







THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.





HAWAIIANS OF THE PRESENT DAY (A COURT GARDEN PARTY).

THE
COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD:

BEING

A POPULAR DESCRIPTION OF THE VARIOUS CONTINENTS, ISLANDS, RIVERS,
SEAS, AND PEOPLES OF THE GLOBE.

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THE COUNTRIES OF THE WORLD.

CHAPTER I.

OCEANIA: GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS.

AFTER our travels through the bleak wastes of the frozen lands, and along the river banks, and among the prairies, forests, and pampas of the two Americas, we once more leave the land, and sail westward into that world of waters known as the Pacific. We have already made the acquaintance of Balboa, who, on the 29th September, 1513, first sighted it, albeit rumours of a great sea on the other side of the land had reached the willing ears of Columbus when, at Hispaniola, he was dreaming of Cathay and the Indies. But the bankrupt of Domingo (Vol. III., p. 1) had no liking for sea voyages: he wearied only for gold, and accordingly the honours of having first sailed across it fell to Magellan (Vol. III., p. 260) eight years afterwards. But it is only within comparatively modern times that we have gained anything like accurate ideas regarding its extent, nature, or, above all, with the all but innumerable—and certainly unnumbered—*islands* which dot its bosom. Among those who have thus contributed to our knowledge, the name of Captain Cook stands pre-eminent before all others. But Anson, La Perouse, the Bougainvilles, D'Entrecasteaux, Cartaret, Vancouver, Kruzenstern, Kotzebue, Belcher, and among the later of those whose researches have added to our scientific knowledge, the scientific staff of the *Challenger* ought not to be omitted. It is not at all likely that any new groups of islands, or even any single island of large size, will be discovered. But it is not improbable that there yet remain in that eight million square miles of water some isolated specks of land, which the white man has not yet sighted, and where live the dusky lotos eaters, unconscious of the still more wicked world which lies outside their, possibly, not very moral microcosm. All of the larger groups have been visited: many of them have been settled upon by missionaries, and few of them are now wholly in a condition of barbarism. Some, like the Sandwich Islands, are christianised and civilised: others, like the Fijis, are European colonies; one or two, like Pitcairn, Norfolk, and Lord Howe's Islands, are inhabited by white colonists or their descendants; while a fourth class are either in a state of pristine savagedom, or, like New Guinea and the Samoan groups, are just beginning to feel the effects of the

white man's greed. All of them are beautiful: most of them are rich, and, with a few exceptions, the climate of these Oceanic Islands scattered over the great Pacific—the *Stille Meer* of the Germans, the *Mar del Zur* of the Spaniards—is faultless. In these “summer isles of Eden, in dark purple spheres of the sea”—all, “save the spirit of the man, is divine,” and it must be allowed that his spirit would bear improvement. The islands comprised in what has been conveniently called “Oceania,” have been divided into three groups—these divisions being chiefly founded on the prevailing ethnological characteristics. For our purposes this classification is not very important. Still, as the names have now got naturalised in the language of geography, we may, without binding ourselves to any strict adherence to this order in the sequence after which we may visit them, adopt these designations. Accordingly, under the name of (1) *Polynesia*, or Eastern Oceania, we may include the small island groups of the Western and Central Pacific; (2) under South-western Oceania, or *Australasia*, Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, and (3) under *Malaysia*, or North-western Oceania, the Malay Islands. The last-named, however, properly belong to Asia, and, therefore, we shall defer any description of them until we again commence our travels on dry land, while Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand are, strictly speaking, a fifth division of the world. Accordingly, in the chapters which immediately follow, we shall consider chiefly the Polynesian Islands inhabited by the fairer skinned, and straight-haired races, of which the Sandwich Islanders are the type; and those South Sea Islands which, like the Fijis, are inhabited by a darker curly-haired people of the Papuan family. In other words, *Polynesia*, *Micronesia*, and *Melanesia* will be the theme of our travel talk. The islands are so numerous that it is impossible to visit them all, and as, in another place, we have fully discussed the people which inhabit them, a brief but comprehensive sketch may suffice for our purpose.

THE GALAPAGOS, JUAN FERNANDEZ, AND REVILLA GIGEDOS.

First, however, we must say a few words about these islands. They lie nearest the American continent of all the Oceanic islands, and though rarely associated with Polynesia, and never appearing to have been inhabited by any aboriginal races, are, in many respects, remarkable and interesting. The small islands lying off the continent—like the Queen Charlotte's in the North Pacific, the Farallones off California, and the Chinchas off Peru—are, to all intents and purposes, only detached bits of the adjoining shores. But in the case of the Galapagos, at least, this is different.

The *Galapagos*, or “Tortoise Isles,” as the word signifies in Spanish (*galapago*, a tortoise), are thirteen in number, the largest—Albemarle—measuring sixty miles by fifteen, with an elevation of 4,700 feet. The ten largest are Albemarle, Indefatigable, Chatham, King Charles (p. 1), James, Narborough, Hood, Barrington, Bindloes, and Abingdon, but, though thus named mostly after British magnates, they are included in the Republic of Ecuador, from which they are but 500 and 600 miles distant. They can hardly be said to be peopled, the few inhabitants on them being a rude semi-civilised set of fishers, who assemble here at certain seasons for the purpose of catching the enormous tortoises with which they

abound. They are volcanic, but though 2,000 extinct craters have been counted on them, there is only one active volcano—that on the isle of Narborough—and the cold Chilian current prevents growth of coral on the shore, swept by its comparatively chilly waters. Their distinguishing feature is the great number of reptiles—snakes, lizards, and tortoises—with which they abound. The tortoise (*Testudo Indica*) sometimes attains the weight of 500 lbs. or 600 lbs.—and is said to be often ridden about by the festive seafaring man—and one lizard found there is the only known marine species. It is three feet in length, has webbed feet and a compressed tail, and is believed to have been allied to the great marine reptiles—the Ichthyosaurus and Plesiosaurus—which distinguished certain of the geological periods. It basks on the beach, and feeds on seaweed. The Galapagos are true pelagic islands, and are often cited as illustrating the peculiar relation of such islands to continents. Mr. Darwin has, for instance, adduced them as an illustration of the fact that such islands are inhabited by plants and animals closely allied to those of the nearest mainland, without being actually the same. In the Galapagos, for example, every product of the land and of the water bears the unmistakable American stamp, yet few of the beings which have their homes there are the same as those found on the nearest mainland. There are twenty-six land-birds, but of these twenty-one are usually ranked as distinct species, though all possessing near relatives on the continent 600 miles away; but of the eleven marine birds which permanently live on the cliffs, and feed in the sea around, only two are peculiar. This is what might have been expected, for it is obvious that sea-birds could more easily reach these islands than their land-birds. Again, on studying the plants, Sir Joseph Hooker finds that the majority—100 out of 180—are different from those of America, but are, at the same time, so closely allied, that in looking at the vegetation around him, he felt that he was standing on the American continent. On a small scale, we see the same facts true of every separate island in the Galapagos group. Each is tenanted by many distinct species, but these species are more closely related to each other than they are to the species on the American continent from which they seem to have been colonised. Yet there is nothing in the soil, height, climate, or other physical conditions of the islands to cause this deviation of one island from another as to its plants and animals. They are, however, separated from each other by deep arms of the sea, in most cases wider than the British Channel, and swept by swift currents. Gales of wind are also rare, so that mode of diffusion of species cannot rarely be put into practice. Yet, in the Galapagos, we find neighbouring islands inhabited by distinct species of birds, which are well fitted to fly from one to the other. For instance, there are three closely-allied species of mocking-thrush, each confined to its own island. The reason given for this is curious, but to discuss it would lead us far away from our subject, and on to ice, in the opinion of many worthy people too thin for prudent holiday travellers to skate on.

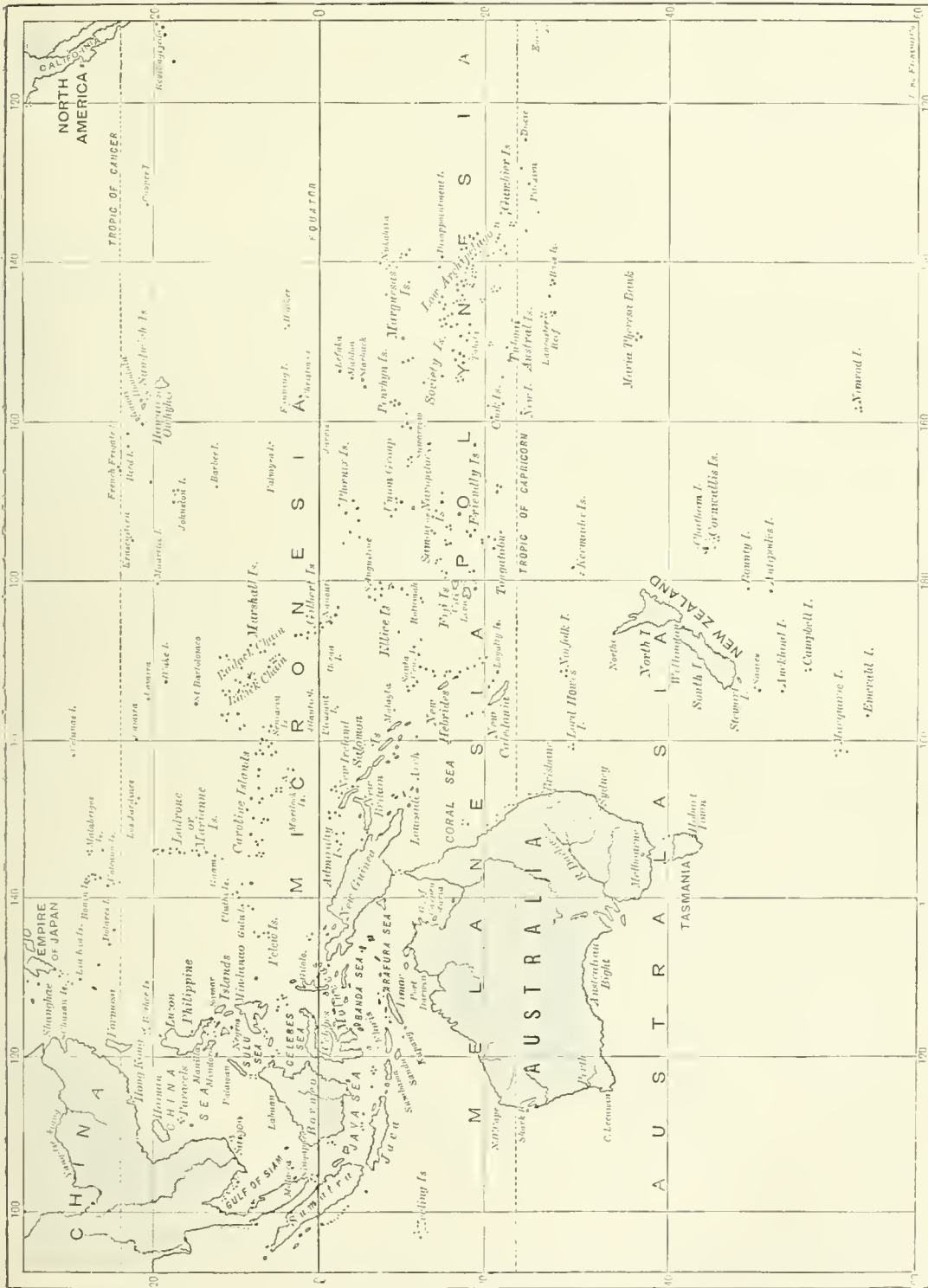
Juan Fernandez, St. Ambrose, St. Felix, and other small basaltic isles, without coral on their shores, lie about 400 miles from the Chilian coast. Juan Fernandez—or Masatierra—is the largest and most famous of these, from the notion that it was the scene of Robinson Crusoe's adventures, as related by Defoe. In reality, though Alexander Selkirk passed four years in solitude on this isle, there is no proof whatever, contrary to the

usual belief, that his adventures suggested, far less supplied, the famous romancist with the particulars, which he afterwards so skilfully worked up into the adventures of the wayward mariner of York. Indeed, a glance at Robinson Crusoe's autobiography will show that they are located on an island near the mouth of the Orinoco, and a very slight acquaintance with Defoe's works will convince the reader that a man capable of writing the "Voyage Round the World," and the "Adventures of Colonel Jaek," required no prompting from



VIEW IN KING CHARLES ISLAND, ONE OF THE GALAPAGOS GROUP.

the rather dull buccaneering coxswain of the "Cinque Ports" galley to give his novel that verisimilitude which has gained for it immortality and a popularity only limited by the range of the printing press. The island itself is ten or twelve miles long, and about four broad, and is for the most part wild and mountainous, the highest peak, that of the Yunque, or Anvil, being about 3,000 feet above the sea level. The valleys are, however, well wooded and fertile, and yield oats, turnips, apples, cherries, strawberries, melons, peaches, grapes, figs, sandal wood, myrtle, the chuta (a species of palm)—bearing a rich fruit—the cork tree, and other varieties of timber. There are few wild animals, but numbers of goats, the offspring of tame ones which had been landed there, now



MAP OF OCEANIA.

wander quite wild among the cliffs. The first appearance which the voyager gets of Juan Fernandez is very striking. Its precipitous cliffs, and great mountains torn and broken into fantastic shapes, with the wild torrents rushing through the wooded gullies, gave a most picturesque aspect to this isle of romance. The cherries and peaches were, with many of the other fruits, &c., now found on it, planted by the early visitors. Indeed, the peaches are said to have been the gift of Lord Anson to wayfarers: he planted the trees in 1711 when on his famous voyage round the world. Several attempts have at various times been made to colonise the island, since it was discovered in 1563. In early days the buccaneers made it a base of operations against the Spaniards; and during one of their visits in 1681, a West Indian negro being accidentally left behind, robbed the Largo seaman of more than half his distinction, by remaining on it in solitude for nearly three years, until he was rescued by the next visitors. Twenty years afterwards, the solitary individual of whom we know most passed his enforced four years here, but it has been ascertained that several other eccentric or unfortunate adventurers have at different times had much the same experience as Selkirk. In 1717 the Spanish Government established a colony on it, but the whole of their buildings were soon after wrecked by one of the earthquakes to which these islands, in common with the mainland, are often subject. The crumbling Fort San Juan Bautista, and the traces of walled fields at the base of the wooded Anvil Mountain, but now rapidly getting overgrown with forest, are the reminders of the days when Spain in her incipient decadence, instead of consolidating and developing what she had, grasped at more land than she could govern. In 1819 the Chilians formed a penal settlement here, and at one time had as many as 500 prisoners on the island. But the deportees rebelled, and for a time mastered the troops, and were lords of all they surveyed. So, in 1835, Juan Fernandez being found very expensive and unsafe, was abandoned as a Chilian Botany Bay, and for forty years remained undisturbed. In 1868 the newspapers contained a rumour of its cession to a Society of Germans, who proposed colonising it. But the scheme did not come to maturity, while the American speculator, who made it a station for Tahitian whale-fishers, found that his practice was not equal to his theory. At present the island is leased to a Chilian merchant, who employs the forty or fifty settlers in cutting wood, tending cattle, &c., and in drying fish for the Valparaiso market. During the season there and at Masafuera, ninety miles distant, they usually capture about 2,000 fur seals, and as their skins are at present worth over £3 each, this portion of their toil is perhaps rather more lucrative than the supplying of passing ships with fresh provisions. The climate is said to be mild and healthy, though changeable. It is just possible that in time the island may gain some importance as a victualling station, and under a power more energetic than Chili, may be made something of. Cumberland Bay is a good harbour, and here, in 1868, the officers of H.M.S. *Topaze* placed an iron tablet, commemorating about the only event which is likely to cause the world to remember Juan Fernandez, viz.:—the solitary exile on it of Alexander Selkirk.

The Revilla Gigedo Isles—off the coast of Mexico, 260 miles south of Cape San Lucas—consist of Socorro and several others. They are volcanic, and like the preceding ones, without coral, owing to the fact of a strong current from the north sweeping

their shores. They are uninhabited, rocky, and barren, but in some places rendered impenetrable by thickets of the *Cactus Opuntia*; and it may be added, though no coral grows on their shores, yet it is found inside the current as far north as the entrance of the Gulf of California. The name of Revilla Gigedo has also been applied to an island off the shores of Alaska.

THE CORAL ISLANDS.

Coming to the isles which are more directly entitled to the name of Polynesia, we find them in almost every case either volcanic or made up of coral—the old volcano or lava frequently forming the base on which the coral polype—not “insect,” as it is sometimes absurdly called—builds in the manner we shall presently describe. These islands, according to their physical appearance, have sometimes been divided into High, Median, and Low Polynesia. The Sandwich Islands, Marquesas, and Tahiti are types of the first class. They are all volcanic, and are composed of basalt. Their valleys are extremely fertile, and their highest peaks in many cases capped with snow; the wild dells, and the rich tropical vegetation, contrasted with Alpine scenery, giving such islands a most picturesque aspect (p.13). The Median Polynesian Islands are of lower elevation, and though mostly composed of the remnants of coral in the form of carbonate of lime, crystallised by volcanic action, they are extremely fertile, and are covered with luxurious forests, abounding in trees bearing the most delicious fruits. Low Polynesia is the name applied to those coral islands raised only a few feet above the surface, and which, indeed, are at present in process of formation. At a distance it requires a practised eye to detect the ring-like sea-wall of coral encircling the low cocoa-nut fringed patch of bread-fruit, Hibiscus, and other dwarf shrubs, which are about the only trees which grow well on the poor soil formed by the decay of vegetation, mingled with the droppings of sea birds, which covers with a thin layer these coral islands. Their scenery is not grand, but though they may lack the wild peaks and awful gorges of the volcanic islands, yet there is something in them indescribably calm and peaceful, beyond the dreams of those whose life has been cast amid the turmoil of the worrying, wearying, money-making world, which lies far away from these lovely spots among the world of waters in the Pacific. The way in which these coral islands have been formed has been so well described by Mr. Darwin, that though the description which he has given of their formation is mainly theoretical, yet it is founded on so many well-observed facts, that we may accept it as the most probable and only generally accepted explanation which has yet been given. The coral polype may be said to be a sea anemone, living in a hard limy dwelling instead of a soft one, and in a colony of many millions, all united into one more or less solid mass, instead of remaining isolated, as do their familiar relatives of our shores. They extract the lime from the sea to build up their dwellings, and this aids in the formation of coral islands. They cannot live in any sea which has a lower mean temperature than 66°, and are therefore practically limited to an area of about 1,800 miles on each side of the equator. However, as we have seen—owing to the influence of cold currents—no coral reefs are found on the western shores of America, or of Africa, though this region lies within the area mentioned. They are found on the east coast of Africa,

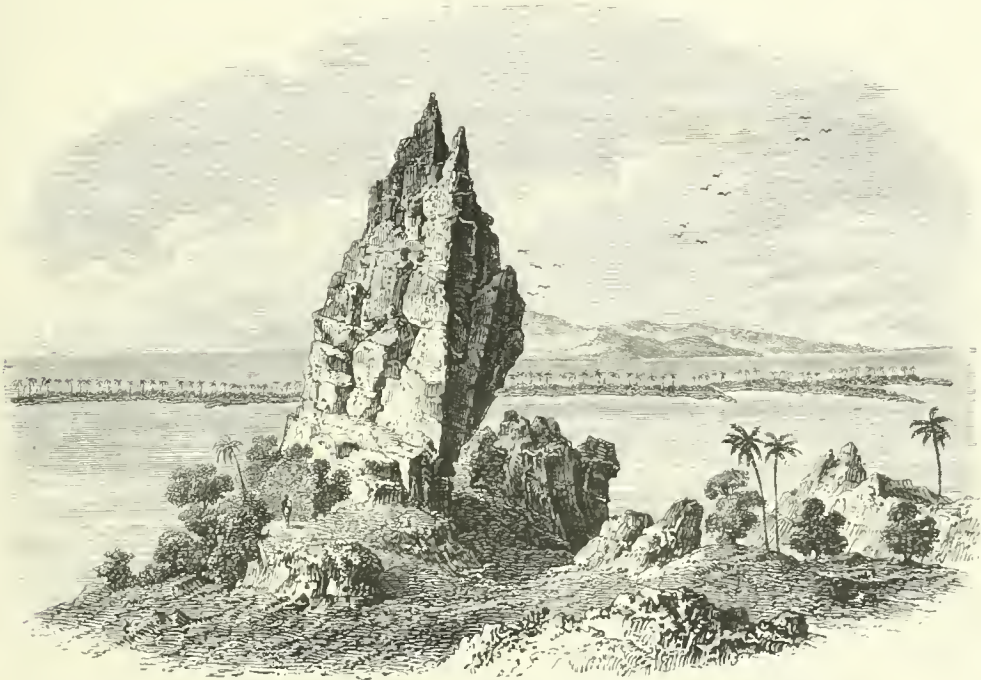
the shores of Madagascar, the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, throughout the Indian Ocean, around the West Indian Islands, and the coast of Florida. But it is in Polynesia that the head-quarters of the reef-building corals are found. There they are found often several hundreds of miles in length, and two feet or more in thickness. They also go under different names, according to their character and mode of formation. Thus there are fringing reefs, barrier reefs, and atolls. The first are usually of small size, and may either surround islands, or run along their coasts (p. 9). Between them and the shore there is usually no great depth of water, while soundings prove that on their seaward side the land gradually shelves away. The barrier reefs are of much the same character as the ones just described, but they differ from them in so far that they occur usually at greater distances from land, and have between them and the shore a deeper channel,



VIEW OF WHITSUNDAY ISLAND, NEAR THE COAST OF AUSTRALIA (ATOLL).

while on their seaward side the sounding line immediately sinks to great depths—this, for example, is the case with the great barrier reef which for more than a thousand miles runs along the north-east coast of Australia—in some places to 1,500 feet. If such a reef surrounds an island, it is called an “encircling barrier reef,” and in the island in the centre is known as a “lagoon island.” The atolls are, however, the most remarkable of all the coral islands. These are of a nearly circular or oval shape, and with the exception of a few breaks, completely surround a salt lake in the centre, though in one or two cases (*e.g.*, in figure) they form an unbroken ring. They only differ from encircling barrier reefs by the pond-like lagoon in the centre not containing an island. This lagoon is a perfect harbour. It is quiet and unruffled, while outside a tremendous surf is breaking on the reef, throwing up a line of dead coral on its surface, so that the island is made up of living polypes and their limy habitations, and the broken *débris* tossed up by the breakers. Now, how are such islands formed? To understand the theory which is usually accepted, it is necessary to explain first the salient facts

which have been ascertained regarding the conditions under which the coral animal lives. The coral animals cannot live even for short periods exposed to the sun; accordingly they never raise their dwellings above the surface, or are found higher up than low-water mark. It is therefore clear that the coral islands could not have been raised above the level of the sea by the efforts of their builders. The agency which accomplishes this consists of the waves. They tear off great fragments of living coral from the reefs below water, toss them up on its surface until the mass is raised above the surface, and the detached fragments united by the percolation amongst them of water charged with carbonate of lime. It is,



VIEW OF BORABORA, ONE OF THE CORAL ISLANDS (SHOWING FRINGING REEFS).

however, evident that the same force which has piled up the island in this manner could also destroy it by again attacking and tossing the torn off fragments to the bottom. But another agency comes in force: this is the vital activity of the living corals which are always building upwards towards the surface from the seaward margin of the reef, and this prevents the sea from destroying the *débris* reared island which it has formed. This is, however, another peculiarity about the reef-building coral animals, which must be explained before the nature of the islands, which are formed of the hard portions of their bodies, can be understood. They must live under the water, but at the same time they are creatures of shoals, and cannot exist at greater depths than some 15 to 30 fathoms. "It follows from this that no coral reef can be commenced upon a sea bottom deeper than about 30 fathoms. The question now arises—In what way have reefs been produced, which, as we have seen, rise out of depths of 300 fathoms or more? The

question has been answered by Darwin, who showed that the production of barrier reefs and atolls was really to be ascribed to a gradual subsidence of the foundations on which they rest. Thus, if a fringing reef which surrounds an island is supposed gradually to sink beneath the sea, the upward growth of the corals will neutralise the downward movement of the land, so far, at any rate, that the reef will appear to be stationary, whilst it is really growing upwards. The island, however, as subsidence goes on, will gradually diminish in size, and a channel will be formed between it and the reef. If the depression should still be continued, the island will be reduced to a mere peak, in the centre of a lagoon; and the reef, from a 'fringing reef' (p. 9), will have become converted into an 'encircling barrier reef.' As the growth of the reef is chiefly vertical, the continual depression will, of course, have produced deep water all around the reef. If the subsidence be continued still further, the central peak will disappear altogether, and the reef will become a more or less complete ring, surrounding a central expanse of water, thus becoming converted into an 'atoll.' The production, therefore, of encircling barrier reefs and atolls is thus seen to be due to a process of subsidence of the sea bottom. The existence, consequently, of fringing reefs, is only possible where the land is either slowly rising, or is stationary; and as a matter of fact, fringing reefs are often found to be conjoined with upraised strata of post tertiary age. Atolls and encircling barrier reefs, on the other hand, are not found in the vicinity of active volcanoes—regions where geology teaches us that the land is either stationary, or is undergoing slow upheaval." These areas of subsidence and elevation on the Pacific are now tolerably well known. The first comprises an area 1,000 miles broad and 6,000 miles long, and stretches from Pitcairn Island, which is high, and just outside the area, to the Pelew Isles, the Samoan, Tahitian, Fiji, and Caroline groups, being comprehended within the area; it also embraces part of the Sandwich Isles towards the west. The area of greatest depression is marked by a line passing south-east from of the Low Archipelago to Japan, and must, taking a very moderate estimate, have amounted to several thousand feet. The Tonga Isles are, however, a group which has never been elevated. The New Hebrides, Solomon Isles, and New Ireland are, on the other hand, lofty, and apparently unaffected by any movement, but beyond them, in the region to the east, embracing New Caledonia, is another region of subsidence. It may also be added in connection with this, that the whole coast of Chili and Peru shows marks of recent elevation. But the white coral soil is, as yet, unfitted for the growth of plants. Gradually, however, a thin surface of mould is formed upon it. The masses of seaweeds tossed up decay, and leave some residue behind them. The sea birds discover that here is rest for them, and their droppings fertilise the thin mould of sea plants, and add to it also. These land birds in their flight from island to island, or from continents far away, alight on the ever-increasing coral strand, and deposit the seeds of plants on it. A hundred may fall into the crevices of the coral block and perish, but one may spring up and flourish under the hot tropical sun. In time, it dies, and forms a mould, but not before it has seeded, and thus given birth to a numerous progeny, which add to the soil, and the gradually spreading veneer of vegetation, which is covering it. The currents bring to the island trees, washed, it may be, from the shores of America and of Asia, which soon decay, but in their rottenness contribute to

the thickening mould. In the roots of the trees are stones which, by-and-by, will be valued by the men who, as yet, have not arrived, and it may be the eggs of insects and other animals, which now begin to add life to the island. Lizards cling to the branches of others which arrive from nearer coasts, tossed into the sea by rivers, or by landslips, to disembark where the waters and winds may please to deliver them. The coral is now covered with verdure, and this verdure yearly rewards the island for the space it has occupied by contributing, in its fallen leaves and mouldering stems, to the support of the increasing life, native to the sea-born reef, or ever and anon arriving from other islands or continental shores. Among the first of these arrivals are the cocoa-nut and the bread-fruit. The former (p. 13) grows best near the sea, and in land so formed it naturally follows that no portion is far removed from it, so that the seeds, often encased in thick husks, drop into the waters, and are wafted hither and thither, until they are tossed up on some such islet as that of which we are attempting to picture the genesis.

The island is now fitted for occupation by man, and in due time he arrives. Some canoemen are driven out of their course by the adverse winds or currents—and numerous such cases are on record—or are impelled by some of those many mysterious causes which have forced nations and tribes to desert their old homes for new ones, war—the oppression of conquerors—or that eager restlessness which is akin to the impulse which animates some of the lower animals to take sudden migrations from old to new quarters. They sight the green isle with its fringe of cocoa-nuts, which to their experienced eye tell of the quiet lagoon beyond, and the shady flat with the bread-fruit and the yam. They land, and find enough for their simple wants on land and in the sea around the land; or if they wish to vary their vegetative and ichthyic diet, the neighbouring isles which they have left, or which they may discover in their future roamings, supply a horrid banquet from the only mammal of any size, which, until the white man reached these islands, was known to them. The stones found on the island, or which may be wafted by the waves, entangled in the roots of trees, form a valuable material for tools. Indeed, on one island, as narrated elsewhere, the civil list of the king consisted of such stones: they were delivered to him as his royal perquisite, and sold by the shrewd monarch at a great price. By-and-by comes the trader—in search of turtle-shell and sandal-wood—or the explorer seeking knowledge and new lands. Then follows what is facetiously called “civilisation,” but the concomitants of this are not so improving that the reader need, for the present at least, be asked to follow it.

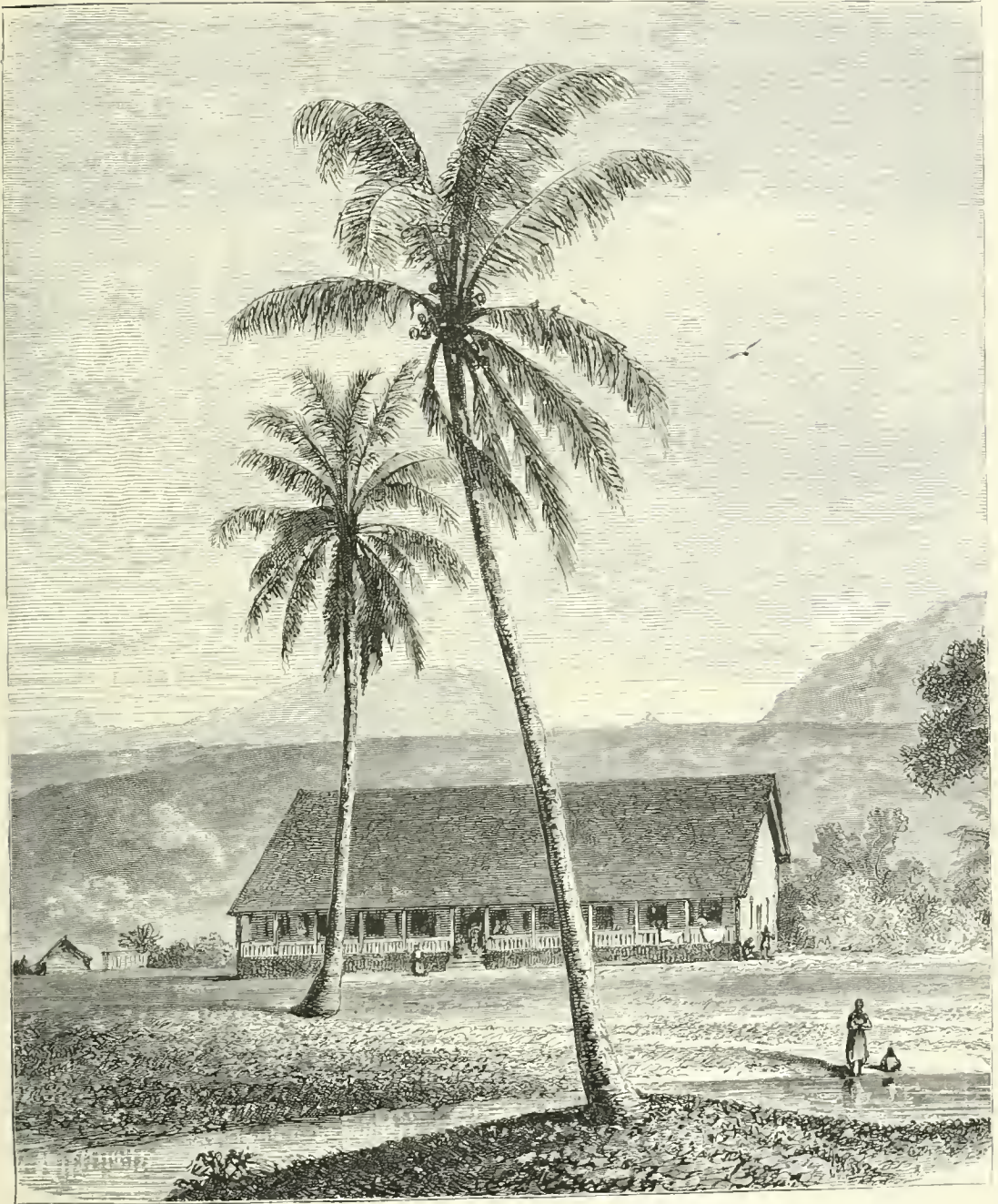
These coral islands, inside and out, are lovely beyond the power of words to describe. Outside, the wild breakers dash with a violence unknown in our latitudes, and send their spray high over the reef, and, as it falls, forms for the moment many-hued rainbows. The whole coast-line is white with dazzling foam, and the incessant roar of the surf is the one sound from which the ear is never free. Inside all is calm. Here, in the still lagoon, the delicate and beautifully branched corals spread out undisturbed, and shelter the myriads of fishes and other animals which nestle among the ever-forming thicket. “It is a pleasant thing,” writes Mr. Farmer, “to float in a canoe over the shallow parts of these very clear waters on a fine day. Keeping your oars still, you may watch the

busy and beautiful life below; you may see fish of bright hues playing in and out of the coral stems and branches, seeming to be glad of a refuge from their enemies in the open sea; while the gentle ripple of the waves, touched by the light of a brilliant sun, heightens the charm of the scene." A sheltered nook in one of these lagoons is a perfect aquarium—only on a scale grander than anything which has yet been attempted to be made in imitation of it. The late Professor Beete Jukes, when naturalist of H.M.S.



A CORAL GROVE.

Fly, saw such a scene, and with his graphic description I may conclude this sketch of the Coral Reefs. "Round masses of *meandirina* (brain coral) and *astræa* were contrasted with delicate leaf-like and cup-shaped expansions of *explanaria*, and with an infinite variety of branching *madreporæ* and *seriatoporæ*; some with mere finger-shaped projections, others with large branching stems, and others again exhibiting an elegant assemblage of interlacings of the most excellent workmanship. Their colours were unrivalled, vivid greens contrasting with more sober browns and yellows, mingled with rich shades of purple, from pale pink to deep blue. Bright red, yellow, and peach-coloured *nulliporæ* clothed these masses that were dead, mingled with beautifully pearly flakes of *eschara* and *retipora*:

COCOA-NUT TREES (*Cocos nucifera*) OF TAHITI.

the latter looking like lace-work in ivory. In among the branches of the corals, like birds among trees, floated many beautiful fish, radiant with metallic greens and crimsons, or fantastically branded with black and yellow stripes. Patches of clear white sand were

seen here and there for the floor, with dark hollows and recesses beneath overhanging masses and ledges."*

As there is no distinct division between a coral and a volcanic island—it being a mere accident when the two are not combined—we may defer any notice of the great volcanoes and hot springs of these parts of the world until we reach the islands in which these are found. Meantime, a few words may be appropriately introduced in this place regarding the plants and animals characteristic of these islands, and which are throughout them so very much alike.

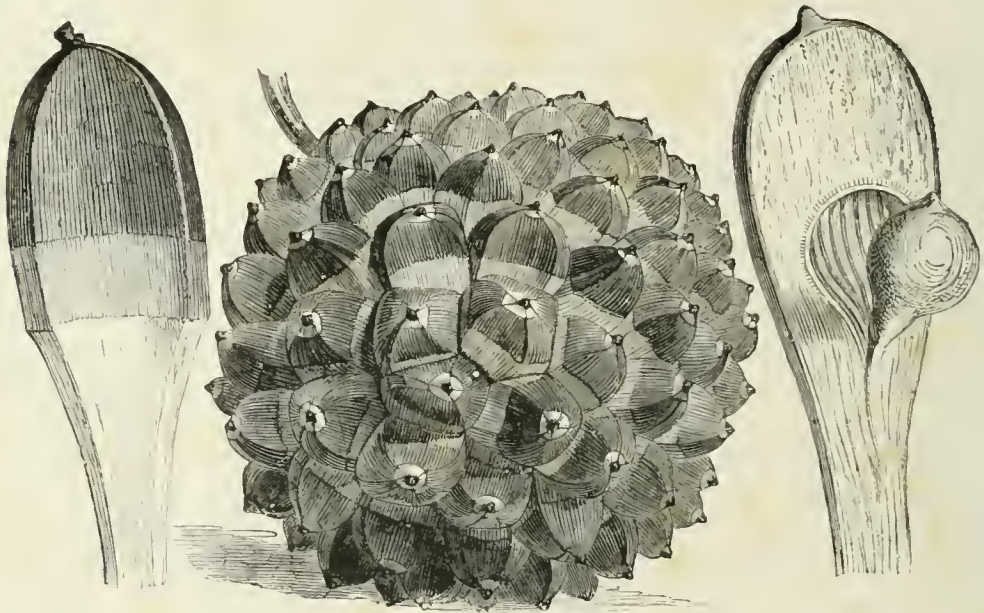
PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

The general climate, rich volcanic soil of many of them, and the abundant supply of moisture with which most of them are favoured, causes the Pacific Islands to be covered with luxuriant evergreen vegetation composed of many beautiful plants. Dr. Bennett's impression of Tahiti may be allowed to stand as conveying a good general view of the botanical aspect of many of these Polynesian islands. "The waving cocoa-palms—the verdant mountains in the background—the bright green of the orange-groves—the drooping fronds of the pandanus tree almost dipping into the rolling surges on the beach—and a pretty islet, studded with cocoa-palms, situated in the centre of the bay—all combined to form a delightful landscape. Rambling a short distance inland, no plantations were seen, but the whole island may be termed a garden; for cocoa-palms, bread-fruit trees, plantains, and bananas, the vi, or Brazilian plum, and the ohia, or jambo, were growing spontaneously, and bearing fruit. To these, at another season, may be added oranges, pine-apples, shaddock, and other introduced fruits, which thrive as well as the indigenous plants. Advancing further towards the mountains, the elegant South Sea chestnut tree adorned the banks of the streams, together with a luxuriant vegetation of ferns and other plants: whilst the brows of the hills were covered by thickets of waving bamboos, or dense masses of the mountain plantain tree, conspicuous from its dark green and broad foliage, and huge clusters of orange-coloured fruit; and the upland slopes, leading to a succession of naked crags, were feathered by tall, graceful shrubs, loaded with odoriferous blossoms." But it is not fruit-trees alone which form the mass of these Polynesian woods. The Dammara pines are found in the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and the Fijis, sometimes in the form of extensive forests, covering the hills. The Norfolk Island pine—a species of *Araucaria*—is even a grander tree. It attains a height of 200 feet, and makes excellent masts. The tamam (*Calophyllum inophyllum*) of Tahiti is covered with clusters of scented white flowers. At one time it was considered sacred, death being the penalty for any one destroying a branch of it, and to this day the resin, used by the Tahitian women as a perfume, is an article of commerce. Another magnificent feature in the Polynesian landscape is the coral tree (*Erythrina corallodendron*), with its great masses of scarlet blossoms, which gain for it its popular name. The apape (*Rhus apape*), the mará (*Cephanthus mará*), and the faifai (*Acacia myriadena*)—all of which attain to a height of from forty to seventy feet—are

* See also—Darwin: "On the Structure and Distribution of Coral Reefs" (2nd Edition, 1874); Dana: "Coral and Coral Island" (1872); Alleyne Nicholson: "Manual of Zoology" (1878); and "Corals" in "Encyclopædia Britannica," 9th Edition (1877), &c.

among the other Tahitian timber, which may be mentioned as producing a fine quality of wood. The red sap of the blood-wood tree (*Baloghia lucida*) was used for marking the bags and clothing of the convicts when Norfolk Island was a penal settlement. The South Sea chestnut (*Inocarpus edulis*), and the splendid *Barringtonia speciosa*—with its magnificent pink flower but worthless fruit, only used for poisoning fish in Rotuma, Friendly Islands, and Tahiti—and the great banyan tree, ought also to be noted. But of all the woods which are found in the Polynesian Islands, the famous sandal-wood (*Santalum Freycinetianum*) is the most valuable. At one time it grew abundantly in the Sandwich Islands, but owing to reckless hewing it has long ago got scarce there, though it is found in the New Hebrides and other portions of western Polynesia. Formerly a great many small vessels were engaged in the traffic, in order to sell it to the Chinese to burn as incense in their joss-houses. But at present the number of traders—nearly all from the Australian colonies—is much fewer. They chiefly frequent the New Hebrides, and use, or used, in the traffic a species of shell (*Ocnium angulosum*) only obtained, and that not in great abundance, at the Friendly Islands. The New Hebrideans valued it so highly as a personal ornament that they have frequently been known to give a ton of sandal-wood for a single “nampoori.” The bread-fruit (*Artocarpus incisa*) is the great staple bread-stuff of the islands. Indeed, without it the Polynesian could scarcely exist, so extensively is it used, and for such a variety of purposes. Next to this invaluable fruit come some thirty cultivated varieties of the plantain and banana, the yam and taro, which latter is the main component of “poi,” the national dish (p. 25). The first is the root of *Dioscorea alata*, and the other of the *Arum esculentum*. From the roots of *Taraxacum pinnatifidum*, the “South Sea arrowroot” is extracted. As a contrast to these useful plants may be cited the “Kau-karo,” or itchwood tree of Fiji (*Onocarpus Fitiensis*), a drop of the gum of which, coming in contact with the skin, causes a pain as severe as that produced by a red-hot poker. In the same group is found a nettle tree (*Laportea*), forty or fifty feet in height, which, when touched, stings so severely that, like that of the *Daonn Setau* of Java, the burning sensation is felt for many weeks. The smoke of the burning wood of the “sence” (*Erecaeria agallocha*) causes excruciating pain. Yet the Fijians submit to this fumigation in the hope of curing leprosy. The torture is so great that they generally faint after noisily enduring the agony of the smoke for a few hours, though it is very doubtful whether there is any authenticated case of cure on record. Some such have been recorded, but as scientific investigation has shown leprosy to be a disease beyond medical aid, they may be set down as imaginary. The oily nuts of the candle tree (*Alouretes triloba*), strung on a rush, were, before the day of sperm, extensively used as lights by the Polynesians. The toa, or drooping casuarina (*C. equisetifolia*), subserves in the Polynesian burial places much the same purpose as the cypress does in our own, and before the introduction of Christianity were often planted about the “moris,” or places where human sacrifices, with all their disgusting concomitants, were offered up to the Pagan deities. The paper mulberry (*Broussonetia papyrifera*), the bark of which is beaten out into fine muslin-like cloth, is another remarkable Polynesian tree. The leaves of the *Pandanus*, or screw pine (p. 16), are plaited into fine floor-mats, and of its odoriferous nuts are made necklaces, still greatly in demand on festive occasions. In addition to the

indigenous vegetable products, nearly all the trees and plants of other warm climates grow well on the islands; some of these, like the shaddock, orange, custard apple, guava, mango, tobacco, tamarind, cotton, coffee, indigo, and sugar-cane, are now perfectly naturalised. The islanders are essentially vegetarians, and owing to the number of the native fruits and other vegetables, and their skill in preparing them, a great variety of dishes and even sweetmeats are in use among a people who might be expected to be content with what would satisfy the stomach rather than pamper the palate. Unhappily also they have devised the art of preparing the highly intoxicating spirituous drink called "kava," or "ava,"* from the roots and stem of *Piper methysticum*, or "te"—a species of pepper. The inhabitants of the Louisade, New Guinea, the Admiralty, and Solomon



THE FRUIT OF THE FRAGRANT SCREW PINE (*Pandanus odoratissimus*).

Islands, &c., chew the betel nut, the fruit of *Areca catechu*, in fine powder mixed with lime. Hence their teeth are hideously discoloured, and their saliva is blood-red. In New Guinea and neighbouring islands pitcher plants are found, and in the New Hebrides wild species of convolvulus, and *Hoya viridiflora*, with many other plants, climb over the bushes, and aid in forming dense, almost impenetrable, thickets. The flowers of the *Hibiscus* form the common garland with which the native women, in the Sandwich Islands and Tahiti, deck their heads. The "leis" is, however, also made of the blossoms of the *Sida* and other plants, which afford the orange, or yellow-coloured flowers, in favour for this purpose.

The mammals of the Oceanian Islands are few in number, the pig, dog, goat, horse,

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. 11., p. 22. Mr. Angas says that the plant is *Dracena terminalis*, and that the "kava" made from the pepper roots and stems on some of the islands is very much inferior to the other.

ox, ass, sheep, and domestic cat, which are found in most of them, and sometimes in great abundance, having been introduced by Europeans within a comparatively recent period. In New Guinea is found a native species of pig, the *Sus Papuensis*, of a brown colour. It lives in the woods, but may be often seen swimming from one bay to another among the islands along the coast, and in the same island there are probably several other indigenous quadrupeds of the Australian type, to which its zoology approximates—among others a small kangaroo, an opossum, various bats and rats, &c. In the Louisade and the Samoan, or Navigator Islands, there is a species of wild dog, which does not bark, but, according to Maegillivray, “has the long, melancholy howl of the dingo, or wild dog of Australia.” In most of the Polynesian Islands rats appear to be numerous, and are eaten by



AN AVENUE OF BANANA BUSHES IN THE ISLAND OF TAHITI.

the natives. Among the mangrove forests of Fiji flits a huge bat (*Notopterus Macdonaldi*), measuring a yard between the extreme points of the wings, and in the Samoan group is a closely allied species, which is a great pet with the natives, who domesticate it about their dwellings. In Savage Island the vampire bats are esteemed delicate eating. Lastly, in the seas around nearly all the islands are found various species of whale, and chief among these the spermaceti, which is still pursued to a considerable extent, though nothing like what it was thirty or forty years ago.* None of the Polynesian islands proper can claim any bird so strange and gigantic as the “Moa,” or *Dinornis* and *Palapteryx*, which, report has it, yet exists in the more secluded parts of New Zealand, and which, at all events, became extinct only within comparatively recent times, and long after the

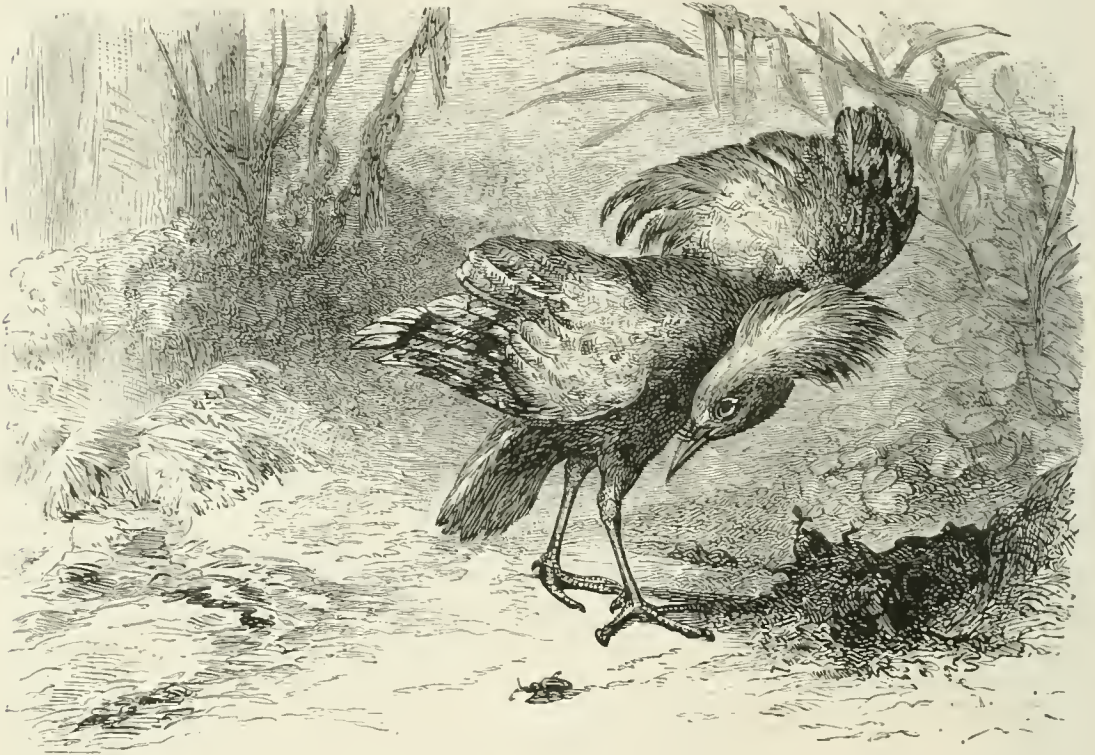
* Beale: “The Natural History of the Sperm Whale” (1839), where may also be found a curious account of the South Sea and Sandwich Islands at that date, when their condition was so very different from what it is in our day.

arrival of the present aborigines on the island, nor of their smaller relation the *apteryx*. But in New Guinea and New Britain there are species of cassowary, the largest birds inhabiting the group. Owls abound at the Navigator islands, but are unknown in the Society and other groups to the eastward. Two species of goat-sucker (*Podargus*) and several parrots are found in New Guinea, and among the Admiralty and Solomon islands fruit pigeons and beautiful pink-headed doves are found, though some species of the genus (*Platinopus*) are widely distributed over the islands. The nutmeg pigeon (*Carpophaga oceanica*) inhabits the groves of the Louisade, and in the Navigators are tamed by the natives. In the latter group is also found the all but extinct tooth-billed pigeon (*Didunculus strigirostris*), which "combines the character of a rapacious bird with that of the harmless pigeon." It may, therefore, if we adopt the opinion of Dr. Bennett, be considered as "the nearest living ally of the now extinct dodo" of Bourbon and Mauritius. The wonderfully beautiful birds of paradise found in New Guinea are so familiar that we need only allude to them. The kingfishers, crowsrikes, and hornbills are also represented in these islands. The kagu (*Rhinocetus jubatus*) of New Caledonia (p. 20) is another remarkable bird, and in New Caledonia, Norfolk Island, and Lord Howe's Island, are three species of blackbird, each island having one peculiar to itself. These are only a few out of hundreds of land birds which are found in the Oceanic Islands, and the sea-fowl is equally numerous. The various species of albatross, petrel, boobies, tropic birds, and frigate birds, are numerous, especially in the vicinity of the land, and on the shores of the lagoons the blue heron may be seen sitting motionless for hours on the coral rock, and out among the foam of the breakers the reef-bird (*Sterna poliocerca*), searching for the fish that are dashed on the rocks, is one of the objects with which those acquainted with these islands must be most familiar. In New Guinea and adjacent islands a large crocodile is found, but it does not extend as far east as Fiji. Large lizards are among the reptilian inhabitants of the mountains of some of the Samoan islands: one, probably the *Monitor Gouldii*, five feet in length, has been seen in the Louisade islands. Chameleons and small but beautiful lizards are found in the Fijis and other islands, and in the former a large frog, which genus is also represented by smaller species in other islands. The turtle—once held sacred in the Society islands—is common over the whole group; but these happy islands are generally free from deadly reptiles, but few snakes having been found on them. Large sea-snakes, of a pre-eminently poisonous character, are, however, often found among the coral reefs and in the lagoons. Among fishes, several kinds of sharks are pre-eminent, but there are numerous others highly valued for food, besides crabs and lobsters, salt and fresh-water prawns and shrimps, and in the Fijis a large kind of land crab (p. 21), which when pursued throws earth and stones in the face of its pursuer. It climbs the cocoa-nut trees, and breaks the nuts, after removing the husk, in order to get at the contents. The natives capture it by tying a handful of grass round the stem of the tree. When "ugavule" sets foot on this, it fancies that it has reached the ground, and then quitting hold of the tree, falls to the ground, and is so severely stunned that it can be easily seized. In the Samoans, Mr. Hood describes the "hermit crab," leaving the water and walking up the trees and along the branches, their bodies encased in shells of all colours and species. If the tree is approached, the wary robbers immediately tumble down like a shower of crab-apples, and make for the

water with the utmost speed their scuttling span would admit of. The Pacific Islands and their shores abound in such varied and beautiful shells that they constitute the conchologist's paradise. The species mostly belong to the region stretching across the Pacific and Indian Oceans, from the east coast of Africa to the west coast of America, but New Zealand has a "molluscan province" to itself. Among their almost endless forms, we can only mention the chambered or pearly nautilus (*N. pompilius*, *N. umbilicatus*, and *N. macromphalus*), the orange cowry (*Cypræa aurantia*)—the "morning dawn" of collectors, which is so scarce, even in the Fijis, that the possession of one of the shells used to give the wearer the dignity of a chief—the *Triton variegatus*, or conch shell, used as a trumpet, many volutes, harps, mitres, murices, cones, enormous "clam" shells, which sometimes weigh two or three hundredweight, and numerous beautiful species of land-shells. The great clam (*Tridacna gigas*) is the largest and heaviest shell known, one pair of valves having been known to weigh 500 lbs. The *byssus*, or cable, by which it anchors itself to rocks, is so thick that before the animal and shell can be removed it has to be cut with an axe. In Roman Catholic churches they are frequently used as *benitiers*, or receptacles for holy water, and in secular life as fountain-basins in gardens. The valves, when of small size, are made into salt-cellars, candlestick-holders, and pin-cushions. Cameos have been carved out of them, but Mr. Simmonds considers them unsuitable for the purpose, as their dead white hue wants the relief of colour. The Hill Dyaks of Borneo wear broad armlets of this shell, which, when polished by use, resemble ivory, but have this advantage over the more expensive material, that they never get the yellowish tinge so characteristic of old ivory. Two of these bracelets on each arm are the favourite ornaments of the women. When the tide rises upon the coral reefs these giant clam-shells open their great valves, and instances have been known in which people, in search of *bêche-de-mer*, &c., have incautiously stepped into them, and been held as in a vice, until they were drowned by the overflowing tide. Oysters of various kinds, but usually of very indifferent flavour, are found throughout the Pacific, and in Fiji the natives make soup of a fresh-water species of *Cyrena*. Among land shells, the Sandwich Islands alone shelter nearly 200 species of the prettily painted genus *Achatinella*, a little mollusc inhabiting trees and ravines. But none of these are of particular interest, either commercially or ethnologically. In the Solomon Islands, however, a large white *orulum*—or "egg-cowry," is, according to Mr. Angas, a well-known malacologist, much used in the decoration of canoes, as is also "mother-of-pearl," the inside naere of various shells. In Fiji not only the canoes, but the houses, temples, and chapels of the natives—Pagan and Christian—are frequently ornamented with the white shells of the *Orulum orum*, which they call "buliqaqua." Some fine pearls have been found, especially in the Low Archipelago, but as yet the fishery is unsystematically worked, though among the industries which our annexation of the Fijis is considered as likely to foster, this is included.

Insect life is abundant. The late Dr. Berthold Seemann, speaking of Fiji, remarks that "mosquitoes are very troublesome in some parts; and equally irritating are the flies, which keep one's hands constantly employed, and in order to have a meal in peace, a boy must be kept continually employed in driving them away. Cockroaches are swarming in most houses, canoes, and vessels, and often disturb one during the night, not

alone by running over one's body, but attacking it in right earnest. Some fine butterflies and beetles are met with; and at dark the woods begin to swarm with myriads of fire-flies. The leaf and stick insects can scarcely be distinguished from real leaves. Some large kinds of spiders, amongst them a stinging one, have to be noticed. Centipedes nearly a foot long were frequently encountered by us in the woods; and scorpions are more abundant than one could wish." Among sea-worms, the curious "palolo," which makes its annual appearance in the New Hebrides usually about the 25th of November, in such quantities that the sea looks like one solid mass of annelids, is another peculiar product of the Pacific.

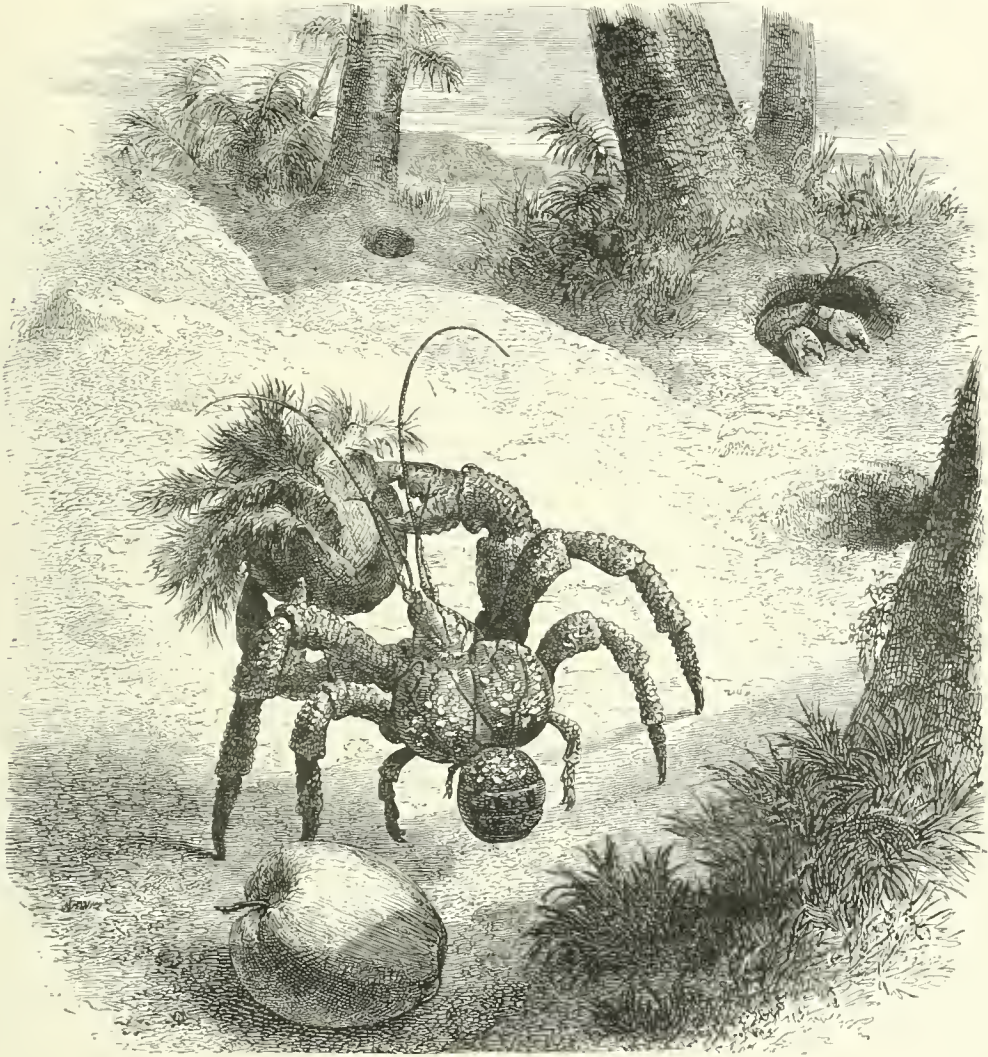


THE KAGU (*Rhinochetus jubatus*) OF NEW CALEDONIA.

It is eagerly eaten by the natives of the Fijis, Samoa, Tonga, and the New Hebrides.* Last of all, and with it this brief sketch will close, the bêche-de-mer, or sea-slug, a species of *Holothuria*, is extensively collected among the Pacific islands as an article of commerce. In external appearance, even when fresh, it is not pretty, but when split and dried for the Chinese market it is about as unappetising an article from which to make soups as could well be imagined. In Fiji, they are procured from the reefs at low water, or are obtained by diving in from two to three fathoms, especially in a locality on the north side of Vanua Levu, to which to this day many vessels from America and the Australian colonies resort, in order to buy this unsightly delicacy from the Fijian fishers. In the

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., pp. 26, 27.

preceding pages we have said nothing about New Zealand natural history, having for the reasons mentioned thought it inadvisable to include that colony under the Polynesian Islands; for beyond the accident of having been originally peopled by wandering



THE LAND-CRAB OF THE FIJIS (*Birgus latro*).

Polynesians (the Maori), it has little or nothing in common with the coral or volcanic isles of Oceania.*

* Angas: "Polynesia," pp. 27-85; Seemann: "Flora Vitiensis," and "Viti: An Account of a Government Mission to the Fijian Islands" (1860-61); Smythe's Account of the same Mission; Bennett: "Gatherings of an Australasian Naturalist;" St. Julien: "Official Report on Central Polynesia" (1857); Macgillivray: "Narrative of the Voyage of H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*" (1852); Hood: "Notes of a Cruise in H.M.S. *Fawn*" (1863); Meineke: "Die Inseln der Stillen Oceans, eine geographische monographie" (1876); &c.

CHAPTER II.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS: THEIR HISTORY AND PRESENT CONDITION.

To the ungeographical mind the group of Oceanic Islands to which, in 1778, the name of the then First Lord of the Admiralty was applied, is associated with savagedom, man-eating, and that cannibal king, so celebrated in song and story. Old ideas die hard. Whatever the Sandwich Isles might have been once, they are very different now from the popular idea regarding them.

HISTORY.

It is about a century since His Majesty's ships *Resolution* and *Adventure*—Captains Cook and Clerke—turned back from Behring Strait after an unsuccessful attempt to discover the North-West Passage. But the adventurers were destined to light upon fairer lands than those which they had failed to find. On the 18th of January, 1778, whilst sailing through the Pacific the look-out man reported land ahead, and in the evening they anchored on the shores of that lovely group of twelve islands, which they named in honour of the then First Lord of the Admiralty—Lord Sandwich—better known to the satirists of his day as “Jemmy Tickler,” one of the greatest of statesmen and most abandoned of men. The natives received the strangers gladly; but on the 14th of February, 1779, in an altercation consequent on the theft of a boat, Captain Cook was killed in Kealakeakua or Karakakoa Bay, in the Island of Hawaii, or Owhyhee, from which the official name of the country—the kingdom of Hawaii—takes its name. His death was an event in the history of geography. The story of how the circumnavigator fell has been told a thousand times. Everybody knows about it. Every seaman is familiar with it, and the oft-told tale will be told often again, for in 1877 a monument was erected to his memory on the spot where he died. Captain Cook is the hero of the seaman, and among the modern Sandwich Islanders there hangs around his memory a vague god-like nimbus. A cocoa-nut stump which was originally cut down by a cannon-ball from his consort's ship—Captain Clerke's—was long used as the receptacle of the records of the visits of seamen to the spot, and the memorial erected in 1877 is a plain concrete obelisk, with a suitable inscription, and surrounded by a fence of twelve old 32-pounders.

About Captain Cook and his connection with the Sandwich Islands not a little ignorance is abroad in the community. We misrepresent the general public in no great degree if we state our belief that the majority of them to this day are under the impression that Captain Cook was cruelly and unprovokedly massacred by a few savages, that he was afterwards roasted and eaten, and that the “King of the Cannibal Islands”

is fitly represented by the monarch who at present rules the Hawaiian group, and who has been so long in diplomatic relations with us. In reality none of these popular beliefs are correct.

Captain Cook was an accomplished navigator, but his manners had to the end of his life a strong flavour of the Whitby collier's cabin-boy. Like the seamen of his age, he had little sympathy with or respect for the natives of the countries he came in contact with. They were simply "blacks," to be treated as such, without much regard for honour on the part of the mariner, or delicacy of feeling on the side of the natives. Accordingly, when Cook came to the Sandwich Islands, he returned the kindness of the simple natives with harshness, and often injustice. He found that they believed him the long-lost god Rono or Lono, whom tradition fabled would some day return.* On this superstition he worked, but it was his death-warrant. In the course of the dispute at Kealakeakua Bay he was accidentally struck, and was heard to groan. Instantly the news spread among the childlike natives, and on their excited minds acted like a wet blanket. "He can be no god," they cried, and in the revulsion of feeling which followed he was fallen upon and stabbed to death. He was not, however, eaten. The Sandwich Islanders never were—at least, habitually—cannibals, and even an occasional addiction to the use of human flesh among them is indignantly denied by all their historians. Cook's body was carried to a place still shown, beyond the range of the cannon of his ships, the flesh stripped off his bones, and burned on an altar still standing, and his bones buried with all the rites attending the obsequies of their own chiefs. Nor was anything but honour intended in all this. To burn his flesh was the greatest respect which, in their eyes, could be paid to him. No portion of his body was eaten except his heart. Two children found it hanging up in a hut, and, thinking it was a dog's heart, devoured it unwittingly. One of them not long since died in Honolulu, a very old man. The death of Cook is to this day looked upon by the natives as a sad stain on their history. Kapina Kuke, as they call him, is, among the lower-class Hawaiians, considered in the light of a sacred personage, and no greater insult can be heaped upon them than to hint at the killing and eating of that mythical being. All feeling against the English has long ago vanished. The kindness with which they were treated twenty years afterwards by Vancouver effaced all recollections of the wrongs they had suffered at the early navigator's hands, and since then our connection with the islanders has only been one of friendship and mutual regard. Indeed, in 1810, Kamehameha the Great, the conqueror and first king of the whole group, made over the islands to George III. as his suzerain, and to this day they are under the English protection—a little fact which at times seems to be forgotten by our American friends, who, on a recent change of dynasty, cast a lingering earth-hungering eye after them. The death of Cook was perhaps the salvation of the isles. It attracted attention to them. Seamen touched at them, and after the seamen came missionaries, who found a virgin soil to work on, for they visited a people who were literally without a religion. In 1820 the islanders had voluntarily abandoned Paganism, and when the first missionaries had arrived they were without a faith. They gladly accepted Christianity, and though now and then in extremities, they will pray to the Great Shark God and their other old deities, yet

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., p. 73.

for more than fifty years the religion of the civilised world has been theirs also. In place of rude barbarism they have an established Government, good laws, well administered by upright native and white judges, and a polished ruler in the person of a king of their own royal line. Altogether the "Cannibal Islands" of the song will compare favourably with many Governments nearer home.

POPULATION AND PRESENT CONDITION.

The population is, however, decaying. Cook estimated it at 100,000. At the present time the census gives 56,897 natives, including some 4,000 or 5,000 whites, and 1,938 Chinese. The census of 1869 showed a decrease of 9,000 in five years out of a population of 60,000, and all the historians, native and foreign, agree that fewer children are now born than formerly. The islands are, however, otherwise moderately prosperous. Once they depended altogether on whalers and other ships which called; now they have developed a commerce of their own. In 1878 nearly 27,000,000 lbs. of sugar were exported, showing an increase of more than 23,000,000 lbs. in fifteen years. Their imports average about 1,900,000 dollars, and their exports, in the form of hides, sugar, coffee, pulse, cattle, sheep, wool, and rice, are of rather a higher value. They are now annually visited by about 105,000 tons of shipping. The revenue is about £200,000, and the expenditure about the same. They have even the luxury of a national debt, to the extent of £100,000, which unfortunately is increasing while the revenue is decreasing. At first the Government was despotic, but in 1810 the king granted a constitution of very democratic type, which was afterwards modified in various particulars, until now it is of rather an aristocratic character. The king holds levées, and the queen drawing-rooms like other sovereigns, and we are assured by a humorist who visited the islands that on these occasions the display of uniforms is so gorgeous that when all the high dignitaries of the islands stand in a group, common people with weak eyes require to look at the blaze of gold lace and stars through smoked glass! There is no State Church, but an episcopal hierarchy of a pronounced type, presided over by an English bishop, though, originally, Congregationalist or Presbyterian missionaries introduced Christianity into the islands, and these yet exercise most religious control over it. There is, in addition to a house of twenty "Nobles" nominated by the king, one of from twenty-four to forty representatives* for election, to which all citizens are eligible—be they white or brown—and the President was until recently a very dignified and polished old gentleman, who originally came to the island of Oahu, on which Honolulu, the capital, is built, as a naked warrior in the train of his father-in-law, Kamehameha the Great. Most of the natives can read and write: indeed, the percentage who can do so is greater than in demure educated New England. Schools are abundant, and books in the native language, as well as newspapers, plentiful. There is even an order of knighthood. In fifty-nine years there have been seven kings, the present one, David Kalakaua (p. 32), the successor of Lunailo, having been elected in 1874, in opposition to the intrigues of those who wished to establish a Republic, and a second party, who were in favour of Queen

* The two Chambers sit as one body. In case of disputes the king can appeal to the people by a Plebiscite. The discussions are in Hawaiian or English.

Emma, the widow of the fourth Kamehameha, and who is said to be a daughter of Dr. Rooke, an Irish settler, by a Hawaiian mother of the Royal line. The Sandwich islanders are among the kindest and most hospitable of races. But that is about all that can be said about them. Morality of a certain kind is almost unknown; but they do not steal, promote companies, break into houses, or commit murder. Nowhere is there more absolute security for life



VIEW OF THE VALLEY OF WAIPIO, IN HAWAII, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

and limb than in the Sandwich Islands, or where lethal weapons are of less use. Nobody need fear being eaten nowadays, and the people have advanced from a period when a missionary was simply "long pig," to be regarded with culinary designs—*pace* Messieurs Jarves, Ellis, Hopkins, Forlander, and Nordhoff—to an era in which they not only attend church more regularly than most Englishmen do, but contribute liberally to foreign missions. "Their idols only exist in museums," and the people are clothed, and, in spite of their garments, are very good-looking and most picturesque, though withal languid, laughing, and not at all industrious, children of Nature (Plate XXXI., and p. 25). Their monarchs are excellent kings, and if they have a weakness, it is the

amiable one of not being too ascetic. When a sovereign is hailed by the upper crust of his subjects with the query of "King, do you feel like brandy-and-water this morning?" and he has no one else to associate with, it would be strange if he rejected such vinous hospitality. The Sandwich Islands are, however, delightful places of residence, and wonderfully different now from what they were when the incident commemorated in the monument erected in 1877 happened. The climate is luxurious, almost an unvarying English summer, without the occasional extreme heat and the rainy days which characterise that season in our latitudes. Of the twelve islands composing the group, only eight are inhabited, and these vary in size from Hawaii, which is 4,000 square miles in extent, and eighty-eight long by seventy-three broad, to Kahoolawe, which is eleven miles long and eight broad. Their entire area is about 6,100 miles. They are frequently bounded by coral reefs, but there are no good harbours in them. "Their formation is altogether volcanic, and they possess the greatest perpetually active volcano and the largest extinct crater in the world. They are very mountainous, and two mountain summits on Hawaii are nearly 14,000 feet in height. Their climate for salubrity and general equability is reputed the finest on earth. It is almost absolutely equable, and a man may take his choice between broiling all the year round on the sea-level, on the leeward side of the islands, at a temperature of 80°, and enjoying the charms of a fireside at an altitude where there is frost every night in the year. There is no sickly season, and there are no diseases of locality. The trade-winds blow for nine months of the year, and on the windward coasts there is an abundance of rain, and a perennial luxuriance of vegetation."* One of the finest of the many lovely Hawaiian valleys is that of Waipio (p. 25). It lies quite isolated from the little world of which it forms a part, "open at one end to the sea, and walled in on all sides by *palis* and preeipices, from 1,000 to 2,000 feet in height, over the easiest of which, after trailing over the country for sixty difficult miles, connected Waipio with Hilo." The blunt snow-patched peak of Mauna Kea rises from a "girdle of forest," and the whole valley is cool with waterfalls, some very fine. One bounds in its first leap 200 feet, and in its second 1,600 feet, though much of its volume is fritted away in spray and foam. The valley has many pleasant *kulo*, coffee, fig, and castor-oil plant plantations, and large artificial fish-ponds in which hundreds of goldfish gleam. The river, full of the shrimps which the natives love to eat raw, flows through the valley, and is used as a highway by the natives, who glide along it in their canoes. Yet at times this happy valley is visited with gusts of wind so wild that I forbear drawing on the credulity of my readers by relating the tales of their force. The Sandwich Islands are in the torrid zone, yet the immense mass of water by which they are laved makes their climate a temperate one, and their almost equidistance from California, Mexico, China, and Japan, give them great natural advantages for commerce. Their government is, however, too abject a copy of a European one, and the endless expensive court functionaries, with their showy uniforms and titles, are expensive luxuries for the little Hawaiian kingdom. A standing army, modelled on that of Gerolstein, and a navy

* Miss Bird's "Six Months in the Sandwich Islands" (1875), p. 3. At Hilo thirteen to sixteen feet of rain fall in a year. It is a proverb among seamen that "if you follow a Pacific shower it will bring you to Hilo." Yet Hilo is a charming out-of-the-world retreat—the moisture notwithstanding.

about the size of that of Monaco, are useless expenses which the late king had intended to prune. But vested rights are in Hawaii as great a nuisance as elsewhere, and it will only be national bankruptcy which will bring these absurd gewgaws of court-marshals, and so forth, to an end.

The country owes everything to "the teachers," as the people still affectionately call the early missionaries. They instructed the Hawaiians in the arts of peace, translated the Bible and other books into their language, taught them to read and write, educated the princes and king to a level quite equal to that of many European sovereigns, and the nobles rather better than the peers of some countries in this quarter of the world, framed a constitution which became the law of the land, persuaded the king and chiefs to renounce their feudal rights, and obtained for the little Polynesian kingdom recognition as a member of the community of nations. Yet the system of government they devised was too democratic for even Kamehameha the Fifth's tastes, and accordingly it has of late run into the opposite extreme, the present constitution dating from 1864.

Yet the changes which have taken place in sixty years are wonderful. Less than half a century ago Honolulu, the capital, was a village of a few grass huts, frequented solely by whalers or sandal-wood traders. To-day it is a well-built seaport, with all the conveniences and many of the luxuries of an advanced civilisation. Herr Gerstäcker expresses very clearly the surprise which visitors not prepared for the revolution which has taken place within the lifetime of one generation experiences when they first see the chief Hawaiian town. "Coming to the Sandwich Islands, and expecting to find here nearly a wild South Sea Island—to roam through thick groves of cocoa-nuts and other forest trees, with the half-tamed inhabitants, beautiful and interesting in their natural life—what did I find on the very spot where I had fancied a luxurious tropical vegetation? Bowling-alleys, billiard-tables, livery-stables, tap-rooms, and faces as sober and dull as any I could have wished for in a large European or American city. Then came a theatre, and soon afterwards an American circus was opened, where the native ladies spent much of their money, formerly devoted to dress, on the horse-riders." Yet in Hilo or Lahaina—little towns though they are—the seeker after primitive quiet without savagedom, may be gratified to his heart's content, and on the shores of that very bay where Captain Cook was slain the sensuous peace which wearied men dream of may be enjoyed to a degree which even dreams do not picture.

Indeed, the love of the islands so steals upon the visitor that the longer he stays among them the less desire he has to return. The climate is pleasant, but unstimulating; the teeming soil produces everything that natural man desires in such cheap exuberance that he has all he needs for existence, while certain drawbacks as to markets and so forth save him the anxiety of buying and selling and trying to make money. Wanderers drift to these islands of the blessed, and are content to fall "asleep in a half-dream," and "return no more" to the land they left. In Kealakeakua Bay, Miss Bird describes in captivating language the abundance of oranges, coffee, pine-apples, "and silence." A flaming palm-fringed shore, with a rich strip of table-land 1,500 feet above it; a dense timber belt eight miles in breadth, and a volcano smoking somewhere between that and the heavens, and glaring through the trees at night, are, according to that pleasantest of travelling ladies,

the salient points of Kona, if anything about it be salient. "It is a region," she writes, "where falls not—

'. . . . Hail or any snow,
Or ever wind blows loudly.'

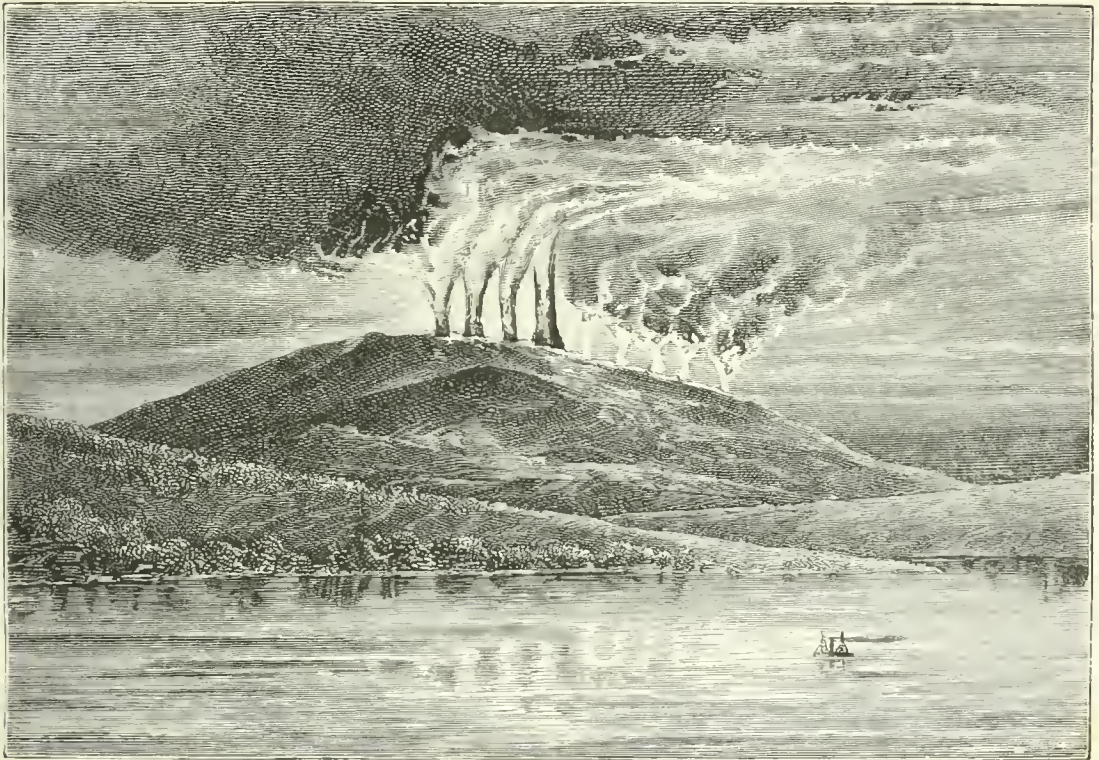
Wind is, indeed, a thing unknown. The scarcely audible whisper of soft airs through the trees morning and evening, rain-drops falling gently, and the murmur of drowsy surges far below, alone break the stillness. No ripple ever disturbs the great expanse of ocean, which gleams through the still, dark trees. Rose in the sweet cool morning, gold in the sweet cool evening, but always dreamy; and white sails come and go, no larger than a



HAWAIIANS EATING "POI," THE NATIONAL DISH.

butterfly's wing on the horizon, of ships drifting in ocean currents—dreaming too! No heat, cold, or wind, nothing emphasised or italicised, it is truly a region of endless afternoons, 'a land where all things always seem the same.' Life is dead, and existence is a languid swoon." Many of the houses here, almost smothered by trailers and trees, are inhabited by white men, who have found their way hither, and have fallen under the spell of the voluptuous life of these enchanted isles. They have taken to them "some savage woman" to rear their "dusky brood," who speak not one word of their father's tongue, but grow up Hawaiians in language, habits, and mode of thought. Some of these masterless men have been whalers; others were travellers who came in search of health, but the glamour was thrown over them, their senses drunk in the scent-laden air, and for ever to them was the land of their birth a strange country. Henceforward they were not of the world. European events disturb them not, and Hawaiian politics are of the *ennuyeuse* type, which the proverb declares brings happiness to a nation. Local

gossip—not malicious scandal, but the innocent, languid tittle-tattle, which is familiar to people hereabouts as *nuhou*, the evisceration of a stranger's ways, the discussion of his purse, his expenditure, his debts, his clothes, his goings in and his comings out, his sales, his borrowings, his lendings—in a word, his whole outward life, which is as well known to everybody as to his own family, are about the only features which break the languid stillness of Hawaiian country life. To a new arrival this *nuhou* is amusing, but when he finds himself enjoying it, and, above all, taking part in it, it is time he was taking ship for other lands, for the



ERUPTION OF MAUNA LOA, HAWAII, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

drowsy drug has been acting upon him. He has tasted of the product of that "enchanted stem, laden with flower and fruit," which makes him consider his "island home" an "alien shore," and when he begins to enjoy dining off "two-fingered poi," without seeing anything novel or grotesque in it, he is as hopeless as the Western men who take to buckskin and mocassins as regular articles of wearing apparel. There is only one other stage in the evolution of the barbarian: he will take to himself the maker of the "poi" and the sewer of buckskin. A little longer, and he will forget the world, and become, not exactly a savage, but a man whose life is eating and drinking—a very little—sleeping more, and dreaming the rest. If he has anything more to do in a "working-day world," let him say a kindly—a longing, it may be—*aloha* to Hawaii, and seek a world where the love of gain has not lost even the power of stimulating to exertion. Otherwise, he will soon be

one of the lotos-eaters Miss Bird describes, who are content to live a life free from toil, and sink down to the level of native feeling and habits—

“ They sat them down upon the yellow sand,
 Between the sun and moon upon the shore,
 And sweet it was to dream of Father-land,
 * ; but evermore
 Most weary seemed the sea, weary the oar,
 Weary the wandering fields of barren foam;
 Then some one said, ‘ We will return no more.’ ”

CHAPTER III.

THE SANDWICH ISLANDS: SOCIAL LIFE AND SCENERY.

HAPPY as are the Sandwich Isles in their climate, scenery, and people, behind that fringe of cocoa palms, amid these quiet little towns that nestle among the bananas, and look stiller far than the peak that rise over all, there is a ferment at work which may eventually upheave the kingdom of Hawaii. The foreign element is increasing. Out of 56,897 inhabitants which the census of 1872 gives to the islands, but 19,014 are natives. The people of mixed blood numbered at that date 2,457, the Europeans 2,539, including 619 English, 395 Portuguese, 224 Germans, and 88 French, 889 Americans—that is, people from the United States—and 1,938 Chinese.

FOREIGN SOCIETY AND ITS INFLUENCE.

The American element thus predominates, while, owing to their vicinity to California, all the “institutions” and civilised ways of life are peculiarly American. Indeed, civilisation was first introduced among the people from the United States, and to this day the king’s advisers are chiefly selected from that nationality. Still, until late years, no attempt was made to go further. The Americans, like the rest of the Europeans, were subjects of a brown-skinned king, but beyond the influence which their superior knowledge gave them, they were content to be simply white Hawaiians. But when a king had to be elected, an effort was made by them to substitute a republican form of government for the monarchial system, which is alone suitable for people as yet not very advanced either in political theory or practice. Their efforts were, however, signally unsuccessful. The only result of their efforts, and the proposed cession of Pearl River to the United States, was to arouse that spirit of patriotism which many thought a feeling which did not stir much on the pleasure-loving people. The cry was “Hawaii for the Hawaiians!” and to such extremes did the national feeling run, that at the biennial

* “Of child, and wife, and slave”—charity forbids the insertion. But I fear that in this Afternoon Land there are some dwellers to whom even this would apply; only they have ceased to dream of either.

election of delegates to the legislation, which happened shortly before King Lunalilo's death, a house was elected, for the first time in Hawaiian history, in which there was only one foreigner. Lunalilo, the "well beloved," was a democratic prince, and showed extreme deference to the popular will during his year of office. Having died without naming his successor, the Legislature had again to elect a sovereign by ballot. The candidates were Queen Emma and David Kalakaua (p. 32), who had been a rival of Lunalilo a year before. Popular feeling all ran in favour of Queen Emma, and when, to the astonishment of the nation, Kalakaua was elected by an overwhelming majority, the old passions of the race burst forth. Kalakaua was accused of having "bought" the legislative, and of representing the foreign interest. The committee appointed to convey to the king the news of his election was mobbed, and driven back maimed and bleeding into the court-house; their carriage was torn in pieces, and the spokes of the wheels distributed as weapons among the rioters. "The 'gentle children of the sun' were seen under a new aspect; they became furious, the latest savagery came out, the doors of the Hall of Assembly were battered in, the windows were shattered with clubs and volleys of stones; nine of the representatives who were known to have voted for Kalakaua were severely injured; the chairs, tables, and furnishings of the rooms were broken up and thrown out of the windows, along with valuable public and private documents; kerosene was demanded to fire the buildings; the police remained neutral, and conflagration and murder would have followed, had not the ministers despatched an urgent request for assistance to the United States ships of war *Portsmouth* and *Tuscarora*, and H.M.S. *Tenedos*, which was promptly met by the landing of such a force of sailors and marines as dispersed the rioters." But Kalakaua prudently took the oaths of office in private, amid a concourse of representatives who had limped to their places, or were in some instances supported, with their heads in bandages and arms in slings. For ten days the joint protectorate lasted, but ever since the foreigners have entertained a vague dread of their brown-skinned neighbours, which they never had before. A "restless, sullen, half-defiant spirit" is abroad among the natives, and it is evident that to rule the Hawaiians will not be the easy task in the future it has been since the days when Kamehameha the First made himself master of the islands. The king has proclaimed his brother—Lelia Kamakaeha—his successor, and has reorganised the military service with a view to making it a more efficient and well-disciplined force. The Budget for 1876 was 913,357 dollars, and of this sum foreign affairs and "war" absorbed 64,549 dollars—a melancholy sign, as a writer on the islands remarks, that the small Pacific kingdom has to fall back upon the Old World resource of a standing army as large—in proportion to its population—as that of the German Empire. In contrast to this retrograde move, it is pleasant to record that during 1878 the first railway—one of five miles, between the Port of Punalu and the village of Keaiwa—was opened, and that the first telegraph line—forty miles between Wailuku and Lahaina—came into operation during the same period. Yet American influence is still all-powerful. The press is American, the coinage is American, and the very slang English which the people—and even the king—speak has a peculiarly "Yankee" flavour about it. Americans "run" the Government, and fill the highest offices of State, which at one time they had to share with Englishmen—or

rather Scotsmen, for the North Britons seems to have monopolised these dignities. The chief merchants are Americans, but some of the most thriving shopkeepers in Honolulu are Chinese. Though in many of the shops native assistants are employed, the Hawaiians show little aptitude for commerce, and in the science of money-making have no chance in the competition with the coolies. Perhaps this fact accounts for the prevalence of happy faces, and the absence of those hard, careworn, sullen physiognomies so characteristic of the people one meets in the streets of great towns. In a former chapter I have spoken of the familiarity of everybody with everybody else; but already the reader will have seen that heartburnings and national enmities are not wanting in these isles; and even the Americans who are Hawaiian born have a very strong national feeling, and would



KALAKAUA, KING OF THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.

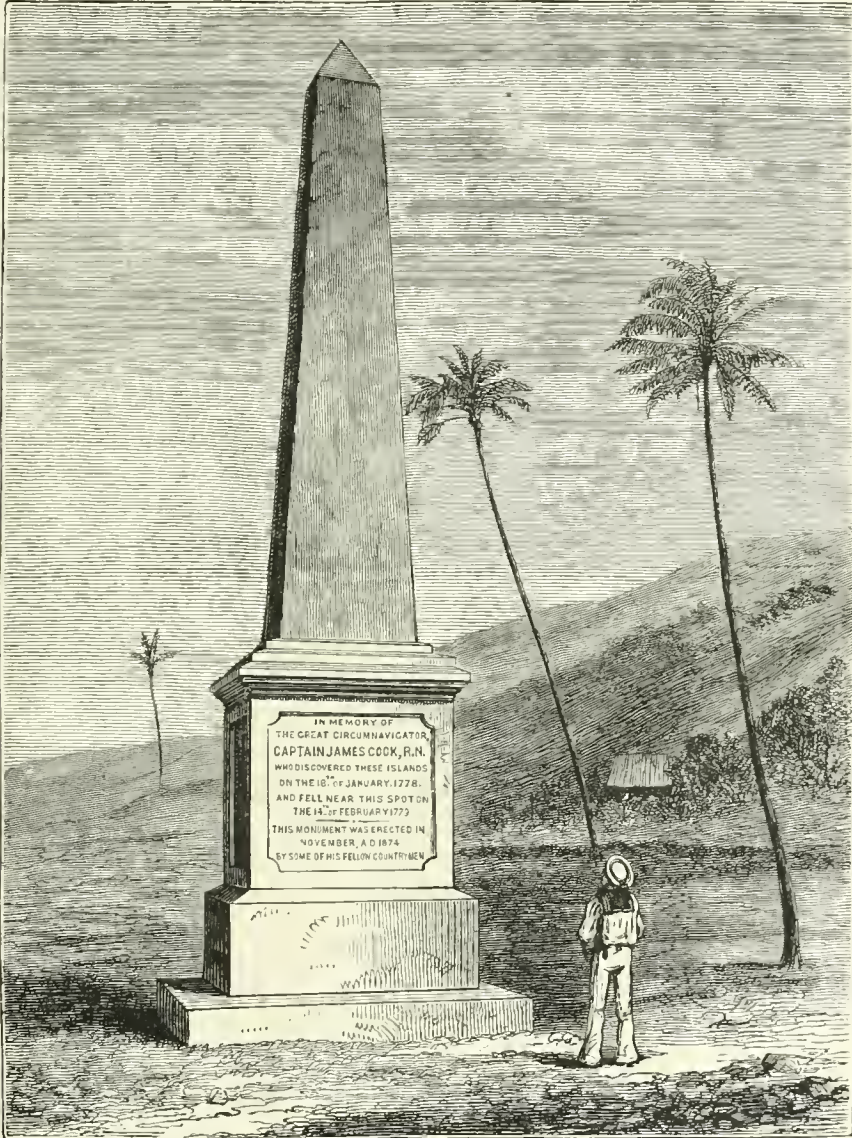
hail the day when the islands fell under the sway of the great Republic. The smaller English community hangs together after a cliquish fashion, and not unlikely cherishes a kind of grudge against the Americans for their paramount influence in the affairs of the islands. Miss Bird tells us also that there are German residents, cliquish as Germans are all the world over. Then, since the establishment of the "Honolulu mission," church feeling has risen rather high, and has of course tended to divide society. There are in addition drink and anti-drink, pro and anti-missionary, pro and anti-vaccination, pro and anti-vivisection, pro and anti-reciprocity treaty parties, "and various other local naggings," which tend to keep foreign social life from stagnating. Its civilisation is exotic—as all civilisation is believed to have more or less been—but in Hawaii it is too crude, too gorgeous (palace-way), and altogether too new

for a people who in one generation have emerged from heathendom and savagery into Christianity and civilisation. Republicans conduct the Government, and in State affairs Miss Bird notes a taint of that combination of obsequiousness and flippant vulgarity, which none deplore more deeply than the best among the Americans. There are a king and a court, titles and officials without number, uniforms stiff with gold lace and the order of Kamehameha, royal dinner parties, with *ménus* printed on white silk, Sevres china, and liveried footmen, and side by side with this, the "king-takes-a-drink" kind of over-familiarity. With the exception of dollars and sugar, it is rare to hear any subject discussed with *verve*. The Americans feel but a languid interest in English news, no matter how important, while the English, on the other hand, retaliate by affecting—or perhaps feeling—an ostentatious apathy regarding events specially absorbing to the Americans. The papers are filled with wordy gossip and entertaining scurrility. They snarl over trifles, which to a stranger seem ludicrously small, and as there is no telegraphic communication with the outer world, the people have to live as best they can



PLAIN OF RONGORONGOA, EASTER ISLAND.

on the *nuhou* of indigenous growth between the departure of one mail and the arrival of another. The pulse of the world beats, but the Hawaiians feel it not, no doubt owing to the causes mentioned, though a good deal of this apathy is due also to the lack of mental



MONUMENT TO CAPTAIN COOK.

(Erected at Kealakakua Bay, Hawaii, in 1874.)

stimulus, and the "indolence born of the climate." Yet Hawaiian social life is as kindly and unaffected as society in which the best American element predominates usually is, while the cheerful *alohas* which welcome the stranger makes him cease even to long for the more prosaic "How d'ye do's?" of those of his own skin and tongue.

EDUCATION, CRIME, AND DECAY OF THE HAWAIIANS.

Crime is low in the islands, and education high. A voter for a member of the Legislature must be possessed of an income of at least 75 dollars per annum, and be able to read and write. Education is compulsory: there are 321 teachers, or one for every twenty-seven children. In 1874, out of 8,931 children between the ages of six or fifteen, 8,287 were actually attending school. The school tax is heavy; for there every man between the age of twenty and sixty pays two dollars per annum, and there is an additional general tax for the same purpose. In 1876, 68,329 dollars were devoted to public instruction. Yet all this is likely before long to be in vain, for the population is decreasing at the rate of 2,000 per year, which, should this rate continue, fixes the final extinction of this interesting people in 1897. The whites conveyed to these shores the elements of civilisation, but at the same time the causes which are slowly but infallibly destroying the race. The chiefs, or *alii*—those tall men who seem almost of another race from the common people—are a nearly extinct order, and Miss Bird tells us the few who remain are nearly all childless. “In riding through Hawaii,” writes this intelligent lady, whose notes we have found so trustworthy, “I came everywhere upon traces of a once numerous population, where the hill-slopes are now only a wilderness of guava scrub, and upon churches and school-houses all too large, while in some hamlets the voices of young children were altogether wanting. This nation, with its elaborate governmental machinery, its churches and institutions, has to me the mournful aspect of a shrivelled and wizened old man, dressed in clothing much too big, the garments of his once athletic and vigorous youth. Nor can I divest myself of the idea that the laughing flower-clad hordes of riders, who make the town gay with their presence, are but like butterflies fluttering out their short lives in the sunshine.” The islands could support millions, and the civil list, so ludicrously out of proportion to the resources of the kingdom, could suffice to keep going a machinery of government for such a population. The following table of the area of population, taken from the last census, proves this:—

	Acres.	Population.
Hawaii	2,500,000	16,001
Maui	400,000	12,334
Oahu	350,000	20,671
Kauai	350,000	4,961
Molokai	200,000	2,349
Lanai	100,000	348
Niihau	70,000	233
Kahoolawe	30,000	—
Total	4,000,000	56,897

In addition, there are several other uninhabited islands. The extreme height above the sea of these islands varies from 13,953 feet to 400 feet—the first elevation being that of Hawaii, the last of Kahoolawe. Nor is there ever likely to be a greater population, for the Hawaiian islands, though possessing one of the most salubrious climates in the world, and a lavish soil, is not a country which possesses attractions for the ordinary

European or North American immigrant. The patch cultivation in the narrow gorges is beneath the notice of a farmer with a proper sense of the dignity of his calling, while the larger areas require labourers to work them, and these labourers are not to be had in the Sandwich Islands, where the population have a great antipathy to manual toil, and can live without it. Insects, owing to the absence of the birds which ought to prey on them, destroy wheat and other cereals when stored; hence grain and flour are imported from California. Cacao, coffee, cinnamon, and allspice, are all attacked by a blight so ineradicable that in some places the shrubs have been rooted up. Oranges also suffer from the blight, so do mulberry trees, while cotton cultivation languishes under the depressing influences of a caterpillar's ravages. Even the forests are in some quarters disappearing, owing to the attack of a grub and the ravages of cattle. Sheep, so successfully reared in the breezy uplands, near the snow-patched volcanoes and lava-fields, are threatened with a depreciation in their wool, owing to the spread of an "oat burr," in regard to which the Legislature has much to say, when it can spare time from devising new taxes to meet the ever-increasing expenditure and the ever-decreasing tax-payers. Once on a time, the whaling fleet was a source of great wealth to the islands, which material advantage was, perhaps, counterbalanced by the sensible depreciation of their morality which was experienced after every visit. But the whalers and their dollars have deserted Honolulu. "A general *pilikia* prevails. Settlements are disappearing, valley lands are falling out of cultivation, Hilo grass and guava scrub are burying the traces of a former population, the natives are rapidly diminishing, the old industries are abandoned, and the inherent immorality of the race, the great outstanding cause of its decay, still resists the influence of Christian teaching and example." Such is the jeremiad which one of the warmest-hearted of the friends of Hawaii and the Hawaiians is compelled to make after a review of the island prospects. Yet Hawaii has suffered none of the grievous wrongs which other lands visited by the white man have. The Hawaiians were always a feeble folk, but their equal rights, secured by treaties and law, have ever been religiously protected, and the influence of the whites, who have mainly aided them in the administration of affairs, has been uniformly for good. The men who have mainly shaped the destinies of the kingdom of Kamehameha have been without reproach. Adventurers and rogues, no doubt, have appeared, but these have never been allowed much voice in the country, and the missionaries, to whom—in spite of all tirades to the contrary—the islands owe so much, have ever been on the side of justice, morality, and the natives. Yet the day when the great feather cloak* of the Kamehamehas, and a few rude monuments, will remain the last remnants of a vanished race, cannot, I conceive, be very far distant. Unless the decadence is arrested, this century will leave few Hawaiians to carry on the line of their national existence to the next.

Crime of a serious character is not common. Analysing a list of 4,000 convictions, we find 125 different offences entering into it. Thus, "for furnishing intoxicating liquors

* These mantles were made of the bright canary yellow feathers, one of which is found under each wing of the "Oo" bird (*Melithreptes Pacifica*), which inhabits the mountains of Hawaii. There is only one of these mantles now in existence. It is spread over the throne of the king on state occasions. The other was buried with King Lunailo—and was a right royal shroud, since it could not be replaced, except by the labours of generations, and a cost which it is impossible to calculate. Even the art of weaving them is lost.

to Hawaiians"—a Hawaiian Legislature being forced to pass this self-denying ordinance—92 persons were punished, 10 for selling "kava" or "awa," a native intoxicating drink, without a licence. These licenses are confined to Honolulu, and in 1876 brought into the treasury 7,650 dollars. Those for selling opium—greatly in demand, owing to the Chinese indulging in it—were even more profitable, for the treasury benefited by them to the extent of 19,266 dollars.

The Hawaiians are, in one respect, not a moral people, so that we need not be surprised to find convictions for violating the marriage tie numbering 354; 56 persons were punished for practising medicine without a licence; 197 for furious driving, which, with "furious riding," seems to serve as an outlet for the latent savagery now coaxed by



LAHAINA IN MAUI, SANDWICH ISLANDS.

civilisation into decent subjection; 37 for cruelty to animals; 121 for "gaming;" 32 for "gross cheating;" and 61 for violating the Sabbath. It is, however, only fair to the Hawaiians to say that this black list includes Chinese and foreigners, either resident in or visitors to the island. Otherwise, without this saving explanation, 178 convictions for "assault," 248 for "assault and battery," 12 for "assaults with dangerous weapons," 49 for "affray," 674 for drunkenness, 87 for "disturbing the quiet of night," and 13 for murder—all within two years—would rather militate against the reputation of King Lunalilo's subjects for "harmlessness." Even then statistics show that cases which the law takes cognisance of are on the decrease. But, if active crime is comparatively small among the natives, the seventh commandment is not strictly obeyed. In early times the Hawaiian Islands were a scandal even to seamen. They were proverbs for one kind of immorality: the people and their visitors simply revelled in debauchery, and the former are to-day reaping the fearful crop which their ancestors sowed.

LEPROSY AND THE LEPER SETTLEMENT.

Leprosy is the Nemesis of "the Islands." The disease being incurable, the Legislature, finding that it was spreading, and that the habits of the people rendered contagion impossible to be avoided, passed a law in 1865 by which all infected persons, regardless of position, were to be removed to the island of Molokai, there to be isolated from the world, and remain with nothing to do—but to die. The task was a painful one. Every effort was made by the natives to conceal such of their friends as were tainted with the terrible malady, for they knew that once denounced it was the duty of the Islands' Sheriffs to commit them for life to the leper settlement. All sympathy and kindness, consistent with regard for the



VILLAGE OF WAIKIKI.

(A favourite summer haunt of the citizens of Honolulu.)

living, and the very existence of the Hawaiian nation, were paid the unfortunate people by the officials; and, indeed, it was not until 1873 that the Act was strictly carried into force. Then the number of lepers had become so alarmingly great that fear was entertained that it would also attack the whites. Between 1866 and 1874, 1,115 were sent to Molokai, but the number affected is now rapidly decreasing; though, as the disease is hereditary, it will not be stamped out for a generation or two. No more terrible fate can possibly await any one than this necessary separation from kith and kin. Mothers are torn from their children, children from their parents, and husband from wife—and as the deportés are necessarily pauperised, it is a grievous burden on the poor Hawaiian kingdom to support its stricken people. The disease is a loathsome one. Slowly—and, happily, sometimes rapidly—feature after feature goes, until one who was once a rural athlete, or a Honolulu belle, becomes a hideous mass of rotting flesh, in which it is difficult to recognise the human form divine. Miserable as is the lot of those whose state has

gone so far, that of the comparatively well is even worse, for they are compelled to witness all this, knowing that they too must travel the same path—for they are “a community of doomed beings, socially dead, whose only business is to perish,” existing in “a home of hideous disease and slow coming death, with which Science in despair has ceased to grapple.” And there they must remain, “men and women who have ‘no more a portion for ever in anything that is done under the sun.’” There is a Protestant church near the landing; and another church at Kalawao, at some distance from the landing (where is also the hospital buildings and the greater number of lepers), tells of the devotion of Father Damiens, a Roman Catholic priest, who, for the sake of these stricken children of the Sun Islands, was content to exile himself, and if he is not already a victim to the fearful malady of those among whom he labours in love, will, before long, be numbered among “the noble army of martyrs.” Here also is a leper governor, who holds his leper court (and among the exiles are many who, in happier days, were often seen in the little palace at Honolulu); a Protestant pastor who is himself a leper; and two school-houses, where the children of the settlement receive instruction in Hawaiian from a teacher who is also one of the afflicted of their race. Yet even here, in this living death, vanity is not dead, for we are told that on the island may be seen women, hideous and bloated beyond description, “decorated with *leis* of flowers, and looking for admiration out of their glazed and goggle eyes.” Some years ago, when the King and Queen visited the island, they were greeted on landing by the music of a leper band. “The sprightly airs,” writes a gentleman who accompanied the royal party, “with which these poor creatures welcomed the arrival of the party sounded strangely incongruous and out of place, and grated harshly upon our feelings. And then, as we proceeded up the beach, and the crowd gathered about us eager and anxious for a recognition, or a kind word of greeting—oh, the repulsive and sickening libels and distorted caricatures of the human face divine upon which we looked! And as they evidently read the ill-concealed aversion in our countenances, they withdrew the half-proffered hand, and slunk back with hanging heads. They felt again that they were *lepers*, the outcasts of society, and must not contaminate us with their touch. A few cheerful words of inquiry from the physician, Dr. Trousseau, addressed to individuals as to their particular cases, broke the embarrassment of this first meeting, and soon the crowd were chatting and laughing just like any other crowd of thoughtless Hawaiians, and, with but few exceptions, these unfortunate exiles showed no signs of the settled melancholy that would naturally be looked for from people so hopelessly situated.” In this way, as kindly as can be, the Hawaiian Government is trying to stamp out the terrible malady.

LANGUAGE.

Few of the Sandwich Islanders can speak English. Their own language is so pleasant and so easily acquired that the whites readily learn it, and even love to speak the musical tongue which seems so thoroughly in keeping with the soft climate and *dolce far niente* life which it has induced. Our hard surnames, like Fisk and Wilson, get metamorphosed into Filikina and Wilikina; but Owhyhee, which Captain Cook gave as the name of the island,

was a mistake on his part, since it was never anything but Hawaii (*Hah-wye-ee*), the discoverer mistaking the prefix O, which is the sign of the nominative case, for a part of the word. Foreigners in the Sandwich Islands invariably drop their own names for Hawaiian plants, even though these have been familiar to them under their "home" designations, and take those of the islanders, and even when talking among themselves employ expressive Sandwich Island words. For instance, everybody uses the word *Aloha* for a greeting, a welcome, farewell, thanks, love, or good-will. One white will greet another with *Aloha*, just as, in other places, he would with a "good morning," and a lady, in writing to a friend, will add in the inevitable postscript "an aloha" to this or that common acquaintance. It expresses in one word everything that is kindly and pleasant, and as nobody mistakes what it means, it forms the most acceptable of all modes of sending "compliments" or conveying good-will. Again, nothing is more common than to hear some one say that he or she is "in a *pilikia*" (p. 35). Indeed, it is very difficult to get along without this word. "It means," writes Miss Bird, "anything, from a downright trouble to a slight difficulty or entanglement. 'I'm in a *pilikia*,' or 'very *pilikia*,' or '*pilikia*.' A revolution would be a '*pilikia*.' The fact of the late king dying without naming a successor was pre-eminently a '*pilikia*,' and it would be a serious '*pilikia*' if a horse were to lose a shoe on the way to Kilauea." *Hou-hou* means "in a huff," and *makai* "on the sea-side," and *mauka* "on the mountain side." A host will ask you to sit on "the *mauka* side of the table," or to take the *makai* seat in his buggy, when he gives you an evening drive by the sea-shore. The natives have no surnames. A man may have one name, and his wife and children totally different ones; nor does the same name always remain by a person, or even indubitably express the sex of the proprietor.

SUGAR, SHEEP, AND VOLCANOES.

Among the subjects about which most people in Honolulu and everywhere else talk is sugar. Missions and whaling have given place to this, as the great "interest" of the islands. A cent up or a cent down in the American sugar-market is a bit of news in which even languid Hawaii shows an interest. But the heavy import duties which the sugar had to stand, before it could be imported into the United States, until recently, acted prejudicially against it as a profitable crop. Hence was started the "reciprocity party," who were willing that the United States Government should acquire Pearl River Lagoon, on Oahu, as a naval station, on condition that Hawaiian sugar should have the duties, which so heavily handicap it in the American market, taken off—this cession, it may be noted, being entirely in the interest of the "sugar ring," without any regard to the feelings of the natives. But at present sugar is more profitable in prospect than in actuality. The market is not very great,* labour is scarce, and, the Government prohibiting the manufacture of rum, one very lucrative subsidiary branch of its manufacture is lost to the grower. Yet people will talk sugar, build saccharine castles in the air, and very frequently grow bankrupt over the same bitter sweet.

* It ought to be added that "a reciprocity treaty" (without Pearl River Lagoon) has been entered into between Hawaii and the United States. The effect of this, Consul-General Woodhouse thinks, will be to raise the sugar-crop of 1878 to 30,000,000 lbs., and cause a stream of wealth to flow into the Islands.

Next to sugar, they talk, in some places, of sheep, which flourish well in the highlands of Hawaii, near the volcanoes; and when they are not discussing sheep or sugar, they are having a little languid *inter-nuhou* about the volcanoes, which are, perhaps, that portion of Hawaiian scenery which strikes the freshly-arrived stranger most markedly. It would be difficult to understand how it could be otherwise. On Hawaii are two of the most stupendous in the world—Mauna Loa (p. 29), which is still frequently in eruption, and Mauna Kea, now extinct, each of which rises to a height of nearly 14,000 feet. Another,



THE HALE MAU-MAU, KILAUEA, HAWAII.

on the same island, is that of Kilauea—also often in eruption. This crater, really a huge abyss—4,000 feet high on the flank of Mauna Loa—has, according to Miss Bird, the appearance of a great pit on a rolling plain. It is nine miles in circumference, and its lowest area, which, a few years ago, fell about 300 feet, covers six square miles. The depth of the crater varies from 800 to 1,100 feet, in different years, according as the molten sea below is “at flood or ebb.” When quiescent, steam-cracks, jets of sulphurous vapour, “blowing cones,” needle-shaped crystals of sulphur always accumulating, and continuous earthquakes, are the signs of the giant below being quiet, but not quiescent. When its grand eruptions break forth, the Hale Mau-mau (or Home of Everlasting Fire), or lakes in the southern side of the crater, sends forth suffocating gases in such volumes

as to conceal the view of everything, and give signs of the movements below in a series of phenomena so marvellous and beautiful, that those who have witnessed them declare that ordinary language is useless in conveying a proper idea of the sights they have witnessed (p. 40). All around Mauna Kea is a lava desert of such wildness, that, unless in the old volcanic regions of Europe, there is nothing like it, and when the last great volcanic eruption of Mauna Loa occurred (1868), the great lava stream flowed several miles—until it was stopped



EASTER ISLAND (FROM THE SEA).

by the sea, when it forms a trap peninsula a mile in length. On the island of Maui—with a society which is largely made up of foreign planters and their families—is the great crater of Mauna Halakala, one of the sights of the islands, but of this and other physical features we must refer the reader to other works for a description.*

HAWAIIAN TOWNS.

Of the Sandwich Island towns, Honolulu, or Oahu, is, of course, the chief, and to a foreigner perhaps the least interesting, because the least Hawaiian. Lahaina, on Maui (p. 36),

* Brigham: "Volcanoes of the Hawaiian Islands;" Boddam-Whetham, "Pearls of the Pacific," &c.

is more native. It is picturesque and tropical looking, with white latticed houses "peeping out from under cocoa-palms, bread-fruit, candle-nuts, tamarinds, mangoes, bananas, and oranges, with the brilliant green of a narrow strip of sugar-cane for a background; and above, the flushed mountains of Eka, riven here and there by cool green chasms, rise to a height of 6,000 feet." Once on a time it was a great missionary centre and whaling station—the one being necessary, perhaps, as a corrective to the other—but a seminary for the education of natives is about the only remains of the first, while the latter is non-existent, and the high cliffs of the lepers' retreat on Molokai, in the distance remind the visitor that even here the Fortunate Isles, so long sought, are not to be found. Hilo, on Hawaii, is more missionary. It is, indeed, the paradise of the islands—its crescent-shaped bay, and green houses concealed amid vegetation, away from the din and turmoil of the world, make it one of the most charming retreats imaginable. Waimea, on Hawaii, is a place which received its earliest population from a class of "mean whites," known as "beach-combers"—runaway sailors, and the riffraff generally of the Pacific. They were not exemplary personages, and though the place has now received sufficient of another class of settlers to neutralise the early evil citizens, yet the "Waimea crowd" is not even yet considered in Hawaii up to the moral mark, and in such quarters as this, the stories which "the Earl and the Doctor," and similar voyagers picked up regarding missionaries and their efforts originated (p. 37).

The writer finds as much difficulty in leaving the Sandwich Islands as the actual visitor does. Happiness may not be atmosphere, as Lord Beaconsfield, in the days when he was Mr. Disraeli, said somewhere. But as we in these tempest-tyrannised isles know, it is very near to it, and the Hawaiian Islands have the best of climates. Let us hope—though it is hoping against hope—that in time they may have that prosperity which the advocates of reciprocity—which in this case means the "sugar interest"—declared they would have. But with a white population increasing at the rate of 200 per annum, and the natives decreasing at the rate of from 1,200 to 2,000, with males exceeding females by nearly 7,000, this can hardly be expected to be shared by the Hawaiians, whatever may be the case with the soil which is at present theirs.

CHAPTER IV.

EASTER, LADRONE, PELEW, CAROLINE, MARSHALL, SALOMON, NEW BRITAIN, AND OTHER ISLANDS.

BEFORE sailing northward and westward from the Sandwich Islands to the Ladrone group, we may turn out of our course and visit the remarkable Easter Island, which seems like a stepping-stone from the Oceanic groups proper to the American continent. Next to the Galapagos and Juan Fernandez, it lies nearest America, and in many respects is so interesting as to deserve, ethnologically at least, a full description (pp. 41, 44, 45, and Plate XXXII.).

EASTER ISLAND.

Teapi, Rapa-Nui or Easter Island, is an isolated spot almost 2,000 miles from the South American coast, and 1,000 from Piteairn Island and the Gambier Isles. In length it is about twelve miles, and in breadth four, and somewhat like a cocked hat in shape. The ends are lofty and bluff, and there is an extinct crater 1,050 feet high in its centre. The island, indeed, is of volcanic origin, and abounds in craters which have been extinct for so long that no tradition of their activity remains (p. 45). The country is singularly deficient in wood. Boles of cocoa-nut palm, *Edwardsia*, *Hibiscus*, &c., are seen in some places, and from the size of the paddles and other implements of the natives, it is evident that large trees must once have existed, though they have long ago disappeared, and just now the only approach to wood are the bushes, which grow but very slowly in some sheltered nooks. There are no water quadrupeds, though rats have been introduced, and are abundant, and no reptiles exist. Even the frog, which has been landed, has not been allowed to breed, and is now extinct. But it is the people who are most interesting. They are of Polynesian origin, though their traditions afford little clue to the quarter from whence they came. It is a current belief that they came—at least to some extent—from Oparo or Rapa-ti, distant about 1,900 miles. But who made the great stone images (p. 44, &c.) which are now the chief attraction of the island to visitors no one knows. It is more than likely that they were here when the present inhabitants arrived, and it is a belief of various ethnographers that probably the race who formed them were the frequenters of the natives of Peru and other portions of South America. When the island was first discovered, the islanders possessed neither the means nor the knowledge to construct anything similar to these monuments, the workmanship of which is of a high order. Even at the date of Cook's visit, some of the statues, measuring twenty-seven feet in length, and eight feet across the shoulders, were lying overthrown, while others still standing appeared much larger. One of the latter was so lofty that the shade was sufficient to shelter a party of nearly thirty persons from the heat of the sun. The platforms on which these colossal images stood averaged from thirty to forty feet in length, twelve to sixteen feet broad, being from three to twelve feet long, all built of hewn stones in the Cyclopean style, very much like the walls of the Temple of Pachacamac, or the Ruins of Tia-Huanuco in Peru (Vol. III., pp. 310, 311). But these images and platforms are not peculiar to Easter Island. On Swallow Island, distant about from thirty-five miles north-west of Enderby's Island, a large stone pyramid of long standing exists, and on some islands near the equator, not far from the Solomon group—and in New Caledonia—remains of solid masonry have been seen. There is no reason to believe that any of the statues have been built up, bit by bit, by scaffolding erected around them. The grey lava (trachyte), of which all the images are made, comes from the crater of Otu-iti (p. 44).* The natives of some of these islands, in which remains of buildings are found, have traditions of white men having been there a long time before, "but," they say, "they

* Captain Palmer, R.N.: "Kidnapping in the South Seas" (1871), pp. 28-29; Dr. Palmer, R.N.: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XI. (1870), pp. 167-181; Dr. Davies, R.N.: *Proceedings of the Liverpool Literary and Philosophical Society* (1874-75), p. 275.

were turtles, and arrows and spears would not injure them," alluding, no doubt, to some early Spanish adventurers, cased in "lobster" mail, who were cast away, or who had



PLATFORM IN THE VICINITY OF OTU-ITI ("THE LITTLE HILL") EASTER ISLAND.

visited these islands. One of the best of these colossal images of stone is now in the British Museum. It may be added that, unlike most of the Polynesian Islands, Teapi is generally barren, and—perhaps owing to the absence of trees—there were at the date of the last visit to it no canoes, except a few very old worn-out ones in a cave. Captain Cook described them as having only four, and in 1852 the few which were seen were ingeniously pieced together out of little bits of wood sewn together, so as to form planks.



IMAGES AT RONORORAKA, EASTER ISLAND (THE ONLY ONES NOW ERECT).

The population is now very small, and live poorly on the produce of their cultivated patches, on the few fish which they can catch by line from the rocks, and on the shell fish which abound on the shores.



CRATER OF OFU-IHI, EASTER ISLAND.

THE MARIANA, OR LADRONE ISLANDS.

Passing among a number of scattered islands little visited, and of comparatively small importance, we come to a group owned by the Spaniards. The Robber Islands are twenty in number, and received their name from Magellan in 1521, on account of his forming but an indifferent opinion regarding the honesty of the natives, though the alternative title is derived from Mariana of Austria, Queen of Philip IV. All of them are volcanic, irregular in outline, and most picturesque, clothed with luxuriant vegetation, and favoured with a climate hot, but tempered by the trade winds. The usual tropical crops grow, and wild hogs, cattle and horses, asses, mules, and even llamas, which have been introduced, flourish. The islands north of Guam are uninhabited, and overrun with wild cattle, pigs, and goats, which afford attractions to vessels trading to the other islands, visiting them in order to lay in supplies. Of late years, Americans, and it is said Sandwich Islanders, have settled themselves in Agrigan, and the population has likewise been increased by the arrival of natives kidnapped from other parts of Polynesia. On Guam is a considerable town, built of coral limestone and bamboo, and inhabited by a mixed race of Spaniards, Mexicans, and Philippine Islanders; the aboriginal Ladrone Islanders having, like aboriginal races generally, when they come in contact with the Spaniards, almost ceased to cumber their native soil. Scattered over Tinian, another of the islands, are a number of square pyramidal pillars, each distant about six feet from the other, and with an interspace of about twelve feet between the rows. Each pillar is itself about thirteen feet high, surmounted with a semi-globe, the flat portion upwards, the whole being constructed of sand and stone cemented together, and plastered over. Their use is not known, but probably they were dedicated to sacrificial purposes.

BONIN ISLANDS; ANSON AND MAGELLAN ARCHIPELAGOES.

The Bonin Isles are almost outliers of the Philippines, which may be more conveniently considered as continental rather than oceanic isles, lying off the coast of Asia. The Bonins are about fifty in number, and are all small, the largest (Peel) being only fourteen miles and a half long. There is no native population, though some Japanese have squatted themselves on the group, which is also visited by Japanese junkmen, who, aided by British subjects settled on the islands, carry on a contraband trade with the Japanese Empire. Whalers also touch at them for the sake of the fresh water and turtles with which they abound.

The Anson and Magellan Archipelagoes are dotted with little scattered isles of volcanic origin, without any permanent inhabitants, probably owing to the intense volcanic action which continually disturbs them. "Lot's Wife," a strange pyramidal rock, distant from any other land, is one of the most remarkable objects in this part of the world. It rises, sheer out of the ocean, to the height of 350 feet, and against it the ocean dashes with futile violence, and resounds with a strange weird noise in a cavern on its south-eastern side.

THE CAROLINE, PELEW, AND ELLICE ISLANDS.

The Caroline and Pallou, or Pelew Islands, extend over an area of 2,000 miles from east to west, but the actual amount of dry land comprised in this stretch is very small. The Menchikoff Atoll is, for example, only 500 square miles altogether, and of this but six miles are reared above the surface of the sea. Few of these are elevated—M'Askell's, one of the highest, only rising to 100 feet, and Yap, in the Pelew group, being the only one which has hills containing gold and silver; though, as yet, these "mines" have only been "indicated"—not worked, if, indeed, they are worthy of the expenditure of any labour. All the Carolines, except three, are atolls.

The Ellice, Vaitapu, or De Peysters group is a collection of low lagoon islands, with a population of about 300. The other two groups are uninhabited, and though claimed by the Spaiiards as dependencies of the Philippines, Spain has no settlements on them, and no representative of her authority. The islands are, however, very fertile, and the climate agreeable, in spite of severe hurricanes now and then sweeping them. Owing to the visits of whaling vessels, rude hotels—called "accommodation houses"—have been established at the chief places of call, for the convenience of the captains and crews. These houses are usually kept by runaway sailors, who are by no means a virtuous race of unlicensed victuallers, and whose presence, as well as that of their guests, has acted so prejudicially to the moral and physical welfare of the natives that they are fast decreasing in number. Missionaries have also established themselves on some of the islands, but meet with great hostility from the demoralised whites, and the natives acting under their influence. The inhabitants of Hogoleu—one of the Carolines—are a cruel and treacherous race—so treacherous, indeed, that though the shores of the island—or rather chain of little islands so called—abound in *bêche-de-mer*, great caution must be exercised in obtaining it, as the crews of several vessels have of late years been attacked by the islanders armed with large Spanish knives, brass-bilted cutlasses, spears, and slings, which latter weapons they can use with great precision and murderous effect. They number some 15,000. The population of Bornabi—another of the group—numbers about 70,000, in addition to upwards of 100 Europeans and Americans, mostly escaped convicts and runaway sailors, who find it profitable to buy tortoiseshell and *bêche-de-mer* from the natives, again to dispose of it to the traders at a profit of 500 per cent. Near Matalanien Harbour, in Bornabi, are seen the ruins of a fortified town evidently not built by the natives, but by some civilised people. The stones of the walls are eight or ten feet in length, and must have been brought from some other country, as no such rock exists on this or any of the neighbouring islands. Similar ruins exist in Strong's Island (Ualau), of which the natives can give no account. It is believed that they were erected by Spanish pirates, or buccaneers, several centuries ago, Bornabi being then a stronghold of these lawless rovers.

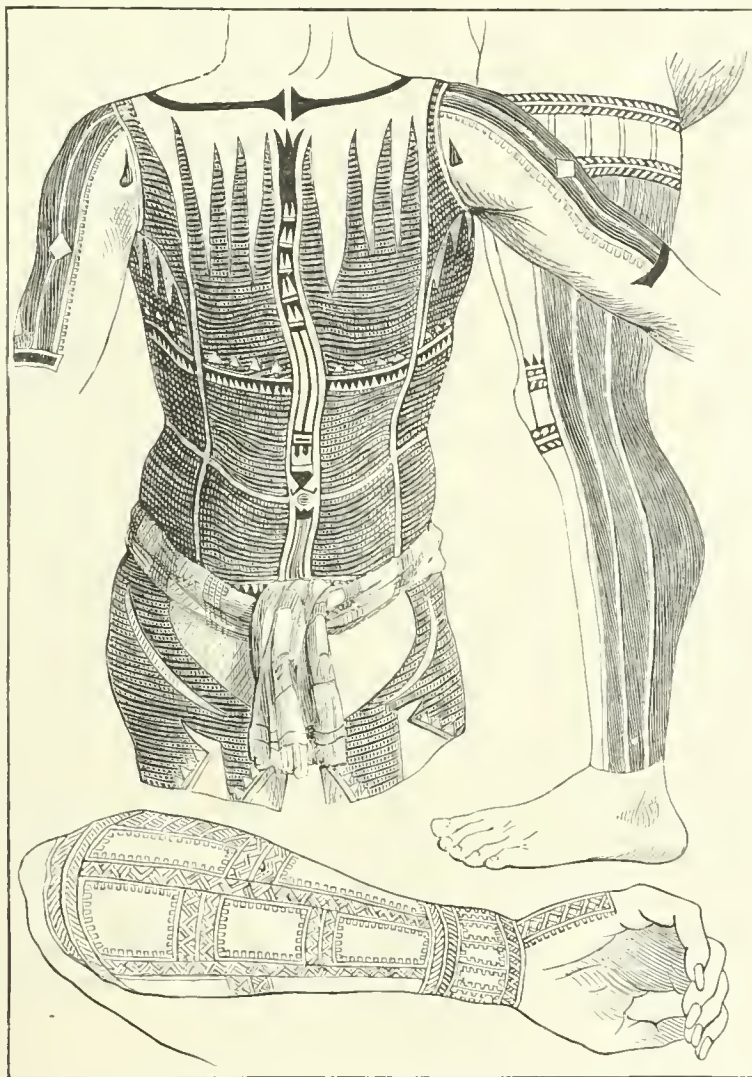
The Pelew Islanders are a very different race—being usually described as "amiable, gay, and innocent," though such characteristics must always be received merely for what they are worth—that is, not much—as passing voyagers, even when possessing the mental



WAR COSTUME OF THE NATIVES OF THE CAROLINE ISLANDS.

(From Specimens in the Museum de Paris.)

qualifications necessary for forming such a judgment, cannot possibly have the requisite experience of the people on whose character they pass such dogmatic verdicts. One of them—"Prince" Lee Boo, son of "King" Abbe Thull—visited England last century, as the guest of the East India Company. He had not been in this country over a few



TATOOING OF THE NATIVES OF PONAPE, CAROLINE ISLANDS.

months when he caught small-pox and died. He is buried in Rotherhithe churchyard, "far away from his own pleasant groves of waving cocoa-nut and shady bread-fruit trees." On a tombstone over his grave is inscribed this couplet:—

"Stop, reader, stop! Let Nature claim a tear—
A Prince of mine, Lee Boo, lies buried here."

--a kindly sentiment, if expressed in more than ordinarily indifferent necropolitan "verse."

THE MARSHALL AND KINGSMILL GROUPS.

The Marshall Isles form what is known as the Mulgrave Archipelago, but the dry land forms only a hundredth part of the lagoons, and a subsidence appears to be going on. The islands lie in two chains, running north and south, sixty to one hundred miles apart. The western of these is also called the Raldick, and the eastern the Radack Chain. The islands are low, and the soil generally scanty, but they produce bread-fruit and cocoa-nuts in abundance, and bananas in sufficient quantity for the wants of the inhabitants, a fine athletic race, who have not had much communication with foreigners, and are now being gradually civilised by the efforts of the American missionaries settled amongst them. They have canoes, made out of sewn together planks of the bread-fruit tree, in which they make long voyages from one island to another.

Much the same description may be given of the Gilbert and Kingsmill group, discovered, like the former, by Marshall and Gilbert, in 1788. The Gilbert group consists of some fifteen islands, one of which, Narakin, is said to be the most beautiful coral isle on the Pacific. "Viewed from the mast-head, it is like a garland thrown upon the waters." The height of none of these exceeds six feet, but a slow elevation seems to be going on amongst them. The population at the time of the latest estimate was calculated to number between 30,000 and 60,000 souls, very savage and inhospitable in their intercourse with strangers, and even in their relations to each other far from kindly, or actuated by the good feelings which even barbarians exercise to their own people. The people of Pitt's Islands are, however, a better class, and are not addicted to the bloodthirsty wars which characterise the Kingsmillers generally.* Even the benign restraint of "taboo" is not known to them, and their religious belief is of the rudest description.

Due west from the Kingsmills is Ocean Isle, fifteen miles in circumference, but with neither harbour nor anchorage, though thickly inhabited by a fine-looking race.

Pleasant Island, west again of Ocean Island, is fourteen miles in circumference. Its population is about 1,400, and amongst them are always a number of runaway seamen, who contribute to their morals and civilisation the usual items which the levanted mariner bestows in return for the barbarian's hospitality.

THE SOLOMON ISLES, NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, NEW HANOVER, AND THE ADMIRALTY ISLES.

All these islands form a connected group. The Solomons consist of ten principal and a great many smaller isles, of volcanic origin, one of which possesses an active volcano, but are surrounded by only scattered reefs, no doubt owing to the coral reef isles being destroyed by the volcanic eruptions. They were discovered in 1567 by Alverdo de Mendaña, the

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., pp. 51-55.

name they now bear being given them "to the end, that the Spaniards supposing them to be those isles from whence Solomon fetched gold to adorn the temple at Jerusalem, might be the more desirous to go and inhabit the same." But when Mendaña went out on a second voyage to them, he could not again light on the islands, and it was nearly three centuries afterwards that the French formed a settlement at San Christoval, which they had ultimately to abandon on account of the ferocity of the inhabitants. Indeed, to this day, though the islands are visited by small vessels from Australia, and by American whalers, for the purpose of trading tortoiseshell, it is not considered prudent to land, and the precaution is even adopted of allowing only a certain number of canoes to come alongside the ship at the same time; the head chief is alone permitted on deck, while the bulwarks are protected to a considerable height by "hammock nettings," in order to prevent sudden boardings by the treacherous dealers in tortoiseshell. In spite, however, of all these prudent precautions, several vessels have fallen into the natives' hands, and the crews been murdered and eaten. The islands are very fertile, and in the moist humid climate flourish dense, unhealthy forests, which cover part of the country even to the tops of the highest mountains. Nearly all of the islands are well peopled, but with the exception of Eddystone Island, on none of them are the inhabitants friendly towards Europeans. All of them are bloodthirsty in the extreme, and so addicted to cannibalism, that Captain Cheyne tells us human flesh forms their chief article of diet. "I have been most disgusted," he writes, "on visiting some of their houses, to observe human heads, arms, and legs suspended from the rafters." Even at the time of Mendaña's visit they looked upon man-eating as so natural, that the chief of Ysabel sent "to him a present of a quarter of a boy, with the hand and arm," and the fact of the Spanish commander ordering it to be buried gave great offence to the natives.

New Britain and New Ireland are large and imperfectly known islands, with many smaller ones lying off their coasts, the soil and productions resembling those of New Guinea. The country is mountainous and well wooded, though containing fertile valleys, yielding in abundance the crops of this part of the tropics. New Hanover is not much known, but in its general character does not differ widely from the other groups. The Duke of York "Island," as it is improperly called on the charts, is really a group of twelve small islands, seven of which are inhabited. All of the islands consist of coral limestone, and rise at some parts abruptly from the water in steep perpendicular cliffs. The whole of them are densely wooded and very fertile, though the soil is not at all deep.*

The natives of all of these groups are fierce savages, horribly addicted to man-eating. In one house in New Ireland, Mr. Brown counted thirty-five human lower-jaw bones suspended from the rafters: most of which were blackened with smoke, but some of them were quite clean, and had not been long there. A human hand, smoke-dried, was hanging in the same house, and just outside he counted seventy-six notches in a cocoa-nut tree, each notch of which represented a human body which had been cooked and eaten there. The name of the chief was Sagina, which means "smelling of," or a "strong smell,"

* Brown: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLVII. (1877), p. 139.

and it was given him because the smell of human flesh was said to be always perceived in his village. Yet food seems to be plentiful in all the islands. Banauas, yams, taro,



NATIVE CANOE OF THE SOLOMON ISLANDS.

sweet potatoes, cocoa-nuts, and papaw, are all abundant, and the natives declare—though this seems doubtful—that pigs and fowls were on the island before any vessel visited them. The people are Papuans, well made and athletic—all very much alike, but speaking so many dialects that a native of one district can rarely understand a native of another only a few miles away. The Wesleyan missionaries have recently formed settlements on



NATIVES OF NEW IRELAND.

the islands, though not without mishaps, some of the native teachers having been killed and devoured by the ogres whom they wished to instruct in better ways, spiritual and gastronomic.

Two hundred miles west from New Hanover, and about the same distance from New Guinea, are the Admiralty Isles, consisting of one central island, lying in the middle of

a number of others, all covered with beautiful verdure. The people are dark Papuans, though not so black as those of New Ireland, and are not so barbarous as their nearest neighbours. Almost the only clothing of the men is a wreath of flowers and a shell—the *Ocimum ovum*. They are cannibals, and share with the Solomon islanders the reputation of being hostile and treacherous, though, perhaps owing to the multitude of their guns, the *Challenger* people established excellent relations with them. They are, however, excitable, and it is not at all unlikely that those who would calculate on their being even worse, would be exercising a prudent reserve. Like most savages, they are thievish, and gratitude is a



OFFICERS OF H.M.S. "CHALLENGER" BARTERING WITH THE NATIVES OF THE ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

term which, like chastity in the Sandwich islanders, has no equivalent in their language, the one virtue being almost as strange to the Admiralty islanders as the other is, or was, to the Hawaiians.

The Exchequer and Hermit Isles, similar in character to the Admiralty group, but inhabited by a more tractable race, lie to the north-west of the islands we have just left.

THE NEW HEBRIDES AND THE QUEEN CHARLOTTE ISLANDS.

The New Hebrides consist of a large chain of volcanic isles, all fertile, and some of considerable size. The principal are Espiritu Santo, Malicolo, Vate, Erumanga, Tanna, Aneiteum, and Api. The whole of them are undermined by subterranean fires. There

are several active volcanoes, and most of the mountains in the group are either extinct, or semi-quiescent crater cones. In the valleys the soil is exceedingly rich, but during the rainy season fever and ague prevail to such an extent as to make the climate very trying to Europeans. Until within the last few years, these islands were unsafe for Europeans to land on. Sandal-wood traders visited them, but owing to their frequent disputes with the natives, murders followed, and altogether such was the hostility between the two races that the New Hebrides were for long dreaded by all visitors. But thanks to the efforts of the missionaries, and the visits of a less lawless class of traders, settlements for commercial purposes have been formed on the islands, and Europeans reside there in perfect security. Erumanga, the natives of which murdered the missionary Williams in 1839, is perhaps the worst of the group, and the inhabitants of the different islands exhibit considerable diversity in personal appearance, language, habits, and intelligence. They are cannibals, yet this fact does not seem to have acted prejudicially against the population. Aneiteum, according to Mr. Turner, possesses about 5,000 inhabitants, Tanna (p. 56), 15,000, and the whole group at least 60,000 souls. Within the last ten years the good understanding between the whites and the natives was likely to have been disturbed by the acts of the kidnappers from Australia. Under the guise of engaging labourers for the Queensland plantations, these scoundrels enticed natives on board, and then set sail with them under hatches. As the entrapped New Hebrideans could not understand a word of English, the authorities in the colonies were for some time unable to put a stop to this "black-bird trade," as it was facetiously termed. Mainly, however, owing to the active measures resorted to by the war ships, the traffic is now at an end, and the British name recovering its lost prestige. Captain Markham describes the line of volcanic activity as having the largest islands on either side a little apart from the actual eruptions, but the numerous conical peaks in every part of the group indicate a period of activity on every island. The water is very deep round all the shores, and the hills which seem to rise out of the sea are clothed with a dense vegetation of cocoa-nuts, which are not confined to the sea-shore, but grow in clusters in all the inland valleys as well, the weeping iron wood (*Casuarina equisetifolia*), the beautiful candle nut tree (*Alseodora triloba*), and other fine timber. The groups farther to the eastward, and beyond the 180th meridian to Tahiti and the Marquesas, appear to have been peopled, as to their plants and animals, by waifs and strays from distant continents. But the Solomon and New Hebrides groups, together with the Fijis, have a life peculiar to themselves. The islanders are not a good-looking race, being pure types of woolly-headed Papuans, but are merry and cheerful, though easily alarmed. And here it may be remarked, that these islands seem to be a point where the Polynesian race dovetails among the Papuans or Melanesians. For instance, Cherry Island is inhabited by a handsome and friendly Polynesian race, with straight hair. The island of Tecopia, and the Duff Islands, also seem peopled by Polynesians. It was said by the late Bishop Patteson that the Swallow or Reef islanders, though Papuan in appearance, speak a dialect of Maori, and therefore must be classed among the Polynesians, while the Lom-lom islanders, their near neighbours, are in all respects like the Santa Cruz people—that is, Melanesians. The Polynesians despise their Melanesian neighbours, and are always at war

with them; yet it is curious to find them inosculating with them by living in small islands in the midst of their group, inhabited by the hated race of black-skinned and frizzy-haired Papuans.*

The Queen Charlotte, or Santa Cruz Islands—not to be confounded with the small islands of the same name lying off the north-west coast of British Columbia—are situated about midway between the New Hebrides and the Solomon group; indeed, may be said to be a northern continuation of the New Hebrides. They are volcanic and well wooded, and though mountainous, fertile. Several of them are “reef islands,” but not regularly with central lagoons, such as those seen in Torres Strait, “but,” to use the words of Captain Markham, who has given us by far the best description of this group, “are raised upon the reefs themselves, and vary in size from small rocks or islets to islands several miles in circumference. They are generally covered with dense scrub, overtopped by cocoa-nut trees, and wherever this is the case, as at Lom-lom and Nukapu, they are inhabited.” The New Hebrides, on the contrary, have few coral reefs, a peculiarity due, according to Dana, to the volcanic eruptions killing the coral zoophytes in the surrounding seas. In Santa Cruz is a fine harbour, and on Vankoro was wrecked the ship of La Perouse in 1788, though it was not for forty years afterwards that the fate of the famous French explorer was ascertained.

CHAPTER V.

NEW CALEDONIA; THE FIJIS; TONGA; NIUE.

EUROPEAN colonies in the Pacific are on one hand of ancient, and on another of modern origin. The Spaniards in their roamings in search of gold early settled in the Philippines and other islands, which we have already spoken of; the Dutch kept more in shore; the French, however, after the First Napoleon had stimulated the nation to acquire colonies, settled on New Caledonia, while the English, the greatest colonisers in the world, and the chief explorers of Oceania, confined themselves to Australia, until the progress of their settlements in that direction compelled them to annex Fiji, just as at an earlier date Norfolk Island, and to some extent Pitcairn Island and Lord Howe Island, were peopled either by force or willingly by men of English extraction or antecedents. It is probable that in time other nations will look to Oceania as a home for their surplus population, or as the *locale* of outlying stations where their naval power may be consolidated. Hence the rumours that Russia is seeking a station in the Pacific, and that Germany is about to acquire part of Samoa. The United States, we know, have for long been in search of a good naval station among the islands, while the annexation of New Guinea by England, and the actual annexation of Tahiti, which France at present “protects,” can only be questions of time.

* A. H. Markham: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLII. (1872), pp. 213-243; “The Cruise of the *Rosario*” (1875); Palmer: “Kidnapping in the South Seas” (1871). etc.

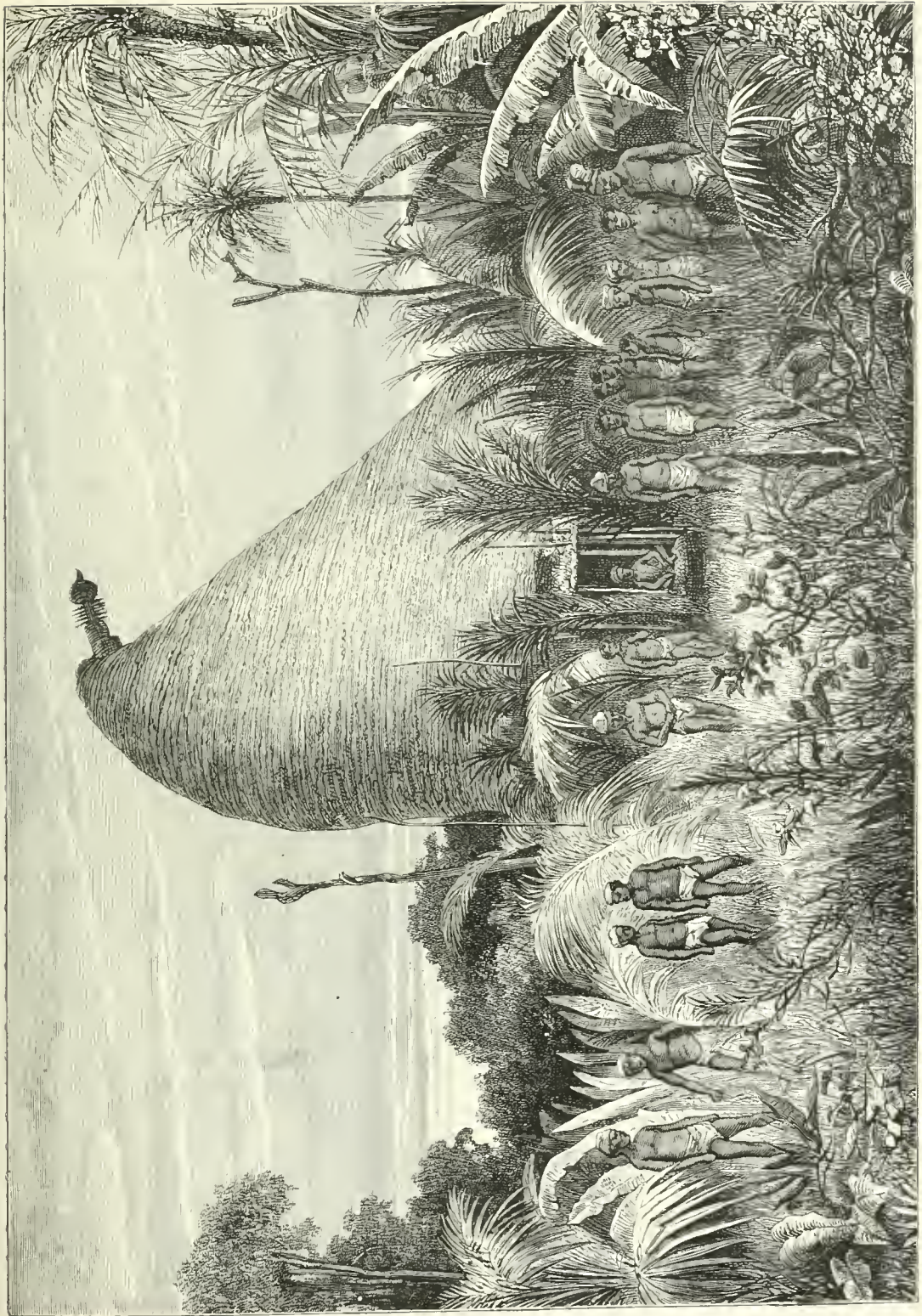
NEW CALEDONIA, THE ISLE OF PINES, THE LOYALTY ISLANDS.

The large island of New Caledonia was discovered by Cook in 1771. It lies about 800 miles from the nearest point of Australia, and 1,000 miles from the North Cape of New Zealand. Its average breadth is 35 miles, and its length 250 miles. It is more or less mountainous throughout, and patched with forest from the shore to the highest point on the island, an elevation of 4,300 feet above the level of the sea. The soil is in places rich, while mines of iron, copper, nickel, cobalt, &c., are found in the mountains, and in some of the little isles lying off the coast considerable deposits of guano have been recently discovered. The island was taken possession of by the French in 1856, with the ostensible



SCENE IN THE ISLE OF TANNA, NEW HEBRIDES.

object of cultivating sugar and coffee, but in reality for the establishment of a large military and naval depôt, which might aid in establishing Gallie power in the Pacific. Still more recently it was made a convict settlement, which rose into importance from the fact that it was selected as the place of expatriation for the Communists. There are, however, few now on the island, but of late the colonists have had to contend with attacks from the natives, a peculiarly fierce, cannibalistic race of Papuans who have never altogether acquiesced in the rule of their new masters. There are, however, a number of free settlers, who cultivate the usual tropical products. Sheep rearing has not proved a success, but bananas, sugar cane, yams, and taro seem to thrive well, though, as a whole, New Caledonia is not nearly so tropical looking as the opposite coast of Australia. The "Kanakas" are not fond of working, and accordingly the colonists import labourers from the New Hebrides. Noumea, the capital, is quite a French town, alive with military bands, and a variety of gay uniforms, and even of fashionably



NEW CALEDONIAN NATIVE HUT.

dressed ladies, who in the cool of the evening parade the Rue Magenta, though the number of civilians on the island are much fewer than at one time they were. Indeed, the chances are that in future the majority of the settlers will be convicts, who have been pardoned on condition of remaining in the place of their quondam bondage. These with their descendants will in time form a considerable population, though whether for evil or good yet remains to be seen. The British Consul reported in the year 1878 that none of the nickel mines were working, though there is said still to be plenty of ore. Considerable quantities of copper, cobalt, and antimony are also exported. Gold is mined to some slight extent, and in addition to several other minerals not yet found in paying quantities, an inferior quality of coal has been found in various places. The broken character of the country will always militate against New Caledonia being an agricultural settlement. The east coast is, indeed, quite unfitted for culture; the west is better, but even there the amount of arable land is very limited. Cattle may be bred on the grassy hill slopes in sufficient number to feed the population of the colony, but in the opinion of those well qualified to judge it will always be dependent on Australia for bread-stuffs. At present, indeed, the Government meat contractor draws his supplies of cattle for slaughter from Newcastle and Gladstone, in Australia, and from Norfolk Island. Thanks to the well-directed labour of the convicts, water has been brought into the town of Noumea, and roads and telegraphs have been ramified throughout the island. Hills have been levelled, mangrove swamps filled up, and the town and harbour beautified and improved in every direction during the last few years. The convicts also have constructed batteries, earthworks, and other public conveniences and necessities; indeed, without them, the colony would be at a standstill. Some of the *deportés* are very skilful, handicraftsmen, jewellers, wood-carvers, and workers in pottery ware. Earth suitable for terra cotta having been found in several places, busts, statuettes, and vases of beautiful shape and ornamentation were exhibited by these over-ardent citizens of the Republic at the Paris Exhibition of 1878. In addition to the prisoners, there are—as we have already remarked—a number of New Hebridean labourers, importations from the Solomon group being forbidden. The natives of the former islands do not care so much to come to New Caledonia as to the English colonies, and they do not seem to pick up the French language with the same ease that they acquire “pigeon English,” which is now spoken in nearly all the South Sea Islands, and is becoming the medium of communication between different tribes. During 1877 the total number of vessels visiting the islands was 156: of these but 28 were French and 114 British, and the coasting trade is almost entirely carried by British ships carrying French colours.* “In round numbers, at the beginning of the year 1877 † the aboriginal population of the colony numbered about 43,000, and the Europeans 16,000. It may be divided into two classes: free, 5,800; under restraint, 11,110. The former class may again be sub-divided into *employés* of Government, 3,050; civil, 2,760. During the year there have been 118 births as against

* An “Annual” is published by the Government; that for 1877 contains a paper on the island by Captain Chambeyron, being a communication addressed to the Société de Géographie (2nd December, 1874). See also Garnier: in “Bulletin de la Société de Géographie” (1878); “Illustrated Travels,” Vols. II., III., &c.

† Consular Reports to the Foreign Office for 1878. As a great number of communists have returned, these statistics must now be somewhat modified.

224 deaths; marriages, 31. The total value of the imports for the year 1877 has reached 9,683,600fr. (say £387,344), of the exports 3,061,954fr. (say £162,475). The expenditure of the colony has been 2,193,371fr. (say £87,735)." M. Jules Garnier remarks that tropical products, with the exception of tobacco and coffee, are subject to the attacks of grasshoppers, and the rainy season coinciding with that in which the cotton is picked, this otherwise profitable crop is apt to be damaged. Oil-yielding plants and the production of the mulberry and silkworm have been introduced with success.

New Caledonia is surrounded by a great barrier reef, which is continued almost without any long interruption to the Isle of Pines (Kunaie), twenty-eight miles south of the main island, while to the north, reefs stretch for nearly 100 miles, with here and there small islands inhabited by savages of a very malevolent type. This character used also to be shared by the natives of the Isle of Pines, though it is more than probable that their enmity to the whites was due as much to their ill treatment by the sandal-wood traders as to their natural ferocity. There are now several trading establishments, and a large missionary settlement on the island, and the result of this combination of commerce and Christianity has been that the natives have become very harmless to the white man, though, owing to their possession of firearms, not quite so innocuous to their neighbours on the south-eastern part of New Caledonia. Their villages are on the coast, built in the middle of cocoa-nut groves. They number about 2,000, and until recently were determined cannibals, who ate their enemies, and avoided the Isle of Pines, equivalent of the poor rates of more civilised latitudes by putting their old people to death, or—what amounts to the same thing—leaving them on a barren islet until they perished.

The Loyalty Islands are separated from New Caledonia, to the west of which they lie, by a strait forty-five miles in breadth. They are four in number—Uea, Lifu, Mare, and Tika—but each isle is surrounded by several smaller rocky islets of coral formation. Until 1841 they may be said to have been practically unknown, and, indeed, it was not until 1849 that they were examined by war ships. The soil varies, but is in places rich, and supports a large population. The natives, owing to the outrages of the sandal-wood traders, were for long incensed against the whites, several ships' crews of whom they massacred, but of late missionaries have settled on some of the islands, and are gradually weaning these fierce Polyneso-Papuans from the error of their ways. The climate of the islands is cool and agreeable in winter, and even in the summer the Loyalties are not unsalubrious, though disturbed by frequent earthquakes. All of these islands are claimed by the French, and the latest official census gives the population at 13,334.*

THE COLONY OF FIJI.

The Archipelago of Fiji or Viti comprises a group of nearly 200 islands, besides rocks, reefs, and islets. Of these, about eighty are inhabited. Its area may be roughly estimated at 8,034 square miles, of which at the present time only about 16,000 acres are under cultivation. The present population consists of about 100,000 natives, and less

* "Tableaux de la population, etc., des Colonies françaises, pour l'année 1875" (1877).

than 2,000 whites. But the climate is a pleasant one, and owing to the recent acquisition of the islands by the British Government, it is likely that the colonists will rapidly



FISHING-VILLAGE, IN A GROVE OF COCOA-NUT TREES, NEW CALEDONIA.

increase in number. In Levuka the average heat is about 79° , but this is tempered all the year round by cool southern breezes, which render the actual heat less unendurable than the meteorological returns would lead us to believe it is. Levuka itself is, moreover, an exceptionally hot place, for in the uplands, even in the interior, the thermometer shows

a much lower mean. Yet, throughout the whole country, the health of the whites is good, dysentery—generally brought on by excess—being almost the only disease very prevalent. European children often suffer from a disease of the eyes, induced by the glare of the sun, which for an hour or two in the middle of the day is excessively trying. The chief islands are Viti Levu (or Big Fiji), Vanua Levu (or Big Land), and Taviumi, the finest of all the islands both as to its soil and scenery. It is, indeed, as it is often called, the garden of Fiji, though smaller than the two just mentioned, which are each about 300 miles in circumference. In addition to these islands, the white settlers affect Koro,



NATIVES OF FIJI.

Vanua Balavu, Mango, Lakemba, and Chichia. The capital (Suva) is on the south coast of Viti Levu, at the head of a magnificent harbour, but Levuka, the old capital and the chief commercial centre, occupies a central position on the eastern side of the smaller island of Ovalau—eight miles long by seven in breadth.

The islands are of volcanic origin, with lofty mountains, and well wooded with the ordinary trees of the Oceanic islands. The vegetation is remarkably luxuriant—bread-fruit, bananas, plantains, cocoa-nuts, sugar-cane, and arrowroot growing freely, while cotton, sugar, pearl-shells, maize, bêche-de-mer, coffee, and cocoa-nut oil are exported. In 1876 the revenue of the islands was £38,525, and the expenditure £68,636, to meet which deficit there was a grant made from the Imperial Treasury of £35,000. Fiji, in addition to other indubitable signs of advancing, has already a public debt of £5,900.

Nevertheless, it is still far from flourishing, for in 1876 its exports were £107,464, and its imports £138,000.

The islands, it is believed, were originally discovered about the year 1643, by Tasman, but it was not until 1804 that some runaway convicts from New South Wales managed to reach the islands, and get themselves recognised by the natives as leaders in their inter-tribal wars. To the crew of a wrecked ship and these pioneers of shady antecedents the Fijians owe their knowledge of firearms, for it seems that the convicts were enabled to not only convey themselves to the cannibal islands, but also bring their muskets along with them. In their new homes, King Na-Olivou's new subjects led their old lives, with the result that they were soon thinned out. The last died in 1840. But in 1835 a few whites of manners more reputable had established themselves at Levuka, and in that year, also, the Wesleyan missionaries arrived. Thus the white settlers began to increase, and by 1858 so many had found it their profit to squat on the different islands, that in that year the native king, or leading chief, Thakombau, offered his dominions to England. The offer was, however, declined, and a proffer of the sovereignty to the United States met with no more favourable reply. But trouble was brewing for the Fijian monarch. In 1846 some of his swarthy subjects had attacked the United States' Consulate, for which act the King was fined a much larger sum than he could pay. But a Syndicate of Melbourne financiers settled the 45,000 dollars demanded, and in return obtained great grants of land, which, though not yet settled on, may in time become of value. Soon riots became common, and the unruly whites who came to the islands were such a source of annoyance to King Thakombau, that with his free will the English Government, on the 30th September, 1874, annexed the whole of his sovereignty, pensioning him off, and so securing a new colony, which *may* prove valuable, but at all events will relieve the Australians of the apprehension long entertained that a foreign, and possibly an unfriendly power, might establish itself too near them. To use the language of the King in ceding the islands—if matters had remained as they had been for twenty years previously—"Fiji would have been like a piece of drift wood on the sea, to be picked up by the first passer by." Then as an emblem of the new order of things, the King despatched to the Queen his favourite war club—"Na Vu-ni-Valu," that is, the "root of war"—covered with emblems of peace. This characteristic weapon, at once symbolical of the rule that had prevailed in former days, and of the nature of its stalwart master, is now profusely adorned with silver ornaments, the handle being entwined with fern leaves, and doves in silver, and the top surmounted by a massive crown.* The Fijians being unstable as labourers, the planters have been forced to import the natives of the New Hebrides and other islands, particularly those of the Gilbert group, who, however, are neither so docile nor so industrious as the Hebrideans. The white settlers would—as is usually the case in such quarters—bear improvement, but they are certainly a vast improvement over the first European examples on whom the Fijians had to model their early civilisation. The last of the convict settlers was a polygamous individual, named Paddy Connor, who, among other worldly goods, possessed 110 wives and 48 children. He had led a life of the lowest depravity, but latterly chiefly concerned himself with

* Ricci: "Fiji; our new Province in the South Seas" (1875), p. 125.

the rearing of fowls and pigs, and was possessed but of one ambition, and that was that the number of his family might be increased to half a hundred. Originally he had been a "White Boy," and with his whole regiment deserted to the French on their landing in Ireland in 1802. He was afterwards transported, and passed nearly forty years on the Fijis. Commodore Wilkes saw him there in 1810. He spoke with a broad Irish brogue, and requested that if any of the story he told was untrue, he must be excused, for he had been so much in the habit of lying to the Fijians, that he hardly knew when he was telling the truth. Another early pioneer, Charlie Savage, was a Swede, but not a convict. He was also a man of greater intelligence and ambition than Connor, and among his numerous wives espoused the daughters of the greatest chiefs. He was killed in 1814 in an affray with the natives of Vanna Levu, who, having cooked and eaten him, made sail needles of his bones as a token of the victory they had gained over a man whose power was getting so great as to threaten a new despotism to them. Another typical character was "Harry, the Jew," who at an early period found his way to Fiji. In passing from island to "island at the gateway of the day," this individual of London birth and seafaring training had a chequered career. On one island he was on the point of being killed and baked; on another he found countrymen from whom he had soon to decamp, owing to a trifling difficulty he got into through disposing of a watch which would not, under any circumstances, go, while the Christian natives on another island finding that "he belonged to a people who had killed Christ," refused to receive him. At last, in the Namosi Valley—a hotbed of cannibalism—he found a resting-place, the honour of "brotherhood," and an infinitude of wives. He was, when last interviewed, so thoroughly Fijian, that he had lost all record of time, and could not tell whether he had been fifteen, twenty, or twenty-five years in the country, but this he was certain of—he hated all Christians, and was fond of Fijians.

Of the present residents and planters, shopkeepers, traders in *bêche-de-mer*, tortoiseshell, cocoa-nut oil, &c., the great majority are British subjects. There are, in addition, a few Americans, a good number of Germans, and a sprinkling of other nationalities, many of them men of fair standing and position. In a Consular Report it is stated that "the class of people settling in Fiji has much improved of late. They are chiefly British, and as a body bear a good reputation. Many arrive with a capital of from £2,000 to £3,000, and it may be said all possess some means. Among the planters are some who have held commissions in the army and navy; and a few of the officers who have served or are serving on the Australian naval station have invested capital in the country; others again have held public offices in the colonies, such as those of mayor, alderman, magistrate, and director of railways. There are also squatters, farmers, professional men, and tradespeople." The capital is not described as an attractive place. Liquor stores occupy too prominent a place in it, and the slouchy, idle whites, who seem all day loafing around them, with the still worse-looking natives, do not appear the most promising elements out of which the backbone of a colony can be formed. Happily for it they are not the backbone, and though eventually the natives will disappear, for the present, at least, beyond an epidemic of measles, their physical, if not their moral condition has not been deteriorated by the change of sovereignty. They number about



FIJIAN DANCE.

200,000, mostly savages, the majority lazy, and all treacherous and discontented, but the people who for the time profit most by the annexation are the two thousand whites scattered over the islands. Cannibalism, at one time frightfully prevalent among the Fijians, is now on the wane, and will soon become extinct.

TONGA, OR FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

These islands are situated about 250 miles to the west of the Fijis, but are neither so fertile nor so well wooded. The inhabitants number about 22,000, and owing to their enterprise, intelligence, and capacity for colonisation and association, have been called the Anglo-Saxons of the Pacific. Their Government, which is now framed on a European model, is said to be well conducted, and altogether very creditable to the King and his Prime Minister, an American gentleman. Coffee cultivation is being forced by a law which compels every householder to possess 25 coffee trees, and 200 cotton bushes, but the indolence of the natives does not always permit of their picking the crop, for it must not be lost sight of that the history of Tonga's civilisation is really the history of the King—George Tabu—his people showing little interest in the progress which he is forcing



NATIVES AND IDOL OF THE MARQUESAS.

them to adopt.* At latest accounts † he was a man over eighty years of age, and possesses more sagacity, energy, and liberality than any man in his dominions. The soil, though not so rich or so extensive as that of the Fijis, is sufficiently fertile. Indeed, it is too fertile for anything but the indigenous flora. For instance, potatoes yield only one crop, fresh seed having to be sown each time, but the sweet potato and yam succeed very well. Buying and selling copra is the chief commerce here, as in all the South Sea islands, and has of late almost displaced the cocoa-nut oil trade from the market. There are, besides, several British firms, branches of German houses, which carry on an immense trade with the Polynesian and Papuan Islands, and have their chief depôts in Samoa, doing business in Tonga.



CAPTAIN COOK TREATING WITH THE NATIVES OF THE SAMOAN ISLANDS.

Indeed, the Germans are obtaining a strong footing in all these islands, and it is feared among the British traders that the end of the wordy treaties entered into between the Berlin people and the Tongan King may be the eventual annexation of the group. The buildings in the capital are, in some cases, very good, the King's "palace" and the residences of the other leading men being really handsome structures, equal to the best appointed villas both in design and finish. The Tongans are a remarkably fine race, and until the annexation of the Fijis, lorded it over the less intelligent people of that group. They had even formed colonies in the Viti Archipelago, and had not the British Government absorbed the whole of the islands, there can be but little doubt that the Tongans would have done so, as already they were playing the part of the warrior race

* Consular Reports, 1866.

† His successor will be his son, David Unga, an intelligent, polished, and altogether European gentleman.

who had been called in by the Fiji King to aid in repressing his rebellious subject chiefs. Most of the natives are now Christians—either of the Wesleyan or Roman Catholic types—and it is no longer dangerous to travel unarmed over almost any of the islands. Owing to the comparatively small amount of land on the islands, the sale of any to foreigners has been properly prohibited, and, indeed, renting it has been stopped, as the King got tired of the endless exactions and annoyance of the Crown tenants. This will always prevent the natives from being swamped by whites, and already in the capital (Nukalofa, in the island of Tongatabu) there is a Legislative Assembly, a Custom House, Bank, Government printing-office, and so forth, in which most of the appointments are filled by natives. Mr. Spry describes the town of Nukalofa as prettily situated in a bread-fruit and cocoa-nut grove, which gives it a pleasing shady appearance, and yet is sufficiently open to admit the cool refreshing breezes of the trade winds. “Facing the sea are the Government offices, the residences of the King, the Governor, &c., while the native houses are lightly constructed of bamboo and palm leaves, and are for the most part surrounded with small enclosures, shut in by fences made of cocoa-nut fibre and leaves, and shaded by bread-fruit and other varieties of tropical trees of luxuriant foliage.” The natives still dress in their old fashion, but a decree has prevented the use of the *tapa*, or native cloth, beaten out of the bark of a species of mulberry, the object of the edict being to encourage the growth of cotton, and so enriching the islands.

NIUE, OR SAVAGE ISLAND.

This is a solitary islet, about thirty miles in circumference, with a population of over 4,000, lying eastward of the Tongas, and due south of the Navigators. Cook gave the island its name, owing to the “wild boar-like” ferocity with which the natives repelled any attempt at opening communication with them. John Williams was equally unsuccessful, and two natives, whom he had persuaded to accompany him for instruction, were slain by their countrymen, because shortly after their return home an epidemic broke out, and was attributed to their contact with the whites. Of late years missionary effort has been more successful. There is now a station on the island, and most of the people—indeed, it may be said all of them—are civilised, and as Christianised as they could be expected to become in the space of the few years which have elapsed since they were in the lowest state of savagery.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SAMOAN, SOCIETY, GEORGIAN, AND OTHER ISLANDS OF OCEANIA.

THE Samoan, or Navigator Islands, contain seventeen islands of some size, and though surrounded by coral reefs, most of them are of volcanic origin. Indeed, in several of them, there are extinct volcanoes. The Samoans are a very intelligent race, and missionary effort was at an early date so successful among them, that the people are now all civilised,

and devoted to the arts of peace, though even yet the want of a strong central Government allows too great power to the minor chiefs, who imitate other "civilised" Governments, by going to war with each other. The population is estimated at about 34,000, spread over an area of 1,162 square miles. The vegetable products are bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, bananas, palm, oranges, lemons, pine-apple, yams, coffee, nutmeg, wild sugar-cane, and other tropical plants. The islands carry on a considerable trade with Europe, chiefly through two or three great Hamburg mercantile houses, which have stations on these and other of the islands. The Samoas are exceedingly beautiful and rich. The small islet of Aborima is an extinct crater, with high walls all around, the only entrance to which is an opening capable of admitting one canoe at a time, and even then the entrance being guarded with trapping lines, the men stationed on the rocks could easily overturn all canoes that attempted to pass. Hence the people of Manono, to whom it belongs, have long used it as a kind of fortress, to which they have retreated in time of danger. In Savaii the mountains attain a height of 3,000 feet, and most of the islands are well watered, and abound in springs, lakes, and small rivers, which enable the rich soil to produce fruits in abundance, while vegetable food is supplemented by great numbers of poultry, hogs, and dogs, in all probability indigenous, or at least have been so long on the islands that the history of their introduction is now unknown. The capital is Apia, the nominal seat of government, and where consuls of various nations reside; but of late years the islands have been much disturbed by the efforts of an adventurer to obtain supreme control over them, and the almost open civil war has been the consequence. The King—or rather the principal chief—for the want of the islands is a central Government—has long been making overtures to England and the United States to take possession of them, but hitherto without success. Germany, however, has been casting imperial glances in that direction, and there can be but little doubt that in the end the Samoan group will become either a colony of Prussia, or a naval station for the Pacific fleet of the Empire.*

The Union, Tokelau, Fakaafoan, or Oatabuan group, consists of three islands of considerable size, and several smaller ones, lying 300 miles north of Samoan. Most of them are atolls, inhabited by about 1,000 people of Polynesian race, but still heathens of a quiet, undemonstrative description.

The Manihiki Isles consist of about ninety-two low, small reef isles, peopled by an inoffensive race, among whom the missionaries have made much progress.

SOCIETY, OR LEEWARD ISLANDS.

These form a cluster of six large and several smaller isles, and constitute three principalities—those of Borabora (p. 9), Raiatea, and Tahaa. Unlike the Tahitian Isles, which we will presently refer to, the Society group—discovered by Quiros in 1605, and named by Cook in honour of the Royal Society of London—they are independent. The largest island (Raiatea), sixty miles in circumference, mountainous and rugged, though

* Turner: "Nineteen Years in Polynesia" (1861); Pratt: "Grammar and Dictionary of the Samoan Language" (1878).

the coasts are low and swampy, and girdled by a barrier reef, has a population of 3,000. Huaveine, the next largest, has a population of 2,500, and the other isles a smaller number. But all the people are energetic and industrious, excellent shipbuilders, and capable of forging all the iron they require. In their own vessels of eighteen to twenty tons burthen, they trade in arrowroot, cocoa-nut oil, and other products, as far as Hawaii and California, and throughout Polynesia their flag, which is the same as the red and white ensign of Tahiti, is known and respected. A regular code of laws was solemnly enacted, in 1822, by the National Assembly of Huaveine, which code has since been



MATAVAI BAY, TAHITI.

adopted by the other principalities. The French, after their usurpation of a protectorate over Tahiti, seized the island of Huaveine, but they were soon forcibly expelled by the natives, who in 1847 received the assurance of the English Government that their independence, and that of the other islands of the Leeward group, would be protected, in consequence of a guarantee entered into with the French Government. The people are all Christians.

GEORGIAN, WINDWARD, OR TAHITIAN ISLANDS.

These are five in number—Tahiti, Tapamanoa, Eimeo, Titouaroa, and Maitea, in addition to the usual cluster of little islets which dot the Polynesian Archipelagos. Tahiti, or Otaheite, is the chief of the group. It has an area of 430 square miles, and a population



YOUNG MEN OF TAHITI.

of 7,000, including that of Papeite, the capital, a pleasant little town of mingled French and Polynesian character. The interior of the island (p. 72) is very mountainous, the highest peak attaining an elevation of 11,500 feet, but along the coast there is a rich level tract, cultivated by the natives and the European planters who have settled on the island (p. 68). The scenery is very fine—high precipitous hills, alternating with lovely valleys, and lakes embosomed amid tropical vegetation, the whole country rejoicing in a climate perfectly healthy and more enjoyable even to Europeans than that of most of the other Polynesian islands. It is Tahiti which Byron calls—

“ ——— — The happy shores without a law.

* * * * *

Where all partake the earth without dispute,
 And bread itself is gather'd as a fruit;
 Where none contest the fields, the woods, the streams.
 The godless age, when gold disturbs no dreams,
 Inhabits or inhabited the shore,
 Till Europe taught them better than before.
 Bestow'd her customs, and amended theirs,
 But left her vices also to their heirs.”

The Tahitians (p. 67) bear the reputation of being one of the most handsome of the Oceanic races; all of them are Christians, and though a few of them, since the French missionaries came to the islands, have become Roman Catholics, the greater number of them cling to the old teachers who first taught them the new faith and the arts of peace. Sugar, cotton, coffee, indigo, arrowroot, cocoa-nut oil, &c., are among the products of the Tahitian islands, and prior to the establishment of the French protectorate large quantities of these articles were exported. But since the people have been subjected to a foreign yoke they have lost heart, and from being active agriculturists, have sunk into a state of apathy and dependence.* In 1876 the gross imports into Tahiti, from all countries, the South Sea Islands excepted, may be estimated approximately at £130,000, but a considerable portion of their goods are transhipped to the neighbouring islands. The exports were valued—in Tahiti—at £124,000, and consisted of cotton, copra,† cocoa-nut oil, pearl-shells, edible fungus (for China), oranges, cocoa-nuts, lime-juice, bêche-de-mer, vanilla, guano (re-exported), pearls, logs of Tamana and other timber, arrowroot, coffee, honey, wax, and other products of the islands. The pearl-shells, however, come from the Low Islands (p. 72), dependences of Tahiti, while other of the exports were from the French possessions of the Marquesas, the Society, and Harvey Islands, &c.‡

Pomare, King of Tahiti, was the first convert to Christianity. He died in 1821, and after the short reign of a young son, was succeeded in 1827 by a daughter, who is still nominally Queen of the islands, though in 1812 the French, under the thin disguise of a “protectorate,” took forcible possession of the islands. The Queen appealed to Europe in defence of her rights, and for assistance to her people so bravely asserting their independence, but in vain; and at the present day the islands, in their policy, commerce, and civilised institutions, are virtually French. The present population of Tahiti and the other protected

* Pritchard: “Polynesian Reminiscences” (1860).

† Dried cocoa-nut kernels.

‡ Consular Reports, 1878.

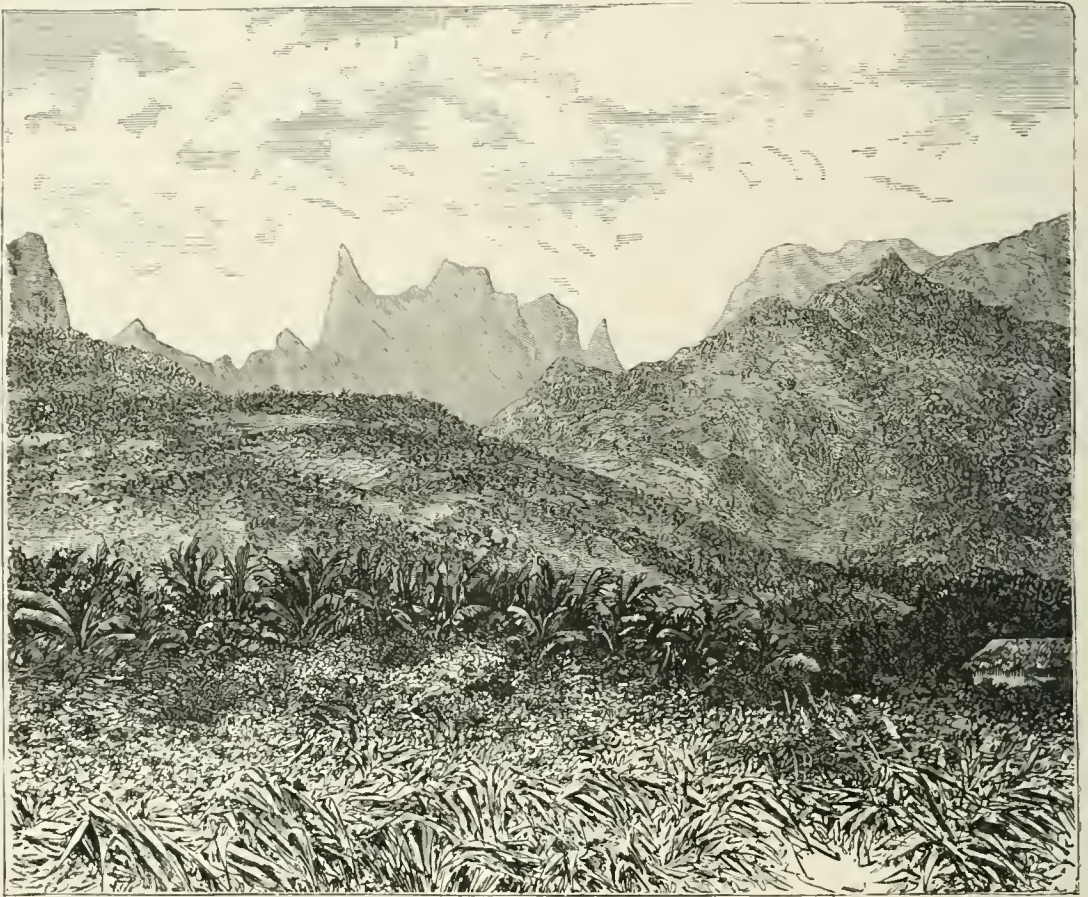
islands is under 10,000, and owing to the introduction of European diseases, rum, and other concomitants of civilisation, the number is rapidly decreasing, though the introduction of the temperance movement, led by the Queen, has done much to check the tide of drunkenness which was so rapidly overspreading the land. The higher-class natives are well educated, either in the schools which the French have established in Tahiti, or in the South Sea Academy, instituted in 1827, on the picturesque island of Eimeo, for the instruction of the children of Polynesian missionaries, merchants, and others, without the necessity of sending them either to America, Europe, or to New Zealand. The French "protectorate" is exercised most jealously, and even harshly. Since the inauguration of this wolf-like guardianship of the lambs, owing to some fancied insult to the French flag as far back as 1838, the islands have been going from bad to worse, and though the Queen is allowed £1,000 per annum, she is daily subjected to annoyance, and even to personal indignities. Indeed, so strictly is the line drawn, that when the Queen was offered a passage to Morea on board the *Challenger*, the authorities objected, on the plea that holding the position she did, she could only go there in a French ship. At one time the French spent a good deal of money upon the islands, but of late the decree has been passed that Tahiti must pay its own expenses. The result is high import duties, and countless restrictions on trade in every direction. The plantations are returning to their natural condition, and the remnant of the island commerce is in the hands of foreigners. Papeite, the capital, is a very ordinary looking village, pleasant, but without any imposing features. The dwellings of the Europeans, as described by Mr. Spry, are constructed for the most part of wood, are roofed with palm leaves, and extend "all along the edge of the bay, while diverging or running at right angles, or parallel, are pretty roads, which help to make regular streets, around which, and on every side, rise up bread-fruit, cocoa, palm, and orange trees, which make up in cheerfulness for any deficiency in effect" (p. 17). At one time great things were expected from Tahitian plantations, and the Tahiti Cotton and Coffee Plantation Company (Limited) is a sore subject to many of those who invested their money in what turned out an utter failure commercially. At Atimano, the scene of this venture, the houses are falling into decay, the estate is becoming a wild and desolate plain, and the whole affair remains a monument of bad management, and the recklessness with which sanguine men will spend what is not their own.

THE HARVEY, OR COOK'S ISLES.

These are distant about 500 miles from the Society Isles, and about the same distance from the Samoan group. They are eleven in number, but the largest is Raratonga, or Oruruti, a volcanic island, with mountains 4,000 feet in height. In 1823 the population was about 8,000, but the people have now dwindled down to about 3,000, all converts to Christianity, and living peaceably among themselves under three kings, one of whom is the suffragan of the other two. The other islands—also Christianised—are ruled each by its own chief; they possess a population of 16,000 in all, though, as in Raratonga, this is decreasing. At first such was the ferocity of the people of these islands, that the missionaries had to desert them. But nowadays the whole of the Bible, and many educational and religious books, have been translated into, or written in their tongue, and printed

and bound on the islands by natives trained in the typographical arts. Few—if any of the young—are unable to read and write, and many of the people have been educated as teachers and missionaries.

The Austral, or Toubouai Isles, comprise five principal and several smaller ones, distant 300 or 400 miles south of Tahiti. The natives—now only about 2,000 in number*—are



MOUNT DIADEM, TAHITI.

Christians, and own the “protectorate” of France, from the fact that at one time the islands were dependents of Tahiti. The islands are expressly beautiful and fertile, and, according to Mr. Chisholm, the natives are some of the best specimens of a Polynesian people.

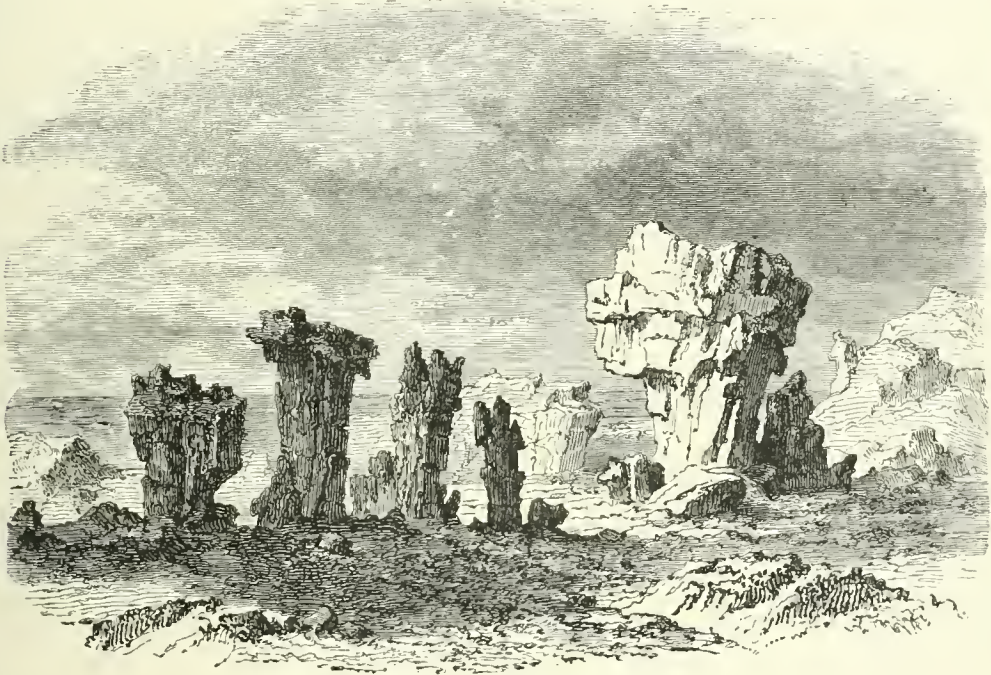
LOW ARCHIPELAGO; PITCAIRN ISLAND.

The Panmotus, Dangerous, or Low Archipelago, consists of eighty-one islands, scattered over a watery area of 1,852 square miles, but of which only 76 square miles are habitable

* According to general consensus. But the French Official Reports—the latest of which is 1864—puts the population as low as 675, probably an under estimate.

land. These islands are said to contain only about thirty species of trees and plants, and though most of the islands are habitable, none of them are thickly peopled. Anaa, or Chain Island, the chief of them, has a population of 5,000; but the whole group is believed not to have 10,000 in all. Most of the inhabitants profess Christianity, and are tolerably civilised under a French protectorate. Their trade consists chiefly in cocoa-nut oil, tortoiseshell, and pearls, which are sent to Tahiti for export (p. 70).

Among the outliers of the group is Pitcairn Island, a basaltic patch out of sight of any other land, five miles long by one broad, and surrounded on nearly every side by cliffs



ROCKS IN THE PAUMOTUS ARCHIPELAGO.

over 1,000 feet in height (p. 77). Its only interest consists in the fact that it has become the home of the descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty*. In 1787 Lieutenant Bligh—to repeat in the briefest possible manner this familiar tale—was sent to search for the bread-fruit tree among the islands of the Pacific with a view to its introduction into the West Indies. A long stay at Tahiti had utterly demoralised a crew composed of elements then too common in the English navy, and it only required the exercise of the tyranny of the martinet captain to precipitate (in 1789) the rebellion for which they were ripe. The ringleader was Fletcher Christian, Acting Lieutenant, who, after casting adrift the captain and the few who adhered to him in an open boat,* sailed for Tahiti. However, fearing pursuit, Christian, leaving a number of his companions, who preferred to

* They afterwards reached Timor, 3,600 nautical miles from the place where they were abandoned (near Tofua, one of the Friendly Islands).

stay on the island, set sail in search of a new home, and finally settled on Pitcairn Island, and burnt the *Bounty*. The whole colony then consisted of nine British seamen, six Tahitian men, and twelve women of the same race. Concord among a band of such desperadoes was impossible, and accordingly within the next ten years all the Tahitian men, several of the women, and all the sailors, with the exception of Alexander Smith—who took the name of John Adams—and a few of the women, had died of violence or disease. Twelve of the mutineers who had remained behind in Tahiti were subsequently captured, and three of them were hanged, but all search for the remainder was abandoned, and the story of the mutiny was becoming a mere naval tradition, when, in 1808, the captain of an American ship reported that he had touched at Pitcairn Island—discovered by Carteret in 1767, and named in honour of the midshipman who first sighted it*—and found there Adams and the descendants of his companions in crime. It was not, however, until 1814, that a British war-ship called at the island. Adams was then still alive, and had changed his ways of life so much that he was now the guide, philosopher, and friend of the younger generation, teaching them to revere the flag and the nation he had so dishonoured, and to walk in those ways of righteousness which the quondam A. B. of the *Bounty*, during the period he ate the king's biscuit and drank too freely of his rum, had been ignorant of. The results of his efforts had been so successful, that the descendants of the mutineers were a model, virtuous race, amiable and simple-minded to a degree that exists only in Utopia, except in the South Seas. After this they were frequently visited by British ships, and in 1831 their number had become so great, that the island was found too inconveniently small for them. Accordingly, at their own request, they were conveyed by the British Government to Tahiti. The immorality of their relatives in that island, however, so disgusted them, that they sold the copper bolts of the *Bounty*, and with the proceeds chartered a vessel to take them back to Pitcairn Island. In 1839 they were taken under the protection of England, owing to the annoyances they suffered from the visits of the lawless crews of whalers. A code of laws was drawn up for them by Captain Elliot of H.M.S. *Fly*, who also gave them a British ensign, and recognised the Governor whom they had elected in place of old Adams, who had died in 1829, full of years, and the honour which an old age, well spent, after a youth of dissipation, won for him from those to whom he had forfeited his life for his crime of thirty-nine years before.† Pitcairn Island now became a familiar locality, and in 1855, finding their numbers disproportionate to the land at their disposal, they were granted the much more productive and larger Norfolk Island, which, owing to the abandonment of transportation, had been cleared of criminals. However, some years later, several families again removed to Pitcairn Island, reducing the

* It has been supposed to be the "Encarnacion" of Quiros; but this is impossible, as Encarnacion—most probably the island now called Ducie—is described as a "low, sandy island," which is the very antipodes of what Pitcairn is.

† This is the generally accepted statement. But it is only fair to mention that the step-daughter of Adams—an old woman, who in 1878 was still living on the island—does not give quite so good a character of him. Family differences, however, may have had something to do with this, and the other statement that it was Young, and not Adams, who did all the teaching of the young Pitcairners.

number of those left in Norfolk Island to 202. Those on the latter island still retain their virtuous character, though, owing to their more frequent intercourse with Europeans, they have acquired the manners of civilised society, with some of its less reprehensible tastes. Music they are exceedingly fond of, while dancing they inherit as a passion from their ancestors. The men engage in whaling, and herding cattle, or cultivating their little plantations, while the women attend to their families, and assist in the farm duties. The faction who returned to Pitcairn Island are, however, the more interesting portion of these people. They retain all their pristine innocence, love of England, which they never saw, and of their English relatives. On no island can the mariner be wrecked with greater safety than on Pitcairn, for hospitality to a fault, and unselfish kindness, is the lot of every one. In 1875 one of twenty-three shipwrecked men of the Liverpool ship *Khandeish* who sighted the island, after rowing in open boats three days and nights, writes as follows:—"Soon a boat was put off from the island and came alongside of us; she was manned by seven or eight fine young men, who brought us provisions, rightly presuming us to be a shipwrecked crew. They put one of their own hands into our boat and piloted us to the island, where we were most kindly and hospitably received, nearly all the inhabitants coming on to the beach to welcome us. The best beds in the houses were put apart for us, and we were in all respects treated more like brothers than a lot of sailors. The cocoa-nut, bread-fruit, pine-apple, and many other fruits grow in great abundance, especially oranges, lemons, and citrons. There are seventy-three inhabitants all told, men, women, and children, some being very handsome, the women having beautiful hair, and, allowing for the hot sun, have fairer skins than would be supposed, being hardly darker than Europeans. They depend on passing vessels for all their clothes and agricultural implements, &c., always going barefoot except on Sundays, when some few of them wear boots. They grow sweet potatoes, yams, cotton, arrowroot, and Indian corn, which they give in exchange for clothes. The chief person in the island is Simon Young, grandson of Midshipman Young. He officiates in church on Sunday, also at the day and Sunday-schools; they use the Church of England service, and generally read a sermon from some volume.* All have a fine ear for music, and sing most beautifully. When anything has to be decided they call a general meeting, and go by the majority of votes. They still have a cannon which belonged to the *Bounty*, and a carpenter's vice. We were on the island fifty-two days before we sighted a ship, and were treated with the greatest kindness all the while. We left one of our crew behind us, he having married one of the inhabitants during our stay. Consumption is the only disease known among them, of which, I believe, the youngest daughter of Simon Young has died since I returned to England. There is a great scarcity of water, which, they fear, will eventually force them to leave the island. Crockery is much needed, as in cases of accident they cannot get it replaced. Musical instruments would be much appreciated in their singing school." Still more recently † Admiral De Horsey, R.N., visited and reported upon the island. He confirms the account we have given, and adds to it many interesting particulars. The population, at present, numbers ninety of all ages, of which forty-

* In 1852 a chaplain was sent out to them, but he went with the majority to Norfolk Island.

† In September, 1878.

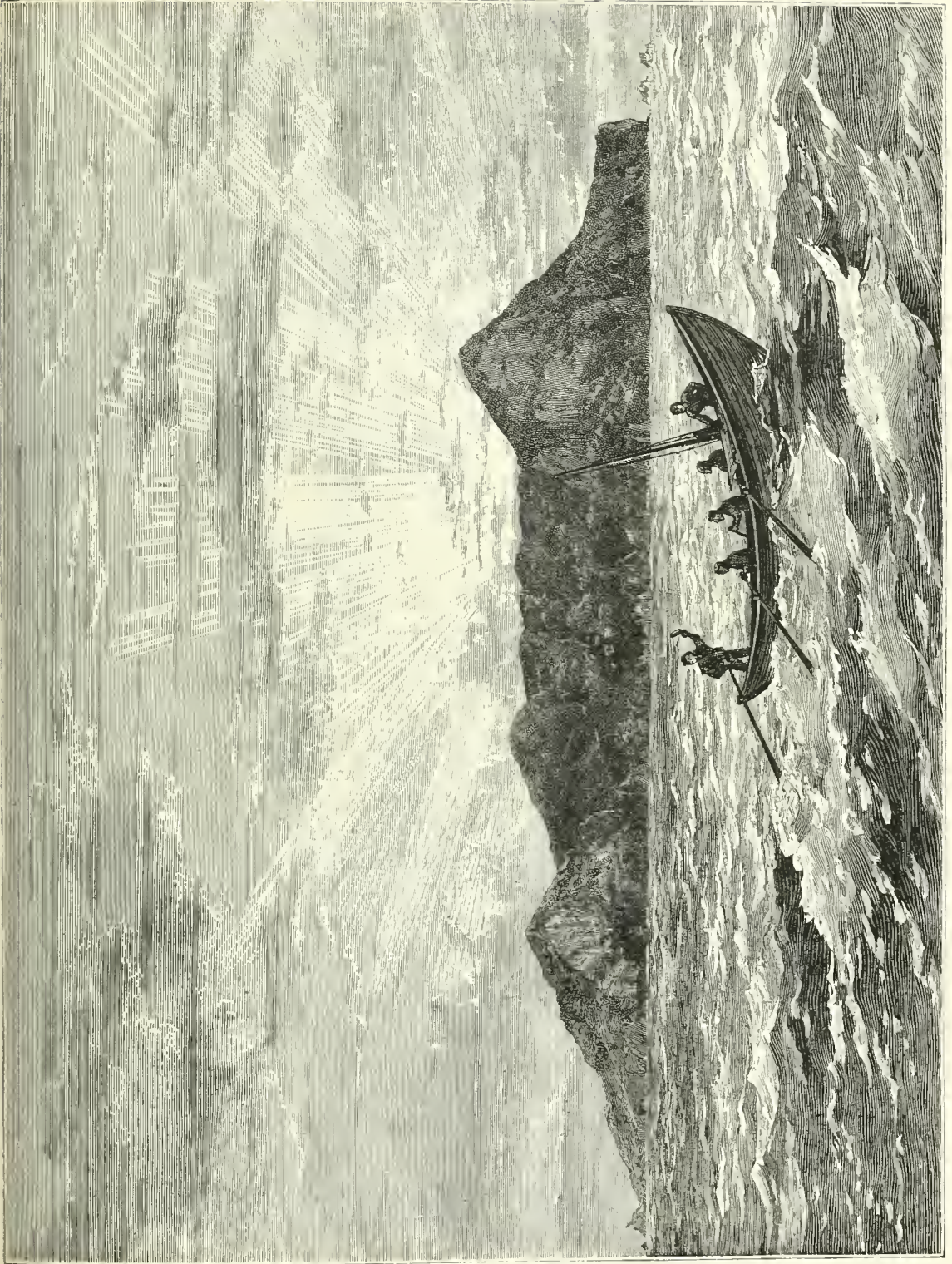
one are males, and forty-nine females. There is but one survivor of the generation which immediately followed the mutiny, viz., Elizabeth Young, aged eighty-eight, daughter of John Mills, gunner's-mate of the *Bounty*, and of an Otaheitian mother. The oldest man on the island is Thursday October Christian, aged fifty-nine, grandson of Fletcher Christian, the ringleader of the mutineers. The population may be further described as consisting of sixteen men, nineteen women, twenty-five boys, and thirty girls. The deaths on the island have numbered about twelve in the last nineteen years. No contagious diseases visit the island, nor are the animals subject to disease. The governor of the island is at present James Russell M'Koy, who is also steersman of the boat which he built—the only one on the island—in place of the one which was destroyed in saving a shipwrecked crew.* This "magistrate and chief ruler" is "in subordination to Her



JOHN ADAMS' HOUSE, PITCAIRN ISLAND (1825).

Majesty the Queen of Great Britain," and not only administers the laws, but enacts them. There are two councillors to advise and assist the chief magistrate, while the "heads of families" are convened for consultation when required. The laws bear no date, but were drawn up by the present chief magistrate on accession to office, and are evidently compiled from former ones now destroyed. Admiral De Horsey remarks that the "almost puerile simplicity of the laws is, perhaps, the best evidence of the good conduct of the people." The law is merely preventive—no case of the only three crimes contemplated as possible—murder and assault not being among them—having been known to occur since the laws were enacted. The governor is elected annually on New Year's Day, and is open to re-election. Both sexes of and above the age of seventeen have a vote. The pious characteristics of the people I have already referred to, and the Admiral adds that family prayers are said in every house the first thing in the morning, and the last thing in the evening, and no food is partaken of without asking God's

* That of the *Cornwallis*.



PITCAIRN ISLAND.

blessing before and afterwards. Fifty-four years ago Captain Beechey wrote that "these excellent people appear to live together in perfect harmony and contentment, to be virtuous, religious, cheerful, and hospitable; to be patterns of conjugal and parental affection, and to have few vices." The same eulogium still applies to the children who have followed in the footsteps of their parents. Sunday is strictly observed, but in no pharisaical spirit, for the people are eminently religious, and find their chief pleasure in prayer and praise, and moreover their walk and conversation are in keeping with their professions. The chaplain and schoolmaster is Simon Young, who in the duties of the latter office is assisted by his daughter. "The instruction comprises reading, writing, arithmetic, Scripture, history, and geography. The girls learn sewing, and hat-making as well, and the whole are taught part-singing very effectively. Every child and unmarried woman at present has to attend school from nine to twelve, and from one to three p.m. Schooling is conducted in the church-house, the same built by John Adams (p. 76), one end of which is used as a library, open to all. English is the only language spoken or known." On the island are a few sheep, goats, pigs, fowls, cats, and dogs, and—though Admiral De Horsey does not mention the fact—not long ago it was reported that a plague of mice threatened the destruction of the islanders' crops. There are no springs on the island, but as it rains generally once a month, they have usually sufficient water, though there have been years in which they suffered from drought. Scarcely any trees good for timber grow on the island, and there is no money on it, except a few coins kept as curiosities. There are also no alcoholic liquors used, except for medicinal purposes, and a drunkard is as unknown as a doubloon. The men are chiefly employed in growing beans, carrots, turnips, sweet potatoes, yams, plantains, cabbages, and a little maize. Pine-apples, figs, custard-apples, &c., are common, but the bread-fruit tree, which was at one time plentiful, is now rapidly dying out. They also employ themselves in house-building, canoe fishing, and the women in cooking, sewing, hat and basket-making, as do their relatives on Norfolk Island, and all take their share in public work when required to do so. The only communication they have with the outer world is with passing ships, averaging about once a month. But even this is precarious, as most ships "fetch" to windward of the island, and those which do sight it—chiefly vessels on their way to or from San Francisco—are frequently unable to communicate. They have no communication whatever with Tahiti, and very rarely with Norfolk Island or New Zealand. A few of the islanders have experienced a desire to return to Norfolk Island—a not unnatural wish for a change—but the chief magistrate thinks none are likely to go. "Her Majesty the Queen," concludes the Admiral, "does not, I believe, possess in any part of the world more loyal and affectionate subjects than this little knot of settlers. I may here observe that a notion appears to prevail among the Piteairn Islanders that her Majesty's Government are displeased with them for having returned from Norfolk Island (which as their lordships are aware, they did in two parties, the first in 1859, and the rest, I think, in 1864), although their return was, I believe, at their own expense, and they have since been no burden to the Crown. This notion, whence received I know not, I ventured to affirm was without foundation, feeling assured that her Majesty's Government would rather honour them for preferring the primitive simplicity of their

native island, to either the dissolute manners of Otaheite, or even the more civilised but less pure and simple ways of Norfolk Island. No one acquainted with these islanders could fail to respect them. A religious, industrious, happy, and contented people, they will lose rather than gain by contact with other communities." This primitive simplicity, we fear, is destined in time to be deteriorated. As ships more and more frequently visit them, and shipwrecked crews reside on the island, the moral barometer will inevitably fall. Indeed, already, Admiral De Horsey remarks that the presence of an American—probably the love-sick mariner referred to (p. 75)—among them is a doubtful acquisition to the islanders. There is even a possibility that from being treated with neglect, or simply as curiosities of civilisation, they will be petted and spoilt. They were, at the date of Admiral De Horsey's visit, in want of flannel, serge, drill, half-boots, combs, tobacco, soap, and tools, and as the boat which they had built was rapidly going to decay, a new one—or even two—in case of accidents, was urgently required. Owing to the exertions of some benevolent people interested in their behalf, two boats have been obtained, in addition to funds wherewith to equip the islanders with some of the other necessaries and comforts they require, and the Admiralty is willing that a war-ship should now and then visit them. Meantime, therefore, they will have some encouragement to persevere in their praiseworthy, but hitherto unacknowledged, efforts on behalf of shipwrecked crews; though we hardly think that English munificence is usually so long memorialised that it will develop a potentiality for pauperism among the descendants of those whom Byron celebrated in his poem of "Christian and his Comrades." And as nobody has as yet proposed to send them an attorney, an apothecary, a politician, or a journalist, it is possible that it may be some time before Mr. M'Koy or his successor will find it necessary to drive forth any corrupting agency from the Pitcairn Paradise.*

MARQUESAS, GAMBIER, AND SCATTERED GROUPS.

Leaving Pitcairn Island, smaller than most of the Oceanic isles, yet more interesting than almost any one of them, the Hawaiian kingdom excepted, we must, before arriving at New Zealand, touch in the briefest possible manner at one or two other groups of some interest. The Marquesas—Mendaña, or Washington—group, is composed of thirteen principal islands, and many smaller islets. The largest is Nukahiva, eighteen miles by ten, now containing a population of a few thousands, though at one time it had many more, and, indeed, on the island there are signs of an ancient civilisation of which history has preserved no record. All the islands are volcanic, and in Nukahiva there is one central extinct volcanic cone 3,812 feet in height. The islands produce sugar-cane, cotton, cocoa-nuts, bamboos, yams, and other tropical products, but though the French claim authority over the islands, the population, numbering, according to an official census of 1875,† about 6,011, are for the most part fierce and warlike, and in a state of cruel and sensual heathenism (Plate XXXIII., and p. 80). They are,

* The old but ever-fresh story of the mutiny of the *Bounty* and its sequence has been told in a variety of publications. Among them may be enumerated Barrow: "Mutiny of the *Bounty*" (1835); Murray: "Pitcairn; the Island, the People, and the Pastor" (1864); Belcher: "Mutineers of the *Bounty*" (1870); the works of Shillibeer, Brodie, and Meinicke, and an article in *Cassell's Family Magazine*, 1879.

† This seems an under-estimate, for in publications of authority, not twenty years old, they are given as high as 30,000.

nevertheless, about the finest race in Polynesia, and until the Spaniards—after the method of their nation—managed to incense the natives by their cruelties, they were considered



YOUNG WARRIOR, OLD MAN, AND WOMAN OF THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

rather a mild and amiable people. Another name, execrated to this day by the people of Nukahiva, is that of a certain Captain Porter, who more than sixty years ago took forcible possession of the island, and committed unprovoked cruelties on the unoffending inhabitants.

The Gambier Isles are a small group on the south-east of the Low Archipelago, consisting of five considerable and several smaller isles, situated on a lagoon, an examination of which first suggested to Darwin his theory that atolls are isles of depression. In 1873 the population numbered 1,500, and like that of the former group is under French "protection."

The Scattered Isles are in the north-central portion of Polynesia, east of the Marshall and Gilbert groups, and to use the words of Dr. Bryce, "are so separated from one another, as to render grouping impossible." Among these may be mentioned Christmas, Fanning,* Palmyra, Jarvis, Malden, Starbuck's, Penrhyn, Sara-Ann, Dudososa, Samarang, and others. Most of them are lagoon isles, and show a slight elevation, "the lagoon in several being converted into dry land." The Phoenix and Central Polynesian groups, "with Baker,



"IN THE CORAL SEA."

Howland, and Jarvis between, are all true coral reefs, and most of them have lagoons; in some, however, this is filled up, and several, as Washington, Oatafu, and some others, give proof of a slight elevation."

LORD HOWE ISLAND, NORFOLK ISLAND, AND THE KERMEDEC GROUP.

Howe Island is another little basaltic patch, not far from the coast of Australia, which does not appear to have been inhabited by aborigines—as Pitcairn would seem to have been at some very early period—and is of no ethnological importance. Yet, like Juan Fernandez, Ascension, Tristan d'Acunha, Inaccessible Isle, and other oceanic rocks and islets, it has a history and an interest all its own. Its interest is, however, like that of Pitcairn, one that appeals far more forcibly to the mind than does the *embarass de richesse* of the thickly-peopled groups which we have glanced at. Saving

* In the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1879, and in *Die Bevölkerung der Erde* for 1878, Drs. Behm and Wagner put Fanning Isle among the British Colonies, and give its population, twenty years ago, at 150. Malden is also classed as such, and its population put down as seventy-nine in 1876, but that of Starbuck's is not enumerated.

a little time, therefore, from isles that are better known or merely attractive to ethnologists, let us halt for a brief space at this little visited one. Does anybody weary for a "lodge in some vast wilderness?" That very undesirable residence is now a little difficult to be had. The world is fast filling up, and railways, steamboats, and tour contractors are agencies most inimical to hermits of all degrees. Still there is a chance, and for a man weary of his species I can entirely recommend Lord Howe Island. Out of the multiplicity of isles "amid the melancholy main," it is puzzling on even a good atlas to pick the one dedicated to the hero of "the glorious 1st of June." Ships sail in and out of Sydney Harbour, yet few ever land at this tiny islet, discovered as far back as 1788 by Lieutenant Henry Ball, while on a voyage to Norfolk Island from Port Jackson, in New South Wales. No land lies nearer it than Port Macquarie, 300 miles west, and Norfolk Island is nearly double that distance from this lonely spot. Only about seven miles long and two or three in breadth at its greatest width, a vessel might be almost in the vicinity of it without being aware of its situation, were it not for the high oceanic peak of Ball's Pyramid (p. 84), which can be seen twelve or thirteen miles distant. But its own hills are even higher, Mount Gower being 2,800 and Mount Ledgbird some 100 feet lower. The soil is volcanic, but rich, and covered with a bounteous vegetation of palms, screw pines, and wild figs, and a dense undergrowth of ferns, grasses, and the fairy-like orchids that twine from trunk to trunk. Wild pigs are the only large bush animals, but goats are nearly as abundant as they were on that other island of romance whilom reputed to be the home of Robinson Crusoe, of York, mariner. Fruit trees and culinary vegetables grow abundantly, and among the first features which strike the weather-beaten seaman who comes on this summer isle of Eden are the orange groves, and the patches of water-melons, pomegranates, onions, potatoes, Indian corn, pumpkins, and tobacco—all of which have been introduced. Vines grow well, and the banana ripens its great golden bunches of delicious fruit. Dogs yelp round the houses, oxen plough the patches of cultivated land, horses there are a few, while the cat, which follows woman all over the world, is on Lord Howe Island kept in full occupation by the swarms of mice which have taken up their quarters in this secluded siding of the globe. There are swarms of ducks, pigeons, paroquets, magpies, doves, and mutton birds, valuable for their oil, though not particularly toothsome as food, while off the reefs fish of many kinds can be caught in abundance. No reptile, not even a lizard, exists on the island; and its woods are frequented by no animals more terrible than pigs and errant cats, who dine sumptuously on parrots and turtle-doves every day of their vagabond lives. Even in that prosaic Admiralty paper from which we take these particulars the land seems a paradise, and none the less paradisaical because it is a small one.

Lord Howe Island we find on the maps, but it does not seem that even the ubiquitous tourist has managed to reach this far-away land. In vain we search the British Museum for its literature, and even the librarian of the Royal Geographical Society shakes his learned head when his *clientèle* asks for the latest or any other book on this patch in the Australian seas. Few ships—and every year fewer than ever—touch at it. Victoria takes no cognisance of it, and even New South Wales has not had its earth-hunger whetted by the sight of the oceanic fragment which lies to the west of it. Lord Howe Island

is, in fact, a no man's land, and as yet no king, kaiser, or potentate of any type has claimed jurisdiction over it. It is interesting, therefore, to hear that it is partially inhabited. A merchant vessel bound on a voyage from Melbourne to Fiji, recently became becalmed off it, and was immediately saluted in English by two men who came alongside in a boat, and found an anchorage for the vessel. Shortly afterwards a bullock was seen in harness coming towards the beach, drawing a sledge laden with fowls, oranges, bananas, eggs, and other good things. These the delighted settlers insisted on the captain accepting, without making for them any charge whatever. On shore, a pleasant and even civilised community of twenty persons, including several children, were found. All of them were English or American, and one old lady had lived on the island over thirty years. Here she had buried her husband, a quondam whaler, and here her daughter was married, and her four grandchildren born. They are most primitive and simple-minded in their ideas, enjoy excellent health, and, having abundance of food, no taxes, no newspapers, no politics, few bickers, no heartburnings, little unsatisfied ambition, and therefore no anxiety for the future or the present, are very contented and happy. The great event in the simple annals of their lives is the arrival of a ship, and of all ships a man-of-war. Sometimes they are six or even twelve months without sighting a sail, and men-of-war do not usually appear much oftener than once in four or five years, if as often nowadays. They are said to lead moral lives, and open quarrels of any kind are much more unusual amongst them than in that Bahama isle of which Mark Twain gives so ludicrous, if perhaps, not strictly "reliable" a description. They have no established form of government, but a retired whaling captain, an old man, was in 1877 the general arbiter to whom they referred all disputed questions. His opinion is looked up to with profound respect, and from his decision there is usually no appeal. Their food is pork, fish, fowls, onions, potatoes, &c., and what they can obtain from passing ships in exchange for their own commodities. At present there are—according to Mr. Corrie, who in 1877 presented a Report on the island to the Admiralty—about 40 or 50 acres under cultivation, and some 150 to 200 under grass. The families each cultivate their four or six acres, growing potatoes, maize, onions, tobacco, and obtaining their animal food by either killing their domestic fowls, cattle, or pigs, or hunting the wild ones in the bush.

The hunting, indeed, of these wild pigs affords the chief amusement of the islanders. One of the first things which strikes any one landing is the number of ferocious-looking dogs, either chained or loose, though in reality their character quite belies their appearance, most of them being very docile brutes of various crosses. They are the "hunters," while those which are secured are more of the bull-dog type, and are called "holders." The pig-hunter has at least three dogs, two "finders" and one "holder." "The finders seek for and bring the pig to bay. The hunter is guided by their cry, and hastens to the spot, having the holder in leash. When near enough the holder is slipped, and at once, at the risk of being torn open, should it be a boar, or severely bitten, if a sow, it takes hold of the pig by the ear; one of the other dogs then, if good, sometimes seizes the other ear. This is the moment for the hunter, who, watching the opportunity, rushes in, and, taking the animal by the leg, overturns it, and planting his

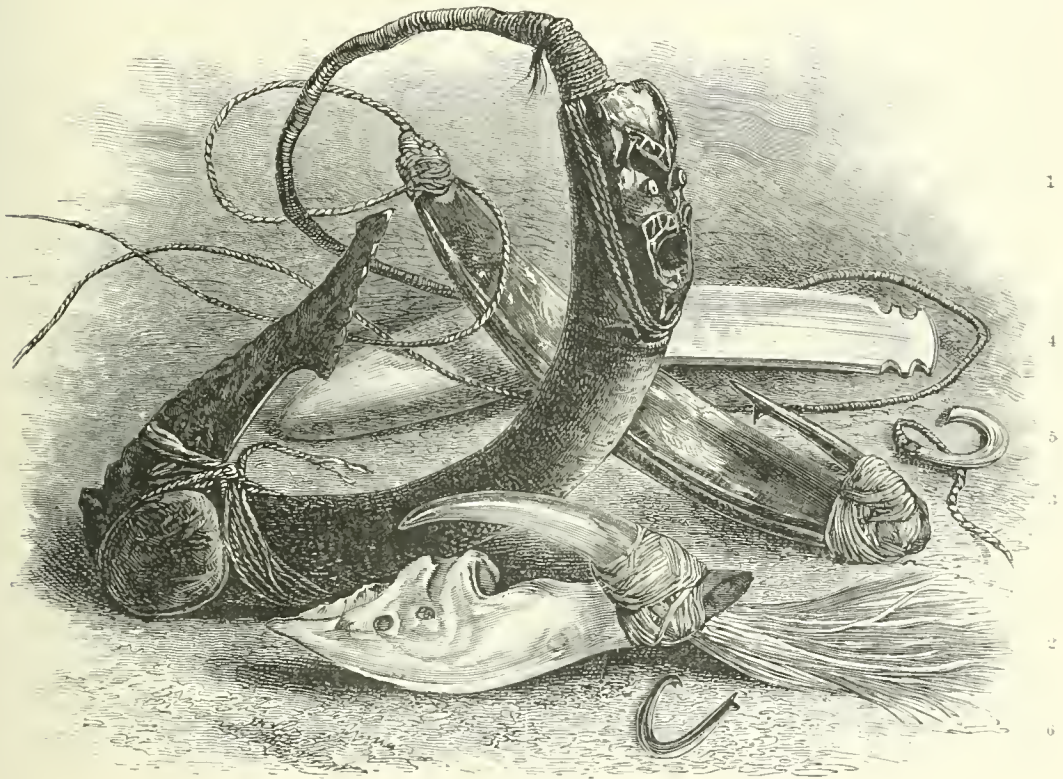
foot on its neck, the moment he can make his dogs let go, plunges his knife into the throat, and the hunt is over." Of course, should the dog not have pluck enough to hold on a sufficient length of time, or quit hold before the hunter is quite ready to stick the pig, the chances are that it will turn round on its pursuer, and in a trice the positions of hunter and hunted are reversed. A rough game of cricket and a "hand" at enchre seem about their only other pastimes. They have no doctors, and hence, as might be expected, do not require any. There is no cemetery, each family burying their relatives on isolated little spots of ground selected by themselves. Beyond suspending all work and amusement on the Sunday they have no form of religion. They have few books, the small library they possessed having been burnt some years ago, and as yet a Church dignitary has not considered the Howites worthy of his attention. The only complaint they made to their last visitors was that they had no schoolmaster, and as ships rarely visit them now they were often in want of clothing. Once on a time Howe Island was a great resort of whalers to procure wood, water, and fresh provisions to enable them to prosecute their voyage without the necessity of going into port. In these palmy days as many as sixty or eighty vessels would touch there in the course of the year, and accordingly it not unfrequently happened that the island had English news from American ships some weeks before the same was known in New South Wales. It is believed that the first settlers were three white men and three Maori women, who came in 1834. But finding that they could make but little money they soon left. A doctor lived there for three years, and whalers were in the habit of calling there and staying for a short period as a sort of holiday "run ashore." In 1835 there were only nine people on the island. In 1853 they had increased to sixteen, and in 1877 there were forty; but this number seemed to have dwindled down to twenty-five, which was the census at the latest date. Five years ago a ketch left the island for Sydney with eight souls on board, but was never heard of again. Gradually the place will get depopulated. The inhabitants have become disheartened, owing to the few ships which touch at their quiet home. They are naturally attached to a place where many of them were born, and dread going out again into the great world; but with their produce rotting in their barns, and their kinsmen having apparently forgotten them, there will certainly not be much attraction in Lord Howe Island for another generation. This rich spot is, however, capable of supporting three or four hundred people, and it is just possible may in time become of more importance than it is at present. To whom does it belong? It would be perhaps cruel to suggest to the many kingdomless kings who figure in the *Almanach de Gotha* that here is the ideal monarchy where Bismarck must cease from troubling, and princelings may be at rest. Still, when there are as many candidates for an elective crown as there are for the hallportership of a City Company, it seems peculiar that no one has as yet dreamed of hoisting his flag over the fair little isle which bears the name of the victor of Ushant.*

Ball's Pyramid (p. 82), a lofty cone rising sheer out of the sea,† is situated not far from Lord Howe Island, and bears the name of the discoverer of that microcosm, and

* Corrie: "A Visit to Lord Howe Island" (*Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XXII., pp. 136—143).

† There is a good illustration of it in Palmer's "Kidnapping in the South Seas" (p. 127).

still farther south lies Norfolk Island, 900 miles east from Australia, and 300 miles due north of the North Cape of Australia. It contains an area of only $13\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, and even the whole of this space cannot be utilised, as the surface, though as a rule tolerably level, is broken by some hills, of which Mount Pitt—1,050 feet above the sea—is the highest. As a rule the soil is fertile, and water is everywhere plentiful. Norfolk Island might, however, have remained unknown to fame were it not for two circumstances. Up to the year 1788 it was totally uninhabited, when a few settlers were despatched from New South Wales. Then a couple of hundred convicts were sent to keep



POLYNESIAN FISHHOOKS.

1. Large New Zealand Carved Fishhook, of Red Pine, or Rata-wood, and Human Bone, jagged edge; with Line complete. 2. Hook from Honolulu, Sandwich Islands—Mother-of-Pearl and Shark's Tooth, with Brush; perfect specimen. 3. Hook from Navigator's Islands (Samoa)—Pearl, with backing of Cocoa-nut, Human Bone, and Line; complete example. 4. Pearl Hook, from Samoa; also 5 and 6, smaller specimens in front, of different shapes. These Hooks are for capturing the Bonito, Sword Fish, Abicore, Ray, Zebra Fish, &c.

them company, but in 1807 the convict establishment was broken up. However, in 1825, it was again made a penal station, and henceforth, until "transportation" was finally abolished, Norfolk Island became an evil proverb, owing to the character of its inhabitants—the most hardened of criminals, corrupting even to the convict settlement and the rascaldom of New South Wales. Yet Norfolk Island, viewed from the sea, is a picturesque spot, rock-bound in some places by high basaltic pillars. Even with boats it is difficult to approach the island, on account of the surf, except at Sydney

Bay and the Cascades, but the interior of the island is peculiarly charming, the hills and valleys, clothed with fine grass, and scattered here and there with clumps of the noble Norfolk Island pine (*Arancaria excelsa*), so that it looks like one grand park. There is an avenue of these trees a mile and a half long, and unequalled in beauty. "Sheep and cattle," writes Mr. Hood, "sleek and comfortable-looking, are seen in all directions, revelling in the abundant pastures; and wild turkeys, fowls, and pigs find luxurious abodes under the shelter of the thiek groves of guava, lemon, and loquat trees, from which one disturbs large flocks of pigeons, descendants of the imported doveot breed."* Of late years, as already noted, Norfolk Island has got a population more in keeping with its soft surroundings. The Pitcairn islanders proceeded thither in 1856, impelled by necessity, though they left the beloved isle of their birth with tearful eyes, to seek a new home 3,000 miles from their old one. At that time they numbered 194, and were all safely landed by H.M.S. *Morayshire* on the 8th of May. In 1864, Mr. Nobbs, their "chaplain," reported that they had increased to 248 persons, nearly equal as to sex, and up to that date—in eight years—there had been 117 births and 26 deaths. In 1871 the Pitcairn community was 297, secessions having taken place in the interval (p. 78), but several other settlers had made their appearance, for the whole population of the island was, eight years ago, 481, a number which has since been increased, though the Pitcairn people keep clannishly to themselves, not intermarrying much with the other colonists. A recent visitor to the island remarks that "one of the loveliest spots on earth is now occupied by perhaps the most moral and well-behaved community in existence, after having been for fifty years a blot upon the face of creation; the abode of criminals of the deepest dye, of whom endless tales might be recounted, which would only serve to make the blood run cold. One could not but feel a wish, as we passed up the street, that the great old prisons, with their dismal emblems of punishment, and their hundred dungeons, were levelled with the ground, and every trace of the former history of Norfolk Island obliterated." Phillip Island—a little islet off Norfolk—is noted as the former haunt of the now extinct "Phillip Island Parrot" (*Nestor productus*). The place of this bird has been taken by rabbits, which have, at the last accounts, eaten up every scrap of vegetation within their reach, converting the islet into such a bare mound, that the wonder is how they manage to exist.

The Kermadecs consist of several small rocky basaltic isles, 400 miles north-east of New Zealand. Sunday Island, though the largest of them, is only twelve miles in circumference. Its highest point is 1,627 feet above the sea level, and rugged and unattractive-looking though it seems, until recently an American family lived on it.†

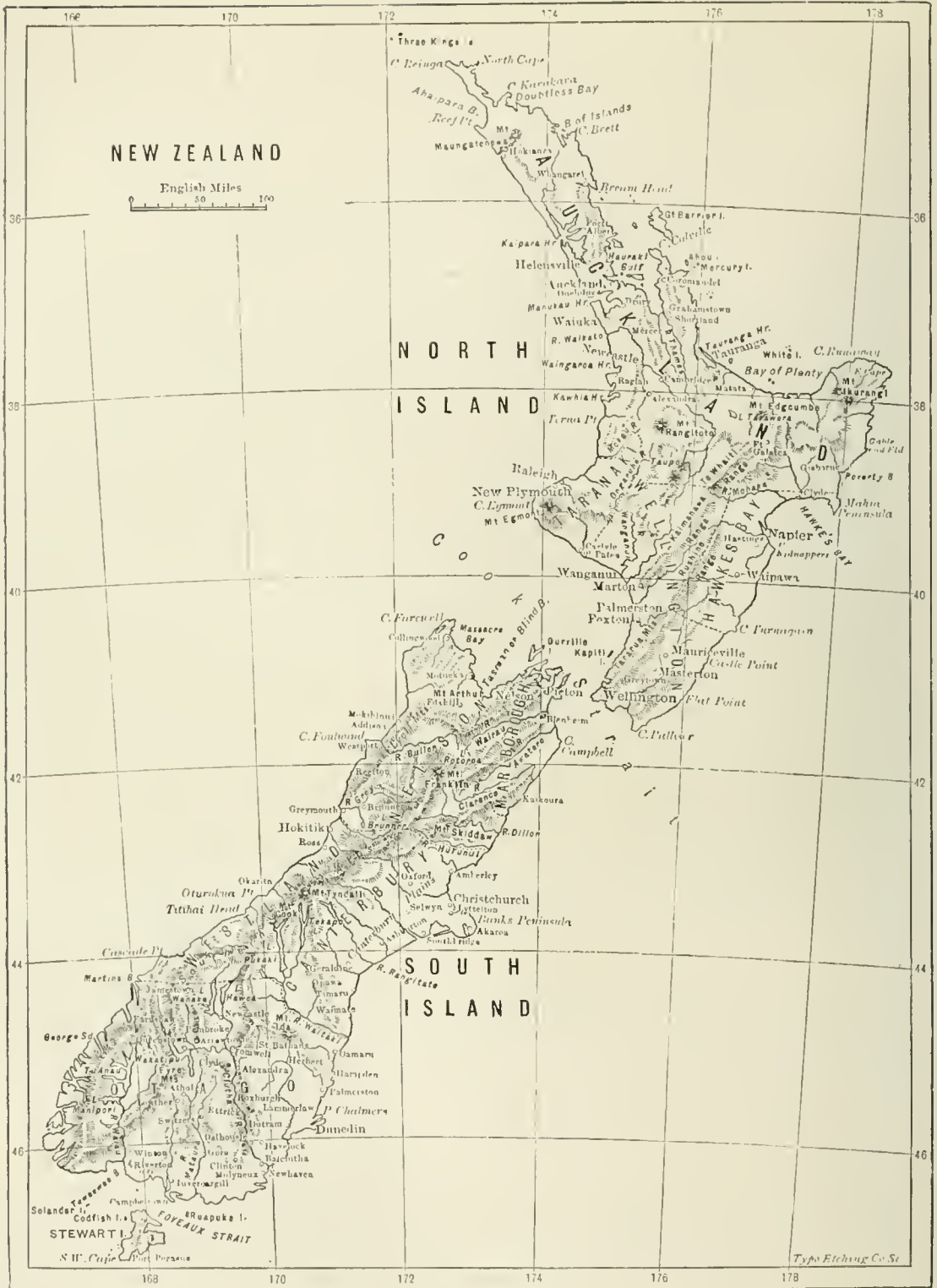
* "Voyage of H.M.S. *Fawn*," quoted by Angas: "Polynesia," p. 426.

† Spry: *lib. cit.*, p. 143; Boddham-Whetham: "Pearls of the Pacific;" Gill: "Songs from the Pacific," and "Life in the Southern Isles;" Yonge: "Life of Bishop Patteson;" Brassey: "Voyage of the *Sunbeam*;" Campbell: "Log Letters from the *Challenger*;" Wylde: "Voyage of the *Challenger*;" Turner: "Nineteen Years in Polynesia;" Forbes: "Two Years in Fiji;" Williams: "Fiji and the Fijians;" Semper: "Die Palau-Inseln;" Beechey: "Zoology of the Pacific, &c., during the Voyage of H.M.S. *Blossom*, 1825-28," &c. &c.

CHAPTER VII.

NEW ZEALAND: ITS GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS.

LEAVING behind the "summer isles of Eden," we arrive at a country greater than all of them, and though it may not luxuriate, as they do, in the glories of coral strands and tropical vegetation, it is a region where the white man can more fittingly find a home. Here the soil yields abundantly, but yet not so exuberantly as to render toil unnecessary. Here is sunshine, but also the clouds which render the sunshine a something to be enjoyed, a land where the temperature is not so severe as to chill all energy, save that of keeping oneself warm, but yet not mild enough to induce the sleepy languor of the Hawaiian or Tahitian Isles. In a word, we come to New Zealand, an English colony with a great future, and one eminently fitted for the abode and increase of the English race. In our voyage round the world we have had to touch at several British colonies. First we came to Canada, which is scarcely a colony, but a viceroyalty of England—and more. Then we visited the West Indies and British Honduras. But tropical colonies can never be Lesser Britains: here the Englishman may come, make money if he can, but he does not make them his abiding place. He returns "home" to spend the dividends, the rents, or the rupees which he has accumulated by moiling under equator suns. He is not a colonist—only a resident in a country not England, though, accidentally, it may be, under the English flag, and which has been to him a foreign land. In the Falkland Islands we have also met colonists—after a kind, and in the Fijis is such another dependency of England as is Belize and British Guiana, only a little more healthy. But in New Zealand, for the first time, we find a real British colony—that is, a colony in which not only the vast majority of the inhabitants are of English birth or origin, but where the English race can also live and perpetuate itself. New Zealand, in many respects, is better fitted to become another England than any other colony of Britain. Indeed, so well are the colonists aware of this, that with the usual kindly exaggeration of our kin beyond the sea, they have designated their country "Great Britain of the South." In the first place, it is the most distant of all our so-called dependencies, though one of the nearest, in point of resemblance, to our islands. This gives the colonists a self-reliance which is wanting in countries lying contiguous to those on which, in emergencies, they may rely. The New Zealander—and the same may be said of all the Australasians—cannot always be "turning tail" on the colony in disgust: he must remain and make the best of his bargain, and, as a rule, he does remain, and fares as well as men so situated will do. When the New Zealander—I am not going to inflict on the reader that tiresome sketcher of the ruins of St. Paul's—comes "home," he has sent his roots deep enough into the soil to render the colony he has temporarily left more to him than the land he is now visiting. New Zealand is not only far away from the mother country, but it



MAP OF NEW ZEALAND.

is also distant from any other land of importance. A thousand miles of ocean lie between it and Australia. This circumstance, and also the fact of its having one of the most extensive seaboard possessed by any country in the world, will inevitably make the New Zealanders of the future an even more self-reliant and maritime race than they are at present. The climate, though perhaps not so agreeable, take it all in all, as that of Tasmania, is yet, on the whole, better suited for men requiring to lead an active life, and for the development of a robust, ruddy race. Owing to the north and south extension of the islands for 900 miles, there is a considerable variety of climate. The south has a temperature not unlike that of the south of England, and the north—of course, at the antipodes the portion nearest the equator, and therefore the hottest—somewhat similar



DUNEDIN IN 1870.

to that of the countries lying around the Mediterranean. In New Zealand, as in all the southern hemisphere, mainly owing to the disproportionate amount of sea to land, the extremes of temperature are not so great as in the northern hemisphere, nor between winter and summer are there such differences.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY AND FEATURES.

New Zealand is the name of a country, not of any particular island (p. 90). The colony, in reality, is composed of three large islands and an infinity of subsidiary small ones, including the almost Antarctic Auckland, Macquarie, and Campbell, and the western outlier, Chatham, which, in size, is really as large as Stewart's Island. These detached specks were doubtless at one time all integral parts of one continental land-mass. The islands, however, usually included in the colony are the North Island, the Middle, or South, Island, and the real South Island, lying south of this, but much smaller, viz., Rakiura, or Stewart's

Island. The latter is at present very sparsely occupied chiefly by the native Maoris and half-castes, though the Government is attempting to form a settlement there, and induce Europeans to come and catch the abundance of fish which abound in the neighbouring seas, as well as the excellent oysters—equally plentiful. The area of these three islands* is almost equal to that of Great Britain and Ireland, viz., 102,000 square miles, with a length of 1,120 miles, and an average breadth of 120 miles. At no part do they attain to a greater width than 250 miles, and at one point (Auckland), the two coasts are separated by only six miles of land.

New Zealand is now divided into counties, but up to 1875 the colony was a confederation of nine provinces, each province being autonomous, having its own Legislature, officials, and Superintendent, or Lieutenant-Governor, elected by the votes of the people of the province. This system of government has now been abolished, and the islands own but one Governor, and one legislature, but the provinces still remain as geographical facts, and when, in subsequent sections, we have occasion to examine the country more in detail, we shall take these as convenient bases on which to found our descriptions. Everybody still talks of certain districts by their old provincial names, and as many of these provinces were settled by peculiar classes of colonists, they will continue to have certain characteristics of their own, in addition, of course, to those physical features which Acts of the General Assembly cannot alter, albeit, in a new country, it can rapidly effect almost anything else. These provinces we shall accordingly describe more fully by-and-by, but meantime, as they must often occur in the following pages, it may be as well to mention briefly the names of their old political divisions. Auckland occupies a considerable portion of the north of the North Island, extending from coast to coast. Hawke's Bay and Taranaki lie respectively on its south-east and south-west, while south again from these, extending from east to west, is Wellington, the capital town of which of the same name being the colonial seat of government. Cook's Strait separates the Middle (or South Island) from the northern one. Its most northern provinces are Nelson and Marlborough, lying on the east and west; Westland runs some distance down the west coast, till it reaches the most northern boundary of Otago; Canterbury lies on the east coast between Marlborough and Otago, and Otago extends from shore to shore to the south. Its southern extremity is called Southland: this was, at one time, a separate province, but before the abandonment of the provincial form of government, it was united for administrative purposes with Otago. Auckland, Napier, New Plymouth (p. 96), Nelson, Greymouth and Hokitiki, Pieton and Blenheim, Christchurch, Dunedin (p. 89), and Invercargill, are the chief towns respectively of Auckland, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, Nelson, Westland, Marlborough, Canterbury, Otago, and Southland. At the census of March 3rd, 1878, the population of the whole islands, exclusive of 45,000

* Here I must take an opportunity of thanking Sir Julius Vogel, Agent-General for the Colony, and formerly its Premier, for his polite attention in supplying me with a series of official and other documents, including an excellent article by himself on New Zealand. These, and numerous other works, have been consulted in the preparation of this sketch, though, of the 600 or 700 publications on the colony, I can pretend to a knowledge of but a small portion. Many of the data have also been revised by prominent colonists, either by letter or through personal communications.

aborigines, numbered 414,412, scattered over an area of 102,000 square miles, though, in reality, over less, as two-thirds only of the country are fitted for grazing and agriculture; the North Island containing about 44,000 square miles, the Middle Island 57,000, while Stewart's Island has an area of only 1,000 square miles. In 1851, when the first census was taken, exclusive of Maoris, the population was 26,707. In 1858, it had risen to 59,113, showing, in seven years, an increase of 122 per cent. Three years later it had risen to 99,022, and, in 1874, to 299,514. At the date of the latter census, of the 65,858 dwellings in the colony, 1,967 were entered as simply "tents," and 2,546 of "cob," sod, &c. At the present time the number of Chinese cannot be less than 6,000, for, in 1874, there were 4,816 of them in the country, including two females.

What distinguishes New Zealand over most new countries is the great extension which railways have taken. Roads are a first requisite of any new country, but roads are necessarily slow means of communication between one part of the country and another, and ordinary roads, moreover, unless when this is exacted in the shape of grudgingly given tolls, return no interest on the capital sunk in the making of them. The statesmen who of late years have controlled the affairs of New Zealand, took a bolder view of the situation, and determined at once to have railways, and railways they have, to an extent which the colony has every reason to be proud of. No doubt these railways have not been made for nothing; on the contrary they have given the colony that luxury of older governments—a national debt of twenty millions. Doubtless, also, there are some who will shake their heads over this go-ahead policy of Sir Julius Vogel—for to him its execution, if not inauguration, is due—and prophesy dire things for the future of New Zealand. At present the colonists are taxed heavily—and some sanguine souls are even proud of this—but they have something to show for the revenue paid to their Government, though, say the men of little faith, all this will go on very well until the credit of the colony is exhausted, and the crown lands are all disposed of. Then will come chaos. However, hitherto there have been no signs of this, for the revenue has increased rapidly, and as good roads through a country constitute a great attraction to colonists, in so far that it permits them to get their products cheaply and rapidly to market, and renders the cost of supplies not ruinous to a settler a few miles away from a seaport, where the cost is only a little over that of the European city from which they were brought. Moreover, the curse, the danger, indeed, of all new countries—our colonies among others—is parochialism. The interests of one part of the country get in time, owing to its distance from another, entirely local. It objects to pay taxes from which it can see no return, and which, moreover, it suspects to be spent at or around the capital, hundreds of miles away. To this cause is owing the multiplicity of South American republics, and, it may be added, the endless revolutions which afflict these unhappy political caricatures. To the jealousies engendered by separation and distance are also due the various Australian colonies, and their unwillingness to confederate, an unwillingness which is also even more mischievously displayed in South Africa. Let us, however, take Australia as an instance. Victoria insisted on breaking off from New South Wales, because the settlers near Port Phillip conceived—and rightly—that their interests were not very well attended to by a legislature and officials whose homes were in Sydney. In like manner the South Australians had a

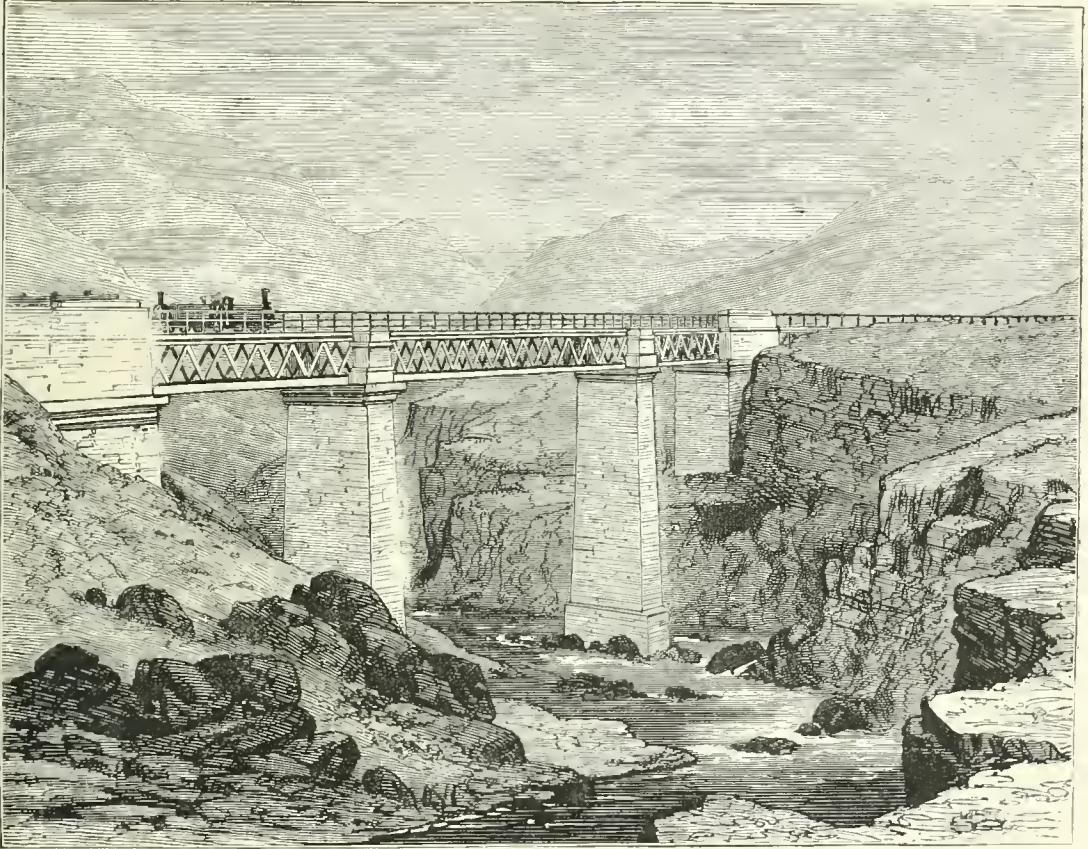
dislike to be taxed, and their taxes spent by Melbourne bureaucrats. Hence arose another colony with its seat of Government at Adelaide. Queensland was also an outcome of this feeling. The Moreton Bay revenue was, the Moreton Bay people considered, not sufficiently spent on and under the control of Moreton Bay squatters and shopkeepers, and thus a third offshoot from New South Wales was added to the Australian Dominion. But this subdivision is not yet at an end, for the Cape York settlers are already beginning to grumble at the way Brisbane



PORT MOERAKI.

lords it over them, and as a colonist soon makes his voice felt, a fresh autonomy is quite among the possibilities. And so it was in New Zealand. The provinces were in reality separate colonies, and were rapidly intensifying their jealousy of each other, so that in time confederation or fusion would have been difficult. But the railway policy tied them together, and is diminishing their rival interests. This railway policy is important, for on it really hangs the future of the country—financial and otherwise. The originator of it has met with so much opposition that it is only fair to hear what he has to say for himself. This I am in a position to supply in the following *précis*:—In 1870 the population was 245,000. This was a time of extreme depression in the colony. The Imperial Government removed from the colony all the Imperial troops. The colonists were confronted with

the probability of renewed disturbances with the natives, besides having to bear very heavy pecuniary burdens resulting from previous difficulties of the same character. The native question in the past had absorbed the lion's share of attention. The heroic work of colonisation had halted in consequence. The pioneers of Otago and Canterbury had, it is true, done a great deal in the way of making roads and bridges, and a railway system of an important character had been commenced in Canterbury and Southland. There was



WAIAMAKARUA VIADUCT OF THE OTAGO G. N. RAILWAY.

no want of desire for more railways, but hitherto the colony had given no assistance to such works; the native question absorbed too much attention. The colonists, left to themselves, adopted a new course. They determined that the whole strength of the colony's credit must be used to open up the means of communication, to promote settlement, and to increase by emigration the population. They argued that only by settlement could the Maori difficulty be met, and that for the rest the lands of the colony were fertile enough to warrant any expenditure necessary to open them to the operation of human energy. At the time we speak of (1870), New Zealand had fewer railways than probably any other civilised country. The short interval of nine years sees it in the possession of a larger extent of railway in proportion to its population than any country in the world. The

Government of the neighbouring colony of Victoria recently cited the following statistics, which, it will be seen, bear out the statement just made:—

Country.	Year.	Population.	Miles open for Traffic.	Miles open to every 1,000 inhabitants.	Number of inhabitants to every mile open
* New Zealand . . .	1877	414,343	955	2.30	434
* Queensland . . .	1877	203,085	359	1.76	566
United States . . .	1876	45,627,000	78,653	1.72	580
† Canada . . .	1876	4,000,000	6,412	1.60	624
* South Australia . . .	1877	236,864	302	1.72	784
‡ Victoria . . .	1877	860,787	931	1.08	924
§ N. S. Wales . . .	1877	662,212	598	0.90	1,108
Switzerland . . .	1876	2,775,000	1,478	0.53	1,877
Great Britain . . .	1876	33,093,439	16,872	0.51	1,061
Belgium . . .	1876	5,366,000	2,105	0.39	2,349
France . . .	1876	36,905,788	12,723	0.34	2,900

* All State property. † 3,000 miles more have been surveyed.
‡ All State property: does not include 19 miles of private line.
§ All State property: does not include 45 miles of private line.
|| 838 miles State property: 1,267 miles belong to private companies. ¶ Approximate.
In New Zealand there are (Nov., 1878) 220 miles in course of construction; in Canada, 1,027 miles; Victoria, 161 miles.

The introduction of population was a cardinal feature of the policy adopted by the colonists. Superior to any feeling of jealousy of the new-comers, they have spent during the eight years some £1,250,000 in assisting 93,000 human beings to emigrate to their shores. The total population has increased by more than 60 per cent. The work of the eight years, then, has been the opening of over a thousand miles of railway, the increase of population described, and the construction of some 2,500 miles of ordinary road, chiefly through native districts. One of the most welcome results has been the disappearance of the Maori difficulty. With work open to them, with a knowledge of the value of their lands, and with an awakened comprehension of the advantages of peaceful life, they have aided instead of retarded the progress the colony has made on the path of settlement. The North Island is not so completely colonised as the South Island. As yet there is not a through railroad between Wellington and Auckland. But the last questions with the Maoris which stand in the way of the completion of this work are disappearing, and the North Island promises in the future to become as prosperous, and to support as large a population, as the South Island.

Naturally the pecuniary results from the northern railways are less than those of the south. During the year ending the 30th of June last the railways in the South Island yielded, over and above working expenses and the cost of fully maintaining them in a good condition, a profit of 2.65 per cent. on the whole outlay. It is since the 30th June last that the railway has been completed through from Christchurch to Dunedin, and even now there is a gap between Dunedin and Invercargill. During the year, therefore, the result of which has been stated, the railways were open only in fragments of different lengths,

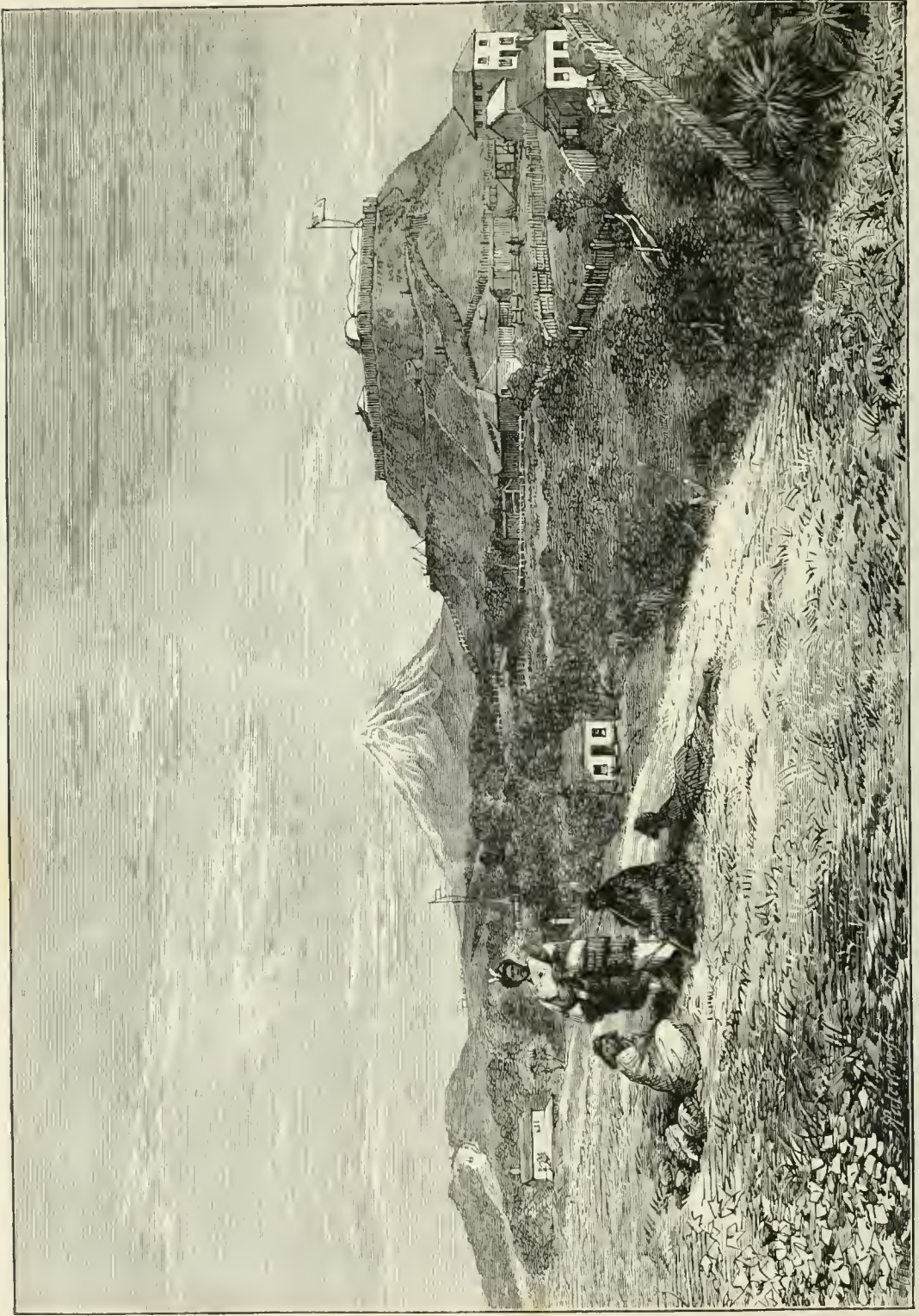
and the result must be considered very good. The results in the North Island are not as yet so favourable. There the railways are more fragmentary than in the south, and the settlement of the country is less advanced; but there is no reason to doubt that the returns will improve. It must, however, be borne in mind that when the railways were commenced it was not expected that for some time they would yield a profit.

It is not without a purpose we have dwelt so much on the history of the last few years. It is necessary to be aware of the facts disclosed in order to understand the present condition of the country. The construction of the railways and increase of population have created a large demand for land, and its price has gone up very much in consequence. The demand has not been of a speculative character. It has been based on actual results, and enormously as the value has increased, it is still considered far below the price which it should command on the basis of its productive yield. The following figures show the returns from crops for the four years ending 1876, irrespective of land laid down in English grass, of which there were 2,185,344 acres in 1877:—*

	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876
Total cultivation, acreage . . .	376,156	549,844	607,138	787,824
Wheat { Acres	132,428	105,674	90,804	141,614
{ Bushels	3,391,634	2,974,330	2,863,619	4,054,377
Oats . { Acres	110,472	157,545	168,252	150,717
{ Bushels	3,292,807	5,548,729	6,357,431	4,707,836
Barley { Acres	22,121	16,236	27,656	27,679
{ Bushels	606,492	477,162	901,219	801,379

The mere sightseer, who first lands in New Zealand, is disappointed. He has journeyed many thousands of miles to see strange sights—and he has seen them. Most probably he has crossed the American continent at its broadest part, and has looked on the varying panorama which passes before the passenger who speeds by rail across the United States from New York to San Francisco. At the Sandwich Islands he witnesses another, and a widely different phase of life and scenery, comprising all the soft beauty of the tropics. At the Fijis he is again on British ground, but black men instead of brown meet his eye, and a landscape even more tropical than that of Hawaii surrounds the “travelled man from foreign lands.” In Australia the surroundings are more British. Melbourne, or Sydney, are only little, but more pleasing, Londons; but once in the bush—the country in the Antipodes is always “bush,” even though there should not be a shrub in sight for twenty miles—he knows that he is in a land lying under strange stars. But when he goes ashore in New Zealand—say at the Bluffs, the seaport of Southland, and runs thence by rail to Invercargill, he imagines that he has been dreaming, and that Britain is but a few hours away, instead of two months’ as rapid travelling as the science of the nineteenth century can supply. Mr. Anthony Trollope’s record of his impressions

* From an article on the colony contributed by Sir Julius Vogel to the *Globe* (London), November 27, 1878, corrected by him, and communicated to the author of this work.

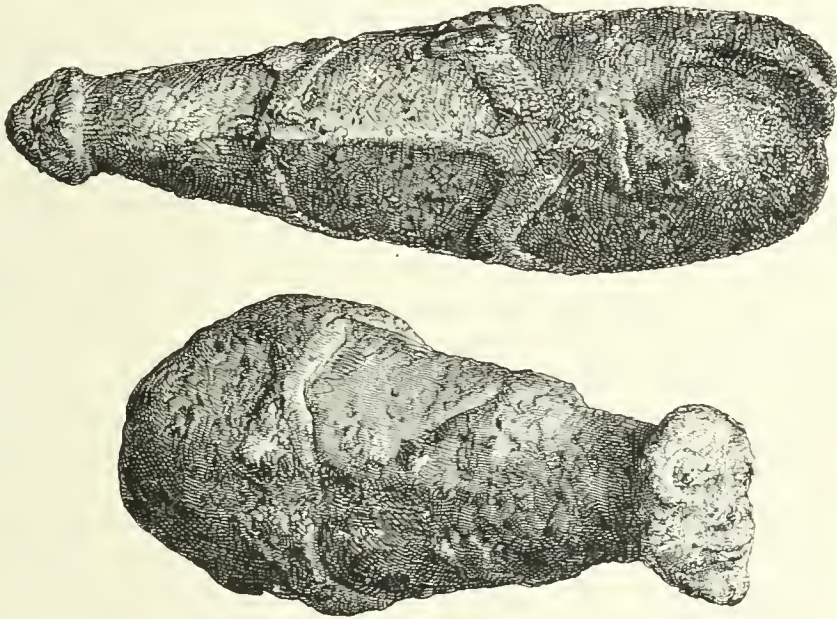


PART OF NEW PLYMOUTH, WITH MARSLAND HILL, AND MOUNT EGMONT, TARANAKI



VIEW OF THE HOT LAKE OF ROTOMAHANA, AUCKLAND, NEW ZEALAND.

of such a journey may be familiar to some of my readers, and express the feeling which has been often expressed by other visitors less capable of describing them. Coming ashore at The Bluff, the famous novelist found that he might as well have asked to see a moa—the great bird which, in former times, used to stalk about these islands (p. 98)—as a Maori. The scenery was wild—not unlike that of the west coast of county Cork—but the land was poor. Hills were all around, and mountains in the distance. Nothing could be more unlike Australia; and though New Zealand is popularly associated in our minds with Australia, it may be as well to say once for all that perhaps no two countries are more widely different than the northern collection of colonies and the southern one. “The two countries both grow wool, and are both auriferous. Squatters and miners are common



A MAORI CARVED CLUB.*

to them. But in all outward features they are dissimilar—as they are in the manner of the people, and in the forms of their government. I found myself struck for a moment with the peculiarity of being in New Zealand. To Australia generally I had early reconciled myself, as being a part of the British empire. Of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land I had heard so early in life, as to have become quite used to them, so that I did not think myself to be very far from home when I got there. But New Zealand had come up in my own days, and there still remained to me something of the feeling of awful distance, with which, at that time, I regarded the young settlement at the Antipodes—for New Zealand is, of all inhabited lands, the most absolutely Antipodean to Greenwich.

* This club is composed of scoriae from Mount Egmont, and was found, in 1855, by the artist, Mr. William Strutt, in the bush of the Mangorei district, five miles from the base of the mountain. The design of the club is the body of a lizard with head of a man, the latter forming the handle. On the opposite side is also an adaptation of the lizard, with a human skull for head. The length of the club is $11\frac{3}{4}$ inches.

I remembered the first appearance in public of the grim jokes attributed to Sydney Smith, as to the cold curate, and the hope expressed that Bishop Selwyn might disagree with the cannibal who should eat him. The colony still retained for me something of the mysterious vagueness with which it was enveloped in early days, so that when landing at The Bluff, I thought that I had done something in the way of travelling. Melbourne had been no more than New York, hardly more than Glasgow, certainly not so much as Vienna. But if I could find myself in a Maori *pah*, then, indeed, the flavour of the dust of Pall Mall would, for the time, depart from me altogether. Most travellers have experienced the feeling—have anticipated a certain strangeness which they have never achieved. But when I reached Invercargill, I felt exactly as I might have felt on getting out of a railway in some small English town, and by the time I had reached the inn, and gone through the customary battle as to bedrooms, a tub of cold water and supper, all the feeling of mystery was gone. I began to inquire the price of tea and sugar, and the amounts of wages which men were earning, but had no longer any appreciation of my Antipodean remoteness from the friends of my youth." Nor, indeed, need this be a matter of surprise. New Zealand towns—owing to the climate being so much more like that of England than the climate of Australia—are very similar to the towns we are familiar with on this side of the globe. In the New Zealand bush the dull-coloured foliage of the gum-tree forests no longer meets the eye, as it does over a great portion of Australia. Wood is, indeed, in places, very expensive, owing to its scarcity. Again, though we all know the Australian apteryx—or strange wingless bird which figures in its coat of arms—the visitor will be woefully disappointed if he expects to catch a glimpse of one out of the carriage window as he runs up from The Bluff to Invercargill, or from Port Chalmers to Dunedin. He sees no animal not familiar to him: though, of course, should he be a zoologist or a botanist, he will not fail to detect a thousand minutiae which do not strike the glance of a layman. The introduced animals and plants are killing off the native ones, just as the whites are displacing the Maoris. For instance, in the populated districts the native rat has all but disappeared before the English one, and the so-called New Zealand "flax" is getting exterminated indirectly by the agency of the Dutch clover. The latter introduction grows among the flax plants, and the cattle, in order to get at it, rush into the bush and break down the "flax," which is accordingly disappearing over considerable districts. But with the doubtful exception of the rat, there is no quadruped which is native. The kangaroos, platypus, and other curious mammals of Australia, are as unknown on these islands as are the dingoes, or native dogs, which are such pests to the squatters in the former country. The birds of New Zealand are more peculiar, though the moa is now only represented by the skeletons and even eggs which are found over the country, though some will have it that they are still in existence—a statement which rests on no foundation of fact, though there can be but little doubt that these gigantic birds, twelve to fourteen feet in height, existed in the country long after the Maori race arrived from some of the Polynesian Islands. But the parrots, cockatoos, laughing jackasses, native companions, lyre birds, and bell birds, so characteristic of Australia, find no representatives in New Zealand. Everything, to the freshly-arrived traveller, looks like the land he has left, supposing he has come, as have most of the colonists, from England, directly by

sea. "Everything is English. The scenery, the colour and general appearance of the waters, and the shape of the hills are altogether un-Australian, and very like to that with which we are familiar in the west of Ireland and the highlands of Scotland. The mountains are brown and sharp and serrated, the rivers are bright and rapid, and the lakes are deep and blue, and bosomed among the mountains. If a long-sleeping Briton could be awaked, and set down among the Southland hills, and told that he was travelling in Galway or Cork, or in the west of Ross, he might easily be deceived, though he knew the nature of these countries well; but he would feel at once that he was being hoaxed if he were told in any part of Australia that he was travelling among Irish or British scenery."* Every British product prospers better here than at home. Bees swarm more frequently, hens lay more eggs, and, as in Australia, ewes are more certain with their lambs than with us. There are certain other colonists who also prosper much too kindly for the colonists' comfort—weeds, to wit, and in an especial degree the thistle, which was, either accidentally, or, as some will have, by enthusiastic Caledonians, introduced into the country at an early date. The rabbit here, as in Australia, is already something worse than a nuisance: it is an absolute pest to agriculture—a torment which bleeds the farmer's profits by honeycombing his lands and cropping his scanty pastures. The owners of "runs" do what they can by sending the animals back to us in the shape of curried rabbit in tins, but even then they multiply far faster than they can be destroyed. In this juncture the legislature has stepped in, and by offering premiums for the destruction of the "furry folk," paid out of assessments levied on the landholders, have tried to eradicate them: just as, in a similar manner, the kangaroos and wallabies are being waged war against in Queensland. Too little labour and too many rabbits may, in brief, be described as the crooks in the New Zealand farmer's lot. Large tracts in Otago and Southland are being brought to a state of barrenness by the action of the rabbits alone. Favoured by climate and the bush-covered rocky nature of the country, the conies breed with great rapidity, and soon depreciate the value of the land. Great difficulty is experienced in keeping them out of the grass paddocks, and wherever they come they destroy the pine and fruit-trees, rendering, as in some districts of Victoria, the country for the time being absolutely barren. In that colony—and it may be cited as an example of what the rabbit can do when it gets the upper hand—it costs 15s. per acre to clear the ground of the vermin, in addition to the enormous loss entailed by the destruction of stock and fertility. In one run of 29,000 acres in Southland, 26,000 rabbits were killed in four months, a costly operation, since the skins were worth only 1½d. apiece, while they cost 3d. to obtain. The presence of this immense number of rabbits on the estate reduced the lambing of the flocks by 20 per cent. On twenty-four holdings in the southern part of the island, during 1876, no less than 1,059,000 rabbits were destroyed. On the same runs there were 153,000 sheep fewer than were shorn previously, and these runs produced 1,700 bales of wool less than they did formerly. That amount of wool, taken at a moderate computation of £15 per bale, would give a return of £25,000, which, at 10 per cent., would represent a capital of £250,000.† No doubt, in time the colonists will

* Trollope: "Australia and New Zealand," Vol. II., p. 324.

† The *Times*, February 6th, 1879.

be able to cope with this invading host, but meantime the fact of the host existing ought to be known as a fiscal difficulty as well as a zoological actuality.

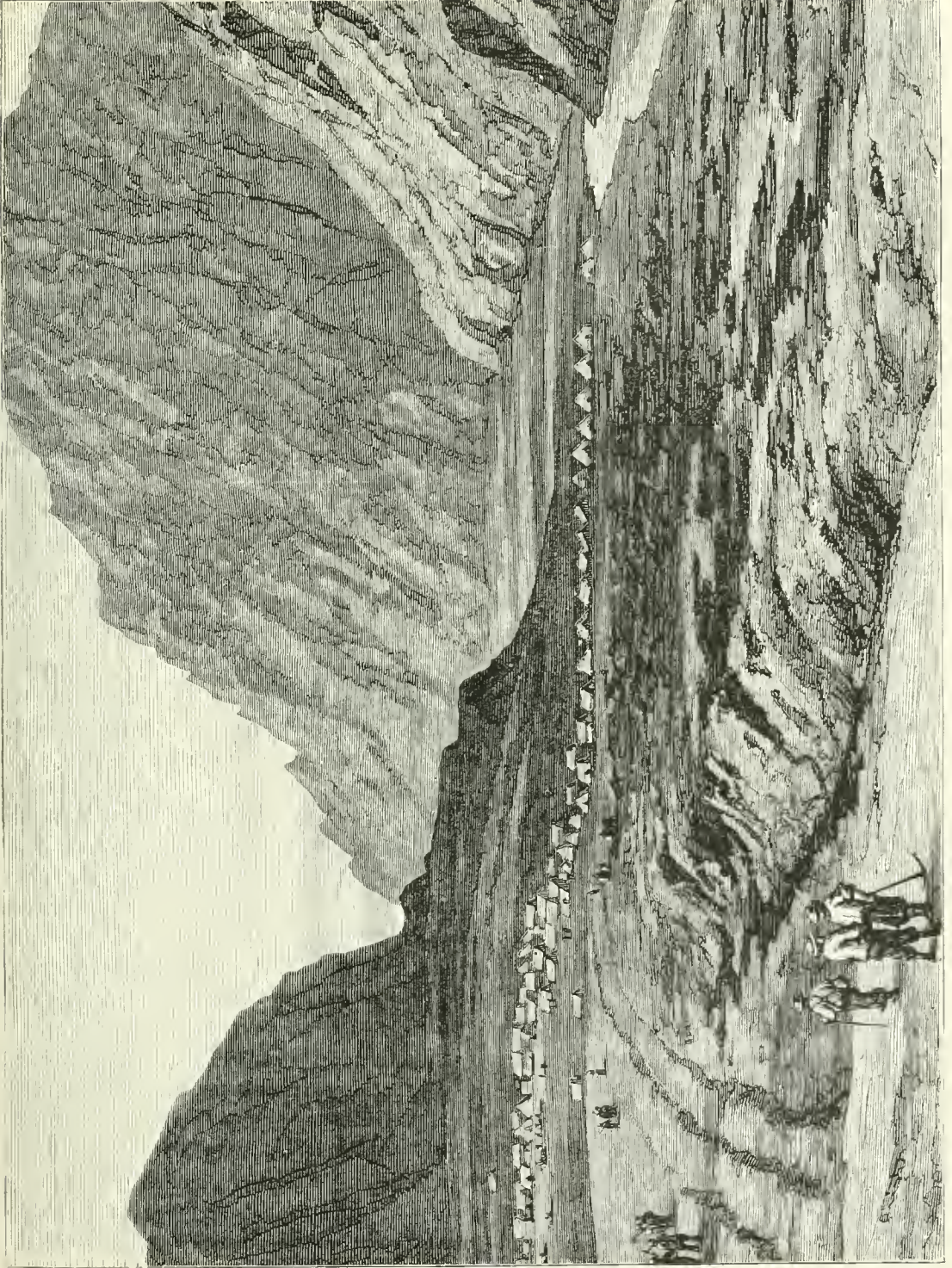
The foregoing data will have given the reader some idea of the general characteristics of New Zealand (Map, p. 88).^{*} These may be briefly condensed into a very few words. The coast line is, as a rule, much broken, especially that of the North Island, 1,500 out of the 4,000 miles of shore being credited to that part of the colony; but the northern and southern coasts of the Middle Island are also deeply indented, and on all the islands there are good harbours. The islands are of volcanic origin, and very mountainous, and among these mountains are a few active and many extinct volcanoes. In the North Island is a central range, containing, among other peaks, Mount Ruapahu, 9,000 feet in height, and capped with perpetual snow, and Tongariro, an active volcano 6,000 feet high. Along the west coast of the Middle Island there are also high mountains, which, towards the east, assume the form of table-lands and isolated peaks, culminating in Mount Cook, 13,200 feet in height. The Southern Island is comparatively low, the highest elevation being 3,000 feet. In all the islands there are plains of considerable extent, but these are more abundant in the Middle than in the Northern Island, which is to a considerable extent covered with evergreen forests of fine trees, and tracts of farming land, with here and there rich valleys. In the Middle Island, however, there are many excellent areas of land, suited either for crops or for grazing purposes, and though the streams, usually short and navigable only for a few miles from their mouths, are liable to overflow from the melting of the snows, they supply abundance of water power. The chief of those in the North Island is the Waikato River; in the Middle Island the Clutha, Mataura, and Waiau-ua (p. 124). There are numerous lakes, none of them of very large size, but some exceedingly curious. Among the latter must be classed Lakes Rotomahana and Rotorua, round which are numerous beautiful geysers, which throw up water of a temperature of 214° Fahrenheit, and constitute one of the show places of the colony (p. 119).

THE PROVINCES.

We shall now say a few words about each of the old political divisions, taking them, however, in their geographical significance only. In the Middle Island (Te wai pounamu) there are Otago, Canterbury, Westland, Marlborough, and Nelson; in the North Island (Te ika a mauī), Wellington, Hawke's Bay, Taranaki, and Auckland.

Otago contains about 15,500,000 acres, and is 160 miles long by about 195 in breadth. Its general features we have already indicated, as being of a peculiar Scottish or west of Ireland type. The scenery, both on the sea-shore and in the interior, is very varied, and in the former region possesses the character of being, on the west coast, a succession of sounds, fjords, or inlets, some of them of immense size, with great depth of water, and quite land-locked, though at present unfrequented, save by the whalers, who still visit this part of the world. Sir George Bowen describes these great arms of the southern ocean as "cleaving their way through the massive sea wall of steep and rugged cliff far into

^{*} In this map, the old Provincial Divisions have, for the reasons already given, been marked.



VIEW OF THE ARROW RIVER GOLD FIELDS, OTAGO.

the wild solitude of the lofty mountains which form the Cordillera, or 'dividing range,' of the Middle Island," and the highest peak of which (Mount Cook, p. 100) can be seen in clear weather more than two hundred miles out to sea. Milford Sound far surpasses all the others in magnificence; but all these inlets, like the very similar ones of Norway, British Columbia, and the western sides of other countries (Vol. I., p. 67), have many features in common. Admiral Sir George Richards, who surveyed them, remarks that "a view of the surrounding country from the summit of one of the mountains bordering the coast, of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet in elevation, is perhaps one of the most grand and magnificent spectacles it is possible to imagine; and standing on such an elevation rising over the south side of Caswell's Sound, Cook's description of this region was freshly called to mind. He says:—'A prospect more rude and craggy is rarely to be met with, for inland appeared nothing but the summits of the mountains of a stupendous height, and consisting of rocks that are totally barren and naked, except where they are covered with snow.' We could only compare the scene around us, as far as the eye could reach, north to Milford Haven, south to Dusky Bay, and eastward inland for a distance of sixty miles, to a vast sea of mountains of every possible variety of shape and ruggedness; the clouds and mist floated far beneath us, and the harbour appeared no more than an insignificant stream. The prospect was most bewildering; and even to a practised eye, the possibility of recognising any particular mountain, as a point of the survey from a future station, seemed almost hopeless." Anchorage it is almost impossible to find. Accordingly, as in the corresponding fjords of British Columbia, vessels visiting these great inlets have to "tie up" to pieces of rock, or to the trees which grow down near to the water's edge. Sir George describes Pembroke Peak as rising over Harrison's Cove in Milford Sound to the height of nearly 7,000 feet, covered with perpetual snow, and with a glacier reaching down to within 2,000 feet of the sea. The lower slopes of the mountains around are covered with fine trees, and with the luxuriant and evergreen foliage of the tree fern and other beautiful undergrowth of the New Zealand forests. Two permanent waterfalls, one 700 and the other 510 feet in height, add picturesque beauty to the gloomy and desolate grandeur of the upper part of Milford Sound. "During a storm of wind and rain, mingled with snow and sleet, which, though it was the middle of summer, raged during three days of our stay, avalanches were often heard thundering down, with a roar as of distant artillery, from the snow-fields above; while a multitude of foaming cascades poured over the face of the lower precipices, hurling with them into the sea masses of rocks and trunks of trees. On the other hand, nothing could exceed the charm of the few fine days which we enjoyed during our voyage." There are also many lakes and smaller rivers, but the Clutha scarcely comes under the latter designation, for its length is estimated at 220 miles, and its discharge at 1,690,000 cubic feet per minute. There are great tracts of forest land, though most of the timber easily accessible to a port or town has been thinned out, and almost the entire western seaboard is a dense bush of fine trees. The climate is peculiarly healthy, a fact attested by the number of strong healthy ruddy children seen around every settlement and town, and the general prosperity of the province, in spite of the invariable colonial grumble, is certainly as great as that of any other part of New Zealand, which is equivalent to saying that Otago is blessed with peace

and rough plenty. The industries of the province are, in the first place, agriculture. Next comes gold-digging, which is pursued over an area of 10,000 square miles, though it is almost needless to say the whole of that immense acreage is not mined over, only "prospected," and in which the digger is at liberty to "spot" any claim to which he may take a fancy (p. 101). There are several considerable towns in the province, but the only one which need claim our attention is Dunedin, the capital not only of Otago, but in reality the largest and most important "city" in the colony. It has excellent buildings, public and private schools, a university, and nearly every other institution which a town of its size in the most enlightened country of Europe would possess, and though with a good deal of the raggedness and want of finish common to towns in "new countries," is a really handsome town, and one remarkable in more ways than one. At present it cannot have a less population than 30,000. Otago was first settled by Scottish immigrants in 1848, and to this day it is the Scotland of the South. The chief residents are from North Britain, "Maes" abound, and Scottish ways of life and thinking prevail. Scottish thrift is seen everywhere, the university is only a second edition of that in Edinburgh, while the gain of the Otago High School has been the loss of the one in the "grey metropolis of the North," from which it has attracted its main strength. Otago is a seaport, but the harbour is not capable of admitting large vessels; hence they anchor at Port Chalmers, seven miles distant, but from which there is a railway to the capital.*

Canterbury is an essentially English and episcopal province, just as Otago is a Scottish and Presbyterian one. It was founded by Mr. Gibbon Wakefield, Mr. Robert Godley, Lord Lyttelton, and others, with the intention of its becoming a settlement of men and women professing the tenets of the Church of England, and who were to live in comfort, if possible, but certainly in the full profession of their faith. The history of the struggles of the Canterbury Association to obtain the mastery over the Colonial Office, and to govern their colony without regard to the views of the home Government, are interesting, and not uninteresting, and form a bulky portion of the early chronicles of New Zealand. But for our purposes it is enough to know in 1853 the settlement merged into the province of Canterbury, and its distinctive history was soon after effaced. The colony has thriven, but not on its original basis, and is as moral a settlement as exists in New Zealand, though I am unable to learn that this is due in any appreciable degree to its original ecclesiastical status. Indeed, as far as I can ascertain, Canterbury is not nowadays more a Church of England district than any of the other provinces, though, perhaps, the proportion of people belonging to that denomination is large. Yet the number belonging to other sects shows the impracticability of "dictating to any community the religious convictions

* This and the various colonial sketches which follow are not intended to be exhaustive, or to supply the special information required by emigrants. In the case of the Australasian colonies, this is perfectly unnecessary, as all of them publish detailed handbooks and other information for the use of intending settlers. They also have Agents-General or Emigration Agents in London, from whom such information can be readily obtained in the latest and most official form. Not to enumerate other publications, the "Official Handbook of New Zealand" is an exhaustive treatise of this nature.

by which it shall be guided." In the town of Christchurch there is not nearly so strong a Church bias as may be seen in any cathedral town in England, and there are signs that in a few years the very recollection of the province having originally been intended as one of a single denomination will be lost to the colonists themselves, unless, indeed, the foundations of a cathedral which remains unbuilt should perpetuate the memory of a vanished enthusiasm. The area of the province is 8,693,000 acres, of which 2,500,000 constitute a great plain, sloping down to the sea. There are also other tracts capable of cultivation, though a considerable portion of the country is hilly, the hills—as in the Banks, Peninsula—being mostly the remains of extinct volcanoes. Christchurch, the capital of the



THE TUI OR PARSON BIRD (*Prothemadera Novæ Zealandiæ*) OF NEW ZEALAND.

province, is built on a plain about five miles from the sea, on the banks of the little river Avon. The Port is Lyttelton, connected with Christchurch by a railway, which runs part of the way through a tunnel under the hills, this tunnel—made at the cost of £200,000—being rightly considered both by the New Zealanders and their visitors as an extraordinary proof of the energy of the colonists. Christchurch Mr. Trollope describes as not so handsome a town as Dunedin—indeed, not a handsome town either positively or comparatively—but comfortable and thoroughly English, as the New Zealand “cities” more than those of any other colony are. Most of the houses and churches are built of wood, but as usually happens in the wooden constructed colonial towns, the banks are fine stone buildings. When I said that there was little in the province of Canterbury—save the name—to remind the visitor of the history of its origin, I should have excepted the name of the capital itself, and those of the streets in the capital, which

are named in honour of various Church of England bishops. Hence we have Gloucester Street and Lichfield Street, Hereford Street and St. Asaph Street, Colombo Street and Antigua Street, and as the Irish Church is especially honoured, Armagh, Tuam, and Cashel Streets. The country round Christchurch is especially English-looking, owing to the



CARVED MONUMENT IN NEW ZEALAND.

fact of its being divided into English-looking fields, with English grasses and hedges. What gives it an even more home-looking aspect is the presence in too luxuriant profusion of the gorse, which, though only introduced a few years ago, has taken so kindly to its new home, that to check its vagrant propensities adds greatly to the expenses of the farmer. The Canterbury plains are not an interesting part of the country so far as scenery is concerned, but from an agricultural point of view they form one of the finest tracts in the whole colony. Here the modern Canterbury Pilgrims sate them down, and nowa-

days the whole plain is dotted with paddocks containing some 20,000 acres each, the grass consisting of coarse tussocks, but capable of "carrying" two sheep to three acres, which for aboriginal grass is a proof that the soil which supports it is good. The country is, however, brown and bare, and the great central range, with its rugged snow-capped peaks, is too far away to relieve the monotony of the treeless expanse of country. There is in these plains not a great amount of cultivated land, the corn land lying chiefly in the river "bottoms," while the "squatters," anxious to prevent "free selectors" or "cockatoos" from taking up ground for cultivation in the middle of their runs, have bought the land for great stretches. Hence pasturage is still on the Canterbury Plains the chief feature of the civilisation that has reached thus far. The present price of land in the province is 40s. per acre. At this figure it has been largely purchased by "squatters," or graziers. Now, in Australia, no squatter, as Mr. Trollope points out, could afford to pay this figure for land on which to run his sheep. If he paid even half that price, it would only be to keep off "free selectors." But in New Zealand the climate is so different, that the squatter can sow his ground with English grasses, knowing for certain that they will flourish as well as in the old country, and that as a consequence the soil, instead of supporting only one, or even half a sheep an acre, will "carry" five, six, or seven sheep, with a corresponding profit, which soon recoups him for the £2 an acre he has paid for his run. Still, Canterbury exports considerable quantities of grain to the other provinces of New Zealand, and even to Victoria and England. Indeed, Canterbury is the chief wheat-growing province of New Zealand, the average yield being 21 bushels per acre. Considerable quantities of barley and oats are also raised, at the rate of, respectively, 19 and 22½ bushels an acre. The province may, writes Mr. Maskell, be considered as divided into three longitudinal zones—the mountain zone, almost wholly devoted to pasturage, the central, or plain zone, comprising all the rest of the province, pastoral in those parts as yet unbought, agricultural in the rest, and the peninsular or eastern zone, partly timber-producing forest, partly pastoral and partly devoted to cheese-making and dairy-farming.

The climate of Canterbury is generally mild in winter, and with the summer heats modified by cool breezes. In some years the province is visited with severe droughts, lasting through the summer from September to April, but these are exceptional. The meteorological tables "denote an equable climate peculiarly adapted to Englishmen, and the effect of this is shown by the fact that trees and plants from home flourish with great luxuriance, while others, which an English winter would destroy, grow without danger in the open air. It must be understood that the above remarks apply chiefly to the eastern or lower part of the province; naturally, amongst the mountains, and higher from the sea, the climate is somewhat changed. There is more rain, more cold in winter and less heat in summer. But in no part can the province be said to have a bad or inclement climate. In a report on the climate of New Zealand by Dr. Hector, published by command in 1869, the annual mean temperature of Canterbury for the eleven previous years is given as 55.1°, and the mean annual rainfall at Christchurch for the same period, 31.656 inches."*

* "Official Handbook of New Zealand," 2nd Edition, p. 127.

Westland is one of the chief mining districts of the country, and, in addition to gold, exports considerable quantities of timber, which clothe the banks of its chief rivers, the Grey and the Awarua; but along the rivers and lakes there is plenty of land fit for agriculture and pasturage. Of the total area of Westland (1,442 square miles), the mountain ranges and forest lands occupy 2,813,141 acres; the rivers and lakes, 29,759 acres; and open country, 172,800 acres, making in all 3,045,700 acres. Coal is also found, and all the rivers and bays of its southern part abound in fish. Whales are caught off the coast, seals are frequently seen: the killing of these animals, and the curing of fish, ought to be profitable occupations. The New Zealand "flax" (*Phormium tenax*, in reality a species of lily) grows in all parts of the country, but, except a little used by the Maoris, this fine fibre has not been properly utilised by the settlers, the difficulties of cleaning it of the resin being one of the chief obstacles in the way of making this familiar product of the islands such an article of commerce as it might otherwise become. Hokitika, the capital, is a thriving town, the centre of several gold-fields, and in time will become the head-quarters of a mighty army of tourists, attracted to it by the glorious scenery and the glaciers around Mount Cook, about which Dr. Haast has written so enthusiastically and portrayed so well. "The climate of the province is so uniform that the same clothing might be worn in the hottest day of summer and the coldest day of winter," a fact, no doubt, strictly true, for I read it in a Government document; albeit, the reader ought to bear in mind that in the literature of emigration agents no colony in which they are interested has ever a merely reputable climate; it has always the "very best in the world," a statement that has of late years lost somewhat of its early emphasis, since a sceptical world has learned to discount the zeal of these imaginative gentlemen.

Marlborough has a total area of 3,000,000 acres, of which 200,000 are "agricultural land," 1,300,000 fitted for pasture, 50,000 acres forest land fitted for cultivation after clearing, and the remainder hilly or mountainous country, heavily timbered or of a rugged and bleak aspect. The general aspect which the country presents is a succession of parallel valleys and mountain ranges, some of them rich and loamy, covered with flax, and in the drier portions and at the base of the hills with fern and tussock grass. Gold is found in places, but the timber trade is as yet, with agriculture and grazing, the chief occupation of the inhabitants, who are a great deal more prosperous than they will allow to those who visit them, though perhaps not quite so flourishing as their official historians announce in publications indited for the information of intending additions to their number. They export flax—and when I speak of "flax," I must be understood to mean the *Phormium tenax*—wool, tallow, malt, hops, and timber. They also grow considerable quantities of cereals; but Marlborough cannot be styled an agricultural province, though the climate is so equable that many plants which in England we must cultivate in-doors, and even vines to some limited extent, can be grown in the open air. Mr. Trollope describes the scenery of the coast as very charming: headland after headland, and broken bays, with rough steep mountains, coming sheer down into the blue waters. A voyager feels, as he looks from the deck of a steamer on such a country, an irresistible desire to

explore these weird valleys and fjords; and in spite of his knowing that if he ascended one brown hill he would only survey another in no appreciable degree different, he cannot believe that the spot which meets his eye has a monopoly of whatever loveliness there may be in the place. Picton was, at one time, the capital of the province, and is perhaps still, in its own esteem and in those of visitors, the principal "city," but Blenheim was the seat of the legislature before the consolidation of the provinces was brought about. Picton, like most New Zealand ports, looks a pleasant ragged little town shut in between the mountains and the sea, and surrounded by refreshing green fields and gardens, and orchards which produce English fruit in the greatest profusion. Yet a visitor sometimes wonders how the place lives, though, if he is not anxious for an indignant remonstrance, which reads like a statistical lecture, he had better keep his query to himself. It is isolated from the world, and has no road from anywhere to anywhere, except to Blenheim, which is its rival, and little communication with the outer world, save by aid of the steamers from Wellington and Nelson, which touch here once a week. Wool is its staple. There are quite as many sheep in this little province as in Western Australia; and no doubt the shipping of their wool, as well as the other products which we have mentioned, manage to save the place from death. Yet the world seems to deal not unkindly with the Pictonians. Their houses, shops, and gardens have "a general look of sleepy, well-fed prosperity;" and though there may be an occasional inward surprise as to where the garments and the food come from, it is undeniable that the citizens of this and other little New Zealand towns, which seem to the uninitiated visitor stagnant or decaying, are well clothed and well fed.

From Picton the steamer route lies through Queen Charlotte's Sound up Admiralty Bay, one of those wonderful land-locked harbours in which New Zealand abounds, and through the French Pass on to *Nelson*, a settlement the name of which is more familiar to English ears than that of Picton. It is the capital of the province of the same name, so called in honour of the great English naval hero, and has had its ups and downs in the chequered history of New Zealand. The general features of the country are bold and grand mountains, with rich valleys, and a soft and genial climate. Cereals, potatoes, hops, dairy produce, fruits of all kinds, wool, woollen cloth, leather, ropes, ale and porter, "wines from the grape and other fruits," cider, the inevitable "flax," &c., are among the articles which Nelson claims to contribute to the riches of the world. But in the soil there is also great store of metals; among these iron ore ranks first, and as coal and limestone are found in close proximity, the Nelsonians not unreasonably consider that they, or their children, have a great future before them. Lead, copper, and gold are also claimed, but as yet these have not come much to the front in mining statistics. Nelson is a pleasant town, and one at which the disappointed traveller first begins to get hopeful that at last he has not done his long voyaging for nothing. Here he does see a few Maoris "loafing" about, and, after all, apparently not so unhappy as, on theoretical grounds, these representatives of a vanishing race ought to be. Yet Nelson is not rushing ahead at a rate which need alarm any one. It is prospering after a quiet, durable fashion, as is also the province; but it is not likely for some time to attract great additions to



A MAORI CHIEF (UNTATTOED).

its population. The land is good, but not particularly well farmed, and the greater portion available for agriculture has been sold. Wheat-growing does not pay, unless a farmer can get all his labour done by his own family, and, as a consequence, Nelson did not—whatever it may do now—a few years ago grow enough wheat for its own consumption. “But,” writes a recent visitor, “though sleepy, it seemed happy. I was there about the beginning of September—a winter month—and nothing could be sweeter or more pleasant than the air. The summer heats are not great, and all English fruits and grass and shrubs grow at Nelson with more than English profusion. Every house was neat and pretty. The site is, I think, as lovely as that of any town I ever saw. Merely to breathe there, and to dream and to look around, was a delight. Nobody seemed to be either rich or poor—to be either great or humble. They manage themselves after a sleepy, fat, and plentiful, rather than prosperous fashion, which is not without its advantages in the world. Their children are generally well taught—and certainly should be so, as there is nothing to pay for education. Every householder pays £1 per annum towards the school, and for every child between five and fifteen the parents pay 5s. a year, whether the child be at school or not. The payments are made as a matter of course, and the children are educated. I was very much in love with Nelson during the few hours that I passed there; but it is not the place to which I would send a young man to make a fortune”—which is the opinion of Mr. Anthony Trollope, and possibly is not very widely different from that of the Nelsonians themselves. But having allowed the famous novelist to say so much in dubious praise of the “city” and province, it is only fair that I should conclude this sketch of the Middle Island of New Zealand with the opinion of Mr. Elliot, one of the official compilers of a document which Sir Julius Vogel has put into my hands. If this is not sufficient to make every sportsman lie him Antipodes-ward, I am afraid colonial fine writing hits far wide of the mark.

“Any account of the province of Nelson would be incomplete without a notice of the exceptionally fine climate enjoyed by Blind Bay, where the city of Nelson and the older settled districts are situate. Not only has it a greater amount of fine weather than any other spot in New Zealand, but it escapes almost completely the south-east and north-west gales which blow so frequently through Cook’s Strait and on most parts of the coast. The thermometer seldom rises to 80° in summer, and the heat is nearly always tempered by a refreshing breeze from the sea; while in winter it rarely falls below 30°. The latter season is generally regarded as the most enjoyable portion of the year, bright cloudless skies, a bracing atmosphere, and a soft gentle wind being its prevailing character. The scenery of Blind Bay is universally admitted to be most pleasing. Rugged, snow-clad mountains in the background, enclosing a large and fertile valley, thickly studded with comfortable homesteads, washed by the placid waters of the bay, make up a picture which no written description can adequately pourtray. From its earliest settlement, Nelson set an example to most of the other towns of the colony in making provision for the convenience and well-being of its inhabitants. In self-imposed taxation for making and maintaining its streets and roads, for city drainage and obtaining a noble supply of water, and in establishing an admirable system of public education, it took precedence of all other places. Nor has it been backward in other matters, which,

though small in themselves, contribute largely to the enjoyment of life. The woods and fields are alive with English song-birds, the skylark in particular being in greater numbers than in any district in England. The sportsman, in the proper season, can fill his game-bag with pheasants and quail within sight of town; and the time is not remote when deer-stalking may also be followed, as both fallow and red deer have been turned out and are becoming numerous. Hares have been introduced, while rabbits, in places, are in such numbers as to have become almost a pest. Something also has been done towards stocking the rivers with trout and ponds with perch; and the fisherman can always be assured of sport, if he will seek it, in the rivers, creeks, and bays, as excellent fish of numerous kinds abound on all parts of the coast. To families in easy circumstances, who desire a fine climate, with English society, and the advantage of being able to get for their children a good education, Nelson offers singular attractions."

Hitherto we have concerned ourselves solely with the "South," or, as it in reality is, the Middle Island of New Zealand. We now cross Cook's Strait, and arrive at the capital of the colony, the "city" of *Wellington*, which was also, at one time, the capital of the province of the same name, and are in the North Island. The province is so varied that it is impossible to give any general description of it. Mountain and plain, forest and open land, valleys with brawling rivers, and swampy lands around the borders of lakes, might, in vague terms, be described as among some of the characteristics of Wellington throughout the 7,200,000 acres which are included in it. Its southern coast-line extends from Sinclair Head to Cape Palliser, including Palliser Bay and Port Nicholson, stretching from the shores of which is a fertile valley—that of Hutt—shut off from the open country of the west coast by mountain ranges, which also, on the other side, divide it from Waiarapea Plains. The best land naturally has long ago been taken up, as Wellington first appears in colonial history in 1840, but there is still unoccupied ground which is open to purchase, provided the settler is skilful with the axe, and not afraid of hard work and a lonely life. But the province is essentially—so far as farming goes—a pastoral one, the wheat and barley grown not being "by any means sufficient for local consumption." In proportion to its area, Wellington is the most heavily timbered region of New Zealand, and the least important so far as mineral riches are concerned. Coal and gold both exist, but merely as mineral curiosities, and the limestone cliffs of Manawatu Gorge have not yet been utilised, most of the buildings in New Zealand being of wood. Manufacturing industry is being developed, and the vicinity of the colonists to the powers that be have, of course, had its effect in obtaining for them their fair share—some of the other provinces will declare a little more than their fair share—of public works. The town of Wellington is built almost entirely of wood, owing partly to the cheaper character of this material, but perhaps even in a greater extent to the frequency of earthquakes. It has a pretty position at the head of Port Nicholson, and though by no means such a fine place as Dunedin, is, as the seat of government, rather imposing from a New Zealand point of view. But to the visitor who arrives from such gay European-looking cities as Sydney or Melbourne, Wellington looks a poor dull place. It has been compared in appearance, from the sea, to St. Thomas in the West Indies (Vol. II., p. 305), but the likeness is very

superficial, for St. Thomas is one of the most unhealthy of tropical towns, while Wellington is one of the most pleasant and salubrious of those in the temperate zone of the South. "A little windy" is about the worst that can be said against the New Zealand capital—unless, indeed, to this is added, "and a trifle earthquaky." This hard impeachment cannot be gainsaid, for in 1818 the "city"—then a very small one—was nearly destroyed by a series of shocks, so severe that for a time it was seriously considered whether it would not be necessary to desert the spot, and seek out a new position for the future metropolis of antipodean Britain. Like all capitals the sites of which have been selected on geographical grounds, Wellington is a good deal dependent on the presence of the Parliament for everything which gives it life. In the vicinity of the city there are some



NEW ZEALAND BAT (*Chalinolobus tuberculatus*).

pleasant spots, to which a visitor is always taken. Among these are the remains of the primeval forest, which, until a few years ago, covered all the hills in the neighbourhood of the town, the botanical gardens, the Horokiwi glen, a beautiful spot some forty miles out of the town, and the island of Kapiti, once the home of the famous Maori chieftain Rauparaha, the instigator of the Wairau massacres, the first and only Maori trouble the Middle Island ever knew, though, unhappily for the Northern one, these have been only too prominent incidents in its stormy history. Rauparaha—in spite of poetical justice awarding him a different fate—after all his troubles in bond and in prison, and almost to the scaffold, lived many years in peace, and died at a fine old age. His son, of the same name, is still living, also a mighty man among the Maoris, and likewise a person of consideration to the whites. In Wellington it is said of him that he has killed men, but never eaten them; that his father killed and ate very many men; and that his grandfather, like a true Maori, killed and ate, and at last was killed and eaten himself. This little graduated history of the Rauparaha

family, in the matter of killing and eating, very aptly illustrates the genesis of Maori civilisation, for the fourth generation will probably neither kill nor eat men, but die comfortably in bed of old age—or of rum. Wellington is not only the seat of Parliament, but also of the Government and of the mounted constabulary, who took the place of the British regiments, which, much to the indignation of the New Zealand colonists,



VIEW OF LAKE TAUPO, AUCKLAND.

were withdrawn when they—the colonists—began not only to levy, but to spend their money without any control from the mother country.

Hawke's Bay has an area of about 3,000,000 acres, rather more than that of Lincolnshire, Leicestershire, and Nottinghamshire together, while its physical features partake somewhat of the characteristics of the three English counties named. The fertile basin of the Trent is represented by the fruitful but only partially cultivated Ahuriri Plains, while the pastoral districts of Leicestershire find their counterparts in much of the undulating

country in the southern part of the province. The northern part, though capable of supporting large flocks of sheep, is more broken, and little fitted for agriculture. The town of Napier forms a picturesque-looking little capital, and rather prepossesses people in its favour as they approach from sea. The townspeople will not fail to tell you that such and such like eminent visitor was reminded of the Bay of Naples when he first saw the "city"—a reminiscence, no doubt, the distinguished traveller had of a great many other towns lying on the shores of a bay, backed by pleasant country—albeit, Vesuvius is wanting in the picture. The climate of Napier is, however, almost Italian; while the literary tastes of a former Commissioner of Crown Lands are evinced by the streets being named in honour of Shakespeare, Emerson, Browning, Brewster, Dalton, and other literary and scientific celebrities. Wool forms its staple, the sheep of the province being as numerous as those of the rest of the island put together. Otherwise, Hawke's Bay is not rich. But, unlike Auckland, Wellington, and Taranaki, it has never been disturbed by native wars. The soil originally belonged to the great tribe of the Ngatikahungunu, who have been always friendly to the Europeans, a pleasant circumstance, perhaps explained by the fact that the tribe receive some £12,000 or £13,000 per annum as the rent of pasture lands occupied by the whites. And here it may be noted that though in the Middle Island of New Zealand the Australian system of feeding sheep on the natural grasses prevails to a great extent, in the Northern Island the stock is almost entirely fed on English grasses. Hence the soil, instead of supporting about a third of a sheep to an acre, "carries" five on the same amount of land.

Taranaki takes its name from Mount Egmont, a snow-capped mountain, known to the natives as Taranaki (p. 96). It is, in proportion to its area, one of the best of the provinces, but having suffered fearfully from Maori wars, it would be a misuse of language to describe it as prosperous, or even as approaching to prosperity. The province has a genial, bracing climate. In spite of the snow peak of Egmont (8,270 feet high), the vine, the peach, the apple, and all other crops of the mildest temperate regions, flourish. Yet, of the 1,500,000 acres fit for settlement, only about 175,000 are in the hands of farmers, and of this amount only a small proportion is cultivated. The coast, to within a few miles of Cape Egmont, is generally low and rocky, but at the point named it rises until it presents to the ocean a bold cliff face 100 feet in height, rising gradually inland in the direction of the mountains. It is divided at intervals by valleys, most of them containing rivers or streams, running more or less in a direct line from the mountains to the coast. Between these valleys are plateaux, generally very level, and the soil consists of a rich black vegetable mould, from nine to eighteen inches in thickness, overlying the volcanic tufa."

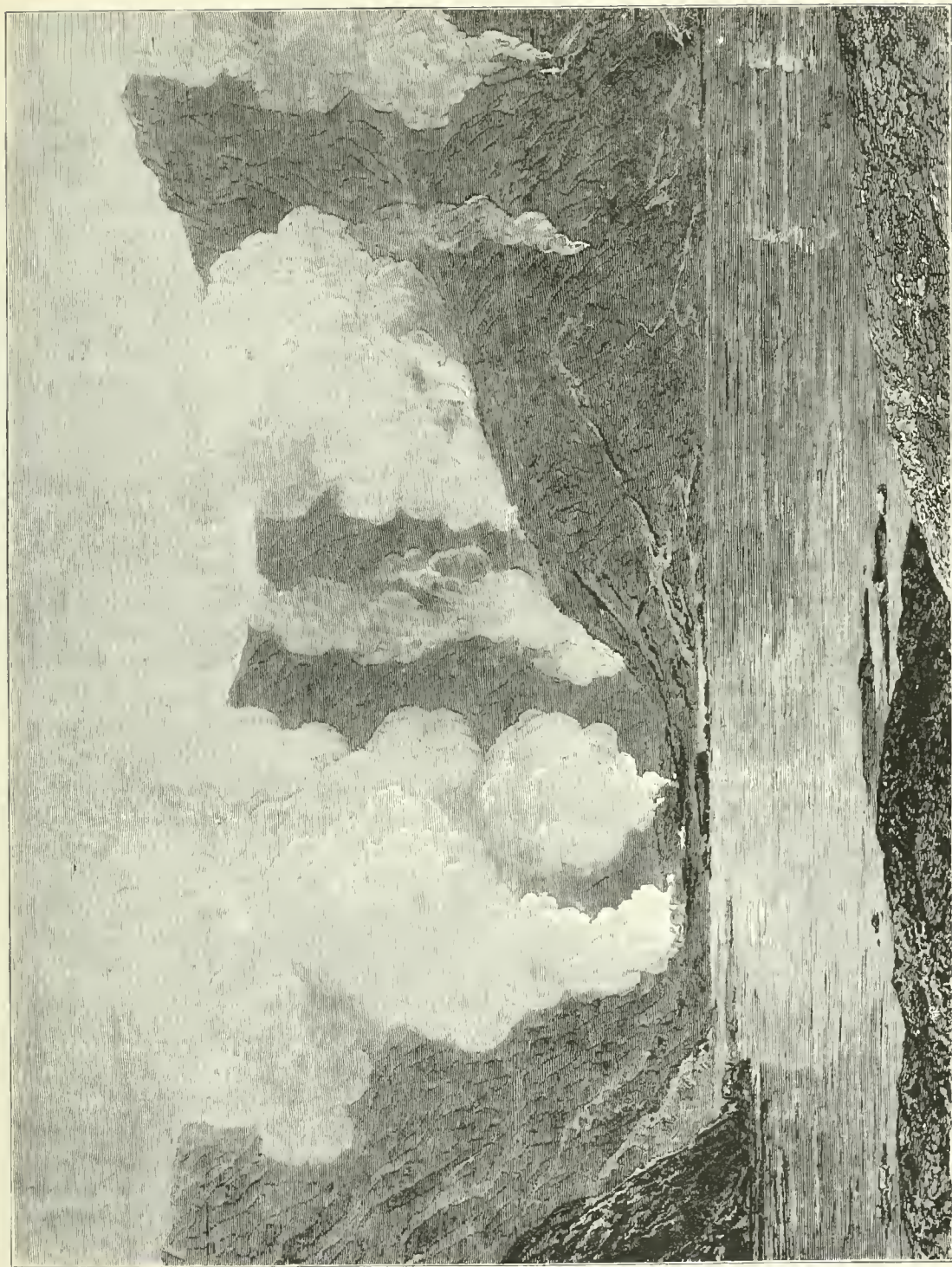
New Plymouth is a charmingly situated town, though, unfortunately, without a harbour worthy of the name, and the province generally is only too much in keeping with its capital—pretty to look at, but not exceeding rich. Whatever may be the possibilities of the future, the Taranaki people do not at present grow enough wheat for their needs, and cattle rearing is not one of their staples, while sheep are few and not wealth-producing. There are, however, various minerals, the chief of which is the titaniferous or "steel" iron sand which forms the

beach all around the coast. It also exists in the volcanic tufa which surrounds Mount Egmont, and is found nearly pure in the bed of every mountain stream. On the sea-shore it exists in almost inexhaustible quantities, and the Taranaki settler, as he sees it sparkling in the sun, and lovingly feels its weightiness in his hand, has dreams of mighty things yet in the future for him from this source of riches. It has yielded 61 per cent. of fine iron, but hitherto it has been found very troublesome to smelt. However, these difficulties, it is believed, can be overcome by using a flux composed of cakes of powdered charcoal mixed with clay, and, possibly, in time the works which have been erected will be successful, as the supply of material is practically inexhaustible, the iron sands being found along the east shore of the North Island as far as Manukau Harbour, in the Province of Auckland. There is also abundance of timber, but timber is not a rarity in New Zealand, and, of course, the inevitable "flax," and other potentialities of wealth. But, as yet, by far the greater part of the province is inaccessible to Europeans, the natives, in spite of the recent overtures to the Maori king, stubbornly maintaining their old strongholds, and refusing to allow a European to occupy land—or, in a word, to have anything to do with them. After all the native troubles which the province has endured, the wonder is how it has ever survived, or the courage of the pioneers held out. Yet they talk—courageous hearted men that they are—of the advantages of their poor little province, and will assure the sceptical visitor that bankruptcies are unknown, a fact, if fact it is, which may be explained on the familiar commercial principle that there can be no insolvency where there is no credit. This, at least, is the unkindly commentary on the jubilations of the Taranakians made by one of the most distinguished of their visitors. The first acquaintance made with Taranaki was through the visits of whalers, who had frequent encounters with the natives, and inspired such wholesome terror that for a time the natives deserted the country near the coast, and either migrated south or retreated into the depth of the forest. Still later, in 1834, we find them taking a number of shipwrecked people prisoners, though on this occasion they did not eat them, preferring a quantity of soap which they found among the stores. This they baked in their ovens and devoured, with what result to their digestion may be imagined. In the year 1839 the Plymouth Company bought some land from the natives, who had in fear and trembling crept back to the country once occupied by their forefathers. But so few were they that when Ernst Dieffenbach visited Taranaki he wandered for days without meeting a single person or sign of habitation, save a few deserted plantations. The handful of wretched natives had hid themselves in the depth of the forest of their beautiful country, afraid to face the white man, of whose prowess they had such unpleasant traditions. When the first emigrants landed in 1841, Mr. Whitcomb describes the few natives who greeted them as miserable and dejected. Many of them were at times absolutely naked. After a while, gaining confidence, they came out of their hiding-places in the forest, and from distant places on the coast, "in order to see the white man, to marvel at his works, to trade with him in fish, firewood, and potatoes, and to share in the blankets and other things which had been promised in payment for the land." Disputes about the payment for the land soon ensued, and the Governor having decided that Jew's-harps and small-tooth combs were not a sufficient equivalent for the soil, which with such trifles the New

Zealand Company had bought it—the land, had for the time being to be given back to the natives. The result of this policy—for policy it was intended to be—was disastrous to the settlers. Many left; others went into the heavily timbered land to hew out new homes for themselves; while others purchased back, in the course of the next ten years, a little of the fine wild land lying waste and uncultivated by the natives, though at a cost altogether disproportionate to the immediate value of the ground. This decision of the Governor, founded on broad principles of justice and right, was, however, misunderstood by the natives. Then a land-league was formed amongst them, and with the land-league began the great Maori war of 1860. Of this war I need not speak: it resulted in little gain to anybody, and fearful loss to most concerned. The tale of our repulse from the Gate Pah is not one over which men of the English race need dwell with any pride. But the Waikato tribe was crushed, but not conquered. They retreated still further into their wilds, and there they still live. From liking the Europeans, they have come to hate them, and now try to protest against their religion and their manners still further by throwing off the Christianity which the missionaries taught them, and setting up, not their old faith, but a new one. This fresh manufactured religion was called by its votaries the *Pai Marire*, and its professors *Hau-Haus* (*How-Hows*), from the repeated use of that exclamation in battle or when war is imminent. It seems an absurd mixture of old Bible legends and horrible Maori practices, and the little ingenuity which had been bestowed on its drafting appeared to have been mainly devoted to making it as repulsive to Europeans as possible, and yet so acceptable to the old converts as to defy the missionaries to win them back again. The war ended in 1865, but the natives have never yet acknowledged themselves beaten, and since that day there have been various smaller disturbances.* They have, in imitation of the Europeans, set up a king, who is still living in his own territory in the Waikato country, into which he will admit no white man, except on sufferance. Various attempts have been made to get him to enter into pleasanter relations with us, but as yet without marked success. There is a “pale” in the old Irish sense, set up in the north island of New Zealand, and that “pale” is erected by the natives against the whites, a circumstance not in any degree very flattering to our pride. But in time even King *Tawhiao* will yield; already (in 1878) he has met Sir George Grey in a friendly manner. His people are melting away; they no doubt imagine themselves much superior to us man for man, but already they know that their gallantry can never stand against our united force, and so in time they will sell their land, and even Taranaki will be at peace. In thirty years the decrease of the Maoris (p. 109) has been something enormous. In 1842 they were estimated at 114,000; in 1850 at 70,000; in 1858 they numbered 55,790; in 1866 they were estimated at 45,000, which is the number they are given at in the last census; but many old colonists whom I have consulted consider this an exaggeration. It is probable that none of the figures given are correct, but they afford at least an idea of the manner in which this unfortunate people have been vanishing.

Auckland comprises within its boundary nearly one-half of the Northern Island, and being the most northerly part of the colony, its heat is greater than that of any other

* Gudgeon: “Reminiscences of the War in New Zealand” (1879).



VIEW OF THE HOT SPRINGS OF LAKE HOPE, AUCKLAND.

part of New Zealand, yet no part of the colony is more healthy. Extremes of heat and cold are unknown, while, owing to the large seaboard and the prevalence of sea-breezes, the summer heat is not nearly so great as in the same latitude on the Australian coast. The summer nights are generally so cool that a blanket cannot well be dispensed with; while even in the depth of winter frost and ice are almost unknown. During a period of ten years the births registered in the province exceeded the deaths by 12,112, a total which, it is needless to say, is much higher than in England or in any European country. Indeed, in this department of vital statistics New Zealand stands pre-eminent. Judging from the statistics of the last few years, the colony could be made to double its population in fifteen years, excluding altogether immigrants, and merely relying on the excess of births over deaths. In England, for instance, the birth-rate is about 35 per 1,000, and the death-rate, a very low one for Europe, 25 per 1,000. In New Zealand, on the contrary, there is a birth-rate of 11 per 1,000, while in 1876 it had the extraordinary low death-rate of 12.4 per 1,000. In the same year the excess of births over deaths rose to the enormous percentage of 230, while in England and Wales it is generally somewhere about 55 per cent., and in France is in many years scarcely appreciable. Returning to Auckland, we find that while 73 out of every 1,000 invalid soldiers were annually admitted to the hospital with fever, in New Zealand the number is only 4 per 1,000.* Fine timber of various kinds, and all European fruits, such as would grow, say in Greece, flourish in Auckland. The "native dog," supposed to have been introduced by some passing vessel, has become extinct, and the only other quadruped, the "native rat," has been exterminated by the "English rat." In many parts of the bush there are wild pigs, supposed to have been originally introduced by Captain Cook, and pig-hunting may be considered one of the sports of the country. Pheasants have become acclimatised in abundance, and there are numbers of native pigeons, ducks, and waterfowl. The remains of the moa are numerous, as well as those of other extinct wingless birds. The parson or tui bird (p. 101), the bell bird, and a number of smaller species, relieve the stillness of the woods, but there are few singing birds in New Zealand. Starlings, rooks, sparrows, and other English birds have been introduced, and are getting numerous. Seals, whales, and sharks, and an abundance of edible fish, are found around the coast, and doubtless in time the rivers will swarm with salmon and trout, which have been introduced with every prospect of succeeding. Coal is found in very extensive beds in the province, while iron, both in the forms of the ferruginous sands and ironstone, abounds. Gold is extensively mined. Silver, lead, and tin are known to exist, and copper was for a time mined, though, owing to the costliness of working, the undertaking has hitherto proved unsuccessful. Cement, fire-clay, and other potters' raw material have been found; while traces of petroleum have been discovered in Poverty Bay of so encouraging a character as to give foundation to the hope that at some future period New Zealand will be independent of the outer world for its light. The northern part of the province is generally broken and of very unequal quality, great tracts being unfitted for tillage, but still not without much good land. The settlers chiefly employ themselves in rearing cattle; sheep farming is extending, but the cultivation of cereals has not hitherto been carried on to any great

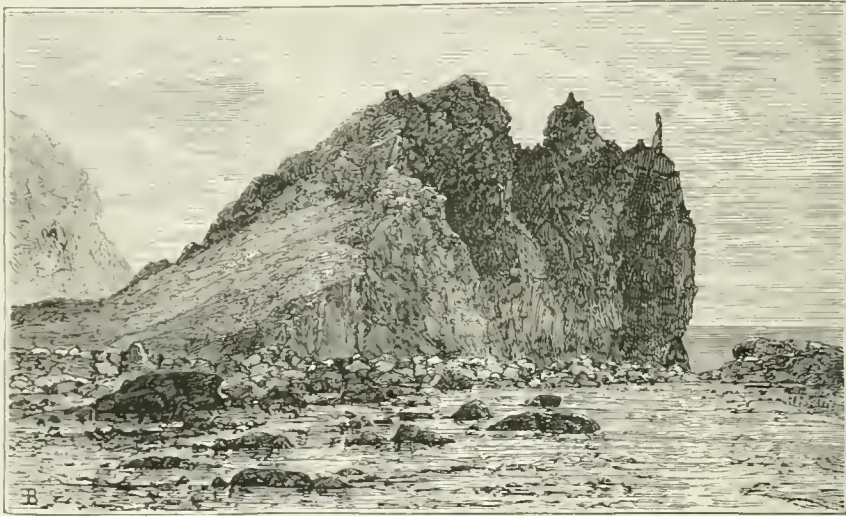
* Thomson: "The Story of New Zealand" (1859).

extent. The great seaboard of the province is likely to make it one of the strongholds of the shipbuilding industry of the country, and already a fleet of smart schooners and cutters attest the grasp which this trade has taken in the North Island, and presages the greater development which most probably it will take in the near future. The Isthmus of Auckland, connecting the northern part of the province with the southern, and about twenty-five miles in length, is nearly all well cultivated and fenced, sheep farming, grazing, hay and wheat growing being the chief directions which agriculture takes. The contour of the country is generally undulating, though broken here and there by volcanic cones. The southern part of the province is watered for 300 miles by the river Waikato and its tributary, the Waipa. The former rises in the Tongariro and Ruapehu Mountains, volcanoes 7,500 feet and 9,195 feet high respectively, situated in the province of Wellington. About thirty-five miles from its source the river gets lost in a lake (Taupo) within the province of Auckland, twenty-five miles long, and over 1,330 feet above the level of the sea (p. 113). About thirty miles from Tauranga, a well-sheltered harbour and town, is the lake district, which abounds with natural phenomena, that have rendered it, like the national park of North America (Vol. II., p. 91), one of the show places of the country. "There are," writes Dr. Kidd, "three large and many smaller lakes, the water in some of which is of a sky-blue colour. For miles the surface of the earth around Rotorua and Rotomahana Lakes (Plate XXXIV., and p. 117) is in a state of perturbation: holes and puddles filled with boiling mud abound everywhere. The great attractions of the district, however, are the geysers and magnificent terraces. These wonderful terraces are formed by a silicious deposit from the warm—in some places boiling—water that flows over them. The chief terrace, or rather series of terraces, one above the other, is 300 feet at the base and 150 feet high, the front being of circular form, and the whole structure grand and stately in appearance. On the lower terraces are hollows filled with the warm water flowing over, and forming natural marble baths. The water in them is of a deep blue tint, and the surface of the terraces exhibits a great variety of colours, pure white, pink, and blue predominating. This district is now much frequented by tourists, as well as by invalids suffering from rheumatism, sciatica, white swelling, &c., and it will doubtless, when better known, attract visitors from Europe."* But even apart from the Southern Wonderland, the scenery of Auckland is pleasant and even grand. The interior contains many of those landscapes which makes New Zealand so attractive (p. 125), while the coast is destined before long to attract visitors from the neighbouring colonies (pp. 120, 121).

Auckland was originally intended to be the chief province of New Zealand; its capital was at first selected for the capital of the colony, and to this day the Aucklanders would, I am afraid, say very contemptuous things anent the intellect and penetration of any one who would deny their claim to be the cream of New Zealand. There is no doubt that such it originally was. Here long before New Zealand was divided into provinces—before, indeed, it was known or recognised as a colony—the Pakeha Maoris, or Europeans who had taken up their abode with the natives, lived and

* See also Hochstetter: "New Zealand; its Physical Geography, Geology, and Natural History" (1868); Mundy: "Rotomahana" (1870); "Reise der Österreichischen Fregatte *Novara* um die Erde," &c. (1864), &c.

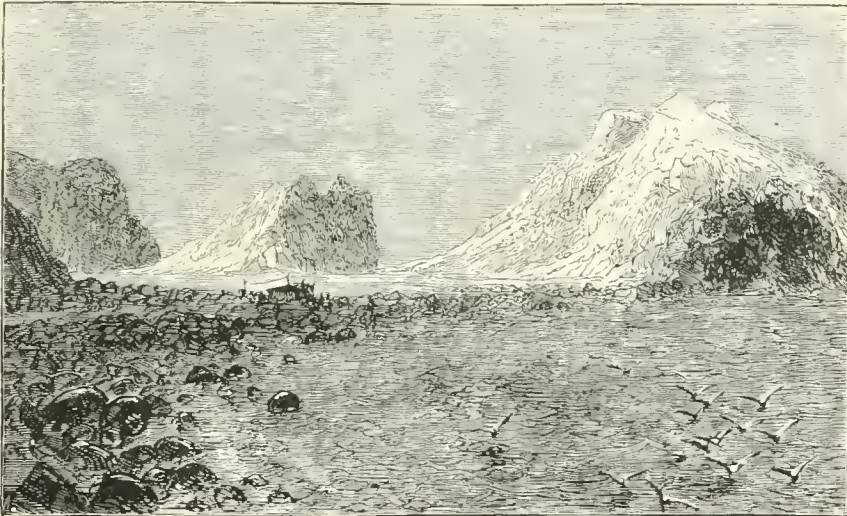
traded, generally married, and not unfrequently were eaten. It was in the province of Auckland, at Kororeka, in Bay of Islands, that Heke, the Maori chief, thrice cut down the flagstaff which the settlers had erected, and thus kindled the flames of that war with which New Zealand has been so unenviably associated in the world's recollection. Here Bishop Selwyn settled before New Zealand had the number of bishops it has in modern times; here, up to 1864, lived all the New Zealand Governors and bureaucrats; and in the pleasant town of Auckland, up to the same date, met the General Assembly or Federal Parliament of the provinces, until it was removed, for a reason that has never made itself clear to the Aucklanders, to the "city" of Wellington, a more central but less interesting town. Auckland Mr. Trollope looks upon as the typical New Zealand town. Dunedin is, no doubt, more populous; but Dunedin is a Scottish town, just



THE "SENTINEL" ROCK, WHITE ISLAND, AUCKLAND (DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY OF CAPTAIN COOK).

as Canterbury is an English one, and in either a Maori is just about as rare as he is in London. But in the streets of Auckland the Maoris and the half-castes still wander about in a listless and not always sober condition; and into this city, redolent of New Zealand, wander at uncertain intervals the Pakeha Maori, sometimes with his Maori brevet-spouse, in quest of tea, sugar, and brandy. Maori weapons are common "curios" in every tavern or private house, and out of the soil are continually being dug lethal tools (p. 97), which speak of other times—chronologically not very far off, but soon to be separated socially from ours by a wide gulf. Of their share in the Maori wars—with which Otago and Canterbury had no more to do than Buckinghamshire and Berkshire, which, like the Otago and Canterbury people, had to assist in paying for the powder and shot—the Aucklanders are rather proud, and are not disinclined to sneer at the South Island towns claiming any share in this great feature of the colony. But for Auckland to consider herself the chief province of New Zealand is only in keeping with that feeling which leads New Zealand to regard herself as the chief colony of England—a kindly

sentiment, which is, however, not acquiesced in by any of the other colonies: Canada, New South Wales, Victoria, the Cape, Jamaica—any one of our dependencies—loudly declaring herself to be the brightest jewel in the “diadem of the Queen,” always, however, with the proviso that, except in population, each and all of them are better than England. “In Victoria the boast is made with true Yankee confidence in ‘our institutions.’ Victoria declares herself to be different from England, and therefore better. But in New Zealand the assurance is altogether of a different nature. The New Zealander, among John Bulls, is the most John Bullish. He admits the supremacy of England to every place in the world, only he is more English than any Englishman at home. He tells you that he has the same climate, only somewhat improved; that he grows the same produce, only with somewhat heavier crops; that he has the same beautiful scenery at



THE BOULDER BEACH, WHITE ISLAND, AUCKLAND.

his doors, only somewhat grander in its nature and more diversified in its details; that he follows the same pursuits and after the same fashion, but with less of misery, less of want, and a more general participation in the gifts which God has given to the country. He reminds you that at Otago, in the south, the mean temperature is the same as at London, whereas at Auckland, in the north, he has just that improvement necessary to furnish the most perfect climate in the world. The mean temperature of the coldest month at London is 37° , which is only five degrees above freezing, whereas at Auckland it is 51° , which enables growth to continue the whole year. In the hottest month the mean temperature at Auckland is only 68° , which, says the Auckland, neither hinders a European from working nor debilitates his constitution. All good things have been given to this happy land, and when the Maori has melted here will be the navel of the earth. I know nothing to allege against the assurance. It is a land very happy in its climate: very happy in its promises. The poor Maori, who is now the source of all Auckland poetry, must first melt; and then, if her coal-fields can be made productive, and if the

iron which is washed to shore among the sands of the sea can be wrought into steel, I see no reason why Auckland should not rival London. I must specially observe one point as to which the New Zealand colonist imitates his brethren and ancestors at home, and far surpasses his Australian rival: he is very fond of getting drunk. And I would also observe to the New Zealander generally, as I have done to other colonists, that if he would blow his trumpet somewhat less loudly the music would gain in its effect upon the world at large." Such at least is the opinion of the chronicler of Bassetshire. Gold is not a product which is to be depended on as a stay for any country, though it may give it a temporary fillip, and even conduce to its eventual prosperity, if the gold, by the digging of which its soil is impoverished, is devoted to the development of the real riches of the country and the formation of works of permanent utility. The first gold found in New Zealand was discovered in 1852 at Coromandel, in the province of Auckland, though in this locality the diggings did not prove productive. In 1860 the Middle Island diggings "broke out," and in 1867 gold was found in the Thames River in the Northern Island, and the city of Grahamstown, the centre of the Auckland gold-fields, was established. The "diggers"—for the word "miners" is not, as in America, applied to those who wash gold out of the soil—are, as a rule, a well-behaved and even courteous race of men, and though doubtless, like many people in "the colonies" and elsewhere, they drink a great deal more than is good for them, they will abstain for weeks at a time, only "going on the spludge"—as the phrase is—when a lucky find is made, or the "bed rock struck" in some more than usually enticing manner. Then it is etiquette to ask the "digging" to drink. However, except at such rare periods an occasional "nobbler" will suffice the hard-working miner, whose life is one of alternate high hopes and bitter disappointments. Sir Julius Vogel justly claims that the gold-fields of New Zealand have been very productive. From the year 1861 to the end of 1877 they yielded gold to the value of upwards of £33,500,000. In eleven years gold to the value of £11,207,760 was exported from Otago alone; from Westland to the value of £6,343,835; while Nelson sent off in the same period (from 1860 to 1871) £1,158,310, and Auckland £2,193,946. It is probable that the yield will improve, as gold mines all over the country are being systematically worked. But it is not advisable for any one to emigrate with the sole object of devoting himself to gold mining. The pursuit is an uncertain one, and there are many experienced miners already in the colony. Coal—as we have already noted—exists in vast deposits in New Zealand. In some parts it is of the best quality; in others it is brown coal. Great attention is now being paid to developing the coal mines, and considerable quantities are brought to the ports for steamship purposes, which formerly were supplied from New South Wales. There is reason to think that petroleum, copper, and silver abound, and evidence of a rich ore of quicksilver has been discovered; while the ores of iron which abound in different parts of New Zealand are calculated to do a great deal more for it than all its mines of the more precious metal.

The Kauri pine (*Dammara australis*) is one of the best and most characteristic trees of the province. Its timber is exported to all parts of New Zealand, Australia, and the South Sea Islands, for the purpose of shipbuilding, as well as for general use in joinery and other domestic industries. It does not grow further south in 37° 30' S. lat. Accordingly,

it is not found in the southern part of Auckland, or in any of the other islands. Its gum—used in the glazing of calico, in the preparation of a cheap substitute for copal varnish, and (though this may be a calumny) in the manufacture of “real” amber mouth-pieces—is also a great article of commerce. It is dug out of the soil where it had fallen in ages past, though the trees from which it exuded have long ago disappeared in many parts where the gum bears witness to their former presence. The soil in which it is found being invariably barren, the Government have placed no restriction on its collection. Accordingly, it has been calculated that as many as 2,000 men have, at one time, been engaged in digging it, though of late years the demand for labour has rather lessened the attractions which gum digging has for the more shiftless kind of colonist, who loves to toil and rest at periods when he is “i’ the humour.” In three years (1870—1872) no less than 14,276½ tons, worth £197,199, were exported. A good deal of this is brought to market by the Maoris, who, at the Auckland price for first-class gum—£30 to £33 per ton—may earn from £1 10s. to £1 per week, though the average “wages made” are about £2. We have said that the kauri gum is got out of the soil. It still exudes from the trees, but the digger makes his harvest out of what has remained behind, after the trees of the old forests had fallen and rotted on the place where they stood. After some practice the digger learns where to search for the gum. Armed with a long spear, he prods the ground, and by touch knows where the hidden spoil is concealed. No doubt thousands of tons yet lie in the soil, but as the kauri forests are being rapidly cleared off by the settlers’ axes, a time will come when the world must find a substitute for kauri gum, as well as for the copal which, in many respects, it resembles.

HISTORY, PROSPECTS, ETC.

The Maoris (p. 109), some account of whom I have given in a companion work to this, were undoubtedly Polynesians, who to this day preserve the tradition of their arrival in this country, and even the names of the chiefs, and the canoes in which they arrived. A Sandwich Islander, who came with Captain Cook, could make himself understood by the natives of the North Island.

Who among christened men first sighted New Zealand must always remain a moot point, though it is probably Tasman who has the best right to that honour, albeit he never set foot on its soil. In 1776 Cook landed, and had some bellicose intercourse with the natives, and it was he who took possession of the islands in the name of King George III. of England. For seventy-five years after Cook’s visit we had communication with the islands, but the Colonial Office always waived the responsibility of assuming any absolute political control over them. The vagabond Briton had, of course, found them out. With his usual capacity for making himself quite at home he had squatted down on the shores, and without that certificate of character which I very much fear he might have had some difficulty in obtaining from any quarter, or which he might have hesitated to ask from the authorities at Norfolk Island or Port Arthur, he became a Pakeha Maori, always as much married as he could afford to be, and sometimes, with his national taste for doing at Rome as the Romans do, tattooed over considerable portions of his

person. He traded "flax" and sold fire-arms, killed seals and harpooned whales—sometimes on excellent terms with the natives, now and then their master, but not unfrequently running in hot haste away from the culinary fate which he had reason to apprehend at the hands of his man-eating associates. Missions were established, but the missionaries quite as often got eaten as succeeded in converting the stubborn, but withal intelligent natives. In 1835 a Mr. Busby attempted some form of government, but he failed; as did also a certain Baron de Thierry, who, in spite of his French name and title, was a Briton. The Government saw no good in colonising New Zealand. On the contrary, according to the philanthropic views which then, more than now, controlled Downing Street, the Colonial Secretary hesitated to risk the almost always fatal experiment of bringing white men in contact with brown ones. But the inevitable could not much longer be delayed, in spite of the passive resistance of ministers and the more active objections of missionaries. And so, after various tentative settlements, in 1825 a New Zealand Company was formed, with the intention of buying land from the natives. It did not, however, accomplish much; and so when, in 1839, another New Zealand Company arose out of the ashes of the other one, with Mr. Gibbon Wakefield and other better and less self-seeking men at its head, the ground was almost clear for their efforts. Then the Colonial Office could no longer postpone action, and accordingly, on the 13th of June, 1839, New Zealand was proclaimed a part of New South Wales, and Captain Hobson was appointed "Consul," with power, if it so pleased him, to assume the rank of Lieutenant-Governor. Colonel Wakefield and his settlers set vigorously to work, and in a brief space of time had "bought" from the natives a territory as large as Ireland for a trifling sum, paid in muskets, gunpowder, flints, red cotton nightcaps, pocket-handkerchiefs, looking-glasses, shaving brushes, sealing-wax, and Jews'-harps, without, however, inquiring very closely whether the delighted Maoris quite understood what it was all about. Then it was Captain Hobson's turn. On the site of the present city of Wellington he negotiated the treaty of Waitangi, by which the Maoris surrendered their island to England, and recognised the Queen of England as their sovereign, though still retaining their private rights as owners of the soil. This is the basis of our claim to the possession of New Zealand, and is still law, albeit it has had to be confirmed by the shedding of much blood: for it is very doubtful whether the chiefs and headmen who signed it understood it any more than those who peddled away their land in the vicinity of Wellington for the trifling considerations which Colonel Wakefield gave them for it, or if they did, it is more than questionable if they had any commission from their tribesmen to do so. Then the seat of government—at least, of such government as there was—was removed from the Bay of Islands to the site of the present city of Auckland, where it remained until—as has been duly noted—in 1864 Wellington attained that distinction. In 1842 New Zealand became a bishopric, the first holder of the episcopal office being Dr. Selwyn—afterwards Bishop of Lichfield—and soon, aided by the missionaries of different denominations who had been there before him,* and by those who succeeded him, New Zealand became, in name at least, almost a Christian land. The Canterbury settlement (p. 103), under the high-minded Godley, and the Presbyterian one of Otago, soon

* Buller: "Forty Years in New Zealand" (1879).



VIEW ON THE WAI-AU RIVER, NEW ZEALAND.

followed. Then came the mischief the seeds of which had been laid by the fatal policy of allowing settlers to bribe the natives into alienating their land. The Taranaki Native Land League gave the first expression to this patriotic feeling on the part of the Maoris. "The money," they said, "which we receive for our land is soon gone, but the land remains with the Europeans for ever!" This was the signal for war to the knife. Some of these contests we have briefly noted in passing from province to province. They were almost necessary on the part of the whites; but at the same time no generous writer can withhold from the Maoris that admiration which the sight of a nation fighting against fearfully unequal odds must obtain from their foes, and even from their enemies. Still immigration, though temporarily checked, never flowed backward, and with the discovery of gold in 1852 it largely increased. In 1860 the discovery of gold in the Middle Island gave an immense impetus to the colony, which stimulus spread in 1867 to the North Island on the opening out of the Auckland gold-fields. In 1853 New Zealand obtained a Constitution, and in 1854 the first General Assembly sat in Auckland. In 1876 the provincial form of government passed away, much to the benefit of the New Zealand of to-day, and still more to the future of these "insule dives opum prope *Australia*."

New Zealand social life and manners* have such a family likeness to those of Tasmania and Australia that it is better to delay any sketch of them until we consider the latter colonies. Nor is it necessary to dwell at any length on the outlying islands of the "Britain of the South." *Stewart Island* we have already touched on, but lying away from the coast are the Chatham and Auckland Isles, the Snares, Campbell, Antipodes, and Bounty. Of the Chatham Isles, Wairikaori, or Chatham, is the largest, and about one-third of it is productive. It is known that at one time most of these islands were inhabited by the Maori people, but owing to murderous invasions from the North Island of New Zealand, the latest census only gave 172 as inhabiting the group. No gold has been found, though the plants and animals are almost identical with those of the rest of the New Zealand group. The *Auckland* group is very mountainous, with scarcely any level land, and as the soil is covered with a thick bed of peat the islands are useless for agriculture. At one time there was a whaling establishment here, but it was abandoned in 1852. *Campbell Island* is the home of the "wandering albatross," whose nests, containing one egg, are found in abundance here. The *Antipodes* are volcanic isles, uninhabited. *Bounty Island* is also remarkable as being the nesting place of the "Lowland albatross," which lays two eggs. The *Snares* are unpeopled, save by innumerable multitudes of penguins, and the burrowing mutton birds, which undermine the ground-like rabbits.†

PLANTS AND ANIMALS.

The plants and animals of New Zealand have no relation to those of Tasmania or Australia. The only terrestrial mammal—the rat—has probably been introduced,

* See Lady Barker's "Station Life in New Zealand," and "Station Amusements," for a description of the salient aspects of rural life.

† For a complete description of the ornithology see Buller: "Birds of New Zealand" (1873).

but the bat (p. 112) is indigenous. Even the fifteen or sixteen species of whale found off the coast are peculiar to the neighbouring seas. Of reptiles and amphibia, there are eight species of lizard peculiar to the islands, a ringed sea-snake, and one species of frog, limited to the North Island, and found in no other part of the world, though, like the Australian frogs, allied to those of South America. The green frog of Australia, which was introduced a few years ago, is rapidly increasing and spreading. In addition to fifty or sixty species of introduced birds, there are about 150 native ones, the most remarkable of which are the wingless or struthious birds, of which the extinct moa and the living apteryx are the most remarkable representatives. There are also two species of cuckoo, both of which leave New Zealand in the winter, and must, therefore, fly over at least 1,200 miles of ocean before they find a resting-place. Of the fresh-water fishes, about 40 per cent. are found nowhere else, and the same fact holds true as regards the marine ones. Insects are few in species and individuals, though there is an exception to this rule in the case of the spider order, which numbers about 100 species. The most remarkable feature about the plants is that one-eighth of them belong to the fern family, while in Great Britain these form only one-twenty-fifth of the flora. Again, in Britain trees and shrubs form but one-forty-seventh of the flowering plants, but in New Zealand they comprise one-eighth of the whole. No rose, hyacinth, willow, primrose, or wood anemone is found; but, on the other hand, the woods are gay with tree ferns, though the horse-tails are singularly absent. Of the 950 or 1,000 plants, about 700 are peculiar, and of the remainder, about 250 are Australian and 60 European.*

Finally, we need only say that the trade of New Zealand is rapidly increasing. In 1878 its revenue was £1,415,560, and its expenditure £176,316 *less* than this. Its exports are chiefly wool, corn, flour, gum, and preserved meat, and its imports from Great Britain are iron, textile fabrics, and clothing.†

New Zealand is burdened with a heavy debt, but up to date she has shown no signs of breaking down under it. Should her prosperity continue, and above all, should her population and her revenue increase, her future is well assured, even though the return from the Crown lands should fail. Living on capital and forestalling the future is a dangerous system for a young people to commence housekeeping on, but an examination of the state of the colony inclines me to think that bankruptcy is among the contingencies which are least to be apprehended. This kindly hope one can entertain without being quite so sanguine as Sir Julius Vogel.‡

* These figures are given roughly, as the flora is not yet fully investigated. But it is not likely that the generalisations of Sir Joseph D. Hooker ("Flora of New Zealand") will be materially altered by future discoveries.

† "Statistics of New Zealand" (1878); Hayter's "Anstralian Statistics" (1878), &c.

‡ A pessimist will find much food for a contrary belief in Mr. Alex. J. Wilson's admirable "Resources of Modern Countries" (1877), Vol. II., p. 187.



VIEW OF BEN LOMOND, TASMANIA.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE COLONY OF TASMANIA: ITS GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS.

SAILING westward from New Zealand, we arrive at another British colony lying in the sea south of the eastern part of Australia. This is the large island known, until recent times, as Van Diemen's Land, though, if the reader desires to keep in the good graces of the colonists, he had better call it by the modern name of Tasmania. Van Diemen's Land was, no doubt, the designation originally applied to it, and which, therefore, by all rules of scientific nomenclature, ought still to be retained. But the name had an evil memory. It smacked of the hulks and the chain-gang, and a "Van-Diemonian" was, for long, the synonym for a convict. The flavour of its old condition as a place of transportation still hangs about it, and is a sore subject with the untainted settlers. Yet it had no more reason to be scoffed at as the prison home of Britannie blackguards than have Devon or Dorset, because Dartmoor and Portland are within their bounds. For more than twenty years no convicts have been sent from England to Tasmania. There are still a few of the old stock remaining at Port Arthur; and, of course, as Tasmania, even in its state of rejuvenated virtue, is not altogether free from domestic roguery, the old convict settlement will likely, for long to come, be kept from falling



HAULING TIMBER IN AUSTRALIA.

into utter decay by the presence of a few vagabonds of colonial breeding, just as Darlington, Pentridge, and St. Helena will be for the reception of the law-condemned knaves of New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. Discovered in 1642, it was named in honour of his patron, the Governor of the Dutch East Indies, by Abel Jans Van Tasman, a Dutch mariner, who was not only grateful for favours to Mynbeer Van Diemen, but was also violently in love with the Satrap's daughter, after whom he named a cape and an island, still tolerated by the colonists to whom the secret of



VIEW OF HOBART TOWN, TASMANIA.

their nomenclature has descended. It is not, however, until the end of the eighteenth and the beginning of the nineteenth centuries that we find any one paying much attention to it. But in the year 1802 the French navigators were casting suspiciously hungry glances at it, which probably accounts for the fact that in the year 1803 a few English soldiers and convicts were landed not far from the spot where Hobart Town now stands. Then free colonists arrived, and were assigned portions of land in proportion to the capital they brought into the country. Settlements multiplied, and public works grew up rapidly under the hands of the convicts, who also, in the form of "assigned servants," supplied, in many cases, good and, to the farmers, certainly inexpensive labour, though the British tax-payer took another view of the question. Finally, in 1825, the colony, which had hitherto been a part of New South Wales — at

that time the only colony in Australia—was declared independent. Transportation of criminals was abolished in 1853, and the name officially changed from Van Diemen's Land to Tasmania, just as the Metropolitan Board of Works graciously gives a fresh title to an old street which has got too notorious under its former one for respectable people to care for it as a home. Since then it has not been progressing anything like the rest of the Australian colonies. The reasons for this are various, but, as we shall presently find, are mainly to be referred to the fact that long familiarity with convict labour spoilt the people, just as a familiarity with slavery in any form demoralises those who, for the time being, seem to most profit by it.

Yet in beauty, climate, and natural riches, the island yields to none of the neighbouring colonies, and is, indeed, superior to most parts of Australia. In its greatest length, north to south, it is 240 miles, and from east to west about 200 miles. Including the neighbouring islands, it has an area of 26,300 square miles. Harbours abound. The south-eastern coast is deeply indented by the estuaries of the Derwent and Huon, and by Storm Bay, Pitt Water Inlet, and Frederick Hendrick Bay. On the west coast are the fine harbour of Macquarie, once a penal settlement, and Port Davey. On the east coast are Oyster Bay and Spring Bay, and on the north the estuary of the Tamar and numerous other small harbours. There are in the interior open places of limited extent, but the general character of the island is mountainous or undulating, with here and there deep narrow valleys, drained by a stream, rarely of any considerable size, except in the case of the Derwent, Tamar, and a few other rivers never navigable for any great distance. The chief mountains are Cradle Mount (5,069 feet), Ben Lomond (5,002 feet, p. 128), Ironstone Mount, Mount Barrow, Mount Wellington (4,195 feet, p. 141), and others of a less elevation. A considerable number of the rivers—especially those in the south-eastern section of the island—rise in beautiful lakes lying embosomed among the mountains at an elevation of about 3,000 feet. Most of the country is heavily timbered, though the trees being valuable, considerable tracts have been cleared. But it must be remembered that, with the exception of the basaltic plains, and a few other tracts incapable of bearing timber, the best soil is that which supports the bush, and that the greater portion of the island is uninhabited, and not likely to offer any attraction to settlers for many years yet to come. Indeed, the soil, climate, and position of many of the tracts render these parts of the country unfit for human abode, in the present position of the Australasian colonies. Bass's Strait—120 miles broad—separates Tasmania from the south-eastern extremity of Australia; but in almost every respect it differs widely from New Zealand, and in plant and animal life, though not as a rule in physical features, it approaches the great continental island which it lies so near to. The shores are generally bold and rocky, especially on the west coast—where, with the exception of the break for Macquarie Harbour, a broken range of barren cliffs of columnar basalt is the barrier presented to the sea. The north coast has, however, some sandy beaches, among others those along the fine estuary of the river Tamar, on which, forty miles from its mouth, stands Launceston, the second town in the colony.*

* "Tasmania—Past and Present," a Lecture, by Sir Charles Du Cane, Ex-Governor of the Colony (1875), p. 5.

According to official information, the island contains fifteen and a half million acres of land, and the islands connected with it one and a quarter million more: leaving the unalienated crown land-property at about twelve million acres, of which one and a half million acres are "be-pastured"—that is, leased by settlers for sheep or cattle runs. A great portion of the country is covered by gum-trees, forming dense unexplored forests; and of the eighteen counties into which it is divided, five on the west coast are understood to be "uninhabited and uninhabitable." Others are settled to the extent of strips along the shore or by the side of rivers. Indeed, without any wish to disparage Tasmania, or any other of our colonies, I may add that the map, without some explanatory letterpress, is not a very sure guide to the inexperienced student, its "cities" being frequently in embryo, while a county, and even a county town, in most of our colonies must not be taken too literally, or, at least, so literally as to convey to the reader's mind anything like that which the same terms do in Britain. Yet all agree that the scenery of Tasmania is very fine—if not magnificent—like that of some parts of New Zealand. Even the dark sunless gum-tree forests have to all, save the soulless, disappointed "cockatoo" (p. 106), something grand, so that, in a less metaphorical sense than that which Thackeray intended to convey by the sarcasm, one can even conceive a "well constituted convict experiencing a regret at leaving Van Diemen's Land."

Sir Charles Du Cane even grows enthusiastic over the byways of the land he ruled. The contrast in travelling from the sunny beaches, "doubtless destined to be crowned with Antipodean Brightons and St. Leonards," to the dense forest depths, into which at one plunge the roads often take, is pleasant in its variety. Overhead is the foliage of the great trees, almost shutting out the light of day, and below the tree-ferns growing with the most luxuriant beauty. "Not even the cry of a solitary bird would break the stillness of these realms of perpetual silence, as we threaded our way slowly for many miles along the narrow track, the sole sound heard being the tramp of our horses and our own frequent and earnest exhortations to them to hold up, as they tripped over the stubs and roots with which the tracks are so thickly studded. Then, perhaps, the sound of an axe would strike on the ear, and the track would emerge upon a small patch of newly-cleared and cultivated ground, in the middle of which was the hut of a settler who could boast he was monarch of all he surveyed." The scenery is in some of its features very English, in others very "un-English." In the settled districts the fields, surrounded by hedges, the homesteads and cottages, the villages—and, above all, the public-houses, and the sounds of revelry which emerge from them—are peculiarly British, while the mail-coach, with its scarlet-coated driver and guard, who "work it" between town and town, "awakening the echoes"—for often there is nothing else to awake—with the sound of the "yard of tin," and choking everybody within a score of yards with the clouds of red and black dust in which the coach is enveloped, are almost more English than England of these latter days itself. Yet all these aids to an Anglo-verisimilitude are exotic, as you are continually reminded by the great tree ferns, the blue gum, the stringy bark, the peppermint tree, the Huon pine, the blackwood, the swamp gum, the white gum, the sassafras, the celery-topped pine, the silver wattle, the tonga bean, and other trees which line the pathway; and, above all, by the flocks of gaudy-coloured parrots, flashing across the road, or settling on the telegraph

wires. Were anything further needful to dispel the illusion that it is not through English lanes the traveller is riding, it would be the swarms of white cockatoos following the plough in the field, over the fence, wending their way to the clump of "ever-never-green" eucalyptus, or disappearing in the dense and impenetrable sassafras and myrtle scrub of the unreclaimed forest, the semi-tropical luxuriance and perpetual verdure of which all bespeak another climate and a different order of things. The Tasmanians have no hot lakes and geysers to boast of like the New Zealanders, and their sole scenic lions—the Chudleigh stalactitic caves—are, it must be confessed, most uncomfortable subterranean wonders, which every visitor feels himself conscientiously bound to see, but which he leaves determined never to see again. M. Regnard visited Lapland and wrote a book about it; but he declared that though he would not have missed seeing Lapland for a good deal of money, it would take a great deal more to make him see it again. These are evidently a fair *précis* of the feelings of most exasperated visitors who ascend into sunlight again after crawling, bruised, disappointed, and dirty, through the blackness, wet, dirt, and darkness of the show place of Tasmania.

RESOURCES; ANIMALS; CLIMATE.

In 1877 the population was estimated at 107,104, but there were then no aborigines, the last of them having died the year previously. In 1878 the revenue from Custom-house duties was £216,629, which shows an advance over the previous three years. In the same year the total revenue was £381,029, also an advance over what the statistics had to show in 1875, 1876, and 1877. The value of the imports were £1,266,822, and of the exports, £1,250,967. In 1878, £59,122 worth of gold, more than double that of 1877, were exported, while the returns of tin or of tin ore for 1878 show that these mines are increasing in yield, £308,550 being the value of the metal sent out of the country. Wheat is the chief grain raised, though, owing to the prohibitory import duties imposed by the neighbouring Australian colonies, almost the only outlet for the surplus crop is to send it to England. Oats come next as regards the acreage devoted to it, and barley last. The soil is excellent, the average yield for wheat, barley, or oats being four quarters to the acre, and for potatoes from three to ten tons, the crop in some cases rising even higher; but the state of agriculture is low, the chief object of the farmer, seemingly, being to get as many crops in succession out of the land as possible, without putting anything in it, "and when his land will no longer grow wheat, to encourage it to grow thistles for the benefit of his neighbour." This, at least, is the charge brought against Tasmanian farmers by so lenient a critic of Tasmanian shortcomings as Sir Charles Du Cane, who declares that he has seen, on what ought to be the finest corn-growing land in the colony, thistle-down literally lying inches deep in the fields, and rising piled up like a snow-drift against the fences on either side of the road. Under these circumstances, it is not wonderful to hear that agriculture does not pay. It would, indeed, be rather remarkable if it did—especially with wheat at 4s. a bushel, instead of £1, as it was in the days of the early settlers, and those farmers' friends the "old hands." Sheep are, however, lucrative, and are likely in time to be still more profitable. Yet the pastoral interests are comparatively small. There are only about two million sheep



A SCENE IN THE TASMANIAN BUSH (KANGAROOS, EMU, AND "TIGER WOLVES").

in the colony, whereas a single Victoria firm has the credit of shearing annually a million, pastured over something like three millions of acres of freehold, or on land rented from the Government. Cattle and horses also do well, but the great minor agricultural or horticultural "interest" of Tasmania is fruit-growing. The climate of Tasmania is admirably suited to this. English fruits grow even better than in England. Tasmanian cherries are as fine as those of Kent, and infinitely more plentiful, and strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, apricots, plums, walnuts, and currants are in such profusion that they are hardly valued, except in wholesale quantities. Mulberries are also grown in profusion, and are so good that the Hobart Town people are inclined to think that the man who has eaten of their mulberries has nothing more to do gastronomically in the antipodean world. The apples and pears are quite as good as those of England, which those of Australia are not, and grapes ripen in the open air. Thus Nature seems to have intended Tasmania to be the jam factory of the South. And jam to a very considerable amount it makes, and exports green fruits as well. For example, in 1875 the latter were exported to the extent of 145,948 bushels, while the season's output of preserves will often amount to 1,200 or 1,500 tons. In Launceston and Hobart Town (p. 129) there are large companies engaged in this business, and minor establishments are springing up elsewhere, though the northern part of the island seems the best suited for the growth of most fruits. Unhappily, however, there is a crook in the jam-maker's lot. The Australians eat an immense quantity of all kinds of preserves. The Victoria stock-rider and miner are especially sweet-toothed, but the colonial tariffs keep out the Tasmanian jam, and so the Tasmanians, to spite "the colonies," keep out, or at least make as dear as they can, the Queensland sugar. Hence, by this concentrated foolishness, the gold-digger of Ballarat or Bendigo, and the stock-rider of the Riverina, eat dear preserves, or cheap ones made of pumpkins flavoured with fruit, while the Tasmanian confectioner still further hips himself in the fight by making his wares with dear sugar, and so rendering his market even less than it would otherwise be. Before leaving the sore subject of Tasmanian agriculture we may add, that another reason why farming in the colonies—and, above all, in Tasmania—will not "pay," is the high rate of labour and the low price of produce, in a country where there are many producers and few consumers. Hence it is that good oat-land, capable of giving sixty bushels to the acre, each bushel averaging 40 lbs., will not return to the owner and farmer combined over 10s. per acre. Bad farming has, of course, something to do with this, a country with few manufactures and much land more, but a belief in the worst kind of political economy, perhaps, most of all. Rust is the great scourge of the Australian wheat grower, and unless wheat brings a higher price than it does, in time it will cease to be a profitable crop. Coal exists in considerable quantity, and of fine quality, and is mined, though not to a great extent. Indeed, the island is mainly supplied from Newcastle, New South Wales, though for domestic purposes the native article is in some demand. Gold is obtained both from quartz reefs and from alluvial diggings, though the latter description of mines are limited. The quartz is, however, likely to be more lasting, and to supply material for the industry of a great number of men. Silver ore has been worked at Penguin Creek, but the operations were not found profitable. Tin is, however, obtained abundantly in the vicinity of Mount Bischoff, and iron is beginning to be mined to some extent. Slate and

limestone are worked, and various other minerals promise great things in the future. The timber trees we have already noticed, though their wood is not yet appreciated by cabinet-makers to the extent that it will be by-and-by. Bark is largely exported to England and to New Zealand for tanning purposes; but the hops, which may be extensively cultivated, are, like the jam, shut out of the Australian ports owing to the high "protective" tariff.

In 1876 the population of Tasmania was calculated at 105,484, the males exceeding the females, though not to the extent they do in most of the other neighbouring colonies. In that year there were 746 marriages, 3,149 births, and 1,730 deaths. In the same year 8,571 people arrived in it, and 8,169 left it, though many of the latter were merely temporary absentees, who had gone on a visit to Australia, New Zealand, England, or elsewhere. One remarkable feature about Tasmania is the small mortality among children—particularly those under one year. Taking an average of ten years, Hayter has arrived at the following data: Out of 100 infants born there died within the first year, in Tasmania, 10·01; in New South Wales, 10·52; in Queensland, 12·69; in Victoria, 12·50; in South Australia, 15·61; the number in England being about 16, and in Scotland about 12½. The percentage of deaths of children under five was, according to Nowell: Tasmania, 20·08; New South Wales, 42·14; Victoria, 45·50; Queensland, 46·33; South Australia, 54·17. The proportion of children under five who died to 1,000 children of the same age living was: In Victoria (ten years), about 52½; in England and Wales (thirty years), about 67½; in Tasmania, less than 27. Thus it appears that the mortality of children under five years of age in Tasmania is little more than half that of the least healthy of the Australian colonies. It is also healthier than New Zealand, which, as regards the death-rate, is the most salubrious of all the Australasian group. The population, distributed according to their religious beliefs, belongs, about one-half to the Church of England; the next largest sect is the Church of Rome; and the smallest of all—a mere fraction—the Jews.

Of the forty mammals found in Tasmania, one-half belongs to the order which comprises the kangaroo and opossum, and among the most remarkable are the kangaroo, wallaby, opossum, bandicoot, Tasmanian "devil" (*Dasyurus ursinus*, p. 145), and "tiger wolf" (*Thylacinus cynocephalus*, p. 133), both of which are very destructive to sheep.

The majority of the birds (162 in number) are identical with those of Australia. The emu—though figured in the *generalised* engraving on p. 133—has been extinct for some years, but the black swan (p. 137) still survives in a few of the out-of-the-way districts. Game birds—quail, duck, snipe, golden plover, and pigeon—are common; and in the islands of Bass's Strait are yearly slaughtered, for the sake of its oil, and also for food by the sealers, thousands of the mutton bird (*Puffinus brevicaudus*). There are, however, believed to be about twenty peculiar to the island. The notes of some of these are musical, the most remarkable being the reed warbler, the tones of which are not unlike the nightingale, the black and white magpie, and the butcher bird. The surrounding seas and rivers abound in fish, the most valuable of the fresh-water species being the "cucumber grayling." The trumpeter, which reaches a weight of 40 lbs., is the most appreciated of the salt-water species, and during the last twelve years salmon trout, brown trout, tench, and perch have been naturalised in many of the rivers and lakes.

It is evident that physically Tasmania is only a part of Australia, the islands in Bass's Strait being the last remaining fragments of the land which once connected the two in the Tertiary period. In many respects it resembles Gipp's Land, on the opposite Victorian coast, the great Australian Cordilleras having impressed its features on the continent; but the isolated position of Tasmania has brought it more under oceanic influences than Victoria. Hence the better watered condition of the country and the more equable climate. The climate, indeed, is very mild—almost perfection.

Mosquitoes, the pests of many of the neighbouring colonies, are few, and though noxious reptiles exist, fatal accidents from their bite are rare. The extreme of heat at Hobart Town is 105° , and of cold 29.8° Fahrenheit. The hottest month is January, the coldest July, while the mean temperature of the whole year is 54.92° . These are the averages of a number of years' observations, but in some parts of the island the winter's cold never falls so low as 45° . Snow seldom falls, and then only lies in the elevated districts for any length of time. The average rainfall is 35 inches; at Hobart Town it is much lower, but on the west coast not unfrequently there are very wet seasons. There are no tracts of bare desert in the island: hence the hot winds of Australia are unknown, except when, on rare occasions, the sirocco crosses Bass's Strait and visits the northern shores. Even then it is rare that the hot blast lasts longer than the second day, when it is routed by the cold wind from the Antarctic ice-fields. Hence the nights are generally cool, and, unless during the warmest of weather, the bush fires, which are the terror of the Australian squatter, are unknown. The latter end of summer and the whole of autumn are beautiful: then it is that the holiday visitors from Melbourne flock to Tasmania, likely before long to be their playground. The winter is not a disagreeable season, albeit the wind blows loudly enough, and hail and rain are frequent. There is a tradition that once on a time there was snowballing for three entire days in the streets of Hobart Town, but no one, unless the "oldest inhabitant," has any more experience of snow than seeing it whiten the crest of Mount Wellington and the neighbouring hills; indeed, the favourite comparison of Tasmania with the South of France is not quite so wild as some of the comforting colonial assertions. Brazen music becomes in time monotonous, especially when the performers all play the same tune.

TOWNS AND MEX.

There are only two towns worthy of the name—Hobart Town (p. 129) and Launceston—albeit there are a number of villages which, though possessed of mayors and municipalities, must be pronounced—out of hearing of their citizens—as mere villages, destined, perhaps, to become cities by-and-by. Hobart Town, the capital, has over 22,000 inhabitants, and is a town with less of rawness and ruggedness than usually obtains among mushroom colonial "cities." But the Tasmanian capital is no civic parvenu: it is, for the Antipodes, even venerable, and has grown up leisurely and quietly, without any fillip from gold "excitements" or vulgar "rushes" of any sort. Nature has done much for it; John Bull's money a good deal more; while the unwilling labour of generations of convicts has raised its public buildings, and macadamised its roads in that substantial, comfortable fashion that is usually absent from young communities abhorrent of rates and jealous of the doings of finance ministers. Its quays

and wharves are well built, and allow vessels of small tonnage to lie in the very heart of the town. The buildings are good, and the private houses, in spite of the outcry about hard times and a decaying colony, seem the abode of people who have got over the initiatory struggles of colonial life, and attained that mellowness which easy circumstances and a sense of the fact gives to mankind even at the Antipodes. The villas in the vicinity are quite as dignified as any "boxes" in the suburbs of a large English town; and altogether, the ways



THE BLACK SWAN OF AUSTRALIA AND TASMANIA (*Cygnus atratus*).

of life, the clubs, and the picnics remind the visitor that, though he has altered his sky, the people are the same as those he left behind him on the other side of the world. Mount Wellington (p. 141) and Mount Nelson are familiar objects in the landscape, and to climb them is one of the common amusements of the holiday-making citizens and their visitors. Hobart Town is indeed a show-place. The grumblers who declare that the colony is going to the bad—which declaration the present writer takes the liberty of doubting—assert that the capital is kept alive by the visitors who flock to it during the summer months to escape the terrible heat of the Australian colonies. The same people

affirm that in the rural districts the settlers are so poor that they cannot live, though the dullest eye can see that the most poverty-stricken farmer is in Tasmania infinitely better situated than he would be as an agricultural labourer in England or elsewhere. Indeed, one of the writers on the colony—a settler of five years' date*—denies the pessimistic assertion thus confidently made. No doubt, however, there is some reason for despondency, or at least for discontent.

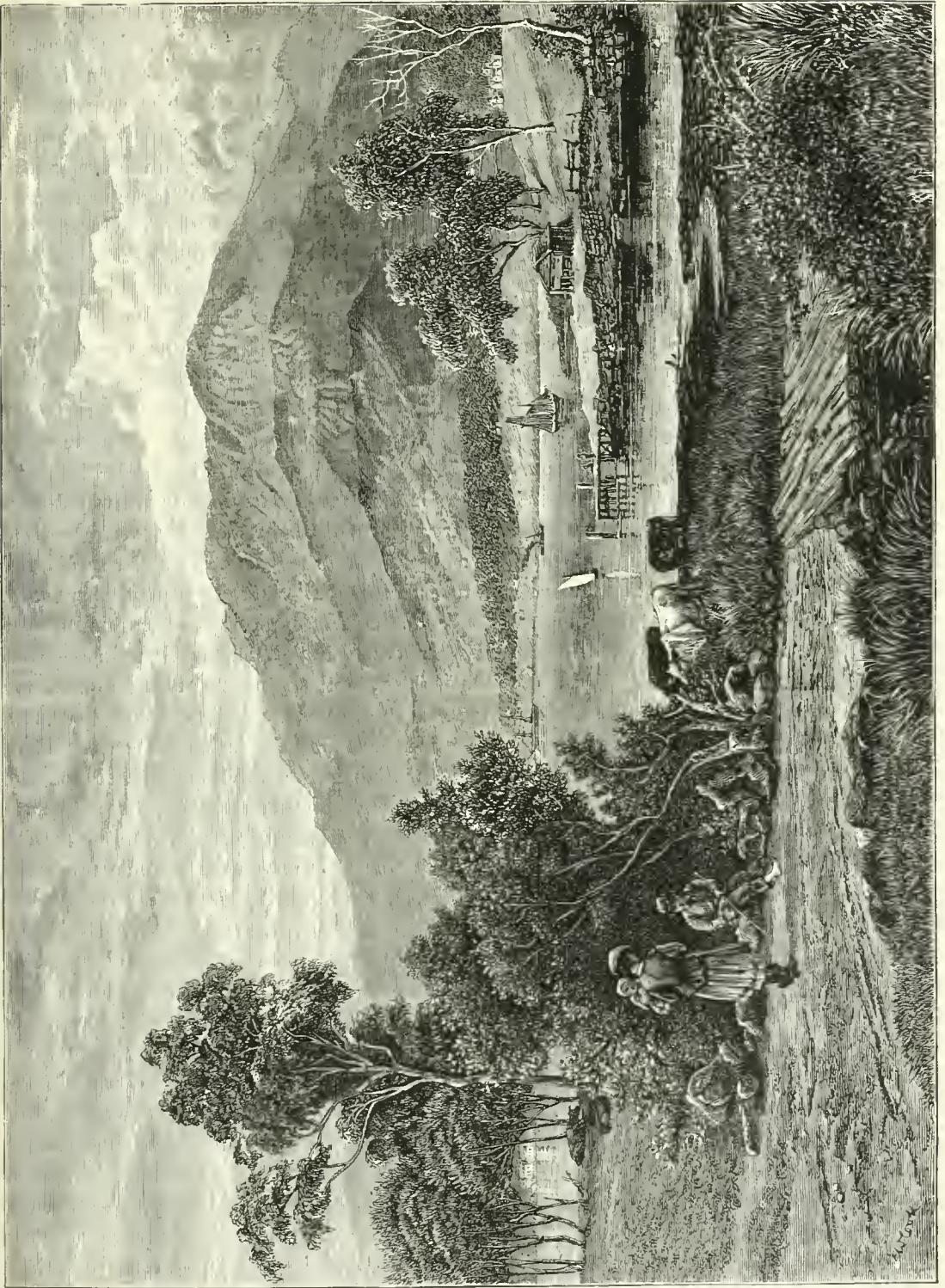
Tasmania, though patriarchal for an antipodean colony, is still young: it is not over seventy years of age, and should have a long lease of manhood before it. Yet from 1866 to 1870 the total increase in the population was only 403. In the latter year, 340 emigrants, chiefly German, were brought into the colony by a system of bounties, but the number was so small as to show that the effort to attract population by this means was a failure, though it is still persisted in. But the statistics given prove, I think, that the colony is advancing, though slowly, and that a better future is before "Sleepy Hollow," as even the settlers themselves call their island home. Between Hobart Town in the south and Launceston in the north there is not only a good macadamised road made by convict labour, but a railway. Accordingly, this part of the island is comparatively well settled, and little land is open for selection. Farms may be bought or rented; but—and this illustrates the weak point in Tasmanian farming—the land is generally "worn out"—that is, everything has been taken out of it, and nothing put in it, while it has not been allowed to lie fallow long enough for fresh soil to be formed by the breaking up of the surface materials. But along the north coast, and on both the east and west sides of the island, there are still large parcels of unoccupied, though wooded, land. There is, however, one consolation to the owner of a bush-covered farm—that is, that the heaviest wooded soil is, as a rule, the best. Launceston is beautifully situated at the junction of the North and South Esk rivers with the Tamar, up which the steamer sails to reach it. Though not so populous as Hobart Town—it has but 11,000 inhabitants—Launceston is commercially a more prosperous place than the capital, owing to its vicinity to Melbourne, and from the fact that the northern side of the island, of which it is the *entrepôt*, is richer than the south. From Launceston, also, branches off another line of railway to Deloraine, which is intended to run by-and-by to Port Frederick, the lines thus traversing the richest parts of the colony. The town of Launceston itself—if the Government buildings of Hobart Town were present—does not fall much short of the capital in general appearance. The streets are well laid out, the shops good, and the hills around dotted with villas and flower-gardens. To the north the Tamar spreads out like a lake, and on the west the Esk, not much less beautiful than its Scottish namesake, joins it. Like every other colonial town of any consequence, Launceston possesses numerous churches, a fine town-hall, a public library and lecture-room, a sumptuous mechanics' institute, a club, a theatre, a botanic garden, and a multiplicity of banks, which, in spite of the reputed poverty of the island, seem to prosper after a wholesomely quiet fashion. In the vicinity of the town, the Cataract and the Devil's Punch-bowl, on the South Esk, and Clark's Ford, Distillery Creek, and Cora Linn, on the North Esk, are favourite places for drives, but the scenery hereabouts is not equal to that of Hobart Town. Doubtless, trade in Tasmania is, compared with the other colonies, pronouncedly

* "Tasmania," by a Recent Settler (1879).

dull. The male population has, in the first place, too many old and young people for a prosperous colony, and the proportion of girls to boys among the rising generation is greater than what usually prevails in older countries. It is, indeed, a remarkable physiological fact that in the Australasian colonies generally the male progeny is more numerous than the female, a rule which applies to horses, sheep, and cattle, as well as to the human race. Nor is the population increasing much by immigration. In 1877 the population was 107,104, not so much as a good-sized town of the third or fourth-rate order in Europe. Seven years before it was 100,765; in 1853, 75,000. Compare this with Queensland, which in 1859 began her independent career with 18,000 inhabitants. In 1870 she had 115,000, and at present the population cannot be less than 208,000 (as it was over 203,081 in 1877).

One chief cause for this was the stoppage of penal transportation to the colony. This aided, no doubt, the increase of population in one direction, but it retarded it in another. So long as convicts were in the country there was much imperial money spent in it; taxation was light, public works went on apace; and instead of the cost of farm labour being prohibitory, the "assigned servants" from the penal establishment at Port Arthur always supplied an abundant and even excellent supply of assistants. The ladies who remember the "old times" still talk regretfully of the unworthy women whom a paternal government assigned them as cooks and housemaids, and of the red-coated partners they had at Hobart Town balls when two of Her Majesty's regiments lay in quarters in the colony. Martial music resounded in the streets, and loyalty was nurtured by British money being lavishly spent for the benefit of the free settlers, who were burning and shining lights in the midst of a wicked generation of deportees. There is a great deal of "loyalty" yet, but it is not quite so blatant as it once was, and is likely to decrease in an exact ratio to the decrease of Government subsidies to the Port Arthur establishment, which now contains very few imperial convicts. For each of these a specified sum is paid out of the imperial treasury; for her own wicked folks, of course, Tasmania must herself pay. Nor could it be said that in the old convict days the country lacked prosperity. Hobart Town in the south, and Launceston in the north, developed during this immoral period into flourishing towns, with schools, churches, and other public institutions; and it was convict labour that made the splendid macadamised road which runs for 120 miles between these towns. Annually over £350,000 were spent in the colony. Settlement progressed with great rapidity, and the settlers grew rich. Nor is it easy to see how they could not. There was a market for everything which they chose to raise, and there were even periodical famines—or, at least, such times of scarcity that provisions rose to famine prices. For instance, in the year 1804 flour was quoted at £112 per ton; in 1807 the crop failed, and wheat rose to £4 a bushel, or £32 a quarter, and then a garrison order was issued rendering it a punishable offence for the settlers to charge *more* than £4 a bushel. In 1817 tea was quoted at 15s. per pound at the beginning of the year, but in May it rose to 40s., and so continued for some time. Tasmania even became the parent of new communities. Bateman, Henty, and Fawcner crossed Bass's Strait, and founded the flourishing settlement on the shores of Port Phillip which afterwards grew into the most populous of all the Australian colonies, viz., Victoria; and "Vandemonian" wool, fruit, and wheat were in great demand among all the other Australian colonies.

But Tasmania did not know when she was well off. The Vandiemonians became fat, and kicked at the idea of their island being a penal settlement, and commenced an agitation for the stoppage of transportation to it. "It began," writes Mr. Trollope, "to be unendurable to them that their beautiful island, the sweetest in climate, the loveliest in scenery, the richest in rivers and harbours, the most accessible of all Great Britain's Eastern colonies, should be known to the world also as Great Britain's gaol. So Tasmania spoke her mind, and, of course, had her way, as has been the case with all Great Britain's children ever since the tea was thrown over at Boston." It is just possible, however, that the Tasmanian children would have obtained their wishes not quite so quickly, had not in the midst of the agitation come the Australian gold discoveries. Then every one who could muster enough to buy a pick-axe and shovel was rushing to the Ballarat and Bendigo diggings at the rate of 500 a day; public offices were left deserted, ships without crews or captains, farms without farmers or labourers, households without servants, and sheep-shearers on strike for £7 a day. Under these circumstances the Imperial Government, not unreasonably, hesitated to despatch a ship-load or two of ruffianism from the mother country to increase the chaos. As it was, the authorities had enough to do to keep the convicts secure. Escapes were common, and the "assigned servants" and "expirees" flocked to Victoria, with an effect on the moral and social condition of Melbourne and the diggings which can scarcely be over-coloured. Accordingly, in 1853, transportation to Van Diemen's Land ceased, and under the new title of Tasmania the colony commenced a fresh existence. But, as we have more than once indicated, it has not prospered; the old convict labour and subsidies spoiled the free settlers for the time being. Yet few could wish to return to the old days. The moral effect of the penal settlement was utterly bad while it lasted, and the after results are evident in the low moral tone which it is affirmed by some of the best friends of Tasmania unhappily characterises the settlers at large. It must be remembered that many of the "old hands" are now colonists, and fresh blood being scarce, they naturally tainted the rising generation, with whom, indeed, they always came much in contact during former days when "assigned servants," for whose duration the settler was responsible, were members of every household of any consequence. The convicts in Van Diemen's Land were also some of the very worst that could be sent. They were the overflow of New South Wales and those who had been transplanted from Norfolk Island, for a time the abode of the most desperate ruffians who crossed the sea for neither the good of the country they had left nor that which they had gone to. From 1804 to 1856, when responsible government was established, the history of Van Diemen's Land is simply the history of a convict settlement. "How to manage convicts, how to get work out of them with the least possible chance of escape, how to catch them when they did escape, how to give them their liberty when they made no attempt at escape, how to punish them and how not to punish them, how to make them understand that they were simply beasts of burden, reduced to that degree by their own vileness, and how to make them understand, at the same time, that if under the most difficult circumstances for the exercise of virtue they would cease to be vicious, they might cease also to be beasts of burden: these were the tasks which were imposed on the governors and their satellites, not only on all officers, military and civil, not only



VIEW OF MOUNT WELLINGTON, TASMANIA.

on the army of gaolers, warders, and such like, which was necessary, but also on every free settler and on every free man in the island. For no one who had cast in his lot with Van Diemen's Land could be free from the taint of the establishment, or unconnected with the advantages which it certainly bestowed." This graphic description of Mr. Trollope, gathered from the mouths of those who had been eye-witnesses of and sharers in the events described, is confirmed by Governor Du Cane, who had even better opportunities of knowing the state of matters described. The convicts, in spite of the Government vigilance, frequently escaped, and became bushrangers, living solitarily in the interior, seeing no human face, save that of the black woman with whom they cohabited, unless when a raid was being made upon the settlers' farms for plunder, and sometimes for murder. These ruffians also brutally ill-used the natives, shooting them down in the most wanton manner—sometimes, it is said, as food for their dogs. When the island was first settled they numbered, according to various estimates, from 3,000 to 5,000, but owing to the villainous murders of these bushrangers and others they rapidly decreased. The remnant were gathered together by the Government, and the last—a woman—died in 1876.

As for the convicts, the tales of their outrages on black and white Tasmanians would fill a volume. Less could not have been expected from them. As a rule, they were the most worthless of mankind; and if any trace of a better nature remained, the discipline of Macquarie Harbour and Port Arthur was apt to extinguish it. Macquarie, soon abandoned, was the place to which only the most abandoned and desperate of criminals were sent, and by all accounts—I quote Sir Charles Du Cane—it "could have been little short of a hell upon earth." Heavy irons and the lash were the punishments for almost any offence, and the more insubordinate a man was the heavier he was ironed and the more he was lashed, until his spirit was utterly broken or he became a human fiend. That, indeed, many of "the prisoners" did become. At the entrance to the place of bondage might have been written the inscription over the entrance to Dante's "Inferno": "Leave hope behind all ye who enter here." The prisoner could not escape by sea, and between the convict settlement and the cultivated part of the island lay sixty miles of almost impenetrable bush, through which ran an ill-defined trail. Yet the track was sufficiently marked for any convict, who might escape and keep to it, to be hunted down, brought back, and lashed and ironed worse than before. If they left the trail and took to the bush, they generally either died of starvation, or survived by drawing lots which should first be devoured by his companions. After Macquarie Harbour was abandoned, Port Arthur remained the only convict settlement in the whole island. This station is situated on Tasman's Peninsula, a neck of land on the south-eastern part of the island, very hilly, deeply indented by bays, and covered with dense forests of gum-tree. It is connected with the rest of Tasmania by the Eagle Hawk Neck, an isthmus which was always kept closely guarded by armed men and savage dogs. If a prisoner escaped, the fact was promptly signalled to the Neck. Then the guards—biped and quadruped—were on the alert, and as it was next to impossible for the prisoner to escape by sea, the chances of his eluding the guards by daytime was slight indeed. At night the dogs' kennels—large casks—were turned bottom upwards, so that they usually lay on the top of them and bayed the moon. The Neck was cut into by a narrow creek, over which a

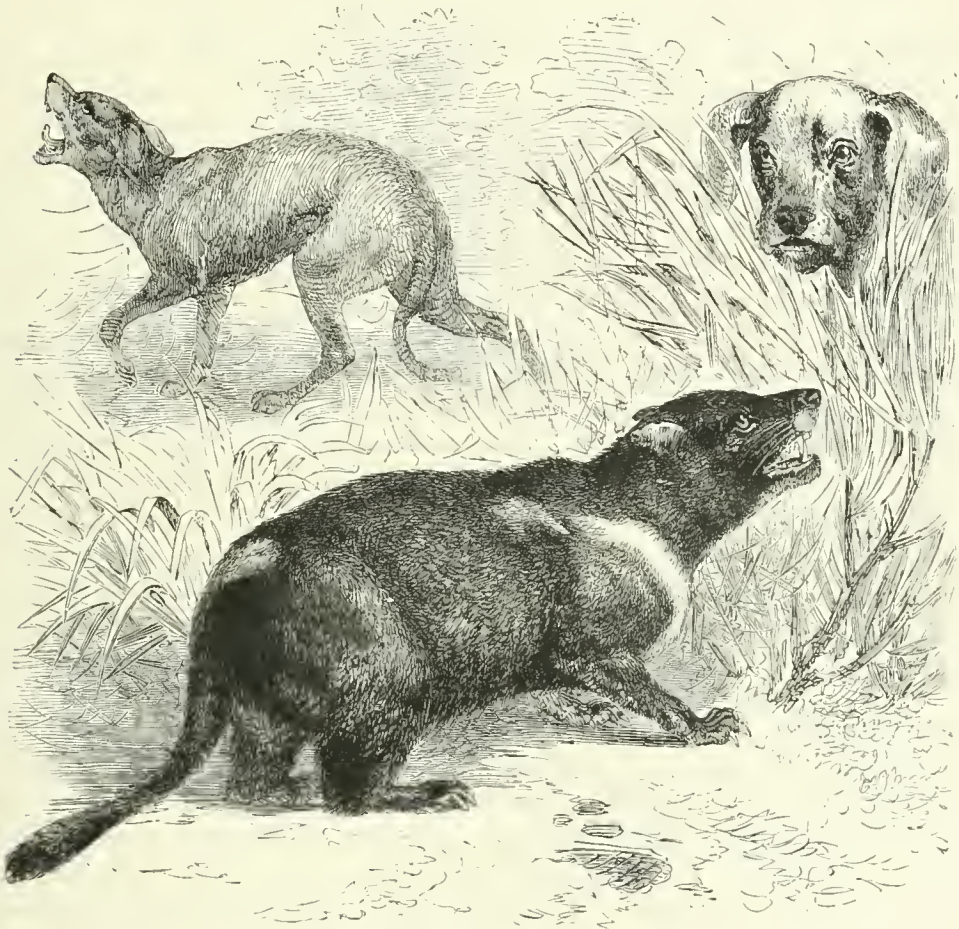
man could easily swim—if he did not dread the sharks with which it swarmed; but as the sharks were dreaded even more than the dogs, it was but seldom that this method of escaping from bondage was attempted. There have, however, been a few cases in which the convicts baffled their foes and reached the opposite land; but even then the runaway had a weary task before him before he could reach the haunts of men. Mile after mile of trackless bush had to be traversed, and the stories of the hardships endured by these hunted “miserables” still form a substantial item in the Tasmanian tales of horror. But those days have passed away, and Port Arthur, with its pretty church and cottages, looks as if it had never known the degradation of being the home of perhaps the most infamous of men. Instead of thousands of convicts, there are now less than a score; and, probably, before these lines are in the reader’s hand the number will be so far reduced that only insane criminals and colonial ones will be on the isthmus. The prison establishment has the appearance of “a large, clean, well-built village, with various factories, breweries, and the like,” and, in fact, of everything which is not and has not been.

The sacrifice entailed by losing the convicts was more to Van Diemen’s Land than it was to New South Wales, which thirteen years earlier had struck against them being sent to her. The latter colony had become a large and self-supporting community, no longer dependent on the money which the mother country gave her for the support of the offscourings of England. Van Diemen’s Land, on the contrary, was a comparatively small and poor colony. When the agitation was set agoing for the stoppage of convict immigrants there were not over 75,000 free inhabitants in the country. But these succeeded in their aim—spite of the Government opposition—for national pride prevailed over the baser love of pelf. No doubt, since that time there have arisen a great many people—in Tasmania and out of it—who think the Vandiemonians acted too precipitately, and that, in a word, they were too poor to be so prodigiously virtuous. The ladies’ view and the farmers’ view of it I have already mentioned; but there was also the Government view. With the expiry of the convict system Tasmania got responsible government, and, “Lord of itself, that heritage of woe”—as undoubtedly the gift has proved to many of the smaller colonies—the Tasmanians became the prey of that objectionable personage, the small professional politician. Taxes multiplied, and public works decreased. The apathy and pauperisation which always attend a community taught to rely on Government aid had, however, too thoroughly sapped the Tasmanians’ self-reliance for them readily to accommodate themselves to the new order of things. Hence the feeling of sickness which she experienced, and the longing for “the unwholesome nourishment which she herself was wise enough to throw away from her.” When Tasmania was under the convict establishment *régime* the demoralising effect on the community must have been terrible. The mere fact of children having to listen to the stories of such and such like “lag’s” crimes was bad, but when the same child had to grow up in daily contact with a man or a woman who had been one of the vilest of criminals in England the effect must have been infinitely worse. These “assigned servants” had often good masters, and were generally wise enough to know when they were well off. But not unfrequently they were incorrigible vagabonds, who were perpetually—but naturally—trying to escape, or when not escaping, shirking work, though ready enough to eat the rations which they received in return. The master had no power to punish

them; but he had the right of sending them before the nearest magistrate to receive the Tasmanian cure for every convict ill. The "lag" marched over to the Justice of the Peace with a serawl to the effect—"Dear sir, please give the bearer three dozen, and oblige,—yours truly, ——" The magistrate was invariably a squatter, or at least an employer of "assigned servants," and of course never for a moment doubted his friend's words. Indeed, as a general rule, there was little doubt about the turpitude of the recipient of the three dozen, and in time the formal deposition of witnesses as to the servant's character ceased to be demanded by the lax J.P. The man, having very little power to revolt, generally took the note—and the three dozen—and returned not much the worse, physically, for his visit to the "flagellator," though morally nearer the wild beast than he was four-and-twenty hours previously. "A bold spirit," we are told, "would perhaps run away. Then he would be traeked, and dogged, and starved till he came back or was brought back, and the last state of this man would be worse than the first." Sometimes the assigned servant did not escape, but remained to murder his master and his master's family when a convenient chance occurred. Murder and attempt to murder were the most common of Tasmanian crimes, and for these, as well as for milder offences, hanging was the effectual cure, so far as the individual operated on was concerned. But to kill one man did not deter another from the commission of the crime he had suffered for. Indeed, so bitter were the lives of these deportees that it is believed murder was often committed for no other object than to escape the misery of their existence. Hence the hangman was in much request. The gaol chaplain—so runs a traditional tale at Hobart Town—once remonstrated with the authorities against the inconvenient celerity with which the last office of the law was performed. "Thirteen men could be hanged at once comfortably, but no more." The hangman was a well-paid, though not a popular, official. So also were the flagellators—old convicts promoted to the employment of flogging their brethren at the different stations. After banishment was done away with the flagellators found their occupation gone, and seem to have disappeared. At all events, nobody cares to acknowledge that he belonged to the profession. A few died a natural death, but a great many an unnatural one when they were recognised by their old patients. For the flagellators, as may reasonably be believed, were not dearly beloved officials: neither were they long-lived.

It was only the most adventurous spirits who escaped or attempted to escape. A great many of the worst found this a difficult task. They were from the day of arriving shut up in the Port Arthur establishment, or at least confined within the limits of the Tasman Peninsula, and hence, if they attempted their escape, they had to run the gauntlet of the men and dogs on "the Neck" or of the sharks in the creek. But another section were employed on Government works, making roads through the bush or wharves along the shore. They were under surveillance, though not always, and hence may be said to have enjoyed, with what zest the gregarious "gaol birds" of a great city could, the open-air life of the Antipodes. But the great majority—men and women—were "assigned" as servants to the free settlers, who were so far responsible for their safety that they were bound to report their escape immediately, and keep them under a wholesome condition of discipline. These sometimes levanted, but,

as may be easily understood, they were not the material from whom the bushrangers were principally drawn. "The first preliminaries of escape were easy," writes the eminent novelist whose graphic word-pictures I have so often quoted. "A man could run into the bush, and be quit at any rate of the labour of the hour. If he were shepherding sheep, or building fences, or felling timber during the greater part of the day, no eye, unless that of a brother convict, was upon him. He could go, and the chances of the world



THE TASMANIAN "DEVIL" (*Dasyurus ursinus*).

were open to him. But when these first preliminaries were so easy, it was, of course, essential that they should ordinarily be rendered unsuccessful, and that the attempt should be followed by speedy and sharp punishment. The escaped convict was at once hunted, and generally tracked by the facilities which starvation afforded to his pursuers. No one but an escaped convict would feed an escaped convict, and none but they who had established themselves as bushrangers had food either to eat or give. Even the established bushrangers who had homes of some sort in the mountain recesses, who were in league with the natives, and who knew how to take the wild animals, the kangaroos, wallaby, and opossums,

would not unfrequently, driven by famine, surrender themselves." Nevertheless, a few did establish themselves for years in the bush, living the lives of solitaries, and only visiting the settlements when driven by hunger. Some of these men were notorious in the annals of the colony. Such an one was "Mike Howe," whose career was really wonderful. He lived with a native girl, whom he afterwards murdered because she was not swift enough of foot to escape with him when he was pursued, and was himself, in his turn, murdered by a companion. Another was Brady, whose exploits are fast getting into the domain of myths. But others survived, surrendered themselves, or by good conduct or public services earned a pardon; and some, like Cash and Markham—well-known names in the early history of the colony—now live the lives of respectable citizens. Markham hid himself for seven years in a den he made in the bush. Then wearying for the sight of human face and human companionship, he crept down—clothed in a sheepskin, haggard and wild—to a squatter's house, and surrendered himself to the mistress of the establishment, who happened to be the only person at home. The settler had already experienced the attentions of Markham—in the shape of thefts—but being an Irishman, of a kindly heart, he exerted himself on his behalf, and succeeded in procuring the man a pardon. He now resides—or did—in the vicinity of Hobart Town, a prosperous market gardener. "Expirees" are, of course, common. Many of them flocked to the Australian diggings, much to the indignation of the virtuous portion of the population. At some "gulches," "flats," or "gullies"—I am told—it was even attempted to establish a kind of check against their entrance, just as the shopkeeper makes bad sovereigns pass through a tell-tale hole in his till. A skilful detector of "lags" was stationed at the entrance to the digging. From some peculiarity in manner, talk, dress, or walk—especially the "lag," which is said to be acquired from long dragging about of a ball and chain—this custodian of the diggers' morals detected his prey, and gave warning. Then the "Vandemonian" was "run out." Others settled down in the country; and even to this day one cannot travel far among the Tasmanian farmers before he is pointed out "an old hand." Some of them will "acknowledge the corn," or "own up," to use their own expressions. But the visitor who is inquisitive enough to ask the cause of his host having in earlier life received the attention of the judiciary of their common country, will discover that the offence for which he was "lagged" was of the mildest description—poaching, probably; or even that it was in the highest degree creditable to the suffering man—such as the over-zealous vindication by his fist of injured innocence, or the assertion of family honour; or possibly, if the "old hand" is very glib with the tongue, because he "struck a blow for liberty" as a rick-burner, a Chartist, or an Irish patriot.

The "old hand" is, however, not as a rule an exemplary character, and has certain peculiarities which are common to his order. He works by fits and starts—rarely continuously. He is not addicted to drink in the bush, and seems rather inclined to save up his money until he has "realised a cheque," so that he may take his pleasure on a large scale. Then he "knocks off," and makes for the nearest town. He first provides himself with a new "rig-out," and then deposits the balance of his savings in the hands of the tavern-keeper, with whom he "puts up," with an intimation that he "shouts until that is finished." He lives a riotous life, is rarely sober, and not unfrequently in the hands

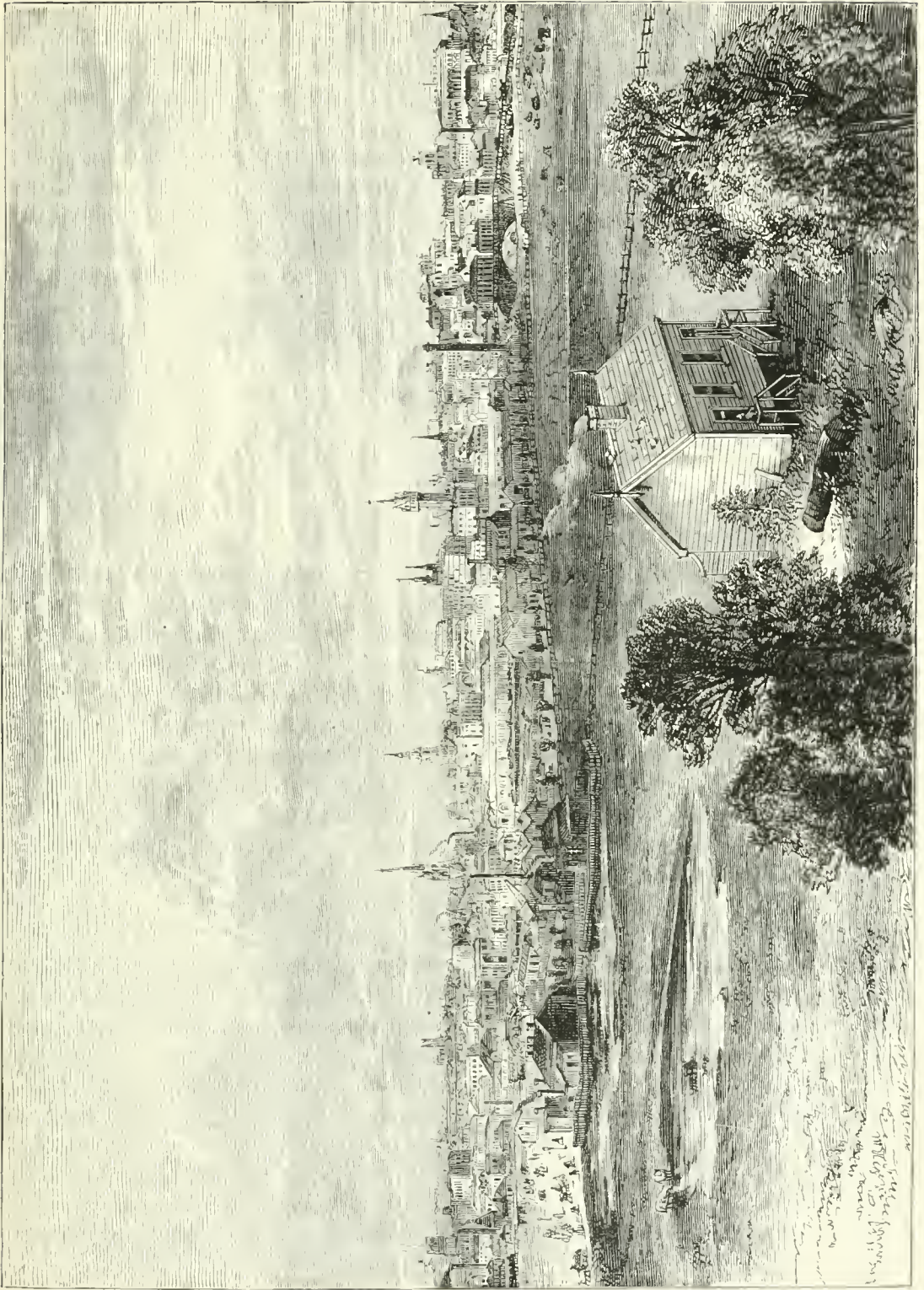
of the police, until the landlord informs him that he has exhausted his credit. He may extend his debauch a little longer by selling the odds and ends which he has purchased during his stay in town, and not unfrequently finishes it by also disposing of his wardrobe, and returning to the bush in the ragged shirt and trousers he set out in. This he considers "spending his money like a man;" and the narration of his more or less apocryphal adventures in Hobart Town or Launceston serves as literary pabulum for the leisure hours of the "old hand" until the wherewithal for another "spree" has accumulated, when in due time the same method of "knocking it down" is resorted to. The "old hands" are, however, rapidly dying off, and in a few years these descendants will be only traditionally whispered to have descended from a convict stock. "Society" in Tasmania is very pleasant and very tolerant. But it draws the line at a "lag," and no matter what his wealth or prosperity, sternly declines to admit him to its balls, dinners, picnics, and garden parties. For the "old hand" there is, among the polite people of Tasmania, no place for repentance, so jealous are they of the criminal taint, and so morbidly afraid lest their own origin might be traced back to a convict twig in their genealogical tree.

THE "STRAITSMEN."

Among the material for the present and future criminal classes of Tasmania are the half-bloods, of whom, especially on the northern coast and the islands of Bass's Strait, there are a few; yet the Australian half-breeds' vitality is weak, and though the early escaped convicts and others frequently contracted unions with natives, their descendants are comparatively few. The "straitsmen," as the sealers of the stormy Bass's Strait are called, were at first runaway convicts of seafaring tastes. On shore they would have been bushrangers, and on the water these reckless men often played the pirate. In their whale-boats they waylaid little coasters and levied black-mail on them, or, hovering near some coast settlement, dashed upon a solitary squatter for supplies. In still early days they would have been Antipodean sea-kings; in less tolerant times the "straitsmen" were pronounced what they really were—unmitigated vagabonds. On the granite islands, which form a kind of causeway from Tasmania to Victoria, they found homes and a field of labour. In sheltered nooks they reared a cabin, cultivated a little garden, and then in lazy idleness gratified their dislike of restraint and abhorrence of toil. But the growth of commerce made them producers. Passing vessels bought their vegetables, and the sale of the skins of the numerous seals in the vicinity enabled them to purchase all necessaries, and often even to accumulate money, which they had few opportunities of spending. Feeling their solitude, they obtained a dog and a few goats, or made a raid on some solitary native hamlet and stole some of the women, to share the lot of the island labourers and assist them in their toils. "Armed," writes Mr. Bonwick, "with a rude lance or the mighty club, they rowed to a rock whereon the seals were basking in the sun, and furiously attacked the huge blubbery masses; or they pursued the monsters into their caverned retreats, and fought like knight-errants of olden chivalry. The tripod was raised on the blazing fire, the fatty carcases were melted in the pot, the oil was poured into the barrel, and home came the man, toiling with the oar on a tempestuous sea, with his

dearly-purchased pleasure. Success did not always reward their efforts. Many a mile was rowed and no prey seen. Often would their natural foe, the raging water, defy their return, imprison them on a sandy strand, unsheltered and unprovisioned, until, starved into resolution, they put off into the surge, and were buried in the sea. At times, imprudent from courage, they were seized by the teeth of the seal or crushed beneath the ponderous body of the animal. The boat, driven from its moorings by the tempest, might leave the mariner to perish alone on the ocean-girt rock. Even when associated with others, the violence so characteristic of the race would lead to hasty quarrels and sudden fatal retribution. Lawless themselves, bound by no ties but convenience and self-interest, conflicts were not uncommon, and the community sought no protection but their own strong arms, their own swift and certain revenge." So infamous did these men become, that again and again were the authorities entreated to disallow any boats in the strait, and to check, under cover of sealing, the perpetration of the most shameless crimes. The wretched natives, "flying from the stern bushmen of the interior, found themselves confronted by the still more cruel coasters: like the miserable flying-fish which are chased by the monsters of the deep into the voracious jaws of the bird of prey." Their name, even as far as the western limit of the continent of Australia, was heard of with terror, and explorers lost their lives at the hands of natives whose hatred of the white men had been roused by the outrages inflicted on them by these abandoned sealers. Nor did the convict straitsmen limit their murderous attacks to the blacks. It is believed that they were guilty of some, at least, of the murders attributed to the natives.

On Kangaroo Island was a community of forty persons of both colours and sexes, who seem to have reached the superlative degree of vice. There were continual quarrels among themselves over the division of the plunder obtained in piracies extending from Rottneest Island, Swan River, to Bass's Strait. The island they lived on was a paradise of loveliness. When Flinders discovered it, in 1801, he found the "wild animals" so tame that upon the approach of the sailors the seals gazed on them undisturbed, and even the timid kangaroos were unseared by an apparition which conveyed to them no cause for alarm. They were soon undeceived. The number of seals killed by the early hunters was great, but owing to indiscriminate slaughter the animal is now nearly extinct. The mutton bird was the chief animal food of the sealers, and its capture and preparation formed one of the chief occupations of the black "gins" who were captured or obtained by treaty or purchase. "They were removed to the rocky islets of the straits, and made to till the land, collect sea birds and feathers, hunt after and preserve the skins of the wallaby, pick up the nautilus shell driven on the sand by the storm, and take their turn at the oar." All of the sealers were not convicts, though the moral status of few of them was elevated. Some were even decent in their lives, and by bringing up their half-caste children reputably, tried to atone for the crime of their ever having been born at all. In many cases the women were treated abominably, though it must be allowed rather better than they were by their own tribesmen. They even liked their lives, and it is said proved faithful and affectionate wives, though they were extremely jealous of a rival, a trait of character by no means common among the lower race of savages. For a quarter of a century there lived on Preservation Island, in Banks' Strait, old Munro, the "King of the Sealers,"



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who held sway over his wild neighbours in a most wonderful manner. They listened to his counsels and deferred to his judgment, awed by his wise look and "dictionary words:" though the Quakers, Messrs. Backhouse and Walker, who visited him, give no very pleasant picture of either the "king" or his three aboriginal queens. With a few exceptions, these sealers were a drunken, lazy, lying, lawless set of vagabonds, ready to commit any crime, and frequently guilty of most. The women, instead of becoming better in their company, generally increased in depravity. When "Robinson the Conciliator" was engaged in collecting the aborigines whom the massacres of the settlers had spared, he forcibly took these women from the Strait islands, to go, with the rest of their people, to Flinders' Island, where an asylum—afterwards removed to Oyster Cove—had been provided for the remnant of the Tasmanian aboriginal race. There are still a few sealers in the strait, though the seals are all but extinct; but the islands now know a milder race. Sheep farms have taken the place of their lawless retreats, and English shepherds' wives have made pleasant homes on the spots where the black gins were flogged by their brutal lords because they did not "clean the mutton birds."*

PROSPECTS.

These are at present not bright. But they are dull, not because Tasmania is naturally poor, but because its political arrangements shut it out from sharing the wealth of its neighbours. These barriers to its prosperity I have already referred to (p. 134). In climate, and everything that makes a country desirable for a reasonable man's residence, Tasmania is superior to Australia, and even to New Zealand. Bounty tickets, entitling labouring families to a passage at a reduced rate, and land on arrival in proportion to the number of the family, are granted on certain conditions by the Government Emigration Agents in London.† Yet few immigrants are attracted to the country. Now, unless some sudden and unexpected gold excitement acts as a stimulus, is there much likelihood of its receiving a large addition to its population. Political squabbles do not help this colony any more than they aid the others which are equally subject to them. In the Houses of Legislature parties are always so evenly balanced that a single adverse vote often puts the Government in a minority. Consequently, more thought is given to "keeping sweet" some particular constituency than attending to what are the true interests of the country at large. Again, the Upper House—like the "Upper House" in the other Australian colonies—is intensely conservative, so that there are frequently deadlocks between it and the Lower one. Professional politicians in a busy community are apt to come too prominently to the front, with the result that the credit of the country suffers abroad, and its interests are often irretrievably damaged at home. The end of Tasmania will, I conceive, be union with Victoria, and the sooner the better; for then the latter colony will be unable to pass mischievous laws against the importation of the produce of the former. The one feeling which seems most prominent in the Australian colonies is the intense rivalry among them and jealousy of each other. These rivalries are likely to

* A full account of these "straitsmen" may be found in Bonwick's "Last of the Tasmanians," pp. 286—323.

† The Emigrant and Colonists' Aid Corporation, 25, Queen Anne's Gate, Westminster.

increase. But these are not even now greater than they were among the American colonies before they united into one federal Republic. Rivalry is a useful stimulus to exertion; and as provinces of one great dominion, the different colonies of Australia can find ample room for this without treating each other as if they were foreign countries, with a mission in the world to ruin their neighbours. Even then there is a difficulty; for the large colony would dominate the smaller ones, unless each was to have its autonomy, as have the American States and the Canadian Provinces. This will come by-and-by, when the Australian colonies are greater in number. But at present the Tasmanians do not look forward to the prospect with any great zest. They declare themselves ruined, and seem to take a grim sort of satisfaction in telling the world so. "The public money has gone with the convicts, and the rabbits have eaten up the grass. The rabbits, like the sheep, have been imported from Europe, and the rabbits have got ahead of the sheep." But they do not bestir themselves to get rid of the rabbits. For is not Tasmania "Sleepy Hollow?"

CHAPTER IX.

AUSTRALIA: ITS GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS.

VAGUE dreamy ideas possessed the old geographers and seamen that far to the south lay another continent—a *Terra Australis*, full of riches and wonders. But no man essayed its discovery, and though it is tolerably certain that as early as the sixteenth century the mainland of Australia was known to the Portuguese mariners as "Great Java," it was not until the year 1606 that Torres sailed through the strait that bears his name. His exploration was quickly followed up by the Dutch seamen, though it was not until the famous voyage of Tasman (p. 123) that any very clear ideas were obtained regarding this southern land—the New Holland of the Batavian voyagers. The English, destined in time to be undisputed masters of the new region, did not make their appearance until 1688, when the famous buccaneer, William Dampier, landed and spent five weeks near Roebuck Bay. But it was not until between the years 1769 and 1777 that the English obtained a thoroughly recognised right to rank as the discoverers in earnest of a great part of Australia. Then it was that Captain Cook sighted a part of what is now known as Gipp's Land, and coasted up the whole length of the eastern side of Australia, rounding Cape York, and crossing Torres' Strait to New Guinea. This was in 1770. Then, in 1773, Cook discovered New Zealand—or rather, re-discovered it (p. 123)—and his fellow voyager, Furneaux, examined part of Tasmania and Bass's Strait. Twenty or thirty years later we find Bass and Flinders engaged in the work of maritime discovery in the same region: though the French Admiral D'Entrecasteaux was their rival in this honourable labour, and laid the foundation of that claim to part of the country which, but for the firmness of Lord John Russell, might have obtained for our infant

colonies in these regions foreign, and possibly unfriendly, neighbours. Grant, Murray, Stokes, and others continued the coast survey, until, about the year 1813, our knowledge of the outline of the great southern continent was complete. But the interior was still partially or wholly unknown; and even yet vast tracts are unexplored as regards their capabilities for settlement, though we may safely say that no great physical features of Australia remain to be discovered. The very names of the explorers of inner Australia would fill a page of this book. Their work forms a bright chapter in the history of travel, endurance, and unselfish love of science; but I must leave the reader to learn the out-



VIEW OF SYDNEY HARBOUR, NEW SOUTH WALES.

lines of their labours from the many accessible sources of information on the subject. Some of them we may require to speak of later, or when we examine the nature of the different colonies into which the continent is now divided, and narrate the story of their settlement.

We have called Australia a continent—for so it is: it is the fifth great section of the globe. A land 2,500 miles in length and about 1,250 in breadth, with an area of 3,000,000 square miles and a coast-line of 8,000 miles, cannot be called by any other name. It is four-fifths the size of Europe, and one-fifth the area of America, though it resembles that continent in only one particular, viz., in being surrounded by water, and in the rapid progress it has made in wealth and population since first settlements were formed on its

shores by Europeans. To continue our comparisons: it is ten or twelve times larger than Borneo, Papua, or Madagascar. We shall speak by-and-by of the five colonies—the six, indeed, if we include the “unorganised” territory of North Australia—and the progress they have made in wealth. But meantime it may be useful to glance briefly, by way of com-



THE BUNYA-BUNYA TREE (*Araucaria Bidwillii*) OF QUEENSLAND.

prehending the extent of the country and its importance, at the rapid bounds which it has made within a period which is really comprised in the lifetime of a single individual. Three generations ago its coast-line of 5,000 miles had scarcely been touched by a civilised man: assuredly none had dreamed of fixing his home there. Nor was there much inviting in the great southern land to tempt any one to settle on it. In the first place,

it was utterly isolated. Next, the rivers which flowed out of the interior were few, so that the arteries through which civilisation might penetrate it were rarer than in almost any other region. Yet within forty years the enterprise and courage of Englishmen have fringed its shores with infant colonies, which are progressing so rapidly that several of them are already more powerful and wealthier than old-established European states, and the capitals of which are cities of the first order, replete with every appliance of civilisation and every luxury of the Old World. Some of these commonwealths, though established since some of their present citizens were of mature years, are already able to "exercise the powers of elaborate political systems, and sustain over these vast territories forms of government which blend the freest principles of the American with the most venerable safeguards of the British Constitution." In thirty years they have risen in population from 211,000 souls to 2,000,000, or 834 per cent.; whilst during the same period the population of Canada and the United States increased by 660 and 126 per cent. In the same brief period the trade of these far southern colonies rose from less than £6,000,000 to over £63,000,000, or 950 per cent.; while British trade, which in the same space of years experienced the greatest development, only increased 400 per cent., that of the United States 335 per cent., and that of Canada about 650 per cent. Yet there is no reason to believe that Australia has seen its best days, for its trade rose from £63,000,000 in 1871 to £87,000,000 in 1874, an increase of 38 per cent. in three years. In 1874 there entered into and cleared from the colonial ports 5,600,000 tons of shipping; in the pastures of the continent—only a mere fragment of the whole country—there are 70,000,000 head of live stock; and, in addition, there are 5,000,000 acres of land under cultivation. Two thousand miles of railway are open, and much more in progress or opened. Upwards of 26,000 miles of telegraph are in working order, uniting the colonies with every other part of the world. The annual revenues of the several Governments approach £11,000,000 sterling. Yet, though the population of the Australasian colonies has multiplied by seventeen since Queen Victoria began to reign, yet so great is the area of these dependencies of Britain that, while there are 389 persons to every square mile in England and Wales, in Australia the most densely populated colony, Victoria, has but ten to the square mile, and the least thickly settled Western Australia is populated at the rate of one individual to every thirty-eight square miles.* In 1851 the exports from the United Kingdom to Australasian ports were valued at £2,807,356; in 1871 it was £10,051,982,† or, in other words, thirty per cent. of the exports from Britain to the colonies, and an increase in twenty years of 250 per cent. This proportion must be even greater now, for in 1873 the export to these colonies rose to a declared value of £17,610,152, an increase of no less than £7,558,170, or seventy-five per cent. in two years.‡

Let us now glance briefly—for the subject is so wide, and the literature on it so immense, that brevity is essential and prolixity unnecessary—at the physical character

* Colomb: "The Naval and Military Resources of the Colonies" (*Journal of the Royal United Service Institution*, 1879).

† "Annual Statement of the Trade of the United Kingdom for 1877," p. 7.

‡ Reid: "An Essay on New South Wales" (1876), pp. 2, 3.

of this country, then at each colony individually, and finally at some social and other traits which are common to these colonies and their inhabitants.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.

Externally, Australia is uninviting, and, judged on the "special adaptation" principle, seems little fitted for the abode of man. Even the savages which have made their home here are among the lowest of men, and greatly inferior to all the surrounding races. Nor were they ever numerous, while their rapid disappearance before the whites proves that their vitality was feeble and their scale among the "provisional races" small. With the exception of the northern coast, which is much broken, the 8,000 miles of coast-line is singularly uniform and devoid of harbours. The conformation of the country leads us to the belief that at one time it was the bed of an inland sea, in which the mountain chains parallel to the east and west coasts were the tops of islands lying in an archipelago, like some of those with which we have already become familiar. These mountains, like those of other extensive land masses in the southern hemisphere, trend from north to south, though the greatest length of the continent is at right angles to this, and runs, with offshoots, at a distance of from twenty to one hundred miles from the coast, rising to a height of from 2,500 to 4,500 feet in rough, inaccessible elevations. The highest peak yet discovered—in the south-east—is Mount Kosciusko, which rises to the height of 7,300 feet. The coast-lying valleys are rich and well watered, but out of reach of the sea breezes the country is arid and waterless to a degree that hampers colonisation, and for long will render it uninhabitable. The mountains of the west coast—which all recent explorations have proved to be inferior to the east—also run north and south, but are lower, and in places approach the coast. In the great Australian Bight they form sea-cliffs, from 200 to 400 feet in height. Behind these hills lie grassy waterless plains, dependent for moisture on the uncertain rainfall. The north coast is low and flat in parts; but the general character of the country may be described as that of a trough, the edges of the basin descending to the interior in gradual slopes: this interior consisting of immense plains, little elevated above the sea, and unbroken, except in the north-east, by hills rising like islands in the midst of these extensive level tracts, scattered with native grass, by gum-tree forests, or by the other herbage which in Australia constitute "bush." Some of these plains are deserts, and likely for ever to remain such, as natural moisture there is none, and water to irrigate them cannot be had; but others are not unlike the South American llanos (Vol. III., p. 103), or the Russian Steppes, only not so high, or unhappily not so cold. In the rainless seasons—which occur at uncertain intervals—they are all but sandy or gravelly wastes, but when there is a good rainfall they are covered with a fair amount of grass. There are, however, strips of tolerably well watered land throughout the interior, and on the north-east coast the climate and soil are capable of growing all kinds of tropical products. The great sheep and cattle "runs" are elevated downs, chiefly upon "the western slopes, or inland side of the mountain range of the east coast." Further south, however, there are good tracts in like situations, where the presence of mountains gives the necessary physical conditions wanting on the inland plains.

The rivers of Australia are neither few nor of small value, but owing to various circumstances only one or two of them have proved of much importance in opening up the interior. Those of the east coast are perennial, and are, some of them, navigable for small vessels fifty to seventy miles inland; but those of the west coast are often during the dry season mere chains of water-holes, separated by dry sand intervals, over which the stream flows when the rains or the melting of the snow of the high interior mountains fill them. For a few weeks they rush along merrily, often overflowing their banks; then for the rest of the year they all but disappear.

On the north-west coast there are a number of large rivers which flow extantly, being fed by the periodical tropical rains. The Murray is the largest of the Australian rivers. It is the result of the union of a number of smaller streams rising in the south-east mountain region, and uniting about lat. 34° south-east of the parallel of 141° east to form the main current, which, under the name mentioned, can be navigated during floods for 1,100 miles, and now and then all the year round. The rivers of Australia also point to the interior having at one time been the bed of a sea, into which they flowed out of the surrounding islands, great and small. For instance, the Murray and its tributaries—the Darling, Lachlan, and Murrumbidgee—during the first part of their course flow so directly towards the interior that for long they were supposed to debouch into an inland sea. This Mediterranean theory was long and not unreasonably held by physical geographers. It has, indeed, been discovered that they actually do pour their waters at first into a central shallow lake, which in its turn finds an outlet on the south coast. The Macquarie and the Lachlan, throughout a part of their course, run through swamps, which no doubt were at one time their termination when the locality was occupied by the sea, and which have not yet become dry land. During the dry season these beds are mere chains of ponds, and the soil along the shores is thin and poor—another proof of the theory that at no very distant geological period it was mere sea bottom. The Murray itself, which in former times must have repeatedly changed its course, after draining an area of about half a million square miles, has no proper outlet to the sea. It debouches into the lagoon called Lake Alexandria, which again communicates with the sea at Encounter Bay. The rivers of the eastern slope are also different from those of the west and north-west coast, in so far that, having shorter courses, they are more determined in their character, and cut their way through the sandstone ranges in their path with such velocity that, with the exception of the Murray, few of them are navigable, or run for longer distances, including their tortuous windings, than twenty miles, or pass inland through any distance further than fifty miles. Australia is, to men accustomed to the northern hemisphere, a land of anomalies, and the rivers are no exception to the vague rule that in the great southern island continent things go by contraries. In the first place, there are no rivers in the world so long, and yet, take one with another, so small. The rule with rivers in a normal part of the world is that as the river increases in length it also increases in volume. In Australia that does not follow. Like some of the American rivers, they disappear in “sinks,” or the amount of water contained in them decreases, until, as we have seen, they become mere chains of ponds, or disconnected “water-holes,” valuable, no doubt, to the settler, as they afford his only

supplies of water until the river fills again, but useless for navigation ; or the river is lost in marshes or shallow lakes, often evaporated under the hot sun, until the space occupied by it during the wet season is a plantless flat of clay, "diced all over into squares under the heat of the tropical sun." Several of them are salt, as are also several of the smaller lakes, such as the Austin, in West Australia, and several others which have no outlet, the evaporation being equal to the amount of water which falls into them either by stream or by rainfall. The lakes are also very inconstant as to the amount of water in them at certain seasons or in certain years. For instance, in 1817 Oxley discovered the Regent's Lake, which, nine years afterwards, Mitchell found to be a grassy plain with only a little water at one end. In 1829, Lake George was a sheet of water seventeen miles long and seven broad ; in 1836 it was a meadow and an aqueduct—an aged native remembered the time when it was covered with bush. The interior plain of Australia has a surface area of 1,500,000 square miles, scooped out of sandstone, though the Eastern Cordillera, from Cape York to Tasmania, is granite and metamorphic rocks, overlain by silurian and carboniferous beds, the latter of which yield in New South Wales abundant supplies of coal. The tertiary beds capping alike the east coast and the granite islands between Wilson's Promontory, the most southern point of Australia, and the most northern part of Tasmania, proves that in the comparatively recent geological period in which they were deposited that island and Australia were united (p. 136). Granite prevails in other parts, but the Victorian "Dividing Range" is made up of old slates and igneous rocks, and abounds in gold, as do also the schists cut by igneous rocks on either side of the Cordillera. Tertiary rocks occur extensively in the interior, and in many parts of the west chalk covers the old rocks, but there are no volcanoes, and the country is undisturbed by earthquakes. There are some grounds for believing that the Australian continent once stretched much further to the east than it does now, and that a vast portion of it has disappeared under the ocean. The finding of a thigh-bone of the *dinornis* (the moa), one of the gigantic birds so characteristic of New Zealand, would also lead us to believe that land once existed where now 1,000 miles of ocean rolls, separating two countries of Australasia which have so little in common with each other. The mineral resources of the country we shall speak of more fully when we sketch each of the five colonies into which the Australian dominion is divided.

CLIMATE.

The climate of such an immense region can only be given here in general terms. Its great characteristic is its extreme dryness and heat in summer. But though the state of the thermometer, looking merely at the figures, seems almost incredible, yet, in reality, the air being so dry, the persons experiencing a warmth of say 120° Fahrenheit in the shade do not suffer nearly so much as they would with a less degree of heat but a greater amount of moisture in the air, as is, for instance, the case in Central America and other tropical countries. On the contrary, it is not unhealthy even when at its worst. The frame feels, and is, elastic, buoyant, and capable of enduring fatigue ; and the sudden variations of temperature which in the United States and many parts of Europe

are so unhealthy are here practically unknown. At Sydney—not the best climate in Australia—the differences between the mean summer and winter temperatures is only 18° Fahrenheit, and between the hottest and coldest months 21° , and at Melbourne they are even less. The climate of the south-east, or settled region, is very like that of the Mediterranean. In the winter the evenings are cool, and on the interior mountains snow can be seen lying. Even on the upland pastures it falls now and then, but on the coast regions it is almost unknown. Here during the summer is experienced the alternate sea and land breezes, and, owing to the extensive hot regions in the interior, the sea winds have a tendency to blow steadily towards the land. On the other hand, the hot winds of Australia are a disagreeable feature of its climate. They come from the north-west, and are the chief meteorological disagreeables of Antipodean continental life. “They generally last for three days, and may be expected in most parts of the south-east districts four times every summer. The barometer rises before the wind sets in, and continues high during its prevalence, though generally in Australia, as in the northern hemisphere, an equatorial wind depresses, and a polar wind raises the barometric column. The temperature of the air is raised to 100° and 120° Fahrenheit in the shade, and the breath of the wind feels like the blast of a furnace. The effect of one of these ‘brickfielders,’ as they are called, on the frame is highly distressing, and in delicate persons often produce dangerous attacks—determination of blood to the head, inflammation of the throat and eyes, &c.; green leaves turn suddenly sere and yellow, the fig and the vine are destroyed, and whole fields of wheat and potatoes are blasted in a few hours. Clouds of fine dust are a most painful concomitant. It insinuates itself through the crevices of the doors and windows, so that escape is impossible. In short, the effects are very analogous to those of the sirocco of North Africa, the khamsin of the Arabian deserts, and the hot dry winds of Cape Colony. In Western Australia and Tasmania these winds do not occur; and they are much less severe in Victoria than in Sydney. Independently of these, the heat is seldom very oppressive, and as settlement and cultivation proceed the hot winds and dust storms become fewer and less severe.” They usually blow in December, coming over the hot interior deserts; but already the *laudatores temporis acti* in New South Wales are lamenting that the hot winds, their especial pride and their especial torment, are not what they used to be in the “good old times”—all old times being understood to be good. Mr. Trollope did not find the heat oppressive; neither did he find the mosquito ravage, as it does, for instance, in the city of Washington during the month of July, when the strongest man finds his master in this pestilent insect, and the stoutest congressman feels (if he survives the bite) that he has gone through worse than an Egyptian plague. This much is due to the Australian mosquito—for the insect is celebrated. Everybody who writes a book about Australia has something to say regarding it—not particularly to its credit for amiability; the fact being that, usually, Australian travellers, coming through no other mosquito haunted land until they arrived there, were ignorant of how villainously spiteful its relatives can be in other lands, which it has anything but favoured with its bloodthirsty presence.

In the interior the heat is much greater than on the coast. The surface being almost

flat, there is no play for the currents of air upon it. Hence, as Mr. Ranken* points out, only the heat is daily observed and nightly radiated. The soil in the summer is like the floor of an oven, and the hot air—such is the summer of the country—may prevail without variation hundreds of miles north and south of the tropics. South Australia, from the want of any mountain range near the south to catch and condense the vapour-laden winds from the Pacific, gets little rain, the fall varying from six or eight inches at the head of Spencer Gulf to eighteen or twenty inches at Adelaide and Gawler. In Victoria and New South Wales, from the presence of a contrary series of physical con-



AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINES.

comitants, the rainfall is considerable. At Portland, according to Mr. Acton, thirty-two inches fell, at Melbourne 27·58 † inches—though Neumayer estimated the evaporation at forty-two inches; at Sydney as much as 48·95, † at Brisbane fifty, and at Rockingham Bay, in latitude 18° south, where the hills are covered with fine forests, the rainfall in 1871 was no less than ninety inches; but as soon as we pass inwards even here the effect of the hot plains is evidenced in a decreasing rainfall, so that the inland plains are on their western extremities almost as dry as inland Australia generally. We may add that on the Australian Alps, owing to the dryness of the air, the snow-line comes down to 7,115 feet, and there are highland districts, such as Kiandra, 4,610 feet above the sea, where frost, hail, and snow are common throughout the entire winter, while in

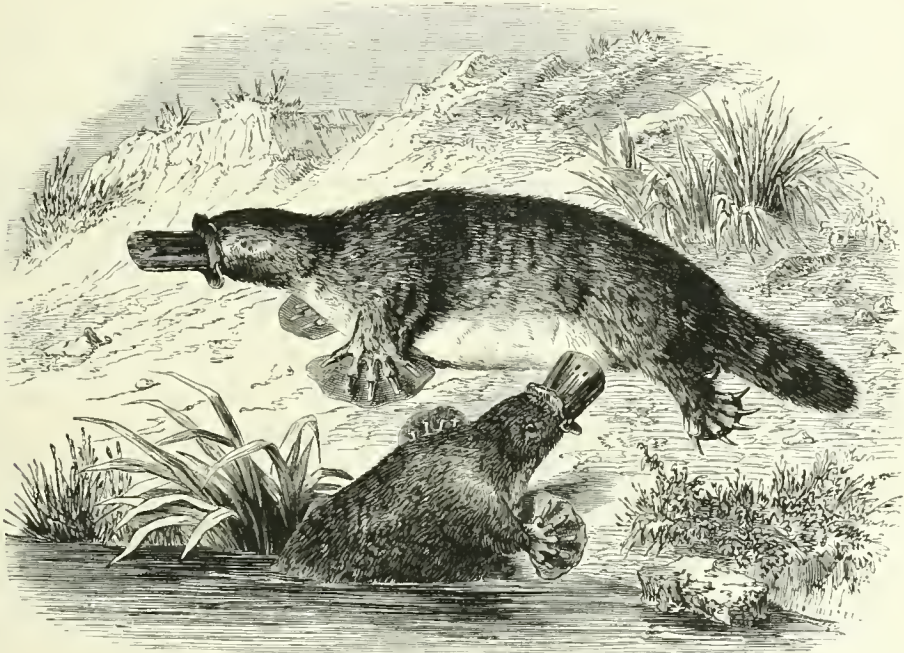
* "Dominion of Australia" (1874).

† Kingston: "Register of the Rain Gauge, Adelaide" (1874).



VIEW OF GEELONG, PORT PHILIP, VICTORIA.

the plain below the heat has been known to rise to 140° Fahrenheit. The greatest extremes of temperature ever known were at Sandhurst, 778 feet above the sea, where the heat rose one summer day to 117° , and the cold fell in the succeeding winter to $27^{\circ} 5'$; but this was exceptional, and is quoted merely as a climatic curiosity. In Ballarat the extreme of winter cold was once 22° Fahrenheit. In Victoria, September, October, and November are bright, genial, slightly rainy, spring months; December, January, and February—the summer season—is usually hot and dry, though in the beginning of it occasionally with some wind and heavy rain; in February bush fires prevail, owing to the burning hot winds; in March, April, and May there is experienced pleasant autumn



THE DUCK-BILLED PLATYPUS OF AUSTRALIA (*Ornithorhynchus anatinus*)

weather, and the country looks its best; June, July, and August generally bring strong, dry, cold winds, often with rain from the south. Hence the Australian farmer reaps the grain while we are sowing it, and celebrates Christmas at midsummer instead of midwinter. The terror of the "squatter" and farmer is, however, in the droughts, which occur at intervals of about ten or twelve years, and inside the coast-ranges of New South Wales and Queensland produce the greatest distress, millions of sheep dying from want of grass and water, and hundreds of graziers being utterly ruined. In South Australia and Victoria droughts are also common, though—in common with Tasmania—Victoria is blessed with a more constant supply of moisture than most other parts of Australia. In South Australia two or three years have been known to pass without scarcely a drop of rain falling. But in the northern country tropical periodical rains fall as in all the regions lying under the equator, and as the right wing of the monsoon

sweeps across that territory the moisture is abundant; but the climate is, on the other hand, so unhealthy as to render settlement difficult.

PLANT AND ANIMAL LIFE.

The plants and animals of Australia are peculiar to it and part of the neighbouring islands, including New Guinea and Tasmania. Some families of plants are alone found here; and to add to its seeming unsuitability for man it has no native grain, fruit, or other vegetable fit for human use, being almost the only tropical or temperate country which has not. Yet the vine, tea-plant, cotton, tobacco, fig, mulberry, orange, &c., thrive profusely when introduced; and no part of the world yields more luxuriant crops of wheat than South Australia. But, as is often remarked—less with a view to paradox than is usual in such sayings—Australia is the land of contraries. The people stand with their feet to those of Europe; the animals do not carry their young in the ordinary fashion, but in pouches; and the trees are all evergreen, and many of them turn their edges, instead of their surfaces, to the earth and sky. These dense gum-tree (*Eucalyptus*) and wattle forests (*Acacia*) are peculiar, the leaves being placed vertically, so that the Australian woods have not that depth of shade which the same density of trees would give in other parts of the world. The leaves remain persistent until replaced by new ones, but the bark is shed annually. Of *Eucalyptus* there are said to be 130 species, but the one most widely scattered is the *Eucalyptus rostrata* (the flooded gum-tree), the wood of which is durable and takes a fine polish. Most of them are among the tallest of known trees. Until recently it was believed that the *Sequoia gigantea* of California (Vol. I., p. 319) was the tallest of known trees, but it has now been ascertained that this elevation (352 feet) is far exceeded by the *Eucalyptus amygdalina* (p. 165), or stringy bark. In Gipps Land, a fallen tree of this species measured 435 feet from the root to the highest point of the branches. Another fallen tree on the Black Spur, at the foot of the Victoria Alps, and near the source of the La Trobe river, measured 480 feet. In the Dandenong district, also in the colony of Victoria, a standing tree was estimated to be 450 feet from the ground. Another in this district showed a height of 295 feet to the first branch, the height then extending seventy feet further to the broken top branch, which then measured three feet across; thus the whole length to the place of fracture was 365 feet. A still larger tree at Berwick measured eighty-one feet in circumference at a distance of four feet from the ground. They are thus as high as the Pyramids, and, growing with great rapidity, shoot up in straight and smooth stems. The same official report from which these facts are taken notes that the locality of the big gum-trees is also the congenial habitat of the gigantic ferns of the colony (p. 185), which abound in sequestered situations: where mountain streams dash through deep ravines, and have formed swampy banks and marshy bottoms for themselves. “Here the giant fern attains its greatest growth, and is seen in all the completeness of its graceful beauty, rising from forty to fifty feet in height, and throwing out from the top of its massive and upright stems a broad canopy of foliage; its tapering fronds from five to eight feet long, under which an army of ‘prospectors’ may encamp, or beneath which the grotesque corroborees of the aborigines may be fittingly held, while their night

fires glow along the vistas, and transform the bolls and tops of the gigantic ferns into the semblance of a spacious edifice of some primeval order of architecture. The extreme purity and softness of the air of this region are shown in the wild luxuriance of its vegetation. Besides lofty spreading ferns are magnificent acacias and flowery banksias, the sweet-scented myall, and miles upon miles of the beautiful mimosa, the country during the best part of the year being in a blaze with yellow flowers, and laden with a perfume worthy of the gardens of Armada." The genus *Casuarina* (swamp oak, she oak, forest oak, or beef-wood), comprise several interesting species of tree, while the *Cedrela Toona*, or red cedar—a tall, handsome tree—yields, perhaps, the best known and most valuable timber in the colony of New South Wales. It is largely used for all kinds of carpentry, is easily worked, and in dry situations is very durable. Some of the best qualities of the wood equal the best mahogany, both in appearance and in intrinsic value.* Native grasses are few in number, but do not form continuous turfs, their tendency being to grow in isolated tufts, with dry red earth or cracked earth between them. The result is that in order to give stock a chance to fatten, or even to live, they must have the run of extensive tracts of country (p. 106). "Bush" in Australia means really the country, and is even used to designate tracts on which not a tree can be seen for miles. "Scrub" is a name applied to places where the forest is hampered by an impenetrable thicket of prickly shrubs interspersed with creeping and flowering plants, and the banks of the rivers and the shores of lakes are often covered with a dense growth of reeds fifteen to twenty feet high. A country of the extent of Australia, though it may possess a vegetation preserving throughout the same general characteristics, must be expected to vary in different regions. Thus, while the interior of Queensland consists, as a rule, of highlands with scarcely any trees, but abundance of herbaceous vegetation and grass, and the vervain or brigalow scrub composed of small trees or shrubs growing on a clayey soil, the northern parts of the colony are clothed with luxuriant forests. These comprise, within the tropics, umbrageous trees of an Indian type, and splendid Araucarias all matted together with leaves or binds of the convolvulus, calamus, or other plants, mixed with parasitic orchids and ferns which luxuriate in their shade. It may also be added that in the interior of the continent are found many plants which would indicate that the country was at one time the bed of a sea. Among this maritime vegetation may be mentioned the pig's face, or Hottentot fig (*Mesembryanthemum*), which, though a sea-shore plant, may be seen covering tracts hundreds of miles away from the coast. The forest vegetation also takes the line of the rivers, leading us to suppose that it was introduced into some regions where it is now found by the action of running water when the rivers took a course different from what they do at present. On the low-lying, swampy northern coast the "mangrove" (*Aricennia officinalis* and *Bruguiera Rheedii*) grows abundantly; and here also is found the *Adansonia Gregorii*, or gouty tree stem, a counterpart of the African baobab tree; but owing to the arid character of the climate of most parts of Australia, mosses and lichens are rare. The eastern part of the country is richest both in plants and animals, and approximates more to the Indian Archipelago than the rest of the continent. Here palms are

* For an exhaustive account of the Australian trees and plants, *vide* Bentham: *Flora Australiensis*; Müller: *Fragmenta Phytographiæ Australis*; and Moore, in "Industrial Progress of New South Wales" (Sydney, 1870).

found, but their range does not extend much south of Sydney. The Norfolk Island pine (p. 56), allied to the bunya-bunya tree (p. 153), and the grass-tree (*Xanthorrhœa*), the black boy, or grass gum-tree, a species of the lily order, of which several species form characteristic features in the Australian landscape, are also limited to this belt, though they are found in various of the off-lying islands. Müller has calculated that the flora of Australia (including Tasmania) comprises about 10,000 species, of which less than one-half are perhaps peculiar to it, and very few indeed of these are common to Europe. The leguminous and composite orders comprise nearly one-fourth of the species. The myrtaceous



THE SPOTTED BOWER BIRD OF AUSTRALIA (*Chlamydotera maculata*).

plants, ferns, and grasses come next. But the most conspicuous feature in Australian botany are the Proteaceous plants (silky oaks, tulip tree, beef-wood, &c.), almost peculiar to that part of the world. Then come, in the order of their abundance, the orchids, epaerids, hemlock order, the Diosmeæ, a subdivision of the rues, the Liliaceæ, the Labiataæ, or dead-nettle family, the Goodeniæ, the Figworts, and the Salsolaceæ. The buttercup order, the epaerids, and the Rosaceæ are not found north of the equator.

The animals of Australia are quite as peculiar as the plants. Few of them are found elsewhere, while some of the leading groups of the continent and neighbouring islands are entirely wanting. For instance, there are no monkeys, ruminants (chewers of the cud), or pachyderms (pig and elephant order), and the great group of carnivorous animals is repre-

sented solely by the dog-looking dingo, whose taste for lambs makes it lead a harried life at the hands of the farmer. The only other carnivora are the seals; but there are many bats, one of which is also found in Madagascar. There are four edentate animals, belonging to the sub-order monotremata, all peculiar to Australia. They are the curious echidna, or



THE GIANT GUM-TREE OF VICTORIA (*Eucalyptus amygdalina*).

spiny ant-eater, and the ornithorhynchus, or duck-billed platypus (p. 161), long known as among the most peculiar of Australian animals, but whose full history is still a mystery. Among the rodents, the curious water-rat (*Hydromys*) unites the characteristics of the beaver-rat and dormouse. There are also several species of mouse, a jerboa, and the half rat, half rabbit (*Conilurus constructor*). But the marsupials form the most marked feature in Australian zoology. This (the kangaroo and opossum) order numbers about 138 :*

* Some authors have reduced this number to 110.

indeed, Australia has four-fifths of all the known species of this order. Of the remaining thirty-two not found in Australia, nine are found in New Guinea and adjoining islands, and twenty-three comprise the opossums. Their great peculiarity is that—to speak non-scientifically—they carry their young in a pouch, a fold of skin upon the female's abdomen, in which she can place the young within reach of the teats, and so, when travelling, can suckle them. Altogether, at a rough estimate, Mr. Gerard Krefft, Curator of the Sydney Museum, puts the Australian mammals at twenty-four bats, one dog, thirty rats and mice, and, in addition to the marsupials, a number of seals and whales, whose range is not restricted to the Australian seas. There is, of course, in addition, man;* but there are as yet few data for enabling us to know how long he has existed in Australia, and there is no evidence of his remains having been found in such connection with extinct animals as would lead us to believe that he was ever contemporaneous with any of them. It is unnecessary to go into detail regarding any of the native quadrupeds of Australia, the chief—such as the bandicoots, wombats, wallabies, and the larger kangaroos—being more or less familiar by pictures or by the specimens which are in every zoological garden. Most of these animals are fast disappearing. The dingo is being poisoned wherever he can be reached by baits impregnated with strychnine, and the kangaroo hunts are about the only “sports” which can be said to be peculiar to Australia. But even hunting with dogs does not decimate the kangaroos fast enough for the squatter's peace of mind. Accordingly, the different colonies have offered premiums for their destruction, and every year there are enormous numbers destroyed, solely for the sake of the premium and the hides, which are made into a fair quality of leather. Some of the imported mammals, however, threaten to be quite as destructive as the native ones—the rabbit and the horse, for instance. The ravages of the rabbit we have already had occasion to dilate on, but the horse and the ox, now roaming at will over the pastures of distant parts of the colony of New South Wales, in the form of escapes from imported stock, are getting an actual pest. Like everything else in Australia, they have increased with great fecundity, until it is now nothing uncommon for 400 or 500 horses to be seen in a single “mob” or drove. The squatter on whose run they are pasturing tries to drive them into a pound, there to slaughter them for the sake of their hides. The law is that if one is seen to be branded it should be advertised, and handed over to the owner on his paying expenses. But it is not often that these advertisements are seen, the squatter finding it more convenient to kill the horse, and then by destroying the hide to put out of sight all traces of the lost animal. It is rarely that a fine animal selected from one of the herds pays for the trouble and cost of breaking it. The wild horses have rapidly deteriorated, until their chests have got narrowed, their shoulders poor, and their limbs straightened. They are sometimes run for sport; but it is not every settler's horse which is fit for this amusement, and if it is, the running soon ruins it. In time, as the country gets enclosed, these wild animals will disappear; otherwise they will speedily render the scanty pastures useless, besides destroying the squatters' fences and enticing the tame horses of their paddocks.

Exclusive of Tasmania, the number of Australian birds is about 528, distributed as

* “Races of Mankind,” Vol. II., pp. 113-123; and more especially Brough Smyth: “The Aborigines of Victoria” (1879).

follows:—New South Wales, 403; Queensland, 412; Victoria, 351; South Australia, 313; West Australia, 240; North Australia, 236. It is, however, not so rich in species as other countries under the same latitude. Australia is famous for the beauty of her parrots, over sixty species of which are found there. The honey-eaters are also numerous and varied in plumage, while the bower-building satin-birds, the mound-raising megapodes, and the stately emus are peculiar to this region. Game species abound. There are many pigeons, geese, plover, and quail, and every bay or island along the coast is swarming with noisy sea-birds. "Some large groups are, however, altogether absent. We have no woodpecker, no humming-birds, no trogons, and few, if any, good songsters. Other handsome forms compensate in some measure for the loss. Numerous game and singing-birds have been imported from other parts, and all thrive well; and thanks to laws for the protection of game during a few months of the year, there will always be good sport in the shooting season."* Even in regions very far from the coast the emu—(*Casuaris nova-hollandia*, p. 133), which figures in the New South Wales and other colonial coats-of-arms—is becoming very scarce; but the beautiful lyre-bird (*Menura superba*), so called from having its tail-feathers spread out in the form of a lyre, is still frequently seen. But of all the remarkable birds of Australia the bower-builders are the most remarkable. The best known of these birds (*Chlamydodera maculata*, p. 164) is found in the north-western and less known parts of the country, but there are other species closely allied found in other parts of the country, though all of their bowers are not the same in structure. They form not only a nest, but a bower of twigs lined with grass, and the avenues leading to it decorated with feathers and shells, obviously intended for ornamentation, the birds, particularly at the breeding season, taking a great delight in running backwards and forwards in it. The regent-bird of Queensland and Eastern Australia generally (*Sericulus melinus*) also makes similar bowers; so does the satin-bird (*Ptilonorhynchus holosericeus*). But the most extraordinary of all these bower-birds is the *Amblyornis inornata*, or garden bird, which has been described in the neighbouring island of New Guinea by Rosenberg, Salvadori, and Beechey. It actually forms a conical thatched cabin, and in front a "garden space," decorated with fruits and flowers, which it seems to take an almost human pride in admiring the nicety of. The gigantic kingfisher, known as the "laughing jackass," is an interesting bird; and the black swan of New South Wales and Tasmania (p. 137), when first discovered, was remarked as belying an old Latin proverb. The reptiles of Australia are numerous. There are, for instance, several tortoises, a "leathery turtle," which yields abundance of oil, many lizards, and in Queensland two species of crocodile. There is also *Moloch horridus*, a tuberculated lizard, in South and West Australia, and the iguana, a gigantic species, which is said to be a dainty article of diet when roasted, though this comestible is more spoken of than indulged in. There are upwards of seventy species of snakes described: forty-two of them are venomous, but only five dangerously so, though, in reality, bites are rarely heard of, and the settlers profess no alarm of the venomous reptiles, nor do they take any precautions against them. There are many different kinds of frogs, including the tree-frog, whose whose loud shrill voice is often heard during rain. The Australian seas abound in many

* Krefft, *lib. cit.*; McCoy: "The Natural History of Victoria"; Gould: "Birds of Australia," &c.

peculiar forms of fish. Among these is the arripis, the "salmon trout" of the colonists—though it has no connection whatever with that fish—the "Murray eod," and the "snapper" (*Pagrus unicolor*), both of which are highly valued as food, though the latter is perhaps the best: it sometimes attains a weight of 50lbs. There are also two species of mackerel, and various other fishes which are used as food, or are interesting from a scientific point of view.* The lower orders of life are also numerous, though the number of species peculiar to the country is not so great as those of the vertebrata. For instance, of the between 200 and 300 mollusca described from the west coast, eleven are found in the Mediterranean.

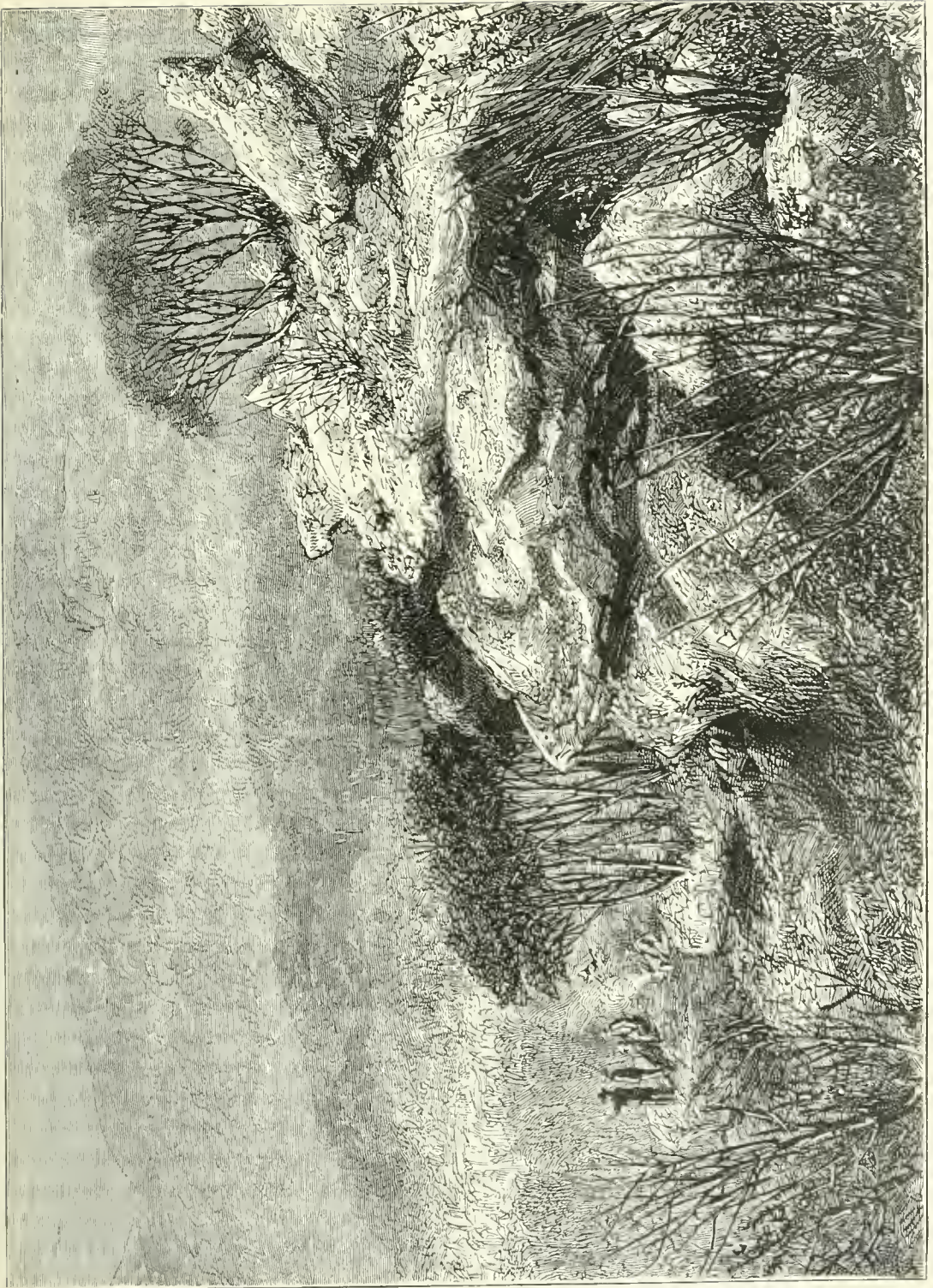
The tertiary fossils of Australia are peculiarly interesting. In New Zealand the modern fauna is distinguished by its group of wingless birds; in Australia these birds are not present. In like manner, the fossil remains of the tertiary, or latest geological period, are largely composed in New Zealand also of gigantic birds closely allied to the *Apteryx* now living, but much larger. Australia, on the other hand, we have seen, is a land of kangaroos and other "marsupials," or pouched animals. So also the remains found in recent deposits are those of marsupials, but of a more gigantic form than the present ones. Thus it is proved that in New Zealand, from the earliest period at which the country had assumed an approximation to its present form, great wingless birds were characteristic of its animal inhabitants; and in Australia forms of life allied to the wombat, wallaby, and kangaroo.

CHAPTER X.

AUSTRALIA: THE COLONY OF NEW SOUTH WALES.

IT would be perhaps charitable to accept the tales of geographical ignorance in high places with some grains of salt. But it is just possible that a Secretary of State for the Colonies did once propose to throw a bridge over Bass's Strait, and it is undoubtedly true that a late Cabinet Minister declared that he rarely found any of his colleagues who could tell him how many colonies there were in Australia. Australia is indeed often taken as a political expression, when in reality it is only a geographical one—a fact sometimes lost sight of, or perhaps unknown. For instance, a leading journal once announced the publication of the "Australian Budget;" it might also well have announced the issue of the Scandinavian one, for in reality Australia is at present divided into four colonies, each of which is a sovereignty in itself, and as distinct the one from the other as Sweden is from Denmark or Norway from either: indeed, a little more so. Their only union is that they are all "dependencies" of England, and each of them is ruled

* See Report on the Australian Fisheries, by Mr. Oliver, in "The Industrial Progress of New South Wales" (1870).



VIEW OF MOUNT WILSON, IN THE BLUE MOUNTAINS, NEW SOUTH WALES.

by a governor despatched from this country. Accordingly, the brief space that is at our disposal in which to describe the political and statistical aspects of Australia may be best utilised by sketching, in the most outline form, each of these colonies, with no relation to their geographical contiguity, but simply in an order, by following which we may learn something regarding the early history of Australian settlement, in itself a wide and interesting subject.

New South Wales* is the mother colony of Australia. It was the first settled, and the one off which, directly or indirectly, all the others—South Australia excepted—branched—Van Diemen's Land, in 1855; Victoria, in 1851; Western Australia, in 1825; and Queensland, in 1859. South Australia was established in 1837 independently of New South Wales, but, of course, like all the others, it profited by the contiguity of the older colony in its vicinity. Though Cook was not the first navigator to sight Australia (p. 151), yet the first tangible account of New South Wales which we possess is derived from that great navigator. On the 28th of April, 1770, he landed in Botany Bay, a few miles to the southward of the harbour of Sydney, and then took possession of the island-continent in the name of George the Third. It is thus curious that at the time the American colonies were beginning to be disaffected, and six years before they ceased to be part of the British Empire, England added to her possessions a southern territory nearly equal to them in area, quite equal to them in mineral wealth, soil, and even climate, though inferior in the area of country fitted for the abode of man. Eighteen years after Captain Cook's landing England began to utilise the newly-discovered continent by sending thither a number of convicts under Captain Phillip, though it is unjust to say that in despatching these unworthy people as the nucleus of a colony, Pitt had no higher ideas of the future of the Australian Empire than to make of it a penal settlement.† Phillip landed in Botany Bay in January, 1788, and while in the bay the great French navigator, La Perouse, sailed in, much astonished to find the British flag flying. The spot where Captain Cook landed is still pointed out, nor have the features of the country much changed since those days. The stream at which he filled his water-casks is still running, and in honour of the greatest event in the history of the colony, the owner of the ground has erected a monument commemorating the remarkable incident which happened near by. On the northern headland a slab marks the resting-place of Pere Réceveur, one of La Perouse's crew; and there is also a monument in memory of that great navigator, who left New South Wales to explore new lands, but whose fate was for many years wrapped in mystery (p. 55). Gradually, however, the continent was explored, and new country in the interior discovered and opened up. Free settlers soon followed, and even Botany Bay, so proverbially associated with the convict history of the colony, was not long the *locale* of the penal establishment, for Captain Phillips, finding the country in the vicinity altogether unsuitable for his purposes, deserted it, and removed his wicked charges to Port Jackson, and there founded the settlement which for so long gave New

* To the Hon. William Forster, Agent-General for the colony, I am indebted for many of the official documents, unobtainable in ordinary English libraries, from which the sketch which follows has been drawn.

† Flanagan: "History of New South Wales," Vol. I., pp. 30-34. See also Lung's History of the Colony, and other works, where proof in support of this correction of a general impression are given.

South Wales an unenviable notoriety.* The French had still an eye on the country, and for a time in their maps the whole southern district of Australia, including what is now known as Victoria, was styled "Terre Napoleon." The early convict history of New South Wales was not a pleasant one; indeed, it could not have been much worse than it was if Captain Phillips and his officials were to have remained alive at all. The worst convicts were sent to Norfolk Island, but even those in the mother colony were unpleasant sort of people. They were always rebelling, and frequently running away. They were, moreover, often in want of food, and the black men were troublesome in the extreme. In January, 1788, the population of the new colony consisted of 1,030 individuals, and its wealth in the ensuing May of 2 bulls, 3 cows, 1 horse, 3 mares, 3 colts, 29 sheep, 19 goats, 74 pigs, 5 rabbits, 18 turkeys, 29 geese, 35 ducks, and 210 fowls—not an extravagant beginning for a country which is now teeming with stock of all kinds.

Passing over the troubles of the early settlers, and the quarrels of the autocratic governors with their disorderly subjects, the failures of the settlers to grow corn, and even their disappointment at growing what is now the staple of the country, viz., wool, we come down to 1825, when Sydney had gradually grown into a city of some size. Then Van Diemen's Land separated from it, and in 1856, soon after the discovery of gold in the neighbouring colony, responsible government was established, since which period the country has gone on prospering exceedingly, until it is what we shall briefly have to describe. The names of its governors and colonial secretaries are preserved, colonial fashion, in a multitude of rivers, lakes, counties, towns, and streets. "We have Phillip Street, Hunter Street, King Street, Bligh Street, and Macquarie Street, in Sydney, not to mention the Macquarie River, and Hunter River, and Port Phillip. We have the city of Brisbane, and the Darling River, with various Darlings, and various Bourkes, and Gipps Land in Victoria, and Fitzroy River in Queensland, and Port Denison, quite in the north, and the town of Young, and the River Murray—and Belmore Hotels are innumerable. I do not know that there is as yet any Kimberley County, but there are Carnarvons, Russells, Laboucheres, Newcastle, Granvilles, Stanleys, Glenelgs, and Lyttons without stint; as also are there Merivales, Rogers, Elliots, Pelhams, and memorials of others, who from time to time have been either politically or permanently great in Downing Street. Sir Hercules Robinson now (1873) reigns at Sydney, and when I" (Mr. Trollope) "left that city, I heard enough to make me assured that before long there will be a Robinson District, a County Robinson, a Town of Robinson, and a River Robinson." The same—with a change of names—is true of almost every new colony. A governor must be a very unpopular personage, indeed, who has not at least one log "city" named after him; and as mountains are unhappily often more numerous than towns in these new lands, he has usually a greater share than the colony cares for in these geographical features and agricultural sorrows.

* It may be interesting to note that between 1787 and 1868, altogether 137,161 convicts were sent to Australasia. Of these (between 1787 and 1839), New South Wales got 51,082 males, and 8,706 females; Van Diemen's Land (between 1803 and 1853), 56,042 males, and 11,613 females; and Western Australia (from 1853 to 1868), 9,718 males, females never having been sent thither ("Victorian Year Book," 1877-78).

DIVISIONS OF THE COUNTRY.

The natural regions of the country—which contains 310,938 square miles—are the Eastern seaboard territory, the Central range, and the Western Plains. The former region is undulating hill and valley, interspersed with fertile alluvial flats, and underlain with great beds of coal. The central region is chiefly mineral—gold, copper, lead, tin, and other metals abounding. The interior plains constitute the pastoral region of the colony. Here are situated the great sheep-walks, on which graze the millions of sheep and cattle, which constitute the great riches of the country. More than 10,000 miles of road intersect these tracts, affording free communication with every part of the country. Mail coaches keep up regular communication with the most out-of-the-way places, and between 400 and 500 miles of railway, owned by and under Government control, enable the squatter and miner to convey their products and supplies to and from the coast at an average cost of 1½d per ton, while at one time this decreased his profits to the extent of 6d. per ton. All the other appliances of civilisation are found in profusion. Telegraphs, post-offices, schools, churches, and a university—not to speak of fine libraries and learned societies, which do not limit their labours to an annual meeting and a dinner—are found in the large towns. The press is well represented, the Sydney newspapers being in many cases equal to those of London, both in ability and, so far as there is room for it, in enterprise also, and, as a rule, are vastly superior to those of any other part of Europe or of America at large. “Nearly all the associations and institutions of European and American life, social, political, and religious,” writes an official historian, “have their representatives in the colony. Of journals there are more than a hundred. Every considerable town, every interest, has one or more papers, published once or oftener every week. There are banks with branches in almost every township in the interior. Law holds its sway over all classes, and is purely and efficiently administered in all its branches and jurisdictions. Life and property are secure, and the means of living easy and manifold; wages and profits high; education is generally diffused; and the comforts, elegancies, and amusements of life are varied and numerous.”*

TRADE AND INDUSTRY.

More than one-half of the Australian shipping is owned by this colony, and Sydney also forms the port from which ramifies, as from a centre, the widely extended commerce of the Pacific Islands. In time, doubtless, from the Australian harbours will pour out great fleets of vessels to trade with America and Asia. Taking 1877 as an average year, the value of the exports is given at £13,125,819, and the imports at £11,606,594, most of the trade being either with the British possessions or directly with Great Britain. The revenue is also on the increase. In 1851 it was £406,056; in 1875 it was £4,121,995; and in the last financial statement of the Colonial Treasurer the public income is estimated at £4,919,893, while there was in the Treasury a surplus of

* “New South Wales: its Progress and Resources,” by authority of the Commissioners of the Philadelphia Exhibition (Sydney, 1876).

£2,474,923.* There is also a public debt of £11,724,419. The population has greatly increased of late years. In 1841 this was stated at 149,669; in 1851, 197,168, after giving up 68,335 to Victoria; in 1861, 358,278, after giving up 25,000 to Queensland; in 1874, 584,278; while the latest data which we possess estimates the population of the colony at 662,212 persons—or males, 367,323, and females, 294,889. The death rate of the colony is 15·34 per 1,000, the percentage of male deaths being 19·10 per cent. higher than the percentage of female deaths to total deaths.

Wool constitutes the great wealth of New South Wales. Over mile after mile



VIEW OF LAKE GEORGE, NEW SOUTH WALES.

of the colony, particularly in the Riverina—the Mesopotamia of New South Wales—millions† of sheep pasture on the fattening salt-bush (*Salsola*), to an extent which has been estimated in coin at £40,000,000, this sum, of course, including the total value of the holdings, though it ought to be noted that in the majority of cases the land does not belong to the squatter, but to the Crown, whose tenant he is. The total area, leased at less than one halfpenny per acre for pastoral purposes, is nearly 150,000,000 acres. The runs vary in size from 5,000 acres to 1,000,000 acres, and it is not unique to find a

* “The Financial Statement of the Hon. James Watson, Colonial Treasurer” (Sydney, February 12th, 1879).

† Official returns show that in March, 1877, there were in the colony 366,703 horses, 3,131,013 horned cattle, and 24,503,388 sheep.

“squatting” owning 150,000 sheep. There are also vast numbers of fine cattle, though the limited market which exists for beef does not render this kind of stock so profitable to the grazier as sheep, the mutton of which is comparatively valueless, but for the wool there is always a demand in the manufacturing cities of Europe and America. Horses abound, and even llamas and alpacas are beginning to get common. Reform in the land laws—which we may more fittingly touch upon when considering Australian characteristics in general—has given a stimulus to cultivation, hitherto much neglected in favour of the more lucrative, if infinitely more risky, “squatting.” As crops of some kind or other can always be produced in Australia from January to December, it is likely that tillage will year by year attract a greater and greater percentage of a population, 50,000 of whom are calculated to be engaged in some way or other in agriculture. Could some efficient process—one more popular as to its result than the present one of “tinning”—be discovered for preserving the superabundant Australian meat supplies, the farmers of the Antipodes would become millionaires—as some of them indeed are—and the hungry people of Europe never want an abundant supply of animal food. For instance, it was calculated a few years ago—and as for all practical purposes it is still true it is unnecessary to go into the calculation afresh—that, taking the number of cattle and the number of people in Australia, every one of our brethren in that becattled continent has two and a half head of horned “stock” and twenty-four sheep to his or her share, children being calculated on the same liberal scale as adults; whereas, we in these fleshless isles have but one-third of a bullock and one sheep. The price of meat averages from 2d. to 4d. a pound retail in the Australian towns, and nothing is more common than to see excellent legs of mutton exposed at a price so ridiculously small that one cannot imagine how there can be any hungry people in the Southern Empire. More especially is this a favourable condition of matters, since the working-man of Australia has wages about double those of his home-staying brother. Bread is about the same price, while groceries do not vary much from their cost in England. Hence it is that the working-man in Australia never thinks of sitting down to a meal without butchers’ meat on his table. For years the glut of meat was so great in New South Wales and the rest of the Australian colonies, that the surplus had to be got rid of by boiling it down for the sake of the tallow, which can be easily exported and readily sold. In 1870—since that date the number has much decreased—in New South Wales alone, there were forty-eight boiling-down establishments, in which, in 1869, 290,550 sheep and 246 bullocks were converted into 67,175 cwt. of tallow, the carcases of all these animals being absolutely wasted, while we were paying 10d. and 1s. 4d. per lb. for what the Australian squatter could not even use for the manuring of his land. Meat preserving establishments have consumed a good deal of what was thus almost necessarily thrown away; but even yet there is a surplus, which it remains for some inventive genius of the future to devise a means of palatably using for his own profit, and for the good of thousands in England and elsewhere.

Wheat-growing is pursued in New South Wales on the table-lands, at a height of from 2,000 to 4,000 feet, though the colony is not the granary of the South. Tobacco is also grown to some considerable extent, but the quality leaves us something yet

to be desired. Maize grows readily as far south as the thirty-sixth parallel. Its quality is good; the crop is sure; and the yield, on the richer descriptions of land, 120 bushels an acre for the first crop, and 65 bushels an acre afterwards, the average for the whole colony being 30 bushels per acre. Large quantities are exported. Sugar-cane has only of late years become an article of cultivation, but already a considerable quantity of sugar, rum, and molasses is made every year. The grape-vine, in all its best varieties, is now extensively naturalised in the colony, and there are many large vineyards in active operation. In the year 1868 there were in the colony 2,531 acres of vines, the produce of which, in the shape of wine, were 285,283 gallons, together with 3,856 gallons of brandy. There were also raised 700 tons of grapes for table use. During the year 1877 the area of the vineyards had increased to 4,457 acres, the produce from which was nearly 800,000 gallons of wine, with nearly 3,000 gallons of brandy, and close upon 1,000 tons of grapes for table use. In the season, if at all favourable, grapes are sold plentifully in the streets of Sydney at 2d., 3d., and 4d. per lb. Wines of excellent quality, both red and white, can be procured retail at 1s. per bottle, and in bulk for 2s. 6d. per gallon upwards. Some experienced vine-growers doubt whether the produce of the Australian vineyards can ever equal those of France and the Rhine. At present they do not, though the common varieties of Australian wines are far superior to the same class of French ones, and since many French and German viticulturists have settled in the colonies, it is expected that they will aid in improving the quality of the liquor produced. In the Albury District, and in the valley of the Hunter River, the yield averages 400 to 500 gallons per acre, and in the latter region certain kinds of grapes have been known to return 1,000 gallons per acre. The profit will probably be from £40 to £50 per acre: at 2s. per gallon wine making will pay the vigneron.* All other fruits of the temperate and sub-tropical zones grow with great ease. In New South Wales there are orange-groves—planted as early as 1791—as magnificent as any in Spain or Portugal; while olives, capers, figs, strawberries, raspberries, gooseberries, currants, custard-apples, guavas, bananas, nuts, almonds, passion fruits, loquats, quinces, plums, nectarines, apples, and peaches, all thrive, though not in the profusion or perfection they do in Tasmania. Potatoes grow well, but barley, oats, &c., are chiefly reared for fodder. Lucerne hay, in favourable seasons, is sometimes cut from four to six times a year. Mangold-wurzel, turnips, and pumpkins are used for feeding choice cattle, but the commoner herds are reared solely on the native grasses. Arrowroot thrives; and on the northern river bottoms cotton succeeds. Of late the rhea, or grass-cloth plant of China, has been cultivated with success, and it is found that the New Zealand flax will also succeed. The mulberry-tree flourishes, and accordingly the silkworm has been introduced; but as yet sericulture is only an experiment in New South Wales, though likely to be a successful one.

MINES, ETC.

The mineral resources of the country are also great. As early as 1843 gold was known to exist in New South Wales; but in the then condition of the colony as a

* Supplement to the *Sydney Morning Herald*, 15th March, 1878.

convict settlement it was thought wise to conceal a fact which might have the effect of rendering the task of ruling the country even more difficult than it was. But of course in time such news could not be concealed, and as all the world knows, in 1851 came the "rush to the Victorian diggings." The first effect of the discovery was to derange all the settled industries of the young community, and secondly, to bring to the shores of Australia an immense concourse of people of all nations, and thus to give the colonies a stimulus by which they have never ceased to benefit. Up to 1871 the gold obtained was simply washed out of the soil, or from the sand and gravel in the beds of streams, yet so abundant



VIEW OF CUNNINGHAM'S GAP, MOUNT MITCHELL, NEW SOUTH WALES.

was the precious metal in such localities, that the colony had exported gold to the value of £10,095,823, besides coining millions in her own mint. There were then upwards of 16,000 miners at work, but within the last eight years quartz veins have been opened out, and gold mining is now more confined to large companies than it used to be. But it is certain that great areas of country as yet unexplored will be found to be auriferous. The great gold-fields of the West are within two days' journey of the capital, and the gold mining centres present all the appearance of orderly and thriving townships, with schools, churches, journals, shops, and places of amusement. The average amount of gold annually exported is over £2,000,000, but a large amount is coined, or used in various other ways. Gold mining is, however, a very precarious occupation, and the warning

which Mr. Forster, the Agent-General of the Colony, addresses to emigrants in regard to this attraction, very fittingly applies to all other auriferous countries. No doubt, he



THE *METROSIDEROS SPECIOSA* OF AUSTRALIA.

remarks, that gold has had a greater effect upon emigration, and has brought Australia into notice more than many other productions worthier of note. Probably not a few emigrants propose to themselves to dig or search for gold the very moment of their arrival in Sydney, and expect to find the precious metal waiting to be picked up like

pebbles, on the shore or in the streets. These ought to know that the places where gold is found—gold-fields, or districts, as they are called—are some distance from the coast, and often have to be reached by troublesome journeys; that to obtain gold in marketable form and quantities, or to make its production a profitable occupation, generally involves considerable labour and preparation, often a great deal of hardship, risk, and anxiety; that, as a rule, gold is seldom found on the surface, but has to be dug and lifted from great depths, or crushed and sifted out of masses of the hardest rock, or washed and winnowed out of large accumulations of rubbish. The successful gold-miner makes a prominent figure. But success is the exception, not the rule. For one successful gold-miner, hundreds are doomed to continual toil and poverty, some barely earn a subsistence, many never emerge from the condition of a wanderer and wayfarer, or at most only gain a “good living,” such as can generally be earned in New South Wales, at this or any other occupation, by a steady, industrious, persevering man. It is a life of hard work, privation, exposure, danger, and disappointment, as compared with almost any other calling in the colonies. It has been calculated that the average of wages distributed among all engaged or concerned in the production of gold is far less than the average rate earned in most other occupations. And this estimate is quite in accordance with the fact of the enormous value of gold as compared with other commodities, one of the main elements of this value being difficulty of production. And if the capital, as well as labour wasted, be reckoned, the contrast will appear stronger still. In short, gold-mining, in all its forms, has more of the essence of gambling than most other modes of investing labour and capital. All things considered, it is better for emigrants to avoid trying their hands at gold-digging or seeking until they have become fully acquainted with colonial ways.* There are also tin and copper in the colony, which some respect is paid to in certain quarters, and there are also ore shales, iron stones, silver, lead, and cinnabar, not to speak of antimony, opals, rubies, and diamonds, in considerable number. But, as a rule, the shrewd New South Walians are wise enough not to regard mining as their greatest resource, and from their standpoint of national antiquity, which, compared with the other colonies is almost respectable, are inclined to smile at the feverish enthusiasm of more *parvenu* communities over a copper or a gold “rush”—a “rush,” moreover, being in New South Wales a very leisurely operation.

But coal ranks quite differently in the colonial mind. It is the one article which the neighbouring sovereignties cannot boast of, though all of them affect to possess it in greater or less abundance. But New South Wales alone works it to her own profit and the advantage of those who so readily buy it. The village of Castlereagh is the centre of a coal basin which has been traced about 100 miles to the north, south, and west, but the head quarters of the trade are at Newcastle, at the mouth of the Hunter River, which empties itself into the sea seventy-five miles north of Sydney. In 1874, there were raised 1,304,567 tons, valued at £790,224. In 1875 the output was rather less, and in 1876 a little more. Altogether, up to December, 1877, the total production of coal was 17,426,871 tons, valued at £9,110,283. The chief collieries are along the valley of the Hunter, and it is believed that the pits, which bear the familiar names of north of England mines, are

* The *London Globe*, December 2nd, 1878.

practically inexhaustible. Forty miles south of Sydney lies the Illawarra Coal-field, for which Wollongong is the sea-port, and at Hartley, west of the capital, there are also collieries in full blast.*

Fish are transported, artificially frozen, to the inland towns; and in no part of the world are oysters more abundant or cheaper than in this colony. The whale fisheries are still of some interest, though most likely they will soon become extinct. In 1841, oil to the extent of £224,000 was exported, but in 1874 the two ships engaged in the business only obtained enough to bring the export up to £2,897. Leather, weaving, and a number of other industries give employment to considerable numbers of people; while, in addition to the usual trades pursued more or less in every community, brickmaking and ornamental pottery, shipbuilding, &c., are followed to a considerable extent.

TOWNS.

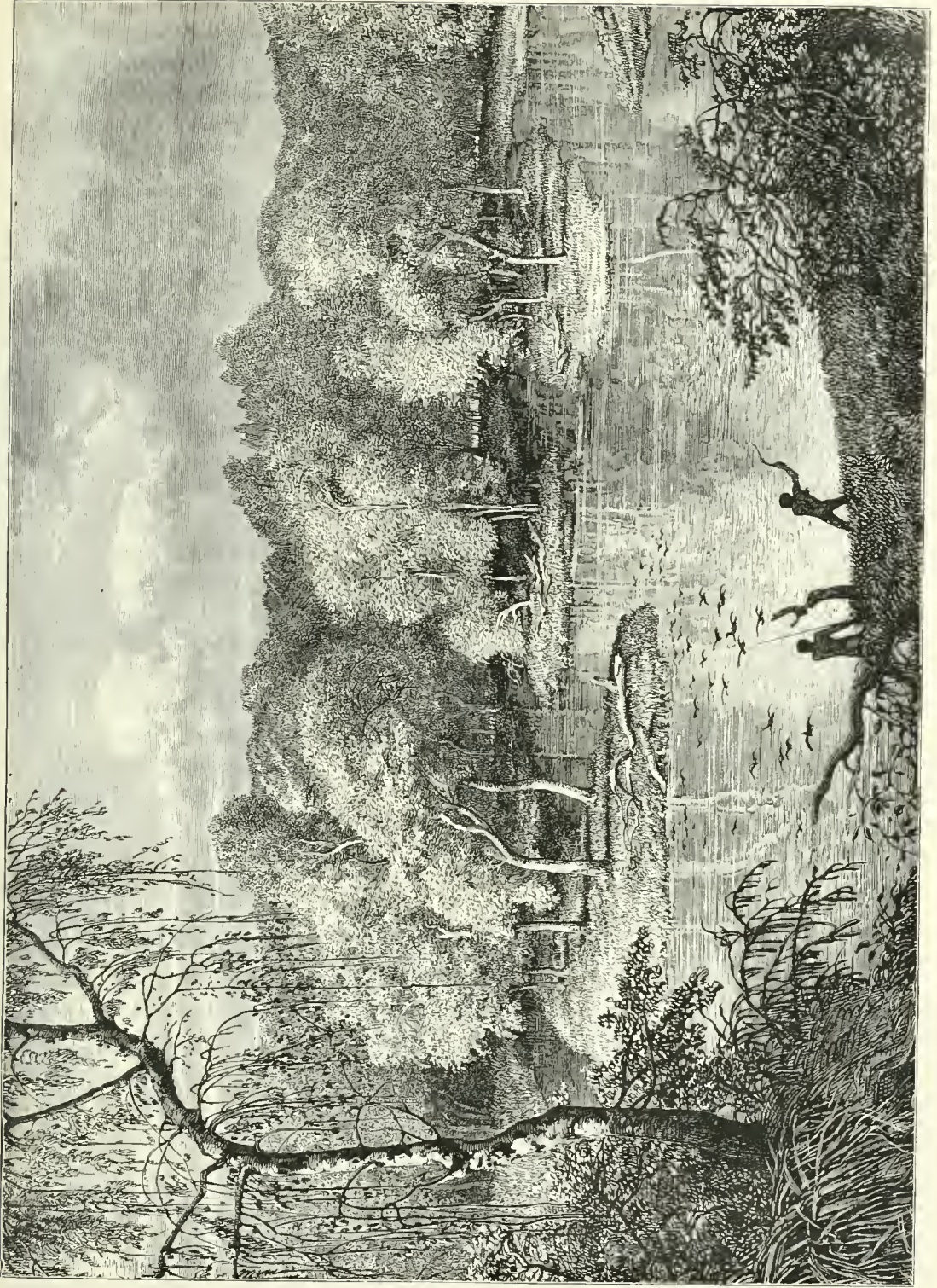
The following table, compiled by the Agent-General, gives in a synoptical form so much information about the chief towns of New South Wales, that, in deference to the parent colony of Australia, we may preserve it in this place:—

NAME.	ON RIVER.	Feet above Sea.	Average Annual Temperature in shade, 9 a m.	District Population.	Distance and Direction from Sydney.	Miles from Sea.
Grafton	Clarence	40	68.2	13,750	450 N	22
Tenterfield	Tenterfield Creek	—	54.6	2,357	431 N	80
Bourke	Darling	—	64.0	318	576 W	393
Narrabri	Narrabri Creek	—	67.1	350	321 N	196
Armidale	Dumaresq	3,278	55.7	9,763	313 N	89
Port Macquarie	Hastings	53	64.4	2,132	240 N	1
Murrumbidgee	Trib. Goulburn River	1,545	60.6	4,143	190 NW	94
Dubbo	Macquarie	—	55.7	4,250	226 W	182
Mudgee	Cudgegong	—	59.7	3,500	153 NW	121
Maitland	Hunter	98	60.2	13,642	95 N	18
Lambton	Hunter	—	59.3	—	N	7
Newcastle	Hunter	112	63.3	18,665	75 N	1
Orange	Near Macquarie	2,891	56.4	7,598	154 W	124
Bathurst	Macquarie	2,200	57.3	16,826	122 W	96
Forbes	Macquarie	1,050	61.1	6,761	239 W	176
Sydney	Port Jackson	155	63.0	140,000	—	5
Liverpool	Georges	—	60.0	3,504	20 S	15
Wentworth	Murray and Darling	—	65.1	1,202	700 W	476
Young	Burrangong	—	60.0	5,924	250 W	140
Wollongong	On Sea	—	62.3	5,698	64 S	—
Moss Vale	On Sea	—	55.4	250	86 S	31
Goulburn	Mulwarrie	2,129	56.8	13,720	128 S	54
Wagga Wagga	Murrumbidgee	—	59.8	5,860	310 SW	161
Queanbeyan	Queanbeyan	—	56.0	4,662	190 SW	60
Urana	Creek	400	63.0	350	393 S	218
Deniliquin	Edwards	410	61.4	2,715	488 SW	287
Kiandra	Snowy	4,640	43.0	250	313 S	88
Albury	Murray	572	59.3	9,195	351 SW	175
Cooma	Murrumbidgee	2,639	53.8	4,384	257 SSW	52
Eden	Sea	107	59.0	1,214	285 S	—
Inverell	Macintyre	—	—	2,358	383 N	165
Glen Innes	Rocky Ponds	3,700	—	343	373 N	120

* "Mines and Mineral Statistics of New South Wales" (Sydney, 1875); "Annual Report of the Department of Mines for the Year 1876" (Sydney, 1877); Charles Robinson: "New South Wales" (Sydney, 1873); Rolleston: "New South Wales; its Progress from 1862 to 1871" (London, 1873); Robinson: "The Progress and Resources of New South Wales" (Sydney, 1878).

Sydney is no mushroom town of yesterday—and she knows it. Her harbour, Port Jackson (p. 152), is one of the finest in the world, and by the united testimony of all who have visited it perhaps the most beautiful. It is not even surpassed by the magnificent haven of Rio Janeiro. The official historian grows enthusiastic—and for once the colonial inditer of guides does not lie under the suspicion of allowing his patriotism to be displayed at the expense of his accuracy—over the scene witnessed in entering this splendid arm of the sea. The bold coast fronting the Pacific is suddenly broken, and the giant cliffs form a portal to the estuary of the Paramatta about a mile in width, but capacious enough to shelter the navies of the world. In a few minutes the voyager leaves the swell of the Pacific outside, and enters deep, calm water, protected on every side by high lands. The elevated shore, which seems to shut him in, barring further progress, only opens out to afford views of innumerable bays and inlets; while the central water is relieved by many a picturesque islet, dotted with gardens and villas, half concealed amid thickets of bananas and other semi-tropical plants. Yachts dart backwards and forwards, ships are continually sailing in and out, steamers are crossing and re-crossing the harbour, while under the rocky shore lie stretches of white sandy beach, such as Stanfield or Copley Fielding would have loved to paint. The hills are well wooded, and form a charming framework to the bright blue water they enclose. The city itself is fine and picturesque, though in many respects inferior to Melbourne; but in the luxuriances, elegancies, and amenities of life, Sydney yields to no colonial town. Every one who has visited it has been charmed with the hospitality and *bonhomie* of the people, and the thoroughly at “homedness” of all whom they met with. The excursions among the orangeries, gardens, and farms in the suburbs are very pleasant, while a trip by the zig-zag line over the Blue Mountains (pp. 169, 176), or a picnic on Mount Victoria, are described as among the pleasantest of junketings. The most famous *litterateur* who ever visited the colony declares that Sydney is one of those places which, when a man leaves, knowing that he will never return, he cannot part with without a pang and a tear. The town has none of those signs of novelty which make so many of the cities of the New World unpicturesque and distasteful. It is not parallelogrammic and rectangular. “One may walk about it and lose the direction in which one is going. Streets running side by side occasionally converge; and they bend and go in and out, and wind themselves about, and are intricate.” The harbour is so “inexpressibly lovely that it makes a man ask himself whether it would not be worth his while to move his household goods to the eastern coast of Australia, in order that he might look at it as long as he can look at anything. The sea runs up in various bays or coves, indenting the land all around the city, so as to give a thousand different aspects of the water: and not of water broad, unbroken, and unrelieved, but of water always with jutting corners of land beyond it, and then again of water, and then again of land.”* Australian scenery—and among it that of New South Wales—bears no high reputation among that portion of the world who travel in search of the picturesque. The “everlasting gum-tree” is a common phrase which represents the wearisomeness with its sameness. But in the Alpine regions, along the banks of the Hawkesbury, and in many other parts of the colony (p. 173)

* See also Burton: “Visitor’s Guide to Sydney” (Sydney, 1874); and *Illustrated Sydney News*, March 16th, 1878.



VIEW ON THE MURRAY RIVER, VICTORIA.

—not to speak of Sydney Harbour—there is some really beautiful and even striking scenery, which the Australians themselves little know of, and which, therefore, they cannot expect visitors, who often leave in ignorance of their existence, to grow gushing over.

CHAPTER XI.

AUSTRALIA: THE COLONY OF VICTORIA.

THE first part of the now colony of Victoria sighted by Cook was probably the present Cape Conran, or Cape Everard, in Gipps Land. This was on the 19th of April, 1770.* Twenty-eight years afterwards Western Port was discovered by Surgeon Bass. In 1802 Port Phillip was entered; next year an unsuccessful attempt was made to colonise it by a party of convicts under Colonel Collins. The country was, however, soon abandoned, under the belief that it was unfit for settlement. Nearly twenty years passed away before Hume Hovell reached Corio Bay, having travelled overland from Sydney,† and ten years more before the Messrs. Henty came from Launceston, in Tasmania, to found the first settlement on the shores of Port Phillip, viz., that at Portland Bay. John Bateman, also of Tasmania, arrived the next year, and purchased 600,000 acres of land from the natives for the usual trifle in Jews'-harps and shaving-brushes; and a few months later John Pascoe Fawkner's party sailed up the Yarra, and founded the city of Melbourne. In the following year the Government of New South Wales took cognisance of the young settlement, and established a regular government at "The Settlement," or "Bearbrass," for it was not until the 2nd of March, 1837, that Sir Richard Bourke gave the name of Melbourne to the present metropolis of the colony. As the new Port Phillip district increased in importance and population, the settlers kicked against the domination of Sydney, just as distant settlers in the Riverina do at the present day, or as they did at Moreton Bay until the malcontents set up for themselves, under the name of the colony of Queensland. They were neglected, their money was spent on distant parts of the country, and their representatives, who in those railroadless days had to travel long distances to the legislature, were swamped by the noisy orators of Sydney. So after considerable agitation—an agitation shared in, it may be noted, on the Port Phillip side by Messrs. Childers and Lowe, the latter being Attorney-General of New South Wales, the former Collector of Customs in the new colony—Port Phillip was separated from her parent, and established in an independent form of government under the name of Victoria. The date of this event—July 1st, 1851—is still celebrated. Melbourne was at that time but a humble city,

* Hayer: "Victorian Year Book for 1877-8" (Melbourne, 1878); "Notes on the Colony of Victoria" (Melbourne, 1875), &c. For these and many other official documents relating to the colony I am indebted to the Department of the Agent-General in London.

† Labilliere: "Early History of the Colony of Victoria," Vol. I., p. 188; Michie: "Readings in Melbourne" (1879), &c.

though the neighbouring country was well settled by sheep farmers. In the very month, however, in which the separation was brought about, gold was discovered in the colony, and in a few months more the city and the surrounding country sprang into a life and vigour which it might have taken many years otherwise to attain. In reality, however, it only then became generally known that there existed rich deposits of the precious metal in the colony. For two years and a half previously a lump of gold had been exhibited in the shop of a Melbourne jeweller, which it was said had been found in the locality of the Pyrenees range by a shepherd named Chapman. This created some excitement at the time, but as the man was never able to point out the place where he had found it, and speedily deserted a party he had undertaken to guide to the spot, it was generally supposed that he was an impostor, who had obtained the lump by melting down some stolen articles of jewellery. Still the hope of there existing a paying gold-field did not desert the more sanguine or the more scientific of the settlers, for it was known that as early as 1811 the Rev. W. B. Clarke, now deceased, had found the metal in New South Wales. It is also known that in 1850 gold was discovered at Clunes, but the discovery was kept concealed, lest it should injure the settler on whose run it was found. There were various other finds in rapid succession, but it was not until the discovery of a gold-field by Mr. Hargreaves in New South Wales that the discoveries in Victoria began to be paid attention to in earnest. The precious metal, according to the Parliamentary Committee directed to investigate the different claims, was first discovered, as noted, at Clunes, then in the Yarra range at Anderson Creek, soon after at Buninyong and Ballarat, shortly afterwards at Mount Alexander, and eventually at Bendigo. "The deposits were found to be richer and to extend over a wider area than any which had been discovered in New South Wales. Their fame soon spread to the adjacent colonies, and thousands hastened to the spot, desirous of participating in the newly-found treasure. When the news reached home, crowds of emigrants from the United Kingdom hurried to our shores. Inhabitants of other European countries quickly joined in the rush; Americans from the Atlantic States were not long in following; stalwart Californians left their own gold-yielding rocks and places to try their fortunes at the Southern El Dorado. Last of all, swarms of Chinese arrived, eager to unite in the general scramble for wealth." The gold diggings went through the ups and downs which characterise new countries; there were riots and crimes, but probably fewer than have characterised other places of a like description. Finally, on the 23rd November, 1855, responsible government was established in the colony, and Victoria has gone on prospering, though not without many hitches in the machinery of state, resulting in a "change of ministry" almost as often as a South American Republic changes its President.

PHYSICAL FEATURES AND POPULATION.

That the country has progressed is evident from the following facts:—When the Constitution was proclaimed the population of the colony did not number over 364,000; it now numbers (December, 1878) 879,386. In 1855 the land under cultivation amounted to 115,000 acres; it now amounts to over 1,120,000 acres. The bushels of wheat grown in

a year then numbered 1,150,000; they now amount to 7,018,257. The sheep numbered 4,600,000; they now number 10,114,268, a decrease from that of the previous year. The cattle numbered 530,000; they now number 1,174,176, including 268,110 milch cows. The horses numbered 33,000; they now number not less than over 203,150. The public revenue was, in 1854, £2,728,000; it is now (1879) £4,600,000. The value of imports was, in 1854, £12,000,000; they now amount to £16,362,304. The value of the exports was, twenty-five years ago, £13,500,000; it is now £15,157,687, though the export of gold has fallen off from £11,000,000 in 1854 to £3,238,612 in 1877—indeed, the returns are



BOURKE STREET, MELBOURNE, VICTORIA.

gradually decreasing. In ten years the number of miners has fallen off from 63,053 in 1867 to 38,005 in 1877, the whole population of the gold-fields being 270,428 in 1871. The quartz miners number 14,690, the alluvial miners 23,315, and of these 9,876 are Chinese. These abstract statistics, derived from the latest official returns, show more saliently than any mere description could the progress which the colony has made and its present standpoint. Victoria, though the wealthiest of the colonies and the most densely peopled, is the smallest of them all, its area being only 88,198 square miles (or 56,446,720 acres), compared with the 310,938 of New South Wales, the 669,520 of Queensland, the 903,690 of South Australia, and the 1,000,000 square miles of almost unpeopled country which is claimed by Western Australia. Its extreme length from east

to west is about 420 geographical miles, and its greatest breadth 250 miles, but owing to the deep indentation of Western Port and Port Phillip its coast-line extends to nearly 600 miles. The highest mountain range in Victoria—the Bogongs—has an elevation of 6,508 feet,



VIEW OF FERN-TREE CAVE, GIPPS LAND, VICTORIA

but there are several others ranging from 4,000 to 6,000 feet. The Murray (p. 181) runs along the northern boundary for 670 miles, but the Goulburn, with a length of 230 miles, is the longest river which flows throughout its course entirely in Victoria. The surface of the colony is varied, its entire length being traversed by a chain of hills, completely dividing it into two parts, and thence called the Dividing Range, though this range sends off a number of spurs in different directions. There are numerous salt and fresh-water lakes and lagoons,

but many of them are, during the dry season, little more than swamps, and some of them are the craters of extinct volcanoes. A great part of the colony, however, consists of cattle and sheep runs of the character already indicated. Hence the population is very unequally distributed. There are, for example, about 9·760 persons to the square mile, or a trifle less than that of the Empire of Russia, and much less than that of the United States, which has fourteen inhabitants to the square mile. But of this population, Melbourne, the capital, has, with its suburbs, 251,000, rather less than Boston in the United States, or Sheffield, but more than Hamburg or Edinburgh; while in the county of Weeah, in the extreme north-west of the colony, it is on record that "there was not a single inhabitant on the night upon which the census" of 1871 "was taken." Ballarat, the second city in Victoria, is estimated to have a population, including Ballarat East, of nearly 10,000; Bendigo or Sandhurst, nearly the same, if not more; Collingwood, 21,200; Castlemaine, 7,500; Clunes, 5,500; Stawell, 7,000; Daylesford, 4,500.*

The general nature of the climate we have already indicated, and need not again describe. With the exception of the hot winds, it is usually pleasant, though often extremely warm during the summer months. Even the sirocco, which blows on an average fourteen days in the year at Melbourne, though trying to invalids, young children, fruits, leaves, and other delicate things, is not an unmixed evil, as the intense dryness produced by it acts as a powerful disinfectant; and the dampness, which in the south of Europe produces such prejudicial effects, is unknown in Victoria. But doubtless, while they last, the hot winds are not more agreeable at Victoria than at Sydney, and are justly dreaded by new arrivals, and looked forward to with little pleasure by the old residents. They frequently set in about 9 a.m., and blow from the north with great violence. The wind often changes to south towards the evening, though sometimes it continues to blow from the north for two and even three days. When the southerly wind sets in it usually does so with a heavy squall, accompanied by drops of rain, thunder and lightning, and a fall of the thermometer, amounting sometimes to as much as twenty or thirty degrees in half an hour.

Victoria is, to all intents and purposes, a self-governing community, with a constitution based on that of the United States, though this rather conservative system has not been found to work under the control of a responsible ministry which the Great Republic does not possess. There are no imperial troops in the colony; it is defended by volunteers, a number of paid artillerymen, and one monitor and a line-of-battle ship, the expenses of which are defrayed out of the colonial funds. Its public debt amounts to £17,022,065, or about £19 12s. 4½d. for every man, woman, and child in the colony. The taxation per head is about £2 16s. 3d., while the general and local revenue combined amounts to nearly £6 9s. per head. The expenditure of a few of the municipalities sometimes exceeds their revenue, but, as a rule, the cities, boroughs, and

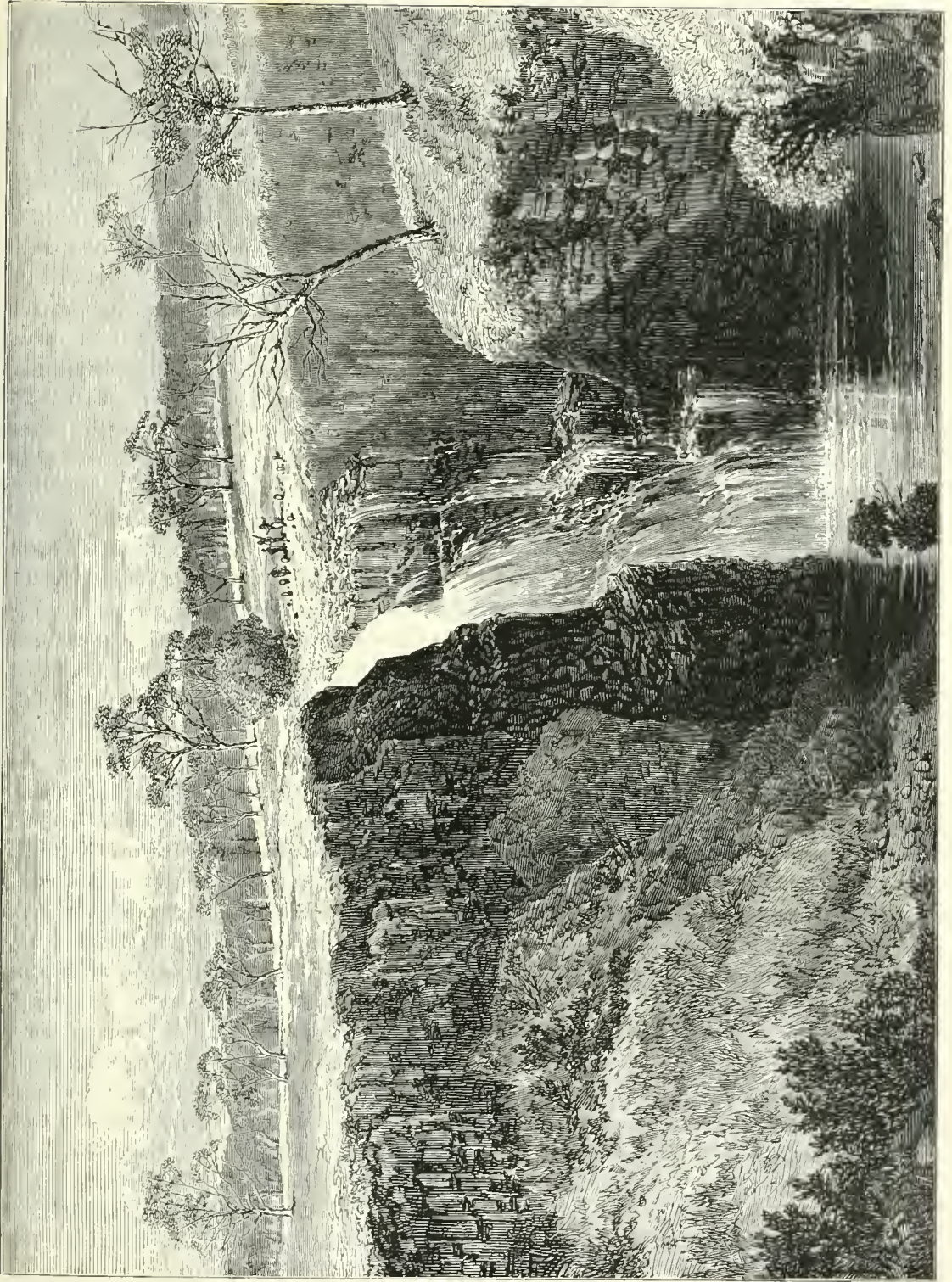
* These figures are for the most part from the "Victorian Year Book" for 1877, pp. 32, 33, but they differ—chiefly in giving a smaller population to the towns—from the apparently official returns in the sketch of Victoria written for the catalogue of its products sent to the Philadelphia Exhibition in 1876. This discrepancy seems due to the one statist taking the exact limits of the municipality as his guide, while the other includes in addition the neighbouring villages or suburbs, sometimes under different Mayors and Town Councils.

shires of Victoria are well governed and prosperous communities; and the same may be said regarding the colony at large, in spite of the intemperate talk, endless squabbles, and occasional bluster of the politicians who are yet serving their apprenticeship to the most difficult art essayed of man.

TOWNS.

Victoria is a colony made by that gold which may be the root of all evil, but is and has been the origin of much good also. Gold nerved the heart of Cortes to seek out a new world for his country and to destroy a nation; gold tempted Balboa to cross the isthmus, and show the way to an even newer empire than that which Columbus had discovered; the love of gold hardened the soul of Pizarro to crush the civilisation of Peru, and thus ruin a kingdom reared by men of greater intellect than those who wrecked it; and gold strengthened the hands and buoyed up the hopes of all the great explorers and voyagers of the Middle Ages. It even entered into the dreams of Columbus, and sent Raleigh a-wandering all through the forest of Guyana. In more modern times it led to the settlement of California, and undoubtedly it built up the colony of Victoria. Melbourne was a fair-sized town, engaged in shipping wool, when the Ballarat mines emptied it of its inhabitants, only to fill it again with the tens of thousands who rushed in search of the new El Dorado; but it would never have been—or, at least, been so early—a great city unless it had been for the gold discoveries. Its harbour—Williamstown, in Hobson's Bay—at the mouth of the Yarra, is not very convenient, for before reaching it vessels have to pass through the Rip, a bubbling tideway between "the Heads," forty miles down from the city. Hence Geelong (Plate XXXVI.), which lies nearer the mouth of Port Phillip, had ambitious dreams that it might perhaps become the great city of the South, and even built a railway to Melbourne, under the belief that the wool shipped from that port would come direct down to the more convenient harbour, and be thence despatched to England. But, unhappily for the Geelongians, the railway had exactly the opposite effect: it did not bring the Melbourne wool bales to Geelong, but it took to Melbourne what little trade Geelong had previously possessed. However, the "city" has still a population estimated at 26,000, has fine banks, very open broad streets, good dwelling-houses, and also ships some little wool, albeit their feelings to the metropolis are not—and cannot be expected to be—the very kindest. Victoria has prospered as has done no other English colony, and Melbourne has increased at a rate which is surpassed by no other city in the world, not even by Chicago or San Francisco. Melbourne is only put down in the official returns as possessing a population of 62,000, though in reality it has nearer 252,000, the truth being that municipally the capital of Victoria is a collection of cities really as much massed into one as are the cities of London and Westminster, or the numerous boroughs which cluster round that portion of the metropolis solely under the Lord Mayor's jurisdiction. All this has been attained in less than half a century. Melbourne the Melbournites naturally consider a very fine town; and so it is, but it is not a beautiful one, either in itself or in its surroundings, as are Hobart Town, Sydney, or Dunedin. The Yarra is not an attractive stream, nor do the Melbournites "blow" about it, as in colonial phraseology they "blow" about a great many other things. The town is built on undulating ground;

accordingly the streets are not very level. But they are not picturesque on that account, only, as Mr. Trollope remarks, sufficiently steep to cause considerable delay to the obese and middle-aged pedestrian when the hot winds are blowing. But in the vicinity there are no hills to produce scenic effect, and the neighbouring country is flat and uninteresting. But Melbourne, nevertheless, is a magnificent city, with fine public buildings, and streets built on the rectangular, parallelogrammic, Philadelphian plan. These streets are wide (p. 184), and interspersed among them are large, open garden spaces, reported not to be well kept or very lovely to look on, but still supplying admirable lungs to the town, and preventing it ever becoming the unwholesome mass of brick and mortar which some more ancient towns have in process of time grown into. The citizens walk in them, enjoy a *rus in urbe*, and possibly even imagine that they are improving their minds while they gaze at the statues which profusely deck them, though some of these petrous effigies are bad enough to give a person of æsthetic tastes a prejudice against patriots and public men generally for the rest of his natural life. Misery and hideous vice there are in Melbourne—especially in the Irish and Chinese quarters—but it does not come continually before the visitor's eyes. What strikes his view as he walks about the cities and its ever increasing suburbs are the comfort of the people, and the solicitude of the Government to give them all the benefits which the state can supply to private individuals. This much we can say without encouraging in the Victorians that fatal colonial propensity for sounding their own trumpet. “‘We like to be cracked up, sir,’ says the American. I never heard an American say so, but such are the words which we put into his mouth, and they are true to his character. They are equally true as to the Australian generally, as to the Victorian specially, and as to the citizen of Melbourne in a more especial degree. He likes to be ‘cracked up,’ and he does not hesitate to ask you to ‘crack him up.’ He does not proceed to gouging or bowie-knives if you decline, and therefore I never did crack him up.” The Melbournites are never weary of relating apocryphal stories of their prowess in the way of riding, driving, fighting, walking, working, drinking, love-making, and speech-making. These anecdotes, told always in the first person, get wearisomely monotonous after a time. In the colonies they are perfectly understood, and the individual who relates them is said to “blow.” In Queensland “blowing” is a loud blast; in South Australia it can be distinctly heard. It is still louder in New South Wales, as any one who has perused an armful of official publications—especially those prepared for foreign perusal—must be distinctly aware of. In New Zealand the blast is still louder, and even the forlorn colonies of Tasmania and Western Australia will, if caught in a cheerful frame of mind, “blow” a little. In fact, all young communities are addicted to a rational—and occasionally irrational—pride in the country or city in which they have cast their lot, and so the traveller must be churlish to snarl at what, with his wider experience and more elevated standpoint, he knows not to be so well founded as he would desire it to be. Melbourne is emphatically a fine town, but the streets are long, and when the winds—not the cold ones—are blowing, “a very little walking is equal to a great deal of exercise.” These new towns are laid out on a large scale. Hence for many years they are a little ragged, and Melbourne is no exception. Few of the streets—even the fine Collins Street—are finished, nor has the city *Ædile* yet been powerful



VIEW OF THE LALLALL FALLS, NEAR BALLARAT, VICTORIA.

enough to get all the houses in one street of the same style of architecture, or even of the same pretensions. Hence, though in most of the streets there are fine buildings, none of them are magnificent throughout. But Melbourne is great inside, if not outside. It possesses a university, schools, a museum, and library, all on a sumptuous scale, and a botanic garden, which, by dint of the eminence of its director, is known in parts of the world which has but a vague idea of the city in which it is situated, or of the colony which supports it on such a liberal scale. There are hospitals and benevolent asylums, which stand in the place of the poor laws and the poor rates of older countries. There are clubs as well appointed as any in London—indeed, “the club” is an eminently colonial institution, which has thoroughly engrafted itself in every town of any pretensions—churches as well filled as a bishop could desire, and lunatic asylums only too fully occupied, not to speak of palatial prisons and penal establishments, never without an abundance of inmates. There is also a stock exchange, on which a tolerable amount of gambling is done, not to speak of the “verandah,” a piece of the Collins Street pavement, on which men congregate to buy and sell gold shares, a sort of *petit bourse*, frequented by a class known in New York as “kerbstone brokers.” Melbourne has always been considered the naval officer’s elysium; it even surpasses Sydney. In walking along the streets of the cities, amid the crowd of gaily-dressed people, fine equipages, and liveried servants—these not very common—it requires an eye sharply observant of little things to detect that we are among a people who might all have arrived here when the aborigines were encamping on its site, or Buckley, the escaped convict, who lived among them for thirty-two years, the only white man within 500 miles. The villas at Richmond, Brighton, and St. Kilda are charming residences, though in beauty of situation and surroundings they must yield to the suburban retreats on the shores of Port Jackson.

The state railways of Victoria, of which Melbourne is the centre, are among the proofs of their enterprise to which the Victorians very justly point. Among the earliest trips over them which the visitor usually makes is one to Ballarat (p. 192), which the gold discoverers of 1853 metamorphosed from a few cotton tents to an extensive and beautiful city. It is still a great gold-producing neighbourhood, though not the richest in Australia, as the once famous mines of Ballarat are beaten by those of Bendigo. But the town itself—a mushroom even among fungoid towns—is very pleasant and very finished-looking, which are not characteristics of Australian “provincial” cities; and in spite of the grumbling of the residents, and the jeers of the non-residents, the place seems prospering. There is no doubt about the absence in Ballarat of the rowdiness and dirtiness of new, and more especially new, Australian towns, while wages are good and living cheap. It has a good public library, free to all, a mechanics’ institution, a public garden, pic-nics at the Lall-Lall Falls (p. 189), a cricket ground, and regattas on Lake Wendouree—in fact, all the “institutions,” most of the conveniences and luxuries, and in the shape of a large Chinese population, many of the vices of a great town.

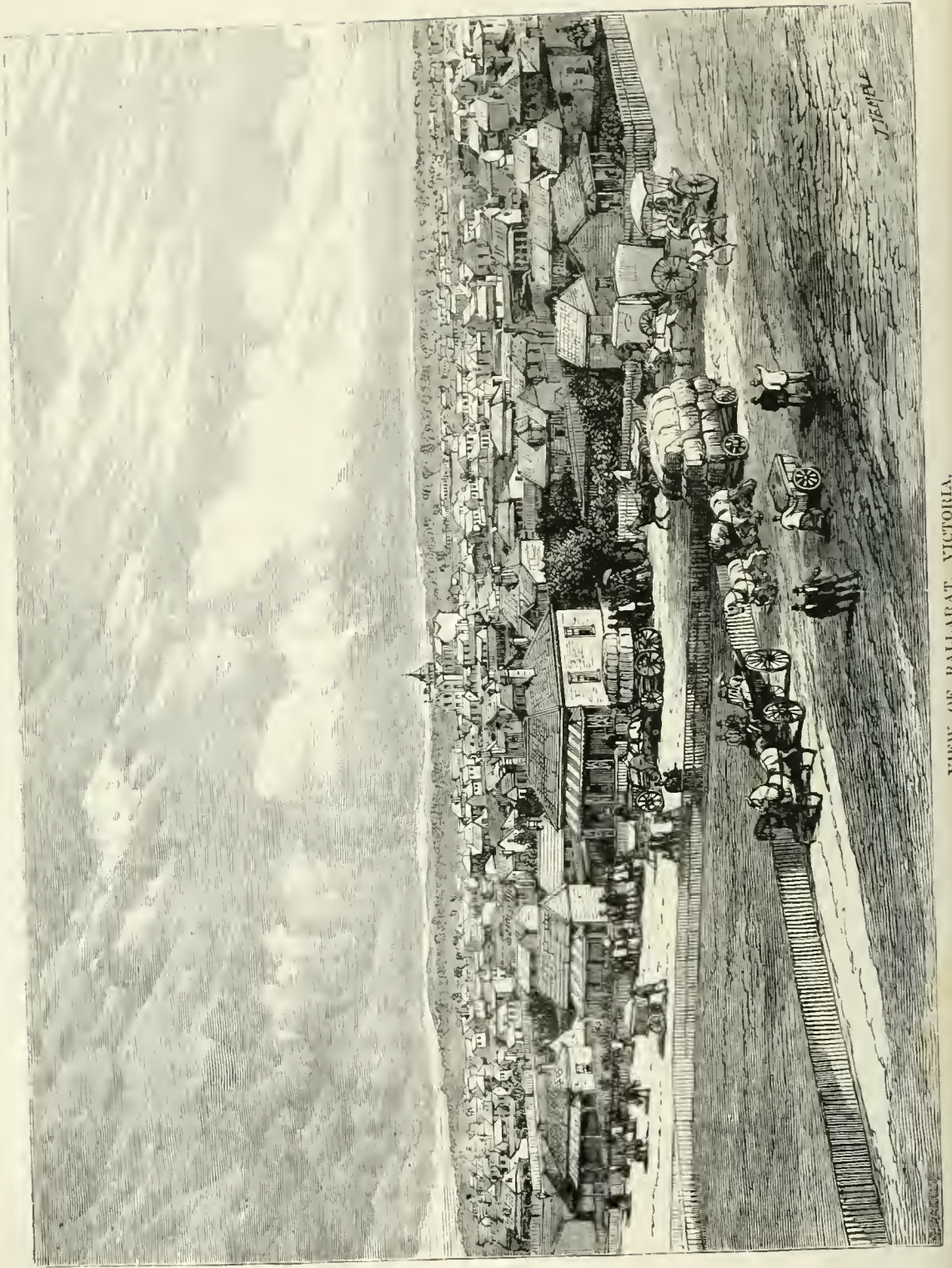
Bendigo is not so fine a place, but is determined to compete with Ballarat in being the metropolis of the Australian gold-fields. So fine a place, indeed, does it intend to be that, in spite of the vulgarity of the gold-fields, it has of late years changed its name to Sandhurst, which is less characteristic but more genteel than its old familiar cognomen.

However, just at present, as a city it is neither commodious nor handsome. It has "the appearance, which is common to all new mining towns, of having been scratched up violently out of the body of the earth by the rake of some great infernal deity, who had left everything behind him dirty, uncouth, barren, and disorderly. At Sandhurst you see heaps of upturned dry soil here and there, dislocated whins, rows of humble houses, built just as they were wanted, shops with gewgaw fronts put up at an hour's notice, drinking bars in abundance, here and there an attempt at architecture, made invariably by some banking company eager to push itself into large operations; but with it all a look of eager, keen energy, which would redeem to the mind the hideous objects which meet the eye were it not that the mind becomes conscious of the too speculative nature of the work done—of the gambling propensities of the people around—and is driven to feel that the buying and selling of mining shares cannot be done by yea, yea, and nay, nay."* There is a "verandah" here, as there is in Melbourne and in most large Victorian towns, and the not very scrupulous, but very quick-witted men who congregate on the particular portion of the pavement so designated have nothing to learn from the wariest of Capel Court *habitués* in the arts of "making a market," "getting a quotation," or in raising the price of mining shares which they wish to sell, or lowering those which they are anxious to buy. If one can believe all the tales told, this gambling propensity has infiltrated all ranks of society in the colony. Judges, clergymen, old men and old ladies, young ladies, and boys at school, sons, unknown to their fathers, wives to their husbands, servants to their employers—everybody speculate in mining shares. The country is in a fever, and the result not by any means to its advantage. But it will get over it in time; and Victoria has within it the elements of a prosperity which, in spite of its outside faults, cannot fail to make it a great country, or, let us hope, one of a great Confederation of Australasian States.

Yet one can forget Bendigo, with its newness and unsightliness—one almost forgets the verandah, with the Hebraic company there assembled—once the pleasant country is reached. It is not a fine or a picturesque region, yet the farm-houses embosomed amid foliage, the sheep stations with their pastoral wealth, and even the deal or log cabins of the newly-arrived settler—"the new chum" of the colonist—are pleasant beyond description to the traveller who has only a few months previously been a daily witness of the misery and hunger of a large city in the Old World—or in the New—and of the squalid wretchedness which is too frequently the lot of even the fabled happy peasant of much of Europe.

Gipps Land is the south-eastern part of Victoria, and is separated from the Murray district of Victoria by the Australian Alps, among which lie the eastern gold-fields. Some parts of Gipps Land are poor, but no inconsiderable portion is richly grassed and thickly wooded, and well fitted for the cattle which of late years have taken the place of the sheep which were first put to pasture on them. Most of this country is taken up, and not only taken up but bought, by great squatters, who fatten the cattle for the Melbourne dinner-tables, and are thorns in the flesh of the democratic ministries who have of late years been advocating the claims of the "free selectors" to share the

* Trollope: *lib. cit.*, Vol. I., pp. 382-419.



VIEW OF BALLARAT, VICTORIA.



VIEW ON THE OVENS RIVER, VICTORIA.

huge territories which the representatives of the future territorial magnates of Victoria at present divide amongst them. Sale, a town with 3,000 inhabitants, and enough of banks, with buildings magnificent enough, too, for ten times the population, is the capital of Gipps Land. These fine bank buildings, in the most out-of-the-way Australian towns, presage no good. The banking companies are generally the money-lenders of the place, and as the squatters are often in debt the bankers become in time owners of vast properties. Some of them are, in a word, "the ogres which eat up little men." Walhalla, a very small town of 1,700 inhabitants, is the centre of quartz and other mining operations. Jericho



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, MELBOURNE, VICTORIA.

is another mining village, Matlock a third, and Wood's Point (550 people) the most important of all. But in this brief sketch of an important colony it is needless entering on any elaborate description of these and other colonial "cities," which, moreover, have many characteristics in common with the others which we have described and may yet describe.

In Victoria the "black fellows" are rapidly becoming extinct. It is estimated that at the first colonisation of Port Phillip they numbered about 5,000. When Victoria became an independent colony they were officially put down at 2,693; in 1873 there were 1,553; and in 1877 only 1,067. About one-half of these reside on different aboriginal stations, and three of them were in 1877 married to women of "European birth and origin."*

* "Annual Report of the Board for the Protection of the Aborigines of Victoria (1878)."

CHAPTER XII.

AUSTRALIA : SOUTH AND WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

ALL of the Australasian colonies, with the exception of the first which heads this chapter, may be said to be more or less offshoots of either New South Wales or Tasmania. South Australia, though owing much to its contiguity to Victoria and the "mother colony," and to the gold excitement and discoveries which did so much for the other sections of the Antipodes, nevertheless sprang into life independent of either. As early as 1820[†] the explorations of Captain Sturt attracted attention to the region which we now know as South Australia, but it was not until 1834 that an Act was passed for founding in proper form the colony, which already existed embryonically. Into the terms of this charter it is needless now to enter; but one provision the South Australians are particularly proud of: that is, that no convicts were to be sent to the new settlement, a bargain which has ever been strictly adhered to. In 1849, in accordance with another proviso to that effect, the 52,904 people then in the colony received a Constitution with responsible government, and in 1850 the additional privilege of returning elected members to serve in the Legislative Council.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA : ITS HISTORY.

The colony was not at first an unqualified success; it had its ups and downs, as have all the other Australian colonies, and has, like them, suffered from the ignorance or inexperience of those who at first attempted to guide its youthful steps. Indeed, very early in its career it managed to get into debt to an extent which its revenue in no way justified, and to spend about three times what it earned. But the mother country happily looked kindly on her children's extravagance, and lent them money to pay their debts. This indulgence has been justified by the result, for since those days—forty years ago—South Australia has prospered, though the date of its first real prosperity was 1845, when the rich Burra-Burra copper mines were discovered. Copper, indeed, has been to South Australia what gold has been to Victoria, albeit at one time it was feared that the attractions of the mines in the latter colony would altogether depopulate its neighbour. The people rushed in a perfect furore for riches to Victoria. They walked overland, or they drove in teams, or rode on horseback. They left Adelaide in shiploads, in open boats, and in every other conveyance which would enable them to reach the El Dorado which, in their heated imaginations, appeared to be the promised land which so many of them had despaired of ever seeing. To use the language of one of the historians of the colony—Mr. Sinnett—the little trodden overland route became "the scenes of active traffic, the principal camping places being every night lighted up by the

numerous camp fires of parties of travellers. At the same time that the men went the money went with them. The banks were drained of coin, and trade partially ceased. Scores of shops were closed, because the tradesmen had followed their customers to the diggings. The streets seemed to contain nothing but women, and strong feelings were entertained that no harvest would be sown, and that, allured by the more glittering attraction of the gold colony, the small landed proprietors who formed so important a section of our society would permanently remain away, selling their land here for whatever trifle it would fetch." The same description would apply to the "gold rushes" in almost any of the other colonies. But the result—in the case referred to—was that the runaways came back, and, as a rule, South Australia profited far more than it lost by the Victorian gold discoveries. Like the other colonies, South Australia has also had her constitutional fever, her deadlocks, and parliamentary squabbles. Her original Constitution was not agreeable to the growing importance of the colonists; accordingly, they got a new one, which came in force in 1856. Since that date, at all events, there has not been parliamentary stagnation, for in fifteen years there were twenty-four sets of ministers.

TRADE AND WEALTH.

Yet this political activity has evidently not greatly interfered with the prosperity of the country, if it has not helped it; for on the 1st of April, 1879, the population was estimated at 251,753, who, on an average, each imported £21 9s. 9d. worth of goods, and exported £20 13s. 1d. worth. The country, which in 1839 was nearly bankrupt, is now proud to possess, and pay interest with punctuality on, a national debt of £1,737,200, and raises a revenue little short of a million and a half sterling; has nearly 400 miles of railway, and cities which will compare with many of the best of those in older countries.* In proportion to its area South Australia is well cultivated, for of all the Australian colonies it is the one best suited for the growth of wheat. Oats, barley, and peas are also cultivated to some extent, but flax—though the soil is well suited for it—is only grown to a slight extent. The vine was at one time likely to be grown extensively, but during the past eight years there has been a gradual falling off in the number and extent of the vineyards, until at present there are not more than 4,000 acres occupied with them. The liquor is fair, but unless the consumption of native wine increases it is not likely ever to form a staple product of the colony. The cultivation of the olive is extending, as is also that of the almond and other semi-tropical fruits. Sheep form in South Australia, as in the neighbouring colonies, an important source of wealth. In round numbers there are at present about 7,000,000 in the colony, in addition to 115,000 horses, 242,000 horned cattle, 22,000 goats, and 107,000 pigs.

The outlying pastoral districts were early occupied as sheep and cattle runs, under leases from the Government, though with the provision that if at any time the tracts

* See "Summary of the Statistics of the Colony," published in the *South Australian Register* and *South Australian Advertiser*, for January 27th, 1879; Hareus: "History, Resources, and Productions of South Australia" (1876); Todd: "Handbook of South Australia," &c. For some of these documents, official and otherwise, I am indebted to Sir Arthur Blyth, K.C.M.G., formerly Premier, and at present Agent-General for the colony.

so occupied should be wanted by the Government they can be resumed on the squatter getting six months' notice. The agricultural settler then steps in, and farms take the place of runs, the colony properly recognising the fact that land fit for growing crops can be more profitably occupied in this manner than by sheep farmers, who will monopolise for every seore of sheep as much ground as will feed a family. The South Australians, no doubt, consider this as a pusillanimous way of looking at things. They are fond of talking large and of handling articles on a great scale. A squatter may grow rich rapidly, or become as rapidly bankrupt, by growing wool, as no



PARLIAMENT HOUSE, ADELAIDE.

doubt the farmer may do by growing wheat. But wheat is usually cultivated on a comparatively small scale by multiplicity of growers, while wool is grown in lordly quantities over great tracts and for a few individuals. Yet wheat, and not wool, constitutes the agricultural wealth of South Australia. In 1878—including a little grown in the neighbouring colonies, but exported from Adelaide—the quantity of wool sent off from South Australian ports was 118,502 bales, valued at £1,802,494, but the wheat crop was worth much more than that, though a considerable quantity of it being consumed in the colony it does not bulk so largely in statistical returns.* Sheep farmers in South Australia are liable to great losses from the droughts which so frequently visit the colony. During

* In 1878 there were 2,111,314 acres under tillage, and of this area over 1,300,000 were devoted to wheat.

some of these droughts not a blade of grass appears after a certain time, and the sheep are starved. Then the more provident settlers hie their flocks and herds to the coast, or to any other region where a little food may be found. It is a colonial law that a squatter has the right of driving his sheep over any other squatter's run, provided the flock is travelling to or from the run, and the owner of the travelling "mob" has given notice to the lessee of the land over which he is driving them. He must also drive them at the rate of at least six miles per diem. This legal usage is at times abused by sharp but shabby squatters, who drive their sheep in a long round, getting them a bit of feed



POST-OFFICE AND TOWN HALL, ADELAIDE.

here and a bit there, until they complete the circuit of eleemosynary pasturage by returning to their own scanty runs with flocks fattened at their neighbours' expense. It is needless to say that this practice is not popular with the large squatters, who, however, cannot prevent it, for a squatter must get his flocks to and from market. But in times of drought it is execrated still more. The squatter's pastures are day by day getting browner and thinner, and he has barely enough to keep life in his own sheep until the long prayed-for rain arrives. But what must be his feelings when he sees "mob" after mob of starved animals arriving, and, without his having power to prevent them, still further decreasing the feed? Such was the case in the great drought of 1865-66. The flocks which came first fared badly, but those which followed fared worse, until the line of

travel to the sea was strewed with dying animals, or with their putrefying carcases. If a sheep dropped it was left to die, for the mob had to move on to some other district, in the hope of sufficient grass being still found there to keep the animals alive. Thousands were even slaughtered, in order that by reducing the number of mouths enough grass could be kept for the survivors; and it is on record that one desperate squatter, as a last resort, drowned a flock of a thousand sheep in the sea. In Adelaide sheep could, during this dismal time, be bought for next to nothing. Flocks were offered for a shilling a head, and as the clouds still withheld their moisture would-be purchasers lived to rejoice that their offer of sixpence a sheep was not accepted: for flocks and herds were an incumbrance.

These notes will show what a speculative business squatting is. A few pence a pound more or less on wool will make the fortune or complete the ruin of the struggling squatter. I think it is Mr. Trollope who notes as a remarkable fact that in travelling in Australia the visitor sees comparatively few sheep. Nothing could more strikingly illustrate the extent of the country. It contains millions of sheep and thousands of sheep runs; sheep constitute its chief inhabitants, and wool its riches. Yet even in the pastoral districts mile after mile may be driven over and not a fleece seen, and, what is still more curious, scarcely a blade of grass. Outside of "Godyer's Rain Line" little or no rain falls, and this region is therefore exempt from purchase by agriculturists. For that reason, if for no other, it is in favour with the squatter, who, of all created beings, dislikes the dingo and the "free selector" worst. The country, it is true, will not "carry" over one sheep to ten acres, hence the few sheep seen by the traveller; and the same, indeed, is true of almost every other animal, which seem singularly absent from these dry, cheerless, uninviting tracts of South Australia. Little grass existing, owing to the lack of rainfall during the greater part of the year, the sheep feed on the salt-bush, a species of orache (*Atriplex nummularia*), about two feet in height, which can produce its foliage with the minimum of moisture. It is eagerly devoured by sheep, and is accounted a safe kind of feed because it so rarely fails. Water is obtained from wells sunk to the depth of from 50 to 120 feet. At this depth, water can almost always be got, though of a brackish quality. Yet the sheep thrive on it. Sometimes the water from these wells is raised by horse-power, occasionally by windmills, but most frequently by men. In South Australia, outside the line of rainfall, which is the squatter's peculiar province, most of the runs are rented from the Government, at a rate calculated on the number of sheep they are believed capable of "carrying," but inside this line—in the agricultural country visited by regular rains—most of the sheep farmers have bought the lands which they occupy, or they occupy them as commonage with the owners of neighbouring freeholds.

MINES.

The mines of South Australia are very important. Gold is found in it, and considerable quantities of the precious metal have been washed out of the soil by "diggers," but it is not auriferous—at least, so far as yet known—to the extent that the other colonies are. But it is cupriferous. Copper mines, of a quality far surpassing anything

in the rest of Australia, are worked here, to the exceeding great profit of the shareholders in them. Some of them, indeed, appear to be almost inexhaustible. The most famous of these were the Kapunda (p. 204), Burra-Burra, and Wallaroo mines, until the discovery of the Moonta mines, not far from Adelaide, eclipsed them. In thirteen or fourteen years the latter paid—up to 1874—£864,000 in dividends, without a single penny of capital being subscribed. They were discovered by a shepherd employed on a sheep run in the district. The Burra-Burra mines are situated about ninety miles north of the town of Adelaide, with which they are connected by a railway. They were lit upon in 1845, also by a shepherd. The land on which the ore was supposed to exist was purchased, to the extent of 20,000 acres, by two companies, known as the Nobs and the Snobs, from the supposed aristocratic or plebeian tendencies of the different shareholders. Forced by the very democratic want of cash to coalesce, they cast lots for the land which each should possess. The result was that the Snobs got the northern portion and the Nobs the southern, but as it fell out that all the copper was on the democrats' lands, the aristocrats were compelled to dispose of their acquisition for pastoral purposes. The Snobs then commenced work. The copper lay on the surface, in the form, as it were, of a great metalliferous rock, so that it could be mined with the least possible expenditure of labour and money. In the first six years of their history the Burra-Burra mines yielded 80,000 tons of ore, and a profit of nearly half a million sterling. As the company had begun work with a capital of £1,500 over and above the sum expended on the land, it may be reasonably believed that the Burra-Burra mine shareholders were satisfied with their dividends. Those were the palmy days of Burra-Burra: when the surface copper got worked out, the expenses of the mines increased and the dividends decreased: then Wallaroo became the greatest name in South Australian mining quotations. These mines are situated in a dreary, waterless country, so poor, indeed, that the original settlers all but despaired of being able to keep sheep on it. But in 1859 copper was discovered, and in 1860 more at Moonta, a station ten miles distant, and the shepherds who discovered both mines and the squatters on whose runs they existed became wealthy men. Thriving towns now exist where only, a few years ago, were one or two huts, and the smoke of smelting works now rises into the cloudless sky over spots formerly unsuspected to be metalliferous. In the vicinity of these mines patriarchal government run crazy is seen to perfection. The miner desires to be near his work, and accordingly the queer rambling villages of Wallaroo mines and Moonta mines have clustered round the very mouths of the shafts. But the ground on which they are built is Government land, leased out specially for mining, and not for building purposes. It therefore follows that the Cornish and Welsh miners who have built their huts on these spots have done so in the face of the law: they should have taken up their residences in the official townships further off. In these town sites any one may buy his section and build his house, always providing that he builds it in accordance with the Government specifications. In the townships alone people are allowed to open a shop, the Government having promised the speculators who bought the land at Kadina or Moonta that no other shops should be allowed to be established within a certain distance of them. "In these large mining villages nothing can be bought and nothing sold. In reality, the man when he has constructed a house

has not even a house to sell. He should have built it in the official town if he desired to avail himself of his property." But the mines at present discovered and worked are believed to be only an earnest of the still richer ones to be discovered and worked in the near future. At present cheap transit is a drawback to the development of the colony's mineral wealth. When the railway, for which already the preliminary surveys have been made, is constructed across the continent from Adelaide in the south to Port Darwin in the north, the country some 200 miles north of Port Augusta, which is known to be rich in copper, will be worked with profitable results. Ironstone, said to yield excellent "pig," exists in great abundance within an easy distance of the sea-board, and in many places in the midst of large timber, from which charcoal for smelting purposes could be obtained easily, and in great abundance.

AGRICULTURAL WEALTH.

Wheat, however, will always be the product which will distribute wealth most equally throughout all classes of the community, and though it may not excite so much interest, it will in the aggregate amount to far more than even the minerals with which the name of South Australia has been so long associated. For instance, the minerals and metals exported during 1878 only brought in £374,501, while the agricultural products were valued at £1,661,339; of wheat, 3,088,337 bushels, valued at £851,838, were exported; of flour, 62,274 tons, worth £779,266; of wheat meal, 1,224 tons, worth £11,579; of bran and pollard, 1,870 tons; while barley and oats were sent out of the country to the value of more than £1,800. The returns do not, of course, include what is used in the country. Now this amount of grain is not, as a rule, raised by a few great farmers; it is garnered by the free selectors—the "cockatoos," as they are jeeringly termed—who cultivate a bit of land here and a bit of land there. Their number is so rapidly increasing that in 1879 it is believed that there will be available for export some 170,000 tons of wheat, the yield from 1,305,851 acres being 2,332,042 bushels. Even this return could, with a more scientific system of agriculture, be greatly increased, for the South Australian farmer is perhaps one of the worst of the very indifferent kind found in the Australian colonies. He cultivates badly, partly because he has not learned to cultivate well, but mainly for the reason that with the minimum of labour and expense he has hitherto been able to make a livelihood. He pays no heed to rotation of crops. If a bit of ground grows wheat this year he will make it grow wheat next year, and try to make it do so the next again, until the virgin richness of the soil is exhausted, and it yields no longer. Then, when it is all but too late, he will endeavour to return, in the shape of expensive manures, what he has so prodigally extracted from it. "Fallow" is a word not found in the "cockatoo's" vocabulary, and the idea of making home manure is about as strange to him as are many other canons of old country husbandry formulated by those who are older and wiser than he. He finds it easier to burn the stubble from his fields than to collect the straw: and, for that reason he does so. He is never weary of boasting how far he is ahead of the British farmer in labour-saving appliances; and so proud, indeed, are the authorities of the reaping machine in use that

THE LYRE BIRD OF AUSTRALIA (*Menura superba*) AND COCKATOOS.

they figure it in the official memorandum annually issued for the use of immigrants. This instrument, devised to gather the wheat crop with as little labour as possible, is

known as a "stripper." It is lined with sheet iron, and has a row of iron fingers so shaped and fitted as to catch the wheat immediately under the ear, and so, by the forward motion of the machine, drawn generally by three horses abreast, the ear is stripped from the straw and drawn into the machine, where a drum with beaters await it, and threshes the grain from the ear, throwing it all together to the back part of the apparatus. So after the machine has gone round the field it returns to the corner whence it started, and folding-doors being opened behind, it discharges its cargo of wheat cut and threshed, the winnowing only being required to prepare the grain for the bags into which it is deposited, placed on a team, and carted to the nearest port or railway station, or sold at once to the millers and corn factors. This method of harvesting the crop shows how dry the climate is. In California, and some of the other western States of America, a very similar method of gathering the wheat crop is adopted, for in these regions also the air is sufficiently dry to enable the grain to be bagged without the long and risky drying process necessary in moister regions. The result of this lazy, thriftless farming is that the soil is getting impoverished and the farmer ceasing to be anything save a wheat grower, without enterprise or ambition, though orderly, industrious, and self-supporting.

Most of the farmers own their land, but the tenant system is not unknown, though it is unpopular with all parties concerned, and will in time cease. The tenant gives but unwilling toil to soil not his own, while the proprietor has none of the social advantages which the ownership of broad acres confers in England. All he expects to get—and, as a rule, all he gets—is just so much per cent. on his money, and that, indeed, he does not always get with the regularity he would had he invested his funds in gas shares, water, a soap-making company, or any other unpicturesque security; for though the tenant pays, if the times are good, something like nine per cent. for the use of the soil which he grows his wheat on, he looks upon it, if the season is bad, as a matter of course that he should have a corresponding reduction, and if the times are very bad indeed the landlord's chance of getting any rent at all will be about equally poor. Should the proprietor think differently, and resort to stronger measures, in this land of limitless acreage, the tenant will simply move elsewhere, and as his farming appliances are, as we have seen, not very extensive, the landowner, by seizing them, is not likely to obtain much, except the odium of the neighbourhood in which he lives, and the maledictions of the colony at large, neither of which will greatly aid him in a new country, where a man's wealth depends to a great extent on the multitude of his friends. The South Australian "cockatoo" is universally described as not a romantic-looking person, but one who enjoys in a modest way a plenitude of the necessaries, if not many of the luxuries, of Antipodean life. His crop in the soil, or in sack, his mind is not harassed with any of the multifarious cares which trouble a farmer in the true meaning of the term. Accordingly, the "cockatoo" takes service as a shearer with a large squatter, and earns a few pounds while his grain is growing; or he keeps a team of bullocks, and freights wool to the nearest port or to the railway station; or possibly he "puts in" a month or two at some gold digging, hoping by this means to add a little to his store, or to free more quickly than he could otherwise do the farm which he has bought on credit from the Government. The land laws of the Australian colonies are all alike in this respect: they enable the poor men

to obtain a portion of the soil on easy terms. But they differ in every other respect. In the various official documents issued by the different colonies full information is usually given as to the methods to be adopted in order to become an Australian squire. But as South Australia has now passed a new Land Act, it may be well to recapitulate the chief points in it, as given in a memorandum issued by the authorities in Adelaide. Under this Act the whole of the waste lands of the colony south of the twenty-sixth parallel of south latitude—in other words, all the land which will grow wheat—form one area open to intending purchasers as fast as it can be surveyed. All waste lands have a price put upon them by the Commissioners of Crown Lands—not less than £1 and not more than £2 per acre; a price, it will be seen, much higher than in the United States and in the Canadian Dominion. However, should they not be taken up at the fixed price, that price will be reduced every seven days by not less than 2s. 6d. and not more than 5s. per acre until it has reached the minimum of £1 per acre. After it has reached this minimum it can come down no lower until the end of five years. Then the unselected lands may be offered for sale in blocks, of not more than 3,000 acres, on lease for ten years at an annual rental of not less than 6d. per acre, with a right of purchase at any time during the currency of the lease at £1 per acre. Suppose an immigrant, arriving in the colony with a little capital, is desirous of taking up land, he will first of all see what lands are open for selection, and having examined them and made himself acquainted with the sections, the quality of the soil, the water privileges, the average rainfall, and what he regards as the actual value of the land, he will see what is the price Government has put on the piece he fancies. If he thinks the upset price too high, he will wait a week or two, until it is reduced to what he thinks is its proper value. He will then put in his application at the Land Office for the section or sections he wishes to obtain, with a deposit of ten per cent. on the whole amount, stating, at the same time, whether he intends to reside personally or by his servant. Should there be no further application for the same blocks he will be at once accepted as the purchaser; and he will then have to sign an agreement, binding himself to the conditions upon which the land is taken upon credit. He will then enter upon the land and make the necessary improvements—either by fencing, erecting a house or farm buildings, or by making reservoirs or water-tanks—to the value of 2s. 6d. per acre for the first year. He will then have to plough, and have under cultivation one-fifth of the land during the first year, or two-fifths during the second year. At the end of five years, if a personal resident, and he can afford to pay the purchase-money, he will obtain the fee simple of his selection, and henceforth it will be his own, to be dealt with as he thinks proper.

THE NORTHERN TERRITORY.

The term South Australia, as at present applied to the colony, is really a misnomer, for many of the 903,690 miles contained in it are north of Victoria, and are even the most northern part of the whole continent, the Cape York Territory alone excepted. Adelaide, the capital, is, for instance, several degrees north of Melbourne and very little south of Sydney. However, at the time it was established the colony was certainly the most

southern on the mainland of Australia, and it would be sacrificing too much to the spirit of nomenclatural accuracy to change its title now. Nevertheless, though we usually include under the name of South Australia only the country lying around and behind the great Australian Bight and Spencer Gulf, it extends in reality to the whole length of Australia. This northern territory, the capital of which will be at Port Darwin, may eventually become independent, but at present the Adelaide magnates control it and dispose of its lands. It contains about 500,000 square miles, but with the exception of a few settlements of little importance on the coast, the aborigines have it all to themselves. A telegraph line runs through its entire length, and already the project for opening it up by means of a railway is taking shape, so that before some of the readers of these lines are old men or women the "Northern Territory of South Australia," which is at present



THE KAPUNDA COPPER MINES, NEAR ADELAIDE.

colonially in as larval a condition as Victoria was thirty or forty years ago, may have become a full-fledged dependency of England, or at least of the Australian Dominion. Palmerston, a tiny settlement at Port Darwin, is the nucleus of a capital, and as the point where the telegraph line enters and leaves the continent, and where the railway will begin and terminate, it must in the end be an important locality for trade. To build this telegraph line for nearly 2,000 miles, at a cost of £370,000, was a gigantic undertaking for a colony with about a fifteenth of the population of the capital of England. It was taken through an almost unknown country—indeed, through the region in which Burke and Wills perished in the attempt to cross it—a region in which there was little water and no supplies. If the railway be ever built it will cost at least £10,000,000, and though at present it is difficult to see where the traffic to support it is to come from, there need be little fear that in time the population will follow the iron road, and that it will add enormously to the importance and prosperity of our Australian provinces. Sheep will spread northward, and copper mines at present lying unworked, owing to the prohibitory

expense of getting the ore to the coast, will be opened up. Port Darwin has gold in its immediate vicinity, and there are those who declare that in a few years the Victoria and Roper River gold mines will be among the richest in the colony. "A world of hopes," wrote Mr. Trollope some years ago, when discussing the prospects of the railway scheme, "rise to the mind of the sanguine proprietor as the largeness of his scheme endears it more and more to his heart, till he sees the happiness of thousands and the magnificence of himself is the realisation of his project. I cannot believe in expenditure of £10,000,000 on the construction of a railway which is to run through a desert to nowhere; but I do believe in the gold-fields and pastures of Port Darwin, and in the beauties of the Roper and Victoria Rivers; and hot though the country be, I think that another young colony will found itself on the western shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria." No doubt this



VIEW OF COLLINGROVE, NEAR ADELAIDE.

railway will not have the advantages which the one across North America had in having at the further end of it such a town as San Francisco was when it was first mooted in earnest, nor for its support such wheat-growing countries as are Oregon and Illinois. But, nevertheless, it will be built.

TOWNS.

The only one of the South Australian towns which need be even briefly adverted to is Adelaide. Named in honour of the queen of William IV., it is little more than forty years old, and though it has not progressed at the same rate as Sydney or Melbourne, yet the stranger leaves Adelaide with the impression that the colony of which it is the capital is a success. It is not in itself a seaport, for it is built on the bank of the Torrens, an unpleasant little river, meandering over a plain seven miles from the ocean. Neither is the surrounding country particularly charming, for the only claims which it makes to the picturesque are due to the Mount Lofty range of hills which form its land-

ward background, and among the valleys of which nestle those villas which the Australian citizens so affect. Indeed, it has been said that "nobody lives in Melbourne," the "everybody" who lives out of it being, of course, the wealthy dinner-giving people with whom the passing tourist, likely to write books, mostly comes into contact. As this chronicler finds that his invitations usually compel him to go to and from hospitable houses by train, he naturally concludes that "everybody" in Melbourne lives at one of the pretty seaside towns on the shores of Port Phillip, or in one of the villas which for miles line the roads leading out into the bush around the metropolis of Victoria. It is not the same in Adelaide as in Melbourne and Sydney, but still the city is getting quite large enough to induce the well-to-do people to seek the country after the work of the day is over (p. 205).

Adelaide also illustrates another prominent feature of the Australian colonies—that is, the towns are populous out of all due proportion to the country. For instance, in Adelaide and its suburbs there may at the present time be about 34,000 souls—there were in 1876, 31,573—or more than one-ninth of the whole population of the colony. This proves—and the example of Adelaide is only one out of many other illustrations which could be produced—that the "bush" is ceasing to have attractions for new comers, and that the native population discharges itself with reluctance out of the overstocked towns. This is also beginning to be the case in the United States; or in other words, North America is ceasing to be a "new country," and is assuming the conditions of older communities. But the back country in America is already so well settled in most parts that the effect will not be experienced so soon as it will be in Australia, unless it alters for the better very soon. The towns can only prosper to a certain extent if not fed by the country. They can only absorb a certain amount of foreign products, and it stands to reason can export less and less should the back country cease to supply in greater and greater quantity the raw materials which the townsmen work up and manipulate. Meantime, however, the metropolis of South Australia shows no signs of decay. It is fresh, clean, and airy, and the citizens and their institutions prosper. The town is built on the regular geometrical plan in favour with new American "cities," and is therefore very prim, proper, and unpicturesque. The public buildings are splendid, as public buildings usually are in Australia. It has a Post-office which will compare favourably with similar buildings in any of the other colonies, a grand Town Hall (p. 197), a Parliament House (p. 196), a Governor's residence, and other public offices such as few towns in England with four times the inhabitants can boast of. It has—also a wholesome Australian fashion—so many and such fine churches that its envious rivals designate it "the city of churches," when they do not sneer at it as the "farinaceous town"—wheat, the staple export of Adelaide, being, of course, in the eyes of Sydney and Melbourne, which are "lanigerine" cities, a source of wealth not to be named on the same day with wool. It has also a pretty theatre, and of course numerous banks, which may or may not be a sign of the prosperity of those for whose "accommodation" they are built. If people have nothing to pawn there will be no pawnbrokers; but the frequency of the three balls in any town or in any locality is not usually considered a sign of the thrift, wealth, or prosperity of the inhabitants. The botanic gardens

(p. 224) are also fine scientifically, and lovely æsthetically, though they do not equal those of Sydney. But no gardens in the Old World or the New can ever be expected to equal those of Sydney in beauty: these are first, and all the others second, but at a long interval from those magnificent pleasure-grounds of the oldest of the Antipodean cities. The city is hot in December, January, and February. Then, we are assured by the writer from whose lively descriptions I have culled some of these notes, "men and women sigh for 95° in the shade, as they within the tropics sigh for the temperate zone." The Adelaideans are proud of their town, and not prone to admit anything to its discredit. But the heat they allow, and even take a pride in declaring that the "farinaceous city" is the hottest in Australia south of the tropics.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

Though there are a number of smaller towns, yet the capital on the shores of the Gulf of St. Vincent is the *entrepôt* by which most of the foreign commerce enters the colony, and through which the greater part of the colonial surplus production leaves the country. Owing to the great falling off in the export of copper, the total imports in 1878 exceeded the exports of actual produce by £308,320. These amounted to £3,949,997, being £383,901 in excess of those of 1877. The total imports amounted to £1,258,317, or £167,438 more than those of 1877. The falling off of the mineral exports were £190,683 less than those of 1873, or less than half the average of the four years, 1872 to 1875 inclusive, the decrease being due not to a falling off in the yield of the copper mines, but to the state of the copper market not encouraging mining enterprise.*

WESTERN AUSTRALIA: HISTORY.

This is the largest in area, but the smallest in importance, the poorest in resources, and the least promising or important of all the Antipodean colonies. Our notice of it may be therefore brief. A picture is not meritorious according to the size of the canvas, or an actor according to the superficies of the stage: otherwise the million square miles which this languishing Australian province boasts of would give it an importance over all its sisters. In reality it possessed, at the end of 1877, only 27,838 of a population, while the immigrants were almost counterbalanced by the emigrants. Its public revenue during the year in question was £165,413, and its expenditure £182,959. It is needless to add that Western Australia is in debt, and, like the mother country, has been getting deeper and deeper into debt ever since she learned the art of borrowing. In 1873 she owed but £35,000; in 1874 this indebtedness was more than trebled, until, in 1877, Western Australia stands in the world's books for £161,000. No doubt this

* "Statistical Register of South Australia" (1878); and for general information on this and other Australian colonies—Bates and Eden: "Warburton's Journey across Australia" (1875); Forrest: "Explorations in Australia" (1875); Dilke: "Greater Britain" (1869); Hardman: "McDonall Stuart's Journals of Explorations in Australia" (1866); Tennison-Woods' "History of the Discovery and Exploration of Australia" (1866); Gordon and Gotch: "Australian Handbook" (1879); Braim: "New Homes" (1870), the works of Marcus, Todd Westgarth, &c. &c.

is an insignificant amount for a public debt, and, when compared with the lordly £16,000,000 of Victoria, hardly worth noticing. But for a people not numbering so many as a fourth-rate English town it is more than sufficient, especially when their prospects are as dull as they are at present. It is, therefore, a poor consolation for the statistician to point out that in proportion to the population New Zealand and Queensland are infinitely more heavily indebted, so that, indeed, all the other Australasian colonies are in a worse plight—with the exception of Tasmania, which, next to Queensland and New Zealand, has been most extravagant. But all the neighbouring colonies are prosperous, and can, with more or less ease, bear the burdens they have put upon themselves—burdens it ought to be added not incurred in wars, as is the bulk of the debt of the older countries, but for important and useful public works. Western Australia is, however, almost retrograding.

In itself the colony is not blessed with many natural advantages. It is, as an American visitor remarked, "the best country to run through a hour-glass he ever saw." It is sandy. Then its poverty has forced it to take within its bounds guests, not strange, it is true, to the Australian colonies, but whom all the others have long ago eschewed. In a word, Western Australia was from the first a convict settlement, and though "prisoners" are not now sent, the number of these deportees within the colony must for long give it the jail taint. Tasmania, it is generally conceded even by the Tasmanians, has seen its best days, and is fast sinking into that dull quiescence, neither death nor life, which is the characteristic of so many countries in Europe, of so many country towns in European countries, and even of some colonies not in Australia. It has none of the lusty life, the loud self-assertion, not even the boastfulness of the sister provinces. Now, when a new country ceases to boast, its spirit must have been thoroughly broken. But to this pass even Western Australia has come. A more than ordinarily spirited person will attempt to crow about "our resources;" but the attempt is the recklessness of despair.

The colony may have patches of good land, but these fertile districts are separated one from the other by intervals of desert, so that farming in Western Australia must be farming in a series of oases. Hence the distance of the settlements from one another makes it difficult for the settlers to dispose of their produce; and the distance of the colony itself from the other settled portions of Australia still further separates it from the tide of commerce which, year by year, is laving more profusely the shores of the remaining four colonies. Add to this that it has no gold—or, at least, no paying gold diggings, which is much the same thing—while the presence of the yellow metal in nearly every one of its neighbours attracted from it many settlers whom it has never yet been able to call back again, and that endless forest and poison-bush-covered districts render sheep-farming over much of the country an impossibility, and the woful plight in which the colony is placed may be grasped. To all these troubles may be added the fact that labour is difficult to be procured, that the two or three thousand "aboriginals" in the country are not to be relied upon either as toilers or neighbours, and that the assistance which the convicts supply is not an adequate recompense for the blight which the name of "lag" inflicts on the colony. Yet, though the settlement did not primarily commence as a place

of banishment, about the first intrusion of the region on public notice was owing to the New South Wales authorities, as early as 1826, forming an outlying colony of convicts on the shores of King George's Sound, at the spot where the village of Albany afterwards established itself. Soon, however, owing to the reports of Captain Sterling, a settlement of free colonists was founded on the Swan River. Hence many who are yet middle-aged may remember Western Australia under its earlier and more familiar name of "The Swan River Settlement." Then the convicts were removed, and, as the Swan Riverites imagined, the Bill Sikes physiognomy was no more to appear among them



VIEW ON THE SWAN RIVER, WESTERN AUSTRALIA (GRASS TREES, BLACK SWANS, AND KANGAROOS).

under official auspices. But they were mistaken. The first colonists were humble men, not ambitious of in any way distinguishing themselves as heroes. They desired to live with less toil than they did at "home," and, if possible, make their bread, and the bread of their wives and families, surer than it had been during the dull times which England was experiencing half a century ago. Yet, in spite of themselves, the tale of the pioneers of Western Australia is as manly a tale of hardships endured, and of sufferings borne, as any which have come down to us. They were not successful. The aborigines were numerous, and being, after their own savage fashion, patriots, failed to look upon the proceedings of the new comers in the light which the latter would have desired. So there was much miscellaneous killing on both sides, and on that of the pioneer colonists so much discouragement that at one time it was seriously proposed to abandon the attempt to found a

home on the western shores of New Holland. Rust and moths devoured the wheat, and as the country did not supply anything which could fill its place, starvation more than once faced the colonists. In these circumstances the Albany people remembered that, in Tasmania and New South Wales, imperial money was once spent freely on convicts. And what excellent roads and bridges these depraved persons used to make! Accordingly, in spite of the fact that the other colonies were rebelling against transportation to their shores, the faint-hearted men of Albany petitioned for convicts. But the petition was indignantly rejected by the colony at large. Again a still more extensively signed petition was circulated, but again rejected, for poor as the West Australians were, they virtuously declared that they had not come to such a pass as that proposed for their deliverance. But things went from bad to worse, until, chastened by adversity, and demoralised by lack of cash, at a public meeting held in the capital it was resolved to request the Governor to represent to the imperial authorities the desire of Her Majesty's faithful lieges in Western Australia to enjoy the very diluted blessing of convicts, of convicts' labour, and—of British money spent in the keep of British convicts. That was in 1849; and in due time, just as Tasmania had declined to have any more "lags," and the Home Government were at their wits' end what to do with the offscourings of their jails, the first "prisoners of the crown" arrived at Freemantle, and, until 1868, they continued to arrive in the numbers which we have already noted (p. 171). The chances are that they would yet have been sent, for the imperial authorities showed no desire to abate the despatch of criminal cargoes, and the colonial government having once tasted the wages of other men's iniquity, in the shape of good roads and bridges and public buildings made by convict labour, seem to have made up their minds to accept it for good—or evil. But the neighbouring colonies objected. Especially virtuous was South Australia. It declared that her neighbour's "lags" escaped across the border, and that, therefore, she would not tolerate such a well-spring of corruption on her borders. The end of this agitation was, that in 1868 banishment to Western Australia ceased, and ever since the colonists have alternately tried to prove that they never wished for the convicts, that they were an unmitigated curse to her—forgetting the bridges and the roads which they had no money to make—and that the stingy Government "at home" cheesepare and economise shamefully in the matter of the money they devote to the support of the still remaining prisoners, and, of course, in the matter of money they "spend in the country," which, in colonial eyes, is the final purpose of convicts. They even, according to Mr. Trollope, bring still more serious charges against the perfidious people who in these isles have the ordering of penal matters. "No female convicts were sent out to Western Australia, and therefore an influx of women soon became, above all things, desirable. Women were sent out as emigrants in respect of whom great complaints were made by the colony against the Government at home. It is said that the women were Irish, and were low, and were not calculated to make good mothers for future heroic settlers. It seems to me this complaint, like many others made in the colonies generally, has been put forward thoughtlessly, if not unjustly. The women in question were sent that they might become the wives of convicts, and could not, therefore, have been expediently selected from the highest orders of the English aristocracy. Another complaint

states that the convicts sent were not convicts of the kind ordered and promised. There was—so goes the allegation—a condition made and accepted that the convicts for Western Australia should be convicts of a very peculiar kind, respectable, well-grown, moral, healthy convicts—who had been, perhaps, model ploughmen at home—and men of that class. I have always replied, when the allegation has been made to me, that I should like to see the stipulation in print, or at least in writing. I presume the convicts were sent out as they came to hand; and certainly many of them were not expressly fitted to work on farms at a distance from surveillance. The women, I do not doubt, were something like the men; and in this way a population, not very excellent in its nature, was created. But—the men worked for nothing.” At the latest date for which we have accurate data, there were within the colony 1,790 prisoners—either in prisons or at working depôts in various parts of the colony—in addition to 1,244 prisoners having tickets-of-leave, and 1,240 having conditional pardons. This number is, however, exclusive of the colonial prisoners and the “expirées,” the greater number of whom reside in the colony, owing to the very stringent regulations which the other colonies have made in regard to them. No man—no matter who—can land, say in Adelaide, without having a certificate from the police authorities of the Western Australian port from which he started to the effect that he is not, and has never been, a “prisoner of the crown.” The result of this state of matters is that the convict flavour pervades the whole country even to a greater extent than it did in Tasmania immediately after “prisoners” ceased to arrive, for the population is much smaller than the other colonies. The free colonists seem to be divided into two classes: those who have been “lags,” and are always struggling to free themselves from the convict reputation which attaches to them; and those who were never “prisoners of the crown,” but are exercised in soul, lest they should in time come under the ban which attaches to so many of their neighbours.

GENERAL CONDITION OF THE COLONY.

At Rottnest Island there is a penal establishment for “aboriginals,” where the feeding is so excellent and the discipline so light that the chief ambition of the black man is to qualify himself for this insular elysium. At Fremantle, a “hot, white, ugly town,” there is a still larger one for white convicts, but as the imperial deportees are year by year decreasing, the great jail, capable of accommodating 850 inmates, will soon become deserted by all save colonial ruffianism. Fremantle is the second town in the colony—indeed, there are really only two worthy of the name—and the port for the capital, which lies further inland, on the banks of a brackish lake formed by the Swan River. The metropolis—Perth—is a pretty town of 7,000 inhabitants, which has, of course, pre-eminence over Fremantle, in so far that it is the seat of government and the residence of the principal people in the colony. The people are—or ought to be—poor, if there is anything in statistics. But they seem tolerably prosperous, in spite of the hard times which they deplore; and though grumbling at their fate, and ever waiting for the sudden “turning up” of the panacea which is to make all their fortunes, manage to get along and keep out of the bankrupt court. The great proportion of the non-official residents

have the convict taint. These are, or have been, ticket-of-leaves men, or are the descendants of such. Yet serious crime is not great in the town or vicinity, though the virtuous portion of the colonists will declare that their neighbours who have fallen into crime are only restrained by the paternal regulations of the police from indulging in a pandemonium of killing and stealing. There are certainly a Sikesian flavour and physiognomy throughout the community; but if the visitor be not particular about the antecedents of the man who waits behind him at table, or who edits the local paper which he reads, he may enjoy himself in a subduedly pleasant way in the "city" of Perth. Albany is also a pretty, but very small, town in King George's Sound, surrounded by useless scrub covering stony hills, and distant 260 miles from the capital. The times are dull, but Western Australians are waiting for the *deus ex machina* which is to give them the prosperity which at present they lack. They grow wheat, but the moths and the rust destroy it, and at present flour is actually imported from regions either blessed with a better climate or with farmers possessing less elementary ideas about agriculture. Wool-growing is pursued with some success, though even in that department of money making the squatter of Western Australia is a small man compared with his brethren in Victoria, New South Wales, or even South Australia. Altogether, in 1876 the live stock of the country consisted of 25,263 horses, 44,550 cattle, and 688,292 sheep. So much of the country is covered with the poison-bush (*Gastrolobium*), far too expensive to eradicate over the great tracts necessary for grazing, that it is a common calculation that a sheep requires from ten to twenty acres as feeding ground. In other words, so much of a "run" is useless that after deducting the poison shrub patches comparatively little of an extensive tract can be utilised for pastoral purposes. There are fisheries for pearl shells on the northern coast, which are yearly increasing in value, and the business in sandal-wood (*Santalum latifolium*) is assuming considerable proportions. The trade in jarrah-wood, or flooded gum-tree (p. 162), is also beginning to crop up hopefully, and as this timber, though easily worked, is very hard and impervious to the white ants and to water, the chances are that it may yet save Western Australia from the ruin which has been always threatening to overtake it, but from which it has hitherto escaped. Lead ore is also beginning to be exported to Great Britain to some small amount, and as copper has been found, with a promise of coal, the prospects of the country are not so very black as has been painted. Altogether, in 1877 its exports amounted to the value of £373,352, and its imports to £362,707. At that date it had 68 miles of railway and 1,567 miles of telegraph open; and the sanguine men of Western Australia are beginning to think that if only gold—good paying gold-diggings—would turn up, the world would flock to their country, and they would grow rich beyond the dreams of avarice. Perhaps so. Meantime, like most of the other Australian colonies, it consists principally of coast settlements, the population rapidly thinning as the sea is left, until in the interior kangaroos and opossums have it nearly all their own way. Altogether, for little men, with no great ambition and a capacity for waiting, there are many worse countries than Western Australia in which to pitch their camps.*

* Béranger: "La Nouvelle-Nursie, Histoire d'une Colonie Bénédictine dans l'Australie Occidentale 1846-1878" (1879); Jung: "Australien und Neuseeland, historische, geographische und statistische Skizze" (1879), etc.



HUNTING KANGAROOS IN AUSTRALIA.

CHAPTER XIII.

AUSTRALIA: QUEENSLAND; AUSTRALIAN CHARACTERISTICS.

WE have left the newest of the Australian colonies to the last, but we have said so much about the others that it is neither necessary nor expedient to devote much space to Queensland, extensive, important, and progressive though it be. A few statistics may therefore suffice to convey to the reader the salient facts about the territory which in 1859 branched off from New South Wales and commenced existence for itself. Though, doubtless, in time the country in the vicinity of Cape York will emulate the example of the mother colony, yet at present Queensland extends through 19 degrees of latitude and $15\frac{1}{2}$ of longitude, the whole area comprised within these limits being 669,520 square miles, or in all 420,492,800 acres—a region eleven times larger than England. It has a seaboard of 2,250 miles, abounding in harbours, and though the northern part is hot and unhealthy, the southern and interior regions are well fitted for Europeans, and in the mountain chains which intersect the colony there are elevations 6,000 feet above the sea. In the most southerly point are the highlands of Stanthorpe, a granite table-land, with rich tin mines, and a climate not unlike that of the south of England. Immediately adjoining are the famous Darling Downs, with a general altitude of 1,600 feet above the sea, which form one of the first grazing countries in the world. The Australian Cordillera, which runs parallel to the east coast for 1,800 miles, separates these downs from the Moreton and Logan districts, rich in coal—to be worked in the near future—and with a good soil, well watered. In the Wide Bay and Burnett districts, in addition to their pastoral and agricultural capabilities, there exist the gold and copper-fields of Gympie, Kilkivan, and Mount Perry. The regions described are drained by the Brisbane (p. 217) and the Mary, and further north—in the country of which Rockhampton is the port—we cross the tropic, and come upon larger plains, broader rivers, and animals more equatorial in character than those we have met with in the south. This is the country through which flow the Fitzroy and Burdekin, and which in its area is larger than ancient France. Copper, gold, and other minerals abound; and among the vegetation the zamias and other tropical trees and shrubs begin to appear, while “the giant fig-tree towers like a cathedral cupola above its fellows.” Still more northward—we are following official reports—the rich sugar plantations on the Pioneer River are reached. Then come mines again, mostly unworked, and still further north, until the sea at Cape York stops our travels; but the peninsula is also rich in mineral wealth. The Great Barrier coral reef runs along the coast for 1,200 miles, and beyond it—in Western Queensland—the opal, red chrysolite, and aquamarine are found in some abundance. All the western country is being fast filled up with sheep and cattle, and railways are rapidly reducing its distance from the coast.

PRODUCTS AND INDUSTRIES.

In Queensland also flourish, under cultivation, most of the products of temperate and tropical countries, though chiefly of the latter. Oranges and pine-apples are staples and excellent, and grapes are grown in profusion, though the vintages leave much to be desired, albeit the colonists think otherwise; but gooseberries, apples, and currants are unknown, in the elevated uplands, except as horticultural curiosities. Wheat has also been grown in some localities, but not in such quantities and of such quality as to pay the grower. Neither are oats cultivated, except for cutting as fodder in a half ripe condition or for making into hay. Cotton of excellent quality is grown in the southern parts of the settled districts, but as yet only in small patches. The plant, a perennial, owing to the absence of severe frosts, at one time, when cotton-rates ruled high, promised to be extensively cultivated, but when prices fell the high colonial wages made picking so expensive, that at present the cotton crop may be almost left out of consideration in summing up the products of the Queensland farmers' labour. Sugar is the great prospective industry, especially in the districts not subject to frosts, such as at Port Mackay, on the Herbert, and other northern river flats. In Wide Bay, 2,000 acres brought 3,000 tons of sugar, and at Mackay the cane often averages two tons to the acre. In 1878 there were 9,000 acres in crop and 5,000 to crush at Mackay, and 4,000 acres to the south of Brisbane. There are sugar-planters in the colony, with large capital invested in the business; but farmers often do well by simply growing the cane and selling the juice to local manufacturers, who pay for the quality according to the test of the saccharometer. Such small growers can accordingly afford to dispense with expensive machinery and still more expensive labour. Indeed, labour in Queensland, as in the other Australian colonies, is the great drawback of the agriculturists. To partially remedy this want, Polynesians from the South Sea Islands have been imported to work on the sugar estates, though it is affirmed that the health of Europeans—contrary to the case elsewhere—will bear labour in the sugar-fields. However, white labour is too dear and too independent for the sugar-planter's purpose, and thus, in spite of no little scandal connected with the "blackbird trade" (p. 54), and rather high-handed acts on the plantations, Queensland grows much sugar, and is likely to grow still more by aid of these islanders, who thus gain good wages, and an introduction, in not the worse fashion, to the blessings of that civilisation to which most of them are strangers.

But as yet, not a great deal of sugar is exported. In 1876 there were 13,690 acres under cultivation, and seventy mills and twelve distilleries employed in the manufacture of the cane produce. Doubtless the business will increase, but meantime, the Customs duties which one colony enacts against the produce of another hamper the industry by limiting the market for the product of it. The Australian colonies are at present towards each other, so far as regards the admission of taxation of each other's articles, just as if they were foreign countries. "A minister in one colony," we are told by an eminent writer, "speaks in his Parliament of another as a 'friendly colony' in the spirit in which one minister at home calls this or that nation a 'friendly country' or an 'allied country,' laying stress on the alliance when we know that we are on the brink of war with the country in question.

With these mutual rivalries, and almost antipathies, this British law [the law allowing a colony, for instance, like New South Wales to decide whether she will admit sugar free or whether she will raise a Customs duty upon its import, but not allowing her to take Queensland sugar free, and refuse to take sugar free from other sugar-growing countries], tending as it does to the separation of Australian interests, has no very strong immediate effect. The colonies are determined to be separate. Australia is a term that finds no response in the patriotic feelings of any Australian. They are Victorians, or Queenslanders, or men of New South Wales; and each is not at present unwilling to have the pleasure of taxing the other. But this will come to an end sooner or later. The name of Australia will be dearer, if not greater, to Australian ears than the name of Great Britain, and then the produce of the land will pass free throughout the land." Maize, cassava, arrowroot, tapioca, cocoa-nuts, chicory, dates, tea, rice, and mangoes are also grown, but maize is the staple crop, being used for green fodder and grain. Tobacco is a profitable crop, and the silk mulberry thrives so luxuriantly that silk is likely in time to become an important source of wealth to the small farmers, as well as to those who cultivate on a more extensive scale. Cattle do well in most parts of the country, but the distance from the necessary markets discourages the non-speculative squatter from entering on this branch of pastoral pursuits. Wool is, however, still the great bulk of Queensland exports. The best lands near the towns are devoted to farms, but the wide grassy plains, far away from any port or any outpost of civilisation, and therefore offering few attractions to the "free selector," are still monopolised by great flocks of sheep, herds of cattle, and "mobs" of horses. At the beginning of 1877 there were in the settled districts 186 runs, occupying 6,881,267 acres, paying an average annual rent to the Government of three farthings an acre. In the unsettled districts 4,604 runs took up 159,816,300 acres, at a payment of three-quarters of a farthing each. Over these runs, in the previous year, there were grazing 7,315,074 sheep, 2,079,979 cattle, 133,625 horses, and 53,455 pigs. The great want of the pastoral districts is water. In most parts the stock are supplied, as in the East, by water drawn from wells, and in others, where the rainfall is more certain, the surface moisture is collected in hollows and retained by costly artificial dams. From these dams irrigation is being introduced into localities valuable enough to warrant this excellent but expensive method of supplying the lack of regular rainfall, though when the country gets more settled the rivers of the arid east will be utilised to an extent which will make this one of the most fertile regions of Queensland. Meat preserving, soap-making, and currying establishments are all adding to the squatters' profits, so that of late "boiling down" as a means of disposing of surplus stock is not so much resorted to as at one time it was. In 1876—a year for which we have tolerably accurate returns—there were exported 22,918,560 lbs. of wool, valued at £1,499,576; the tallow, 1,940 tons, realised £67,311. In 1810—it may be mentioned as a curiosity in the history of Australian commerce—the first wool was exported from any part of the continent: it amounted to 167 lbs. Sixty-seven years later Australia sent to England 281,005,452 lbs. There is a considerable quantity of gold got in the colony, and new "rushes" are continually being heard tell of. A great deal of the precious metal is obtained by quartz crushing. One of these quartz districts—the famous locality of Gympie—raised in five

years £1,000,000 worth of gold, and still keeps its reputation for paying auriferous rock. In April, 1878, a crushing of 26 tons yielded 441 ounces, and a cask of 5,800 ounces came from 739 tons. Some of the rock has indeed been now and then found of so rich a quality that it has been difficult to crush, solely owing to the gold being more abundant in the quartz than the stone surrounding it. The alluvial deposits in which gold has been found have hitherto proved very shallow, and therefore easily worked, but as easily exhausted. Altogether, during 1876 the gold export is officially given at 374,776 ounces, valued at £1,427,929; but as a large quantity is carried off unacknowledged, especially by



THE VALLEY OF THE RIVER BRISBANE, QUEENSLAND.

the Chinese, any return of the amount raised must be merely guess-work, and in all likelihood under the mark. In addition to gold, Queensland, like most of the other colonies, puts in a claim to the possession of coal, rich copper, tin, iron, silver, cinuabar, bismuth, zinc-blende, and other ores, in addition to the deposits of precious stones which we have already noted. The copper lodes have been worked with great profit at the Peak Downs, from which mine £1,000,000 worth of metal, which paid £215,000 in dividends, were sent down in five years, though the high rate of wages and the cost entailed by the distance of the mine from a sea-port have hitherto sorely hampered the development of these deposits. In 1876, 9,334 tons of ore made 2,102 tons of copper, valued at £172,382. The stream tin deposits are not so rich, but lying among the

mountains, at an elevation of between 2,000 and 3,000 feet, the occupation of collecting it in the shallow, widely-spread diggings is more healthy than mining generally in Queensland. The iron mines are still unworked, and the same may be said to be the case with most of the other metals mentioned. An attempt has been made to open up the coal deposits, which extend over an area equal to at least half of that of England, and are of various qualities; but until railways reach the deposits, or convey it at a cheap rate to the coast, the Queensland coal is not likely to be used for other than local purposes. The timber trade is developing, while the pearl shell fisheries, and those of *bêche-de-mer*, tortoise-shell, and sponge, are assuming such proportions that before long they will afford occupation for a large number of people. In 1878 there were 386 miles of railway completed; in the previous year the public revenue was £1,436,582, the expenditure £1,382,806, the public debt £7,685,350, the imports £1,068,682, and the exports £1,361,275; the revenue for 1879 is estimated at £1,658,000. In 1878 there were in the colony over 200,000 people, of whom a little more than one-half were in towns, one-third in the country, and one-eighth on the gold-fields. Of these, 10,412 were Chinese and 5,108 Polynesians. The black aborigines—or “aboriginals,” as they are called—are few in number, comparatively speaking, and are rapidly dying out. In 1859, when the colony was established, there were in it only 21,870 civilised people, so that in twenty years the population has increased at a rate equal to that of the most thriving of the Australian colonies. Its large public debt, and consequent heavy taxation, act, however, as hindrances to the advancement of the colony, while the alienation of its crown lands will by-and-by cause a rapid decrease in the revenue, and such discontent as to lead, as the same course has already done in Victoria, to a point very little short of revolution.

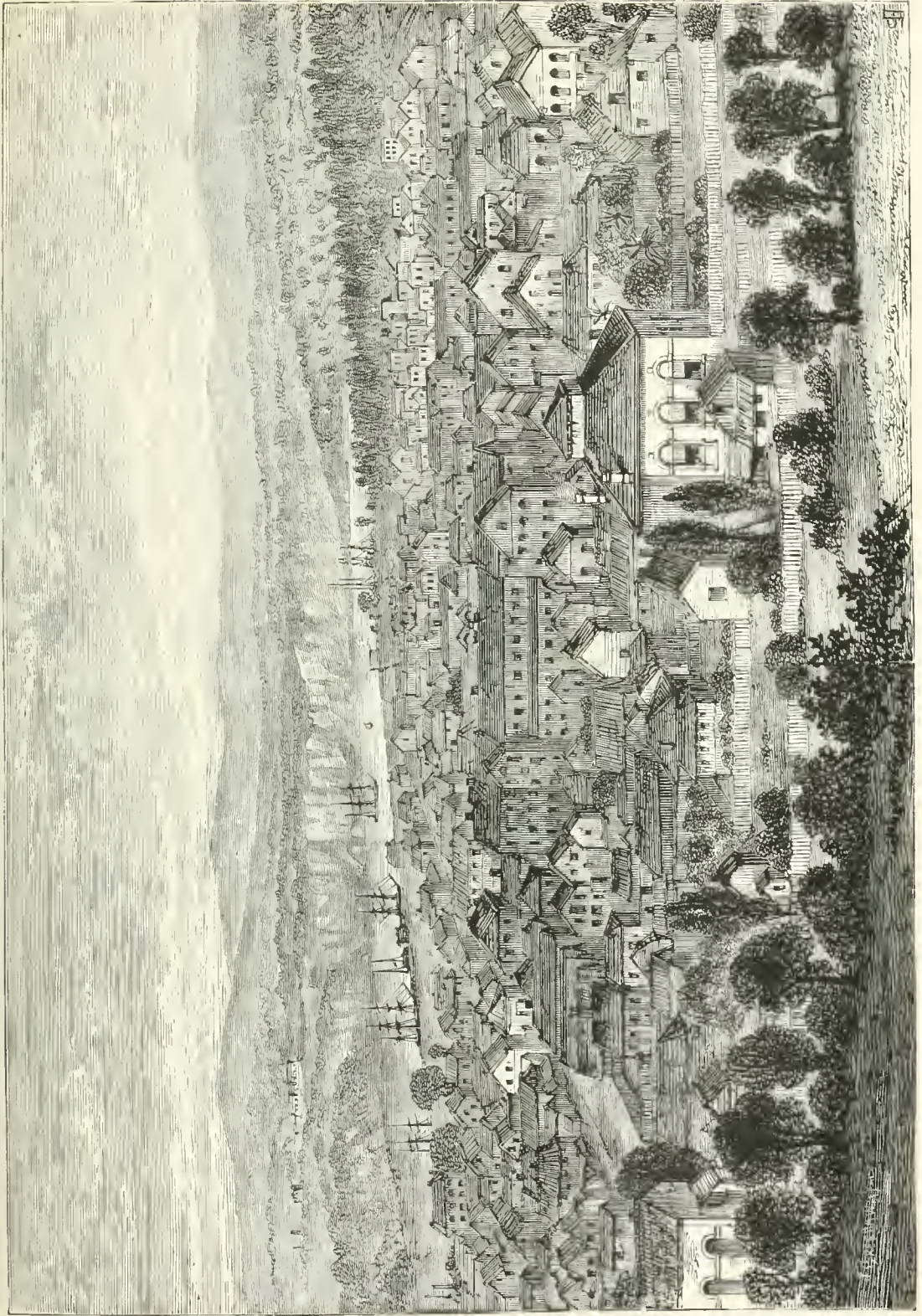
TOWNS.

The towns have in like manner sprung up rapidly, and grown with a speed of which the Queenslanders, who are by no means apt to conceal their merits, are deservedly proud. Brisbane, the capital (p. 221), occupies a fine hilly site on the banks of the river of the same name, with every accommodation for the governor and legislature, except, what is in the eyes of many of the colonists, the all-important qualification of not being in a central position. It is in the far south of the colony, on the border of New South Wales, and originated as a town when the thought of its being the capital of a political division of Australia was not entertained. It was at first a penal settlement; and though the river is here 1,000 feet wide, the harbour of Brisbane can no more be compared with that of Sydney than can the scenery in the vicinity equal that which gives such charms to Hobart Town. Yet none of the Australian capitals command anything like such a sweep of prospect as that which can be taken in at one glance from the highest point in the Queensland metropolis. In one direction is visible Mount Lindsay, nearly 100 miles' ride from Brisbane, and the rainy McPherson range, which rises in a wall nearly 6,000 feet high in some places; and in the opposite direction the Kileoy and other ranges, which shade the distant waters of the Mary and Burnett Rivers on their northern slope. To the west appear in hazy blue the Main range, seventy miles away, marking the site

of Darling Downs; while to the east the view is bounded by the cypress-pine hills and sandy cliffs of Moreton and Stradbroke Islands, thirty miles off, which shut out from sight the sea lying beyond. Like most Australian towns, Brisbane is built on a liberal scale, with botanic garden and "reserves," which, when the city extends, will become fine oases in the very heart of the wilderness of streets. The suburbs are dotted with such beautiful villas as it is difficult to find elsewhere than in sub-tropical Australia, surrounded by lovely gardens, and commanding picturesque views of mountain, sea, river, garden, farm, and forest, "in every shade of pleasing tint and sharp outline under the clear sky of Australia," writes the official historian whose data we are drawing on. In 1877 the population of the city was 30,883, so that at present it cannot be much less than 33,000, though these Antipodean towns increase by such leaps and rushes that it is difficult to calculate their increase by any of the rules which govern older communities. But the supremacy of Brisbane is disputed by at least two other towns. One of these is Rockhampton, about forty-five miles from the mouth of the Fitzroy River, on the northern coast of the colony. It is a well-built, fine-looking, but, it is needless to add, rather hot "city," of about 7,000 inhabitants, and being the market town and shipping port of the vast mineral and pastoral belt on the Dawson, Mackenzie, Isaac, Comet, and other rivers, as well as the Peak Downs County, it is likely to become a place of considerable importance when it is the starting-point for a system of railways into the interior. At present these exist merely in embryo, in the form of a line running out thirty miles into the country, and suddenly stopping at nowhere. This line was built by the Government merely to stop the clamour of the northern colonists when Parliament built the railway to Darling Downs and opened out a fine grazing country. But the Rockhampton and Westwood Railway opens out nothing, for the teamsters bringing wool to the port do not consider it worth their while unloading at the "three public-houses in the forest," called Westwood, for so short a distance. It is, however, not altogether a loss. It is understood that at present the traffic pays for the grease used on it, and there are sanguine hopes that one day the wood consumed in the engines will not be a burden on the colonial treasury. However, Rockhampton cordially hates Brisbane, and as it cannot presume to put in a claim to be the capital, it looks forward to that early day when Queensland will get divided into two colonies, and it will be the metropolis of the most northerly of them. If energy, exceeding strong language, and a heartfelt loathing for the Brisbanites and their ways will ever bring about separation, one cannot doubt that the occupants of the pleasant residences on the Athlestan range—150 feet over the town—will accomplish that not undesirable result. The colony is too large; and if the Australians cannot yet see their way to one strong central government there is no reason why they should not prosper by aid of the rivalry and pride which a sense even of semi-nationality always stimulates in a people. But Gladstone, a pretty woe-begone village of a few hundred inhabitants, built on a creek which opens out into Port Curtis, loudly demands, as the most central of the coast towns, to become the capital of the whole colony of Queensland as it exists at present. It is backed by mountains, and accordingly has fine scenery, but it has nothing to feed it, for its position is not such that many squatters care to ship their wool from its port. Hence its great harbour

has availed it but little, and Gladstone, at the period at which we write, is but a pretty village, 360 miles north of Brisbane, but whose straggling streets amid woods are not likely to emerge for some time from their present rural state. At one time even Ipswich disputed with Brisbane the right of being the colonial capital. It commenced life in a humble way by being a branch penal establishment of Sydney; then, being at the head of river navigation, and the spot where the steamers and bullock-drays met and exchanged their respective loads, Ipswich became a thriving place after the settlement of Darling Downs. It had at one time thirty hotels, and in addition to the entertainment of travellers, it grew fat on the boiling down of stock for the sake of their tallow. Its electoral roll was then about equal in number to that of Sydney, and at the time of the separation of Queensland from New South Wales it was not without good grounds for its ambition—that Ipswich demanded to be recognised as the capital of the new colony. But the advent of railways and the cessation of boiling down were the ruin of Ipswich. But as coal exists in the immediate vicinity, it lives on in hope of more than regaining its former grandeur and emerging from its present condition as a rather decayed town of less than 6,000 inhabitants. What prosperity flows from Darling Downs is caught in the first instance by Toowoomba, a thriving town of 6,000 inhabitants, which in 1854 had but one house. Another town on the Darling Downs Railway is Warwick, a very English-looking place, which derives its prosperity from its vineyards and farms, the fine pastoral region close at hand, and the tin mines fifty miles distant. Maryborough, at the mouth of the River Mary, is a village of about the same size; and Gympie, which we have already spoken of as the locality of rich gold mines, has at present about 4,500 people settled in it. Townsville in 1865 imported £570 worth of goods, and drew for Customs duties £112 15s. 4d. In one half year, ten years afterwards, the Custom House showed a total of £17,411 5s. 8d. Its population is, however, only about 3,000, and being situated within the tropics it is very hot. Its prosperity is due to the extensive gold-fields and the great area of pastoral country behind it. Bowen, eighty miles off, having a fine harbour, once dreamed of great things, but Townsville has killed it. Cardwell is a pretty little town of 500 people, but its beauty is as yet its only dowry. Cooktown is a mushroom town of 4,000 people, which has sprung up since the Palmer River diggings became famous; and Somerset—which the white ants have nearly eaten up—only claims distinction as the place of call for the *bêche-de-mer* and pearl-shell fishers of Torres Strait.* Undoubtedly Queensland has a great future, either as a single undivided colony or as several, albeit the heat is great in some parts. On this subject, however, it is perhaps as well not to enlarge, for heat is a sore point on which to touch the susceptibilities of the Australian. The thorough-paced colonist is by no means pleased to hear that the country of his adoption is warm, while to hint that his house is hot is likely to provoke as great a coolness between host

* "Catalogue of the Queensland Exhibits at the Paris Exposition, 1878;" "Catalogue of Exhibits at the Philadelphia Exhibition, 1876;" "Census of the Colony of Queensland, taken on the 1st of May, 1876;" "Queensland Statistics and Blue Book" for the current year; Kennedy: "Four Years in Queensland" (1870); "Some Australian Capitals," by "Red Spinner" (Mr. William Senior), in *The Gentleman's Magazine*, July, 1879. &c. For many of the official papers from which these notes are condensed I am indebted to the Honourable Arthur Macalister, C.M.G., Agent-General for the Colony.



VIEW OF BRISBANE, QUEENSLAND.

and guest as if his wife's complexion or his mother's temper had been animadverted on in a truthful but uncomplimentary manner.

SOME AUSTRALIAN INSTITUTIONS.

It is difficult in a few words to express any opinion about a people which would at once comprehensively and yet truthfully characterise them. Accordingly, I shall not attempt to do so. However, it may be allowable, even at the risk of giving offence, to say that the Australians are growing up into a peculiar race, just as the Americans are. The climate seems to be favourable to fecundity. Hence large families are common, while the dryness of the air is equally prejudicial to an accumulation of fat. Accordingly the lanky character of Australian youths of the second or third generations has been so markedly noticed, that a "Sydney corn-stalk" is a familiar designation for the native-born lad whose inches have excelled those of his sires, born under different stars, on the other side of the world. He has a slang of his own, generally strongly flavoured with Americanisms, but much of which is to the manner born. For instance, a dram is called a "nobbler;" and the idle, disreputable street Arab, who would in San Francisco be styled a "hoodlum," is in the Australian colonies known as a "larrikin." The word is even used unconsciously in official documents. Thus, in one of the reports of the Adelaide Botanic Gardens I find the director complaining more than once that "larrikins" are injuring his young plantations; and an only too close imitation of an English University Commemoration indulged in by the Melbourne academic youth is referred to by the newspapers as "disgraceful larrikinism." The typical Australian is in many respects much like the American, though, again, in many other respects he differs widely from him. He has the same self-reliance, and the same loud self-assertion, which, correctly or incorrectly, we are in the habit of associating with our Transatlantic cousins, but it is a self-assertion and a self-reliance smacking of the land whence he came. No man is more hospitable than the well-to-do Australian. A visitor arriving well introduced will be passed on from villa to villa, from country-house to country-house, and from run to run, sharing everywhere the most profuse kindness, until in a few weeks he will hardly know who first started him on the progress he is making. There is little snobbery in the country, but, as most of the people are "self-made," the parvenu is, of course, not an unknown personage, though the circumstances of the country and of the people prevent him—or her—becoming quite so objectionable as he or she would be in an older condition of society. The squatters or graziers are the aristocrats of the country, though some of the successful of them have been butchers and drovers, possibly even of humbler or less reputable antecedents. They are imbued with extremely territorial instincts, and will refer to the small farmer, who "selects" under the colonial land-laws a bit of the run he leases from the Government, or the irreverential gold-digger, as an English squire would speak of a poacher, or a many-acred peer of the "city man" who builds a "snug box" overlooking his park wall. Yet while the English squire is likely to talk of everything rather than of his rent-roll or the balance he has at his banker's, the squatter will hardly fail to tell his visitor of what he got last summer for his wool, or what he expects to get this winter for the fat oxen which are grazing in the pretty, but roughly-kept, paddock you can see from the veranda!

surrounding the country-house which he built when he got beyond the "hut" stage of bush-struggling existence. The ladies are well educated, but though charming company for a visitor, they are, as a rule, somewhat "loud," and inclined to exact the utmost deference from all the male world around them, and to repay it by as little veneration as possible. Nobody awes them. As are the mistresses, so are the maids, who have much of the pertness of such young persons, as exhibited in plays and on the stage generally.

The squatters' houses are furnished comfortably; often, if the run be near a town, even luxuriantly. There is generally a piano in the place, if there be any ladies, and books; but literary leisure is rare. There is, according to the general consensus of description, much loitering, half asleep, in the verandah or in the shade, but no regular hours at which the ladies and gentlemen of the family come together for social intercourse. The squatter's table is furnished profusely, but the meals are monotonous. The breakfast is as substantial as the dinner, and the lunch is only a second breakfast, while it is rare to find a meal set out without a tea-pot, tea forming the almost invariable working beverage of the masters and men on Australian runs, and of the gold-diggers as well. There is a carriage of some kind, as a matter of course, and horses are so cheap in Australia that they are found in profusion everywhere for riding and driving. The master of the house is a busy man from morning to night, and usually all the year round. He has his "run" to attend to, and his cares, no matter how good a manager he may have, or how docile the "hands"—stockmen, shearers, shepherds, or boundary-riders. "He is on horseback before breakfast, and seems never to slacken his labours till the evening dews have long fallen. The exclusive care of a large flock of sheep, which includes breeding, feeding, doctoring, shearing, selling, and buying, together with the hiring, feeding, inspection, and payment of a great number of by no means subservient workmen, taxes a man's energies to the utmost. Cattle probably impose less labour, but a man may have his hands fairly full who owns three or four thousand head of cattle, who breeds them by his own judgment, and himself selects them for market. But very many squatters and graziers really manage their properties by deputy. Serviceable men have grown up in their employment, and as years creep on the real work of the run is allowed to fall from their hands into those of superintendents and overseers. Then the country gentleman, though he still talks of a 'score of ewes,' as did Justice Shallow, becomes an idle man. He comes down to breakfast at nine, and is impatient for his dinner before six, thinking that the clock must be losing time." Though in many respects New South Wales is more John Bullish and old-countrified than the more energetic, pushing, democratic Victoria, wheat-growing South Australia, forlorn Western Australia, or tropical Queensland, yet among the squatters in all of these colonies there is growing up a compact, conservative, and, in its own way, very aristocratic "country party." Now the chief object of aversion among these squatters are the "free selectors." As the reader will have already understood, the "runs," as a rule, are not the property of the graziers, or "squatters," as they are universally called. They are the property of the Crown, and are let out on various terms, according to the particular land-laws of the colony, to the holders, as lessees of the Government, on the understanding that they are only to be great pastures until the small men or agriculturists proper choose to select a bit of them, and buy it from the Crown, or, in other

words, from the people of the colony. In time, however, the squatters have begun to consider these leased tracts as their own estates, and as in the remote districts they are left in undisturbed possession, practically they are so. In the more settled districts, however, there has been an outcry for arable land, and this desire the various colonial legislatures have tried to meet by passing land-laws, which, however they may vary in details, are considered, and not erroneously, by the squatter as aimed at and likely to be ruinous to his monopoly. Taking the general spirit of these laws, we may say that they decree that any one desirous of taking up and paying for a certain amount of tillable land may go on to any leased run and select a certain portion without any regard to the convenience or prejudices of the lordly squatter. Such laws, though they are in principle essential to the development of a country, are doubtless offensive in the extreme to the



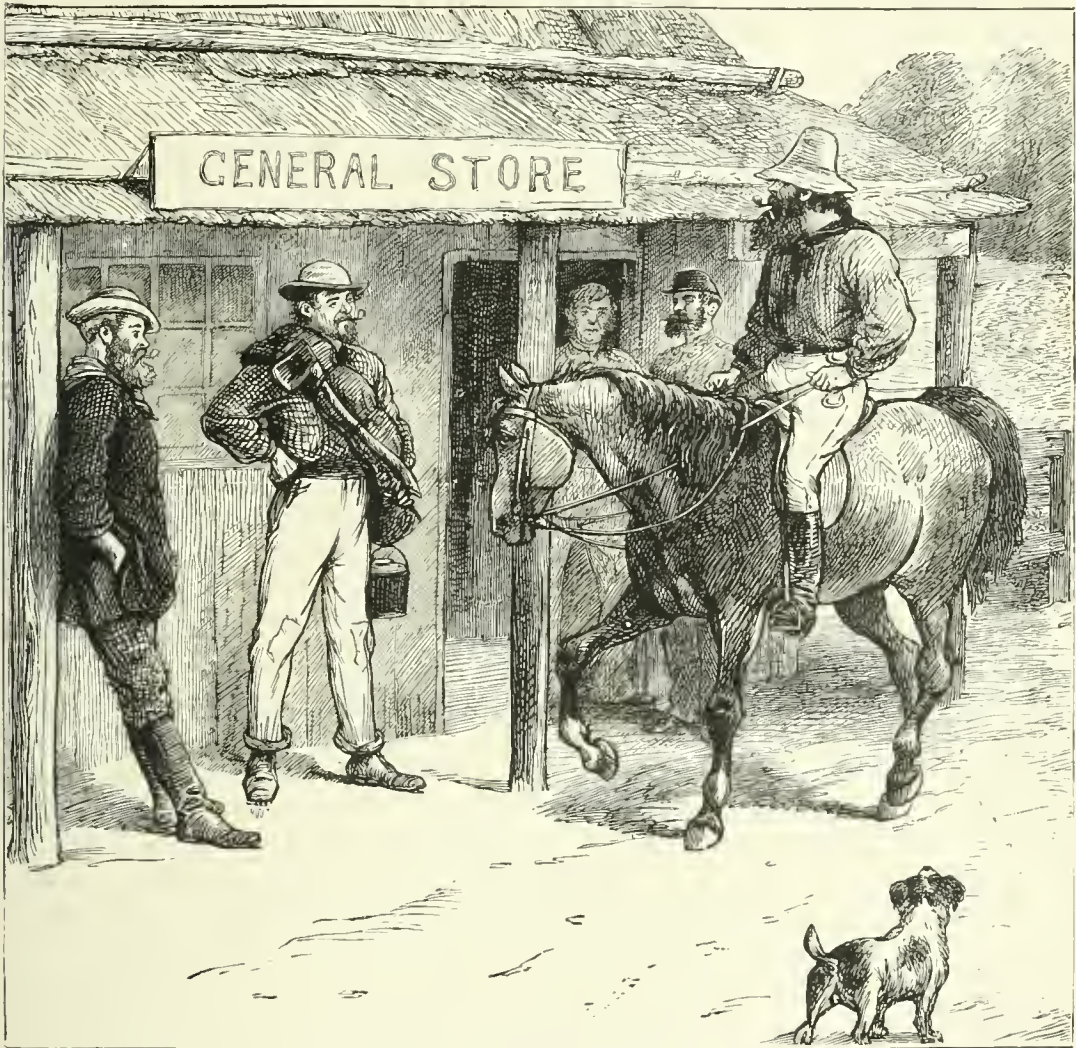
VIEW IN THE BOTANIC GARDENS, ADELAIDE.

“landed interest,” and the provisions, passed at the call of a dominant democracy, might, one would think, be carried out in a manner less calculated to rouse intense ill-will between the two classes of agriculturists in the colonies. These “free selections” are but specks on a run of 20,000 or 30,000 acres: the Victorian land-laws, for instance, specially stipulating that no person shall select and purchase more than 320 acres, the object being to prevent the accumulation of great landed estates. But the squatter accuses the “free selector” of being the incarnation of everything that is bad—a lover of mutton without being a purchaser—an eater of beef-steaks without buying the ox which provides them—a dealer in wool which was grown on his neighbour’s run—and generally with being a thief and a rogue, as undoubtedly he is an eyesore to his wealthier neighbour. The object of the squatter is, therefore, to purchase his run, or as much of it as he can, in order to keep “free selectors” at a distance. This he finds it difficult to do, for the price at which the land is offered is the price of good arable land, while only patches here and there upon the run come under that designation, and the greater part of it is



VIEW IN THE FOREST OF SAOBABA, NEW GUINEA.

generally worthless for anything but grazing purposes. Added to his difficulties, the squatter is frequently—perhaps it would not be exaggeration to say generally—in debt to the “merchants” in the colony who act as his agents. To pay, therefore, their exorbitant rate of interest for the money borrowed to purchase the run requires a succession of very good



A BUSH STORE IN QUEENSLAND.

years, and is at best but a ruinously poor investment of money. However, in Victoria many squatters have managed to do so. In that colony the average size of the squatters' 801 runs is, according to Mr. Hayter, 26,036 acres, the area of Crown lands embraced in them amounting to 20,854,615. Of the 56,446,720 acres of land in the colony 11,151,120 are alienated in fee simple, and 7,055,045 are in process of being alienated under deferred payments.

In 1877 there were still 12,002,587 acres available for selection. Now, for one

man to purchase under his own name 20,000, or any number of acres more than 320, is—taking Victoria, where land is scarcer than elsewhere in Australia, and therefore more valued, as an example—according to such land-laws, impossible. But this difficulty is got over by the system of “dummying.” The real holder of the “run” purchases his legal 320 acres, and he gets trusty friends to buy for him, in their own names, the other requisite 320 acre sections, until the run is protected from the incursions of the hated “free selectors.” This is, no doubt, a legal evasion of the law by men loud in their protests against the communistic character of Victorian legislation. But the day of “dummies” is almost over, for the State is finding them out, and at present there is a stand-up battle between the great landowners and the little ones—or rather, between the men who have no land and those who have really more than they require. It is not difficult to see how it will end.

The “swagmen” (p. 225) are another but minor trouble of the Australian squatter. We have alluded to his profuse, unquestioning hospitality to distinguished, or just as often to perfectly undistinguished, visitors who come with any kind of introduction at all. But the squatter is taxed by another class of guests, who do not take the trouble of bringing anything in the shape of credentials. These are the travelling-men—either moving about from place to place seeking work, on business, more or less real, or, as is getting to be too frequently the case, simply as “tramps,” whose only business is to eat at other men’s expense, and who never do a hard day’s work from one year’s end to the other. These “swagmen” come to the squatter’s house at nightfall. If the visitor is of the more respectable type he is received in the settler’s own house or sent to the overseer’s. If he is of the ordinary “swagman” type he goes, as a matter of course, to “the hut” or building where the “run hands” live. There he is at home. He is—gruffly enough, it must be allowed—served out flour for his “damper,” or unleavened cake, meat, and perhaps—but not always—tea. He has his own “billy,” or tin pot, with him, and the swag, or blanket bundle, on his back contains his worldly effects. The entertainment of these tramps is a heavy tax on squatters whose runs lie in the line of travel, but he has no alternative but to feed them, however much he may grumble. A squatter will frequently spend £300 a year in this involuntary entertainment; and there are tales of unhappy graziers who have had to disburse £1,000 per annum in the shape of damper and mutton, with the addition of brandy and water or tea, at the hut, the overseer’s house, or at his own residence, to the unbidden guests whom colonial usage quartered on them. It may be suggested that the squatter could refuse the unmistakable tramp, or could make him do some work before partaking of his uncordial hospitality. Doubtless he could, but public opinion would be decidedly against him, for the squatters are in the minority, and the army of swagmen a mighty one. He would speedily be known, and get the name of being stingy. This he might bear with profitable equanimity, but he would also find his fences burned, his pastures fired during the season of drought, his cattle slaughtered, his sheep stolen, and his horses houghed. All this he is aware would be his lot. So the squatter submits to the swagmen’s black-mail, preferring the lesser to the greater evil.*

* For the details of squatting life see “The Australian Grazier’s Guide” (Silver, 1879), McPhail’s “Squatter’s Directory,” and various other works already quoted.

Of the young Australians of the sterner sex I have not as yet said much, except that they are founding a new race. But it is questionable if that race is likely to be an improvement on the one which has gone before it. As yet, the leading men in "the colonies" are mostly of "old country" birth and early training, and for a generation to come they will so leaven the mass that the real character of the new breed will not be easily seen. The "old country people" who elect to make their homes in a colony are not—as they sometimes flatter themselves they are—the pick of the land they left. They have energy, otherwise they would not cross the sea; if they succeed they have usually something more than energy. But the scapegraces, the ne'er-do-wells, and the failures generally, also seek homes there, and if there are no long-suffering relatives or friends to bring them away, they have to remain. It is, in a word, not with the backbone of England that the colonial-born youth has to contend. Yet Mr. Trollope tells us that even colonists, not apt to allow that their eygnets are goslings, acknowledge that in the feeble struggle the young colonial hardly holds his own with the youth of the mother country. He is not apt to run into vices—to gamble, drink, or go to the dogs after any of the 'old-fashioned methods. "But he is often listless, unenergetic, vain, and boastful." Above all, he is boastful. However, he is quick enough at learning, and when he leaves school his apologist pleads for him that he is "very often superior in general information to a boy from Harrow or Winchester," which is but an indifferent compliment. He is a man sooner than the youth of the Old World, and this early maturity may have something to do with the fact of his manhood hardly keeping the promise of his earlier years, just as the Old World fruits which have been naturalised in this climate are earlier ripe, but not so richly flavoured as those which attain the fulness more slowly in the less kindly sunshine of the northern hemisphere. Colonial literature is getting to be profuse, and some of it is far from despicable, while some of the colonial litterateurs have been more than able to hold their own when transferred to the lettered soil of England. The Australian newspapers are excellent; and if the Australian legislators are at present only expanded vestrymen, it must be remembered that the material from which the antipodean M.P.'s can be selected is limited, and that the whole population of some of these colonies, having all the machinery of government and two houses of legislature, is far under the number of second or third-rate English towns, and much fewer than some of the London parishes administered by the despised local rulers referred to.

The future of Australia cannot, I think, be over-estimated. It may be that some day the Australians will think it not good statescraft to cut each other's throats politically; and I cannot doubt that when the day for separation from England comes—as come it will—the colonies will consider that union is strength. When they desire to swim by themselves, the slender thread which at present binds them to the mother country will be unloosened by friendly, if regretful, hands. At present they are very loyal, just as "His Majesty's plantations in North America" were very loyal, but we do not know how soon this feeling may, in the minds of a people so independent and self-sufficient as the Australians, change into an opposite one.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE MALAY ISLANDS: THEIR GENERAL GEOGRAPHY.

LOOKING at the map we observe north and west of Australia an extensive group of islands, large and small—an archipelago—lying off the northern end of the continent we have just left, along the shores of Asia, and between these points. From the prevalent race inhabiting them (p. 229) they are known as the Malay Islands—or sometimes the East Indies. At first sight they strike the student as the remnants of a continent shattered in a thousand pieces, and the chances seem to show that in their character they will approximate either to the Malay peninsula—off which they lie on one side—or to Australia—which some of them so nearly approach on the other. This we shall find to be the case. But at the same time, on further examination, the first impression will require to be so far modified, that we shall conclude our examination of them by making it apparent that the islands lying nearest Australia were either united to that continental island, or separated from it at a period when those nearest Asia proper were still part of the Malay peninsula; or, in all probability, were not elevated above the surface of the sea. In other words, the zoo-geography of the Malay Islands teaches us that they were never parts of a single continental land mass.

THE ISLANDS IN THEIR PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

Before, however, showing on what grounds naturalists have come to this conclusion, it may be well to sketch, in outline, the general characteristics of this great and important Archipelago. In extent it lies for more than 4,000 miles from east to west, and is nearly 1,400 miles in breadth from north to south. Some of the islands in it are so large that for weeks at a time the voyager may sail along their coasts and yet see no termination to the primeval forest on the lee, and, were he to depend on his own knowledge, might coincide in the belief of the inhabitants that they are vast continents. The Archipelago, though containing no more *terra firma* that is comprised in Western Europe from Hungary to Spain, stretches over an expanse equal to that of Europe “from the extreme west far into Central Asia, or would cover the widest part of South America, and extend far beyond the land into the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. It includes three islands larger than Great Britain; and in one of them—Borneo—the whole of the British Isles might be set down, and would be surrounded by a sea of forests. New Guinea, though less compact in shape, is probably* larger than Borneo; Java, Luzon, and Celebes are each about the size of Ireland. Eighteen more islands are, on the average, as large as Jamaica; more than a hundred are as large as the Isle of Wight; while the isles and islets of smaller size are innumerable.”† Australia, we have seen, is a land of heat and little moisture; while the Asiatic shore, on the other side of the Archipelago, is subject

* It is now known to be larger (see p. 238).

† Wallace: “The Malay Archipelago” (6th Ed.), p. 3.

to tropical rains. The Malay Islands, thus lying on the equator between these two regions, partake, as to their climate, in the characteristics of both. They are not blessed with the glorious atmosphere of the Polynesian lands, which we formerly visited, nor even with the dry, healthy air of the plains of Australia. On the contrary, their atmo-



MALAY CHILDREN.

sphere is as hot and humid as that of the Amazons, or of the West Coast of Africa, though in few places as pestilential as in that "White Man's Grave." With but few exceptions, the islands are, topographically at least, one geographical whole; that is to say, they are mostly covered with a sombre vegetation, luxuriant forests clothing them from the shore to the summits of the highest mountains, and the climate of all of

them is uniform and very similar. Timor is, perhaps, the only exception to this rule. This large island, and the smaller ones around it, are influenced by the dry south-east monsoon, which blows across the northern parts of Australia from March to November. The Malay Islands are not only remarkable for the luxuriance and variety of their vegetation, the gorgeousness of their birds, and the size and number of the gay-coloured insects which flit among their glades, but also in so far that the Archipelago is one of the most noted region of active volcanoes on the globe. The great volcanic band of Western America again makes its appearance here, after running along the coast from Chili to Alaska, thence to the Kurile, Japan, Loochoo, and Philippine Islands. In the Malay group this volcanic band appears on the north-eastern tip of Celebes, whence, suddenly shifting 200 miles eastward, it flares up in the Banda volcanoes, and, going westward, traverses the islands until it seems to die out on Barren Island, in the Bay of Bengal. On few only of the smaller islands in the line of the volcanic belt are there no active volcanoes; but it may be said in general terms that extinct craters are found everywhere, and that earthquakes and volcanic movements are frequent and disastrous in their consequences. In 1772 forty villages were destroyed in Java by the eruption of Papandayang, when the whole mountain was blown in pieces and a large lake left in its place. In 1815 the eruption of Tomboro, in Sumbawa, resulted in the loss of 12,000 lives. "The ashes darkened the air, and fell thickly upon the earth and sea for 300 miles around." Some of these volcanoes have recently burst out afresh after long periods of quiescence. For instance, the Island of Makian, in the Moluccas, was rent open in 1616. In the process of time this rent had become clothed with vegetation, and contained twelve populous villages, when in 1862, after 215 years of perfect quiescence, it again burst forth in eruption, destroying the greater part of the inhabitants and darkening the air forty miles distant with the clouds of ashes vented (Wallace). Celebes, New Guinea, Borneo, and on the mainland the Malay Peninsula, form striking exceptions, for in none of these great islands and districts—with the exception of the extreme north-eastern point of the first—have active volcanoes been discovered. Neither are there evidences of their existence in former times, and earthquakes are equally unknown.

Here, however, the similarity of the islands ends, for a keener analysis of their animal life shows that, though seemingly alike, they belong to two very different groups, judged by the character of their inhabitants. It is true that the vegetation is on all of them very much alike, especially in the lower forms, though—as I have pointed out elsewhere*—the pine tree order obeys the same laws as we shall see the animals do. With the exception of a few tracts, due to ancient cultivation or accidental fires, Sumatra, New Guinea, Borneo, the Moluccas, and the uncultivated parts of Java and Celebes, are all clothed with forests. Timor, which we have already seen is different in its climate from the rest of the country, also differs in this respect; it and the smaller neighbouring islands contain no such forests as exist on the other islands, and in a lesser degree this character extends to Flores, Sumbawa, Lombok, and Bali. The eucalypti, so characteristic of Australia (p. 162), are the common trees in Timor; but sandal-woods, acacias, and

* Robert Brown: "Die Geographische Verbreitung der Coniferen und Gnetaceen" Petermann's *Geographische Mittheilungen*, Heft I., 1872, with map).

other trees are found in great abundance, though never in such clumps as to deserve the name of forests—only scattered over the country in single individuals or in small patches. In the moister localities there is a considerable undergrowth beneath them; but on the more barren hills the only vegetation which clothes the interstices between the eucalypti and the sandal-woods is a coarse and scanty grass. In the islands between Timor and Java Mr. Wallace notes that there is often a more thickly wooded country, abounding in thorny and prickly trees, which, however, seldom reach any height, and during the dry season almost completely lose their leaves, allowing the ground beneath them to be parched up, and contrasting strangely with the damp, gloomy, ever-verdant forests of the other islands. This, we have seen, may be due to the influence of the hot dry monsoon blowing for two-thirds of the year—from March to November—over this island from the northern part of Australia, for the districts under the influence of the south-east winds blowing from the Pacific, and over the damp forests of New Guinea, are covered with verdure from their shores to their summits. “Farther west, again, as the same dry winds blow over a wider and wider extent of ocean, they have time to absorb fresh moisture; and we accordingly find the island of Java possessing a less and less arid climate, till in the extreme west, near Batavia, rain occurs, more or less, all the year round, and the mountains are everywhere clothed with forests of unexampled luxuriance.”

THE ISLANDS—ZOOLOGICALLY.

So much for their physical aspects—according to the observations of the best English observer who has as yet studied these islands. But Mr. Wallace—for Mr. Earl’s observations were too crude and imperfect to have any share in this interesting discovery—by a careful examination of the animal life of the islands has enabled us to come to some positive conclusions regarding their original history. The group of islands nearest Asia he finds separated from each other by a shallow sea, showing that they have been broken up in comparatively recent times. Volcanoes, it has been remarked, are almost invariably found not far from the sea, and this fact may be due indirectly to the immense mass of matter which they vomit. Pouring out continually, for a week at a time, millions of tons of lava, ashes, and cinders, the ground in the vicinity must necessarily be undermined, and therefore more easily fall a prey to the ravages of the sea than solid land. Accordingly, the tendency of the waves, which are always attacking a coast line no matter how hard—and the outline of a maritime country is greatly owing to the hardness and softness of the rocks exposed to the sea—is to eat into the land towards the base of such volcanoes. This disintegrated matter, as well as that tossed out into the sea by volcanoes, must keep the straits between the islands, even after their separation, shallow; and even were this not the case, we know that a deep sea between two land masses is always a sign of the two having been long separated. Again, the group near Australia are also lying in a shallow sea, while the intervening space is occupied by a deep trough, which seems to have been of long continuance. Accordingly, we can divide the Malay Islands into two great groups. The first is the Austro-Malayan group, comprising New Guinea, Ceram, Gilolo, Timor, Flores, Sumbawa, the Sula Islands, the great island of Celebes, and the numerous

smaller ones in the vicinity. The second group, or Indo-Malayan, includes Bali, Java, Sumatra, Borneo; and, for convenience sake, the islands in the vicinity of the Malay Peninsula and the intervening small ones may be also included under this head. We have called the Eastern, or Austro-Malayan group, islands in a shallow sea. This sea is, however, more than twice the depth of that surrounding the Indo-Malayan group, for in most parts of the latter ships can anchor. The probabilities are, therefore, that the islands lying nearest Australia are the oldest in the Malay Archipelago. The peculiarity about these two groups is that the first is to all intents and purposes a part of Australia. The animals resemble those of Australia more than those of any other part of the world. Australia, we have seen, possesses no apes nor monkeys, no cats, tigers, wolves, bears, or hyenas, no deer or antelopes, sheep or oxen, except what have been introduced. The elephant, the horse, the squirrel, and the rabbit were equally strangers to it when the European first arrived. Its native mammals are marsupials and monotremes—kangaroos and opossums, wombats and the duck-billed water-mole. Its birds are about equally peculiar to itself. The woodpecker and the pheasant families are unknown throughout its great extent, though they exist in every other part of the world. But, on the other hand, it has the mound-making brush turkeys the lyre birds (p. 20), the honeysuckers, the cockatoos, and the brush-tongued lorries, which are found nowhere else in the globe. The Austro-Malayan Islands share in these striking peculiarities of animal life. The forms of life in New Guinea or Celebes, for example, may not be identical with those in Queensland, but they belong to the same groups, and are more closely allied to them than to those of any other part of the world. They thus form, with Australia, one zoological province. They have none of the quadrupeds, and few of the birds of the other, or Indo-Malayan, group. This again on the other hand in its animal life is essentially a part of the neighbouring continent. Hence, elephants, tigers, tapirs, wild cattle, monkeys, as well as pythons, and other Asiatic reptiles—all found in one or other of the islands—are animals of southern Asia, and could not have possibly passed from island to island, or from the mainland to the nearest off-lying islands: the irresistible conclusion therefore is that they were scattered over the now broken up territory when it constituted one land mass, either connected with the continent or separated from it by channels not so wide as those which exist at the present day. The great contrast between the two divisions of the Archipelago, Mr. Wallace notices, is nowhere so abruptly seen as on passing from the island of Bali to that of Lombok where the two regions are in closest proximity. In Bali we have the Asiatic birds—barbets, fruit-thrushes, and woodpeckers. In Lombok, on the other side of a strait, only fifteen miles broad, there are cockatoos, honeysuckers, and brush turkeys. We thus pass in two hours from one region of the earth to another differing as widely in their animal life as does Europe and America. The contrast between the more widely separated islands of the two groups is still more remarkable. In Java and Borneo, for instance, the forests are alive with many kinds of monkeys, wild cat, deer, civets, otters, and squirrels. In Celebes and the Moluccas, we find none of them—scarcely a land quadruped, indeed—except the prehensile-tailed *Cuscus*, or Eastern opossum—a species of deer and a wild pig, which are met with, being of recent introduction. Of the 350 species of land birds described from Java and Borneo, ten only are found in Celebes, while 100 of them are common

to Java and Borneo, though the Strait of Macassar, which divides Borneo from Celebes, is much narrower than the Java Sea which lies between Java and Borneo. So wide is the



THE IRON-WOOD TREE (*Eusideroxylon Zuageri*) OF NEW GUINEA.

difference between the two groups of Malay Islands that a traveller may go to sleep in Australia and wake up in Asia, or, in sailing from Lombok to Bali, may pass from one quarter of the world to another without losing sight of either, and yet, until he examines the animals in the woods, be unconscious that in such a short time so remarkable a transition

has been made. In one group we have woodpeckers, trogons, fruit-thrushes, leaf-thrushes, and barbets meeting the eye. In the other we see not one of these, their place being taken by honey suckers and lorises. Another peculiarity about these Malay Islands is that, contrary to what might have been expected, physical surroundings seem to have had little or no effect on the animal life. The climate of the two groups of islands may be exactly the same, and yet their animals are different. Throughout many of them run a line of volcanoes: yet those which are undisturbed by the volcano and the earthquake are frequently less akin in their inhabitants than others lying close by, and visited by lava eruptions and continual disturbances of the land. Borneo is, to all appearances, the very counterpart of New Guinea, but its animal life is totally different. The Moluccas resemble the Philippines in all save their animals, and though the east end of Java and Bali have tracts nearly as dry and a soil quite as arid as Timor, they are the zoological antipodes of the other. Yet, though to all appearance the dry open plains and stony deserts of Australia, lying under a temperate climate, are as the poles asunder from the damp luxuriant forests of New Guinea, a census of their winged and four-footed inhabitants shows that they are near geographical relations which have not long ago severed partnership.* There is also evidence that though the islands have been separated from the continent at—geologically speaking—not a very distant period, yet that all the islands were not separated at the same date. Java, for instance, has more species peculiar to itself than Borneo and Sumatra, and Borneo more than Sumatra, which in its fauna, or assemblage of animal inhabitants, more resembles the mainland than any of the other islands. Accordingly, Java is believed to have been cut off from the continent at an earlier date than Borneo, and that Sumatra was the last separated. Curiously enough, Java contains several animals—a rhinoceros, for example—which exist also in Burmah and Bengal, but are not found in Sumatra or Borneo. Even among the islands themselves a shallow sea always indicates a recent land connection. Thus we find the Aru islands, Mysol and Waigon, as well as Jobie, agree with New Guinea in their mammalia and birds much more closely than they do with the Moluccas, from which they are separated by a much deeper sea. "In fact the 100-fathom line round New Guinea marks out accurately the range of the true paradise birds." It has also been discovered that a strait of the sea, which a bird could easily fly over, forms, except to a few migratory species, as effectual a barrier as to quadrupeds which can neither fly nor swim long distances. Savage man cannot, however, be expected to conform exactly to the distribution of the lower life by which he is surrounded. He can take longer voyages in even the rudest of canoes; and he is often unwillingly compelled to change his home by being driven to great distances by the wind, or wafted by currents after he has passed out of sight of land, or lost the means of going in the direction he wishes to take. Yet it is found that the two races which inhabit the Malay Islands fall also under the division which we have been describing. The Malays inhabit the Asiatic Islands: the Papuans the Australian ones. Only on drawing the line which separates the two races it runs somewhat eastward of that which separates the zoological regions; so

* See also Wallace: "Geographical Distribution of Animals" (1876), and "The Comparative Antiquity of Continents indicated by the Distribution of Living and Extinct Animals" (*Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1877, p. 505), for a more complete examination of this interesting subject.

the probabilities are that the same causes have influenced the distribution of mankind which have determined the range of the other animal forms. The Malays are, however, much the most intelligent of the two races, and have thus, through their maritime enterprise, overrun much of the neighbouring region, and have also formed permanent colonies in many of the Pacific Islands. Between the Papuans and the Malays there are various intermediate races, but these questions of race-distribution do not concern us.*

THE ISLANDS—POLITICALLY.

Politically these islands are of some importance. Many of them, like New Guinea, are as yet given over to savagery; but others of the Malay group proper are under native rulers more or less civilised and independent. The English have obtained a recognised footing at Singapore, Penang, and on the mainland of the Malay Peninsula at Malacca and Wellesley Provinces. We have also a small colony at Labuan, an island off the coast of Borneo; and the Rajahate of Sarawak, also in Borneo, though an independent kingdom, may be said to be an English protectorate. The Rajah being an Englishman, the state is naturally administered according to English ideas and views. The northern portion of Borneo has also been established into a Maharajate, under English auspices, though not formally recognised as a protectorate. In New Guinea are several English missionaries, and if the larger portion of this great island does not belong to us either by possession or discovery, its close proximity to Australia has caused it for long—spite of the Dutch settlement—to be recognised as a British possession either *in esse* or *in posse*. Excluding the Philippines, colonies of theirs for three centuries, the Spaniards are getting a footing on the Sooloo Islands, and may before long annex them; and the Portuguese have a languishing settlement on Timor, the last place which they have kept in Malaysia—once their stronghold. The Dutch are, however, the virtual masters of the East Indian archipelago. Here they have long had settlements, and by dint of good management, and not too much philanthropy, have constituted their colonies a mine of wealth to the mother country, instead of a burden on it. At present they are sole masters of Java and Madura, the West Coast of Sumatra, Benkulen, Lampongs, Palembang, Rianw, Banca, Billiton, the West Coast of Borneo, and the south and eastern districts of the same island, Celebes, Menado, the Moluccas, part of Timor, Sumba, Bali, and Lombok; and apparently unchallenged they have long established themselves and maintained a nominal sway on the west coast of New Guinea—in all upwards of 29,000 square miles, containing a population estimated at nearly 25,000,000. All these people are free, though under Government tutelage, and the despotic rule of their chiefs, where the direct rule of the Netherlands' officials has not reached them, actual slavery having been abolished in Java in 1860, and throughout the Netherlands' colonies in 1863.

Geographically, the Malay Archipelago may be taken as including the Malay Peninsula

* Rosenberg: "Der Malayische Archipel" (1879), and the various contributions to Malayan and Papuan ethnology by Wallace, Miklucho-Maklay, Beccari, D'Albertis, Meyer, Stone, Comrie, Moresby, Keane, and in earlier times by Crawford, Earl, and the numerous savants engaged on the great Dutch works on these islands.

as far as Tanassereim and the Nikobar Islands on the west, the Philippines on the north, and the Solomon Islands—beyond new Guinea—on the east. It will, however, be more convenient if we consider them as not quite so extensive. Accordingly, we shall leave the Philippines and the Nikobars to be noticed by-and-by, while the Solomons have already (p. 50) been touched at. The remaining ones we may, with Mr. Wallace, conveniently arrange in the following sub-divisions:—In the Austro-Malaysian region we find the *Papuan* group, comprising New Guinea, with the Aru Islands, Mysol, Salwatty, Waigou, and others; the *Moluccas*, or Spice Island, comprising Bouru, Ceram, Batchian, Gilolo, and Morty, in addition to the smaller islands of Ternate, Tidore, Makian, the Kaióá Isles, Amboyna, Banda, Goram, Matabello, and the Ké Islands; *Celebes*, including the Xulla Islands and Bouton, and the *Timor* group, comprising Timor, Flores, Sumbawa, and Lombok. The *Indo-Malay* ones include, in addition to the Malay Peninsula and Singapore, Borneo, Java, and Sumatra. In another work, to which this must be considered as a supplement and a companion,* much space has been devoted to the races of this region. In accordance, therefore, with the plan of this treatise, only a brief sketch of these groups will be given, it being altogether impossible, even were it advisable, to give a separate paragraph to each of the several hundreds of islets and islands, small and great, which darken the map of the Malay Archipelago. Nor under ordinary circumstances need the reader regret that the necessity of hurrying to regions yet unvisited compels us to stay but a short time among these charming island-continents, for few parts of the world have been so well described by English-writing travellers as the Malay and Papuan groups. Dutch, Russian, German, Italian, American, and English geographers and naturalists† have studied and written regarding them in works easily accessible, and in none are they described more ably or attractively than in the charming treatise of our countryman, Alfred Russel Wallace, whose notes I have so frequently drawn upon, and to whom I must here, once for all, acknowledge my indebtedness.

CHAPTER XV.

THE MALAY ISLANDS: AUSTRO-MALAYSIA.

THOUGH discovered in 1511—earlier even than Australia—it is only within recent years that Papua or New Guinea has attracted much attention, and then mainly owing to the visits which it has received from explorers from the neighbouring shores, and the

* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II. pp. 84-151.

† Bickmore: "Travels in the East-Indian Archipelago" (1868); Müller: "Beschreibung der Insel-Java" (1860); Wullings: "Nederlandsch Indië" (1870); Goeverneur: "Nederlandsch Indië" (1870); Bleeker: "Nieuwe bijdragen tot de kennis der bevolkingstatistiek van Java" (1870); Money: "Java, or How to Manage a Colony" (1861); Rütte: "Moko-Moko" (1870), &c. &c.



VIEW ON THE DODINGA RIVER, NEW GUINEA.

missionaries and gold-diggers who have been attracted thither by the accounts received from those surveyors and naturalists. Though the interior of the island is still to a great extent unexplored, and the coast line is not fully traced, yet, from the various sources of information indicated, we know tolerably well the margin of the island, and the interior as far as its middle, through the voyage which Signor D'Albertis made up the Fly River for nearly 500 miles.* These explorations have consequently altered our views regarding both the character and extent of the country. We now know that it, and not Borneo, is—next to Australia and Greenland, though these are hardly islands proper—the largest insular land mass on the globe. Its greatest length is little short of 1,500 miles, a distance “as great as the whole length of Australia from Adelaide to Port Darwin, or of Europe from London to Constantinople.”

NEW GUINEA—GENERAL SKETCH.

Its greatest breadth is 410 miles, and, omitting the great peninsulas which form its two extremities, the “central main is about 700 miles long, with an average breadth of 320 miles, a country about the size of the Austrian Empire, and, with the exception of the course of one large river, an absolute blank on our maps.” The north-western and south-western peninsulas appear to be best known, but both seem to be mountainous throughout. The Arfak mountains, beyond Dorey Harbour, are from 8,000 to 10,000 feet high, while the Owen Stanley Range has several peaks which reach an elevation of from 10,000 to 13,000 feet. The Charles Louis mountain appears to be snow-clad. The banks of the Fly River are low, and only on one occasion during D'Albertis' voyage were high mountains seen to the north-west. The south-west coast is for 700 miles low and swampy, with no high land anywhere visible. Hence this—coupled with the fact mentioned—would lead us to suppose that there is probably “a continuous range of lofty mountains towards the north, while the South consists of wide alluvial tracts and of slightly elevated plains. The part of the island under this somewhat resembles Sumatra turned round, but with higher mountains, which are probably volcanic” (D'Albertis), “and with considerably greater width of land.” Regarding the interior we can only speculate. The Fly River is not of great width or depth, but it is believed that large rivers exist towards the west, and that a large one flows northward into the sea at the eastern extremity of Geelvink Bay. Nearly the whole country is covered with a luxuriant forest vegetation, matured by the hot uniform climate and the abundant rainfall (Plate XXXVIII., and p. 237). The only bare places are on the coast nearest Australia, where the usual evergreen mantle gives place to a sparser vesture of eucalypti and acacias. On the Arfak mountains Beccari found a sub-alpine or temperate flora country of araucarias, rhododendrons, vacciniums, umbelliferae, and the Antarctic winter's bark (Vol. III., p. 263). Its terrestrial mammals are singularly few, and with the exception of the wild pig all belong to the marsupial, or the still lower monotremes of Australia.† Among these are the tree-climbing kangaroos, which hop

* *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1879, p. 4.

† It is needless to refer to the zoological wonders of the mythical “Captain Lawson,” whose “travels” in New Guinea are now known to be as apocryphal as those of “John Bradley” in Burmah—if indeed these two writers of geographical fiction are not the same personages under different pseudonyms.

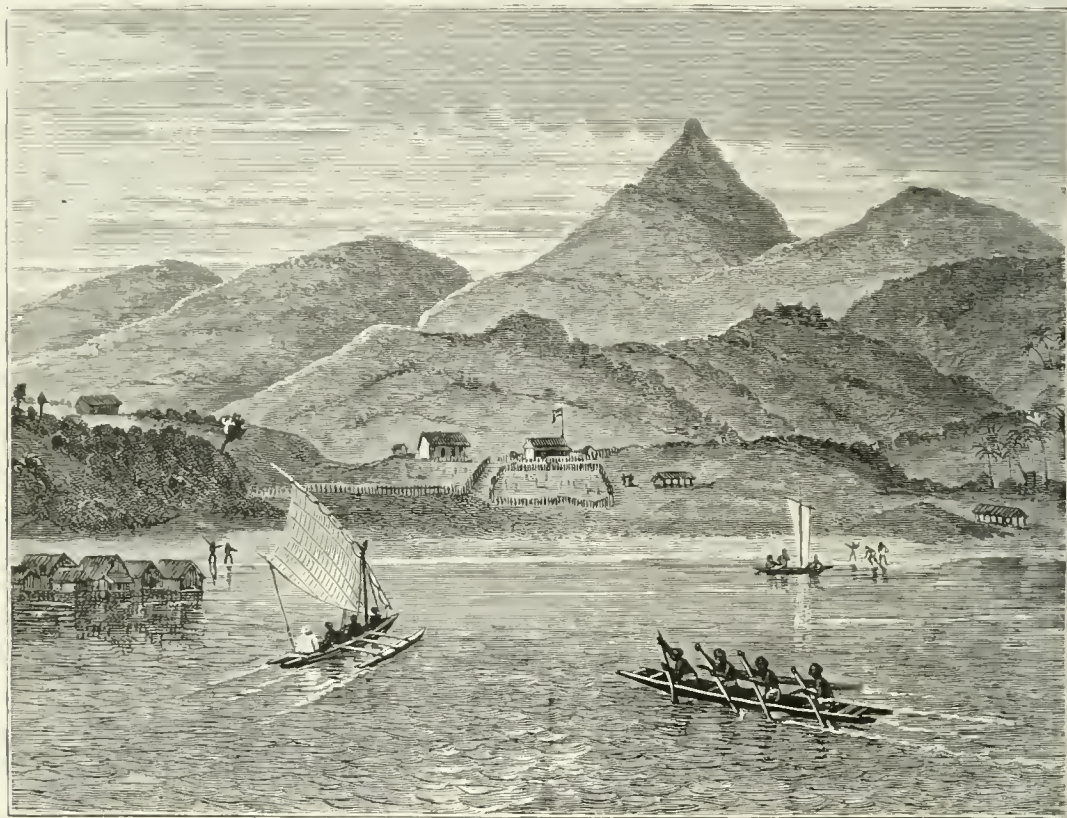
about among the large branches of the trees on the leaves of which they feed. The birds, like the mammals, are of the Australian type, though it possesses many of which Australia has no representatives. Among these are the celebrated birds of paradise—a distinct family containing more than twenty-five species, all confined to this island and the lands in the immediate vicinity. It is of interest to note that with the exception of one very peculiar species discovered by Mr. Wallace in the Moluccas, all the birds of paradise are found within the 100 fathom line around New Guinea, and therefore on lands which have been probably connected with it within a comparatively recent date (p. 231). Most of these are found on the mountains of the north-west peninsula, and doubtless more yet remain to be discovered. It will ever remain a mystery why these gorgeously-plumaged birds were created alone in this part of the world, though, as Mr. Wallace suggests, it is probably connected with the absence of the higher type of mammalia, and with the protection afforded by the luxuriant tropical forests. Nowhere in the world are parrots and pigeons so numerous and lovely as in New Guinea. Many of the fruit-doves are strikingly beautiful, and the great crowned pigeons rival in size the largest game birds. Parrots of many species, including the large black and white cockatoo, lorries, and the little crested green parroquets, no larger than our blue tits, are very abundant, while kingfishers of several species are almost equally numerous, and of brilliant hues. Insects are also very plentiful and adorned with gaudy colours, and the number yet to be collected is no doubt great. The same may be said of the birds. Though collectors have never resided more than a few months at a time on the island, and then only at one or two places, we already know of 400 species of land birds—a greater number than the whole avi-fauna of the West Indies, Madagascar, or Borneo. Even Australia has only 485 land birds—528 in all—(p. 166), though its extent is much greater, and its climate and physical features infinitely more varied.*

With the exception of the Polynesian immigrants in the South-eastern Peninsula, and here and there at different points of the coast small settlements from the neighbouring islands, the predominating people of these islands are the Papuans—a woolly-haired race—inhabiting in the east a group of islands of which New Guinea is the centre, extending westward as far as Flores, and eastward to the Fijis (pp. 240, 241). Their character has been variously described; but, on the whole, it is that of a race whose suspicion is easily excited, but who, under firm and considerate treatment, might be trusted.† Already, however, the missionaries and gold-hunters' experience of this has not been favourable, and if the island is ever to be colonised, doubtless its early chronicles will contain some bloody chapters. For the present, however, the hopes of the "prospectors," who had hoped to find rich gold-fields in this *insula dives opum*, have been damped. Gold, no doubt, exists, and probably in considerable quantities; but the spot where the deposits lie has not yet—happily—been reached, and the climate must always act as a deterrent to Europeans toiling in the feverish mangrove forest-swamps, and sluggish streams which form a considerable part of this tropical island. The latest news which we have is contained in the following:

* Wallace: *Contemporary Review*, 1879, pp. 421-426.

† Comrie: *Journal of the Anthropological Institute*, 1877, pp. 102-119.

paragraph:—"The gold prospectors have for the present given up all hope of finding rich gold-fields in New Guinea. Worn by privation, fatigues, and constant discouragement, nearly the last batch of the enterprising fellows who sought this El Dorado with such high hopes has been landed at Cooktown (p. 220), and it seems doubtful whether any will be found sufficiently sanguine to remain behind for further prospecting at the end of the rains. But though unsuccessful in the prime object of their explorations, their energy and enterprise cannot be considered entirely wasted. A country of great

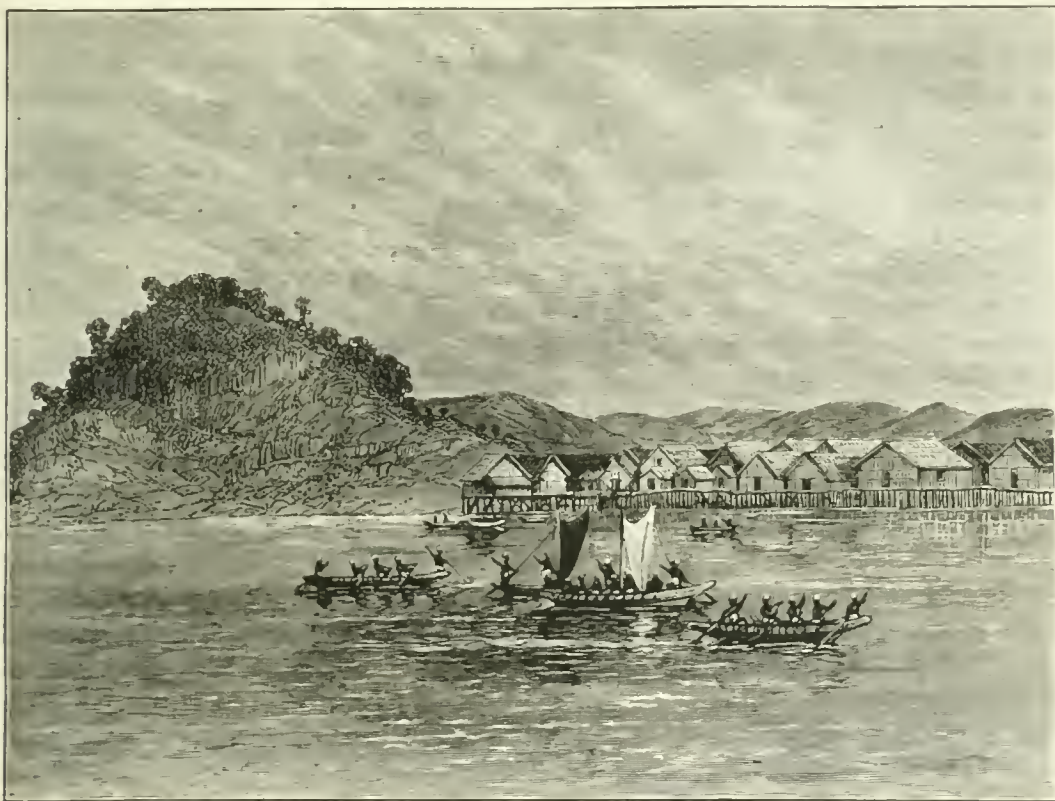


VIEW OF THE MISSION STATION, PORT MORESBY, NEW GUINEA.

agricultural capabilities, peopled by a most interesting race, of thrifty, industrious habits, and a kindness of disposition entirely at variance with our expectations [the disposition of the Papuans differing much on various parts of the coast], has been brought within the ken of civilisation. We look forward with much interest to Mr. Chalmers's account of his exploration of the Cloudy Mountain region, and his genial reception by the industrious inhabitants, whose cultivation is carried on on the same principles as in the vine-growing regions of the Rhine. We still hope many valuable industries may take root in this little-known land that may afford at some future day profitable opportunities for capital, enterprise, and energy."* As the Italians propose

* *Brisbane Courier*, December 4th, 1878. See also *Times*, November 27th, 1876.

founding a colony on the island, provided the English Government is agreeable—and other similar associations of adventurers are spoken of—the capabilities of this long-known but little-explored country of the Papuans may be tested. Leaving out of account the mineral riches of the island—which, for the sake of the Papuans on one hand and the white sharers in the “gold rush” on the other, had better be left indefinitely undeveloped—New Guinea may in future yield nut oil, palm oil, iron wood (p. 233), sandal-wood, “mahogany” (*Angophora*), tobacco, yams, sweet potatoes—



VIEW OF ELOARA ISLAND, NEW GUINEA.

which are cultivated by the natives—cedar, ebony, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, mace, arrow-root, sago, sugar-cane, bêche-de-mer, pearl-shell, and turtle-shell; while cotton, coffee, and other tropical products could be cultivated. As the Australian colonists are alive to the value of the island, there is every likelihood that, in spite of the failures hitherto, New Guinea will become—either as a separate British colony or as a territory of Queensland—a country which will contribute something to the wealth of the world.*

Torres Strait divides New Guinea from Australia, and is at its narrowest point about

* For a discussion of its capabilities see Moresby: “Discoveries in New Guinea” (1876), pp. 308-327; also D’Albertis: *Loc. cit.* and *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, vol. xx., p. 343; Macfarlane: same vol., p. 253; Stone: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, vol. xlvi., p. 34; Goldie: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, vol. xxii., p. 219, &c.

eighty miles wide, and nowhere exceeds twelve fathoms in depth. Coral reefs, sandbanks, and well-wooded islands strew the strait; and it is not improbable that at some distant period, through the agency of the coral polype, the island will again be united to Australia—from which, by the depression of the land, it has been separated. On some of the islands pearl-shell fishing stations have been established. The pearl oysters are found on the submerged coral reefs, and in the narrow ruts and channels which intersect them, and are obtained by aid of native Australian or Papuan divers, who were, until recently, frequently kidnapped by the traders, and carried by force to the pearl islands in the strait. It is not, however, pearls, but pearl-shells, which are sought by these divers, who are in the employ of Sydney capitalists. The shells are valued at from £150 to £180 per ton at Sydney, and, of course, command a higher price in Europe and the United States. The oyster weighs from three to six pounds, and in some cases will even scale as high as ten pounds. The divers frequently bring up one under each arm. They are opened at once, the fish used as food, and the pearls, if any, fall to the share of the crew; but the pearls are few, small, and of poor quality.* On some of these islands the fishing of the trepang, or *bêche-de-mer*, is pursued. This ugly-looking holothuria, or “sea cucumber,” is found in great abundance on the coral reefs after the tide goes out. It is then collected, and dried on thin iron plates in a smoke drying-room, and sorted for the Chinese market. The *bêche-de-mer* is divided into three qualities. The best, Admiral Moresby tells us, is called red fish, and is worth at Sydney £110 per ton; the second, or black fish, £120; and the worst, or teal fish, £80; and as these sea-slugs, or sea-sausages—as the Germans call them—are plentiful, the trade is a lucrative one. On some of these islands—as well as on the neighbouring coast at Cape York—are found the mound-builders (*Megapodius Gouldii*), which do not sit on their eggs, but bury them in mounds of sand and rubbish; leaving them to be hatched by the sun. These mounds are composed of dead leaves, sticks, stones, rotten wood, and any kind of rubbish, and are built up until they reach the height of 6 feet high and 12 feet across. A number of birds unite in building a mound. Then they must use it conjointly, for in the middle will often be found as many as fifty of their brick-red eggs. On Booby Island is an “ocean post-office”—a tin box under a rough “shanty”—in which, in days when mail steamers and telegraphs were rarer than now, captains used to deposit letters to be taken off by the first ship which called, or information which they considered might be of value to the next visitor. It is now little utilised.

The *Aru Islands* belong to the Dutch, and are nominally under the government of the Moluccas, but there is no regular settlement on them, the principal inhabitants, with the exception of a few Malay officials, being the black, mop-headed natives. At Dobbo, during the trading season, there is a great concourse of Chinese and Bugis, or natives of the Celebes, living in temporary erections, which form one wide street, off which alleys branch, but are merely thatched sheds, a small portion of which, near the entrance, is used as a dwelling, “while the rest is parted off, and often divided by one or two floors, in order better to stow away merchandise

* Moresby: “Discoveries in New Guinea,” p. 31.

and native produce." During the season Dobbo is a busy place, though for the rest of the year it is all but deserted, and the houses are mostly dismantled. The place where the settlement is built is not attractive, unless for the luxuriant grove of cocoa-nut trees which extends for a mile along the beach, and the great forest which—as everywhere else on these islands—lies behind. Here we see the beautiful casuarina trees, cocoa-nuts, and palms, intertwined with climbing plants, which hang between the trees in great, strong festoons of flowers. Among the foliage fly birds of paradise, and other gay-coloured species, found so plentifully here; while the *Cuscus*, many beautiful lories, a cassowary, and a ground wallaby may be mentioned as among the other inhabitants of these flat islands. The birds of paradise—God's birds, as the natives call them—are, however, the most remarkable of its riches, and for long their skins have formed articles of commerce with the Dutch, Chinese, and other traders.

Mysol, Salwatty, and Waigou are other islands of considerable size, lying between New Guinea and Ceram, or off the north-west peninsula of the former. *Salwatty* is the home of the *Seleucides alba*, a remarkable bird of paradise, which also extends over to the neighbouring coast of New Guinea. In the former island it is shot by blunt arrows, and in the latter by placing snares on the trees frequented by it. *Waigou* is a still larger island, and the chief one of a small group, also made glorious by the presence of the paradise birds. Muka, the chief settlement, is a poor place of a few huts, partly on land, partly in the water, scattered irregularly over a space of about half-a-mile in a shallow bay. The people are not natives of the island—which has no indigenes, but a mixed race, partly from Gilolo, partly from New Guinea; but their language is entirely Papuan. They live in an abject state of poverty, not caring to work hard, as the sago palm and the abundant fish at their doors supply them with all the food they need; while a little trepang, or tortoise-shell, sold to the traders, enable them to purchase all the clothing that the inhabitants of a country lying so near the tropics require.

THE MOLUCCAN GROUP.

The *Moluccas*, or Spice Islands, centre round Gilolo. Most of them are mountainous, the peaks reaching to 7,000 to 8,000 feet, and lie in the line of the great volcanic band already described. Here the Dutch have several settlements, the soil being fertile, and capable of raising rich crops of nutmegs, cloves, &c., and the sago palm, which is indigenous, yields large quantities of the peculiar starch from which it gets its name. Sago, obtained from the heart of the palm trunk, forms the staple food of the Malay and Papuan people. There are also fine woods in the forests, and, in addition to valuable pearl-shell and trepang fisheries, gold, sharks'-fins, the edible swallows'-nests, and birds of paradise skins, form articles of export. *Ceram*, or *Sirang*, is the chief island for sago, which is prepared in great quantities by the villagers of Warnu-Warus (p. 211); but, with a few exceptions, all the natives are collected on the coast for the convenience of trade, the interior being mostly forest-covered mountains, and inaccessible. Some of the natives—

who number in all 195,000—have become nominally Christianised, but most of them are Mohammedans, the Moslems bearing a better reputation among the Dutch officials than their half-Christianised and altogether rognish neighbours, who chiefly affect the south-west coast nearest Amboyna. The Kakian Union—a secret society joined indiscriminately by Pagans, Christians, and Mohammedans—gives the Dutch Government much anxiety, and more than once its plots have put the authorities in considerable jeopardy.*



VIEW OF THE ROADSTEAD AND VILLAGE OF WARUS-WARUS, CERAM.

Bouro is another fine mountainous island, though not considered by the Dutch a place from which much wealth can be extracted. The natives are a simple race, little acquainted with civilisation, though, as in most parts of their possessions, the Dutch have paid some attention to their education. They consist of two races—now amalgamated—the Malay of the Celebes type, and the so-called Alfuros of Ceram. On *Batchian*, Malays and Galelas—people from the north of Gilolo—have now a settlement and extensive rice-fields. It contains a great variety of surface and soil, and is well watered by many

* For a full account of this political organisation, see *Tijdschrift van Ned. Ind.*, Vol. V.

streams, some of them navigable for some distance from the coast. There are no savage inhabitants, the people being chiefly Malays ruled by their own Sultan, under the Dutch Government. "It possesses gold, copper, and coal, hot springs and geysers, sedimentary and volcanic rocks and coralline limestone, alluvial plains, abrupt hills, and lofty mountains, a moist climate, and a grand and luxuriant forest vegetation." It may be also added that, in addition to all these advantages, as a place of residence,



DUTCH HOUSE IN THE ISLAND OF TERNATE.

Batehian has several volcanoes, and frequent earthquakes so arrange matters as to keep the inhabitants from sinking into a state of utter somnolence.

Gilolo, or Halmahera, as the Malays and Dutch call it, is, however, the largest island of the group. It contains a few villages near the coast, but most of the interior is forest clad. At one time it was the chief residence of the Sultan of Ternate, and the principal civilised inhabitants are still Ternate men, the natives being "Alfuros," a general term for any indigenes, who inhabit the eastern coast, or the interior of the northern peninsula. They are evidently Papuans, who, however, live just on the extreme

eastern confines of their race, and at the place where the Malays meet them. The island seems at one time to have contained more inhabitants, it being thinly inhabited, with the exception of these Alfuros, by Malay tribes allied to those of Ternate and Tidore. It contains a number of animals peculiar to itself, and therefore would appear to be an ancient island. But it seems in very recent times to have been modified by volcanic upheaval and subsidence.

Morty is close to its north-eastern extremity, but differs very considerably from its larger neighbour in its zoology, and is very sandy and coralline.

Among the smaller of the Moluccas may be mentioned Ternate, Tidore, Makian, Kaióa, Amboyna, Banda, Goram, and Matabello. *Ternate* is one of a row of conical islands skirting the coast of Gililo; Tidore, over 4,000 feet high, being the loftiest of these island mountains, though Ternate is not much short of that elevation. The town of Ternate is a pleasant one, stretching along the base of a volcano, over which wreaths of smoke often play, and which frequently gives evidence of its slumbering violence in the form of earthquakes. Behind the town is a forest, where durians, mangoes, lansats, and mangusteens—the very mention of which recalls to the traveller pleasant memories—can be gathered in loads. Above the forest, stretching up the mountain for two or three thousand feet, are belts of clearings and cultivated ground, and above all is again the virgin forest (p. 245). Near the shore is the fort built by the Portuguese when they held the island, and in the middle of the town the large half-ruined palace of the Sultan, who is now a pensioner of the Dutch Government, though allowed, for their convenience, to retain his sovereignty over the natives of this island and the northern part of Gilolo. At one time Sultans of Ternate and Tidore, enriched by the monopoly of the opium trade which they held in their own hands, were celebrated for their wealth and the barbaric splendour of their State. After the Dutch had aided the natives to drive the Portuguese out of the islands, they rewarded themselves by obtaining, through treaty, the control of the trade; and, in order the better to regulate it, they concentrated the cultivation of cloves and nutmegs on certain spots, at the same time destroying the plantations elsewhere. In return they paid the native rulers a fixed subsidy, relieving them of the oppressions and attacks of their harsh rulers, the Portuguese, and gave them exclusive control over their own subjects. Hence, at the present date, Banda is the chosen home of the nutmeg (and its covering, the mace) trade and cultivation, and in Amboyna the clove flourishes, though not so well as it might do in a better selected spot. Ternate, judging from the numerous stone and brick buildings, gateways, and arches, seems in earlier days to have been a place of greater importance and wealth than at the present time. In addition to a few Chinese, Arabs, and Papuans, the town is inhabited by the Malays, the Dutch, and the Orang Sirani, or “Nazarenes,” Christian descendants of the Portuguese, and a variety of mongrels, who combine in their own persons something of all these races. The *Kaióa Islands* are belted by flat swampy tracts along the shore, and are inhabited by mixed Malay and Papuan races, who are Mohammedans, and subject to Ternate. Papaws, pears, apples, rice, maize, and a little cotton are grown, and the men are skilful boat builders.

Amboyna is an island of much more importance. It consists of two peninsulas connected by a narrow sandy isthmus, though the island itself is rather mountainous. The town is a

well-built, pleasant one, with broad well-shaded streets, from which there branch off into the country sandy roads and lanes bordered by hedges of flowering shrubs, through which are seen the cosy *buiten plaatsen*, or villas, of the well-to-do merchants and officials. Society in Amboyna is as pleasant as it is in any Dutch town in the Netherland East Indies. There is of course a *societal*, or club-house, where, in the cool of the evening, the Europeans gather to listen to the band playing, to smoke, and to drink gin and bitters, and in which they dance unweariedly at stated intervals. Yet life in Amboyna must be often full of languor from much doing of nothing. The arrival of a foreign war ship, the advent of the monthly mail steamer from Singapore and Batavia, or an earthquake, are among the few events which break the monotony of residents' lives, or give them something to talk about, other than the daily incidents of their almost eventless lives. Fruit excepted, everything—even the shells for which the neighbouring sea is famous, if they are at all out of the common run—is extravagantly dear. But the common cowries, cones, and olives are cheap enough—the fact that they are sold in the London streets for a penny or twopence each being of this proof positive. Fishes are here also numerous, Dr. Bleeker having published descriptions of 780 species found at Amboyna, a number almost equal to those inhabiting all the seas and rivers of Europe. But, though many of them are gay in colours like most tropical fishes, they are fairer to the eye than grateful to the palate. As in the other Dutch tropical colonies, nearly all business is transacted between seven and twelve o'clock in the morning, the afternoon being given over to repose, and the evening to visiting. During the heat of the day, and even at dinner, a loose cotton dress is worn, and after sunset, hats are reserved solely for visits of ceremony.

The *Banda* group is made up of ten or twelve small volcanic islands, having an area of 700 miles. Mostly thickly-wooded, but with fine plantations of nutmegs, coconuts, bananas, and other tropical productions, they are described as exceedingly lovely. The nutmeg plantations are on Banda Lantoir, or Great Banda—which is too unhealthy for the seat of Government—but the trade is no longer a strict monopoly, though nutmegs and mace still form the almost sole exports from these perfumed isles. The plantations, or *perken*, form one continuous forest, screened from the wind by kanari trees (*Canarium*). Up to 1860 they were worked by slaves and convicts, but Malay and Chinese coolies have now taken their place. Last year they yielded about 700,000 lbs. weight of nutmegs, with mace in proportion.* The chief town is on Banda Neira, but it is not of the importance of Amboyna, nor is society so polished. There is a garrison of some 200 Javanese soldiers, and the European officers who have charge of the *Pruitins* (convicts), while the people, according to the recent visitor whose notes I quote, gamble much, and lead a seemingly pleasant, indolent life, undisturbed by events of the outer world. A monthly mail brings news, beer, schnaps, and letters from fatherland; and what more can a man want in a climate with an average temperature of over 85° Fahr.?"

Goram is one of a small group of isles which form, as it were, a western tail to Ceram, which gives its name to the whole of the chain; *Manowakko* is, however, the largest of them. It is about fifteen miles long, but is a mere upraised coral reef.

* Linden: "Banda en Zijne bewoners" (1873).

Goram is of much the same character, though higher, and not altogether composed of coral rock. The people are a Malay race of traders, passing in their praus, made by the Ké Islanders, long ciremits, buying and selling trepang, the medicinal mussoi bark, wild nutmegs, and tortoiseshell. They are, however, a lazy race, living very poorly and much given to opium smoking. They make sail cloth, coarse calico, and pandanus leaf boxes, prettily ornamented with shell work, but they are over-kinged, for in this island, only eight or ten miles long, twelve rajahs, powerless for harm or good except through the Dutch Government, exist in a state of extreme poverty.

The natives of the *Matabello Isles* are almost entirely occupied in making cocoa-nut oil, the coral of which they are composed being very favourable to the growth of the cocoa-nut palm, which accordingly abounds here, and bears fruit all the year round. The villages Mr. Wallace describes as situated on high and rugged coral peaks, only accessible by steep narrow paths, with ladders and bridges over yawning chasms, and filthy with rotten husks and oil refuse. The people are "wretched, ugly, dirty savages," unclad and unwashed, but actually wealthy, as the massive gold earrings of the women, and the dozens of expensive little bronze cannon lying on the ground about every village testify. The chief men will on ceremonious occasions clothe themselves in silk and satin robes, but the unwholesome diet of refuse cocoa-nut, sweet potatoes, and sago cake causes frequent eruptions and scurfy skin diseases among all classes of the people.

The *Ké Islands*, though the people are Papuans, must be classed zoologically and geographically with the Moluccas. They are, for the most part, well wooded, and this fact has been seized on by the Ké people to push their boat-building business. Their "praus," in great demand by all the neighbouring islands, are not hollowed out of a single tree, but are formed of planks running from end to end, "accurately fitted together without a nail or a particle of iron being used, the planks being dowelled together with wooden pegs, as a cooper fastens the head of a cask, and the whole afterwards strengthened by timbers, lashed with split rattan to solid cleats left for the purpose in each plank." Sago-making* is also followed, but cultivation there is little or none. Nor indeed do the mountainous character of the islands, and their dense forests, afford much room or supply many temptations to the islanders to follow other pursuits than those they have chosen.

The Moluccas, though extending over ten degrees of latitude by eight of longitude, contain but ten land mammals, and of these two—namely, a monkey and a civet cat, animals not belonging to this region—are believed to have been introduced by wandering Malay traders. There are, however, twenty-five species of bats. The excessive poverty of mammals contrasts with the rich display of birds. At present the islands of the group have yielded 265 species—and the entire avifauna is doubtless not yet known—the species being to a great extent also those of New Guinea. Especially are the islands rich in parrots and kingfishers, twenty-two species of the one family and sixteen of the other being found. The mound-building brush turkeys, or *Megapodii*, are among the other remarkable birds of these islands, one of these (*Megapodius Wallacei*), discovered by the distinguished naturalist after whom it is named, being peculiar to Gilolo, Ternate, and Bouro. The great helmeted cassowary, long the only species known, is an inhabitant of Ceram alone; while the beetles,

* This industry is described in "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., pp. 134-135.

butterflies, and other insects of the Moluccas are legion, and of the most gorgeous hues and curious description. Like the birds, they have a decided affinity to those of New



MALE AND FEMALE ARGUS PHEASANT (*Plasiumus Argus*.)

Guinea. "Owing," writes Mr. Wallace, "to the great preponderance among birds of parrots, pigeons, kingfishers, and sunbirds, almost all of gay or delicate colours, and many adorned with the most gorgeous plumage, and to the numbers of very large and showy

butterflies which are almost everywhere to be met with, the forests of the Moluccas offer to the naturalist a very striking example of the luxuriance of life in the tropics. Yet the almost entire absence of mammalia, and of such widespread groups of birds as woodpeckers, thrushes, jays, tits, and pheasants, must convince him that he is in a part of the world which has in reality but little in common with the great Asiatic continent, although an unbroken chain of islands seems to link them to it."

CELEBES.

Celebes is an island containing about 73,000 square miles, and a population estimated at 2,000,000. Owing to its singular form—which has been likened to a star-fish with the rays torn off from one side—no part of the island is more than fifty miles distant from the sea, though its length from north to south is 700 miles, and its breadth extends through seven degrees of longitude. Though the island is not yet thoroughly explored, it is known to be mountainous—four ranges of mountains diverging south, south-east, north, and north-east from the central space—and from its elevation, and the abundant sea-breezes which reach it, healthy. One of its mountains—Lampoo-Batang—is 7,000 feet in height, and many others are not much short of this elevation; but, except on the extreme north-east point, there are no active volcanoes on the island. No island of the Archipelago has more varied scenery or a more fruitful soil. There are not any large rivers or plains, but at intervals, both along the coast and in the interior, are fine grassy stretches of level ground. Beautiful lakes occur frequently; and the wild gorges, chasms, and precipices which are found in many of the districts, render the scenery of Celebes as splendid as that of other parts of the Archipelago are tame from the absence of those concomitants. Though cultivation has long existed, yet much of the country, especially about the Gulf of Tolo, is still clothed with primeval forests and thickets, "traversed here and there by scarcely perceptible paths, or broken with a few clearings and villages." The animal life of Celebes is very remarkable. Of fourteen species of mammals found on it, eleven are got almost nowhere else. Of these, two are the curious babiroussa, or hog-deer, and the wild cow, or "tapi-uteu," which combines in its person some characteristics of the ox, buffalo, and antelope. Then there are five squirrels which extend no farther east, and other two are eastern opossums which have in this island their western limits. Of the 128 land birds, it is an unique fact in the geographical distribution of the order, that eighty are found in this island alone. The insects show an equally remarkable isolation, and the same may be said of the reptiles. Among the domestic animals swine and goats are common; and the cattle, though tended with little care, are good. The horses stand in such high repute that at one time over 700 were yearly exported to Java. Vegetation is, as might be expected, extremely rich; but forest growth is rarer than in other islands of the Archipelago. Rice, maize, millet, coffee, the cocoa-nut tree, the sago palm, the obi, or native potato, bread-fruit, tamarinds, lemons, oranges, mangusteens, durians, wild plums, Spanish pepper, beans, melons, and sugar-cane, are common in most parts of the island. The shaddock flourishes in the lower-lying plains; the bamboo and rattan grow wild in the woods, which also yield sandal-wood, ebony, sapan, and teak. Indigo, cotton, and

tobacco are also grown, and among other industries may be mentioned the twisting of ropes from the fibres of the gemute palm (*Saguerns saccharifer*), the preparation of sugar, and a beverage called sagueir, from the juice of the same tree, as well as intoxicating drinks from a variety of other plants.

There are a variety of races in the island; but the best known, and the most truthful, intelligent, and honest are the Bugis of the Macassar peninsula, a character which indeed all of the inhabitants, the Papuans excepted, deserve. They are not a war-like people, and are only too anxious to live at peace with their neighbours, did piratical incursions from the other islands permit of this. The Dutch possess a number of settlements in Celebes, and have, with a view probably to future contingencies, divided up the island into a number of residencies. In these residencies, however, the native rajahs still maintain their authority, and in some instances—as, for example, in that of the King of Boni—their rulers are men of considerable consequence and importance. In some parts of the island, gold, salt, and coal of poor quality are found. At one time the native chiefs were compelled to bring every year a specified quantity of gold to the Dutch officials, but of late the yield has so fallen off that, in spite of the labours of the miners, sitting all day in nitrous water, washing the deep gravels in which the metal is scattered, the authorities have perforce had to abate the demands, so little has been obtained.

Macassar (p. 253), on the west coast of the peninsula of the same name—a town of from 15,000 to 20,000 inhabitants—is the chief place in the island. It impresses the visitor—even after he has seen most of the other Dutch towns in the East Indies—as one of the prettiest, cleanest, and best conducted of them all. The chief street runs along the sea-shore for a distance of more than a mile, gradually merging into native houses, and is usually thronged by a crowd of Bugis and Macassar men. The old Dutch town consists of two streets of private houses, having at the southern end the fort, church, and, close by, the houses of the governor and principal officials. Still farther along the beach is another long, straggling street of native houses and country villas of the Macassar merchants. The streets are described by Mr. Wallace as kept clear of refuse, and covered drains carry off the sewage into large open sewers, into which the tide is periodically admitted at high water, so that twice a day Macassar is swept clear of the materials which in other tropical towns breed fevers and an infinitude of diseases. The Dutch rule in Celebes is certainly a very favourable type of their rule. By means of their plantations of coffee, rice, and other crops, they have afforded employment to the natives, and in their schools and missions the natives of many of the districts have learned the arts, the language, and even the manners of civilisation. A native chief, who a few years ago would have received the visitor on the edge of a *kris*, and added his skull to the collection hanging in his hut, will now meet him in an elegant drawing-room, and entertain him at a well-furnished dinner-table, clad in correct evening costume, which, however inconvenient in the Celebesian climate, is certainly an improvement on the bark waist-belt which was at once his father's entire wardrobe and insignia of rank. With the exception of Manado, the settlements on Celebes have not yet been a financial success to the Dutch, though they have had a footing on the island for more than 270 years. In time,

however, the great resources of the country cannot fail to yield returns commensurate with its crude wealth.*

The *Sulla*, or *Xulla Islands*, *Bouton*, *Moena*, *Kabeina*, *Woroni*, and other smaller patches lying close to Celebes, may be merely mentioned, as in many of their characteristics they agree with their great neighbour.

THE TIMOR GROUP.

The chief island of this group is Timor itself, which has an area of 8,820 square miles, and a population estimated at 460,000. A mountain chain, wooded to the summit, and culminating in the Alas, 11,800 feet in height, runs through its entire length, and contains magnetic iron ore, porphyry, syenite, copper, fine malachite, sulphur, naphtha, and even gold—which metal, indeed, is found in most of the numerous, though small, rivers. The nature of the climate we have already indicated. Accordingly, the island is not throughout fertile; but the lands near the sea are excellently suited for growing rice, maize, beans, tobacco, sugar-cane, potatoes, cotton, and the usual tropical fruits. The loutar, or Palmyra palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*), owing to the variety of uses to which it can be put, is one of the chief forest trees; but there are other timbers, well suited for masts and shipbuilding, to be obtained in abundance. The wild nutmeg, cinnamon, and tamarind are found, and in places bamboo thickets render the forests all but impenetrable. Indigo is one of the most common crops, and among the wild plants are numerous poisonous and medicinal species. The chief Dutch settlement is Koepang (Conpang), on the south-west. Three-fourths of the island owns the rule of Holland; the remainder, on the north-east, belongs, nominally at least, to the Portuguese, whose seat of government is a miserable tumble-down town called Dilli, which was all but destroyed by an earthquake in 1857. Koepang is a red-tiled, exceedingly Dutch-looking place, built on a rugged surface of coral rock, surrounded by a scanty vegetation, banked by a semicircle of wooded hills. The streets are irregularly laid out, and the only buildings of consequence are the governor's house and the Protestant church. The population consists of Malays, Chinese, Dutch, and a preponderance of native Timorese, who are much more closely allied to the Papuans of the Aru Islands and New Guinea than to the Malays, whose mild, deferential manner contrasts markedly with the loud talk, unrestrained laughter, and general self-assertion characteristic of the Timorese and the race to which they are most closely allied. Altogether, there may be about 3,500 people in the town, including 100 Europeans and 500 Chinese, who have a temple devoted to their religious rites. Whaling and Australian ships often call here for supplies, on their way to or from Java and Singapore, and this trade is likely to increase when the settlements in the Cape York Peninsula emerge from their present extremely embryonic condition. Dilli is a much less attractive place. The houses are built of mud, and thatched. Even the

* Veth: "Een Nederlansch reiziger op Zuid Seebes" (1875); Riedel: "Ue landsehap Boecool Noord Seebes" (1872); papers in the *Zeitschrift für Ethnologie* (1871), and *Tijdschrift voor Indische Taal Land en Volkendunde* (1874); and the works of Valentyn, Reinwardt, Millies, Stavorinus, Raffles, Crawford, Van der Hart, Stubenvoll, Van der Bosch, Wallace, Bickmore, and others.

fort is only a mud enclosure, and the custom-house and church are reared of the same humble material, without any attempt at decoration. The governor's house makes greater pretensions; but even it is, at best, only a whitewashed bungalow of a very ordinary description. However, to keep up the Lusitanian characteristics, this wretched encampment of Portugal is ridden to death by officials, black and white official dresses and gorgeous uniforms being the objects which chiefly strike the eye in the streets of



VIEW IN THE TOWN OF MACASSAR, CEELES.

Dilli. To add to its discomforts, the town is surrounded by swamps and mud flats, which often impart a fatal fever to the new comer on the first night of his stay, and the malaria against which even long residents do not consider themselves proof.

Timor, however, is not an unprofitable island, for sandal-wood, ivory, horses, tortoise-shell, edible swallows'-nests, &c., are exported, and on a bank thirty miles south-east from Koepang there is a pearl fishery. Though the Dutch and Portuguese rule the island, yet the actual government is through the numerous native rajahs, who have divided it into several small kingdoms. Much more, however, could be made of the island than at present, especially in the section owned by the Portuguese. In Dilli, for certain, one-half of the

Europeans are chronically ill from fever; yet, though this kind of misery has been going on for three centuries, it seems never to have occurred to any one to build a house on the range of hills, only a short way off, and which are so cool that at an elevation of from 3,000 to 3,500 feet wheat and potatoes can be grown. Still lower down, coffee would thrive; but to this day there is no road to the hills, nor has any attempt at cultivation been made. Though minerals of many kinds are found, none which would repay the cost of working have been discovered. Pieces of virgin copper have been found, and plenty of copper ore, but of such poor quality that only the best would pay to smelt, even in England, where, of course, labour and the cost of mining and smelting are much less than in Timor. The interior is a barren country. Gold is found but sparingly, and the fine spring of petroleum is so far in the interior that until the country is better opened up it will be as useless as if it never existed. The Portuguese Government is a miserable one. No one cares about the island—no one has any pride in it—as is proved by the fact that, after it has been occupied for 300 years, there is not a mile of road made beyond the town, and not a European resident in the interior. The officials rob the natives as much as they can; yet, though there have been rebellions, and may be more, no care has been taken to fortify the town against the attacks of the natives, and once, at least, so skilfully did the insurgents surround their masters, or rather so clumsily did the “military authorities” mismanage matters, that the place was in such danger from starvation as to be compelled to solicit provisions from the Dutch Governor at Amboyna. There are a few half-breeds in the town who profess Christianity, but so cordially are their would-be rulers, whether Dutch or Portuguese, despised by the natives, that missionary efforts have been but little successful in Timor. At Dilli, at least, morality is at a frightfully low ebb, and if crime does not figure in the Government returns in a corresponding proportion, it is merely because the demoralisation of the Europeans has caused them to cease to look upon as crimes offences which in any decent community would entail infamy and punishment on the perpetrators.

At the west end of Timor is an irregular chain of islands, which are continued by way of Serwatty, Babber, Timor Laut, Larat, and the Little and Great Key, on to Aru Islands, and from the north side by Ombay, Rutar, Lomboka, Adenara, Solor, Flores, Comodo, Sumbawa, and Lombok; the strait between the latter and Bali forming the boundary between the two great divisions of the Malay Islands. Wetter is a considerable island on the north-east, while Semaó, Rotte, Savu, and Chandana, a sandalwood island, run almost parallel to the eastern chain mentioned. Timor Laut, or the Tenimber Islands,* are of some importance, from their small horned cattle, goats, swine, fowls, and numerous birds—among the latter the beautiful blue-streaked lory (*Eos reticulata*) and the citron-crested cockatoo (*Cucutua citrino-eristata*). The natives are of a low grade of civilisation, and are dreaded for their treachery by the ships which visit them to trade in tortoiseshell and bêche-de-mer. The islands between Timor and Flores, and parallel to them, are of much the same nature. *Flores* itself is about 200 miles in length and thirty-five in breadth. Like the rest of the group, it is hilly and volcanic, and produces cotton, sandalwood, and beeswax, which is sold chiefly to Singapore traders. Sumbawa and Lombok

* Veth: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, vol. xlviii. (1878).

are very similar. Rice and coffee are their staples—the latter grown on the hills and the former on the plains. From Lombok, as from Bali, are exported also ponies and ducks, the latter being very cheap, and familiarly known to the seamen of the rice ships as “Baly soldiers.”

The number of birds inhabiting the Timor group is 188, no less than eighty-two of which are confined to these islands; but the fact that there is not a single genus peculiar to it, or one which is in these islands represented by any large number of peculiar species, shows that the fauna is distinctly derivative from Java on one side and Australia on the other. With the exception of the bats, the mammals of these islands are exceedingly few, the land species being only seven in number, and not one of them is Australian, or even closely allied to any Australian form; thus leading us to the belief that though in its general fauna Timor belongs to the Australian continent, it was never united to it; otherwise some of the kangaroo group would have been sure to have been found in it. In a word, it has the chief characteristic of an oceanic island: that is, the occurrence of animals which, though found nowhere else, are yet related to those of the nearest land.*

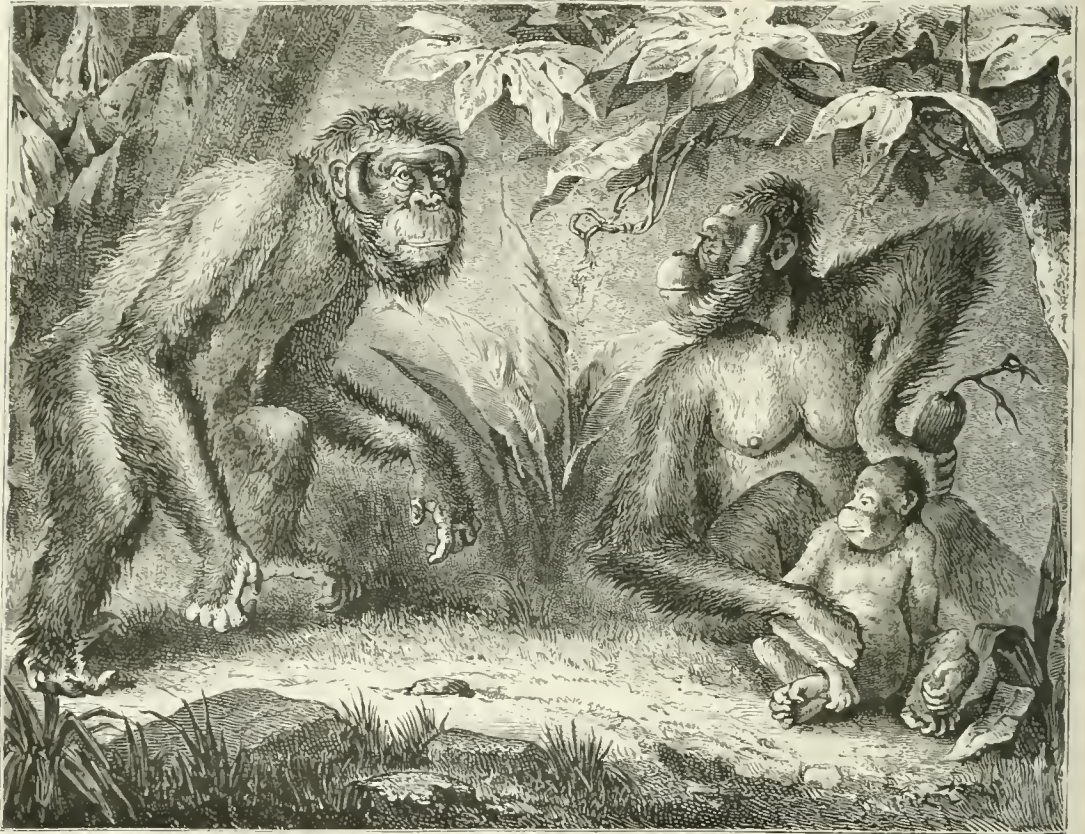
CHAPTER XVI.

THE MALAY ISLANDS: INDO-MALAYSIA.

WE cross the Lombok Strait from the Island of Lombok to that of Bali, and are at once in a new world. Of late it has been noticed that a few cockatoos have reached the end of the latter island, thus showing that there is beginning to be a slight intermingling of the animals of the two regions. But to all intents and purposes the groups which Mr. Wallace has sketched out are widely different. The Malay vegetation spreads over all the moister and more equable parts of India; and, according to Sir Joseph Hooker, many plants found in Ceylon, the Himalayas, and the Khasia Mountains are identical with those of Java and the Malay Peninsula. Among the most marked of these are the rattans—climbing palms of the genus *Calamus*—which, from the use they were once put to, are familiarly known to seamen as “Penang lawyers,” and an immense variety of orchids, arads, the ginger order, and ferns. In this region are also found the pitcher plants, the mangusteen and the durian—two delicious fruits, which will hardly grow out of the Archipelago. In this region there are known to live 170 species of mammals. Of these twenty-four are monkeys; the most remarkable and the chief are the orang-utan (p. 256), the great man-like ape of Sumatra and Borneo, the curious siamang of Sumatra and Malacca, the long-nosed monkey of Borneo, and various species of lemurs. The tiger, leopard, tiger-cat, civet, otter, and a glutton may be noticed among the flesh devourers;

* Wallace: “Malay Archipelago,” p. 210. In this work will be found a very full account of Lombok and several of the other islands, which we can only mention.

and of the thirty-three species eight are also found in India and Burmah. Of the twenty-two hoofed animals, seven extend into Burmah and India; the elephant of Sumatra, Borneo, and Malacca is also identical with that of Ceylon and India. "In all other groups," writes the historian of the Archipelago, "the same general phenomena occur. A few species are identical with those of India, a much larger number are closely allied or representative forms, while there are always a small number of peculiar genera, consisting of animals unlike those found in any other part of the world. There are about fifty bats, of which



A FAMILY OF ORANG-UTANS (*Simia satyrus*) OF BORNEO.

less than one-fourth are Indian species; thirty-four rodents (squirrels, rats, &c.), of which six or eight only are Indian; and ten Insectivora, with one exception, peculiar to the Malay region. The squirrels are very abundant and characteristic, only two species out of twenty-five extending into Siam and Burmah. The tupaias are curious insect-eaters which closely resemble squirrels, and are almost confined to the Malay Islands, as are the small feather-tailed *Ptilocercus Lowii* of Borneo and the curious long-snouted and naked-tailed *Gymnurus Rafflesii*." In the Malay Peninsula, now a part of Continental Asia, there are forty-eight species of land mammals common to it and the neighbouring islands. Again, to take only one instance, Java, though distant 250 miles from Borneo, has twenty-two species of land mammals in common with it, thus proving clearly that at one time they must have been



THE MOSQUE OF SOERABAJA, BATAVIA, JAVA.

connected, as, with scarcely an exception, these species could not traverse an even much narrower water passage. Probably the separation took place in a very recent geological period. The birds of the islands bear a close resemblance to those of India, though very few of them are identical with those of that country; yet we have seen that even narrow



MAP OF THE MALAY ARCHIPELAGO, ETC.

water straits prevent the passage of land birds from island to island. On the little island of Banca, fifteen miles from the eastern extremity of Sumatra, and celebrated for its tin mines, there are several species of animals entirely different from those of the adjacent coast, and some, perhaps, even peculiar to it, rendering probable what, from geological appearances had been long suspected, that Banca, though lying so close to Sumatra, had not been recently separated from it, but is actually older than the

great land mass so near it. Again, the islands of Java and Sumatra, though lying so close together, bear evidence in their animal life of having been long separated, while, on the other hand, Borneo and Sumatra show a much closer similarity in their denizens. There are many peculiarities about the distribution of life in these islands. I shall notice one only. It is that in Java there is a species of rhinoceros distinct from that in Borneo and Sumatra, but which also occurs in Burmah, and even in Bengal. Several other animals—birds, for example—which are found in Java and parts of Southern Asia, we miss from Borneo and Sumatra. Such a curious phenomenon we can only understand on Mr. Wallace's hypothesis of Borneo, subsequent to the separation of Java, having become entirely submerged, and being, on its re-elevation, for some time "connected with the Malay Peninsula and Sumatra, but not with Java or Siam."

BORNEO.

Until later discoveries awarded the palm to New Guinea, Borneo was believed to be the largest known island. Its area is about 300,000 square miles, its greatest length 850 miles, its greatest breadth about 700 miles, and its population probably between 1,000,000 and 2,000,000. The island is distinctly equatorial, the "line" dividing it into two portions nearly equal in surface. The shores, often dotted with small islands, are usually low, and bordered by extensive level plains, forest covered, and intersected by large rivers, navigable for a long way inland. The interior is more elevated, and the scenery often fine and even grand; but except that there are several mountain ranges and large lakes—such as that of Kimbalu, thirty-five miles by thirty, with thickly-peopled banks—very little is accurately known regarding the central portion of this rich, fertile, and important island. The finest crops are grown almost without cultivation; maize, rice, sago, yams, cotton, sugar, pepper, and other spices, betel, tobacco, cassia, gutta-percha, camphor, &c., are among a few of the products; but abundance of gold, iron, platina, tin, antimony, and copper are known to exist in many places; and, among the Malay Islands, Borneo, as yet, is the only one in which diamonds have been discovered. The annual yield of gold is said to be about £250,000, nearly £1,200 worth having been exported in 1870 from Bruni alone; and the number of diamonds found can never be accurately ascertained, as the successful finds are usually concealed, lest ulterior consequences may befall the fortunate discoverer. At Landak, in the Chinese (now Dutch) territory of Pontianak, about 300 years ago, there was found a diamond weighing 367 carats, and of late years some very large ones have turned up in the quartzose gravel and conglomerate. There are also beds of tertiary coal, only partially worked; and among the sea products may be noted the famous swallows'-nests (formed by the *Collocalia esculenta* of a glutinous secretion), which command such enormous prices from the Chinese epicures, and the trepang, or *bêche-de-mer*, which is also collected and dried here for the same people with such peculiar dietetic tastes. The orang-utan inhabits the swampy forests in great numbers, and the woods abound with many other forms of life; among others, tapirs, elephants, rhinoceros, tigers, bears, wild oxen, the Argus pheasant (p. 249), peacocks, and flamingoes; while the rivers, swamps, and lagoons swarm with fish, as well as crocodiles and

other reptiles. Here also the wide-spread durian, "the fruit of the East," and the mangosteen attain their greatest development, and the pitcher plants (*Nepenthes*) are found in their maximum abundance and variety. The plants are not only many in number and peculiar, but the Bornean flora is interesting in this respect, that on the summit of Kimbalu, 13,698 feet high,* there were discovered by Mr. Low some Australian species not found elsewhere in the Malay Archipelago.

The population is chiefly composed of the Malays known as Dyaks, a peaceful, honest, and highly intelligent race in the interior; but near the coast, even until recently, there were hordes of fierce pirates and murderers, whose incursions were the terror of the traders, and even of the captains of European vessels who might be becalmed among these islands. But, in addition, there are great numbers of other Malay tribes, particularly Bugis from the Celebes, Kyans, Negritos, and a large number of Chinese, who in wealth and aggressiveness are pre-eminent over all the other immigrants who have flocked thither. Their secret societies, or "Hueys," and trade guilds, known as the Kungsi, have more than once given great trouble to the authorities, and on one occasion in the early history of Sarawak precipitated a revolution, which for a time enabled the leaders to overpower the regular authorities.

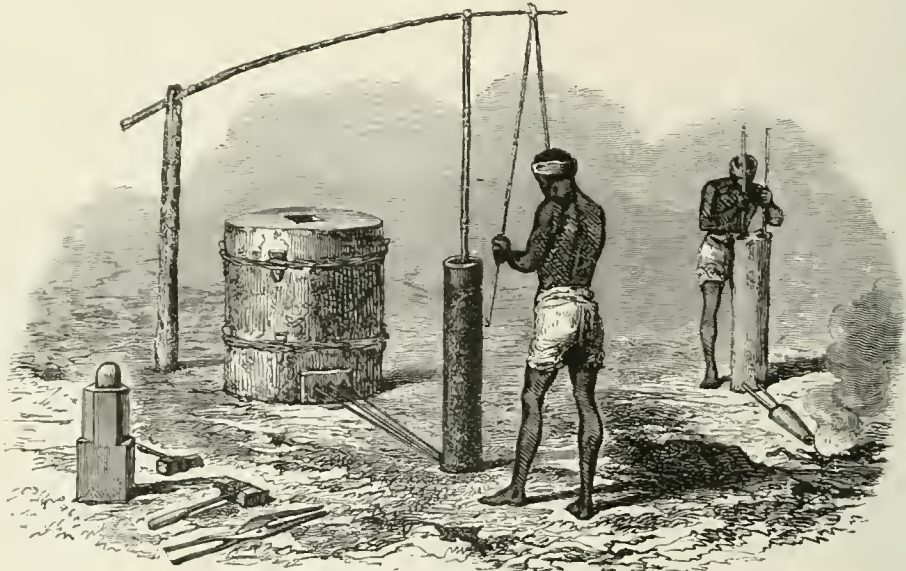
Politically, two-thirds of Borneo—the western and south-eastern sides—belong to Holland, and is administered by Residents, with the aid of the native Sultans. In 1871 the population of this territory was given at 335,677 natives and 131 Europeans in the western divisions, and at 847,846 natives and 320 Europeans in the south-eastern—making a total of 1,183,974. But the Malay race multiplies slowly, though there is no reason to believe that it is decreasing, the early estimates, which put the population of the island down at three or four millions, being obviously exaggerations.

Borneo proper, or Bruni, is an independent country, governed by its own Sultan † (Abdul Muncin), who, though nominally absolute, is controlled in his power by his subordinate chiefs, each one of whom aims at being, and generally manages to be, his own master. However, Bruni is remarkable as being one of the few Malay kingdoms which still maintain even the semblance of independence. The country is governed after a wretched fashion, being divided up among the ruling powers, who oppress and plunder the common people whenever they have an opportunity, and if anything is left it is usually seized by one of that cheap form of nobility entitled to call himself a "pañgeran," and who is about as poor, as proud, and as plentiful as the Teutonic "Freiherr," his nearest European representative. The country is, however, gradually getting broken up into a number of suffragan governments, which are each exercising an amount of independence inconsistent with the rule of the Sultan being long maintained. The capital, built on the Limbary River, contains about 15,000 inhabitants, one-half of whom are dependent on the nobles, and in their names pillage to an incredible extent. Not content with robbing in behalf of their masters, they exact an additional amount in order to enrich themselves, and if goods or money are not forthcoming, the children

* According to Belcher, but Low and St. John made it only 9,500 feet.

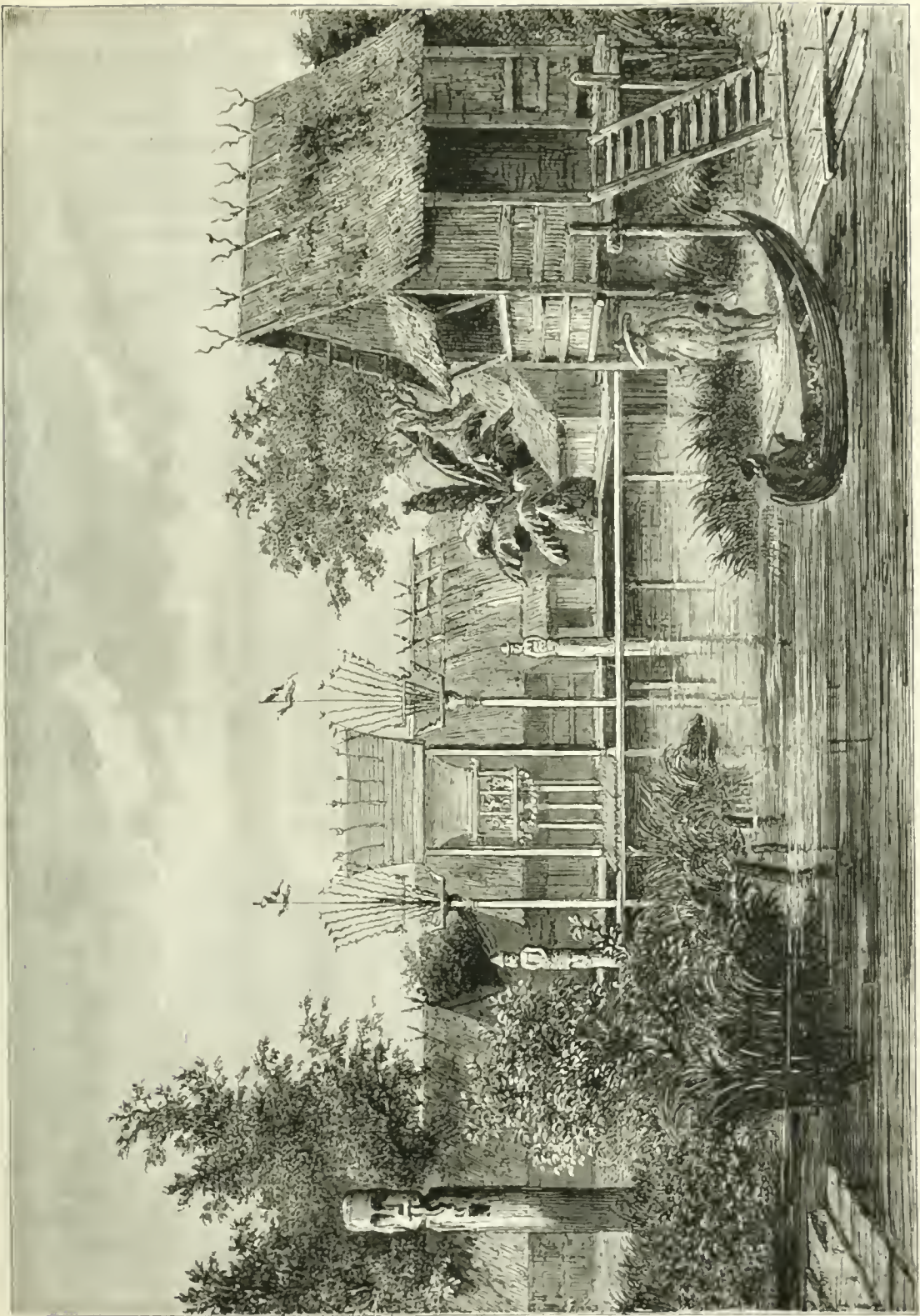
† The "Lang de per Tuan"—that is, "He who governs."

are seized and carried off into slavery. The city—as is the rule in the East—is more lovely without than within, and though of late years it has suffered, owing to the attractions of Kuching, it is still a place of some importance, especially in the sago and camphor trade. A visitor describes Bruni as perhaps “the last place on the face of the earth;” and it is, perhaps, not accusing the world of too great geographical ignorance to say that there are not a dozen people in England who ever heard of it, though it is the capital of a kingdom. The whole city is built on piles—in the usual Malay fashion—over the river or creek, which here expands into broad shallows. This system is very convenient for the lazy inhabitants, who simply raise the flimsy bamboo floor and shoot all rubbish into the river beneath. It is also handy for those ladies who wish a flirtation without the risk of absenting themselves. The suitor paddles up under the house, when the



BORNEAN BLACKSMITHS.

signal of a white rag hung out informs him that the coast is clear: occasionally, also, elopements are effected by the same means. All locomotion in Bruni is effected by means of canoes—the gondolas of the city—and there is a market held, in which the shops are goods-laden praus and canoes. There is not a path outside the city in any direction. On every side is trackless jungle. How the people all manage to live is a mystery, for a little rice will suffice a Malay for a whole week. One might be driven to suppose that, like the Scilly Islanders, they subsist by washing each other's clothes; but the general dinginess of the cotton garments forbids this hypothesis. The Chinese are the chief traders in the city, and though roguish, and often worse, they are infinitely the best class of the inhabitants, energetic, reasonable, liberal in their household arrangements, and altogether different personages from their countrymen at home. Many of them are intermarrying with the natives, and as a result of these marriages a new race is arising in Borneo, and other of the Malay islands, though there are grounds for believing that at an earlier date there



VIEW IN A VILLAGE IN BORNEO.

were Chinese colonies as far south as the Malay Archipelago. But so bad is the government that even the patient Celestials find it difficult to live in Bruni. Crime, if committed by the relations or followers of a high noble, is unpunished, as no one will act against him from fear of the enmity of his chief. Not long ago a noted thief lived quite unpunished in the city, and was even received in "good society," though his character was perfectly well known. When in want of funds he made visits of inspection to the different shops, where he was treated with a kind of "familiar deference," though for days afterwards the Chinese lived in a state of nervous suspense until the *coup* came off. But this robber was a follower of the Prime Minister. Until comparatively recently money was unknown as a general medium of exchange. Ordinary transactions were carried on in pieces of grey shirtings valued at 12s. 6d., of nankeen at 10d., and bits of iron snipped off a rod, each of which circulated as the equivalent of one farthing. But for long both the iron and the nankeen have ceased to be current, English and Chinese coin having taken their places. Grey shirting, however, is still a legal tender, though the pieces have now fallen to less than one-half their old value. Gun-metal is also often used, for the Borneans are famous for the manufacture of brass guns, and of late Bruni has attempted to rival Soloo in the manufacture of crises, the famous Malay sword-knives, but in both places they prefer to employ in their work the iron which is taken off English cotton goods bales as the toughest and the best (p. 260).*

Sarawak is a district on the west coast of the island, comprising nearly 28,000 square miles, and a population of about 222,000, comprised of various races, though chiefly of the Dyaks and Chinese. It was granted in 1839, by the then Sultan of Borneo, to Sir James Brooke, an Englishman, who at his own cost was instrumental in putting down piracy on the shores of the island. From being a typical Malay state, the exertions of the late rajah and his nephew, the present one, Sarawak and its capital, Kuching—a town of 20,000 inhabitants, on the Sarawak River, sixteen miles from the sea—have become the seat of an incipient civilisation and considerable commerce, and is visited by Malays from far and near, almost incredulous that so well-ordered a government can exist anywhere in the island otherwise so ill-governed—especially in those parts under the control of the Sultan. The Sea Dyaks, once the terror of the Archipelago, are now among some of the most loyal and best behaved of Sarawak subjects, and are relied upon as a local militia in case of trouble and danger. It was they who, though in early times so sternly dealt with by the rajah, flocked to the defence of Sir James Brooke when the rebellion of the Chinese forced him in 1857 to flee from his capital, and who pursued the mutineers through the forest, until the miserable remnant of them found shelter within the Dutch territory. The Chinese are, however, now a well-conducted community, and will never again dream of such a rash experiment as that which ended for them so disastrously twenty-two years ago.† The government of Sarawak—which is a mild

* Spencer St. John: "Life in the Forests of the Far East," Vol. I., p. 89, and Vol. II., p. 278; Keppel: "Voyage of the Dido" (1846); Roorda van Eysinga: "Verschill. reizen en lotgevallen," Vol. IV.; Earl: "Eastern Seas" (1837); Marryat: "Borneo" (1848); H. St. John: "The Indian Archipelago" (1853); Schwaner: "Borneo" (1855); Veth: "Borneo's Westerdarceeling" (1854-1856); Boyle: "Adventures among the Dyaks of Borneo" (1865); Guido Coras *Cosmos* (1874); and for Dutch contributions, Veth: "Woordenboek van Nederlandsche Indie" (1869), &c.

† Of late years the Dutch have also been compelled to suppress their aspirations after an independent republic by force of arms, and to impose a poll-tax, in the hope of checking the Mongol immigration.

despotism, well suited to the character and inclinations of the people ruled—profiting, however, by their costly experience in the past, has made the offence of being a leader of a secret society among the Chinese a capital one. The supreme power is in the hands of the rajah and his European officers, aided by a legislative council, composed of two Europeans and five native Malay chiefs. At intervals a national assembly, composed of between fifty and sixty representative natives and Europeans, discuss, confirm, or reject any important modification of native customs, or change in the law. The government of the various districts and out-stations, forts and rivers, is entrusted mostly to European officers, who are termed Residents, and subordinates, or assistant Residents. There are also courts of law where justice is administered, chiefly upon the basis of the English code, though with special enactments made to meet the particular circumstances of the people and country. Slavery, for instance, is still permitted, though its evils have been narrowed down to the point at which its continuance can do little harm, and so strictly are the laws framed in regard to the treatment of the bondmen and bondwomen that every facility is given for them to obtain their freedom. There is a permanent military force—the “Sarawak Rangers”—mainly recruited from the Dyaks, and numbering about 200 men. In addition, about 25,000 warriors could at a very short warning be collected from the native tribes. The naval force consists of a gun-boat, a small screw steamer, and two heavy river steam launches. At Kuching, the “Astana,” or residence of the rajah, the court-house, the forts, barracks, and prison are the chief buildings. Roads are being cut in different directions through the forest, but at present the numerous streams and rivers intersecting the country form the principal routes of communication. In addition to two trading steamers, the tonnage of Sarawak consists of schooners and small coasting craft, which collect raw sago, sago flour, pearl sago, antimony, quicksilver, gold, coal, timber, gutta-percha, india-rubber, cocoa-nuts, rice, dammar, gum, diamonds, canes, and dye-woods from the different settlements up the rivers and along the coasts. Pepper and gambier are now being largely cultivated, and other branches of agricultural industry are being largely attended to by the natives. Altogether the territory exports about £250,000 worth of goods, and imports a little less than that amount. In 1877—I have not been able to obtain any returns for 1878—the revenue was £37,110, and the expenditure £33,933. The taxes are principally derived from farms, such as opium, arrack, pawnbroking, and even gambling. The royalty on minerals—chiefly antimony—is also an important item in the Sarawak Raj. There is also an exemption tax of two dollars per head levied on all the Malays who do not serve in the militia, and a capitation tax of three dollars per family for the Dyaks, bachelors paying one-half, and militiamen less. Customs, land, and township lots form the other sources of income. There is also a public debt, which consists of the considerable sums which were advanced from his private fortune by the late rajah, Sir James Brooke, and which now form a mortgage or first charge upon the public assets of Sarawak.

The country is capable of great development. At present it is little more than a great dense forest, intersected in every direction by rivers and streams, and varied by the mountain ranges which traverse it in various directions. Its timbers are fine, and all but inexhaustible; and its minerals, though already valuable, are not worked to half the extent they will be by-and-by. The coal mines are capable of yielding



ANTELOPE HUNTING IN BORNEO.

neighbourhood of the Matang and Santubong ranges, and in the vicinity of Kuching, are particularly striking and romantic. The climate is wet, 182° inches of rain having fallen in 1876. Nevertheless, it appears to be fairly healthy for Europeans, numbers of whom live at Kuching. In the mountains the atmosphere is comparatively cool, but on the coast the average temperature is higher than at Labuan, and may be averaged at 85° Fah. The Government of Sarawak is not faultless, but we must remember the material the two Brookes have had to deal with. The country, under its present dynasty, is not yet forty years old, and yet a comparison of its institutions and even-handed justice with the rapacity, disorder, and oppression of Bruni is not flattering to the larger kingdom. It is, indeed, not too much to say that if there is any hope for the Malays ever to arise from the sensuality, greed, and indolence which are year after year more and more characterising them, especially in Borneo, it is to be found in the extension of the kingdom of Sarawak under its present rulers. The Raleigh-like tale of the young English adventurer who carved out a kingdom for himself, and brought good government and justice to a race for ages strangers to either, will long form a prominent chapter in nineteenth century romance. But when the cost of ruling a country is being weighed, politico-economists ought not to forget that in Sarawak they may see a king reigning over 28,000 square miles of territory, with a population of over 200,000 souls, keeping up a respectable military force, garrisoning and maintaining fourteen forts, paying a competent staff of European officers and native authorities, and maintaining three gun-boats to protect commerce and agriculture and guarantee safety to his subjects—all on less than £40,000 *per annum*. Sarawak stands on good terms with her neighbours, and though the rajah is, *de jure et de facto*, a foreign prince, he clings to his English nationality, and considers "British interests" as paramount within his dominions.* But that eventually Sarawak will be also British ground we think there can be but little doubt.

Under the political divisions of Borneo I have not included the new *Maharajahate of Sabak*, which has come into notice within the last few months, because its existence is very precarious, and its recognition by any civilised power about equally shadowy. The territory so called consists of a tract in the northern end of the island, part of which had been previously ceded to the American Trading Company of Borneo. The present concession is, however, made to a British company by the Sultans of Borneo and of Sooloo, the latter of whom also claims some sovereignty of a nominal description over part of the ceded territory. By these treaties, a country, extending from Kimanis on the north-west coast to the Siboco River on the east, possessing fine harbours and navigable rivers, rich in agricultural soil and mineral wealth, is made over to the new company, a certain Baron de Overbeck, who seems to have been the negotiator, having been proclaimed Maharajah of Sabak by the Sultan of Borneo, and Datu Bandara and Rajah of Sandakon by the Sultan of Sooloo. It does not appear that as yet much has come out of this last Malayan imitation of the East India Company and Sir James Brooke com-

* Ussher: "Reports from Her Majesty's Consuls" (1878), pp. 1-19; Mundy: "Narrative of Recent Events in Borneo" (1848); Jacob: "Life of the Rajah Brooke" (1877); Brooke: "Ten Years in Sarawak" (1865); Low: "Sarawak—Its Inhabitants, &c." (1848), &c.

bined, and prudent men will wait before deciding on the nature of its prospects.* There is, however, an actual British colony, that of *Labuan*, on the little island of the same name, eight miles from the coast of Borneo. It was ceded in 1847 to the British Government by the Sultan of Bruni, but though the island possesses an area of thirty miles, and a Malay population of between 4,000 and 5,000, its importance is but slight. It has, however, capabilities. In the first place, it has a bishop; so Labuan is an example to all the neighbouring region. Then its position is good, and its forests are magnificent. Coal of a good quality is found, but the seams are little worked; and, like all the neighbouring regions, it exports to Singapore sago, beeswax, edible birds'-nest, camphor, hides, rattans, and tortoiseshell, trepang, and mother-of-pearl shells, collected either on its own territory, or on those of Borneo and the Sooloo Archipelago, to the value of about £60,000 per annum. In 1877 the revenue was £7,190, and the expenditure £300 more; which is about all that need be said regarding Labuan.

JAVA.

In importance, Java, though not so large as Borneo, is infinitely greater. It has a length of 630 miles, and a breadth ranging from 60 to 126 miles, the whole area being 51,356 square miles, containing a population of over 18,000,000, or more than four times what it possessed when, after an occupation of five years, the British Government, in 1816, returned the island to the Dutch authorities. A chain of mountains, containing volcanic peaks, reaching the height of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet, run the whole length of the island. In all there are thirty-eight volcanoes, many of them active. But though the interior is thus rough and broken, along the coast there exist, especially at the mouths of the numerous small rivers which take their rise in this central range, rich alluvial flats, well suited for the growth of rice, though, like most rice grounds, very unhealthy. However, Europeans can find among the mountains a cool climate, and as railways have now intersected much of the island, it is easy to leave the lowlands behind and reach the breezy uplands when business is over. A journey from the coast to the mountains leads the traveller through vegetation the most gorgeous (pp. 273, 276), for in perhaps none of the Malay Islands has Nature been more bountiful than here. On the slopes of the mountains there have been extensive clearances for coffee plantations, which contrast pleasantly with the dense forests which yet cover much of the island. In the warm, damp lowlands may be often seen the strange *Rafflesia*, one of the most gigantic of flowers,† growing parasitic chiefly on the bark of a species of *Cissus*. We now know several species of the genus, but the best known is the one figured (p. 268), which was discovered in 1818 in Sumatra, by Dr. Arnold, physician to Sir Stamford Raffles, who, during the English occupation, governed Java, and subsequently the settlement of Bencoolen in Sumatra. It will sometimes attain a width of a yard, but the blossoms do not last long after expanding; they soon decay and become fetid. Another still more famous Javanese tree is the notorious upas, or chettik, which was long rumoured to kill everybody

* *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1879), p. 21; and *Ibid.*, September 28th, 1878.

† It forms with *Brugmansia*, and a few other genera the order *Rafflesiaceæ*.

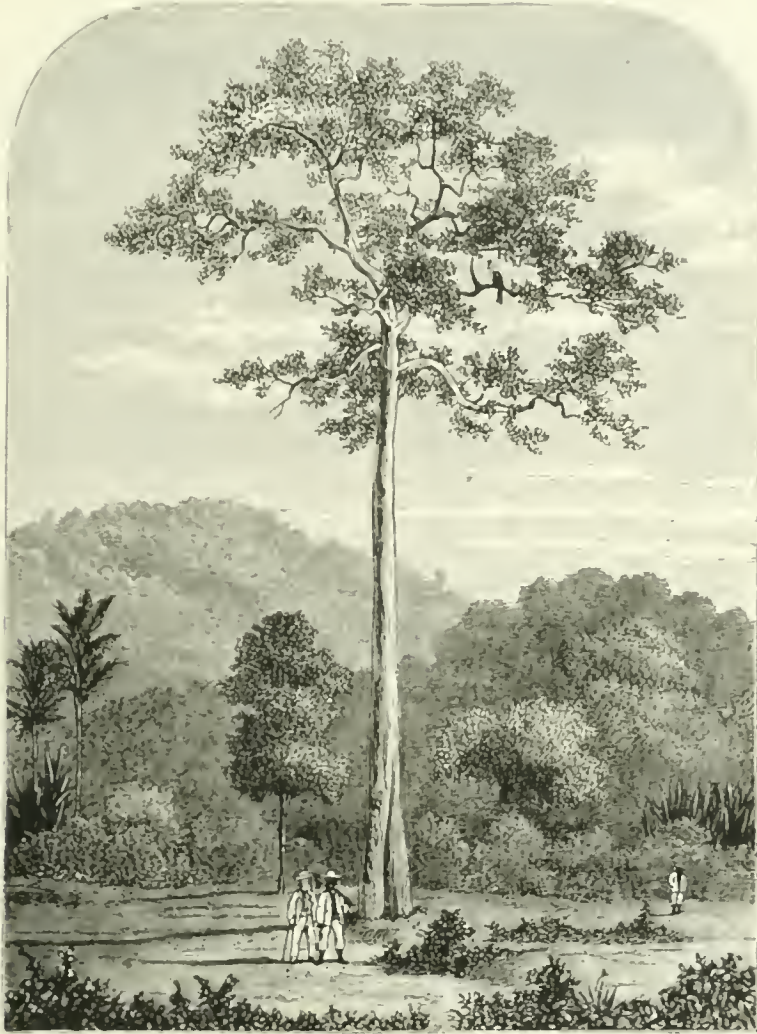
who went under its shade. A Dutch surgeon, who is understood to have lived towards the close of last century, is usually credited with being the original inventor of the apocryphal history of this disagreeable vegetable. The tree was described as growing in a desert tract with no other plant near it for a distance of ten or twelve miles. Criminals condemned to die got the option of either suffering the extremity of the law, or going to the upas tree and collecting some of the poison. But not more than two out of every twenty survived their dangerous expedition. The "surgeon" claimed to have derived his knowledge from those who had been lucky enough to escape with life over a desert strewn with the whitened bones of their less fortunate predecessors. "There are no fish



RAFLESIA ARNOLDI, THE GIANTIC PARASITIC PLANT OF JAVA AND SUMATRA.

in the waters, nor has any rat, mouse, or any other vermin been seen there; and when any birds fly so near this tree that the effluvia reaches them, they fall a victim to the effects of the poison." Out of a population of 1,600 persons who were compelled on account of civil dissensions to reside within a few miles of this tree, only 300 remained in less than two months. It is, however, unnecessary to quote the "Dutch surgeon" further, for it is understood that "Dr. Foersch" is a literary myth. The account first appeared in the *London Magazine*, but no man, so far as I am aware, has been able to discover the original of the tale, and it is generally understood that the whole was the work of George Steevens, an unscrupulous antiquary, who was never happier than when entrapping his contemporaries in the meshes of some ingenious hoax. However, the story was too attractive not to seize the imagination. Erasmus Darwin embalmed it in his stately verses, poets of a less scientific type followed his example, while painters innumerable vied with each other in picturing the scene of so much desolation. In reality

the tree is a spurge (*Antiaris toxicaria*), which, when pierced, exudes a milky juice, containing, as is usually the case with such plants, an acrid poison. But, so far from being as pestilent as described, the tree has been cultivated in our botanic gardens, and is known to grow in the Java woods along with other vegetation, which it does not



THE UPAS TREE (*Antiaris toxicaria*) OF JAVA.

injure, and on its branches birds and lizards have often been seen to perch. It is, however, fair to say that the soil on which it grows is often cavernous, and in "the valley of death" exhales carbonic acid and sulphurous vapours, which are fatal to animal life, and that from the same causes operating in the streams, many of the latter are destitute of fishes. The juice is also used as an arrow poison, and often causes disagreeable irritation, or worse, to those who climb the tree, or wear a garment made of the inner bark. This irritating character is, however, common to the juice of the order to which

the upas belongs. The tree is not confined to Java, for a traveller describes it as flourishing in a valley near the town of Bruni, in Borneo, surrounded by hills covered with dense vegetation. It is, however, curious, as proving that the ancient tales about it are based on some foundation of fact, that the natives are afraid to go under its shade, and declare that birds who alight on its branches often fall off dead.

On the higher elevations, Mr. Wallace notes that the ravines and mountain gorges exhibit many beautiful "bits" of tropical scenery, the tree-fern, with its feathery crown fifty feet in height, and palm and ginger tree, begonias and melastomas, lycopods and orchids, hanging in all their florid beauty from the branches of the strange trees overhanging the wooded precipices. Still higher up, at about 5,000 feet, horsetails (*Equisetum*) begin to appear; at greater elevations still raspberries can be plucked, and, at 7,000 feet, the cool mountains support several species of *Rubus*. Next cypresses appear, fruit-trees decrease in size and in the number of species, while lichens and mosses become numerous. At 8,000 feet the vegetation with which we are familiar in Europe makes its appearance, many of the plants which flourish at this elevation being identical with those of Britain. South-east of Batavia, at 9,000 feet up Mount Pangerango, grows the Imperial Cowslip (*Primula imperialis*), said to be found here alone. On the tops of still higher peaks grow bushes, lichens, and mosses, and flowers of species identical in many cases with those found in Europe. Java has thus many climates: in the lowlands are cultivated coffee, sugar, and rice in large quantities; and on certain soils, indigo, spices, tobacco, tea, and cochineal. Most visitors to Java leave it with the impression that, take it all in all, it is the finest and most interesting tropical island in the world, though not the first in size, being in area only about equal to England. But no tract of sea-surrounded soil within the tropics equals it in fertility and populousness. Mr. Wallace describes the whole surface as magnificently varied with mountain and forest scenery, most of the volcanoes being also in constant activity. Yet, though all the phenomena of subterranean fires are exhibited by them, they never emit the lava streams so familiar as the concomitants of volcanic eruptions in the rest of the world. The moisture and heat cause the country to be clothed with forests, in which live a great variety of animals—especially birds and insects—of the most beautiful and interesting forms, and many of them peculiar to the island.

The history of Java is a curious one.* Up to the year 1478, the Hindoo religion, now confined in the Malay Islands solely to Bali, flourished here; and those professing it attained, as is evident from the remains of magnificent temples, overgrown by the jungle, a stage of civilisation which their Malay conquerors never reached. In that year Mohammedanism replaced the Brahminical faith, and is still the ruling religion of the island (Plate XXXIX), for the Dutch interfere in no way with the belief of the natives.

The Netherlanders got a footing in the country first in 1677, in which year they found the King at war with the Portuguese. As the price of assisting him against his enemies, the new-comers received permission to build a factory, and in due time, imitating their rivals in the Bay of Bengal, managed little by little to obtain possession

* Raffles: "History of Java" 1830.

and control of the whole island. In 1811, when Holland was incorporated with France, Great Britain seized it, but after the fall of Napoleon surrendered it again to the Dutch, who still hold it, though they did not become sole masters of the island without a long and sanguinary struggle terminating in 1830. Even yet two States are nominally ruled by native Princes, whose power is more ornamental than real. In Java, we find exhibited to perfection the culture system, which has been previously noted (p. 246) as prevailing in Celebes, Banda, and other Dutch East Indian possessions. The native nobility are kept favourable to the Dutch rule by being retained to assist in the Government under the name of "Regents." Each of these Regents—usually selected from the Princes' families—governs a district about the size of a small English county. The Regent is, in reality, governed in his turn by the Dutch Resident, or Assistant Resident, who is considered his "elder brother," but expects his "recommendation" to be obeyed more implicitly than the suggestions of elder brothers usually are. The Resident is assisted by the "Kontroleur," who acts as an inspector of all the smaller native rulers, hears complaints against them, and superintends the Government plantations, and the famous—or infamous—"culture system." This was originally introduced by General van den Bosch, whose plan was, nevertheless, not "what his name might imply." It was "brutally practical," for it was based on the principle of so utilising the labour of the natives as to make it produce not only a sufficiency of food for their own consumption, but also the largest possible quantity of produce for sale in the European markets. Accordingly, the island—with the neighbouring one of Madura—is divided into twenty-three residences, the rulers of which exercise, as has already been indicated, control through the native officials, whose interest it is, therefore, to keep on terms with the Dutch Government, for on their advancing the interests of the Government depends their own tenure of office. These native officials receive salaries or percentages on the produce delivered into the Government stores. At present, forced labour is only exacted for the production of sugar and coffee, though formerly, in addition, indigo, pepper, tea, tobacco, and other crops were raised in this way. Furthermore, in 1890 the forced cultivation of sugar-cane is to be entirely abolished. No system has been more attacked. Novels have been written exposing its iniquities, and travellers whose ideas were formed on the strictest principles of political philosophy have execrated it in volumes too numerous to catalogue. There cannot be a doubt that, theoretically, the "culture system" is indefensible. Yet, nevertheless, Java is a well-governed, orderly State, where the moralist may study with advantage the problem of how to make the best of a colony, with the greatest amount of profit to the mother-country, and the minimum of misery to those who contribute the revenue. That it has been profitable admits of no dispute. Aided by the Netherlands Trading Company, Java, which prior to 1833 was a loss to Holland, is now a source of profit. Since the year 1838, the island has contributed to the Netherlands over £30,000,000, with a corresponding addition to its own revenue. Increase of population is generally admitted to be a sign of national prosperity. Viewed from this standpoint also, Java must be prospering; for while in 1826 the census showed a population of 5,500,000, and at the beginning of the century only 3,500,000, in the year 1850 it was found to be over 9,500,000, and in 1875

18,335,778,* including 28,229 Europeans, 195,381 Chinese, 9,027 Arabs, and 13,839 Hindoos and other nationalities. This shows the population to be twice as dense as that of Bengal, and much denser even than that of Britain.

On the whole, after studying Felix Batel, "Max Havelar," and M. de Beauvoir on the one side, and Mr. Money and Mr. Wallace on the other, I am inclined to agree with Sir David Wedderburn that, though the system may not be perfect, it is really about the best which under the circumstances could have been devised. In Java, a vast majority of the inhabitants are subject to Mohammedan law, interpreted by the priests and founded on the Koran. Accordingly, as it is necessary to withdraw Christians from the jurisdiction



JAVANESE CARTS.

of the Moslem tribunals, it may be said generally that any one, even a black man, professing Christianity, has the privileges of a European. There is, however, in Netherlandish India no privileged religion—Europeans, Mussulmans, Buddhists, Hindoos, are alike in this respect before the law. There is also, in addition to the varied nationalities—civilised, semi-civilised, and savage—a new race, the offspring of Javanese mothers and Chinese fathers, arising on the island. They are said to be superior to either of them, and to bear a certain resemblance to the Japanese (p. 277). There is also kept up an army of about 30,000 men for use in the Indian Netherlands, but of these the great majority are natives of the islands. In the Netherlands there exists no idea of governing the country solely for the benefit of the natives. The Dutch, for example, do not look upon a Javanese as a political equal. They discourage the use of Dutch and other European languages, and have made no organised effort to introduce schools or a national system of education among

* Writing in 1878, Sir David Wedderburn (*Fortnightly Review*, No. cxxx., III. New Series, p. 100) puts the number at "over 24,000,000."



VIEW IN THE ENVIRONS OF BOGHOR, JAVA.

them. But, on the other hand, they guaranteed, in "exchange for the wealth which the natives give their country, peace, prosperity, and religious toleration, with security of person and property. And, after paying for the maintenance of all these blessings, they consider themselves entitled to appropriate to their own use the surplus revenue." It is, of course, a question whether the "batig slot," or favourable balance paid by the Javanese to Hollanders, does not inflict a greater injury on the receiver than on the giver, by paralysing the enterprise and energy of the latter. The worst feature in the Dutch East Indian Government is, according to Max Havelar—and he is confirmed by others—the extremely optimistic character of the reports beloved of the Colonial Minister at the Hague. The best official is the one who troubles "the office" with fewest complaints against the native officials. Hence the Blue-books are all *couleur de rose*; and, though the officials do their best to keep their oath not to oppress the natives, yet with such a system prevalent it need not surprise any one that the rapacity and tyranny of the native rulers are often winked at. Of four native princes who still maintain a semblance of authority in the "Vorstenlanden," or Lands of the Princes, the greatest is the Soesoehoenan, or Soerakarta, who represents the old Mohammedan Emperors of Java. He is treated with the greatest possible respect, though a Dutch fort garrisoned by European troops commands his capital and palace. The second King, or Sultan, who lives at Djokjokarta,* is treated in a similar fashion, though both of these potentates have, like the other two minor ones, a considerable contingent of native troops under their control. The Javanese are, as a rule, well treated. Ill-usage by Europeans is all but unknown, and when detected severely punished. Yet they are still expected to show respect amounting to servility in the presence of the Dutch officials, especially in the districts remote from railways and cities. On the approach of a superior, we learn from Sir D. Wedderburn, the natives are compelled to remove their hats, to dismount if on horseback, and if on foot to sit down on the ground; those who wish to be particularly respectful will even turn their backs upon the great man, as if afraid to look such a superior person in the face. When the golden umbrella of the Dutch President passes along a crowded street, the people sink down before the badge of office heralding the presence of the highest official in the province, and rise again behind it, "like a field of ripe corn in a breeze." In Java, we find appearing the more typical animal life of the mainland. Wild bulls and tigers wander through the jungle, alarming the archæologist intent on studying the sculptures and climber-overgrown temples which lie scattered through these wilds. Among the birds is a peacock of a different species from that found in India, though almost equally gorgeous. This beautiful bird is, however, not found in Sumatra or Borneo; while, on the other hand, the Argus (p. 249), fire-backed, and ocellated pheasants of those islands, are equally unknown in Java.

In 1876, the revenue of Java and the small island of Madura which for administrative purposes is conjoined with it, was £11,746,524; the surplus, after paying expenses, being £904,205. The revenue was derived from taxes on houses and estates, customs duties, rents from crown lands, the Government monopolies of salt and opium, personal imports, and a number of other taxes in addition to the revenue derived from the sale of

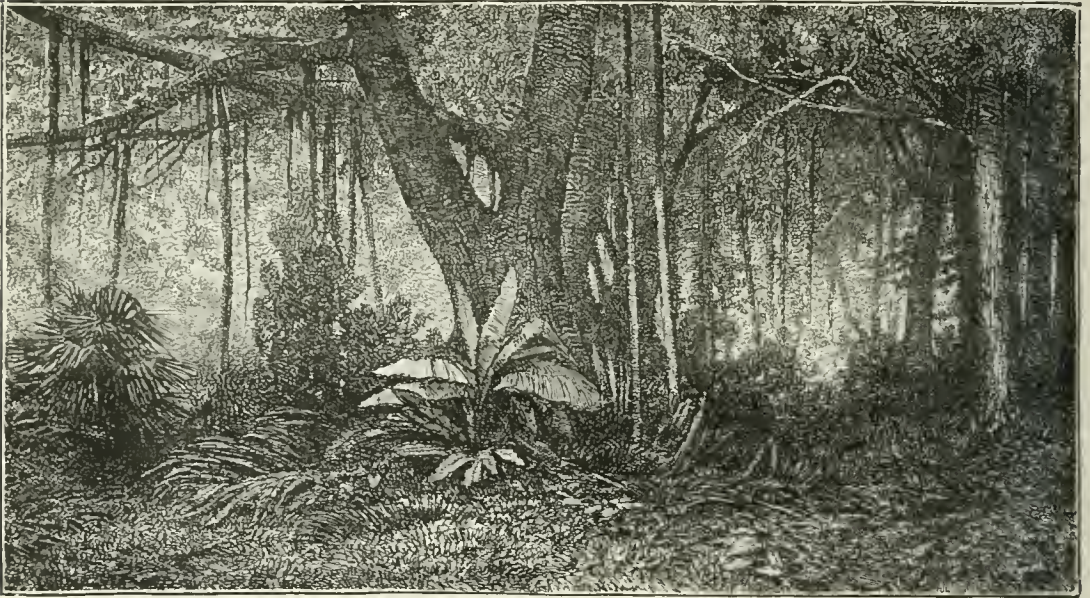
* "Races of Mankind," Vol. II., pp. 148, 149.

colonial produce, which amounted to two-thirds of the income enumerated. The exports of Java were, in 1874, £11,697,733, exclusive of specie; and the imports, £7,529,983, which may be taken as a fair average. The trade is almost entirely with the Netherlands. The commerce is carried on in behalf of the country through the Netherlands Trading Company, which advanced the money to start the "culture system," its dividend prior to that fresh departure having been paid out of the king's private purse. There are now a number of railways in the island, and altogether, the prosperity of Java is such that any fear of a rising of the mild natives may be put aside, often as such a revolt has been prophesied both in Holland and India—though it ought to be added mainly by those who had never seen the country or the people. There are a number of towns in the island, but the chief of them, and the capital, is Batavia, which had, in 1875, 99,109 inhabitants. It does not differ greatly from the other Dutch East Indian towns. The business part of the city is near the harbour, but the chief hotels, and the residences of the officials and European merchants, are in a suburb two miles off, but so laid out as to cover an extent of ground very inconvenient to those who have to walk over the coarse pebbles, or who, still more unfortunate, have to hire at a high rate carriages to convey them over the ground. For in Batavia, as in the tropics generally, everybody drives. Buitzenborg, forty miles inland, and about 1,000 feet above the sea, is celebrated for its fine climate and beautiful botanic gardens, backed by the great volcano of Gunung-Salak, silent since 1699, when it vented out volumes of mud. Java would, however, require—as it has obtained—volumes to describe it even in outline. It is undoubtedly the finest of those islands which a Dutch author has styled "a girdle of emeralds strung along the equator." Foreigners visit it only to leave it with regret, and "*notre Java bien-aimé*" has always a good word from its visitors. "Swiss mountaineers are at one with the Lowlanders of Holland upon this subject, and even islanders from Britain can hardly express dissent."

SUMATRA.

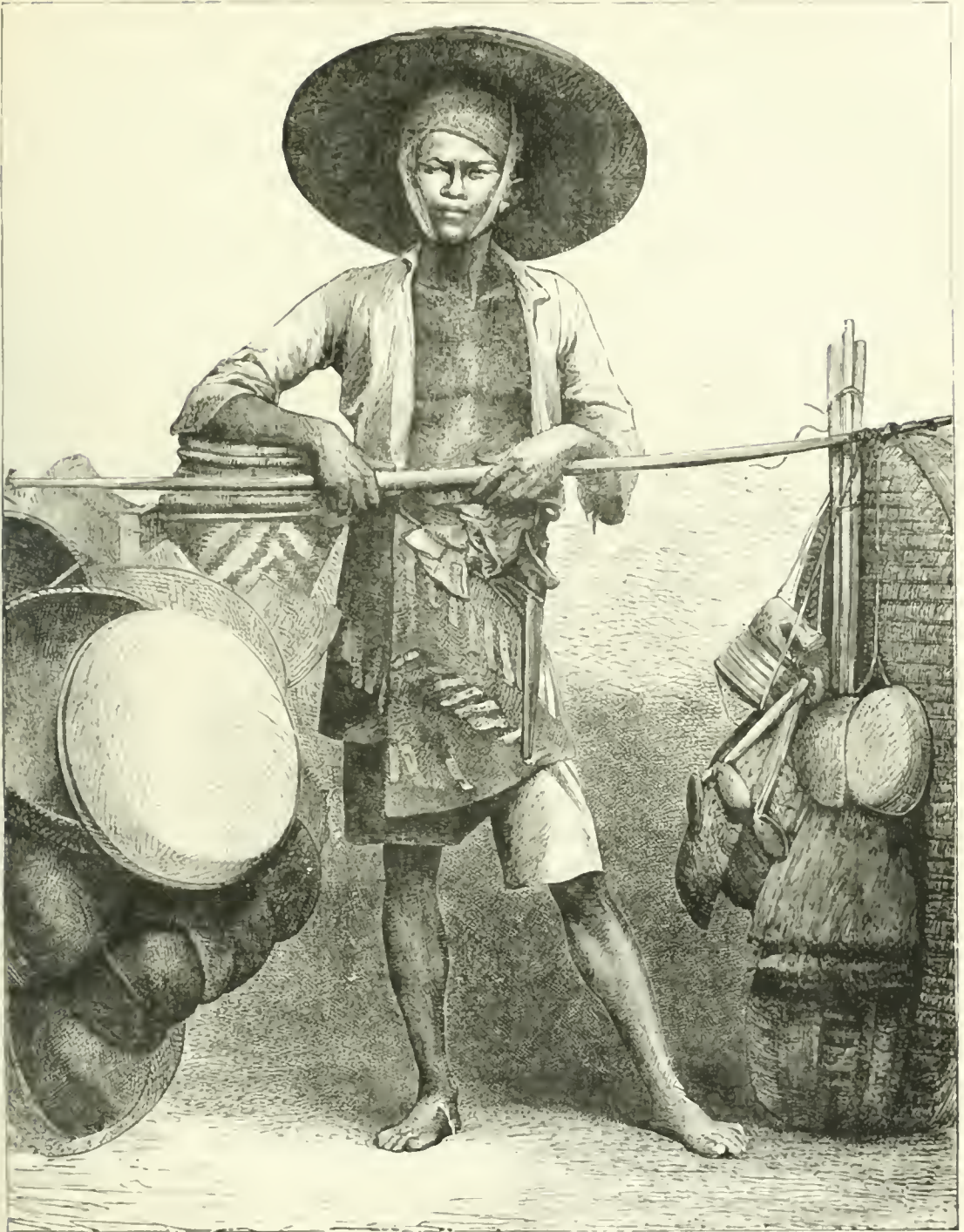
Sumatra, though the second largest of the Sundas—the group to which it and Java belong—is of infinitely less importance than the island which we have described. From north-west to south-east it is about 1,070 miles long, and averages 180 miles in breadth. Its area is altogether 130,000 square miles, and its population between 5,000,000 and 7,000,000. The interior is traversed by a range of mountains which approach nearer to the west than to the east side. Hence the principal part of the open land on the island is on the east coast. Here extend great level tracts, watered by several rivers which flow from the background of mountains to the sea. The mountains culminate in Indrapura, 12,140 feet high, and form not only a backbone to the island, but also a barrier between the healthy and unhealthy districts. The former are on the east; the latter on the west coast, the extensive swamps in this part of the country rendering the climate there exceedingly baneful, though, as a rule, Sumatra is neither very hot nor very pestilent. The fertile soil yields all kinds of tropical products, but the staple is black pepper, of which immense quantities are exported annually. The elephant, tiger, rhinoceros, a black bear, deer, a wild boar, and several species of monkey, the chief of which is the orang-utan,

frequent the woods ; and among birds may be mentioned the Argus pheasant, and numerous parrots and hornbills ; while in the swampy rivers crocodiles are numerous, and boa-constrictors infest the low grounds. The chief town is Palembang, 100 miles up the river of the same name. At the place where the city is built, the river is as wide as the Thames at Greenwich, and for three or four miles along its curve the houses are built. But a great many of the houses are erected on piles projecting into the stream, and within these again are moored bamboo rafts on which still humbler superstructures are reared. Most of these river-front houses are occupied by shops, so that marketing in Palembang is easily and expeditiously accomplished from a boat. A true Malay loves, above all things, to travel by water, and to build a house on piles, if by any possibility this can be done.



A FOREST VIEW IN JAVA.

Accordingly, in Palembang, in addition to Chinese and Arabs, who are the chief traders, and a handful of Dutch civil and military officials, nearly all the population belong to the amphibious race. A Sumatran Malay village is very picturesque. The houses are strewn within an enclosing fence, without any regard to regularity, and plentifully shaded by tall cocoa-nut trees. The dwellings themselves are raised on posts, and are usually built of bamboo or of carved planks, with high-pitched roofs and overhanging eaves. Living is very simple in these out-of-the-way places. The natives are not poor, for their wives and children are laden with silver armlets from wrist to elbow, and carry round their necks, or suspended from their ears, enough of silver coins to put a family into affluent circumstances ; yet a pot of rice boiled dry, and eaten with salt or red pepper, forms their daily food throughout the greater part of the year. They do not seem to care for anything better. For though fowls could be reared in any quantities few are seen about the villages, and the fruits grown are usually some poor bananas. The Malays are very fond of animals. Hence



A BASKET MERCHANT OF BATAVIA.

tame squirrels—not kept in cages, but encouraged to form colonies in the trees in the vicinity of the villages—are common, and monkeys may be commonly seen gambolling in the trees

overhanging the houses in the less frequented localities. The orang-utan was first discovered in Sumatra, but it is little known to the inhabitants, and therefore cannot be common in the frequented districts; it is probably confined to the north-west. The flying lemur (*Galeopithecus*) is, however, common, and, like the *cuscus* (p. 232) of the Moluccas, lives principally on leaves. It is not the zoology, but, next to the vegetation, the mineral products of Sumatra, which constitute its riches. Gold and tin are mined, and iron, copper, sulphur, saltpetre, and arsenic are also found. The natives manufacture coarse cotton stuffs and silks, and also do a little in the way of filagree plaiting, net, and basket making, and forging of weapons. In addition to black pepper, there are also exported rice, maize, cocoa-nuts, sago, sugar, cotton, tobacco, camphor, coral, and other products. The greater part of the island acknowledges the supremacy of the Dutch, but several native sovereignties still stubbornly hold their own. Among these is Atcheen, against which, for the last five or six years, the Dutch have persistently fought, without, however, having until very recently made much impression on the Atcheenese and their determined Sultan. The Hollanders established themselves first in Sumatra in 1599, but in spite of the unhealthiness of the west coast, two of their chief settlements—Bencoolen and Pandang—are situated on that shore. Off the east coast lie a chain of islands, the chief of which are Pulo Si Maloc, Pulo Nias, the Mautawi Isles, and Engano; while, off the south-western end, Banca and Biliton are of considerable size.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

Separating Sumatra from the Malay peninsula is the Strait of Malacca. The peninsula itself is a long, club-like stretch of land, inhabited chiefly by Malays, and to a great extent governed by native rajahs, some of whom owe a *quasi* allegiance to England, but most of them, when not independent, are claimed by the King of Siam as his suffragans. The English have, however, long had a footing here, and under the name of the Straits Settlements possess four colonies, or semi-colonies, in this quarter. The chief of these is Singapore, consisting of an island situated at the end of the peninsula, and separated from the mainland by a strait about three-quarters of a mile broad. The length of the island is only about 27 miles, and its breadth 11; though within the area of 224 square miles is a population of 99,500. The surface of the island is hilly, but none of these hills—of which there are a multitude—is over 500 feet in height, and the summits of many of them, notwithstanding the labours of the Chinese wood-cutters, are covered with dense forests, through which an inconvenient multitude of tigers roam, in spite of the pitfalls dug for their reception.

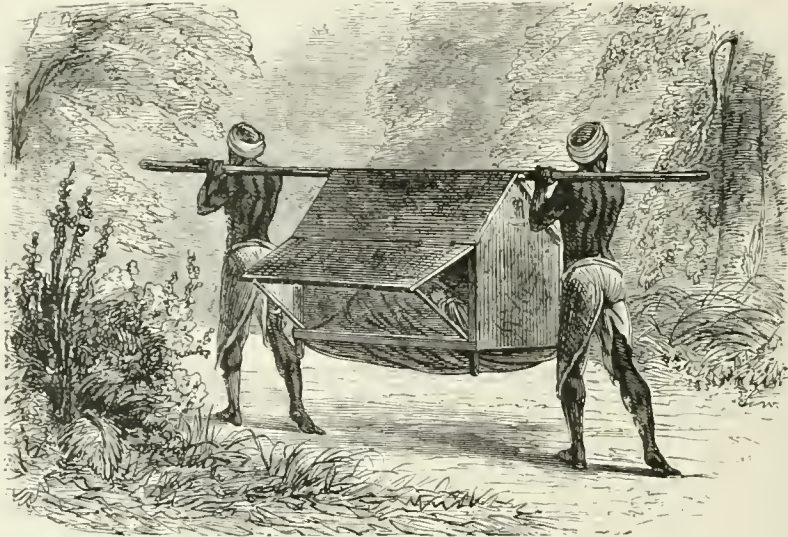
In addition to the chief island, there are a number of smaller ones belonging to the colony, but the town of Singapore (p. 284) not only forms the capital of the colony of the same name, but the seat of government for the whole of the four settlements in the Straits. It is to a visitor a most interesting place, as its 56,000 inhabitants comprise specimens of almost every maritime nation of Asia, eager to pick up some of the trade which has centred here since the English took possession of it in 1819. The Government officials, the garrison, and the principal merchants, are English; the fishermen

and the bulk of the population are Malays, who are also the policemen of the town; and the little shopkeepers or merchants, as well as the clerks, are Portuguese. The Klings of Western India, and the Arabs also, try their hand at small huxtering; the grooms and washermen are Bengalees; and from India is also sent the small but highly respected contingent of Parsees, who, as usual, are merchants and bankers. Through the sultry streets ride and walk this motley throng, each man with characteristic individuality wearing the costume of his own nation, mingled with Javanese sailors and servants, traders from Celebes, Bali, and the other Malay Islands, sleepy-eyed Chinese—who here prosper as they prosper scarcely anywhere else—and seamen from the various war-ships in the harbour. The harbour itself is a study. Alongside of men-of-war from Europe and America may be found hundreds of Malay praus and Chinese junks—vessels all sizes, from the vessel of several hundred tons' burden to the little fishing-boats and passenger sampans. The town itself is well fitted to minister to the wants and religious feelings of this motley population, for amid handsome buildings in the Western fashion can be found "Mohammedan mosques, Hindoo temples, Chinese poor-houses, good European houses, massive warehouses, queer old Kling and Chinese bazaars, and long suburbs of Chinese and Malay cottages." In the bazaars small articles can be bought as cheap or cheaper than in Europe; and, while not incapable of taking a great deal less than he first asked, the Kling, or Chinese shopkeeper, is invariably good-natured, and if one can judge from the houses and equipages of the latter, seem to prosper exceedingly. In the bazaar are tailors *à la table*, shoemakers, and barbers busy at work shaving heads and cleaning ears. In the out-skirts of the town are scores of carpenters and blacksmiths. The first seem to devote their talents to the construction of coffins, and decorated clothes-boxes; the latter, to a great extent, to the manufacture of flint-lock guns, with barrels bored out of a solid bar of iron. In the streets are sellers of water, vegetables, fruit, soup, and agar-agar—a jelly made out of sea-weed*—whose cries are as unintelligible as those of London. Some of the shopless shopkeepers carry a portable cooking apparatus on a pole, balanced by a table on the other hand. At the slightest indication of a hungry pedestrian wanting a meal, the table is planted in a quiet corner, and a meal of rice, shell-fish, and vegetables—costing two or three half-pence—is served.† Coolies and boatmen wanting to be hired are met everywhere, and so low are wages that even the few European servants in the town have coolies to wait upon them, the London coachman finding it necessary to his comfort and health when he drives out to have a Malay sit beside him with an umbrella, to shelter him from the torrid sun. The city is rapidly progressing, more especially in its European features, such as docks, bridges, and good Government offices. Of late years, however, the number of Chinese and Malay vessels in the harbour has decreased, steam driving from the sea many of the smaller traders. For the same reason, the number of square-rigged sailing vessels visiting Singapore is fewer than in former times. Commercial Square is the chief business centre of the town, and is made up of buildings both old and new. Here are the principal shops,

* *Gracilaria lichonoides*. For long it was believed that the edible swallows' nests (p. 258) were composed of a species of sea-weed. It is, however, now generally considered that their substance is a peculiar secretion derived from the birds themselves.

† Wallace: "Malay Archipelago," pp. 20-25

stores, banking houses, and merchants' offices, and in this cosmopolitan quarter European and Chinese pursue their business side by side. The old merchants, however, lament these days of steam and telegraphs. In the era of sailing vessels they might hear about once in six months from home. They had abundance of leisure, not a great deal of care, and a chance of much profit. They lived above their offices, a small but happy community; and a few successful shipments of produce from the Spice Islands often enabled the fortunate trader to retire with a handsome fortune. Now grandeur has taken the place of comfort, and such is the continual communication by mail and telegraph, that even Sunday is not a day sacred from work to the unhappy clerks and their employers, the exigencies of "the mail" too often infringing on their once ample idleness. In addition to its older connections, Singapore now does a considerable business with Australia. Hence, Australian horses are



A JAVANESE PALANQUIN.

common in the island, though in beauty they cannot for a moment compare with the symmetrically moulded Sumatran ponies, which compete with them in the market, and may be seen any evening harnessed to "buggies," or ridden along the esplanade and Beach Road, the favourite promenade and drive along the sea-shore. A carriage is almost an essential of life in the tropics, and judging from the number every evening on the Beach Road, nearly every foreign resident of any consequence in Singapore shares that comfortable belief. The merchants in Singapore, indeed, live in an ostentatiously expensive fashion. Their houses and carriages are the finest that they can afford, or—if all reports are true—very much finer; but as Europeans enjoy living in the island, and often make it their home for the greater portion of their life, their desire to be comfortable is not to be wondered at. Their houses are doubtless elegant, and Nature has supplied lavishly what art has failed in effecting. Many of them are approached by lovely avenues of fruit trees arching overhead, and around the mansion itself is the same profusion of vegetation, almost concealing, until the visitor is close at hand, the red-tile roof which

forms the usual mark of a European dwelling. "If it be early morning," writes Mr. Thomson, whose notes we are drawing upon, "there is an unspeakable charm about the spot. The air is cool, even bracing; and here, with the shade of a group of forest trees which the axe had purposely spared, we see the rich blossoms of orchids depending from the boughs, and breathe an atmosphere saturated with the perfume which these strangely beautiful plants diffuse. Songless birds twitter or croak among the foliage above, or else beneath the shrubs, which the convolvulus has decked with a hundred variegated flowers. Here and there the slender stem of the aloe, arising from an armoury of spotted leaves, lifts its cone of white bells on high, or the deep orange pine-apple peeps out from a green belt of fleshy foliage, and breathes its ripe fragrance around."* The chief drawback to life in Singapore is the intense heat, which to a European constitution is very trying,



JAVANESE MUSICIANS.

and among other disorders causes the prickly heat, perhaps one of the minor tropical diseases, but nevertheless a sufficiently troublesome one.

Penang, Pulo-Penang,* or Prince of Wales Island, about 13½ miles long and 5-10 broad, with an area of 107 square miles, is another settlement off the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, at the northern entrance or extremity of the Strait. It is of older date than Singapore, for as early as 1786 it was ceded to the Government of India by the Rajah of Quedah, a neighbouring Malay government, or rather by Captain Light, who married the Rajah's daughter, and received the island as her dowry. In 1871, its population was 61,797. In picturesqueness it surpasses Singapore. It is also healthier, and at the capital (Georgetown), on Strawberry Hill, 2,000 feet above the sea, has for long existed a sort of sanitorium for the rest of the Straits Settlements. A belt of bright yellow sand runs, fringed by cocoa-nuts, along the beach; while behind rise up wooded hills, in which

* "The Straits of Malacca, Indo-China, and China" (1875), p. 68

† That is, "Betel-nut Island."

nestle charming bungalows, undisturbed by any noise save the rustling of the foliage, the hum of insects, or the ripple of water falling over rocks into natural basins of granite beneath. "The residents may bathe beneath canopies of palms and tree ferns: while so balmy is the climate amid these hill dwellings, that the lightest costumes may be at all times worn." Areca, cocoa-nuts, and a variety of fruit trees are cultivated on the lower spurs of the Penang hills, while at the summit European flowers will grow. The alluvial plain around the settlement was, a few years ago, an impenetrable jungle, but is now described as "a perfect garden of cultivation," though, so rapid is the growth of vegetation, that continual care must be taken, otherwise the cleared soil would soon again relapse into the jungle it was when Captain Light landed here ninety-three years ago. The gallant captain was, however, a gentleman fertile in resources. He found it necessary to get enough of the forest cleared to lay the foundation of the town, and accordingly hit upon the brilliant expedient of loading his guns with silver coins, and firing them into the thick bush, so that the Malays might be tempted to make clearings in their search after dollars. So, at least, runs the tale.* In Penang there is almost as great a variety of races as in Singapore, but with this exception, that the Malays appear, at least to the visitor landing for the first time, to be in the minority. Mr. Thomson describes one or two sitting under trees selling various articles; but the busy workaday world seems to be composed of Chinese and Klings. They constitute the class of gharry, or cab-driver, and many of them are boatmen also. At Georgetown there is a Kling bazaar, where all sorts of commodities may be bought, and at prices very little over what they cost in the countries they are imported from. Here are also numbers of Chinese traders—smart, roguish, and useful. So useful, indeed, are they, that the Europeans could not do without them, yet they are troublesome members of society, and through their guilds and secret societies often give great anxiety to the community.

Province Wellesley, on the mainland opposite Penang, under the jurisdiction of whose Lieutenant-Governor it is, consists of a strip about thirty-five miles, and with an average breadth of eight miles, including ten miles of newly-acquired territory to the south of the Krian River, and a large district called the Dindings. The Province was ceded by the Rajah of Kedah in 1798. Compared with the neighbouring territory, it is in a state of high cultivation; the climate is healthy, and well adapted for the cultivation of spices, sugar-cane, and tapioca. In 1871, its population was 71,433, mostly engaged in agriculture and trade, though a number of the Malays occupy themselves in fishing and killing turtle, which are found in great abundance on some of the islands in the Strait. Most of the hard work on the plantations is, however, done by Chinese labourers, or by Klings from the coast of Coromandel. It is they who rear and prepare the rice, sugar, and tapioca, which are exported in large quantities from this interesting province. Sugar seems the product most generally cultivated, and over the whole province extend the sugar plantations of the Europeans, chiefly Scotsmen, generally bachelors, and invariably of a hospitable and somewhat jovial type.

Malacca is one of the oldest European settlements in the East, for, as early as 1511, Alberquerque the Portuguese captured it. Up to 1641, when the Dutch drove them out, his countrymen held possession of it. In 1795 the British seized it; in

* Cameron: "Our Tropical Possessions in Malayan India" 1865.

1818 they restored it to the Dutch, who held it until 1824, when the East India Company received it in exchange for their settlement at Bencoolen, on the west coast of Sumatra. It is situated on the western side of the Peninsula, between Singapore and Penang, about 120 miles from the former and 240 from the latter, and consists of a strip of territory about 12 miles in length and from 8 to 24½ in breadth. In 1871, the population was 77,756, of whom 58,000 were Malays, and 13,156 Chinese, the latter embracing among them some of the wealthiest and most intelligent merchants. Gutta-percha, gambier, india-rubber, pepper, horns, hides, canes, sugar, rice, sago, tapioca, spices, dye-stuffs, coffee, tobacco, gums, tin, tea, &c., are exported. The old town of Malacca is one of the most picturesque in the East. The houses are crowded along the banks of a small river, and occupied either as shops or as dwelling-houses by the Chinese, and the descendants of the old Portuguese colonists. The English and the richer Portuguese merchants have their villas in the suburbs, but it is round the sleepy old town, with its massive Government House and the ruins of a cathedral, that the interest of the visitor chiefly circles. At one time it was almost as important a centre for trade as Singapore is now, but its glory has long ago departed, and its commerce is now confined to a few petty products of the forest, and to the fruit which the trees planted by the Portuguese yield.

Of the native sovereignties of the Malay Peninsula little need be said in this place, as most probably by-and-by we shall have occasion to again come in contact with some of these on our way from Siam.

Quedah,* or Kedah, is a partially independent rajate under suzerainty to the King of Siam, though anxious to put itself under British protection. The Rajah of *Perak* (p. 285), and his all but independent suffragan, the Tunku-Mantrie, or Headman of *Laroot* are, however, under our aegis, in so far that we are bound to protect them in the event of domestic disturbances. In Perak, Laroot, and the Rajate of Salangore, in addition to iron, gold, and saltpetre there are very rich tin mines at present entirely in the hands of the Chinese, though the metal itself is exported through the agency of the Penang merchants.

The Rajah of *Johore* is the potentate with whom the Singapore people are best acquainted, as his territory lies on the mainland immediately opposite the town and island. The old town of Johore was once of considerable importance, but it has most sadly fallen into decay, physically and commercially, though still doing some trade in opium, indigo, pepper, and the usual tropical products. Nutmeg and its covering (mace) used to be great articles of export, but latterly, Mrs. Brassey tells us, the growth has failed, and instead of groves there are now in Johore only solitary trees. The pepper gardens are, however, still prosperous; and camphor is prepared from wild forest trees to some extent. The opium trade is a monopoly shared in Singapore between the English Government and the Rajah of Johore. The only other native States which need be mentioned are the nine Rajates adjoining Malacca, and known as the confederation of the "Nigri Simbilan."

* Sherard Osborn: "Quedah, or Stray Leaves from a Journal in Malayan Water" (1857); McNair: "Serong and Kris" (1878); Mell: "The Oriental Islands" (1869); D'Almeida: *Journal of The Royal Geographical Society*, 1876, p. 357.

The Straits Settlements—under a Governor with Lieutenant-Governors at Malacca and Penang—comprises altogether about 1,110 square miles, and a population numbering in 1871 something like 310,000. But there can scarcely be a doubt that the area will, in time, be increased. Indeed, of late years, the involuntary process of annexation has



VIEW OF THE ROADSTEAD, SINGAPORE.

been going on, and since the Perak disturbances more rapidly than before. Singapore is indeed fitted by its natural position to be the *entrepôt* of the Eastern world of India, Cochin-China, Siam, the Malay Peninsula, and the Eastern Archipelago, from Sumatra to New Guinea and the Philippines. In themselves, the Straits Settlements are rich in products, some of which we have enumerated, and in process of time the yield could be greatly increased, in spite of the close proximity of the wealthy Dutch Islands, for the restrictions which the culture system and the Dutch Port Regulations generally impose upon commerce, will tend more and more to attract vessels to Singapore in preference to the rest of Malaysia.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE PHILIPPINE GROUP OF ISLANDS.

IN order to continue our journey northward, we must retrace our route already voyaged over. Crossing from Singapore to Sarawak, and thence along the eastern shores of Borneo, *vid* Labuan and the new Maharajate of Sabak, we approach the Philippine Islands, old, rich

but decaying, colonies of Spain, and which geographically may be considered outliers of the Malay group. But though Palawan, one of the Philippines proper, lies comparatively close to Borneo, the connecting links between it and the islands we are about to pay a short visit to are the Sulu Islands, which, however, in order not to confound them with the Sula or Xulla group already noticed, we may spell, as is frequently done, Soloo.

THE SOLOO ISLANDS.

These beautiful isles lie—in the Mindoro or Soloo Sea—off the north-west coast of Borneo, in the form of a rude chain connecting that island with the Philippines. No more picturesque spots of land exist in all Australasia. Some of them are still under their native rulers, but the best have succumbed to the Spaniards from the Philippines, who for three centuries have been their enemies, while in later years the English and the Dutch have, not very successfully, attempted to gain a footing in those lovely isles. For instance, at *Balambanjan* there was once a British settlement attempted by the officials of the East



VIEW ON THE PERAK RIVER, MALAY PENINSULA.

India Company. At present the island seems all but uninhabited, save by cattle, deer, pigs, and, it is said, a species of rhinoceros. It is, however, admirably suited for a settlement, which could command the Chinese seas, and is diversified by extensive open plains, and by a few low eminences backed by some cleared hills. *Banguey* has five peaked hills,

with inhabitants and plenty of good water. *Multi Wali* looks fine from the sea, but on landing, the grass-covered hills are found to consist of soft crumbly sandstone, with tufts of coarse herbage growing within interstices, the whole surrounded by a narrow circle of jungle along the shingly beach. Water is, however, plentiful, and the barrenness of the country is relieved by the clumps of "wild jessamine" which grow here and there, and give a delightful perfume to the air. *Cayagan Sulu* is described by Mr. St. John as a "gem in the ocean," and picturesque from every point of view. It has three peaks wooded, but varied by grassy glades, and numerous groves of cocoa-nuts and bread-fruit trees, which partly reveal, partly conceal, scattered houses and villages. Round every house, indeed, flourish cocoa-nuts and plantains, in addition to little vegetable gardens, while in the settled part of the island are found occasional extensive tracks of long coarse grass, on which herds of bullocks feed. The island was once a dependence of Soloo, but it is now independent, and was, when last heard of, governed by half-breed Arabs of the tyrannical Malay type. The next island, easily distinguished from sea by its two peaks, is *Soloo* proper, or *Sugh*, as it is sometimes called. It is an extremely fertile country, not badly cultivated, and the seat of the Sultan's government. From the sea the country looks peculiar. It is very hilly, and some of the eminences rise to 2,000 feet above the sea level, while others are low and wooded to their very summit. Others, again, present alternate patches of rice cultivation, pasture land, groves of cocoa-nuts, palms, gardens, and detached clumps of forest trees. Bullocks, fowls, ducks, vegetables, and fruits can be easily obtained here, and in good hands the island might become capable of great development, as a place for the production of tropical crops. *Tulyan* is a small island, with hills to the north and low land to the south. *Basilan* has high hills and wooded lowlands. *Tonquil* and *Baliguini* were once pirate haunts, while *Mugindanan* is very hilly and wooded, except in the vicinity of the Spanish settlement of *Samboangan*, which for some distance has been cleared of trees. The town itself presents no features markedly different from other tropical Spanish "cities" with a Malay flavour. There are the usual long, low, dark fort and white-washed houses, the inevitable cocoa-nut groves, the luxuriant forest on either side, and behind, seven miles away, hills partly cleared and partly wooded. There are, however, good roads across the plain, and a long series of well-cultivated rice-fields, interspersed with cocoa-nut groves, "now swelling into extensive plantations, then a few round a detached cottage," and every few steps a patch of bananas, with their great bunches of golden fruit, "the whole being intersected with running streams, which refresh and fertilise the ground." The people are mostly mixed Malays and Spaniards; almost the only pure-blooded residents are the chief government officials. Society in the Soloo Islands is modelled on a sort of feudal system. There are a great number of small nobles, who live in semi-independent state, surrounded by their slaves and retainers. A visitor* describes the hunting parties which are sometimes given by the Sultan as extremely interesting. Several hundred horsemen assemble, only to scatter across the plain, to surround likely spots, and when a pig breaks covert the scene is most picturesque, the gaily-attired equestrian galloping about in the wildest excitement, the scarves and sarongs—a kind of short petticoat—flying in the wind, as they dash hither and thither at full speed, spear in hand, eager to give steel

* *The Field*, September 23th, 1873.

to the game, the air meantime resounding with yells and shrieks of the most frantic kind. The Sultan is an hospitable monarch, and his dinner service is quite as remarkable as himself. The plates consist of enormous oyster shells, with large pearls imbedded in them, the estimated value of each being over £10. The "palace" is an airy, well-built wooden house of a roomy description, situated near the centre of the island, in the centre of a pleasant grove of mangoes, durians, and other fruit trees, and with pretty park-like scenery around. The war between the Soloo people and the Spaniards has continued to be prosecuted languidly, with occasional outbursts of horrid cruelty, though with a result which in the end cannot be doubtful. The Soloo Islands are, indeed, charming spots. There are no mountains worthy of the name, but hills, valleys, green plains, clumps of forest, a fertile soil, a pleasant climate, and a courteous people; altogether they are worthy of a better fate than seems likely to befall them at the hands of their avaricious invaders, whose own rich Philippines have never been developed to a hundredth part of their capabilities. At one time they were simply a nest of pirates; at this day a turbulent aristocracy render good government a difficult matter: indeed, the Sultan's rule is wretched in the extreme. The laws—Mr. St. John described in 1863—as little respected, and ancient customs are falling into disuse, particularly one resembling a voluntary poor rate, which consisted in the people devoting five per cent. of their yearly profits to the support of the poor. Tribute the Sultan can only collect from the people in the immediate vicinity of his palace, and religion is sharing in the general decay; the mosques are little better than tumble-down barns, and among a people who drink wine freely, and do not even eschew pork, the Koran cannot be held in great regard.

THE SPANISH PHILIPPINES.

Six hundred and fifty nautical miles south-east of Hong Kong lie the Philippines proper, at present under the undisputed rule of Spain. But though owning the sway of His Catholic Majesty there is little in common between the mother country and her East Indian Colonies—commercial or political. Once on a time, so patriotic were the Philippine Spaniards, that when the mail arrived from Madrid the church bells were rung and *Te Deum* sung in honour of a journey so stupendous, for until Portugal fell to Spain, the route round Africa to the Philippines was not open to Spanish vessels. How long it took to communicate with Europe may be judged from the fact that in 1603 two Augustine monks, though travelling on special business of the king, and taking the direct line through Goa, Turkey, and Italy, occupied three years in traversing the distance between Manilla and Madrid. The islands were discovered by Magellan on the 16th of March, 1521—St. Lazarus' Day—hence the name which the great navigator applied to them. But this designation never stuck, and for long the Spaniards called them the Western Islands—*Ilas del Poniente*—and the Portuguese the Eastern Isles—*Ilas del Oriente*. Philip II, whose name the first coloniser of the group gave them, wished to call them New Castile, but the courtiers were too much even for their monarch, and accordingly, to all time, the group of islands now to be noticed will bear the title of the Philippines. At that time

the islands were divided among a number of petty chiefs, either pagans or superficially proselytes to Mohammedanism. But their political ties were loose, and they easily gave in allegiance to the conquerors, though some of them, the Mohammedan State of Mindanaos and the Soloo group, long stubbornly contested, and, with more or less success, maintained their independence.

When the clocks strike midnight in Madrid, it is only forty-one minutes nineteen seconds past three in the afternoon at Manilla. Accordingly, when Magellan, who discovered the Philippines—and was killed on the islands—was following the sun in its apparent daily path around the world, every successive degree he compassed on his eastern course added four minutes to the length of his day; so that when he reached the Philippines the difference amounted to several hours. This fact he did not, however, appear to be aware of, and Eleano, the captain of the only vessel of the squadron which returned, seemed equally unconscious that when he returned to the longitude of his departure he was a day behind the port time. The error, as Herr Jagor has remarked,* remained also unnoticed in the islands themselves, for up to 1844 it was still there the last day of the old year while the rest of the world was celebrating the new one. This anomaly was, however, so striking, that with the approval of the Archbishop it was resolved for once to pass over New Year's Eve altogether. About the same time the Portuguese in Macao effected a similar rectification in their time. However, having reached Macao on an easterly course, they had made a mistake of a day the other way. In fact, navigators who do not wish to return to England a day ahead of the calendar must, on coming—say from Australia—make one day out of two on passing the meridian of 180,^o and thus passing from east into west longitude. This circumstance greatly troubled the early mariners when they became aware of it, not so much from an astronomical point of view as from their religious horror of having observed the wrong Saints' days, and eaten meat at seasons when they ought to have fasted. But the anomaly is not yet ended, for among the South Sea Islands the mode of reckoning time depends to this day on the accident of whether the navigator who first introduced the Christian calendar reached these converts from the west or the east. The effect of the change on the Philippines was, that after 1844 they were no longer in the distant west, as they had been up to that date considered, but in the far east. But the error had another consequence. For, when in 1493 Pope Alexander VI. divided the world between the Spaniards and Portuguese, the former claimed the Philippines as being in the western hemisphere, and indeed, so imperfectly could the line of longitude be drawn, owing to the rudeness of the wooden quadrants or astrolabes, and the surveyor's ignorance of the variation of the compass, that the islands were likely to have remained a subject of contention between the two Powers, had not they settled the matter by a treaty, by which the Philippines, at that time of little value, were ceded to Spain, and the Moluccas, to which Charles V. had also put in a claim, were made over to Portugal for the sum of 350,000 ducats.

The Moluccas have long ago slipped from the decrepit hands of Lusitania, but the Philippines still remain fiefs of the once mighty empire which owned the greater part of America, and many other colonies between the New World and the Old one. Excluding

* "Travels in the Philippines" (English translation, 1875), pp. 1, 2.



A JAPANESE FERRY BOAT OF THE ANCIEN RÉGIME.

the independent isles, the Spanish Philippines are said to be more than 1,200 in number, with an area of 65,000 square miles, and a population of 6,163,632,* of whom 5,501,356 are classed as nominally "Christians." Luzon in the north, and Mindanao in the south, are the largest islands of the group, but between these extremes lie the Bissayas, under which name are included Samar, Mindoro, Panay, Leyte, Negros, Cebu, Masbate, and a vast number of smaller patches, regarding which, notwithstanding the long time the group has been occupied, very little is known with any degree of accuracy. South-west of the Bissayas is the long narrow island of Palawan, which, though consisting mainly of a mountain-chain, is nevertheless well watered and



VIEW OF MINDANAO ISLAND, ONE OF THE PHILIPPINE GROUP.

very fertile, the coast-lying lands yielding rich crops of all tropical produce, while the forest abounds in ebony, logwood, gum, and other trees common in the neighbouring Archipelago. North of Luzon are the small Batanee, or Bashee, and Babuyan islets, the last-mentioned of which is unpeopled. A humid atmosphere and a warm climate combine to give the Philippines a luxuriant vegetation. Blossoms and fruits may be seen hanging on the trees at the same time, and notwithstanding a disregard for ages of the agricultural axiom of the necessity for "rotation of crops," the fertile soil has not yet been exhausted. All the tropical and sub-tropical fruit-trees have been introduced and prosper luxuriantly, but bananas, plantains, pineapples, sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, indigo, cinnamon, vanilla, pepper, rice, wheat, maize, and the usual tropical crops, add to the riches of these favoured islands; while the natural forest, which covers a great portion of the country, abounds in ebony, iron-wood, sapan-wood, and other trees highly valued

* According to a census—actual and estimated—made in 1878 (*L'Economiste français* August 3rd, 1878).

by the cabinet maker, but which are as yet not exported to the extent they might be. Iron and coal are plentiful, copper has been worked in Luzon, and gold-dust is used as a circulating medium in Mindanao. Cinnabar (the ore of quicksilver), limestone, marble, and vast deposits of native sulphur are also among the mineral riches of the Philippines. The sulphur its islanders could dispense with, for its presence is due to the many active volcanoes scattered throughout the islands. Two of these—Mayon in Luzon, and Buhayan in Mindanao—often cause great desolation in the surrounding country, though the highest mountain peak in the islands is not over 7,000 feet. Earthquakes are frequent and destructive. In 1863 Manilla, the capital, was nearly destroyed by one which caused several of the smaller islands to disappear, and a severe series of shocks in 1875 caused immense loss of life and property throughout the group. The larger islands contain great lakes, and owing to the deep indentation of the coast-line inland seas capable of accommodating the merchant navies of half the world. There are also many navigable rivers, in addition to narrow river-like creeks, which penetrate the land for long distances. Indeed, one of the characteristics of the Philippines is the fact that from the mountains run numerous small streams which rapidly widen out into estuaries, up which light draught vessels can sail to the foot of the mountains, there to load their cargoes. Marshy grounds are frequent, and in Mindanao especially there are many lakes, which during the rainy season expand into sheets of water far exceeding the normal size of the original collection of water. Often, also, on the north of Luzon, and west of Mindanao (p. 289), violent hurricanes are experienced, and during the changes of the monsoon, storms of wind, rain, and lightning prevail. There are, however, ordinarily, only two seasons in the Philippines—the wet and dry, though, owing to the ruggedness of the country, due to its mountain ranges, there are numerous local variations in the meteorological condition of the islands. For several months in the year the heat is moderate, and the climate very pleasant even to Europeans, but after May the temperature rises so rapidly that, except for a short period after the heavy tropical showers, it becomes oppressive. In autumn it moderates, and by the time December is reached, the Philippines again enjoy a comparatively cool atmosphere. The sea around the coast, as well as the creeks and lakes, abound with fish of numerous species; but in the whole Archipelago there is scarcely a wild beast to be found. A few wild cats haunt the forests, in which also wander oxen, buffaloes, deer, squirrels, and a great variety of monkeys; and sheep, goats, and swine are found in abundance, both domesticated and in some parts of the country either wholly or altogether wild. Numerous reptiles, however, infest the damp jungle, and in the rivers and lakes crocodiles abound. The insect life of these jungles is also as exuberant as on any of the neighbouring islands. The birds are numerous: the specimens in museums show that they are lovely, and report speaks well of their melody. The sea-shore caverns are frequented by the swallow, whose edible nests are eagerly sought for to sell to the rich Chinese epicures, and by immense flocks of huge vampire-like bats. Buffaloes are used for tillage and draught; and the horse, originally introduced by the Spaniards, has now become a peculiar undersized beast, for which the Philippines are noted. Fowls, especially ducks, tens of thousands of which are hatched artificially, are plentiful. The principal exports are sugar, tobacco, cigars,

indigo, Manilla hemp, coffee, rice, dye-woods, hides, gold-dust, bees'-wax, mother-of-pearl shells, coral, amber, and tortoiseshell. The natives build canoes, and even ships of considerable size; and are skilful at weaving silk, cotton, and hemp fabrics. The web, however, for which the Philippines is the most celebrated, is the "pina," a fine muslin-like cloth, used for shawls and handkerchiefs, the thread employed in which is derived from the fibre of the pineapple. Some of these "pinas" will sell for two ounces of gold, and a still finer fabric—the "pinilian"—is so costly that a shawl of it made for the Queen of Spain cost 500 dollars. Among the other minor manufactures of the Philippines may be mentioned silver and gold chains, and filagree work, horn utensils, fine hats, and cigar cases of various vegetable fibres, and mats of different colours, ornamented with silver and gold ornaments. Spanish policy being in commercial matters the worse policy possible, Sual, Iloilo, Cebu, and Manilla are the only ports open to foreign vessels, and deferential duties still exist. Hence, foreign vessels trade comparatively little with the Philippines, in the way of bringing goods to them, though the chief exports from the islands are to Great Britain and America. The seat of Government is at Manilla, but acting lieutenant-governors also reside at Zamboanga, in Mindanao, and Iloilo, in Panay, and minor officials in the different provinces and prefectures. "The Bay of Manilla is large enough to allow the united navies of Europe to ride at anchor, and it has the reputation of being one of the finest in the world." Herr Jagor, however, from whom I quote these words, considers that if the traveller arrives on the coast, near the capital, during the dry season, he will be apt to think that the country falls short of the vivid description which he has read. The circular bay, 120 miles in circumference, the waters of which wash the shores of four provinces, is backed by a monotonously flat table-land. The scanty vegetation in the foreground is, during the rainless season, dried up; while the dull uniformity of the landscape is only broken by the blue hills of San Mateo. But during the wet season the numerous bankless canals soon overflow, and change the country into a shallow lake, which is, however, soon after to be one verdant rice-field. The town of Manilla (p. 293) is built on both sides of the river Pasig, and looks, with its crumbling wall, ramparts, and towers, the mediæval city which in reality it is. The streets are, however, though often ruinous, owing to the frequent earthquakes, and though sleepy enough, are, many of them, for the most part airy, fine, and in the business districts brisker than usually obtains in these somnolent, dead, or decaying Spanish towns within the tropics. Binondo is properly the commercial capital, and here the greater number of the merchants reside. Here are also the cigar factories, which give employment to many thousands of men and women, and tobacco being a strict Government monopoly constitutes an important portion not only of the trade, but of the Government of Manilla. The noise which greets the ear on entering one of these cigar factories is deafening. Hundreds of women are seated on the floor, each armed with a small wooden mallet, which is employed to hammer the leaves of tobacco, placed on wooden blocks, in order to polish them for the outside of the cigars. In another room, Mr. Spry describes them being rolled into the proper shape, finished off, and prepared for the market. So important is this trade, that it is superintended by the military administration; and during the season great

care has to be exercised to prevent the *employé's* pilfering the best leaves of the crop for their own use. The tobacco monopoly is one of the worst abuses under which the Philippines groan. The Government, in order to nurture this source of revenue, without any regard to justice or the welfare of the people, appropriate from the peasantry any fields which they may think fitted for the growth of the plant, and then force the wretched population to raise, on this virtually confiscated ground, a crop which is notoriously exhausting to the soil and troublesome to the farmer. For the tobacco itself the smallest price possible is paid. Indeed, when they do pay, the officials fix their own arbitrary value on it, and at best allow the much-wronged peasant to remain, often for years, out of his money. By-and-by, the fields under this vicious system of culture refuse to yield the old return. The peasant then receives them back again—only to find that they are useless to him—and the unscrupulous officials set to work to find other ground suitable for the culture of this staple of the Philippines. Yet the profits of this trade are not nearly so great as might be imagined, or as they might be under a system less vicious. Spanish Government accounts are documents issued so irregularly, and when published so notoriously “cooked,” that it would not do to place implicit confidence in the returns before us. Yet, from what I can learn from various sources, official and otherwise, the net returns from the tobacco monopoly cannot at the present time be much over a quarter of a million pounds sterling, though the demand for “Manillas” is much greater than the Government can meet.

Manilla has over 200,000 inhabitants, but of these only a small proportion are Spaniards, the great bulk being Indians, half-castes, Chinese, and Creoles of more or less pure Castilian blood. Between commercial Binondo and official Manilla there is very little intercourse. They are situated (p. 293) on opposite banks of the River Pasig, but the inhabitants of the two quarters of the cities rarely cross the bridges which span the stream dividing them. In the city proper, “pride, envy, place hunting, and caste hatred” are, according to Herr Jagor, the order of the day. The Castilian of Old Spain, as everywhere in the colonies (Vol. II., p. 242), considers himself a being superior to the Creole, or native Spaniard, who, on the other hand, taunts him with the reproach of only coming to the Philippines to fill his pockets at the cost of better men than himself. The half-caste, again, cordially hate all whites without distinction; while the Chinese, who swarm in these islands, are content to let the world wag as it may so long as they are allowed to amass money in their own sure plodding fashion. This of late they have been allowed to do, but in former times they were persecuted in every possible way by the bigoted exclusive Spaniards, and were even massacred at the bidding of the priests, in whose eyes these irreclaimable “heathens” were an abomination, and by the Government, who dreaded their industry, and the strong bond of union which existed among them. In 1603, as many as 23,000 Chinese were massacred; but yet, in 1639, the number of these Asiatic ants had increased to 40,000, when they revolted, and were reduced to 7,000. In 1709 most of them were expelled, but again they crept in, and in 1757 a second clearance of them was made by a mandate of banishment for the Celestials. Repeated edicts to the same effect were issued, but in 1762 they had increased to such numbers that it was necessary for his Catholic Majesty to issue a command “that all the Chinese in the

Philippine Islands should be hanged," which order, we are told, was "very generally carried out." In 1819 they were accused of poisoning the wells, and "thus bringing in the cholera," when again, with the greater number of the Europeans in Manilla, they fell victims to the ignorant frenzy of the populace. Nothing, however, avails against the eagerness of the Chinese to flock to the islands, and now the officials attempt to mitigate their ardour by means of heavy and oppressive taxes levied on them; and, in order to allow the Government officials the more easily to levy these taxes, the unfortunate Mongols are compelled to keep their books in Spanish. Needless to say, out of this struggle the



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF MANILLA, LUZON, PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

adroit Chinaman comes victorious, and would prosper were he taxed and oppressed a hundred times more than he is. As farmers, traders, shopkeepers—in every opening which they can find—the nimble, hard-working, quick-witted, unaggressive "Sangleys" make a comfortable livelihood, lay by a little money, and in many cases grow wealthy. As junk-men, artisans, gardeners, and fishermen, they also hold their own, and are likely in time, if they are left alone, to form important communities, which may displace the present sickly, reactionary, anachronistic Government, which vegetates in the country only to the country's ruin. It is now, as it was in the days of Murillo Velarde, two hundred years ago:—"The Spaniards who settle here look upon these islands as a tavern rather than a permanent home. If they marry, it is by the merest chance. Where can a family be found that has been settled here for several generations? The father amasses wealth,

the son spends it, the grandson is a beggar. The largest capitals are not more stable than the waves of the ocean, across the crests of which they were gathered." This is—and ever has been—the case in all the Spanish colonies, for the policy of the Madrid authorities has always been to sow discord between the different races in the distant dependencies of the empire, hoping thereby to avoid the dangers to the mother country's sway which it is imagined their union might provoke.

In Binondo, the foreigners are not very social amongst themselves, while the Spaniards stand aloof from them, looking upon the strangers as mere intruders, whose profits are simply robberies of their gains. Living is exceedingly costly, and domestic comforts small in proportion to the expense which they entail. There are few amusements. There is a theatre, at which Spanish and occasionally Tagalese plays (translations) are acted. There are no clubs, no public library, and few books of any sort. The newspapers are feeble to attenuation, and though of late there has been a little more liberty of the press, the items of intelligence which formerly came fortnightly from Hong Kong were so sifted by priestly censors, that little beyond the chronicles of the Spanish and French courts were vouchsafed to the Manillans. Though nobody of any consequence walks in Manilla, and light carriages are abundant, a visitor remarks with surprise the few people he meets riding or driving in the suburbs. The fashionable people have no taste for outdoor life. The beauties of Nature are nothing to them; their only object in driving in the evening along the dusty streets to a scanty promenade on the beach is to solemnly walk up and down listening to a band of music, and to display their toilets. There is a "botanic garden," but it is only so in name, the plants being scarcely existent, and few people ever take the trouble to visit it. In brief—pompous religious festivals, cock-fighting, and gambling form the few and not incongruous amusements of Manilla.

Mindanao is a high island, but the village of Zamboanga, or Samboangan, though picturesque enough from the sea, is rather insignificant when it is examined a little more closely. There is, of course, a plaza, a convent, and a great barn-looking church, with tawdry ornamentation; pretentious but not over clean houses, and many brown people clad in a light costume, of which the embroidered "pina" shirt strikes the eye as being the most remarkable. The trade is little, and the shopkeepers are chiefly Chinese. Mindanao is a remarkably rich island, on which some years ago England had a claim. But the claim was not enforced, and accordingly for ages to come, it may be, it will lie like the rest of the Philippines with its fine soil uncultivated, and its riches undeveloped, and running to waste.

Iloilo, in Panay, is a still more unpromising place. A dilapidated fort, a number of Malay houses reared on piles, a few trading establishments and civilised residences built on swampy ground, does not prepossess the stranger in its favour, while the prevalence of fever is apt, spite of fervent protestations to the contrary, to confirm his belief in the unhealthiness of this town, which may be said to owe its existence, as a place for the shipment of sugar, hemp, &c., to Nicholas Loney, an English surgeon, who first saw its capabilities, and subsequently profited by his prescience. There are a number of other less important places, but the traveller who has seen one of these colonial towns really requires to see no more; they bear such a family likeness to each other that, with the

change of the surrounding scenery, any one might sit for the portrait of any other. Cebu, on the rich island of the same name, is, for example, an active business place of about 35,000 inhabitants, who export hemp, sugar, tobacco, cotton, and fair coal found in the vicinity. But as the natives will not work, the labour question is here, as elsewhere, a burning one. At one time Camiguin, on Camiguin Island, was a town of 10,000 inhabitants, but a volcano which has been active since 1871 has gradually encroached on the place, until it is now entirely deserted, and on this island, once one of the finest of the group, only a few inhabitants remain.

Yet, notwithstanding the characteristic Spanish hatred of foreigners, in this Spanish colony few Spaniards reside, the chief mercantile houses being English and American. Among the native population, the half-castes, or "Mestizos"—particularly those born of Chinese and Tagal parents—are the richest and most enterprising, but knowing the aboriginal population better than any one else, they use them most unscrupulously to serve their own ends. Of the aborigines, the Tagals and Bisayas are the most numerous. They are mostly Roman Catholics, but a considerable number are Mohammedans. The "Alfooras," who live in the mountain regions, are probably the aborigines who were driven back when the Malays first settled on the coast. They are mostly idolaters in a low stage of civilisation. The Tagals and Bisayas live on rice, sweet potatoes (*Camote*), fish, flesh, and fruit; are very temperate, gentle and hospitable, though fond of cock-fighting—like all the Malays—and of dancing, like most semi-civilised people.

The Philippines are not only rich in themselves, but from their position, even were they poor in natural wealth, ought to be capable of attracting a great portion of the commerce of the East. The commerce with China, which was at one time great, has now to a great extent departed, but they ought still to carry on traffic with the western shores of America, as they used to do when Acapulco—that city of the past—was their great entrepôt; and they might fairly compete with the Dutch East Indies, and the Straits Settlements, for some of the trade of the Australasian colonies.

FORMOSA.

Sailing northward from the Philippines past—among others—the Bashee, or Batance Isles, discovered by Dampier in 1687, and on which the Spaniards have an outlying dependency founded as far back as 1783, we reached Formosa, or Taiwan, a large island belonging to the Chinese Empire, included in the viceroyalty of Fokien and Chekian. The central mountains can, on a clear day, be distinctly discerned from the opposite coast of China, eighty or ninety miles distant. But from whatever reason, it was not until 1130 that a eunuch of the Court of Emperor Suen-te visited it, and as he is the first of civilised men who is known to have set foot on the island, to him may be ascribed the honour of the discovery of Formosa. It was not, however, for more than one hundred years afterwards that a colony was established in the island; and still later—in 1620—the Japanese formed a settlement on it, which step was soon followed by the Dutch. The Japanese, however, soon left the island, but the Dutch remained, and built forts which stand to this day, though one of them, which was erected on an island

in the river, has by the rising of the coast become fixed in the heart of the straggling city of Taiwanfoo. Meantime, the river has dwindled away, and the island has become connected with the banks. While the struggles between the Chinese and the Tartars were



GROUP OF BAMBOOS (*Bambusa formosa*).

hot on the mainland, the Dutch spread their settlements over different parts of the island, and took possession of the *Pescadores*, a small group lying between Formosa and the mainland, not without having now and then to run rivalry with the Spanish priests, who endeavoured to establish themselves also on the coveted spot. In 1661, a Chinese merchant,



VIEW OF MOUNT MORRISON, FORMOSA.

privateer, or pirate—he was, indeed, all three combined—named Koxinga, drove out the Hollanders, and became King of Formosa; but in the reign of his grandson the Emperor of China recovered the sovereignty, and as a prefecture of the Viceroyalty of Fokien it remains to this day. The island is about 120 miles long, and from 20 to 80 miles in breadth, and its area is about equal to the half of Ireland. The names it obtained from the Portuguese and Spaniards—Isla Formosa and Isla Hermosa—express their appreciation of the “beautiful island.” When the Dutch had possession of the country, it was divided among a number of Malay tribes, speaking different dialects, and each ruled by its own chief. But in time the Chinese emigrants from Amoy, Chinchew, and Swatow, with a small number of Cantonese, possessed themselves of nearly the entire western side up to the foot of the range of mountains which runs through the whole length of the island, dividing it nearly in halves. The Chinese territory also extends around the northern end, and on the east side down to Sawo. The rest of the island is still enjoyed by the savages, but the east coast is so steep and precipitous, and possessed of so few harbours, that the Celestials have made no efforts to dispossess them, though a few fishermen live among them, and make a quiet livelihood, as the savages are too proud to stoop from the chase to such menial work as pulling boats. Accordingly, most of them live in the rugged country in the interior. But they have dwindled away of late years before the advance of the industrious colonists, who clear the ground and extirpate the beasts of chase which form the chief food and commerce of the aborigines (p. 300). No woman is allowed to become a mother before thirty-six, and the system of head-taking which prevails among the Dyaks* still further contributes to the decrease of the wild tribes. Between the civilised portion of the island and the aboriginal territory there exists a strip of neutral ground, where the two races meet to traffic, but which neither is allowed to cross. The Formosans somewhat resemble the Tagals of the Philippines, but the late Consul Swinhoe was of opinion that in the interior there exist a tribe of Negritos who, like the “Alfooras” of so many of the Malay Islands, had been driven into the wilds when the Malay tribes took possession of the coast.† There are, however, several tribes of the latter people; and, in addition to Chinese mongrels, a number of the descendants of the Dutch settlers and Chinese mothers, but who have long ago lost almost any resemblance to their forefathers. The interior is for the most part rugged, Mount Morrison (p. 297) reaching a height of 12,850 feet, and there are said to be other peaks which attain an almost equal elevation. One-third of the island—comprising the greater part of the western side—is level, but the rest consists of mountainous or undulating country, covered with dense forests, which contain considerable riches in the shape of gums, timbers, and other arboreal products. The Pacific gulf stream—called by the Japanese *Kuro-siwo*—flows up the east coast, and to it Formosa is indebted for the six months’ almost incessant rain which prevails during the winter. The warm vapours saturate the north-east monsoon, and induce incessant precipitation over the island, and for twelve miles seaward. The temperature is high but equable. In the summer it rarely rises above 100°, and in the winter seldom falls below 40°. In the autumn afternoons there is usually great sultriness, accompanied by loud claps of thunder and much

* “Races of Mankind,” Vol. II., p. 143; Bechtinger: “Het eiland Formosa” (1871).

† Swinhoe: “Notes on the Ethnology of Formosa” (1863); Guérin and Bernard: *Bull. de la Soc. de Geog.* (1868).

lightning, as the masses of storm-clouds roll northward along the mountain chain. The coast is very stormy, being often visited by typhoons and heavy gales; but, on the whole, the country is healthy, and likely in time to have a much greater population than it at present possesses, namely, about 3,000,000 Chinese, and a few thousand aborigines. Between Kelung and Tamsui there are the great coal and sulphur mines, for which the island is celebrated, and there are several volcanoes occasionally active to a moderate extent.

The island, though divided in two by the tropical line, is not entirely tropical as to its vegetation. There are, for instance, no cocoa-nuts, and no parrots, but there are area palms, rattans, sugar-cane, tea, rice, bamboos, bananas, peaches, mangoes, &c., and the forests of camphor trees in the interior supply Formosa with its most lucrative article of commerce. In the hills also abound the *Aralia papyrifera*, the thin slices of the pith of which constitute the famous rice paper of the Chinese. Barley and wheat are grown during the winter months; the flour produced from the latter is more highly valued, on account of its whiteness, than that produced from grain grown in the south of China. There are also petroleum wells, but for the present these sources of wealth attract little attention. The imports of Formosa are chiefly Chinese goods from the ports of Ningpo, Foochow, Chinchew, and Amoy, or foreign goods, for which of late, there has been considerable demand, received directly or through the same channels. Opium is, however, the great article in demand, nearly all of the Chinese being smokers of the drug, and many of the aborigines have also learned to use it, though it is not often they can obtain more than the refuse of the pipe abandoned by the Sinetic smoker. Missionaries from England and Canada have settled in the island; and though it is doubtful whether the Chinese will continue masters of it—the Japanese having shown some suspicious signs of a desire to annex it—it cannot be doubted that in the hands of some enterprising power great days await the “Fair Island.” Its zoology is very interesting. Among the mammals are a peculiar monkey, the sun bear, the Formosan leopard, the Formosan wild cat, and a number of others, some of which are peculiar to the island, and others common to it and the mainland. There are numbers of reptiles, tortoises, turtles, lizards, and snakes. One of the latter—*Bolitogerus semifasciatus*—also common at Amoy, in China, frequently lurks in cellars and under houses, where it feeds on rats: its bite is very deadly. Among the birds, Swinhoe’s pheasant (*Euplocamus Swinhoii*) is perhaps the most beautiful and remarkable.* We may add, in concluding this brief outline, that of late British trade with Formosa has greatly increased, and with the establishment of British consuls on the island, the ancient habit of the natives murdering and eating shipwrecked seamen, as well as the inveterate wrecking propensities of the Chinese themselves, has diminished, or altogether disappeared. Taiwan-foo, the capital, a city of less than 100,000 inhabitants, is situated on a

* Swinhoe: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XXXIV., p. 6; *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1866; “Ibis,” April, 1863; *Proceedings of the Zoological Society of London*, December 5th, 1862; *Zoology and Magazine of Natural History*, September, 1863; Thomson: “Straits of Malacca,” p. 300; Bax: “The Eastern Seas,” 1875 p. 56; Mayers: “Treaty Ports of China,” 1871; Biernatzki: “Zurich. fur Allgem. Ethnol.,” 1857, 1859; Bridge: *Fortnightly Review*, 1876; Allen: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1877; Ballou: *Ibid.*, 1877; St. Martin: *Bull. de la Soc. de Geog.*, 1868; “Encyclopædia Britannica,” 4th Ed. 1879, “The Chinese Repository,” 1833-37, &c.

small river about three miles from the coast. Its chief exports are sugar and rattan canes; but its harbour is unfitted for the reception of European vessels. Ta-Kau-Kan (p. 301) is another treaty port, and the head-quarters of the customs staff for the west coast. Tamsui is the head-quarters of the consular and customs establishment of the north of Formosa, and twelve miles up the river is situated the city of Banka, or Meng-Ka, the largest town in the north of the island, containing 30,000 inhabitants. All the merchants interested in the exports



A NATIVE HUT IN FORMOSA.

of tea or camphor, or in the import of opium or piece goods, reside in Banka, though the foreign traders' stronghold is at Tamsui, and they have found it necessary to establish a subsidiary settlement about a mile from Banka, where they have their hong— that is, combined dwelling-house and offices—and godowns, or warehouses, in which tea and camphor are stored, ready to be sent off in cargo boats, for shipment to Tamsui. Kelung is the most northerly of the treaty or open ports. It is, however, small, but suitable for shipping the bituminous steaming coal taken from the neighbouring pits.*

* Morrison: *Geographical Magazine*, October, November, and December, 1877. See also Gordon: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1849; Consular Reports; and Pickering: *Messenger of Presbyt. Church of England*, 1878.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE JAPANESE EMPIRE: THE AINO COUNTRY.

FORMOSA, though considered, in accordance with Chinese policy, an integral part of the Celestial Empire, is in reality a mere colony of it, the aborigines of which are a Malay



VIEW OF TA-KAU-KAN, ON THE WESTERN COAST OF FORMOSA.

race, who doubtless are themselves only colonist conquerors of an older date. It has, therefore, been considered more convenient to treat it as a separate island, and not merely as one of the prefectures of the great country which we shall soon have to visit. But even in Formosa we come upon traces of the Japanese, a race not so numerous, but in many respects more enterprising, and, from a European point of view, more interesting than even the Chinese, whose rivals they are likely, in time, to become. We have already spoken of the old Japanese settlement in Formosa, but there are evidences that long before the subjects of the Mikado and Tycoon formally sate themselves

down on the "Isla Formosa" adventurous or unfortunate wanderers of their nation had reached thus far south; for the little island of *Samasana*, lying off the eastern shore of this island, is peopled by a race of Japanese origin, allied to the Loochooans, but according to Mr. Swinhoe more immediately to the natives of the nearer Madjicosima group. They have no boats of any kind, and subsist by cultivating sweet potatoes and rice, and feeding pigs. They are described as timid, but mild and hospitable. The small island of *Botel Tobago*, off the south-east side of Formosa, is again peopled by a mild race of Malays, of whom little is known, save what Mr. Swinhoe has collected about them, namely, that they have no boats or canoes, and depend upon the produce of the soil, which they rudely cultivate, on fish for subsistence, and that they live in log-huts, and dress very scantily. In 1874 the Japanese again nearly planted a firm footing on Formosa. Failing to obtain redress for the murder of some Loochoo fishermen, they landed a considerable force on the island, but eventually withdrew on the payment of indemnity by the Chinese. The Chinese thus escaped a war at the cost of some money, and a little damage to that intangible entity called national honour. But the tame manner in which the Pekin authorities acquiesced in the demands of Japan had another and more serious consequence, for it was taken by the Japanese as a virtual acknowledgment of their claims to the Loochoo Islands.

THE LOOCHOOS AND OTHER OUTLYING ISLANDS.

The Liu Kiu, or Loochoo Islands, extend between 20 and 30 degrees of latitude in a north-eastern direction, from the northern end of Formosa to Japan. They comprise over 300 little isles, and are divided into three large groups, called Shan-nan, Tshung-shan, and Shan-pei,* which groups form the three provinces of the kingdom, and correspond to three little monarchies which in early times existed in the islands. These three sovereignties in 1430 merged into one. In 1451 they had their first intercourse with Japan, but in 1600 they had a rupture with the Mikado, and sent tribute to China instead. In the end, after various changes and wars, the Loochoo king settled down to be a suffragan of both empires: that is, he accepted his crown from Japan, but paid tribute to China every two years and to Japan once every year. His people write in Chinese characters, but their ordinary vernacular is closely allied to the Japanese spoken in the district of Satsuma, a fief of which principality they anciently were, and their habits and dress also resemble those of the latter people. When the junk conveying the tribute to China arrived the vessel was dismantled, and the crew kept in confinement until the next year's presents made their appearance, the suspicious Chinese being afraid that if they did not retain hostages the Loochooans might fail to remember their allegiance. In 1681 the tribute was settled as follows, and the list of articles give a fair idea of the riches of the country:—12,600 catties† of sulphur, 3,000 pearl shells, and 30,000 catties of copper. However, in the spring of 1879 the Japanese peremptorily ordered the Loochooans to abandon the Chinese calendar, to adopt the Japanese code of laws, and henceforward cease paying tribute to China. The Loochooans naturally objected, and were backed up in

* Usually written, Sannan, Chinsan, and Sanbok.

† A "catty" is 1¼ lb. avoirdupois.

their representations by the Chinese. But their remonstrances had little effect, for the Japanese have formally annexed the islands, sent the king as a State pensioner to Tokio, and replaced him by a Japanese governor and a staff of Japanese officials. There the matter rests, but it may possibly yet lead to war between the two empires. As for the islands themselves, they are represented as carefully cultivated and well ordered, and inhabited by a peaceful people, engaged in mining, fishing, farming, and cattle rearing. Many years ago Captain Basil Hall gave a most attractive account of their hospitality and courtesy, and though, doubtless, much of their politeness to him was instigated by a fear of reprisals had they displayed a contrary disposition, there can be no doubt of the opinion formed by him being substantially correct. Indeed, so sensible are the Loochooans of their reputation for polish, that they style their islands "the country that observes propriety."

The partitions in the houses are made in the form of sliding panels, which can be drawn aside, and a whole floor thus turned into one large room when required. Every house has a courtyard surrounded with a hedge of trained banyan-trees, and the roads about the capital—called Scheudi—are bordered with fences of flowering evergreens. The soil, though not of the fertility of some of the islands we have visited, supports good crops of sweet potatoes, maize, millet, sugar-cane, tobacco, and rice. The finer country houses are placed in park-like enclosures, and in the towns the better class ones are tiled; the poorer dwellings are thatched. Horses and bullocks of a small size are common, but the islands do little trade, Napa-kiang, to which the junks come, being too small for foreign vessels. At this place there are many Chinese; and from the account given by Basil Hall and Bax, their latest visitors, it would appear as if the Loochooans share with that people their unwillingness to hold any intercourse with foreigners. The officials deputed to attend on the captain of the *Dwarf* were monotonous in their protestations about the poverty of their country: how it yielded neither copper, silver, gold, nor coal, and only food enough for the inhabitants themselves, which proves that caution is a Loochooan characteristic, even though this must be cultivated at the sacrifice of a little truthfulness. In the latest Japanese census (1874) the population is given at 167,073. A missionary resided on them for five years, but the people for once diverged from their ordinary politeness in their efforts to get rid of him. Shipwrecked seamen are, however, treated with great kindness, in accordance with the maritime laws of China. Captain Bax saw no soldiers, and there seem to be no arms on the island; but as there were two ruined forts, and the Loochooans have been known to have engaged in wars, there were in all likelihood at one time an army also. Finally, it may be added that there seem no great extremes of poverty or wealth among the Loochooans: they appear to be one of the few happy peoples still prospering on the face of the earth.* Whether, as the buffers between two empires, they will continue to share their ancient lot remains yet to be seen.

The *Bonin*, or *Archbishop Isles* (already casually touched at page 16), though included in the Japanese Empire, were made known to the world at large in 1827 by Captain Beechey, of H.M.S. *Blossom*, and were then uninhabited. In 1830 a

* *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society*, 1879, pp. 210, 291.

motley company of whaling seamen took possession of them, and, claiming English protection, set to work, under rather disheartening circumstances, to cultivate in the cleared bush of Peel Island sweet potatoes, maize, onions, yams, pumpkins, melons, lemons, tobacco, and sugar-cane, and to breed pigs, goats, and fowls for the supply of passing ships. The islands are healthy and fertile, though the timber which grows on them is not large enough for shipbuilding. There is abundance of fish and turtle in the surrounding sea, and a few edible animals haunt the woods and mountains. The islands are, however, visited every year by typhoons and earthquakes, and the numerous uprooted trees bear evidence of the violence of the storms. Of the original colony, formed out of very discordant elements, Dr. Ruschenberger* gives an interesting account. It was not, in



VIEW FROM SHIMONOSÉKI, JAPAN.

his day, a well-ordered or a moral community, but it seems to have increased, for the population is now put down at seventy-five. † Of late the Russians have put in a claim to the group, though on what ground it would puzzle even a geographical easuist to imagine. The Japanese, no doubt, were the original discoverers, and for this reason include the islands among the outliers of their empire. They first lighted upon them in 1675, but even then there were no inhabitants on the isles: hence the junkmen call them *Bunin Sima*, or the islands without people. ‡

THE JAPANESE ISLANDS.

Japan proper, or *Nipon*, “the land of the rising sun,” whose name was for ages a shadowy abstraction to the Western world, but has of late years come prominently before

* “Voyage Round the World” (1838), Vol. II., pp. 295-313.

† “Hydrographic Notice,” No. 54 (Washington, 1877).

‡ “Chinese Repository,” 1835.

it, comprehends four large islands, viz., Nipon, Shikokon, Kiushiu, and Yezo. The whole empire, exclusive of the Loochoo and Bonins, may contain about 150,000 square miles, two-thirds of it mountains; but as the number of small islets, in addition to the four large ones, is about 3,800, it is difficult, without an accurate survey, to arrive at any determinate idea of the superficies of the empire. Most of the islands are volcanic in character, and earthquakes still disturb them so frequently that the natives calculate on



VIEW OF DESHIMA, JAPAN.

one of their cities being, on an average, destroyed every seven years. They are, however, as a rule, very fertile and highly cultivated. There are many picturesque valleys and inland seas, and so broken is the coast that fine harbours abound everywhere, and, like all volcanic countries, the scenery is varied, a few miles displaying alternations of "savage hideousness, appalling destructiveness, and almost heavenly beauty."

The mineral wealth of the country is great. Copper, iron, gold, coal, petroleum, silver, quicksilver, and lead abound in most of the islands.* The former for ages formed one of the principal sources of wealth to the Government when they traded with the

* "Ports of Embassy and Legation" (1875), p. 487, with map showing the mineral districts.

annual Dutch ships alone. The country is, as a rule, of moderate elevation, but on a promontory of Kiushiu the volcanic mountain of Wunsentak rises to the line of perpetual snow, and one of the most familiar sights from Tokio is the great snow-capped Fusi Yama, 12,150 feet in height, an extinct volcano, and sometimes styled, owing to the veneration in which it is held, the "Parnassus of Japan." It is a favourite subject for Japanese artists, and appears in some form on almost every bit of Japanese ware intended for the home market. There are scattered over the country numerous lakes, springs, and rivers, but as the latter are usually choked with sand, they are not of much value, except for purposes of irrigation. The climate varies according to latitude; and, as a rule, it is very fine—not too sultry in summer nor too cold in winter. The average greatest cold is about 20° Fahrenheit, while even the hottest days are tempered by cool winds.

Agriculture forms the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and in growing tea, cotton, rice, maize, wheat, buckwheat, millet, &c., they excel. Wild animals, owing to the careful cultivation and dense population of the country, are almost extinct. However, in the north of Nipon and in Yezo a few wolves, boars, and foxes still survive; deer, in the thickly settled country, are protected by law; oxen and cows are used as beasts of burden; and among the common people dogs are still held in superstitious veneration. Pheasants and numerous other wild fowl are plentiful, but noxious reptiles are almost unknown. The plants of the country are many, and forests in the wilder islands and parts incapable of cultivation are luxuriant. Timber cultivation is, however, highly appreciated, and an old law provides that no man shall cut down a tree until he plants another to take its place. Chestnuts, oaks, pines, beech, maple, the lacquer-tree, the camphor-tree, the paper mulberry—extensively used in making the enormous quantity of paper consumed in manufactures by the Japanese—the vegetable wax-tree, bamboos (p. 296), the sago palms, and a number of other useful or valuable trees flourish, the vegetation of the tropics and the frigid and temperate zones being strangely intermingled in Japan. "The tree fern, bamboo, banana, and palm grow side by side with the pine, the oak, and the beech, and coniferæ in a great variety. The camellia, the paulownia, and the chrysanthemum are conspicuous among the indigenous plants. Nymphæas and parnassia fill the lakes and morasses." The tobacco-plant, the tea-shrub, the potato, rice, wheat, barley, and maize are all cultivated, and silkworms reared often within a few miles of each other. It may be added that the flora in many respects bears a likeness to that of North America, as has been demonstrated by the researches of Professor Asa Gray.*

STATISTICS, ETC.

As described in a former work,† the supreme power in the State is now in the hands of the "Mikado," or "Tenno," who, instead of secluding himself, as was at one

* The botany of Japan has, from the days of Thunberg and Siebold, been the theme of a variety of works. A list of the plants, tolerably complete, will be found in the Appendix by Sir William Hooker to Hodgson's "Residence at Nagasaki and Hakodate" (1861), but more fully in the great work of Franchet and Savatier (1874).

† "Races of Mankind," Vol. IV., pp. 268-283.

time the case, mingles freely among his people, and dresses in European costume, closely approximating to that worn by his brethren in the West. The present emperor, the 123rd Mikado of the line, is Mutsūhito, who was born in 1852, and succeeded his father in 1867. He is childless, and accordingly, in the event of his dying without direct descendants, his successor must be elected from among the members of four Imperial families from time immemorial designated for this lofty choice; though even had he children, it does not follow that his son would succeed him. In addition to various other departments of state presided over, as in ordinary Western Governments, by secretaries or ministers, there is a *Genrōin*, or Senate, comprising the princes of the blood imperial, the mediatised princes, who surrendered their feudal power into the hands of the emperor and former great dignitaries of the country, and the *Taichūin*, or Council of State, formed of the superior judges and other persons nominated by the Mikado. The empire is divided into thirty-five *ken*, or rural districts, and three *fu*, or federal districts, viz., Tokio, Osaka, and Kioto. The island of Yezo and the Kuriles, which are inhabited chiefly by the aboriginal Ainos, and considered as Japanese colonies, are administered by a governor, who is directly responsible to the Council of State; and doubtless a similar organisation will be established for the Loochoos, as it seems to be the firm intention of the Japanese to retain these islands. The latest census of the islands, exclusive of Yezo, the Kuriles, Rionkiou (the Japanese name for the Liu Kiu, or Loochoos, as we have corrupted the Chinese designation of the group), and the Bonins, gives the population at 33,312,162, or, inclusive of the whole empire, 33,623,379. Of the inhabitants, the males were nearly half a million in excess over the females. The population was made up of the following classes:—29 members of the Imperial family; 2,883 Kozokou, or ex-Daimios, the feudal princes among whom the country was formerly divided up; 1,823,153 Samourai, or two-sworded men; 7,246 Sotau (Samourai of a lower rank); 8,801 priests of Shinto, one of the religious faiths of the country;* 198,363 Bonzes, or Buddhist priests; 7,680 Buddhist monks, or other *religieuses*; the remainder were “men of the people.” In 1877 the number of foreigners resident in Yokohama was 2,554, nearly one-half of whom were Chinese, and the majority of the remainder English and Americans, though nearly every European nationality is represented. At Nagasaki there were 804 foreigners, of whom the English made up about one-eighth; at Osaka there were 41 foreigners, including 16 Englishmen; and at Hakodate, out of 54 residents there, 23 were English and 19 Chinese. The population of the more important cities is as follows:—Tokio, formerly called Yedo (in 1872), 595,905 people, or with its suburbs, 813,500; Koumamoton, 300,000; Kioto (Miako), 238,663 (in 1872); Osaka (1877), 281,119; Kagosima, 200,000; Yokohama (1872), 61,553; Kanasawa, 60,000; Nagasaki (1876), 47,112; and Niigata (1872), 33,772.

The revenue for 1878-79 was estimated at 53,275,926 yen, or £10,655,185, and the expenditure at precisely the same amount. The national debt amounts to £75,950,070, an increase in one year of the public liabilities to the amount of £2,101,935. Another

* “In its higher forms Shinto is simply a cultured and intellectual atheism; in its lower forms it is blind obedience to governmental and priestly dictates” (Griffis). Buddhism, on importation from China, is the second religion professed, but of late the Government has been in search of a new one.

unwelcome feature in Japanese national life is the gradual but steady depreciation of the paper currency, which is now at a discount of 13 per cent. compared with the silver, a result of the over-issue of this inconvertible money, of which 143,000,000 yen are now in

circulation, it forming almost the only currency in the country. The revenue is derived from customs, land tax, mining tax, taxes on official salaries, family and good service pensions, and produce of the Hokkaidô, or colonies (Yezo and the Kuriles), chiefly consisting of timber, fisheries, furs, and agricultural produce; * the tribute from the Loochoo Islands, the tax on alcoholic liquors and tobacco, stamps, receipts from mines, telegraphs, and railways; the mint, paper money bureau, factories, Government property, &c. On the other hand the revenue is expended on the redemption of domestic debt, foreign debt, civil list of Imperial family, pensions for good services,



FAN-MAKING IN JAPAN.

and to priests, council of state, senate, general assembly, the various departments of the ministry, the colonization commission, the land tax reform bureau, the cost of founding and working industrial undertakings, police in cities and prefectures, police bureau in Tokio "temples of the gods," buildings in cities and prefectures, embankment of rivers, diplomatic and consular services, loans made by Government, &c.†

Military service is obligatory on all Japanese subjects, though, as exemption can be purchased for 270 dollars, and in such a variety of other ways can the first duty of a citizen be evaded, that the law is at present more a theory than an actuality. The first section of this army is the *Yobigoune*, or active army, in which the duration of service is three years. It is composed of all the young men over twenty years of age capable of bearing arms. The next division is the *Kobigoune*, or reserve, formed out of the soldiers who have finished their term of service in the active army. The term on this is fixed



JAPANESE MAKING CALLING-CARDS.

at five years, and the members are called out for exercise for a short period occasionally. A

* Pampelly: "Across America and Asia" (1863), Griffis: "The Mikado's Empire" (1876); and the numerous books and papers referred to in the appendix and throughout its pages.

† "Reports of Embassy and Legation" (1879), p. 102.

third section of the military organisation of the country is *Kokouningouae*, a species of "landwehr," or national guard, in which ought to be enrolled every Japanese from the age of seventeen to forty, without any exceptions. It is, however, never to be called out unless the enemy is on the frontier; then the reserve is incorporated with the regular army. Advancement to the grade of officer is theoretically decreed to depend on merit and education. This army has happily never yet been put to the test, but it is doubtless superior to the old military caste of *Samourai*, or two-sworded men, who were abolished when the new army law was passed in 1872. The standing army will thus consist of about 31,680 men in peace times, and of 16,350 in war, but, of course, the number of men in arms will be vastly increased when the whole of the available fighting strength of the country is mustered. The

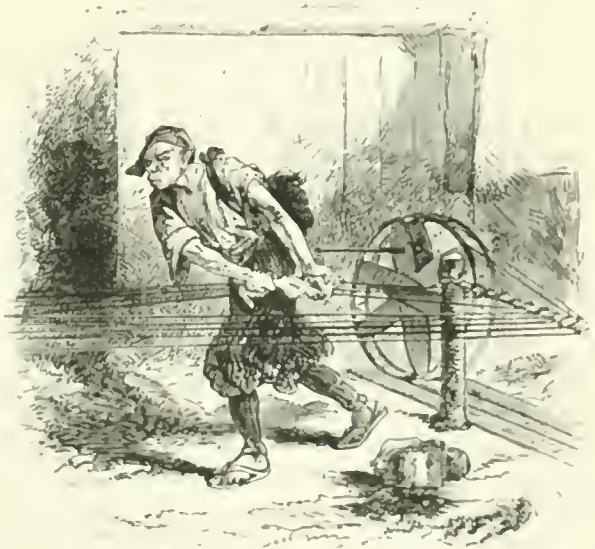


JAPANESE ARTIFICIAL FLOWER-MAKER.

navy is the most powerful possessed by any Eastern nation. In 1879 it consisted of sixteen ships, including three ironclads, manned by upwards of 2,500 seamen, marines, and officers.

The imports in 1876 were valued at 23,961,678 yen, and the exports at 3,716,849 yen more. Of the imports, nearly one-half came from Great Britain, and of the exports, we and our colonies took about one-third.*

These figures are exceeding "dry" in themselves, but they are eloquent in their corollaries. Twenty-five years ago Japan was a closed-up empire. She refused to have anything to do with the world and its ways—she was a law unto herself. Every year a single ship came from Holland, and was permitted—with indignity unbearable† to any but Malayan-Hollanders—to carry away copper bars and



ROPE-MAKING IN JAPAN.

* Behm and Wagner: "Die Bevölkerung der Erde," V. (1878); "Almanach de Gotha" 1879; *Japan Daily Herald*, *Tokio Times*, *Ichu du Japon*, and other Japan newspapers; and a number of private memoranda, obtained from official and other sources.

† The envoys were carried through the country, like prisoners, to pay their tribute for the privilege of trading. But first they had to kick the Bible and spit on the Cross; and, what to such people was, no doubt,

other surplus riches of the country. With the rest of the Western world Dai Nipon declined all intercourse. But when this intercourse was forced upon her by an admiral, whose eloquence was aided by an ironclad, she suddenly woke out of the sleep of ages, and the only fear for Japan nowadays is that she will rush too fast along the path which she has chosen. Japanese youth are in every European university, though already there are good colleges in Japan itself. Japanese doctors graduate, Japanese barristers are "called" in the Inns of Court, and in every department of intellectual life the Niponese promise to hold their own with the Westeras, to whom they were utter strangers only a few years ago. Even Japan is not the Japan it once was. Its seaports are Europeanised, and its shops filled with lacquer and other work, made solely for the "barbarian" markets. It is now, indeed, difficult to get anything real, for so cleverly have old china and the curiosities formerly so common been imitated that it requires a keen-eyed collector to detect the sham. Indeed, the once famous art workmen (pp. 308, 309) of Japan are fast losing their old taste. It is getting corrupted, modernised, vulgarised, and, in time, a real bit of Japanese lacquer or porcelain will be confined to European and American collections, or to the houses of the Daimios, or nobles, who can afford, in these days of their adversity, to keep remnants of the past so easily converted into coin. It was for long enough that anything was European for it to be immediately adopted. But since the Western tour of the Prime Minister in 1873, when that eminent functionary was not so well received as his merits deserved, there has been less eagerness to imitate the mere veneer of European civilisation, and a greater desire to lay deep the foundations of sound education and of culture suited to the genius of the people. Schools were always plentiful in Japan: now they are more systematically regulated; and it is to be hoped, as Mr. E. J. Reed, M.P., has pointed out, that the years wasted in teaching children to read and write the Chinese characters will be saved by the adoption of the Roman letters. Indeed, the necessity of learning French and English has to a great extent forced this reform on the people. Thanks to the efforts of the young empress, female education is not neglected, while throughout the country an excellent system of common schools permeates every village and town; and as the soil and the neighbouring sea produces such abundance of cheap food, there is a good future before Japan, if only the State does not shipwreck itself by going deeper and deeper into debt, or by attempting—as their rulers have recently shown themselves inclined to do—to rival their European models in aggressive wars, or invasions undertaken, with but a slender *casus belli* to excuse them. The Japanese, though possibly more quick-witted than the Chinese, is neither so energetic nor so industrious. He is lethargic, has no idea of saving money for a rainy day, and if by chance he earns a few pence more than are necessary for his daily wants, he spends them on amusement. The artizan idles at his work, for he can live so cheaply that hard work is unnecessary; and when old age begins to creep upon him he ceases to work at all, for then it becomes the duty of his sons to support him in idle ease. If the poor man has no male child, then he adopts one, so that the bread-winner shall not fail him by the time he arrives at the moderate age of fifty.

much worse, were, among other indignities, made to sing and dance, "pretend to be drunk, and play all sorts of pranks for the amusement of the whole court, as well as for the Mikado and Empress, hidden behind a grating."

Altogether, his lot is enviable comparable with that of people in the same rank of life in the large cities of Europe and America, and better even than that of the humbler classes in the great hives of life in the far East.

SOME JAPANESE TOWNS AND TRAITS.

Yokohama is now a thoroughly Europeanised town, and not a moral one by any means. The lives led on the "Bluff" at Yokohama are not calculated to impress the Japanese very favourably with the amenities of Western civilisation. But Yedo—now called Tokio, since the Mikado took up his residence there—is more like what old Japan was. It is connected with the seaport by a line of railway, built in 1872 at a great cost to the country, though as yet the traffic is not sufficient to make it a commercial success. The same may be said of the other Japanese railways. They take routes which do not enable the produce of the country to be brought into the towns, and hence—though, as in the case of the Kobé and Osaka line, they run into the mining districts—their usefulness and value to the country at large is greatly diminished. When the visitor reaches Tokio he feels that he is really in Japan, for, with the exception of the diplomatic corps, few, if any, foreigners reside in the capital. But a recent writer, well acquainted with the capital, notes that even Tokio is so changed that the visitor who knew it in 1868 would hardly recognise it in 1879. "Such a one would be surprised to see dotted about among the Oriental edifices and exotic trees, tall factory chimneys, and goods of all sorts, presenting an extraordinary medley of European machinery and Japanese aims and ends. He would behold with astonishment foreign residents and *employés* admitted to the royal presence to offer new year salutations, and introduced by a chamberlain in a frock coat decorated with gold lace. Still more surprised would he be to see old men in overcoats and top-boots walking about, girt with two swords, and armed with the inevitable umbrella of the country. On all sides he would hear new names and see new institutions, and yet he would speedily discover old functions surviving under fresh titles, the same hearts beating beneath the strange garments, and the people virtually pretty much the same as they were when he left them."* But the narrow streets, with the castellated *yashyis*, or residences of the Daimios, the magnificent temple of Sheba, with its doors and railings of splendid Corean bronze, where are buried most of the long line of Tycoons † (Shōguns), or military rulers, who for so long divided the authority with the Mikados, their masters, and the crowd of jinrikishas, or wheeled chairs, drawn by a man in the shafts, remind the visitor that it will be long before all the Old World characteristics of the capital of the Mikado disappear. At Kobe (Hiogo) the foreign settlement is all spick and span, "with a handsome parade, and grass and trees planted boulevard fashion along the edge of the sea. It is all remarkably clean, but quite uninteresting." Kioto—the ancient capital—Mrs. Brassey describes as a thoroughly Japanese town, which contains probably not a single European. Its theatres and jugglers are famous throughout the empire, and in its suburbs are numberless tea-houses and other places of entertainment. Japanese towns being built

* "Cassell's Family Magazine" 1879, p. 169.

† This is not a Japanese word: it is a corruption of the Chinese "Fu-Kun."

of wood, fires are frequent, and as the revolution which the country has undergone in the last ten years has resulted in once important places sinking into insignificance, many cities anciently famous are gradually falling into decay, and in a few years will be nothing more than villages. Indeed, by-and-by the treaty or open ports will be about the only ones which will retain any of their old magnificence, though it is almost certain, unless there comes a reaction—and now that the Satsuma rebellion, just finished, has crushed out the last resistance of the old Conservative vested interest, this is not likely—in all probability the whole country will be thrown open to trade. At Yokohama is the Government arsenal, in which 2,000 Japanese workmen are employed, under the superintendence of French officers, and where there are fine docks for repairing vessels. Osaka, twenty miles from Kobe, is pleasantly situated on a fruitful plain near a navigable river spanned by upwards of a hundred bridges, many of them, according to Mr. Spry, of great beauty. It contains many fine temples, but otherwise the city is not imposing for the magnificence of its public buildings. Nagasaki is now only noted as being close to Deshima, or Decima (p. 305), the place to which the Dutch were forced in early days to trade. But the Japanese towns are so numerous and so much alike, that in a brief sketch, such as this must necessarily be, it is needless to describe them in further detail. The shops form a never-ending source of attraction to Europeans. For miles in the large cities one may walk through rows of these wonderful store-houses of Japanese art and ingenuity. "Wherever we go, the city," Mr. Spry remarks of Tokio, "is full of life and excitement, with a swarming population. The street vendor, with his ambulatory stock over his shoulder on a bamboo pole, or pitched down at the corner of a street, is surrounded with a varied assortment of odds and ends. The acrobat and conjuror amuse extensive audiences collected around them. The story-teller, with his wondrous tales (after the style of the familiar 'Arabian Nights'), delights an attractive crowd. Hundreds of officials—army, navy, and civil service—all in European costume, are decorated with gold lace, gilt buttons, and other insignia of rank; even the police and soldiers are after our own familiar models. Jinrikisha men, coolies, and porters, dragging carts laden with goods, all help to swell the tide of human life" (pp. 313, 317). Shimonoséki (p. 304), at the entrance to the "Inland Sea," is a town of one street running for two miles at the base of a range of low steep hills. It is becoming a place of some commercial importance, and is historically notorious as the spot where, in 1853, the combined squadrons of England, France, Holland, and the United States bombarded the batteries of the Choshiu class.

So rapidly is the country advancing that it is almost a waste of labour to write an elaborate description of its more evanescent features. In a few years guide books get antiquated, and on probably no country in the world has there been more written than on Japan, within the twenty years during which it has opened itself to the commerce, science, and literature of the world at large. It is better to dismiss it with the statistics which we have supplied, though, from its importance in the family of nations, it would otherwise have deserved volumes at our hands, had not, happily, those volumes been written by those whose qualifications for their tasks it would be presumptuous on our part to challenge by trying to rival them.

In conversing with several intelligent Japanese, and with American, English, and other foreigners long resident in Japan, the writer has found two beliefs entertained.



VIEW FROM THE BRIDGE OF NIPPON, TOKIO.

One is, that in a few years Japan will be entirely Europeanised or Americanised, and that the old life will have entirely departed. Another view, more generally embraced, is that after learning everything that can be taught by the Europeans she will do without them. This, indeed, she is doing already. A European in a high position is engaged for so many years, and well paid for his labour and knowledge; but as soon as his term is out he is dismissed: hence Nipon is not the country for a young man wishing to "make a career." Some will even go so far as to say that a reaction will come on, and that by-and-by, Japan having mentally imbibed everything that she cares to copy from the Western world, will shut her ports more closely against strangers than ever she closed them before. If so, the signs of the coming change will soon be apparent, for already the Japanese have learned from us all that they need, and have trained up young men capable of filling the places of the discarded foreigners. The exports are not great, and they take from us little which they really require, or which they could not manufacture quite as well, if not better, themselves. It is, however, possible that they will compromise by becoming "protectionists," like some of their allies on this side the world.*

THE AINO COUNTRY.

When the Japanese came to the islands they now occupy—probably from some part of Southern Asia—they found the country thinly occupied by the Ainos, an aboriginal race with great heads of hair, profuse beards and moustaches, and in some cases with unusually thick coats of hair on their bodies, though it is an exaggeration to style them "hairy men." The proof that they lived even in Nipon † is the finding of flint, arrow, and spear-heads, hammers, chisels, serapers, and other remnants of the stone stage in the islands, where none of the people now live, though their tools are identical with those either now or lately used in Yezo and other Aino strongholds. There are also mounds containing great quantities of bones of the natives slain in combat with the invaders, and many of the geographical names in Nipon are of Aino origin. Mr. Griffis, contrary to the assertion of most other writers, considers that the Aino language is not widely apart from the Japanese—differing not more widely, indeed, than do certain Chinese dialects from each other. Ainos and Japanese at present speak in a sort of mongrel *lingua franca*, but they have little difficulty in learning to speak the language of each other. The most ancient specimens of the Japanese tongue are found to show as great a likeness to the Aino as to modern Japanese. Aino, moreover, is said to approximate to certain of the Altai dialects. It is therefore probable that the present Japanese result from the intermarriage

* Adams: "History of Japan" (1874); Mounsey: "Satsuma Rebellion" (1879); "Kinse Shiriaku," Trans. by E. Satow (Yokohama, 1873); House: "Kagoshima" (Tokio, 1875); "Reports of General Capron and his Foreign Assistants" (Tokio, 1875); Fraissinet: "Le Japon, Histoire et Description, mœurs, coutumes et Religion" (1866); Heine: "Japan" (1873); Humbert: "Japan" (1877); Mossman: "New Japan" (1875); Siebold: "Nippon" (1834-37); Bousquet: "La Japon Contemporain" (1877); Guimet: "Promenades Japonaises" (1877); T.A.P.: "Our Neighbourhood" (1878), &c. &c.

† In accordance with the almost universal usage of all geographers, I use the word Nipon, Nippon, or Nippon, to designate the main island. Dai Nippon, or Nihon—that is, Great Japan—is, however, the name of the whole empire. In the military geography of Japan (Heiyo Nippon Chiri Yoshi, 1872), the main island is called Hondo.

of the original invaders with the *Ebisū*, or barbarians. The latter were, however, not conquered in a day; it required centuries of fighting before they became as thoroughly subdued and cowed as they now are. For ages the distinction between the conquered and the conqueror, as between the Saxon and the Norman, was kept up; but at length, according to the thoughtful writer whom I have mentioned, the fusion of races was complete, and the homogeneous Japanese people appeared. But by this time the less tamed or undiluted Ainos had retreated to *Yezo*, shut off by *Tsugaru Straits* from *Nipon*, to *Saghalin*, and to some of the neighbouring Kurile islands, where they still live, thoroughly cowed when under subjection to the Japanese, who, though heartily despising them, are, nevertheless, doing what they can to civilise them by a process of miscegenation. The *Yezo Colonization Department* have taken fifty Japanese girls, daughters of officials, and educated them to become the wives of Ainos, a scheme as wild, Mr. Watson remarks,* if carried out, as to take fifty girls from a London boarding-school and wed them to Erse-speaking Celts in *Connemara*: or rather, a little worse, for the Aino is a heathen savage, a hunter and fisher, though good-natured, brave, faithful, peaceful, gentle, indifferently honest, and very stupid. "An infusion of foreign blood," writes Mr. Griffin, "the long effects of the daily hot baths, and the warm climate of Southern Japan, of Chinese civilisation, of agricultural instead of the hunter's method of life, have wrought the change between the Aino and the Japanese. It seems equally certain that almost all that the Japanese possess, which is not of Chinese, Corean, or Tartar origin, has descended from the Aino, or has been developed on an Aino model. The Ainos of *Yezo* hold politically the same relation to the Japanese as the North American Indians do to the white people of the United States; but ethnically they are, with probability, bordering very closely on certainty, as to the Saxons to the English." †

Yezo, which is their chief district, is a mountain mass somewhat larger than *Ireland*, though the inhabitants are few, ‡ the pure Ainos here and on the islands adjoining not numbering more than 16,000. For long the Japanese looked upon the *Hokkaidō*, or colonies—as these islands are considered—in a contemptuous fashion. But the occupation of *Saghalin* by the Russians, on the plea of its being uninhabited land, and its eventual surrender, alarmed the *Tokio* authorities, lest a similar plea might be advanced for the annexation of *Yezo*. Accordingly, considerable efforts have been made to develop its resources. The seat of government is at *Saporo*, distant about 110 miles from *Hakodate*, one of the treaty ports, where reside various foreigners and their consuls, though the superior attraction of *Endermo* must eventually lead to its superseding *Hakodate*, should the trade of the island ever become of any great importance. The forests of the island constitute its chief source of wealth, but as yet these forests are imperfectly developed, and timber is imported from *Oregon*, *British Columbia*, and *Washington territory*, which could be obtained 5,000 miles nearer home. Even when the logs are cut and floated down the rivers, contrary to the old laws in force in the more settled parts of the island,

* *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLIV. (1878), p. 131.

† "The Mikado's Empire" (1876), p. 35; see also "Races of Mankind," Vol. IV., p. 283.

‡ For *Yezo* and the Kuriles the latest census claims a population of 144,069.

no efforts are made to replant the valuable crop of which the soil has been robbed. In the Ishikari and other rivers salmon are caught in enormous quantities, and disposed of so cheaply as "scarcely to have a price, according to our idea of the word." It could be sold in London, the size of those which now cost 9d., for about 2½d. per tin. The Government draw their revenue from the fishermen by receiving one salmon in so many caught; but to ensure the due proportion of tribute being delivered, there is employed so many superintendents and tax collectors that, to use the language of one of the American engineers engaged in investigating the resources of the island, "there is an official for every fish caught." Great quantities of edible seaweed is likewise dried, and exported, chiefly from Hakodate, for the Chinese market. But Yezo has other riches beside trees, tangle, and fish. Silver, lead, manganese, iron-pyrites, iron, sand, copper, zinc, rock-oil, gypsum, and sulphur—the latter in great abundance—have been discovered to exist in different places. The coal is, however, the most important of the island wealth, for though not of the finest quality, its accessibility and general request will lead to its giving great returns to the Government or to the private individuals to whom the Government might grant the right of working the mines.* However, until the island is opened out to foreign colonization, not much can be done to make it a source of revenue to Japan and prosperity to her people. The climate, though delightful for Europeans, is too severe for the Southern constitution, but as it produces hemp, rice, and maize, it cannot, according to Northern ideas, be very inclement. Yet the Japanese dread it so much that on the approach of winter thousands of fishermen, labourers, and others, quit it for their homes in the more southern islands. The scenery of the interior of Yezo is wild, but, owing to the dense forests, occasionally somewhat monotonous; and the coast is for the most part bordered by high cliffs. Sapporo, the site of which eight years ago was covered with a dense jungle, is now a rising town, through which runs a rapid mountain stream, furnishing through a canal ample water supply for the town and for irrigation purposes. Of its public institutions, established by the "Kaitakushi," or Colonization Department, the Agricultural College is the most remarkable. Here a good general and scientific education can be obtained, though, by a recent law, all scientific education is to be given in English, while students who study French must enter the medical schools, and those who select German must choose jurisprudence. The object of this arbitrary law is to prevent that frittering away of their time on a multiplicity of subjects, which is one of the characteristics of the young Japanese, captivated with the novelty of the treasures of learning thrown open to him within the last few years. In addition to the college, saw mills, furniture factories, silk factories, a brewery, and a tannery are in active operation. Horses, sheep, cattle, and swine are being extensively bred, though the distance from the nearest markets operates prejudicially against the latest departure in Japanese "colonization."

The island of *Saghalin*, which was in 1875 formally ceded to Russia, though still partially inhabited by Japanese, is another portion of the Aino country. The whole of it is within easy reach of the continent, from which possibly the Ainos came, or to which they went, while the southern end of it is only separated from Yezo by the narrow Strait of

* Blakiston: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLII. (1872), p. 122.

La Perouse. At one point—Nirato—a little north of the fifty-second parallel, the opposite Asiatic shore is only five miles distant. Here the water is so shallow that junks cannot cross it at low tide, and after long prevalent winds the ground is left dry, and the natives can, according to the statements made to Mr. Griffis, walk dryshod into Asia. During three or four of the winter months the strait is frozen over, so that in a single hour communication between the island and the mainland is effected by means of dog-sledges. Thus the Ainos,



A STREET IN TOKIO (SHOWING EXTERIOR OF A PALACE, OR YASHGI.)

even without canoes, could easily enter Saghalin at this spot, and, as a matter of fact, communication with the continent is continually taking place, many of the Ainos having been attracted to the Amoor, Alexandrovsk, and the intervening settlements since the Russians established themselves on the coast.* It is, however, probable that the savages originally came from the north, tempted by the richer fisheries and the warmer climate of the south. On a small district on the mainland the Aino tongue is spoken; in Yezo there are at least two dialects of it, and several in Saghalin.†

* Bax, "The Eastern Seas" 1875, p. 178.

† Aston: *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society* (1879), p. 598.

To return to the island itself. Up to the year 1857 it was portrayed on English maps as a peninsula, and on Japanese charts the sea intervening between it and the mainland is actually represented by a shoal, which, as we have seen, it sometimes is. In 1807 the Russians took possession of the island, but afterwards abandoned it. The Japanese did not make their appearance until 1780, though they never passed the winter there; while the Chinese, whom the maps made owners of the northern part, had no more connection with the island than consisted in occasional visits of their traders from the Amoor for the purpose of buying furs. Soon after the Crimean War the Russians, however, began to reconstruct their forts in the southern part of the country, and in 1853 they opened the coal mines at Dooi, or Jonquiere Bay, and gradually treated Saghalin as if it was their own. This the Japanese did not actually resent; they merely followed their example. Wherever the Russians settled so did the Japanese, and if Russian colonists appeared at any point, by an almost mechanical movement Japanese colonists were sure to settle not far off.

These rivalries are now at an end, and the island is one of the Siberian penal colonies. Its length is 514 miles, its greatest breadth 78, its least breadth 17, and its superficies 1,065 square miles, or about equal to the Province of St. Petersburg. It may be described as consisting of one long mountain range and its subsidiary spurs, sometimes attaining the height of 2,000 feet or more, though never covered with perpetual snow, as might be expected from the severe climate of the locality. The highest peaks are either bare or covered with brushwood, but the majority of the mountains are covered from top to bottom with forests, chiefly of maple. The rivers are not of great importance, and the largest of them are only navigable for boats. The lakes are, in some cases, of considerable size, and have the peculiarity of communicating with the sea by means of small, though deep, channels. Coal exists in various parts of the island, and though it is only a lignite, is of a rather better quality than ordinary, and brings a higher price than either Australian or Japanese coal. The timber, hunting grounds, and fisheries form the other sources of wealth, though, judging from what is found in Yezo, it seems very unlikely that the mountains of Saghalin are deficient in metals. However, a country in which the sable, otter, fox, and bear are the fur animals, or on the shores of which Arctic whales and fur seals disport, can never yield much to agriculture. The hottest month has a mean temperature not higher than $62^{\circ}37$, and the coldest 14° Fahr. The harshness of its climate is intensified by its extreme dampness, its fogs, and by the abundance of rain in summer and snow in winter. Hence, the population of 16,000 or 17,000 souls receive their corn from Russia and their rice from Japan. Nevertheless, cattle might be bred, provided the pastures were cleared—for there are few natural meadows—but the mosquitoes and other insect pests which abound will greatly interfere with the comfortable feeding of stock. Potatoes, cucumbers, and cabbages can be grown, but as the mountainous character of the ground will make roads costly to construct, the island will most likely long remain in its present desolate condition.

The population consists of Russians—chiefly convicts and their guards—Japanese, Giliacks, Ainos, Orokaps, and some persons of European and American extraction. The Japanese have, since the Russians took possession of the island, decreased in number.

The Chinese work chiefly at the coal mines, which are leased by an American company, and have not their families with them. The Giliacks are hunters, fishermen, and traders among the Ainos, who inhabit the southern part of the island to the number of 3,000. The Orokapas are a tribe similar to the Tungoose, and live in the mountains, hunting the forest animals, or, when unsuccessful in the chase, occupying themselves in fishing. Altogether it is doubtful whether there are twelve persons to a mile in the whole island. Furs and fish are the only exports; the latter all go to the Japanese, while the former is divided among the Russians, Japanese, and Americans. The total amount of furs exported has been estimated at 24,000 otters, 1,300 sables, and 6,000 foxes, but the number of bear, deer, and seal-skins has not been ascertained. It is, however, known that thirty-five roubles expended in articles of barter will bring to the shrewd trader furs worth, in St. Petersburg, from 600 to 700 roubles, though all this is not profit, as the transit of the goods and furs is a heavy item in the expenses. It may be added that the Russian engineers who have examined Saghalin pronounce it in its present condition of little use as "a base for offensive operations against a foreign enemy, not only in the event of preparing a descent, but as a starting-point for our cruisers."* The authorities are at present (1879) encouraging the immigration of Chinese both to the island and to the contiguous mainland, and a naval station is rumoured to be forming somewhere in the vicinity.

The *Kuriles* stretch between Yezo and Kamtchatka, "like the ruins of a causeway," prolonged by the stepping-stones of the Aleutian Isles on to Alaska, and thus to the American continent. The inhabitants are chiefly Ainos, but of the twenty-two islands the Russians until recently claimed nineteen, containing an area of about 3,813 square miles, and a population of 200 to 300: the remainder (or Great Kuriles) have always been Japanese. The people are very poor, so poor, indeed, that for many years past no tribute has been collected from them. The islands are all volcanic, some of them are picturesque and elevated, but of sterile soil, and surrounded by hidden rocks and shoals, so that the cautious mariner gives them a wide berth, and, indeed, almost the only visitors to them are the fur traders engaged in bartering the pelts of foxes, wolves, seals, and beavers, which, owing to the discreet management of the Russians, still maintain their foothold on these lonely Asiatic sea spots. From Paramushir Isle it is but a step over the Kurile Strait to the Peninsula of Kamtchatka, which, with Saghalin, Yezo, and the Kuriles, shuts out from the North Pacific the Sea of Okhotsk, which forms the southern boundary of Eastern Siberia, just as the Sea of Kamtchatka and Behring Strait lave its shores facing America. In dreary Kamtchatka, perhaps the most dismal part of all the Russian possessions in Asia, we are still in the Aino land, for though the Kamtchatkdals have changed their names, their tongue tells their origin. Indeed, from Kamtchatka perhaps came some of those sea nomads from whom the North American Indians originated. We know that the people from Asia carry on extensive intercourse with those on the opposite side of Behring Strait.† In the winter they cross on the ice, and in the summer hold a sort of fair on the Isle of Ilir, and in other intermediate commercial meeting-places.

* Veniukof: *Journal of the Royal Geographical Society*, Vol. XLII. (1872), p. 388.

† "Races of Mankinl," Vol. I., p. 3.

That they may have migrated by this route from Asia there seems no reason whatever to doubt, but it is also just possible, if not probable, that more southern people contributed their quota to the colonization of America. Captain Bax notes that three canoes, containing twelve men belonging to the Pelew Isles, were cast away in 1874, and after being sixty-four days at sea, and travelling 1,300 miles, arrived all safe at Kelung in Formosa, and were afterwards taken back, *via* Hong Kong, to their homes. They had lived on the fish they caught, and the rain supplied them with water to drink. This proves, in a very striking manner, how easily emigration may take place from the most unlikely localities. Finally, we know, as I have pointed out elsewhere, that many Japanese junks have been cast away in storms, and that some of them have succeeded in landing on the American shores, borne on the Kuro Siwo current, or Black Stream of Japan, which flows up past Formosa (p. 298), Japan, the Kurile, and Aleutian Islands, Alaska, Oregon, and California, and thence bends westward to the Sandwich Islands. It is by this current that fir-trees from Oregon make their appearance in Hawaii. No doubt in twenty centuries thousands of junks have been carried along in this current helpless because of their broken rudders or torn sails; but between 1782 and 1876 we have certified lists of forty-nine such instances. Nineteen of these stranded or their crews landed on the Aleutian Islands, ten in Alaska or British America, three on the coast of the United States further to the south, and two on the Sandwich Islands. Of the junks some had been eighteen months adrift, a few were waterlogged, full of live fish, or black with age. Numerous other junks have been picked up in the Pacific with crews in them dead and alive, and there are also traditional stories of these Japanese and Chinese wanderers having landed; but numerical data are wanting.* Hence Japan, the Kuriles, and Kamtchatka may not only be contiguous to America geographically, but nearly allied to her most ancient settlers by blood ties also. However, in passing from the vicinity of the New World again to the Old, we reach a land which has now but little in common with that which we have almost landed on. People, animals, products—and above all, institutions and modes of thought—are in Continental Asia and Continental America as widely apart as daylight is from darkness!

* Brooks: *Proceedings of the California Academy of Sciences*, 1875; Griffis: "Mikado's Empire," pp. 579-60; Alecock: "Capital of the Tyeoon," vol. ii., pp. 45-50, for some reference to this subject.

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