoral pursuits. At the same time the settlers were not behind their southern neighbours in "prospecting" for gold deposits. In this they were almost confident of success, even on the very town-site of Brisbane, where the geological formation is chiefly quartz rock, and externally, to all appearance, like the veins of gold-bearing mineral quartz in the Bathurst country. However, after much expense and loss of time not an ounce of the precious metal could be extracted from the tons of rock crushed and smelted. In the country all the likely localities were examined, and inquiries made by anxious prospectors. At one place, many years previously, a shepherd had picked up some glittering specks, which he took to be gold, and actually fell sick from the thoughts of having discovered a gold mine. He communicated the supposed discovery to his master, who looked at the yellow specks he had washed out of a creek, and, knowing something of mineralogy, pronounced them to be mica, from the disintegration of the granite rock through
which the stream passed. The shepherd recovered his health and spirits, and nothing in the shape of real gold was found until 1858, when it was discovered near Rockhampton, about four hundred miles north of Brisbane.

Some years previous to that discovery, and subsequent to the separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales, and its erection into the independent colony of Victoria, the leading settlers of the Moreton Bay District had associated themselves together with a view to follow the example of their southern fellow-citizens. Their grievances against the central Government at Sydney were of the same nature, namely, geographical distance, neglect of interests, impoverishment of revenue, and inadequate representation in the Legislature. In like manner, also, their petitions and representations to the Governor and Parliament were rejected, and they had no other alternative but to petition the Queen and the Home Government for separation from the parent colony. After much delay this was acceded to, and the whole of that vast territory to the north of latitude 28° on the coast, and 29° inland, as far as the boundary of South Australia, was erected into the colony of Queensland. This large area of country comprises 678,000 square miles, being nearly twice as large as Canada, and equal to six times the superficies of the United Kingdom. The Governor appointed to administer the affairs of the colony at its outset was Sir George Ferguson Bowen, a man of liberal and enlightened views, previously secretary of the Ionian Islands. He arrived at Brisbane on the 10th December, 1859, when he inaugurated the opening of the colony, stating that "the name of Queensland was entirely the happy thought and inspiration of Her
Majesty herself." Without delay he set himself to the task of organizing his Government and Legislature, which is not based upon the democratic principles of Victoria, but sufficiently liberal for all purposes until the colony has a greater population.

The rapidity with which that was augmented during the first four years by immigration will be seen by the following extracts from the statistical returns, published by the Registrar-General of the colony. By the census of 1846 the Moreton Bay District had a population of 2,257. In 1851, at the time of the gold discovery, the number of settlers located north of the boundary line since adopted was 8,575; and in 1856 it had increased to 17,082. No census had been returned for 1859, when Governor Bowen assumed office in Queensland, but there is a return to the 31st December, 1860, a year after it had been separated from New South Wales. This gives a total of 28,056, of whom 16,817 were males, and 11,239 females; from which it has been estimated in round numbers that at the date of separation the population was not more than 25,000. What follows on this head, and other branches of statistical information, show the progress of this section of Australia, under a free and independent Government; not equal of course to Victoria, but all things considered, nothing behind the progress of South Australia; thereby practically illustrating the advantages of self-government and circumscribed jurisdiction. The estimated number of the white population, on the 31st December, 1861, was 34,367, comprising 20,811 males, and 13,556 females; in 1862, 45,077, of whom 27,186 were males, and 17,891 females, showing an increase during that year of 10,710 individuals, 6,375 males, and 4,335 females, of whom 8,080 were by direct
European immigration, 1,725 from the neighbouring colonies, and 905 natural increase. On the 31st December, 1864, the numbers calculated were 45,516 males, and 28,520 females, making a total of 74,036 souls, showing that the population had more than doubled itself in three years, chiefly by immigration.

The greater portion of this immigration was from the United Kingdom, under specified regulations. The chief points in these regulations appear in the following extracts, which may serve to show the inducements held out by the Government:—"A land order for £18 will be given on arrival to every adult male or female steerage-immigrant, proceeding from the United Kingdom to Queensland, who shall in every respect have satisfied the requirements of the regulations. All cabin and intermediate passengers qualified under these requirements will be allowed to select thirty acres of surveyed country land, in one block; and will receive the deed of grant of such land after two years continuous residence in the colony." These immigrants were to pay their own passages, and the "requirements of the regulations" were very trifling, and did not relate to occupations. The consequence was, that the majority of this class of immigrants were unsuited to menial or laborious employment, and the old cases recurred of educated people being in distress at Brisbane, and in the other towns, as they spent the little they had, and sold their land orders for a trifle. To suppose that these unassisted immigrants would be able to cultivate the lands allotted to them was a fallacy. Nine-tenths of them knew nothing of farming, and the agent who induced the people to emigrate was not clear in informing them that they were proceeding to a tropical climate, where no wheat can be grown except
on the mountain ranges away from any market. But the agent and the regulations were specific on granting assisted passages; the only persons eligible for which were domestic servants, farm or other labourers, and mechanics, and half the passage money paid, except the first, where three-fourths was added. Of this class the numbers were not sufficient to meet the demands of the colony in 1864.

The pastoral resources of this territory may be estimated from the following returns for the first three years of its independent existence, made on the 31st December of each year. In 1860 there were in the colony:—horses, 23,504; cattle, 432,890; sheep, 3,166,802; pigs, 7,147—1861: horses, 28,983; cattle, 560,196; sheep, 4,093,381; pigs, 7,465—1862: horses, 35,625; cattle, 610,204; sheep, 4,345,901; pigs, 7,019. The export of the staple product, wool, from the above large numbers of sheep was equally progressive; but it must be noted that it did not come entirely from the natural increase, as the influx of flocks from New South Wales was considerable, and spread over about 400 miles of unoccupied country to the north. In the above years the quantities of wool shipped were, 5,007,167 lbs., 6,994,033 lbs., 8,063,612 lbs. In the value of exports generally, there was in successive years a corresponding increase of £523,476, £709,598, and £748,519; imports, £742,023, £967,950, £1,320,225; and totals of £1,265,499, £1,677,548, £2,068,744, showing an important external trade during that short period. It must be observed, however, that the imports were greatly in excess of the exports, which is not a healthy commercial sign. In 1863 this disproportion continued, when the imports were nearly double the value of the exports, being for the former £1,713,263, and the
Queensland.

latter £888,381. This external commerce was carried on in imports from Great Britain, £365,093; from other Australian colonies, £1,335,606; from Germany, £12,539; sea fishery, £25. Exports to Great Britain, £233,392; to other Australian colonies, £649,299; to India, Ceylon, and China, £1,169; and to Batavia, £4,521. In 1861 the exports had increased to £1,213,000; wool constituting £1,037,663 of the amount; gold dust, £83,292; tallow, £33,009; hides and skins, £24,999; cotton, £4,186; while the imports reached £2,267,951, including £67,629 in specie.

Thus in five years the sparsely populated districts of Moreton Bay and Port Curtis had risen into existence as one of the most prosperous of the Australian colonies; during which period the value of its imports amounted to £7,011,415; and its exports £4,113,877, making a total of £11,125,292. It is by such an index that we can estimate the material and social progress of the colony. These items suggest great activity in that hitherto quiet region. Glancing at the map of Queensland we see richly laden emigrant ships sailing into the spacious estuary of Moreton Bay, and landing their anxious passengers on the banks of Brisbane river, or Cleveland point, where they find their way to Brisbane or Ipswich. From thence the labouring portion proceed into the far interior, where they find occupation on the squatters' stations. These enterprising pioneers of colonization have now occupied 300 miles of the coast, to a depth of 500 miles inland; where the elevation of the land tempers the atmosphere in these tropical latitudes. Yet the heat is sometimes excessive, as in the month of January, 1865, when the thermometer reached 104° Fahrenheit for a whole week, and on several occasions rose to
108 degrees. In this climate tropical products grow so abundantly that pine-apples are cultivated like cabbages, and are cheaper. It is also well adapted for the culture of cotton, as will be seen from that article appearing on the export list to the value of £4,186 in 1864. The quantity of land under cultivation in 1863 was about 6,100 acres, of which 739 were under wheat, 2,767 maize, 977 dry and green fodder, 392 cotton, 70 sugar-cane, 61 vineyards, 715 in fields and orchards, and 396 in gardens; illustrating the agricultural resources of the country.

With this material progress, it is satisfactory to find that the vital interests of religion and education are supported liberally, both publicly and privately. The number of places of worship, including several handsomely-built churches in the municipal towns of Brisbane, Ipswich, Toowoomba, Rockhampton, Maryborough, Warwick, Drayton, Gladstone, Dalby, Bowen, and Port Denison, is large in proportion to the number of inhabitants. These are chiefly built by private subscription, and the officiating clergymen of the principal denominations are maintained in the same manner, and also by Government aid. There is a Bishop of the Church of England, and also of the Roman Catholic Church. There are likewise thirty Sunday schools attached to the churches, with competent male and female teachers, attended, in 1862, by 1,865 scholars. For secular instruction there is a Board of General Education, having supervision over thirteen public schools, with a daily average attendance of 1,214 scholars, who have a thoroughly good English education imparted to them, at a rate that is within the reach of the poorest classes. Besides these, there were five Church of England schools, with 469 scholars,
and thirty-six private schools, with 1,377 pupils, who received a good classical and general education, such as fitted them for the English Universities. In the grammar schools there are scholarships for which boys who have distinguished themselves at the primary schools are eligible, while exhibitions of specified sums are given to the best scholars at those seminaries, available at any British or Australian University. The youth of Queensland thus have facilities afforded them of growing up in education and intelligence equal to the best provinces in the mother country.

The benefit of these and kindred institutions, for the reclamation of those who have wandered hitherto in the ways of ignorance and sin, is illustrated in a remarkable manner by the decrease of crimes of a serious nature, during the first three years of the independent existence of Queensland. It has been shown at the beginning of this brief history that the convict leaven entered into the social constitution at a very early period. Subsequently, when the settlement was opened to free settlers, the remainder of the convicts in prison were sent to Sydney and Norfolk Island, where the last penal establishment existed. Although this cleared out all the prisoners, still the ticket-of-leave men and expirees remained, and for many years the settlers had only that description of labour to depend on. The consequences were, that crime of a serious nature maintained a high percentage among the population. In 1859, this is given by the Registrar-General at twenty-three per cent., which in 1860 dropped to fourteen per cent., and to five per cent. in 1862; showing that offences against person and property were confined to the old offenders, while the immigrants maintained their honesty of character.
On the other hand, misdemeanors, such as drunkenness and vagrancy, increased to an alarming degree, caused no doubt by the disappointment of those immigrants who were not suited for the rough labour required in a new country, and who gave way to despondency. This is shown by the fact that one-half of those convicted at the petty sessions could both read and write.

In no other colony of Australia is the condition of the aboriginal population so independent as it is in Queensland. They are naturally superior in mind and body to the tribes in the south and west. Towards the northern extremity of the continent, their physical aspect indicates an admixture of the copper-coloured natives of Polynesia.

The abundance of animal food throughout the country, and the tropical character of the climate, allow them to live in savage ease and nakedness. Queensland is the paradise of the aboriginal possessor of Australia, and if he had but the smallest spark of energy, such as the Maori of New Zealand possesses, the British would have found immense difficulty in taking possession of the territory. But the "Black-fellow," as he is called, revels in the enjoyment of turtle and other luxuries, almost without exertion, while all he requires for his toilet in the summer is to grease his skin to prevent it cracking in the sun. Of course where they come into contact with the settlers they have shirts and blankets, but clothing to these children of nature is irksome. This may be seen among the 114 black troopers maintained and clothed in fine trappings by the Government, which they take the first opportunity of throwing off at their barracks. This is the only way in which the natives are cared
for in the colony, and they do ample duty for their pay. Generally speaking, the aborigines are left to look out for themselves, and earn a subsistence by working for the settlers, or hunting and fishing on their own account.

At Moreton Bay it is a most interesting sight to see how expertly they fish for the *poodenbah*, one of the best fish in Australia. Twenty or thirty form a wide circle in shallow water, which they gradually contract, driving the fish before them into the centre, when they thrust in two landing nets, one in each hand, and fish up their game. In turtle-fishing they approach the turtle silently in their canoes; watching when it rises, they dive into the water, seizing him by the shell and turning the unwieldy creature, weighing sometimes five hundred weight, into their boat. But the grandest fishing is for the *yanyan*, an amphibious animal of the whale tribe, but much smaller. Like the *manatee* of America and the *dugong* of the East Indies, it lives on marine vegetation, chews the cud with molar teeth, and may well be named the sea-cow, as it is about the size and weight of its land prototype. The flesh of this marine animal, especially the head, is not bad eating; but it is chiefly prized for the oil extracted from its blubber, which has all the medicinal properties of cod-liver oil, and now forms an article of export. For preparing this, two establishments are formed at Moreton Bay, where the natives are supplied with boats and proper gear for capturing the animals.

While the waters of this favoured region possess such valuable resources, which the southern bays and inlets are without, the land possesses several kinds of timber not found in the temperate region. The
principal of these is the Moreton Bay pine, \textit{(Auracaria Cunninghamii)} which is equal to the best American pine, and is used for building purposes as it is much easier sawn than the gum trees. Another is the Bunya Bunya pine, \textit{(Auracaria Bidwellii)} which is a larger tree but not so plentiful; it is remarkable for the edible seeds of its cone, which are of the size and taste of the chestnut. There is also a red cedar timber, which is made into furniture, nearly as handsome as mahogany, but much lighter. Altogether the natural products of Queensland are superior to those of any other Australian colony, and will in time add largely to its articles of export. In the luxuriance of its tropical vegetation, clothing the mountain sides that slope down precipitously to the Pacific Ocean, there is a grandeur in the scenery which is not to be met with farther south, while the birds, animals and insects, are not only more abundant, but excel all others in their beauty of form and colour. Nowhere on this island-continent is there a more extensive field for the student of natural history than in this magnificent country. Hitherto only a narrow fringe on the coast has been explored, and as the settlers spread over the great dividing range, every year will open up new resources of pastoral, agricultural or native wealth. It is only since it became an independent colony that these facts have been made patent to the world.

Under the administration of Governor Bowen, the progress of its colonization is being carried out with great spirit. In order to colonize the \textit{ultima thule} of his jurisdiction, a new settlement was established on the main land at Port Albany, in September, 1864, opposite Albany Island, near the extreme point of the Cape York Peninsula, at the entrance to Torres
Strait. Here the site of a town, named Somerset, has been chosen, on an elevation of from sixty to seventy feet above the level of the sea, and exposed to the sea breezes, which are refreshing in that low latitude, within ten degrees of the equator. To the westward it has a constant stream of fresh water, so essential for towns in the arid regions of Australia. To the north it commands an extensive view of Torres Strait, with the adjoining islands; and all ships passing through, after having navigated the dangerous coral sea where Captain Cook nearly lost his ship the *Endeavour*, will be within signal distance, so as to communicate any information without anchoring. As soon as this nucleus of a settlement is found to succeed, a town will ere long adorn the eminence near which that great circumnavigator proclaimed and determined the geographical position of his discoveries, and solved the geographical problem of the age in which he lived, as to the existence of a great south continent. It is now verging on a century since then, and his most sanguine predictions of the colonization of Australia are more than realized; while yet it may be said, we of this generation are only on the threshold of its future greatness.
CHAPTER X.

PROSPECTIVE AND RETROSPECTIVE SUMMARY.

Pastoral Settlers, the true Pioneers of Australian Free Colonization—Evidence of Industry among the Colonists—Retrospective Glance at early History of Australia—The reproduction of Vegetable and Animal products more permanent than Mineral wealth—Prospects of Manufactures—Trade Protection mooted—Abundance of Iron Ores—Manual Skill and Labour pre-eminent—Busy Occupations—Work, the order of the day—No place for the indolent—People in reduced circumstances often not to be pitied—Ne'er-do-wells reach their natural level—Political Prospects of Independence—Religious Condition and Prospects satisfactory—Zealous efforts of the Missionaries to reclaim the Aborigines.

The success which has attended the transplantation of British capital and labour to the distant fields of operation in Australia conveys many instructive lessons to the colonizers of new lands. There are proofs here that the natural productions of a virgin country may be of the most meagre description for the support of civilized communities, and yet possess the elements of industrial wealth, even though the soil may be occasionally barren and poor. For the climate and herbage may be well adapted to the support of non-indigenous animals yielding food and clothing to man, or favourable for the growth of exotic vegetation for the same purposes. To these causes may be attributed the unexampled increase of live-stock in the thinly-tenanted pastures of the Kangaroo, and the abundant production of cereals and esculent roots for support of a civilized population that will soon be counted by
millions, where originally only a few thousand savages obtained but a precarious existence.

In this successful work of colonization, the first place must be given to the pastoral pioneer settlers, who by their indomitable perseverance overcame the natural obstacles in their way; and the next to the farmers, who raised their crops of grain in the wilderness, which, through unsuspected guidance of a beneficent Providence, furnished the miners and citizens with abundance of food at a time when a dearth would have been an awful calamity. All, indeed, of these industrious Australian colonists have in their vocations and capacities contributed to the prosperity of the country. And the results to be seen scattered over the surface of that sunny south land, prove that there have been few idlers amongst them. Every seaport and city, town and hamlet, mansion and cottage, station and farm, garden and field, which the traveller meets with, presents a monument of the skill and industry of our enterprising countrymen, so many thousand miles away from "home." The very sterility of some districts called forth more than usual exertion on their part, and verified the observation, that "it seldom happens that the richest countries are the most productive, or that the bounty of nature, where it has been most profusely lavished, is improved by corresponding exertions on the part of man. Repugnant to labour, where labour can be dispensed with, it is necessity alone which compels him to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, and to torture the ungrateful soil for its scanty products."

It is a maxim of political economists that the basis of national prosperity rests upon the abundance of food to be obtained for the sustenance of the people.
If the country be old in its constitution, a dearth creates rebellion and disease; if it is young, a scarcity of provisions retards its progress. Looking back over the foregoing history of Australia, we see that such was the case in the early days of the far distant settlement on the barren shores of Port Jackson. There, famine threatened to annihilate the embryo colony before the settlers and Government could ascertain the capabilities of other localities for the growth of vegetable food or the pasturage of live-stock. When a more grateful soil was discovered, not only were the colonists independent of foreign supplies of food, but they produced the valuable exports of wool and tallow, which created wealth in foreign markets. It is upon the reproduction of these and similar commodities of universal consumption that the great future in store for the Australian empire depends. Notwithstanding the apparently inexhaustible mineral resources of the country, we infer from the experience of other nations that in time, copper mines become worked out, and gold fields exhausted; but the same causes which produce the fleece on the sheeps' back, and fatten the beeves of to-day, will continue to "multiply and replenish the earth," when the auriferous treasures of the mountains have become matters of history.

Besides the development of the indigenous and exotic resources of Australia as a field for raw productions, we must not overlook the advantages she possesses as a future seat for manufactures; her probable destiny as the Great Britain of the southern hemisphere. Hitherto the merchants in the mother country have considered the marts of these colonies as the most profitable and permanent markets for their merchandise. This will gradually diminish as colonial
manufactures of raw materials increase, so that in time they may become articles of export. The average rate of imports per head of population varies in the different colonies from £10 to £20, in round numbers, per annum; in some cases, as in Queensland, temporarily reaching the large estimate of £33 per head. This is a great drain of capital, when paid for out of the exports, which if husbanded would be highly reproductive. In time, however, these rates will decrease, and in the older colonies are decreasing towards the average of other British settlements; some being one-half, others one-third, and even a fourth of these high rates.

Amongst the British emigrants there has been a goodly proportion of the manufacturing population, many of them skilled in working the staple products of Australia, and who will form the nucleus of similar classes there. These becoming dissatisfied with the rude occupations of producing the raw materials, wool, tallow, gold, copper, &c., readily assemble round the manufacturing capitalists at the loom, the anvil, or the workshop. Indeed, so numerous are the artizans and handicraftsmen in the older colonies that they combine to protect their trades, endeavouring to force the Legislature by political action to impose heavy duties, which would be almost prohibitory, upon imported merchandise. This retrograde step in free trade has not yet been taken, but it may in time. Meanwhile, in the cities of Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide and Hobart Town, there are manufactories of every description of merchandise suitable for the wants of the colonists, and it is only the high wages and cost of living that prevents their increase so as to shut out the importation of many important articles of merchandise. As a nation of workers in the inferior
metals, especially iron, here is a new field for the surplus labour of the United Kingdom. The ores of iron are found abundantly in every mineral district, and it is only the large expense of working that postpones their being smelted.

Nowhere do manual skill and labour stand so preeminent, or secure for the worker so high a reward as in Australia. The newly-arrived immigrant, launched into the vortex of Australian life, is bewildered for a time by the bustle and activity of the colonists pursuing their avocations in the towns or mining districts. From morn till night the hum and noise of labour resounds from busy populations. He that does not work is a blot in the community, for the cry is still, "Send us more men and women, but they must be workers." If they are of the right sort, and industrious, they will obtain employment at high wages the first day they land. If, from pride or laziness, they fail to put their shoulders to the wheel, they will linger about the highways of industry, jostled and unpitied by the crowd of workers.

Many people are inclined to think ill of these Australian colonies, when they learn the privations their friends or acquaintance have encountered in earning an honest living. Much sympathy is sometimes felt for the improvident man, who kept his vehicle and horses at home, but is obliged to drive a team of oxen there. And those friends who used to dine on luxurious viands at the spendthrift's table pity him, with a sigh at his position in the bush of Australia, where he has to subsist on damper, tea and mutton. Better, far better, is it for such non-workers and ne'er-do-wells at home, that circumstances have compelled them to perform the tasks which produce them an independent
subsistence abroad. Surely there is more honour due to the man who lives upon rough bush fare, and earns it, than he who dines superbly at the expense of others. If, in their home career, they displayed nothing of native nobleness, or moral or religious excellence, they stood in a false position. When we find them toiling as unskilled labourers in these colonies, they have only taken to those employments for which their want of capacity or ignorance of skilled labour fitted them best. Mere idlers and loungers who contribute nothing to the welfare of society are worse than useless; they are positively an evil element in the social fabric, since they add nothing to its stability or wealth, but drain it of resources. Whereas in the rough-and-ready communities of these colonies they become in time useful, and frequently independent men. Such being the case, there is not the evil in the poorer educated classes emigrating to Australia which many are apt to infer. Their presence in those young communities assists materially in maintaining the educational standard of society among the mass, which the preponderance of an uneducated labouring population tends to depreciate.

The conviction is gaining ground that the future empire of Australia will rival that of America. Whether it will raise the standard of independence, or retain its fealty to the British crown is a matter which time only can disclose. The statesmen of the day, in view of such contingencies, have enlarged the measure of political freedom, so that the colonists have equal or even greater privileges than their fellow subjects in the United Kingdom. By this policy the chances of a rupture are indefinitely postponed, and there is every probability that if a political separation takes place in the fulness of time, the Federal States of Australia
will hoist their standard in peace and loyal affection towards Great Britain.

Whatever may be the political aspect of the future, there exist on all sides the most cheering prospects for the diffusion of education and religion throughout the Australian colonies. Earnest endeavours are making to add to that material prosperity which they so abundantly enjoy, the higher prosperity, which consists in the possession of an enlightened, moral, and Christian population. To this end the voluntary energies of the colonists, the generous sympathies of the British public, the permanent sanctions of Government, and the zealous exertions of ministers of the Gospel, are consentaneously working for the spread of religion over the land. Nowhere in the British dominions is the Sabbath kept so strictly in the towns, or the places of public worship so well attended. From the scattered nature of the population over such a vast extent of country, there are sections of the community deprived of the privilege of attending a church or chapel. But there are few of the well-regulated stations in the interior where the master or superintendent does not gather his people on the Lord's day, and read a chapter of the Bible, or offer a prayer.

The paucity of places of worship, however, and the sparseness of the population, make religious decision pre-eminently essential to the colonist. At home he has numerous influences at work to keep him in the path of propriety and virtue. Society watches over him, friends counsel him for his good, teachers and ministers ply him with wholesome advice, the house of God is open for his reception. Though none of these things avail to secure his salvation apart from the Holy Spirit, they yet may serve to keep him from
open profligacy. In a new settlement many of these influences are withdrawn. The young colonist is left to choose his own course, with none to speak the warning word or arrest him in his downward career. Temptations of every kind abound, and the restraints of society are weakened or removed. "The fear of the Lord, which is the beginning of wisdom," is therefore supremely important here. Cut off, to a great extent, from religious ordinances and Christian society, the settler should more than ever strive to live under the sense of God's presence, remembering that "the eyes of the Lord are in every place, beholding the evil and the good."

Though the aboriginal inhabitants are fast disappearing, it is satisfactory to find missionaries endeavouring to instil into the remnant that remain some knowledge of true religion, as shown in the following extract from the report of the church mission station at Yelta, in Victoria:—"The mission station bears fruits of righteousness to the praise of the Lord Jesus, for whose sake, by whose command, and through whose grace, a work is being daily carried forward which abounds in good to many, and must cause every impartial beholder to confess that the followers of Christ are unrivalled in the work of bringing blessings to the most degraded and despised amongst the fallen families of the earth."

It is in this spirit that the work of colonization ought ever to be conducted. By the providence of God, England has been made "a great mother of nations." Not only does her flag fly on every sea, and her commerce explore every port, but on every continent her language is spoken by colonists who have there founded for themselves a new home. The design
of the Most High in this could not have been merely to aggrandize and enrich us with material wealth and power. The great colonizing nation of the world is the land of free Bibles, and religious privileges, and Gospel truth in its purity. We cannot err in concluding that it was for the diffusion of these throughout the world, that we were placed in this position of pre-eminence amongst the nations of the earth. Our colonies and our commerce are—

"Charged with a freight transcending in its worth
The gems of India, Nature's rarest birth;
That flies, like Gabriel on his Lord's commands,
A herald of God's love to pagan lands."

No common guilt will be ours if we transfer the vices of European civilization to those distant shores, without the great antidote to human misery, the grand panacea for all human wants and woes—the knowledge of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, through whom we have not only pardon, but strength to sustain, and wisdom which is profitable to direct; blessings for the life that now is and for that which is to come. If in this evangelical and missionary spirit our colonization be carried on, then, in more senses than one, "The wilderness and the solitary place shall be glad for them, and the desert shall rejoice, and blossom as the rose." "For ye shall go out with joy, and be led forth with peace; the mountains and the hills shall break forth before you into singing, and all the trees of the field shall clap their hands. Instead of the thorn shall come up the fir tree, and instead of the briar shall come up the myrtle tree; and it shall be to the Lord for a name, for an everlasting sign that shall not be cut off."
INDEX.

Aborigines, description of, by Dampier, 13; strange apathy of, 17; friendly at Endeavour river, 23; quarrels with, 86; capability of, 108; extinction of, in some parts, 110, 159; treatment of, 153; in South Australia, 274; Governor Daly's opinion, 274; in West Australia, 298; propensity to steal, 300; in Queensland, 329; mode of fishing, 330.

Adam Bay, 280.

Adelaide, 247; state in 1840, 249; Government works, 250; success of agriculturists, 254.

Animal life, 24-28; 49, 69.

Animal food cheap, 195.

Anti-convict Act, 305; agitation, 306.

Arthur, Governor Col., 144; Quixotic scheme of, 154; leaves, 160.

Arable land, 199.

Australia, derivation of name, 4; physical geography, 55; geology, 58; natural history, 59; seasons, 60; probable destiny, 335; imports, 336; activity in, 337.

Australia, South, 241; extent, 244.

Australia Felix, 178.

Australian dog, description of, 14.

Auctioneer's advertisement, 192.

Ballarat, 205, 237; riot, 221.

Barkly, Sir Henry, 232.

Bass's Strait, 34.

Bathurst discovered, 43.

Batman, John, 179.

Bear or Sloth, 71.

Bligh, Captain William, 98.

Blue Mountains, speculation about, 38; exploration of, 41.

Boomerang, 132.

Botany Bay discovered, 18; description, 19; convicts sent thither, 79.

Bourke, Governor Sir Richard, 110.

Bowen, Captain, 130.

Bowen, Sir G. F., 322, 331.

Brigands or bushrangers, 145, 158.

Brisbane, Sir Thomas, 317.

Brisbane, map of, 318; climate, 318; river, 319.

Britain the colonizing nation, 341.

Broughton, Bishop of Australia, 110.

Brown, Colonel Gore, 169.

Buckley among the natives, 180.

Buildings begun in Australia, 97.

Burke's expedition, 52.

Burra Burra copper mine, 263.

Canvas Town, 215.

Carpentaria, Gulf of, discovered, 10.

Casuarina groves, 14.

Cattle-breeding in N. S. Wales, 105.

Census first taken, 83.

Cereals, growth of, 91.

Charts of Australia, 36.

Chinese gold-diggers, 230.

Church and Chapel building, 111.

Clematis Arossmana, 65.

Coal in Tasmania, 141.

Coining, 121.

Collins, Colonel, 130, 175.

Collins and Tench on the convict expedition, 80.

Continent in Southern Hemisphere, speculations concerning, 1.

Convicts first sent to America, 78; ceased in 1783, 79; sent to New South Wales, 79; behaviour of first, 86; attempt to escape, 89; their labour a boon, 96, 135.

Convict-assignment system, 102; convict shepherds, 103.

Cook, Capt., starts in the Endeavour, 15; perseverance of, 30.

Coral Sea, danger of, 30.

Cunningham, Allan, 45.

Dalrymple, 3.

Dampier Land discovered, 11.

Denison, Sir William, 163.

Derwent River, 133.

De Witt sent out by Dutch East India Company, 5.

Dingo, the, 188.

Discoveries kept secret by the Dutch, Spanish and Portuguese, 12.

Distress of first settlers, 88.

Duck-billed water mole, 38.

Dutton, Francis, 261.

Duty on Gold, 222.
INDEX.

Eagle, Australian, 40.
Echunga diggings, 268.
Edels Land, 5.
Edible plants of Australia, 66.
Education, 112.
Zemboath, The, arrives in 1616, 4.
Evergreen trees, 61.
Exploration, difficult task, 37.
Byro, Edward John, 54.

Fauna and Flora of Eastern Tropical Australia, 47.
Fawkrner, John Pascoe, 179.
Flinders, Lieutenant, 33, 174.
Flogging, 147.
Forest lands, vast extent of, 66.
Franklin, Sir John, 180; Lady, 162.
Frederick Hendrick Bay, 8.
Frove, Captain, 248.
Fruits & vegetables, N.S.Wales, 106.
Furneaux, Captain Tobias, 34.

Gawler, Governor, 246.
Geelong, 175.
Geology of Australia, 56.
German immigrants, 258.
Gold discovery, 115—117, 201, 204; providential circumstance, 121; reaction from, 122; effects of, 206; statistics, 222—225.
Gold-fields in Victoria, 224.
Grant, Lieutenant, 172.
Gregory's explorations, 50, 53, 310.
Grey, Captain, 251; financial measures, 252; ill-feeling towards, 253; success of policy, 255.
Grose, Lieutenant-Governor, 91.
Gum tree, 29, 62.

Hahndorf, 239.
Hakluyt Society, 2.
Hargreaves, Edward Hammond, 113, 119; surveys South Australia, 288; surveys West Australia, 312.
Hobart Town, founded, 133; scenery round, 133.
Hotham, Sir Charles, 219, 225.
Hovell and Hume, early explorations of, 45, 177.
Hunter, Governor, 94.
Hutt, Governor, 293.

Interior, exploration of, 33.
Jackson, Port. discovered, 29.
Jeffreys, Lieutenant, 137.
Johnson, Rev. Richard, 84.

Kangaroo, 24, 73.
Kennedy, Edm., explorations of, 47.
Kennedy, Governor, 307.
King George Sound, 284.

Land jobbers, 191.
Landaborough's expedition, 53.
La Perouse, 82.
Launceston, 160.
Le Fay's explorations, 54.
Leichhardt, explorations of, 46.
Licence fee, 218, 220.
Lyre bird, 40.

Macarthur, Captain John, 92.
Macquarie, Governor, 93.
Major, Mr. R. H., 2.
Marsupials a link in creation, 75.
Melbourne, 193, 203, 214, 237; anarchy, 217; map, 239; parliament house, 239.
Missions in New South Wales, 108; in South Australia, 275.
Money, scarcity of in Tasmania, 142.
Moreton Bay, 318.
Murchison, Sir Roderick, opinion on gold-bearing rocks, 56.
Murray, Lieutenant John, 174.
Murray River, 177.

Natural History, 59.
New Guinea, 3.
New Holland, 10, 283.
New South Wales, 77, 82; formally taken possession of by Captain Cook for George III., 31; cattle in, 105; fruits of, 106; population and condition of, in 1836, 107, 112; statistics for 1850—1, 112; government of, 113; statistics, 1854, 123.

Nomenclature of Australia, 140.
North Australia, 280.
Nuyits Land, discovery of, 5.

Officer, cruel conduct of, 149.
Opossum, mode of hunting, 9, 69.
Ostrich, Australian, 41.

Pear tree of Australia, 62.
Pelsart, Commodore, quoted, 6.
Perth, 314.

Petition from Tasmania, 164.
Phillip, Governor, founder of the colony of N. S. Wales, 82; character of, 85; return to England, 90.

Physical geography, 55.
Plants of Australia, Mr. Banks' and Dr. Solander's description of, 28; cherry tree, 62; ferns, 63.

Political aspirants, 234.
Port Jackson, harbour of, 125.
Portland Bay whaling station, 179.
INDEX.

Portuguese, first discoverers, 2.
Printing Press set up in Sydney, 97.
Prospecting, 169.
Provisions, high price of, 190, 251.

Queensland, 316; wool-growing, 320; “prospecting” for gold, 321; separation of, 322; statistics, 323; emigration regulations, 324; trade, 324; religion and education, 327; crime, 328; timber, 330.
Quirós, Don Pedro de, 3.

Railways, 236.
Religious Denominations, 111, 114.
Rifley’s reaping machine, 257.
Riot at Ballarat, 221.
Rivers, characteristics of, 44.
Robinson’s plan for winning the natives, 706.
Road-making, 94.

Sabbath observance, 89.
Scotchmen in Hobart Town, 134.
Sea-cow, 102, 186, 188, 197.
Seasons in Australia, 60.
Sheep-breeding of, 92; sheep-faëting, 102, 186, 188, 197.
Shepherds, wages of, 198.
Somerset, 332.
Sorell, Governor Colonel, 144.
South Australia, 241; extent of, 241; wheat, 256; statistics, 257, 263; discovery of copper and lead, 259, 260; legislative council, 267; agricultural and other statistics, 271; regard to religion, 276; education in, 277; immunity from crime, 278.
South Australian Association, 243.
Spanish, Dutch and Portuguese enterprising in discovery, 2-4.
Squatters, 15-5, 189.
Station Peak, 175.
Stirling, Governor, 286, 293; address to, 289.
Stuart’s explorations, 1838-61, 50.
Sturt, Captain, 43.
Summary, 333.
Surveying staff, under Messrs. Oxley and Evans, in 1812, 41.

Swan River, 285; distress, 288; statistics, 294; petition for convict labour, 286, 302; religion and education, 297; mining, 311; timber, 313; trade, 313.
Sydney, 37, 97; public buildings, 127; map of, 126.
Sydney Gazette, 97.
Sydney Cove, 123.

Tasman, Abel Jansen, 7; account of his discoveries, 9.
Tasmania, formerly named Van Diemen’s Land, 9; considered as part of continent till 1798, 34; history, 128; topography, 136; sheep-breeding, 139; money, 142; aborignon, 149; trade with the mainland, 169; departure of convicts, 165; declension, 167; statistics, 1863, 170; prospects, 171.
Telegraph, 282.
Thomson, Dr., 182.
Tierra del Espíritu Santo, 3.
Torrens’ land system, 278.
Torres, Luis Vaez de, 3.
Tribulation, Cape, 22.

Van Diemen, Governor-General, 7, 9.
Vandemonians and Sydneymtes, 183.
Victoria, 172, 200; a free colony, 176; size, 167; separation of, 202; government, 202, 225; statistics of progress, 200, 203, 226-223; revenue, 235; railways, 236.
Volcanoes, absence of, 57.

West Australia, 283; free settlement, 283; distress, 288; preferential land-clauns, 291; statistics, 294, 313; public works, 301; crime, 302; population, 304; exodus of free inhabitants, 309.
Wilmot, Sir Eardly, 163.
Wine-making, 106, 269.
Wool, price of first Australian, 100; amounts exported, 101, 104.
Wright, Captain, 176.
York, Cape, 3.
Young, Sir Henry, 160.