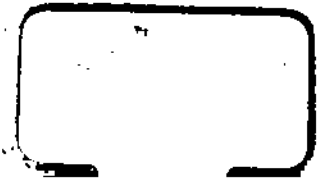
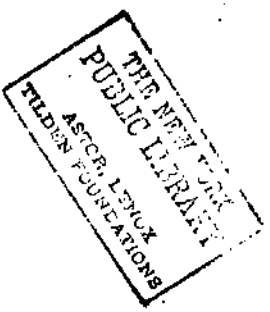
Australia,
or England in the South

By GEORGE SUTHERLAND, M.A.
of Melbourne University

WITH TWENTY-SEVEN ILLUSTRATIONS

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Stockman yarding Cattle.

Australia

or

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By

GEORGE SUTHERLAND, M.A.

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With Twenty-seven Illustrations

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CONTENTS.

AUSTRALIA

OR

ENGLAND IN THE SOUTH

INTRODUCTION.

IT has been well said by an eminent writer of recent date that the expansion of the Anglo-Saxon race over the distant regions of the earth's surface is probably the most interesting study and the most momentous fact of modern English History.* Wherever the Englishman goes he is constantly reminded of the importance of the great race of mankind to which he belongs. While he stays at home he is proud of his country; but after he has travelled he becomes proud of his race. He finds in the New World that his American cousins exhibit an energy and an intelligence which are simply unparalleled in any other part of the world. He finds that in India and the East the English language, English literature, English trade and commerce are rapidly becoming cosmopolitan, and the name of the British nation is synonymous with greatness.

* Professor Seeley's *Expansion of England.*

But it is in Australia that he finds, perhaps, the most instructive study of all. There, in the uttermost parts of the earth, he sees an English nation unaltered by the intermixture of races and unestranged by wars or quarrels. He sees an island continent, embracing an area of nearly three million square miles, peopled by his own countrymen, who from one end of the land to the other are as loyal to their fatherland and to the race to which they belong as if they lived in Kent or Middlesex. In their purely British character and tenacious attachment to British memories and customs the Australian people are unique among Colonials of all parts of the globe; and it is a significant fact, too, that in the race for material prosperity they have outstripped their relatives, and taken the very first position among mankind. The average earnings of the Australian population are greater than those of any other country on the face of the earth. Their State income now exceeds a total of £20,000,000 per annum. At the same rate, in proportion to population, the revenue of the United Kingdom would be somewhat over £300,000,000, instead of being, as it is, less than £90,000,000. The explanation is not to be found in excessive taxation, but in the fact that many valuable sources of revenue, and notably the railways—worth at a low estimate about £70,000,000—are the property of the people. The national debt of Australia, instead of representing only so much gunpowder, blown away hundreds of years ago, is for the most part only a mortgage on a splendid property which increases in value from year to year.

Nor is the individual wealth of the people less re-

markable than that of their Governments. The total assets of the twenty-eight banks of issue were in 1884 no less than £93,404,224, and at the present moment certainly exceed a hundred millions sterling; while deposits at savings banks amount to considerably over ten millions, the average balance to the credit of each depositor being about £28. Turning to the figures showing the extent of trade, it will be found that in this respect also the Australian colonies are far ahead of any other portion of the British Empire. The combined exports and imports of the United Kingdom amount to a little over £20 per head of the population. In Australia the figure is almost exactly double that amount, or £40 per head. These few facts will at once show that in some respects, at all events, the Australians are a remarkable people. But it is not to their material prosperity or their commercial success that I wish to draw attention. Facts and figures can give but a scanty notion as to how the people of any country live—their occupations and amusements, their virtues and their failings, and the thousand details and incidents which go to make up the sum of human existence. It is to the delineation of the character of the Australian people and their conditions of life, as observed by one who has spent a large proportion of his years in the principal colonies, that the following pages will be devoted, in the hope that they may prove interesting not only to those who may never have an opportunity of visiting Greater Britain at the Antipodes, but also to those who can find time and leisure to go and see for themselves.

CHAPTER I.

A Trip to Australia—A Smart Globe Trotter—Life on an Ocean Steamer—Artemus Ward on the Voyage to Australia—Escaping an English Winter.

A VISIT to Australia may very comfortably be accomplished in about four or five months. It is certainly wonderful how much may be seen in that short space of time. I knew a professor in one of the Australian Universities who started from Melbourne on a trip to the old countries in the month of November and reached Australia on the return voyage during the course of the next March. In the interval he had visited all the leading centres of population in Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany and America. He had inspected all the great engineering works of the Old and the New World, and collected an immense amount of information, the mere mention of which would afford occupation for many an interesting hour. Without recommending such zeal and assiduity as this, it may still be asserted that very few people have any idea of the large proportion of the earth's surface which may be interviewed in the short space of three or four months. Nor need the cost of such a trip be at all excessive. It is possible to visit all the leading colonies of Australia, to the great benefit of one's health and spirits, for little more than £150 or £200, travelling

always first class and obtaining good accommodation everywhere.

For the sake of saving time and avoiding the discomforts of travelling in the Atlantic and the Bay of Biscay, take the train to Naples, Marseilles, or Venice, and at any of these places catch the steamer of the Orient, Messageries, or P. and O. line. In about thirty-five days from leaving London the passenger is landed by these steamers at Adelaide, after a passage of great comfort and interest. Along the Mediterranean the voyage is like a yachting trip. There is usually plenty of pleasant company, and in the sheltered waters of the Mediterranean few people are much troubled by sea-sickness. In little more than five days Port Said is reached, and after about thirty hours of mingled sight-seeing and voyaging across the Isthmus of Suez the traveller emerges upon the Red Sea. The five days' trip to Aden is never rough, but in summer time is of course unpleasantly hot. The ill effects, however, if there be any, are soon thrown off in the trip across the Indian Ocean. Steamers of the different lines take different courses. The Orient boats go from Aden to Adelaide in almost a straight line, sometimes stopping at the small tropical island of Diego Garcia. By the P. and O. line the visitor obtains a glimpse of Ceylon and has his first run upon Australian soil at Albany or King George's Sound, in Western Australia. The French steamers on the other hand, call at the little settlement of Mahé, in the Seychelle Islands, and the French colony of Réunion, after which they stay for a day or so at Mauritius. My last trip was accomplished in one of

these Messageries steamers, and certainly nothing could have been more pleasant and agreeable. The distance of time from port to port was never more than fourteen days, and in most cases only three or four days. The only disagreeable part of the journey was off Cape Leeuwin, the south-western part of Australia, where it is not unusual to experience a day or two of rough weather. But by the time Australian waters have been reached the tourist is well-seasoned to a seafaring life. An easy mind, with plenty to eat and nothing to do, probably adds half a stone or thereabouts to his weight, and he feels in good humour with himself and everybody else. Artemus Ward used to narrate how, after showing a man all over the United States as the "Living Skeleton," he took him a trip to Australia and was horrified to find that on the voyage he began to add flesh at a prodigious rate. The voyage, however, was fortunately a rather long one, and, when they landed at Sydney, Artemus was able to show his *protégé* off as "the Fat Man" and realize a handsome sum thereby. As a matter of fact, Artemus never went to Australia. It would have done him good if he had made the voyage, and there is many another thin and careworn man to whom the sea trip to the southern hemisphere would be as the renewing of his life. Certainly no change could be more thorough in the matter of climate than that from an English winter to an Australian summer. In December and January and February, when London is cold and wet—in a constant succession of hard frost and mist and rain, the Australian colonies are basking in bright warm sunshine.

The sky—and such a sky is never seen within hundreds of miles of London—remains unclouded sometimes for weeks and months. People wear the lightest of clothing and live as much as possible in the open air. The Christmas dinner is eaten, not by the blaze of a huge fire as in England, but under the clusters of the grape-vines that form the roof of the summer-house. By going to Australia in October or November people have an opportunity of dropping the winter clear out of their lives. I know a young lady of whom it has been truly said that, although she is twenty-four years old, she is still a maid of twenty winters. The fact is that she has made the voyage to England four times, and always in the summer.

CHAPTER II.

Melbourne and Adelaide—A Long Afternoon's Walk—Aggravating Mistakes of Travellers—Population of Melbourne—Its Great Area—Dress of the People—Expensive Buildings—Adelaide: its Fine Situation.

MELBOURNE and Adelaide, although grouped together as being the leading cities of Southern Australia, are by no means so close to one another as might appear from a casual glance at the map. People tell a story out in Australia of a man in Melbourne who one day received a note from a friend in England, in which the writer said, "I send herewith a small parcel for my friend

Mr. ———, of Adelaide, and if you would kindly take a walk over, say some Sunday afternoon, and deliver it to him, I should be much obliged." Imagine a resident of London taking a walk some Sunday afternoon to deliver a parcel to a friend in Edinburgh! The distance from Melbourne to Adelaide is about 575 miles. That is the length of the new Intercolonial Railway joining the two capitals, and by any other route of travel the journey would be rather increased than shortened. Melbourne, of course, is by far the more important of the two. Numbering no less than 300,000 souls, it is in the mere matter of population the fourth or fifth English-speaking city in the British Empire; and if the element of wealth be taken into consideration, it may safely be asserted that, besides London, the Sovereign of Great Britain does not reign over any city of greater importance than Melbourne. The city of Sydney now runs a very close race with its southern rival, and Adelaide, with about 130,000 inhabitants, possesses quite half the wealth and influence of its larger neighbours.

So little of this, however, is generally known, that even at the present day it is by no means an infrequent occurrence for a traveller by one of the ocean steamers to mistake one of the small ports in the vicinity of an Australian city for the capital itself. One tourist, applying a field-glass to his eyes, after the vessel had anchored off Williamstown, the outer port of Melbourne, was heard to remark,—

"So this is Melbourne, is it? Well, I would not have thought it was so large as this."

When a resident of Australia hears this kind of remark he naturally burns with indignation, and wonders how it is that the English in one quarter of the globe know so little of the English in other lands. Melbourne is, indeed, a large city at the present time, and the area over which its handsome buildings are spread is something enormous. It is a fact that this city covers almost exactly the same space as Paris. In population it may be classed between Manchester and Sheffield, but in the extent and value of its buildings no other city of equal population can rival it. In every quarter of the widely spread suburbs the desire to possess a garden is almost universal, and many people refuse to live in any but absolutely detached houses. The tenement system, as it exists in London, Glasgow and New York, is practically unknown. Large areas of suburban land are covered with small, but neatly built, houses purchased by working men for themselves through the building societies; and it is not difficult to specify several places in which by this means a population of from 10,000 to 20,000 persons have gathered into a place which ten years previously was quite unoccupied.

So far as dress is concerned the Australian colonies are the land of liberty. The ladies who patronize what is called "the Block" in Melbourne certainly strive most assiduously to keep up with the Parisian fashions. Yet even ladies are usually about a year behindhand in the style of their dresses, and their admirers of the other sex at least two years. Observe a group of men standing at the corner of two streets discussing

some event of interest. Seen from above, they present what may be called a "study in hats." Every man seems to wear what pleases himself—from the black or grey "stove-pipe" to the slouch felt of Mexican or Californian pattern. Few men like to follow very closely the latest fashions of England or the Continent,

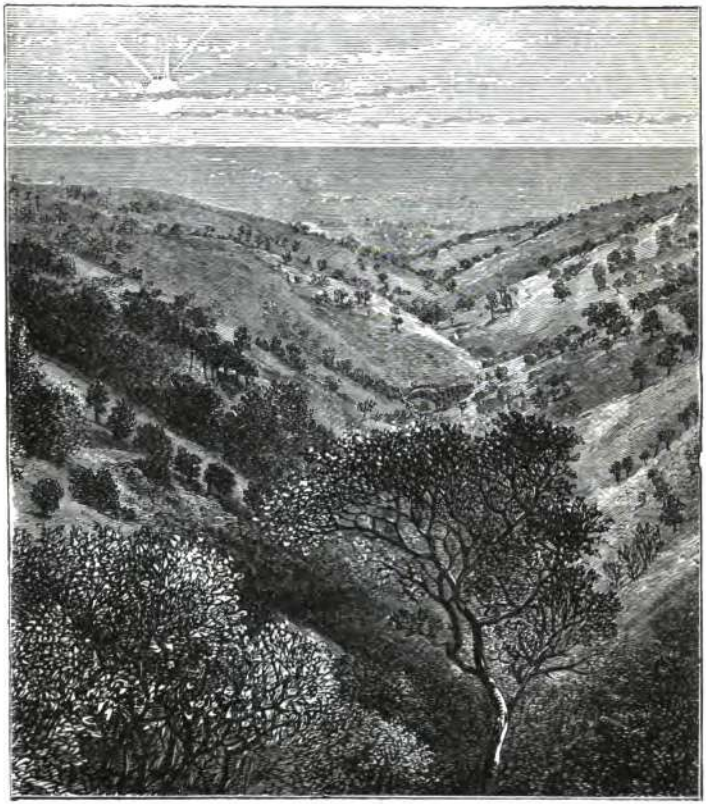
Collins Street, Melbourne.

for fear of being contemptuously regarded as "new chums." A new arrival is generally to be distinguished almost at a glance from the style of his hat, the elevation of his collar, the angle at which his coat is cut, the pattern of his trousers and the shape of his boots. Among ladies the difference is not so marked, but it

must be admitted that for elegance and taste the dress of a new arrival is very frequently much superior to that of the Australian resident.

In the outward appearance of the streets Adelaide very closely resembles Melbourne. The main street of the city, King William Street, is, like Collins Street in Melbourne, chiefly devoted to the business of great banking and commercial institutions. No expense is spared in the erection of these buildings. Collins Street is worth an almost fabulous sum of money, and the price per foot at which frontages are sold is scarcely to be equalled in any city excepting London or New York. The main streets of Adelaide, although the city is not half so large as Melbourne, are almost equally valuable. Of course, from a business point of view, the South Australian capital is a less important city than that of Victoria. But in the matter of situation Adelaide certainly has all the advantage. Melbourne has some fine suburbs, some lying towards the sea-coast, on open, undulating land, and others on the more hilly ground towards the interior; but the business quarter of the city lies in a hollow, through which much of the drainage for the whole area passes. Adelaide, on the other hand, is entirely situated on a broad plain, about four miles distant from the sea, and overlooked by the hills of the Mount Lofty Ranges, among which are many fine pieces of scenery, such as "Waterfall Gully." The distinguishing feature of the city is its broad belt of "Park Lands," dividing off the city proper from the suburbs, and covered with indigenous trees and plantations. Adelaide has, indeed, a larger

proportion of park land in its vicinity than any other city with which I am acquainted, and from a distance it



Waterfall Gulley, Adelaide.

presents the appearance of a town set out in the midst of a plantation. But as regards palatial residences

Melbourne is *facile princeps*. Rich men of all the colonies seem to find a wonderful attraction in the "Queen City of the Southern Hemisphere," which some of them, to judge by their lavish expenditure in building, have

"Loved not wisely but too well."

CHAPTER III.

Sydney and Brisbane—A Contrast—A City for Holiday-makers—Shores of Port Jackson—Old World Streets—Trams or Trains?—Rivalry of Melbourne and Sydney.

SYDNEY and Brisbane are the centres of the richest portions of Australia. The natural resources of New South Wales and Queensland are something which to the mind of any one not intimately acquainted with the countries would be inconceivable. The growth of the cities in the two colonies has in recent years been on an enormous scale. But in the case of New South Wales the capital city has almost monopolized the recent increase; while in Queensland there are many towns which compete for trade even with Brisbane. The consequence is, that while Sydney can now boast of a population of about 240,000 inhabitants, Brisbane does not contain more than 50,000. The northern colony has, in its tropical portions, leading towns which partake

of the character of West Indian ports. Brisbane, however, is surrounded by agricultural and mining districts, and cannot be called in any sense a tropical city. Nor, indeed, is the climate so oppressive as might be expected from the situation of the town, lying as it does on the banks of a sluggish stream flowing into the shoally waters of Moreton Bay. But Sydney is *par excellence* the city in which a man can enjoy life. To the holiday-maker it is a perfect Elysium. Take a drive along the roads which skirt the shores of Port Jackson. Give yourself up to a day of easy luxuriance and simply watch the pictures of natural and artificial beauty as they present themselves. Here is a small cove of clear blue water, beyond which can be seen the green vegetation of several small islands whose images are reflected below as in a mirror. Near the opposite point is some suburban residence with Venetian windows and low-roofed verandahs. The creepers are twined all around the house, and on the trellis work in the garden, where the vegetation of the temperate and the tropical zones may be most agreeably commingled, the palm-trees and banana-trees rise above the dark bushes which hide the lawn from view. A yellow, shingly shore runs out from the road in front of this garden, and a pleasure boat gives suggestions of fishing excursions and rowing in the moonlight. The picture is tremulously reflected in the rippling waters below, and the whole forms a combination which, considering that it is within a few minutes' walk from the centre of a large city, is full of surprises. All round the harbour this scenery is repeated in a hundred different forms.

Yet there is no monotony, but infinite variety. One no longer wonders that the Sydney people are prouder of their bay than are the Neapolitans themselves.

Crooked, narrow streets are to most colonials somewhat of a novelty, and residents of neighbouring cities always remark upon the irregularity of the streets of Sydney. The disadvantage is a very questionable one. The mistake of laying out roadways too straight and too broad is a very serious one. A shady street, with sheltered nooks here and there, is certainly preferable on a hot day to a straight and dusty road, where wind and sun have free scope. But the one real nuisance in the thoroughfares of Sydney consists in the steam trams—they should more correctly be termed railway trains—which dash through the busiest of the streets at intervals of from two to ten minutes. In the matter of tramways Melbourne has been singularly backward; but the people are determined to avoid the mistake of allowing steam traffic in their streets, and the new tramway-lines are being worked by cable or horse-power, steam being expressly excluded. Between the two cities there is no doubt that the proper system will soon win the day. A Sydney man holds it as the first article of his patriotic creed, that Sydney is in future to be the metropolis of Australia; while the people of Melbourne agree, almost with one accord, that their own town is the great city of the South.

Whichever may in time win the race, there is no doubt that Sydney has in recent years made more progress than any other city in the Southern Hemisphere. Building has been abnormally brisk, and new

houses are continually required. I can remember, some twelve or fifteen years ago, having picnicked in the midst of solitude and rural scenery, on a spot which is now so closely built upon with houses, that it would be difficult to find a vacant allotment. In the city itself a small business site will cost nothing less than a

Sydney.—Town Hall and St. Andrew's Cathedral.

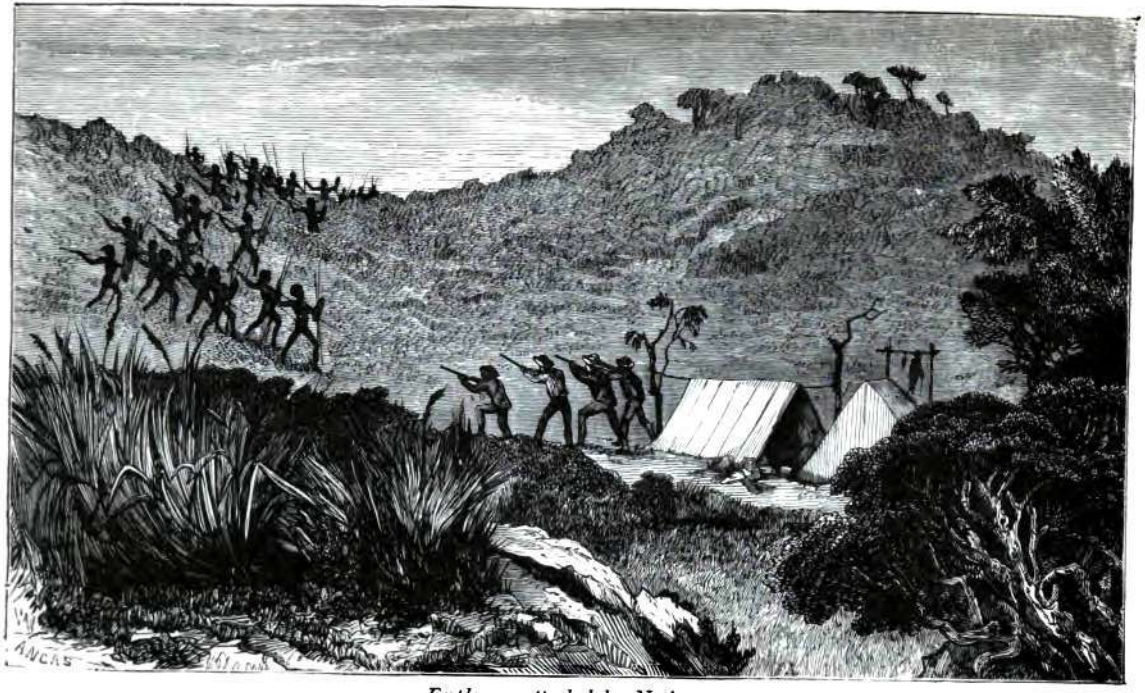
fortune, while suburban extension gives an enhanced value to a very large area of land; the people, too, are becoming keener in business than at one time they were. Sydney is, through San Francisco, the point of contact of Australia with America, and not a few enter-

prising Yankees are now to be found working their ways to fortune in the parent city of Australia. The consequence is that, in some respects, Sydney is more American than any other city of Australasia. The quickening of its business life has placed it now practically on a level with Melbourne. The railway lines which converge upon the shores of Port Jackson bring enormous quantities of produce to Sydney as the centre, and in a short time even the northern railways will also be connected with the metropolis. New South Wales has, in proportion to its population, a greater length of railway lines than any other country in the world. It has wonderfully varied resources in pastoral and mineral wealth, and in the agriculture not only of the temperate but also of the sub-tropical zone. It has extensive coal deposits, and supplies coal to hundreds of places throughout the Southern Hemisphere. All this tends to enhance the prosperity of the city of Port Jackson and to increase its chance of recovering the place which once it lost—of premier city of Australia.

CHAPTER IV.

Along the Coast—Distances and Sizes—The Western Desert—The Sheep-breeding Country—Strange Rivers—The Murray—The Populous Districts—Great Dividing Range—Rainfall.

By steamer it is nearly two days' journey from Adelaide to Melbourne. Adelaide, the capital of the middle colony of South Australia, is not really so far south as Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, and the name "South Australia" is in fact a misnomer. From Melbourne, steaming on still eastwards for two days longer, and turning round the south-eastern corner of the continent to pass away to the northwards, we reach Sydney, the capital of the parent colony of New South Wales—a country which, from an Australian point of view, dates back into the remotest antiquity, being over one hundred years old. The coast is one long line of iron-bound cliffs, somewhat similar to those of South Wales—hence the name which Captain Cook applied when he discovered it. Sydney is rather closer to the tropics than Adelaide; but it is about two days' sail south of Brisbane, and fully three days' sail from the place where the tropic of Capricorn cuts the coast-line. Then away to the north the continent stretches far into the hot regions of the southern tropics and terminates in Cape York, within ten degrees of the equator. From Wilson's Promontory, the bold headland in the south, up to Cape York in the north, the journey is a good week's steam-



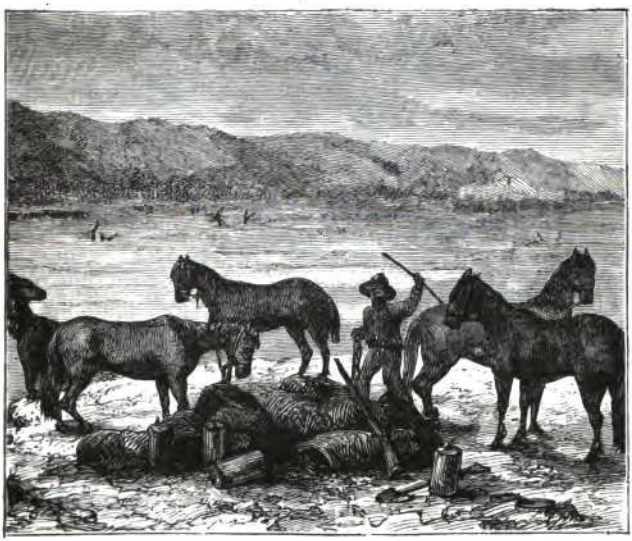
Explorers attacked by Natives.

ing, or fully 2,000 miles in length. From west to east the continent of Australia is of still greater extent—indeed almost as broad as the Atlantic Ocean, the estimated distance from one side to the other being about 2,400 miles.

From this some idea may be gathered as to the immense extent of the territory, in which dwell a population of about three millions, considerably smaller than that of London. The area of Australia is only one-fifth smaller than that of the whole of Europe. But it should of course be mentioned that a large portion of the island is either still unexplored or proved to be almost a desert. The great island is divided from north to south into two nearly equal halves by the telegraph line which runs from Adelaide to Port Darwin. To the westward of this line, by far the largest portion of the territory is at present useless, and in all human probability it will continue to be so, for it is nearly rainless. Only on a small portion in the south-western corner is there a settlement—that of Western Australia, containing about 35,000 people, although in the north-west there is some good country. From Western Australia, across to the telegraph line, stretch the dreary wastes of the sword-grass deserts, interminable sandy stretches and hills of sand and stones, with here and there a dried-up salt-pan, such as "Lake" Barlee. Intrepid explorers like Forrest and Giles, who have taken with them dozens of horses or camels loaded with water-bags, have crossed these wastes, where none but the wild natives break the solitude of the desert. But no one in Australia ever thinks of the country as being fit for human habitation.

To the east of the telegraph line the picture is quite reversed. The interior portions of the country are indeed somewhat dry in climate, so that a large proportion of it is unsuited to agriculture; but the land is, perhaps, the best in the world for the rearing of fine-woolled sheep. A very large proportion of the merino wool worn in England, is grown on the backs of the timid, half-wild sheep that roam over the immense flat-country "stations" of Eastern Central Australia. The pastoral eastern half of Australia is, in certain seasons of the year, fairly well watered by streams which run down from the great semi-circular chain of mountains that guard the eastern and southern coasts of the continent. Strange rivers these are, indeed. The mail-man, whose duty it is to carry on horseback a small mail-bag to the outlying townships far in the interior, may jump or wade his horse across an insignificant river on his way up; a heavy fall of rain comes, and on his journey down again he finds an immense volume of water, perhaps fifty miles broad, flowing onwards to the south-west, like a vast moving lake. Nine-tenths of these rivers converge towards the south-west of the eastern half of Australia. Those in New South Wales all drain into the Darling or the Murray, and find their way into the sea across the wave-beaten sandbanks at the opening of Lake Alexandrina, in South Australia. In its lower course the Murray is a magnificent river, running out into reaches a couple of miles broad, and nowhere confined within narrow limits. The bridge that carries the railway line between Adelaide and Melbourne cost a quarter of a million of

money. But further north the river system of the continent comes to no such magnificent conclusion. Floods of water of enormous extent come down from Western Queensland, but not a drop apparently ever reaches the ocean. It all sinks down into the soil, or is evaporated away in the immense clay-pans, which on



Lake Bärlee.

the map look so like magnificent lakes—a standing puzzle to geographers and geologists.

We have mentally glanced at the Western Desert, and the pastoral districts of the Eastern Interior. Still further to the east, and flanking the sea-coast, both south and east, is the more truly interesting, settled

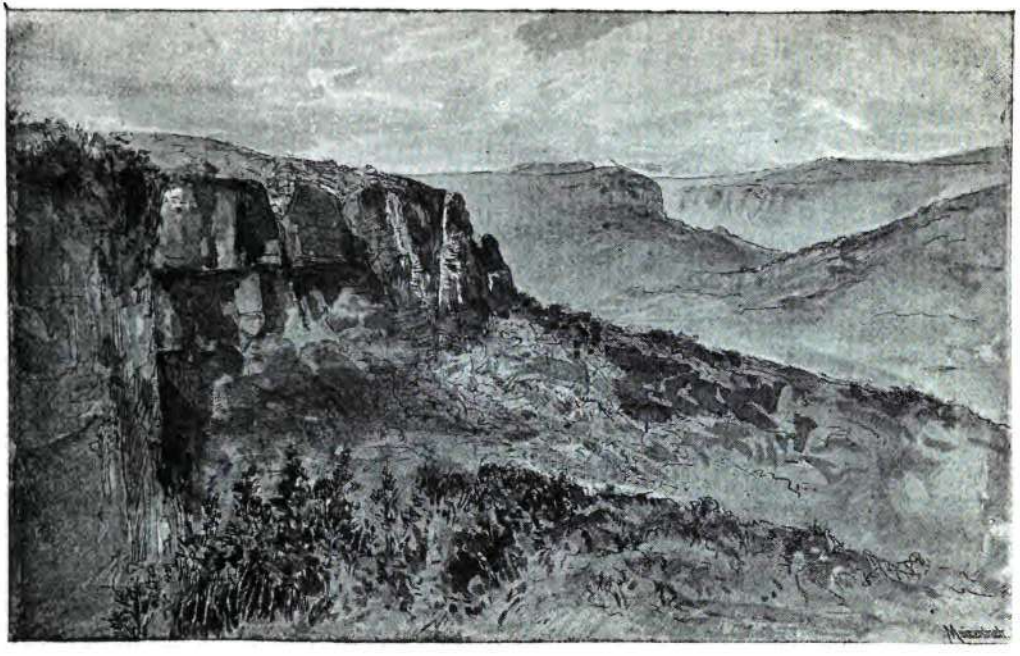
agricultural district of the continent—a district covered with cities, and towns, and villages, where all the manufactures of Australia are carried on, and at least nine-tenths of the people live. This must always be the most populous quarter of Australia, just as the New England States must always have, proportionally, the largest share of the people of the United States; and the reason is to be found in the elements of rainfall and climate. The chain of mountains already alluded to have the effect of catching the clouds as they float across from the Pacific and Southern Oceans, and consequently the sloping and undulating land lying between the mountains and the sea is really a well-watered area of country.

There is, of course, no soaking climate like that of England. Scarcely any one ever has occasion to complain of too much rain in Australia. The almost universal cry is for more water, and even the children in the Sunday-schools have so vivid an idea of the evils of drought, that a Scriptural metaphor about a "dry and parched land" has to them a significance which it could not possess in a country like England. In the summer time, the grass in Australia apparently withers and dies. The landscape, in places where there is not much timber, assumes a pale yellow or brown tint. The grass is really for the time converted into hay. But in winter, when the rain comes, the whole aspect changes. The fields assume a velvety green colour, and everything looks fresh once more. The trees, however, are all evergreens. The dark olive or brown colour of the old and dying leaves is at times strongly

contrasted with the bright yellow and green of the young leaflets. But that and the appearance of blossom on some varieties of trees are all the changes that the season makes in the appearance of Australian foliage.

The "Great Dividing" mountain chain of Australia might, perhaps, more aptly be compared in shape to the letter J than to a semi-circle. It includes, practically, all the really important mountains of the continent. Nearly all the gold which has been taken from Australia has come from the valleys and hillsides of this mountain-chain. All the rivers on the eastern half of the continent take their rise among the hills, the eastern ones running with short, rapid courses, and the western ones in sluggish streams of great length. The culminating point of the whole is probably Mount Kosciusko, in the Australian Alps, not far from the south-eastern corner—7,300 feet high. Close to it are a number of peaks of about the same height; and far into Victoria on the west, and New South Wales on the north, stretches a tract of wild mountainous country, much of which has never been explored—country where roads are impossible, and the few hardy inhabitants have to procure all their goods by packhorse traffic along precipitous mountain slopes and ravines. Further north it opens out into a tableland, flanked by enormous precipices, called by the early settlers, who viewed them from a distance with a sort of mysterious awe, "The Blue Mountains." The names of the first men who climbed these mountains are still held in honoured remembrance by the old colonists of New South Wales. Gradually, as we proceed northwards,

the average elevation of the mountain chain diminishes, and in Queensland the hills become irregular, running here and there sometimes parallel and sometimes at angles. In the broad plains to the westward of the great range may be seen, at long intervals, isolated peaks, usually of granite, standing like silent sentries in the midst of an endless succession of small trees and stunted bushes. These regions, are, of course, only very thinly inhabited by human beings. But they support no less than 50,000,000 sheep. Cities and civilization are to be found mainly on the land towards the sea-coast, and, as has been said, it is this portion of the continent which must always hold proportionately by far the greatest number of the population. Along with this must be classed the island of Tasmania, which, though so small in comparison with the continent adjoining it, is undoubtedly destined to hold a very considerable number of people. Being within half a day's steaming of Australia, it forms practically part of the same country, resembling the larger island very closely in physical features. Its mountains are rich in tin and gold, and its valleys very fertile. In the centre of the island the scenery is varied by several beautifully situated lakes. Of New Zealand, the islands of the exact antipodes, little can be said within the scope and purposes of the present volume. Though generally classed together with Australia, these islands are really as far distant from that continent as Turkey is from England.



The Blue Mountains, near Sydney.

CHAPTER V.

Peculiar Vegetation—"Gum Trees"—Giants and Dwarfs—Timber and its Uses—Bushes and Ferns—Wild Flowers—European and Tropical Fruits—Abundant and Cheap.

THE vegetation of Australia is as remarkable and peculiar as the country itself. The trees, for instance, form a large class by themselves, almost entirely different from those of any other country in the world—the name adopted to include most of the known varieties being "Eucalyptus." The people of Australia class the majority of them under the name of gum-tree—though for what particular reason it would be difficult to say, for there are other trees which produce far more gum. White gums, blue gums, red gums, peppermints, messmates, and a host of other varieties, are to be found growing on the hills and plains of Australia. They are, as has been said, evergreens, and they possess one striking peculiarity, in that their leaves, instead of standing out straight to catch the sunlight, hang vertically, so as to avoid the excessive heat of the sun. They also have the strange property of shedding their outer bark, and renewing it by degrees. An Australian forest is usually quite littered with pieces of cast-off bark in all stages of decay. But this does not produce any unpleasant effects. In fact, the gum-tree or eucalyptus is itself endowed with properties

which enable it to drive away miasma and malarial diseases. In the evening, especially of a summer's day, one notices a strong odour of a most refreshing kind. It is like the ozone that comes off the sea with a fresh breeze, but intermingled with a scent not

In Dandenong State Forest, near Melbourne.

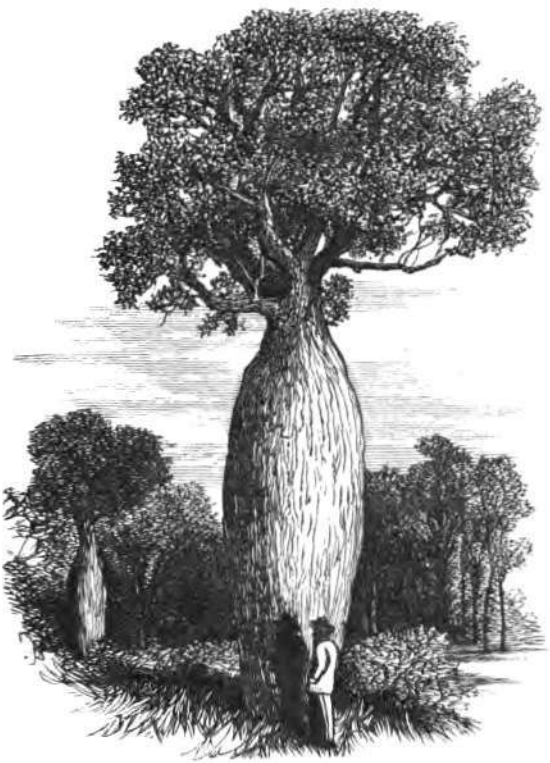
unlike that of peppermint. This odour is undoubtedly possessed of anti-malarial properties. Eucalyptus-trees, planted in some of the fever districts of Italy, have been the means of rendering habitable places in which life was formerly unbearable.

What a contrast there is between the giants and the dwarfs of this remarkable race of tree-life! On the great range, scarcely forty miles to the north-east of Melbourne, trees are frequently met with measuring over 400 feet in height, and one fallen giant has been measured, and proved to be no less than 480 feet high. Imagine on the sides of a mountain a row of trees, some of them rising to the height of St. Paul's Cathedral! The solemn majesty of such a sight is scarcely to be understood by one who has not seen it. There is no vegetation in the world to compare with these trees. Even the *Wellingtonea* of the Rocky Mountains attains scarcely more than two-thirds the height of the Peppermint, or *Eucalyptus Amygdalina*. The breadth of the stem, too, is very great. In one place, when a section of a giant tree was required for exhibition, a two-handled saw, 22 feet long, was sent up to the mountains, but the blade was not long enough to enable the men to cut through the fallen trunk. In the hilly districts another strange tree is the Sassafras, the wood of which is possessed of a delicious aroma, reminding one of the sandal-wood, which, by the way, grows abundantly in Western Australia. The timber of the ordinary varieties of gum-tree is hard and durable—too hard, indeed, for many purposes where cheapness of working is required; but it takes a fine polish and looks very well indeed when worked up into furniture. Its usual uses, however, are very different from that sort of work. Railway sleepers, wooden bridges, fences, log-huts, jetties, and so forth, are almost invariably made from the wood of the gum-tree, and for

marine purposes the "jarrah" variety of Western Australia is usually chosen on account of its property of resisting the ravages of the teredo, or boring shell-fish.

The dwarf eucalyptus is most numerously represented in the "mallee," a small tree, which grows some 15 or 20 feet high, with slender stems and branches, and close over-reaching foliage densely packed together over immense tracts of country. To be lost in the "mallee scrub," which stretches for over a hundred miles midway between Adelaide and Melbourne, is no joke. From any slight eminence that may be gained the closely-wooded country looks like a vast sea of undulating foliage, one part of which seems exactly like another. The mallee is being rapidly cut down by the settlers, who desire to use the land for wheat-growing. But large areas are still a source of great difficulty owing to the swarms of rabbits that find burrows among the roots. A much more useful tree, of about the same size, is the wattle—a species of acacia. Its importance is due to the fact that its bark is very much more valuable for tanning purposes than that of the oak-tree; and as it has rapidly become an article of export, many men now make good wages out of "wattle-stripping." Other trees about the size of the mallee are the tea-tree, which grows on sandy soil, chiefly close to the sea-shore, and shea-oak, or casuarina, which, by the way, bears no more resemblance to an oak than to a cabbage. It grows on open, grassy undulating country, and as the foliage is all needle-shaped and of very dull hue, the general effect is rather depressing. In the valleys of almost every mountainous

part of Australia are to be seen fern-trees, with their brown trunks rising to 10 or 15 feet, and the leaves falling over in umbrella shapes from the top. A grove



The Bottle-tree.

of these trees, mingled with varieties of gums and acacias, presents a beautiful sight. Besides these should be mentioned the stunted bushy native honeysuckle, or

banksia—with its peculiar flower like a bottle-washer—the native hop, and the native cherry.

There are very few edible fruits indigenous to Australia. Certain varieties of figs which grow in New South Wales may be eaten, but they are not pleasant. The same colony has also some useful trees of its own, such as the native cedar, the wood of which is decidedly valuable, as it is easily worked. It has many bright-coloured flowering plants, such as the waratah, native lilies, heaths, and so forth. Further north again, in Queensland, there are some slight differences in the vegetation of the continent, mangrove-trees being numerous along the banks of swampy watercourses; and one peculiar tree, the "bottle-tree," possesses the strange faculty of storing up in its hollow trunk a considerable quantity of water, which supplies the thirsty traveller in many a weary expedition. In considering the most northerly parts of Australia, it should always be remembered that they are purely tropical regions, and almost as different from the southerly portions, where nearly all the inhabitants live, as Western Europe is from India. They have the same heavy rainfall in the wet season, and the same luxuriant vegetation as a result of the climatic conditions. Yet the majority of the native wild flowers are nowhere in Australia very large or very gorgeous. Most of them, in fact, are mere heath-flowers—pretty when examined closely, but not at all striking unless when massed together in large numbers. But it should be noticed, on the other hand, that in Australia it is possible to find a fair quantity of flowers in any season of the

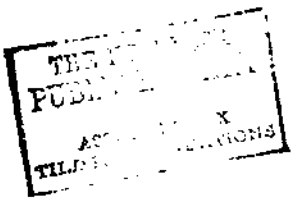
year, so that, as a popular lecturer recently remarked, beekeeping is a somewhat puzzling pursuit in the colonies, because the bees become demoralized through not being forced to store up honey for the winter.

The absence of native edible fruits is amply compensated for by the abundance of cultivated fruits introduced from other parts of the world. Australia is, indeed, wonderfully well-favoured in this respect. Such fruits as apricots, peaches, oranges, melons, citrons, pears, apples, grapes, and so forth, are especially plentiful in all the colonies. The culture of the vine flourishes in many parts of the continent, and is very successful in Victoria, New South Wales, and South Australia. Australian wines are very rich, and usually exceptionally pure and wholesome. In fact, they are produced so cheaply that sophistication would not be profitable. In Sydney and the districts to the north there are tropical fruits, such as bananas and passion-fruits. Pine-apples are decidedly plentiful, and at times very cheap. Occasionally the visitor from England opens his eyes with astonishment when he sees peaches or apricots selling at twopence or a penny per dozen; and pine-apples at from ninepence to one-and-sixpence each. Olives are very easily grown in Australia, the dry climate near Adelaide seeming to suit them best, and all the fruits and trees specially known as those of Southern Europe are very easily acclimatized. In short, Australia is, in regard to the culture of fruit-trees and vegetables, quite a botanical garden. In a state of nature the land produced for man's use next to nothing; in a state of cultiva-

tion, it will produce practically everything. Water is still the great thing required to stimulate fruit culture, and it is universally acknowledged in Australia that the problem of the day is that of irrigation.

Dangerous wild beasts are entirely absent from Australia. Kangaroos, great and small, are numerous in all the grassy or wooded parts of the continent. But even the "Old Man" Kangaroo, who, when erect, supported by his hind legs and enormous tail, stands higher than a tall man, is not at all formidable. Feeding on grass or leaves, the kangaroo, and all the members of the marsupial family, such as the wallaby, opossum, wombat, and native bear, never evince the slightest disposition to be troublesome to man, except in the way of eating up the grass or drinking the water which should be reserved for sheep and cattle. So numerous are the kangaroos, that a *battue* of these timid animals presents the appearance of a slaughter rather than a hunt, the pursuers, whether on horseback or in vehicles, firing away as fast as they can load their guns. The native bear, notwithstanding his formidable-looking name, is like the opossum, a very mild and inoffensive creature, seldom exceeding in stature a good-sized cat, and resembling in habits the squirrel. The native cat is decidedly a nuisance, on account of its predatory habits, and the native dog or dingo, a wild descendant of some kind of dog, introduced at some unknown period, sometimes creates great havoc among the sheep. Out on the broad plains native animal life is comparatively scarce. A few emus, with their long ostrich-like legs, and some native turkeys, may sometimes be seen. But other

Kangaroo-hunting.



birds are almost entirely confined to the hilly and wooded districts. The giant kingfisher—always called the "Laughing Jackass"—startles the newly-arrived traveller by laughing at him with a loud guffaw from the branch of a tree. Innumerable swarms of cockatoos and little parrots—parroquets—raise the echoes with their shrill screaming or chattering. The "native companion" wades in the shallow water beside rivers and ponds, and black swans and white cranes and herons frequent the streams and lagoons. In the deepest recesses of the woods the lyre-bird, with its fantastic lyre-shaped tail, and the bower bird—that strange builder of ornamental bowers—may sometimes, but very rarely, be seen by the favoured eye of the ardent naturalist. Snakes, by far the majority of them harmless, are unpleasantly numerous in some parts, and a favourite amusement among country boys is that of hunting them and stringing them on poles. Several species can inflict a poisonous bite, which, if not counteracted very quickly by an antidote, may prove fatal. This sort of accident is now, however, a rare occurrence, as the snake is very shy of man, and almost invariably gets out of the way as soon as he can. A more unpleasant nuisance is the mosquito, which on a summer evening sometimes gives the new arrival in New South Wales or Queensland rather a lively time of it, unless he keeps net curtains around his bed. Mosquito bites on one's face are almost as bad as chilblains on one's feet, but fortunately they do not last so long.

CHAPTER VI.

Absence of Wintry Weather—Clear Skies—Hot Days—Moist Heat and Dry Heat—Weak Lungs—Heat and Drought—Water Supply—Hot Winds.

THE hardships of long and severe wintry weather are in Australia almost unknown. The colony of Victoria, being the most southerly part of the continent, and furthest away from the tropics, has, of course, the nearest approach to a rigorous winter. But that this is not at all severe may be understood from the fact that in the coldest month of the year the average temperature ranges from about 45° to 50° Fahrenheit. Even in the early morning the temperature scarcely ever falls as low as freezing point at Melbourne, and the sight of snow on the ground is quite unknown. July, which is the warmest month in England, is the coldest in Australia, and *vice versâ*. It is in the months of May, June and July that most of the rain falls in Southern Australia, and the remaining months of the year are dry and clear. Out of every year there is scarcely more than one month which could be called in any sense of the word cold weather, and there are usually about four or five weeks when the thermometer ranges higher than it does in England. The hot weather or the cool weather may be in some years scattered over several of the summer or winter months.

But either extreme seldom exceeds on the whole a duration of some four or five weeks. In short, if one were to remove from the English climate the three coldest months of the year, and to add to the summer about one month of warmer weather, the result would represent pretty fairly the climate of Australia. Spring and autumn occupy by far the largest share of the time, and sometimes for several months the sky is so clear that it is scarcely possible to detect a single cloud. Indeed the weather is sometimes altogether too clear and pleasant to suit the agricultural or pastoral interests of the country. The entire absence of rain for many weeks in succession means heavy loss to the people. I have seen men almost dancing for joy at the approach of gloomy black clouds, the sight of lightning, and the sound of thunder in the distance.

The days which are decidedly hot vary considerably in character according to the locality. The southern districts of Australia never experience what is called tropical heat. There is no moist, steam-like vapour in the air as there is in India or the majority of the Eastern countries; and, as a consequence, there are very few really hot nights. The temperature rises and sinks with the sun, and it very seldom happens that many people lose their sleep on account of the heat—not nearly so often for instance as in New York. In the summer season the thermometer usually rises at least once to 100° Fahrenheit in the shade, and on rare occasions, at Melbourne and Sydney, it has reached 105° or 108°, and at Adelaide a little higher. But the dryness of the air prevents this heat from producing

very much discomfort. There may be a little sluggishness of the liver, or bodily weariness produced by it, but the effects are nothing to those experienced by Englishmen in tropical climates. As one Australian traveller who had been living in India put it, "A man can stand a little roasting once in a way, but when it comes to stewing he strikes!" As a general rule, it may be stated that a temperature of 100° in Southern Australia is much less disagreeable than one of 90° in London, or one of 85° in India. Towards the interior the dryness of the atmosphere and the range of the temperature increase together. Sometimes for several days the noonday temperature will rise above 110° or even 115° in the shade. But people do not seem to mind it. There is no disposition to adopt the noonday *siesta* as the rule of the day, as among the Spaniards. The fact is, indeed, that in the dry interior the residents can easily get their full quota of sleep at night, because the temperature falls very decidedly when the sun sinks below the horizon. Then for eight or nine months of the year the climate is simply delightful, so that the active worker has little to grumble at. Persons suffering from asthma or weakness of the lungs nearly always find great relief in this dry, warm air, and there are many men now living open-air lives in the Australian bush who in the English climate could not exist, even with the greatest care and caution. Probably there is no air or no climate which can cure a case of far-gone consumption, but anything short of that is readily ameliorated, if not entirely removed, by the genial atmosphere of Australia.

The effects of long-continued heat upon the country are more to be dreaded than those which it produces on men. In the interior of Australia the great majority of the streams flow for only a very short time in the year—sometimes only once in two or three years. At other times their courses are marked by what are called "water-holes,"—small lakes or ponds into which the

The Duckbill in a Water-hole.

water has collected in the previous wet season. Some of these water-holes are immensely valuable, supplying, as they do, the means of subsistence to great numbers of sheep. But if they should dry up, heavy loss awaits the owner of the sheep. Attempts are made in many places to draw supplies of water from below the surface,

and, from recent indications, it seems that much more can in future be done in this way. The soakage into the ground from such rivers as the Darling and Murray is something wonderful, and the evaporation by the heat of the sun is quite as remarkable. In many seasons the Darling changes from a broad, rushing river, inundating thousands of square miles of country, into a mere driblet of water, or even into a miserable chain of ponds, with no perceptible current passing from one to another. The skipper of a river steamer, of course, lays his count with this, and is usually prepared to wait for months in his boat if he should get "stuck." But before he resigns himself to such a stoppage he tries most ingenious devices to free himself and get away while the water is not too low. Sometimes a rope is attached to a tree on the bank, and by the use of a strong windlass, driven by steam, the boat is literally dragged off the bank on which it has been perched. Sometimes means are taken to divert or concentrate the current. But usually a large proportion of the river steamers are left high and dry in various parts of the course to await the coming of the next season's waters. That immense supplies of water lie at reasonable distances underground in Australia is firmly believed by bushmen and geologists alike. But in many parts of the country the wells yield brackish water, and some old settlers get so accustomed to the salt that they cannot do without it. It is curious to note at some hotels the visitors at table putting salt into their table-water. The leading cities, of course, have good supplies of fresh water brought from reservoirs or from natural

Steamboat on the River Murray.

sources, and in the summer time the consumption of water is something tremendous. Yet there is one inconvenience due to the dry interior, which the dwellers in cities cannot avoid, and that is the hot wind. The usual direction of the surface wind in Southern Australia is to the north, north-east, or north-west—generally speaking, towards the centre of the continent. But in summer time, when the heat is considerable, the breeze sometimes veers round so as to blow *from* the interior. It is a dry, warm wind, which seems to search into every nook and cranny. When a bank manager in a country township made a bet that he could keep a sheet of paper clear of dust by placing it in a close safe and shutting every door and window in the bank, he lost his money, for the paper, on being removed after a dust-storm, was found to be covered with fine dust. The servant-girl who hangs out the week's washing, usually finds on days of this sort, that before she has put up the last articles on the rope, the first lot are completely dry —but not extra clean. People learn to bear these hot winds philosophically, and as the nuisance seldom lasts more than a day or two, and is succeeded by cool breezes from the sea, no one suffers much by it, except in temper. On the whole, Australians who have experienced any other sort of climate, usually have a warm word of praise for that of their adopted country.

CHAPTER VII.

Purely British Races—Blacks and Whites—Comparison of Populations—Mixed Nationalities—Scotch—Irish—The Troubles of Ireland—An Unreasonable Grumble—Assisting Relatives.

OUT of all the numerous British colonial possessions there are very few indeed in which the population is British or European. But the two great representatives of this class make up in size and importance for their smallness in number. Canada and Australia represent the two great homes of the British abroad. But the former being so largely inhabited by the French and their descendants, it may fairly be said that Australia is England's only great colonial dependency which is peopled by a purely British race. No doubt some will ask in this connection, "What about the blacks?" Very strange ideas on this subject still prevail, even among intelligent Englishmen. I have known of English people, on being visited by a lady who had been described as "a native of Australia," expressing great surprise that she was not "coloured." As a matter of fact, the aboriginal population of Australia stand in about the same relation to the Australian people that the gipsies do to those of Great Britain. The majority of the people of Australia never see a black face from one year's end to the other; and virtually, so far as they are concerned, the original native race, now fast

approaching extinction, has no existence. The contrast between Australia and South Africa in this respect is very striking. In Cape Colony there are about ten natives to every European inhabitant. In Australia, so far as is known, there is scarcely one black to fifty whites, and the aboriginals have nearly all retreated into the interior, hundreds of miles away from populous European settlements. In the census returns they are not even counted as part of the population.

Remembering, then, that the Australians are a purely British people, it is interesting to compare the populations of the United Kingdom and its British dependencies. In round numbers, England contains 26,000,000 people; Ireland, 5,000,000; Canada, 4,250,000; Scotland, 3,750,000; and Australia (with New Zealand), 3,250,000. Nearly 1,500,000 of people have, during the past forty-five years, made their way from England, Ireland, and Scotland to Australia, and, of course, the great majority of these were from England. But the proportion of Scotch and Irish greatly exceeded what might have been expected from the size of the populations from which they emigrated. Almost all the people of Australia are either of British birth or the children of British parents; and the mixture of nationalities has produced results which are highly interesting from every point of view. At a rough estimate, it may be said that about one-fourth of the people are Irish or of Irish descent, and about half that proportion Scotch or of Scotch descent. The only foreign nations which are largely represented are the Germans and the Chinese. The Germans, of

course, make capital colonists, and are almost universally liked. The Chinese are, as a rule, just as cordially hated. In South Australia and Queensland there are many villages and settlements which are almost entirely composed of Germans. But other European nationalities have shown no predilection for Australia.

The Irish difficulty is in Australia practically unknown. Differences of religion, and disputes arising therefrom, must certainly continue to exist, and the Catholic grievance in regard to education will be referred to later on; but an Irishman, as an Irishman, has no grievance in Australia, and the inference with nearly all reflecting people on that side of the world is that Ireland's difficulty is purely a matter of poverty. Such things as "boycotting" or "moonlighting" are simply unknownand undreamt of in Australia; the reason, apparently, being that there is no class of the population rendered desperate through starvation. There are very few people anywhere in the world who can ever abandon their enjoyment of the luxury of an occasional grumble. But the labouring classes in Australia are never rendered violent through poverty. If an Irishman grumbles it is usually through forgetfulness. An Irish lady of my acquaintance was once making a round of visits among the labouring people in an Australian suburb, and listened patiently to the complaints of a countryman about the way in which he was treated. He owned a cart, and was employed by the Corporation at only seven shillings per day, and five shillings per day for the horse and waggon. The work was hard, and the

pay was not good enough. He came from County Clare, and he wished he was back in dear old Ireland. "Now, Mr. Doherty," said the good lady, "just listen to reason. I happen to come from County Clare, like yourself, and I know that, when you were there, instead of getting seven shillings per day, it was more like seven pence per day, and a cold climate to live in at that!" He was taken aback decidedly, and after a short reflection replied, "Shure, ma'am, it's true for you; I was only joking."

The Irish in Australia show at once their appreciation of the new country, and their warm-hearted love for the folks left behind in Ireland, by the strong exertions that they make in order to provide passages for their relatives. The same is the case with the Scotch, and, to a considerable extent, with the English; but, in the case of the poor Irish, it is most remarkable how many servant-girls in Australia are now hoarding up their wages, week after week, with miserly pleasure, in order to obtain £4 or £6 for an assisted passage, or £16 for a steerage passage for some relative still in Ireland! In some cases an ordinary domestic servant has saved up the needful £16 in little more than six months. Then the savings are doubled when two willing hands are at work, and by-and-by the whole family meet together again in the new land. The Irish in Australia are very ready to give liberally for the alleviation of distress in Ireland. But the class of people represented in America by the Chicago Convention are scarcely to be found anywhere at the antipodes. The fact seems to be, that the Irishman in Australia is in himself a living proof

that liberty and a connection with Great Britain are not at all incompatible, and his scheme for Home Rule for Ireland is usually modelled upon that which prevails in the colonies.

CHAPTER VIII.

Farming in Australia—A Quick Rise in the World—A State System of Time Payment—Slap-dash Farming—Queer Agricultural Implements — Dummies and Landed Estates — Squatters and Cockatoos—Diamond cut Diamond.

AGRICULTURE seems to be rapidly taking its place as the main industry of the Australian colonies. By exceedingly liberal land laws the various Legislatures have succeeded in giving the greatest facilities to men with small—sometimes very small—capital, and the area under cultivation in each colony is quickly increasing, while many of the holders of farms have made nice little sums of money. The rise from penury to a comfortable position in life is sometimes startlingly rapid. Take a case in point. A man once called on me and asked my advice as to the taking up of some land—between 300 and 400 acres—as a farm.

"What capital have you to begin with?" I asked. He drew out a very small roll of bank-notes, and threw it on the table.

"There it is," said he. "Forty pounds in all, I believe."

"Well," I replied, "this surely is cutting it pretty fine. I reckon that if you pay your deposit for the purchase of the land, and if you convey yourself and family to the place, you will have about £5 left, so I don't see how you are going to manage it, unless you are both careful and lucky."

But he *did* manage it. Going on to the land by himself, while his family lived frugally at a place in the country, he set to work cutting down firewood from his ground, and carting it to a railway station. By this means he managed to maintain himself with very great economy for eight or nine months—living in a small hut by himself, and sending something of his earnings to his family. Meanwhile he was fencing-in a portion of his land, and clearing it for seed-time. He got a good crop laid in, had two favourable seasons successively, and when he came to town—less than two years afterwards—I found that he had paid for his land outright, and was worth about £2,000.

Many, however, are not so fortunate, and to these the easy terms offered by the various Governments are a very great boon. The systems adopted in the various colonies are in many respects different; but, as regards their first principle, they may be reduced to what is generally known in reference to the sale of furniture and other movables as time-payment. A man usually obtains the fee simple of his farm by paying about one shilling per acre each year for twenty years. He can generally, after a few years, pay the whole amount at any time; and if he chooses to delay payment, he remains subject to certain disabilities as regards

transfer, &c. On the average, the actual price obtained by the State for land in Australia has been almost exactly £1 per acre. Let it not be supposed that this is all good land, or that any of it but a few exceptional parts will grow cereals as they grow in the agricultural counties of England. The very best land is frequently found to be heavily covered with timber, and the clearing of the ground involves a large outlay of time and money. I have known a man to take a whole fortnight in destroying a single tree, and in removing its mangled remains to the borders of his land to serve as a log fence.

When the clearing process has been effected, as in the hilly districts of New South Wales and Victoria, the land usually turns out to be of excellent quality. But on the broad plains, such as the north-western parts of Victoria and the greater portion of South Australia, the country is what has been called "poor man's land." Many of the most successful farmers have gone in for a sort of slap-dash farming, which would certainly astonish some of the methodical agriculturists of the old country. The object is to lay under crop as large an area as possible, so that if the season be favourable, a large return, even at a small average per acre, may be the result. Many say that this system pays by far the best; their reason being that if the season be a good one, shallow cultivation will do nearly as well as a deeper method of farming, while, if the year should be unpropitious, both alike are almost certain to prove failures.

Few English farmers have ever heard of "mullen-

izers" and "stump-jumping ploughs." These are peculiarly Australian inventions, designed to facilitate cultivation on land which has been only partially prepared for it. The "mullenizer" is a kind of large roller, usually made of a log with many strong spikes sticking out of it, and is used for breaking down and tearing out some of the small bushes and heath-like plants which cover the soil in its natural state. The stump-jumping plough is a really ingenious appliance, extensively used on the plains, which were at one time covered with the mallee, the small species of eucalyptus-tree, which has been already described. The stumps of these trees are so exceedingly numerous on some of the land, that the farmer despairs of eradicating them, and takes to using a plough so constructed that it will cut a furrow right up to any obstacle, and then jump over it as easily as a hunter will jump over a three-barred gate.

The "stripper" is another agricultural implement which is held in great favour out in Australia. At great distances from railway stations, it is as much as the farmer can do to convey to market simply his wheat. He therefore sacrifices the straw by burning it, allowing the ashes to remain and fertilize the ground. The grain is "stripped" off the standing corn by means of an apparatus somewhat resembling a reaping-machine, excepting that it is designed, not to cut the straw, but to pluck the ears from the top and throw them into a receptacle like a diminutive carriage. On one occasion a "new chum" actually mistook one of them for some kind of public vehicle. The driver took him in, and

went off at full speed through a field of ripe corn. The new-comer's curiosity was satisfied, and on being released, after much yelling and entreaty, he remarked that he had never had such a lively time of it in all his life. The great drawback to the stripper is, that it is useless unless the grain be perfectly ripened. In a country

The Stripper.

subject to strong hot winds, the farmer frequently loses several bushels per acre through the falling of the ears in the days when he is waiting for the corn to be fit for the stripper.

Frauds may easily be perpetrated in many businesses of a less complicated nature than that of the "selector," who takes up land intended for farming pur-

poses. In the selection business, the most profitable and the most extensively practised of shady tricks has been that known as "dummying." The dummy is generally a labouring man of the class described as "poor, but *not* industrious or honest." But the real perpetrator of the fraud is the moneyed man, who, for the sake of acquiring a large landed estate, puts in, perhaps, a dozen or twenty "dummies," to make a pretence of being farmers. Residence on the land in certain cases being compulsory, the "dummy" simply lives at his ease in a small hut built for him by his proprietor, or, it may be, at a considerable distance away. There is nobody to watch whether everything is "fair and square," and the mere erection of a place about the size of an average four-poster bed is made to do duty for permanent residence on the ground. They tell a story of one dummy, who had so neglected his duty in regard to residence that the chimney of his hut was absolutely bare of smoke.

"Ha!" said the Inspector of Selections, as he peeped upwards to the sky above, "there haven't been many dinner-parties in this shanty since it was built."

"Well, I *did* think," replied the disgusted dummy, "that the Government would have sent up a gentleman, and not a chimney-sweep, to examine the place!"

Whether forfeiture of the selection followed upon this circumstantial evidence is not recorded. The cases of discovery and punishment have been very few in comparison with the number of frauds which have taken place. In several colonies the evil is now greatly reduced, owing to the inducements held out to the

dummy to turn Queen's evidence. But it is well known that many large estates have been accumulated by the fraudulent process referred to, and there is a strong popular feeling in favour of some sort of auditing of bygone accounts in respect to these estates.

As all the land taken up by farmers has originally been held by large sheep-farmers or "squatters," as they are termed, under conditions of leasehold from the Government, it is not surprising that there has been a considerable amount of antagonism between the squatter and the selector. The former often tries to bar the latter out of all the best portions of the land; the latter often tries to "pick the eyes out of the country," and makes matters so awkward for his richer neighbour as to suggest the advisability of buying him off. Many are the devices by which the shepherd king tries to steal a march upon the poor "cockatoo," as he contemptuously calls the small farmer, and by which, on the other hand, the "cockatoo" tries to balance the account. A good story, bearing on this point, is told by a writer (Ægles) in the *Australasian*. The squatter had a flock of old worthless cast rams which he wished to dispose of, and the "cockatoo" wanted, or pretended he wanted, a few sheep for his farm. A bargain was struck, and the sheep sold for double their value. A few days afterwards, on the approach of the local show, the squatter was dismayed to find that his poorer neighbour was preparing a number of these identical cast rams for exhibition, with a large placard setting forth that they were "recently selected from the celebrated flock of Mr. ———." There was nothing for it but to buy the

fellow off, and the result was that the farmer got double what he had paid, and had the laugh on his side into the bargain. But the animosities of a few years ago are at the present day being gradually removed. It is now almost universally recognized as a rule that good land, having a fair amount of rainfall, should be devoted to agriculture, and that the dry plains of the interior are best adapted for the pasturage of sheep. And so the farmer keeps out of the squatter's way, and the squatter out of the farmer's. None the less, however, does each party occasionally enjoy a laugh at the other's expense.

CHAPTER IX.

Country Townships—Literature and the Muses—A Chairman at Fault—Fair-weather Houses—Buggies and Horses—Dare-devil Riding—The Buckjumper.

IN a country where, taken on the whole, the population does not amount to so much as one individual for every square mile of territory, it is evident that the people must be very widely scattered. Each colony has its large capital, with perhaps two or three or a dozen moderate-sized towns, and then an innumerable number of small townships.

"Where is the town?" you ask, when, after a long

coaching drive of, say sixty or eighty miles, you find the driver drawing up at what seems to be no place in particular.

"There it is," he replies. "Don't you see? Over there."

And, behold! the place towards which your perspective vision has been directed as the happy termination of your journey is discovered to be nothing more than

Charleville, Queensland.

a little galvanized iron shop, the corner portion whereof is dignified with a sign setting forth that the building before you is a "hotel" (there are no "inns" in Australia), while the side part is a "General Store," devoted to the sale of all sorts of miscellaneous articles, "from a needle to an anchor." This, of course, is the very smallest variety of township. The next larger size has its public-house separate from the general store, and can boast of a post-office and telegraph station,

besides various tradesmen's shops—and perhaps a police station. Most probably, too, it will be found to possess, not only one or two churches, often hidden behind the trees, away from the noise of the road, but also a Mechanics' Institute or School of Arts, partially supported by Government funds. These Institutes play a most important part in the social life of people in the country districts. Each one has a public reading-room, and possesses a more or less extensive circulating library, parcels of books being passed on from one place to another, so as to give even the remotest settlers the advantage of an extensive course of reading.

But these institutions are most popular on account of their affording the opportunity of holding entertainments. Amateur concerts are the chief attraction, and occasionally these may be wound up by a little dancing. If a stranger arrives in the township, and lets it be known that he is even slightly addicted to music, the probability is that within a few days a concert is arranged for the express purpose of bringing him out. Some local Justice of the Peace takes the chair, with the duty of introducing the singers, and as it frequently happens that very worthy men in that position have more shrewdness than education, strange mistakes are sometimes made. One chairman was heard to introduce to the audience a gentleman amateur, recently from the city, as a "Prima donna tenor singer." The people are, as a rule, very friendly and sociable. Hospitality is, indeed, one of the strong points of the Australian settler, although in many cases the accom-

modation that is his to offer is not of a very elaborate kind. There are few homesteads such as those which in England meet the eye of the traveller at every turn —solid pieces of masonry built to last for ages. The average colonist finds it hard to realize that his homestead will probably be the residence, not only of himself, but of his descendants for generations to come. There is in many places a great lack of planted vegetation in the vicinity of the people's houses, although the planting and rearing of trees are matters of the greatest ease. But while the places of abode are frequently very incomplete, the means provided for travelling are usually first-class. Frequently one sees a little three or four-roomed wooden or iron cottage with a handsome buggy beside it, that might be valued at three times the price of the whole house with garden included. The people love to live as much as possible in the open air. They have no severe winter, and do not see the necessity of building up solid ramparts against the weather.

If there is one thing more than another which an Australian settler likes to have it is a good bit of horseflesh. Horses are very cheap, and in some places actually run wild, so that a man could almost have one for the trouble of catching him and breaking him in. A really good, well-trained animal of course is as valuable in the colonies as anywhere else. But sometimes one can secure a capital riding-horse in the bush for a mere trifle. He is not much to look at; his neck is not particularly arched, and his coat is not particularly glossy; but if put upon his mettle he will go a tre-

mendous distance. A little animal that looks as if he had not twenty miles of going in him, will carry his master 130 or 140 miles in a day, and be almost as fresh next morning as if he had not been on the road at all. The bush "rough-rider" has an extraordinary command over his horse, and, as he likes to feel his power, he sometimes indulges in the most dare-devil exploits. I remember one rather wealthy young man who particularly delighted to show off what he could do. Some new arrivals had been talking about feats of horsemanship, and in going out with them he affected the most profound simplicity, putting on the saddle the wrong way, and so on. He followed them along for some distance, until coming to a deep "gully," the sides of which were literally dangerous precipices, he waved his arms, crying out "Follow me!" and sprang over the sides. The way the horse managed to keep its footing was something magical. They found him on the other side of the "gully," after taking a long détour in search of an easy crossing. Very little was said about horsemanship after that.

I have seen little striplings riding quite unconcerned along steep mountain sides where one would think not even a goat could find a footing. One such daring rider I remember in the Gippsland mountains in Victoria. I met him going at full speed during the night time, when it was so dark that a man could not see his hand in front of him. The track was strewn with great trunks of trees and intersected with deep waterways. I had stopped at a wayside house, and as he plunged into the darkness beyond, I heard a

scuffling noise and a fall. "What is that?" I asked. "He's had a fall," said my host; "but that is a common occurrence. Ah! now he's up again, and off he goes." A year or two afterwards I saw by a telegram that on just such a night his horse missed its footing on the mountain side and both beast and man were killed. Sometimes, in mere wantonness, the most dangerous tricks are taught to horses. On a sheep station the men will occasionally instruct an animal in the art of "buckjumping," for the mere sake of challenging people to ride him. The buckjumper is perhaps the most awkward kind of horse to deal with that could be found anywhere in the world. You hold on with your knees to the saddle, and sit as firmly as possible. But the horse is determined that you shall go off, and off you go accordingly. With lightning rapidity the brute suddenly elevates his back, in the attitude of a cat when she is frightened. The rider is literally shot into the air, and he doesn't get a chance to come down on his seat again.

CHAPTER X.

Life on a Sheep Station—Colonial Experience—A Journey through Riverina—"Belltoppers" not allowed—Miscellaneous Work—Bush Hands—"On the Wallaby"—"Grog Shanties"—"Sundowners"—Four Months on a Buggy—Sleeping Out.

LIVING on a station is certainly rather a lonely life; nearest neighbour fifty miles away; only about a dozen or two of people on the "run," embracing an area of, say one or two thousand square miles; each man living in a little hut, either all alone or with one or two others, charged with the duty of watching over the welfare of a few thousand sheep; loneliness only broken by an occasional ride into the "home station," perhaps once every month, to get provisions; sole communication with the outside world that of a weekly, fortnightly, or monthly mail; only events to look forward to, as months roll by, the drafting out and shearing of the sheep, and perhaps, at intervals of a couple of years, an occasional visit to the busy haunts of men. Such is the life led by thousands of men in the interior districts of Australia. The picture is not a very attractive one. But those who have once taken to such a life become wonderfully attached to it. "There is no life like it," said one young fellow whom I met after a year or two of absence, in which his dog was his sole companion. "The feeling of liberty and freedom is quite unique. One has plenty of riding, plenty of food, pure and

invigorating air, a good appetite, and a hearty zest for reading the weekly budget of news when it comes in. What more do you want?" Another, who had been down in the city for a couple of days, seemed very uneasy in his mind. The noise of the town worried him, and as we walked along a street he bade me a hasty good-bye, jumped into a cab, got his valise and made for the railway station as hard as he could go. What a blessing it is that men's tastes are so varied!

The term "colonial experience" is usually applied to the process of acquiring a knowledge of life on a sheep or cattle station. Why it should be so, seeing that only a small fraction of the colonial population have anything to do with stations, one cannot easily say. The youth who arrives in Australia from the old country for the purpose of being broken in to the life of the bush is a standing joke among the "old hands." When he lands at Melbourne or Sydney he is clad in the usual habiliments of a Bond Street swell; he goes round to all the theatres and cafés; he picks up a few fast friends, who help him to get rid of his loose cash, and enjoy the fun of making him drunk occasionally; and, finally, if he escapes from their society with enough of money to pay his travelling expenses up to some station, he is considered lucky. Then the breaking-in process commences. He has a very long and rather tedious journey in a train, landing at the terminus in a decided state of disrepair, and anxious for a good night's rest. But no. The coach starts in half an hour, and he must hastily swallow an apology for a meal and mount to his seat with his bags stowed under him. Then the long journey

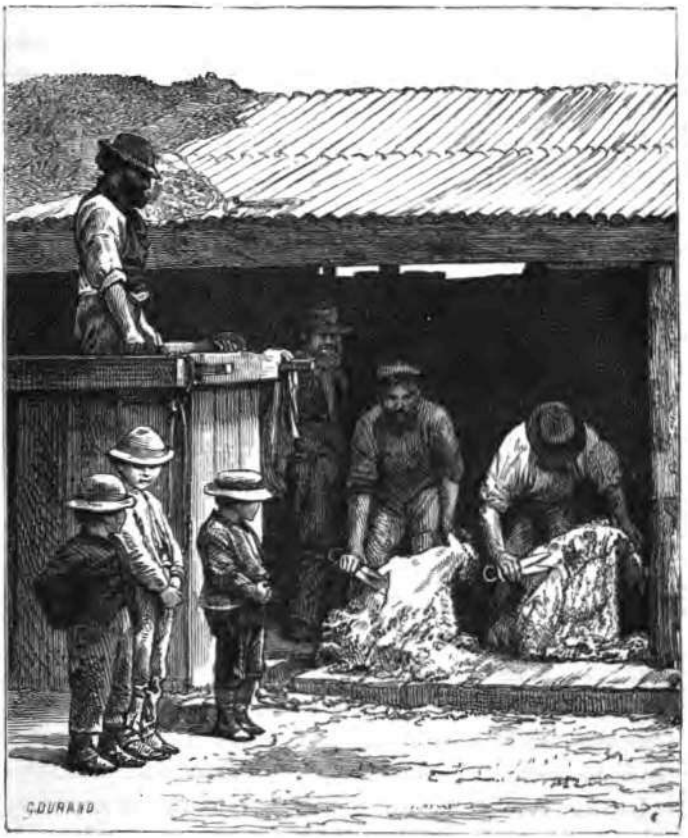
across the interminable plains of Australia is begun. The regions called Riverina and the Albert District—stretching from the River Murray to the River Darling, a distance of 400 miles, and then westwards for nobody knows how much farther—consist almost entirely of one vast plain. As the coach goes along the mode of journeying strongly reminds one of sailing over an open sea. The circle of the horizon is almost perfectly unbroken, save now and then for an occasional line of low trees. Hundreds of thousands of square miles are covered with a small shrub called the salt-bush, standing about two or three feet high, with bare ground intervening between the bushes. It is a dismal-looking plant, with little blue leaves that always look as if they had been peppered with dust. On my first experience of this region, after riding along with my companion for a day or two, I exclaimed, "What miserable country this is!" "Miserable, do you call it?" he replied, "why, this is magnificent country! There is no wool-producing feed for sheep in the whole world that is so good as this salt-bush." That was the whole matter truly from a commercial point of view; but to one with an eye for the picturesque, it is certain that a salt-bush plain cannot be regarded as a paradise.

If our "colonial-experience" youth has not had the good sense to abandon his swell clothes he will be throughout his journey, if not merry himself, yet the "cause of mirth in others." Going through among the clumps of small trees, he will hear on all sides, "Now, then, look out for that bell-topper!" "Chimney-pots, beware!" "Here's a branch that'll humble the pride of

the stove-pipe!" and so forth,—all of which pleasantries he is expected to take in the kindliest manner possible, for, in travelling in Australia, people are nearly always in good spirits. This sort of "chaffing" will probably induce him to take time by the forelock and go into the "general store" of some town *en route*, where he will obtain ready-made slops and a slouch felt hat, and in wearing these among the free-and-easy people of the bush he will feel at his ease. The sooner he dons his bush clothing the better, for it is no sort of dainty work that awaits him at the station. It is said that midshipmen on merchant ships usually have to make up in their youth by all kinds of undignified work for the dignity which awaits them when they arrive at the rank of captain or chief mate. The same is the case with a "colonial-experience" youth. On a far-off station, of course, servants are very scarce. The newest comer is therefore usually chosen to do all sorts of odd jobs about the home station. This, however, is only to enable him to acquire sufficient knowledge to recognize a sheep when he sees one. By-and-by he is sent out into the "back" country, and commences the wild, roving, hard-riding, solitary life of a bushman. It is a life, as I have said, to which many become extremely attached, and the probability is that our new arrival becomes fond of it too.

Like the sailors on board a merchant ship, the ordinary hands on a sheep station are frequently a very rough lot. In both cases we may readily imagine the cause is the same. So few are the opportunities of intelligent enjoyment which the men possess, that only

the roving and ne'er-do-well members of society will consent to adopt the life permanently. The "boundary



Sheep-shearing.

rider," or shepherd, or bullock driver who works upon a station lives by day a solitary life, and at night, if he

has any companionship at all, it is that of one or two rough customers like himself, who, under the flaring light of an oil-lamp overhead, will play a game at euchre before tumbling on to the stretchers which serve them for beds. Periodically the bush hand gets his cheque from the manager, for almost every transaction in Australia is done by means of a cheque on the local branch bank. He then goes off "on the Wallaby track." Why this particular track should be called after the small species of kangaroo is a disputed question; but the place to which it leads is well known, and usually appreciated at its true worth. The bush "grog-shanty" is an institution which stands to the poor of the outlying districts of Australia in the same relation that the gin-palace does to the poor of London. They curse it and hate it; and yet it has a fatal fascination for them. The owner of a grog-shanty is often the very shadiest of shady characters—carrying on an illicit liquor traffic in defiance of the law—frequently making use of the liberal land laws provided by Government for the thrifty and industrious, as a means of extracting the hard-earned money from the pockets of the poor. Yet the bushman, with child-like confidence, freely entrusts him with the keeping of his cheque, the understanding being that the publican is to keep his guest drunk for a few days, let him sleep till sober, and then hand over the balance. As may readily be guessed, it very seldom happens that the keeper acknowledges any indebtedness at the conclusion of the sojourn. With an aching head, a contrite heart, and an empty pocket, the poor bushman makes his way back to the station and begins

work again for another year or so, when probably the same process will be repeated. The idle vagabonds of the squatting districts are denominated "sundowners," for the reason that they invariably make their appearance at the manager's door or the store-room of the station just about sundown. The unwritten law of the bush in regard to the poorest class of rovers and travellers is that, if they ask for food, they must at least

A Country Bank.

receive a "pannikin" of flour and be allowed to bake it up into a piece of "damper" at the cooking fire. The sundowner knows this, and, mindful of the fact that if he showed up in the daytime he might be offered a job, or be asked to do some work in return for his meal, he sleeps under a tree all day and only makes his appearance at nightfall.

The stranger who is travelling on business is almost always sure of a hearty welcome at any head station

that may lie in his way. If he be agreeable company his visit gives unfeigned pleasure, and is talked of for weeks afterwards. When a man's nearest neighbour is twenty, or it may be fifty or one hundred miles away, he is apt to feel that anything in the shape of human society is nothing less than a godsend. I remember once travelling to a township which I regarded as being upon the very outskirts of civilization. The morning after my arrival I saw a middle-aged gentleman preparing to start off with a couple of men in a strong four-wheeled buggy drawn by two horses. Surprised at the stock of provisions he was laying in—tinned meats, biscuits, sugar, tea, flour, etc.—I remarked to him,—

"You seem to be off on rather a long journey?"

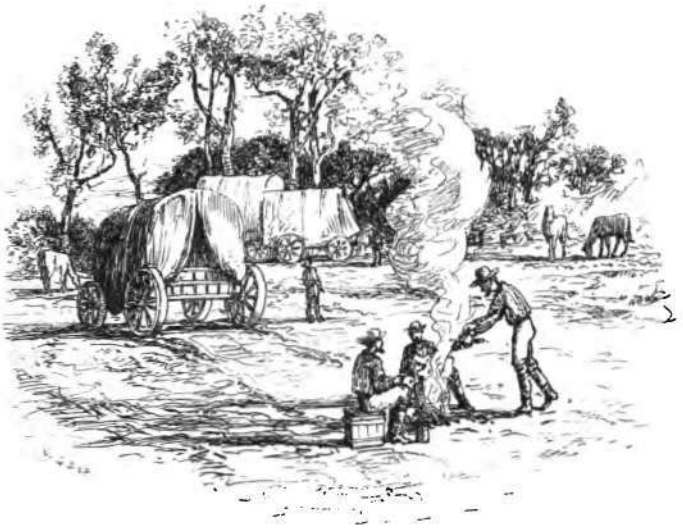
"Yes," he said, "I am off from civilization to-day on my way to a station that I have taken up in the back of Queensland. I am only going at present on a visit of inspection, so that I shall be there no longer than a week or so. But I don't expect to see a white face, excepting those of my men, which—by the way, I shouldn't call white, for they are very brown—for at least four months."

This gentleman had travelled for fully a week in reaching the town in which we were, and yet he had over a thousand miles to go. In that whole distance he probably would not sleep three or four times under shelter. There are no roads and, nothing to indicate the way, excepting the half-obliterated wheel-tracts that show how some previous traveller has made his way from one far-distant landmark to another. Sometimes

these give out altogether, and the traveller then has to rely upon his own resources as to the direction he should take. I have seen bushmen who, in pitch darkness, when not even a star was visible, and in the middle of a thick wood, could tell to a nicety the exact direction in which the points of the compass lay. Some kinds of trees grow most rapidly on the side towards the sun, and therefore in Australia they bend over towards the south. Others turn their heads towards the sun; while others, again, show by the quality of their bark in which direction the morning light catches them, and in which the afternoon. Putting all these indications together, the experienced traveller rarely fails to take exactly the right course.

Most people in England would not at all relish the idea of sleeping out at night for a couple of months in the open air. Yet I have known men who had become so accustomed to having the heavens for their sleeping canopy at night, that they disliked very much to be obliged to return to the civilized luxury of a bedroom. So long as they kept up the open-air style of living they were well, but a return to bedroom life was certain to be the forerunner of colds and influenza. If you wanted to kill an Australian blackfellow, you could scarcely adopt a surer method than to give him a bedroom and a comfortable bed in which to sleep. Every draft would be like a knife to him, he would be subject to alternate sweat and chill, and would probably contract rheumatism, and ultimately go off into a rapid consumption. Sleeping in the open air in a dry climate is not, after all, any great hardship. You have, of course,

your opossum rug, which is preferably made in the form of a bag, with waterproof sheeting underneath. You dig a shallow hole in which to recline at your ease, put your saddle or the cushion of your buggy in place of a pillow, and are soon off to sleep. In the morning you look around you for your horse, which has



A Teamster's Camp.

been hobbled the previous evening; you have very little difficulty in catching him, and after a hearty breakfast, picnic fashion, you resume your way.

When ladies are called upon to perform long journeys in the bush districts a buggy is called into requisition, if the country be level and easy; but if

difficulties are to be surmounted, there is nothing for it but to resort to the primitive simplicity and slowness of a bullock-dray. This mode of travel is, to say the least, a little awkward, and sometimes the language in which the bullock-driver is accustomed to address his cattle makes matters a few degrees worse. One squatter, who had been down to Sydney to get married, and who was conveying his young wife to her destined home, strictly cautioned the driver that he would allow no swearing. The man dubiously consented, and went on his journey. One difficulty after another was surmounted until at last the whole team got fairly stuck in the mud, and nothing that the driver could do seemed to make the slightest impression. The man was in despair and appealed to his master.

"'Tain't no use," said he. "They won't go another step, sir, unless I can let fly at them."

"All right, go ahead," was the reply; and then, to the wife, "Turn away your head, my dear, and don't listen." The driver proceeded to "let fly," and swore away as only bullock-drivers can swear. The effect was marvellous, for, under the stimulating influence of profanity, these bullocks took the dray out of the mud in a twinkling, and never stopped till they got right home. This is the story as told by bullock-drivers, and they vouch for its accuracy.

CHAPTER XI.

"Squatters," American and Australian—The Leasing System—Homely and Rich—Growth of Luxury—Guests from the Old Country—Bad Seasons and Losses—A Fortune in a Cloud.

THE word "squatter" is in America synonymous with a roving outcast whom nobody owns. The American "squatter" is a member of the poorest class of society. In Australia the position is exactly reversed. To be a squatter is to be a rich man, or, at any rate, to have a large business. Yet the word has the same origin in both cases. When old Sir Richard Bourke was Governor of New South Wales a number of adventurous men drove flocks of sheep and herds of cattle away out into "No-man's Land," which lay beyond the explored area of the colony. Nobody interfered with them, and they built their homesteads on the land on which they had "squatted." By-and-by, when disputes arose as to the occupancy of tracts of land, Governor Bourke devised a rough system of leasing large areas at a nominal rental. Out of that small beginning has grown the enormous pastoral interest of the colonies—an interest which, at the present day, is worth millions upon millions of money. There are a few sheep stations in each colony which have been purchased out-and-out; and a much larger number in which a portion has been bought by the holder. But the vast majority of the pastoral land is simply held

under lease from the Government—sometimes at so much per square mile—sometimes at a rate fixed according to the "carrying capacity" of the land—that is the number of sheep to the square mile that it is estimated fit to support.

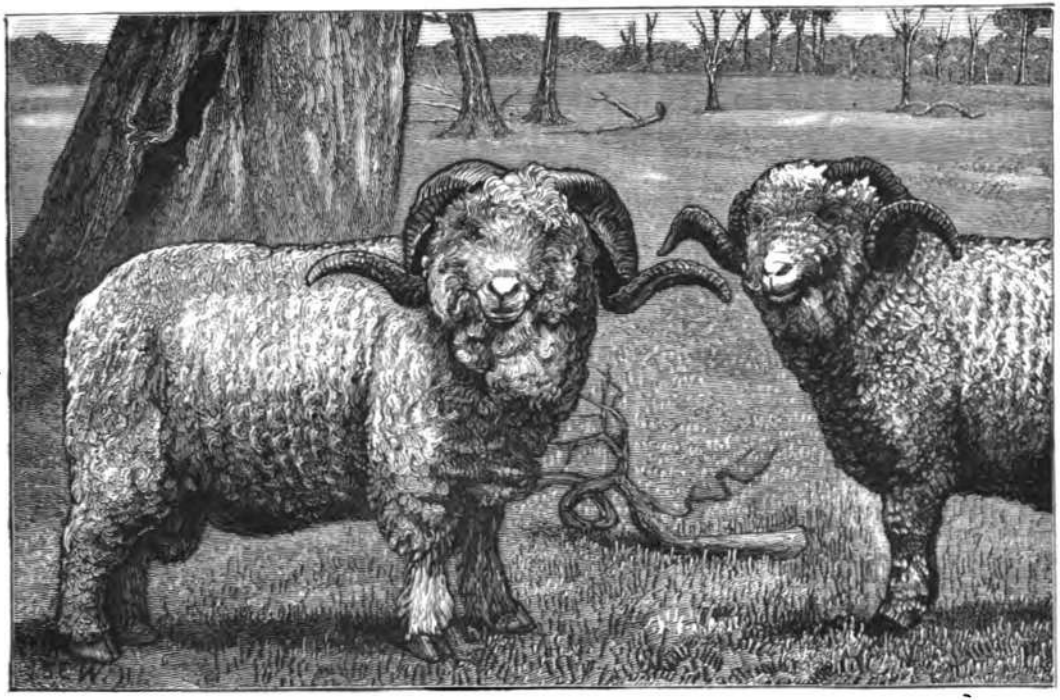
A strange mixture of homeliness and ostentation is the squatter. You meet him on his far-off station, and find him in a flannel shirt, sitting on a three-rail fence smoking a clay pipe. You meet him in the city, and as he drives rapidly past in his richly-appointed carriage, you wonder where in the world you have seen that face before. I have known of a man holding so large an area of ground, that merely to pass through it was a good two days' ride, yet having nothing but rough home-made furniture in his station-house. But he built a magnificent mansion when he went to live in the city. Another case I remember, of a young man who could draw his cheque for £40,000, working like a navvy as manager on a station for a comparatively small salary. It is one good point about the colonial style of living, that almost everybody, rich or poor, has some sort of work to do. If the young man in question had been brought up in London, perhaps he would have lived on the interest of his capital and spent his days riding in Hyde Park, or walking up and down Piccadilly with a masher collar and a walking-stick. But in Australia there is as yet more attraction in the free life of the country, and less in the cramped life of the city, than there is in older countries. All, this, however, is rapidly being changed. Rich living is becoming more and more the rule in Melbourne and Sydney, and many

who were at one time busy graziers or farmers are now wealthy landlords, living in the city with nothing to do.

It is shrewd common sense that has had most to do with the rise to affluence of many of the "squatter kings," and the majority of them, when they have acquired wealth, take very good care of it. A visitor from the old country usually finds a rare welcome at one of the distant "home-stations" in which the pastoral tenant pitches his head-quarters. He is feasted and made much of. The fatted calf is literally devoted to his especial benefit, and what between plenty of riding and sport in the daytime, and social enjoyments at night, he generally leaves with the highest impression of the hospitality of Australians in "the bush," and sometimes, too, of their riches and liberality.

Great things are now anticipated from the opening up of the frozen meat trade with England—rendering saleable millions of sheep and cattle which would otherwise be confined to a very limited market. The animals are usually slaughtered in the country, and brought to the city by means of meat trains. The trade is undoubtedly a promising one, and when science has succeeded in overcoming all the dangers to which the carcases are exposed before and after freezing, it will become very lucrative.

Yet there are sad reverses which may at any time overtake even the wealthiest of these men, "rich in cattle and in sheep," and reduce them from affluence to poverty at one blow. In a droughty season, when nearly all the streams and surface waters are dried up by the heat of the sun, the squatter's life is a most



Australian Merino Rams.

anxious one, and frequently his losses are appalling. Only a few months ago, to take a solitary instance, two or three partners bought for £100,000 a station in Queensland, having on it 130,000 sheep. The drought came, and neither feed nor water could be found within a hundred miles of the doomed place. In two months 80,000 sheep died. The inhabitants fled for their lives to the nearest locality where water was to be obtained, and the remaining 50,000 sheep were left to their fate. I knew a squatter who owned a sheep-station through such a season, and left it a ruined man. As he drove off from the scene of his shattered fortunes, he watched a cloud come up from the south, and camped on the spot to see what would happen. That cloud was rain, and had it come only a week earlier it would have meant £20,000 to him. But the station had passed into other hands, and instead of being a rich man and a master, the former owner of the station passed away to fill for the remainder of his days a subordinate position, working for wages.

CHAPTER XII.

Gold-mining — A Transformation Scene — Surface-mining and Deep-sinking—Going down a Mine—Great Expectations—A Fortune for Nothing—Three Hundred Millions in Gold—Miners' Wages—Speculators—Waste and Saving.

THE vicissitudes of gold-mining in Australia will form one of the most curious chapters in the history of this growing nation. The discovery of the precious metal in the mountains of New South Wales, to the west of Sydney, and in the vicinity of Ballarat in Victoria, about thirty-five years ago, entirely changed the aspect of the whole country. Population was attracted by hundreds of thousands. Eager, active men came pouring in by every vessel that was available, all drawn by the attractive power of the precious metal. From being a quiet pastoral country, devoted to the rearing and breeding of sheep and cattle, and, to a very small extent to the cultivation of European crops, Australia emerged into the position of an active mining centre, thronged with busy and enterprising men. But the gold-mining of those early days was a very different thing from that which is now practised. At first the miner gave his attention solely to surface-mining. To lift a few shovelfuls of dirt out of the bed of a hill-stream into a pan or cradle, and sift out the mud until the grains of heavy gold collected in the corner, was com-

paratively a simple and easy operation. In possession of a shovel and a shallow pan, the miner had a complete stock-in-trade, and with these implements he might possibly make his fortune. Even when "races" and "sluices" were invented, and the thousand and one little devices by which diggers were accustomed to facilitate the separation of the golden grains from large quantities of wash-dirt, the necessary outlay was well within the means of two or three men in a humble way of life.

But when the auriferous earth had been washed, and the gold had been extracted from the bed of nearly every accessible creek or stream, it became necessary to seek for the precious metal in the quartz and other rocks in which it was originally embedded. Companies were formed, and share-broking became the order of the day. Fossicking for gold in the vicinity of the surface was abandoned to the Chinese, of whom some 6,000 or 7,000 still earn in Victoria a precarious living in digging over old ground which the Europeans have abandoned. Most of the Europeans who in the public statistics are set down as "alluvial miners" pursue their vocation in dark and wet mines at great depths below the surface. The buried streams from which they take the wash-dirt are those of remote geological periods; and occasionally they unearth curiosities of the most extraordinary description—live frogs, undecayed leaves, and traces of strange and long-extinct animals. A visit to a mine of this description would be a most enjoyable experience if the risk of getting wet and muddy were not so great. The visitor, previously to descending, is provided with

a coarse suit of miners' clothing, usually about half too big for him. He takes his stand on the "cage" and suddenly becomes aware of darkness and a sinking sensation. The great and ponderous tubular pumps, worked perhaps by engines of 200 or 300 horse-power, produce a weird and unearthly noise in the dismal pit. At long intervals a slight glimmer of candle-light gives indication of the locality of some drive or passage. Arrived at the bottom, the exploring party step out into a pond of water, which forms the eddy of a long stream pouring along the main passage. I can remember what a wet tramp I had of it in getting to the end of one such passage in a well-known mine, and the experience gave me a vivid impression of the hardships which men under the stimulus of hope will choose to undergo. The mine had been in operation for fully fourteen years, and had never yielded enough of gold to pay a single miner. Yet when asked how soon he expected to come upon payable ground, the manager replied, in quite a cheerful tone of voice, that they would probably strike the drift in about a fortnight. He had held on to the same expectation for quite ten years past.

Yet, gold-mining has its bright and fortunate side as well as its disappointing one. If it were not so, indeed, the spirit of adventure and gambling on which it depends would soon die out, and the industry would be abandoned. In one township lying deep in the valleys of Eastern Victoria, the people tell of the extraordinary luck which fell to the share of one of the proprietors of the leading mine in the district. He had been coming down in the world, but invested his last £500

in the company, for he saw there was good quartz in the mine, and he thought fortune might favour his last throw of the die if he made it boldly. He never even had to disburse the £500. The first gold that was taken from the mine paid for the machinery; the next gave a handsome dividend, and, for ten years afterwards, the lucky shareholder received an income of £10,000 per annum. Equally strange have been the sudden accessions of fortune by which some of the monied men of Ballarat and Sandhurst were raised from poverty to affluence. The total value of the gold raised in the Australasian colonies since the first discovery of the precious metal has been almost exactly £300,000,000. Of this amount over £210,000,000 was contributed by the colony of Victoria. The value of the annual product at the present time is barely one-seventieth part of this sum and as there are over 30,000 miners in the colony who receive wages, usually at the rate of from 35s. to 45s. per week, it is quite plain that very little margin can be left for the profits of the speculator. But many a miner can look back with pride and satisfaction to the "early days" when in one year (1856) gold to the value of twelve millions sterling was divided between the miners of the colony; and there were few men who did not get their share of the good things going. These were great times, too, for tradespeople of all descriptions—the times when, as old colonists sometimes put it, "you could not get within four deep at the bar of the public-houses." The extravagant miners, of course, wasted their substance in riotous living. One man, for instance,

has been known to order out all the champagne that was left in a public house (200 bottles), for which he paid £400, and after setting them up in the skittle alley, to fire away at them until not a bottle was left. Others, of course, indulged in the luxury of lighting their pipes with five-pound notes. But a large proportion put away a good substantial something for a rainy day, and among these are to be found a good many of the men who now occupy leading positions in the towns and cities of the Australian colonies.

CHAPTER XIII.

Millionaires—Mr. James Tyson—A Strange Story—Shepherd Kings—Homely and Wealthy—Sir Samuel Wilson—Large Estates.

THE millionaires of America are very much talked about, and seem to like it too, for the Yankees are an advertising people. Yet few ever think of the possibility of such enviable individuals inhabiting the island continent at the other side of the Indian Ocean. The conditions of life in Australia, however, have been, if anything, more favourable to the rapid acquisition of wealth by individuals than even in the United States. Corresponding to the Silver Kings of the Pacific states and territories, there are men of immense wealth,

whose fortunes have been dug out of Australian gold mines. Still, as a rule, the millionaires of Australia are not to be found among the classes who have been connected with gold-mining. If a man feels that he really has fortune on his side, he generally finds in Australia that sheep and cattle are a much more profitable investment than gold-mining scrip. It is among "squatters," or sheep and cattle farmers, that by far the larger number of monied men are to be found. In this respect Australia presents a remarkable contrast to every other country in the world, with the exception, perhaps, of Texas and Colorado, and the great cattle-ranching states of America.

Even among the cattle-ranchers it would be difficult to find a parallel to such a career as that of Mr. James Tyson, whose rise from absolute poverty to enormous wealth would furnish material for a strange and remarkable narrative. Yet his career, as briefly outlined by one who knows the facts, is only typical of a large number of others. Commencing life in the colonies as a cattle-drover, he happened, during an excessively dry season, to be at a part of the country far distant from his master's station, driving a "mob" of cattle with a view of replenishing stock. The drought, however, was so bad that it was impossible to travel the beasts, and the owner wrote to him—saying he could do as he pleased with them, and there was no more work for him. Fortune was favourable, for the rain came soon afterwards. Tyson fattened up his cattle, and when the gold fever was at its height, he drove them down to Sandhurst, in Victoria, and sold out at an almost

fabulous price. Pastoral property and leases were, at the time, exceedingly cheap, for almost everybody had become infected with the mania for gold. It was easy to buy a fairly large station with the money which he had at command, and, once on the road to prosperity, his progress was rapid. When lambing was going on at the rate of from 85 to 90 per cent. each year, and the value of the wool taken off each sheep was 50 per cent. on the worth of the animal itself, it did not require many years to make a man's fortune. Tyson made the most of his opportunities. He added station to station, bought and sold on a large scale, and had men continually exploring new country into which to extend his operations. Years ago he was stated to be worth at least nine millions sterling, and that amount—not a small sum to be put together in the lifetime of one man, is probably exceeded at this time; while several of his relatives are also exceedingly wealthy.

The first generation of the Shepherd Kings have now almost passed away. They were, on the whole, a set of men of more than ordinary prudence and self-reliance. Many of them, however, had little cultivation, and still less of book-learning. Most of them had a very shrewd idea of the value of a good education, although frequently their common sense was thwarted by sheer ignorance. One old squatter, who regretted that he had had so few opportunities in his youth, and desired to encourage his daughters in the study of zoology, made them a present of "Moths," by Ouida. Many are the stories told of the homely tastes and manners of the men who ruled supreme over immense tracts of pas-

toral land. Sometimes the new-comer on a station, who chanced to accost a man in corduroy trousers sitting on a post-and-rail fence, with a clay pipe in his mouth, and a slouch hat drawn over his eyes, would discover, to his no small discomfiture, that his newly-made acquaintance was no other than the great man himself—the

Camels in the Interior.

"boss" of the station. Squatters of this stamp often have a great distaste for city life. They are attached to the pursuits by which they have risen to affluence, and while they seldom speak very enthusiastically of their vocation in life, they seldom absolutely abandon it, excepting under pressure of dire necessity.

Others, however, are of a more ambitious turn of mind, and seek distinction, not only in the cities of Australasia, but in the land which almost every Australian still alludes to as "home." Sir Samuel Wilson, the present occupant of Hughenden Manor, but better known to Australians as the owner of the Ercildoune estate in Victoria, and of the celebrated flock of sheep named after that estate, has sought distinction in the politics of the old country. As the donor of a large sum of money to the University of Melbourne, he was honoured with a knighthood, and shortly afterwards transferred his residence to England. Mr. James Ormond, whose endowments to public institutions in Victoria are also remarkable, has not sought to make his name known beyond the limits of his own country. Even Sir W. J. Clarke, who is the first resident Australian baronet, continues to live at his beautiful estate of Rupertswood, about 20 miles north of Melbourne, and his large domains in the neighbourhood, occupied by tenant farmers and gardeners, bear a very close resemblance to the patrimony of some English or Scotch Dukedom or Earldom. The agglomeration of large estates of this description, forms the subject of very frequent discussion in the colonies. It must be admitted that among the rich men of Australia there are to be found a very fair proportion who use their wealth wisely, and for the good of their adopted country. Some have attained this object by liberal donations for religious and educational purposes. Others, like Sir Thomas Elder, of South Australia, who spent large sums in acclimatizing the camel in Australia, and equipping

exploring expeditions, have been the means of opening up vast tracts of country, and making them accessible to the colonists of the future.

CHAPTER XIV.

No Idlers allowed—Work and Luxury—Wanted, an Aristocracy—Attempt to supply one—"Honourables" by Election—By Service—Homely Legislators—Travelled Australians—The Middle Classes.

ALTHOUGH in Australia there are many rich men, and a very much larger number who are in what would be called comfortable circumstances, yet, as has already been remarked, the rule of society is that, whether rich or poor, no one must live a life of idleness. The "leisured classes," as they are designated in older countries, have but few representatives among Australian colonists, and the reasons for this fact are by no means far to seek. On the one hand, the attractions of a life of active work are usually much greater in a mild climate like that of Australia than they are in an atmosphere where damp and fog prevail throughout a large proportion of the year; while, on the other hand, the fascinations of a life of enjoyment are very much weaker. The contrast between the condition of the moderately well-to-do in these and other countries may occasionally occur in a very striking form. Stopping

in one of your country walks to speak to a brown-armed man who is chopping at some fence-wood, or repairing a windmill, or superintending repairs to a well or a tank, you find that he is acting perhaps as manager or assistant-manager of an ordinary sheep station. Presently, if he likes your conversation, he will take you into his confidence, and tell you that although he works away in that out-of-the-way corner of the world on a wage of four pounds per week, he owns valuable properties in the neighbourhood, and can command large sums of money. Enquiries, too, will probably confirm every one of his statements.

A young man brought up and accustomed to the free-and-easy life of the "bush" does not necessarily eschew hard work and hard fare because his father or his uncle has left him a few thousand pounds. If he were a Parisian under such circumstances, he would probably become *un petit maître*, and give himself up to nightly attendance on balls and theatres; for every Parisian has the taste for such enjoyments, if he is only blessed with the requisite means. If he were a Londoner he would find the temptations to a similar life very great indeed; and though society might bar him out of its sanctuaries, still he would perhaps delight to hover around in the vicinity of the great, and to feel that his money could bring him at least within speaking distance of the aristocracy. Being in Australia, he knows nothing of these attractions and allurements. There is no aristocracy in Australia, or at least none in any way analogous to that of England. Among the rich men of the colony in which our Aus-

tralian may chance to reside, the great majority are men who, like himself, have had to earn their daily bread nearly all their lives, and to whom the opportunities for the refinements of civilized life have been very few indeed. Thus the social horizon seems limited. There is nothing of that charm of vagueness about it which forms its great attraction in older countries. The man who could be idle if he chose prefers to work on and enjoy the sensation that he can stop when he pleases.

The lack of an aristocracy was a feature which sorely grieved many of the colonial politicians of a few years back, and very strenuous efforts were made for the creation of a class analogous to the titled gentry of Great Britain. Even old Sir William Wentworth, whose statue in Sydney now graces the central hall of the University which he was the means of founding, could not rest satisfied with the idea that there was no titled or specially honoured class in his native land. As the son of a common soldier who had been convicted and sent to New South Wales for knocking down his superior officer, Sir William naturally had democratic tendencies in some matters. But, nevertheless, when the Legislative Constitution was drawn up, he strongly insisted that an absolutely essential feature should be the creation of an Upper Chamber similar to the House of Peers. So strong was this feeling, that in regard to New South Wales it was decided that the members of the Legislative Council, or Upper House, should hold their appointments for life; and after tentative nominations for a period of five years, the House was finally constituted on that basis, and Queens-

land and Tasmania followed the example of the parent colony in adopting a similar method of appointment. In Victoria and South Australia more democratic counsels prevailed. The members of the Upper House were, as in the other colonies, dignified with the title of "Honourable." But every member of Parliament, whether Councillor or Commoner, had to undergo the ordeal of election. South Australia tried an experiment by electing all its Councillors as one constituency. But on trial this device proved a failure. In proportion to the size of the constituency the public interest in the elections diminished, and a large proportion of the constituents never exercised the suffrage. The colony is now, like Victoria, divided into different sets of electoral districts, one for the Legislative Council and one for the Legislative Assembly. The title of "Honourable" is naturally to some extent coveted by influential colonists in every part of Australia. But still the attempt to form an aristocracy in the shape of a miniature House of Lords has been by no means successful. Neither, indeed, has complete success attended the efforts to specially distinguish gentlemen who have served as Her Majesty's Ministers in Colonial Cabinets. The rule is, that when a man has held office for a period of three years in all, he should be entitled to the prefix of "Honourable" to his name. Yet this privilege is robbed of much of its attractiveness by the fact that the title is only applicable so long as its owner remains in the colonies. Even some of the most distinguished colonial Ministers become plain "Mr." directly they land in England, and occasionally some disappoint-

ment has been occasioned by the severity with which this rule is adhered to when Australians visit the old country. An Australian "Honourable" is not treated with as much respect as an Italian Count. The choice of the title was undoubtedly unfortunate, for there is no analogy between the distinction given to a member of a Peer's family and that due to a colonial representative. Yet it may safely be asserted that among the colonial Ministers and ex-Ministers there are some of the ablest men who have served Her Majesty in any part of the world. No doubt it seems strange to a man like Sir Henry Parkes that he should come to England and be denied the title of "Honourable," when his old friend and Radical colleague, Robert Lowe, can command the homage due to a peerage. But in Australia such distinctions would matter but little; his political importance has not been at all augmented by his acceptance of knighthood; but many a voter has shouted lustily for him at the poll, inspired by the reflection that he used to keep a little shop for selling toys and mending umbrellas.

Among others who enjoy the title of "Honourable" there are many who have not had the native ability requisite to enable them to supply the deficiency of early educational chances. Plenty of shrewd common sense there is, but little of book-learning; and when a speech is made in Parliament characterized rather by the former quality than by the latter, the reporters are usually obliging enough to send forth to the general public a version of it which will at least bear reading. On several occasions, however, not only in Sydney, but

also in Melbourne and Adelaide, when legislators have expressed dissatisfaction at the labours of the Press, the device has been tried of giving them strictly *verbatim* reports. The result has usually been a complete collapse of the Parliamentary discontent. On one occasion an Honourable Councillor found that through insisting upon *verbatim* reporting he had succeeded in earning an unenviable fame in almost every part of the world. A speech which he made was copied into newspapers wherever the English tongue is spoken, and it no doubt afforded innocent amusement to thousands who had never heard his name. Nothing could show more conclusively than the experience of Australia that mere wealth or mere titles are insufficient for the creation of an aristocracy. In the colonies, as in America, the greatest refinement and highest education are found among the people of the upper middle classes. Few of these have the means, and still fewer the opportunity, to travel and to see the world. The consequence is that, as in the case of Americans, or, indeed, of Englishmen themselves, the people of distant countries entertain very erroneous notions about the peculiarities of Australians. Who can say that the typical "milor," as he appears to the eyes of the innkeeper at Nice or Lausanne, is a true picture of the Englishman as he is? Or that the travelling Yankee, with an overweening confidence in the "almighty dollar," who takes up his abode in Paris, can be accepted as a true representative of the people of America? In order to understand and appreciate the life of Australians one must go amongst them and mix in their pursuits and amusements. Every

one who has done so must have been struck with the high standard of the people, taken as a whole. Intelligence is a most marked characteristic. A colonist must necessarily either have emigrated himself, or be the son or grandson of one who has; and the very fact of a man having the courage and enterprise to travel ten or fifteen thousand miles argues at least a fair degree of intellect. There is very little of that dense ignorance which prevails among the labouring populace of some counties of England. The English language is spoken in Australia with far greater freedom from *patois* than in any other part of the world. Provincialisms seem to nullify one another; and among men who emigrate, a Dorset man and a Cumberland man, who, perhaps, in England, could scarcely understand one another, will soon find that in Australia they can not only make themselves intelligible, but talk with comparative correctness and expression. Then, again, it is not merely in the matter of language that provincialism disappears in Australia. The mixture of races and the absolute necessity for toleration of every kind has annihilated many a prejudice which elsewhere has been, and still is, the cause of bitter strife. To the great bulk of the populace these matters are of more importance than the existence or non-existence of an aristocracy; and, so far as they are concerned, they have reason to be satisfied with their social position, as compared with that of their fellow-subjects in other parts of the British Empire.

CHAPTER XV.

A Classical "Swagman"—A Learned Fisherman—Ups and Downs of Life—Ne'er-do-wells—A Tragic Story—A Rise in Life.

THERE is a very good reason for the democratic tone of society in Australia. So complete has been the removal of conventional restraint at various times in the history of the colonies, that, in the course of travelling, it is frequently quite impossible to tell who it is that one is meeting. One finds altogether illiterate men in responsible positions; and, on the other hand, men of high education and refinement acting in the capacity of labourers. I know a gentleman now holding an important post, who for years was engaged in the roving life of a prospecting digger. To meet him on a country road, one would take him to be a navvy in search of work, for he never put a coat on his back. The only adornment of his person was the universally used "swag," or roll of blankets, passed over the right shoulder and under the left arm. Attached to the swag were the usual accoutrements—a "billy," or small tin can, for boiling tea or coffee, and a small frying-pan; while inside he stowed away those miscellaneous articles that most people put in the pockets of their coats. But he never forgot what he used afterwards to describe as his "travelling library," namely, a small pocket Bible

and a miniature edition of Homer's "Iliad." To some men the hard fare and rough living of a wandering life would become very irksome; but others enjoy it so greatly, that once they have taken to it they never change their course, but remain for the rest of their lives in the humbler walks of life, although fitted by training and position to adopt a much higher one.

Swagmen.

This sort of incongruity often occasions a great deal of surprise. At Adelaide, they tell a story of a talkative legislator who, in one of his walks along the sea-beach, fell to conversing with an old fisherman, who was painting up his cockle-shell of a boat on the shore, just opposite the little hut in which he lived. The parliamentary gentleman, not unwilling, even in the

case of a poor fisherman, to impress his auditor with a sense of the importance of the man who was speaking to him, took occasion to introduce a quotation from Virgil. "I think you're wrong," replied the fisherman. "The line could not read in that way without involving a false quantity. I remember it correctly, I believe." And he quoted the piece at length, and brought out a volume from his hut to prove the correctness of his version. In every walk of life there are to be found people who in Australia seem to systematically hide their light under a bushel. In the record of some such lives there would be many a strange tale of romance, of disappointed love, of unforgiven offences, of family disgraces, of crimes and faults, and of heroic sacrifices and self-abnegation. One asks in England at the conclusion of such a tale, "And what became of him?" and the reply is, "He went away out to Australia, and none of his family ever heard of him again." I remember an instance with which I was strangely impressed at the time when it took place. He was the second son of an English baronet. There was a family rupture—no one in Australia ever knew exactly what. He wandered for years through the colonies serving in every kind of menial and laborious capacity, and found his way at last to New Zealand, where he became one of the labouring hands at a saw-mill. He was always regarded as an eccentric man, and strong evidence of this was adduced in the fact that he was so very fond of reading, that half of his cabin was filled with old volumes, piled one above the other. His lonely studies seem to have turned his head, and he began to talk of suicide. One

day a lawyer's letter arrived, advising him of the death of his elder brother, and naming him as the baronet and heir to the estates. It was a couple of hours too late. They found his body at the bottom of a water-hole, and a rambling and incoherent scrap of writing on the sward beside. Many a scapegrace from the old country has found his way to Australia. The incorrigible scion of some noble or county family is very conveniently lost sight of, when, after repeatedly meeting the demands of creditors, the father or elder brother tries a last resource, and ships the erring one off to Australia. It is usually a case of "out of sight, out of mind." The family try to forget the existence of the distant member, and, in very many cases, if the fellow has any self-respect in him at all, the effort is successful. But there are a considerable number of young and middle-aged men in the colonies who are not so conveniently oblivious of their family connections. They enter into obligations in business, under the expectation that their families will assist them. They run into debt on every possible occasion, and their invariable excuse to their landlady for non-payment of rent is that "they are expecting a remittance."

In striking contrast to the fate of these offcasts of English families of standing, are the careers of many of the men who will undoubtedly become the founders of large estates and important interests in Australia. Standing in front of a large castellated edifice, about the size of a duke's palace, I have heard an old colonist muse thus:—"Well; to think that this house should be owned by the man who used to keep the little grocer's

shop round the corner from our cottage! Many a time has he sold me a quarter of a pound of tea, or three-penn'orth of molasses. But he saved, and I didn't. He knew when to invest his savings, and I didn't. He knew how the value of land rises in a new country, and I didn't. I suppose he deserves his luck, but his is a pretty big slice, so it is." My old friend was certainly right. The man who makes money in Australia, is not so much the man who constantly speculates as the man who knows when to save and to invest his savings. In every comparatively small community, like one of the colonies of Australasia, commercial progress includes an almost unbroken alternation of sudden rises and severe depressions. The cry is either that of "glorious prospects," or of "going to the dogs." And, as a rule, when the former saying prevails, that is the very time when men with cool heads keep their pockets shut. They can very well afford to wait. In a year or so the story has quite altered. Every one wants to sell to them, and they can buy at their own price. Frequently a piece of property will apparently double in value in less than a year, and then recede to less than its original price. But, on the whole, the course of progress is sure, and moderately fast. The man who knows when to buy is certain to make money in Australia. The speculator should be most hopeful and active when others are most despondent. His motto should be that of the witches in Macbeth—"When others tremble, we rejoice." Men who have neglected to keep a cool head in times of excitement, have sometimes made money; but they have usually lost it again. I knew a man who lost a

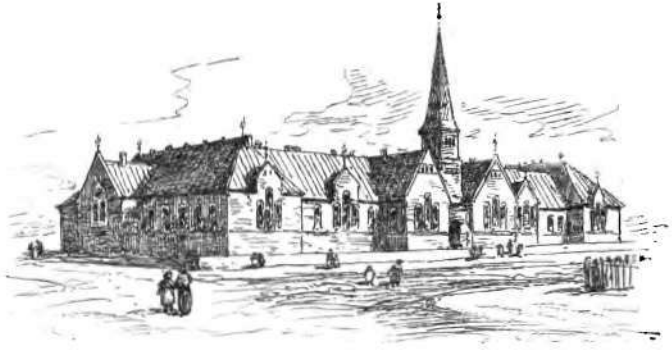
fortune four times and made it again. He had tried gold-mining, land-speculation, wool-broking, in fact everything in which money was to be made rapidly, or lost rapidly. When I last saw him he was riding in his carriage. Whether he is now trudging on foot I do not know, but the chances are in favour of such a supposition.

CHAPTER XVI.

Education and Manhood Suffrage—Education Free, Compulsory, Secular—Spread of Education—British Periodicals—Universities—Colleges—Medicine.

IT is an interesting fact that in all new countries the advantages of a good education are more universally admitted and insisted upon than among older and more settled communities. The extreme anxiety shown by the Americans to bring as nearly as possible to the point of perfection their systems of school education must afford the leading instance in point. But the Australians are, in their way, even more impressed than the Americans with the transcendent importance of educating every citizen and every voter to the highest point that is reasonably attainable. The adoption of manhood suffrage as the foundation of the political system seems necessarily to involve the extension of education to every class of society. When each man

is expected, on arriving at the age of twenty-one, to exercise his judgment on the merits of rival candidates, it seems only right that, whether his parents have been careful or neglectful, the State should give to every boy the means of acquiring a sound education. This is the argument which is constantly advanced in Australia, but the difficulties which have been encountered in giving logical effect to it have been enormous.



Norwood Model School, Adelaide.

The advanced party have always held to what might be called a triangular policy on the subject. Education, they said, must be compulsory. But some parents could not possibly pay for their children's schooling, therefore it must be free. The intermixture of religions in sparsely populated districts rendered it impossible that denominational schools should be supported, therefore education must be secular. To a limited extent, and under certain precautions, the reading of

the Bible in the schools is countenanced or enjoined. In New South Wales, special Scripture lessons are regularly read; in Victoria, Scriptural teaching can only be given outside of school hours, and practically the educational system is strictly secular; in South Australia, it is within the power of a proportion of the parents to demand the reading of the Scriptures, but the privilege is seldom or never exercised. Other colonies have adopted similar arrangements for avoiding the possibility of denominational disagreements. Victoria provides absolutely free education. In one or two of the colonies very small fees are still charged; but the tendency everywhere seems to be towards education free, secular, and compulsory.

So successful have the people been in bringing all their children into school, that in several of the colonies for months together there are not more than two or three per cent. of the youngsters of school age at large without leave. Very soon the Utopia of the schoolmaster will be realized and no vacant seats will ever be seen. At any rate, the effects of the educational zeal of the colonists may now be seen in every part of Australia. It is very rarely, indeed, that any one meets an Australian-born who is unable to read and write. There are, no doubt, a considerable number of young married people who to their shame have been unable to sign the marriage registers. But in almost every case these have been comparatively recent arrivals. The Australians, notwithstanding their love of an open-air life, are really a reading public. Leading booksellers declare that, in proportion to population, the people of the colonies buy

a larger proportion of British magazines than do those of any other country. It seems a rather remarkable thing that English periodicals should be more read at the antipodes than they are in the country in which they are published. But such, we are assured, is the fact. Almost every village throughout the length and breadth of Australia possesses its "School of Arts," or "Mechanics' Institute," or "Institute," and in these places the chief periodicals of Great Britain may be regularly perused. It is by means such as these that the Australians keep up their feeling of nearness to England. When you go into a reading-room in a township somewhere near the centre of Australia, as it seems, and find files of many of last month's London newspapers and magazines—weekly and monthly—it is impossible to avoid a sudden awakening to the fact that you are not so far away from the old country as you thought you were. The steamers which convey the mails across the Indian and Pacific Oceans now accomplish the journey in a very short time; and it is by no means unusual for persons in Adelaide to receive on the last day of the month London periodicals published on the first day. A thirty days' mail is reckoned a fast one, no doubt; but the event is becoming more and more frequent from year to year, and tenders have recently been invited for a twenty-nine days' mail. This is a material fact which should be borne in mind by those who prophesy the breaking-up of the British Empire at an early date. So far as literary and educational connections are concerned, the Australian colonies are at the present day practically nearer to London than

was the north of Scotland at the beginning of the present century.

While the literature of the day is so greatly esteemed in the colonies, there is also no lack of opportunity to consult standard works in collected form. The Free Public Library of Victoria contains about 120,000 volumes, and is open free from ten till ten every day. Each of the other capital cities has a similar institution, though not on so large a scale; and in several of the provincial towns very creditable public collections of books have been made.

The important Universities of Melbourne and Sydney are undoubtedly the leading educational centres in the Southern Hemisphere, but it has not been without great difficulty and expense that they have been brought to their present state of efficiency and completeness. For years the University of Sydney was maintained at a cost of many thousands annually, when, as a matter of fact, there were more professors than students. It was at one time facetiously remarked to several of the leading members of Parliament that their education had cost the country far more than they were worth. The same expensive, and comparatively useless, stage, had to be passed through by the University of Melbourne. Yet it can now boast of having between 400 and 500 students in regular attendance, and about three times that number of candidates annually presenting themselves for the Matriculation Examination. In Sydney the same prominence is not given to this particular examination; but the example of Cambridge and Oxford has been followed

in the establishment of Junior and Senior Local Examinations. In other respects the University of Sydney has followed the pattern set by those of Cambridge and Oxford. But Melbourne University is modelled chiefly on the lines of the great London institution, excepting in that there is a teaching system besides one of examination. Adelaide has a University of comparatively recent foundation, and one with affiliated colleges has been established in New Zealand. In all these institutions the determination has been to keep up the standard of the ordinary examinations fully to the level of those of the old country. The tendency to maintain British institutions has, however, sometimes produced strange results. Melbourne University, for instance, resembles in some respects that of London, in others that of Glasgow, and in others those of Oxford and Cambridge. In its system of examinations and its curriculum it copies London. The student is required to pass a University examination at the end of each year of his course, but whether he has attended lectures or not, the University is bound to give him his degree if he passes each examination successfully. The majority of the students, however, attend lectures while living on the Glasgow system, either at their parents' homes or in boarding-houses, some of which are under the supervision of the University authorities. But, in imitation of the Oxford and Cambridge systems, affiliated colleges for resident students have been started successfully—colleges which form an integral part of the University, the buildings being on the University grounds—but which depend for their incep-

tion and management upon the various religious denominations. The same scheme of denominational colleges has been worked out in connection with the Sydney University. In fact, every effort has been made to combine all the advantages offered by the great educational institutions in England. In connection not only with the Universities themselves, but also with the Colleges, there have been established various "scholarships" and "exhibitions," some of them tenable while the student is attending lectures, and some designed to encourage him to pursue his studies after he has taken his degree. But such a thing as a resident "fellowship," in the sense in which the word is used in the great English Universities, is unknown. There are no conditions attached to the various prizes—unless very rarely in the matter of age. Several of the colonies offer scholarships tenable for a series of years, to enable clever pupils of the Government schools to pass through Colleges and Universities.

Melbourne has for many years been possessed of a very efficient Medical School, and a large number of students have passed through the five years' course which precedes the granting of a diploma. Sydney and Adelaide also have schools of the same sort in more or less complete form. The extensive hospitals of the different cities, largely endowed by Government funds, afford an admirable field for the study of medicine, under the tuition of the best physicians and surgeons. The colonies are specially well provided in the matter of hospitals, which are to be found even in the remote towns of the interior, and by universal consent the

burden of their maintenance is thrown chiefly upon the Government. The same is the case in regard to the Universities themselves, which receive large grants of money annually. In short, the colonists of Australia spare no money or pains to make their institutions, and especially their educational system, worthy of the nation to which they belong.

CHAPTER XVII.

London the Centre of Attraction—Art and Literature—School of Landscape Painting—Art Unions, Real and Sham—"Two Tons of Books"—"His Natural Life"—Australian Poetry—Science and the Arts.

IN matters literary and artistic Australia suffers from the same disadvantages as the provinces in England, Scotland and Ireland. London is the centre towards which talent of all sorts tends to converge, and, in a large number of cases, those who distinguish themselves as authors, artists, and even as musicians, ultimately make their way to the great British metropolis. In the artistic world of London quite a dozen names could be mentioned of eminent persons who have spent a very large proportion of their lives in the lands of the South. Many of Australia's best students and literary men are similarly drawn away, attracted by the wider scope and

the larger market thrown open to them among the dense populations of older countries. To some extent, indeed, this tendency has been fostered by the colonists themselves. Scholarships and other pecuniary aids have been given in the colonies with the expressly attached condition that the holder must proceed to England or to the Continent for three or four years. Men of talent, thus sent to seek their fortunes in the centres of intellectual activity, very seldom return to Australia. They form connections and associations which cannot be broken up. They find a ready market for their productions, and in some respects, even in their new field, their previous travels and experience give them an advantage over their competitors in the race for distinction.

But with all this it can be fairly said that in Australia indigenous art and literature flourish in a very creditable degree. Many of the best landscape painters of Australia find far more congenial occupation in the sunny atmosphere of the South than under the more sombre skies which prevail in the old country. Both in Sydney and in Melbourne there are associations of artists, preserving to some extent the traditions of art academies, and a visit to the Exhibitions held annually by these bodies may sometimes bring to light more talent than might be supposed to exist in prosaic cities like those of New South Wales and Victoria. In Melbourne especially there is a decided feeling for a style of landscape altogether different from anything to be seen on this side of the equator. The Australian school of landscape-painting is, without doubt, an accomplished fact, which in future times must be

studied by any one aspiring to render a full account of the progress of British art. Mr. Chevalier, whose Eastern subjects have attracted so much attention in England since his visit to India with the Prince of Wales, devoted much of his attention during the early years of his career to the study of Australian scenery and the effects of sunlight in a pure dry atmosphere, not at all unlike that of Egypt, India, and the East generally. But the foremost landscape painter of Australia, Mr. Louis Buvelot, has never sought distinction or appreciation beyond the limits of the colonies. There is a good reason for this. No one who has not seen the peculiar and almost mysterious effect of sunlight in the Australian forests could adequately appreciate the painting of some of the best Australian landscape pictures. The vertical foliage of the trees—casting shadows and yet admitting the light—the floating mists on the hills—the mellow browns and olive-greens of the bushes, and, above all, the clear brightness of the sky overhead, produce effects which must be seen to be understood. It is, therefore, quite certain that Australia must in future possess in art an altogether distinct school of painting from that of the old country. Australians buy landscape pictures from England as they buy Christmas cards, representing the snow on the ground. These are reminiscences of the old country which they have left behind them. But artistic feeling cannot be satisfied with a mere memory. Australian paintings are becoming more and more popular in the colonies, as people are learning to appreciate the beauty that is around them.

Nevertheless it must be admitted that in Australia the name of Art is frightfully abused. Lotteries, under the name of "Art Unions," are continually being set on foot, having scarcely the remotest connection with art of any sort. The people who buy the tickets would think it rather a misfortune to own a picture, and they usually tempt fortune with a view to the price which is guaranteed for the canvas in the event of its falling to their lot. In one case the house of an ex-Minister of the Crown was put up to be raffled for under the guise of an "Art Union." The few genuine affairs that are set on foot suffer greatly, owing to the abuses brought about by spurious concerns, and moneyed men, who have been victimized, very frequently refuse to look at a really good picture when it is offered to them. The man who once purchased the top row of pictures in an Exhibition under the impression that he was buying the very best in the market, is not a mere imaginary creation of the humorist's brain. Such a circumstance is related to have actually occurred at an Exhibition in Australia. The "skied" pictures in a London Gallery may sometimes be very bad; but those in an Australian Exhibition, where the choice is so very limited, are usually considerably worse.

In literature the case is nearly the same. The good is undoubtedly good, but the bad is very bad indeed; and so, for the matter of that, is the taste which gives rise to it. Indeed, some people who, from their pecuniary position, might easily become liberal patrons of art and literature, have not the smallest educational qualification. One of the leading Australian

booksellers once got an order from a rich squatter for "two tons of books." The purchaser was setting up a library in a large house which he was building, and so long as he made a "good show with the binding," as he described it, he did not care what was in the volumes. The highest culture and the widest range of reading are to be found, as has been said, among the middle classes of the people. But, independently of the Press, it is exceedingly difficult in a place like Australia, to raise up a really indigenous literature. The writer of prose suffers from having to produce works at a much greater cost and for a much more limited public than if he worked in England. Even the most remarkable work of fiction which the country has ever produced—the late Mr. Marcus Clarke's weird and powerful story of "His Natural Life"—had to be cleared off the bookstalls at "one-third the published price." That brilliant but eccentric writer—a nephew of Sir Andrew Clarke, the military engineer—made a name for himself, but very little money. There are perhaps several better writers of prose than he in Melbourne and Sydney—and talented men, too, in Brisbane and Adelaide—but they wisely apply their efforts to writing for the Press.

If the Australian prose writer speaks to but a limited audience, the Australian poet speaks almost to empty benches. What a hapless set they have been, these song-writers of Australia!—Kendal, suffering all his days from grinding poverty, and a constant struggle with a tendency to indulgence in stimulants; Lindsay Gordon, the stock-rider, who wrote those stirring verses, "How we beat the Favourite," recently alluded to in

a London paper as "the best racing song in the English language;" George Gordon Macrae, Brunton Stephens, and a number of others who might be mentioned. Much of their poetry has been of high quality; but all their publications have brought loss to them, and poverty. It seems strange that such should be the case. Australia offers a large market for the literature of England; but, as yet, England is no market at all for that of Australia. No doubt the day is coming when this will be altered; but until that is brought about, the art of the writer, unless he be a Pressman, must be at a discount.

The scientific record of Australia is unfortunately a short one, and the reason is, in this case, the same as in that of matters artistic. The field of labour is but small, and in very many cases the ardent scientist finds much more scope for his energies in England, America, or the Continent, than in Australia. When Professorships in the Universities have induced prominent men to make their permanent abode in the cities of the South, much useful and interesting work has sometimes been the result. In geology, Professor McCoy of Melbourne, the former coadjutor of the celebrated Professor Sedgwick, has done an immense amount of work in his double capacity as Lecturer and Curator of the Museum; while, in Sydney, Professor Liversidge has made most interesting discoveries in another branch of the same group of subjects; and Professor Ralph Tate of Adelaide is equally industrious. Foremost among the biologists of the South stands the name of the Rev. J. E. Tenison Woods, who has written not only about

Australian animals, but also on the subject of Australian exploration, in a manner that would be creditable to any author. In the same department, the discovery of the missing link between the birds and the reptiles, in the shape of the paradoxical "Echidna" and "Duck-bill Platypus," will form a chapter in the history of modern science almost entirely devoted to Australian workers. In the botany of Australia, the greatest authority is Sir Ferdinand von Müller of Melbourne, and Dr. Schomburgh of Adelaide has also rendered good service to science. The local character of the study in these instances has defined the scope of the investigations, which, of course, could be carried out in Australia and nowhere else. The same holds good, strange as it may seem, in regard to astronomy. In Australia, owing to the extreme dryness of the air at certain periods of the year, the heavenly bodies can be seen with fully as great distinctness as in any other part of the world, not even excepting Egypt or the rainless district of the Rocky Mountains. Recognizing this fact, the Government of Victoria procured for its Astronomer, Mr. R. L. J. Ellery, F.R.S., one of the best telescopes ever constructed—in some respects absolutely the most complete. With this instrument photographs of the moon have been taken which could not possibly be obtained in England—in fact the best lunar photographs yet produced. Photography of every description is indeed carried to a very high state of perfection under the clear skies of the Southern Hemisphere ; and one branch of it, namely, photolithography owes its origin in its present form to the discoveries

of Mr. Osborne, formerly of Melbourne, Victoria. But in this, as in other cases, the desire for a wider sphere of action led to the removal of the discoverer, who took up his residence in America. The same has happened more recently in regard to the invention of Mr. Louis Brennan—the "torpedo of the future." The new instrument of destruction had no reasonable prospect of employment in the peaceful waters of Port Phillip, where it was first tried; and its adoption by the British Admiralty brought about the transfer of the work to Chatham and Portsmouth. "No matter," say the Australians, "it is all for the good of the common country and people. So far as the people themselves are concerned, Australia is England and England is Australia."

CHAPTER XVIII.

Amusements—Theatrical Stars—Local Actors—Theatre-goers—Musicians—Precarious Applause—Australian Musicians—Classical Chamber Music.

IN the matter of amusements there are no more thorough-going people than the Australians, and none who are ready to spend more freely in support of what they enjoy and admire. A paragraph quoted in recent London papers, to the effect that a performance by Miss Genevieve Ward at the Melbourne Town Hall had realized £2,860, will convey some idea of the extent

to which the people of Victoria carry this peculiarity. The occasion in question was one on which the proceeds were to be for the benefit of a charity, and, no doubt, philanthropic considerations had something to do with the remarkable success. But in nearly all circumstances, when genuiue talent makes its appearance in the Australian cities, it is abundantly supported. The public in Australia, even more than in England, delight in "stars," and there are very few great English-speaking actors or singers of note who have not at one time or another paid a visit to the cities of the South, relying mainly upon their world-wide reputation to bring them good houses and good profits. Sometimes, indeed, this sort of confidence has been pushed rather too far. Not long ago it was the custom for star-actors and actresses to visit Australasia practically unsupported. Frequently the best of the local talent was too well occupied to accede to their terms, and the result was that the company brought together was as lop-sided as it was possible to be. It was as if Iago should be played by an actor of genius, and Othello by a supernumerary. The general effect, of course, was disappointing, and in spite of the forbearance with which the Australian public usually regard whatever is put before them by celebrities of European reputation, there is now a strong disposition to demand that in every particular all performances shall be as thoroughly staged and mounted as they would be in London. At the present day success is only to be assured by those who are ready to obtain first-class support, either from England or America, or from the colonies themselves.

Among local actors there are several who have made remarkable hits. Unlike people of talent in some other lines of life, they find abundant support where they are, and they never hanker after that enviable distinction entitled a European reputation. One of the oldest favourites among Victorian comedians is now a member of the Legislative Council, and distinguished by the title of "Honourable." As a rule, the really local talent in Victoria is directed towards the serious drama; while in New South Wales comedy seems to be the *forte*. Whether this is due to mere accident or to a difference in the disposition of the people it would be difficult to say. An Italian would look for very different acting from a Milanese and a Neapolitan. But, on the whole, the Australian people are much more disposed to patronize the gay and light-hearted than the serious and severe. The theatre-going public are not by any means so critical as in London, or Paris, or New York, because there are very few who, as is so frequently done in these cities, make a life's study of matters theatrical. The "first-nighter" is almost unknown in the colonies. Most people would as soon see the twentieth representation of a piece as the first one. No doubt the theatres are, as has been said, very well supported. But that is not so much on account of the constant attendance of a large body of theatre-goers as on the greater area over which the habit of occasionally going to the theatre is spread. Among a very large proportion of people in England the theatre is absolutely tabooed. In Australia there are, of course, also large numbers who never enter the doors of a

theatre; but the proportion to the total number of the people is not nearly so large as it is in the old country. When a really good thing is put on the boards people of all classes and of all persuasions flock to hear it. When a manager has nothing but trivialities to place before his patrons, even Mr. Crummles himself never had a harder pinch to make both ends meet. A Melbourne or a Sydney man seldom goes to the theatre on account of having nowhere else to go.

While the first-class actor is always sure of a good reception in Australia, the first-class musician has a rather more precarious time of it. There is a very strong body of the people who have a really cultured taste, and who are decidedly good judges of what music should be. But among the people who have most money to spend, music is too much a thing of fashion. If a performer can produce upon the public mind the impression that it is the "correct" thing to go and hear him, he may make hundreds per night. If he fails in that, he may play to empty seats. Ketten, the pianist, had the largest halls and opera-houses crowded from floor to ceiling, and a crush of disappointed people every night outside the doors. A short time afterwards a violinist, whose skill ranked him among the very best of living performers, announced a recital in a Queensland town, and drew an audience of six people! Even when artists of exactly equal reputation visit the colonies, they are apt to meet with anything but an equal share of public favour. The reason is usually plain to everybody but the persons chiefly concerned. Any celebrity who imagines that every being in the

civilized world has heard of him and his great reputation, is greatly mistaken. Musicians or actors who act upon this impression, and go in suddenly to take the Australian public by storm, as a rule find that by the time they are about to leave a town the people are only beginning to ask who they are. Those who have the prudence to send before them advance-agents to sound their praises for months before their arrival upon the scene, usually reap a golden harvest and increase their reputation.

An artist going from Australia to England or the Continent seldom makes much of the fact that an audience at the southern side of the world has approved of him. A prima donna brings her credentials from Italy rather than from Australia. Yet there are not a few of the first-class singers in various parts of the world hail from the Sunny South, more south than Italy or Greece. Among the music-loving public who are so curious to hear all about those who become their favourites, there have been few in the audiences of Miss Amy Sherwin who imagined that she was born and lived nearly all her life in that out-of-the-way place, Tasmania. In very many other cases talent of the highest description has been drawn away from the limited sphere of the colonies. Yet when the people of Australia are allowed time and opportunity to judge of the merits of a performer, they are as correct in taste as any average European audience; and there can be no doubt that this fact is gradually coming to be recognized. The opportunities for hearing classical music in the colonies are numerous, and the people avail them-

selves of them to a considerable extent. In each of the cities of Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaide, and Brisbane, one may regularly hear organ recitals, classical concerts, and chamber music, such as is heard at St. James's Hall. Melbourne can boast of having two monster organs, almost identical in size with that at the Albert Hall. One of the very few British professorships of music is that which was recently established at Adelaide. No one emigrating to Australia need imagine that he is leaving behind him the refinements of civilized life. The cities of the new world, like those of the old, offer every inducement to intellectual enjoyments. Archaic simplicity is only to be found in the distant country districts, "far from the haunts of men."

CHAPTER XIX.

English and Australian Politics—Manhood Suffrage: its Origin—The Eureka Rebellion—Australian Independence—The World's Vacant Allotments—The Federal Council—Tariffs.

"ARE you a Liberal or a Conservative?" was one of the first questions which I heard put by a new-comer in Melbourne to a relative of his who had long been a resident of the Southern colony. "A Liberal," was the reply,—"a staunch Protectionist!" The new arrival opened his eyes. This definition of a Liberal was as

new to him as anything he had heard or seen since he left the sound of Bow Bells. When his friend proceeded to give further particulars as to the details of his political creed he became still further mystified. The man, he found, was strongly in favour of opening the roads through runs and of mining on private property; considered that Black Wednesday was the brightest day in the political calendar of Victoria, and heartily approved of the "Young Australia" movement. There was not a word said as to the relative merits of Gladstone and Salisbury, and Lord Randolph Churchill was not even so much as mentioned. By-and-by he learnt that the politics of Australia are very different indeed from those of England. It is scarcely possible for one Englishman to live upon another Englishman's politics; he must have some of his own. Even for a new arrival it is difficult to keep up his interest in the political questions of the old country. For a while he regularly receives a budget of newspapers every week or every fortnight from his friends "at home;" gradually he begins to neglect to study these, and to take more interest in the questions which are being agitated around him; the din of the English political battle grows fainter and fainter, while that of the Australian contests becomes more engrossing; he falls behind the times in English politics, and ultimately takes but little interest in them.

Manhood suffrage is the basis of politics in the Australian colonies. With very slight reservations as to term of residence, &c., every man on attaining the age of twenty-one becomes an elector for the Legisla-

tive Assembly. Tasmania is the only colony of the group which has adhered to the principle of a property or household qualification; and Western Australia, a Crown colony, with its small population of some 30,000 souls, must, of course, in political matters, be regarded as quite distinct from the other portions of the continent. In all the great colonies it is recognized as an axiom that man and voter are synonymous terms. The process by which this came about forms rather a curious chapter in the history of representative government. In the old rough-and-ready gold-mining days—when the bulk of the male population of Victoria lived in tents or bark-slab huts—an adherence to the principle of a property or household qualification meant nothing less than the disfranchisement of the great majority of the best men in the country. Men who were worth thousands and tens of thousands were to be found living in tents which would be dear at a couple of pounds apiece. The gold-mining populace was always given to politics; and to the present day the miners of Victoria are the most active canvassers of matters political. After a long agitation, in which many fantastical ideas were suggested for the basis of an electoral qualification, it was decided that the adoption of manhood suffrage was the only plan by which the shifting populace of the gold-fields could be admitted to the franchise. In the earlier days the Government of the colony was practically irresponsible, and for a time the miners were treated with most unreasonable severity—sometimes even with brutality. Such acts as chaining up men to the trunks of trees for the

offence of not paying a license fee—which, perhaps, they could not possibly pay—were naturally resented by a high-spirited and intelligent body of men, as most of the miners were. Many acts of oppression gave rise to reprisals, which culminated in an organized rebellion, the erection of the "Eureka Stockade," and a regular stand-up fight with fire-arms, many on both sides being killed or wounded. It is a singular fact that Mr. Peter Lalor, the present Speaker of the Victorian House of Assembly, was one of the leading spirits of the movement. He lost an arm, barely escaping with his life, and a price was put upon his head. Almost equally strange is the career of Sir Charles Gavan Duffy, who, after having been one of the moving spirits in the Young Ireland agitation, emigrated to Victoria, and was for some months Prime Minister of that colony—a service for which he was knighted and received a pension.

Nothing could show more clearly how little the course of Australian politics is directed by that of affairs in England. Indeed some Australians are fond of recalling to mind the fact that the colonies are, in matters political, far more advanced than England herself. The colonial constitutions are, indeed, democracies pure and simple—more advanced than that of England, and more absolute than even that of the United States. There is by law really no power of veto upon the determined act of the elected representatives of the colonial people. The constitutions provide that all acts of the Legislature shall have effect for a year at least, and the veto of the Crown can only

operate after that period. By renewing an Act year after year, the colonial Legislature can override even the Royal prerogative. This power was exercised by more than one colony in the old convict days, when the colonists were determined to exclude ticket-of-leave men, and the British Government was equally determined that such men should be admitted. The colonies, of course, had their own way, and the Acts still stand upon the statute books. It would be difficult to say what would happen were the order of things reversed. Eminent politicians in Victoria have, at various times, talked fiercely of "cutting the painter," and letting the colonial boat go free of the old ship. One gentleman, now a most distinguished judge, is well known to have expressed, during his political career, opinions to the effect that England and the colonies would be better friends if the political connection between them were severed.

The practical effect of the present state of affairs is that the colonial Legislatures are absolute masters of their own homes; but beyond that they are nothing at all. Australians feel this to be the case, and while in domestic policy their sympathies are almost entirely of a local character, in foreign policy they regard themselves as truly British. Even the most Radical among them have a soft side towards Imperialism—or rather towards the ascendency of the higher races. That all territories belong only to those who are ready and willing to make good use of them, is with them an axiom —as indeed it is the only *raison d'être* of their presence in Australia. The blackfellow hunted opossum, and

built his *mia-mia* on the shores of Port Jackson and Port Phillip long before the queen cities of the South struggled into existence. The ultimate annexation of all sparsely-populated and savage lands cannot with colonials admit of a doubt; and as Englishmen have done so well in Australia, why should they be backward in New Guinea or the New Hebrides, where good work has already been done? Such questions as these have been recently very loudly discussed, and it is partly owing to this that the federation of the Australian colonies has been so actively advocated. The policy of connecting the two subjects, was, however, a mistake. Australia has never had any separate legislative power in foreign matters, and never can have any, so long as she remains part and parcel of the British Empire. But the federation of the Australian colonies, after the model of Canadian federation, is what the bulk of the people in Australia really desire. The Federal Council, which was recently established by the Imperial Parliament, is virtually little more than a periodical conference of Ministers, and with a large proportion of colonial politicians it has no excuse for its existence, excepting that it may perhaps ultimately become the means of bringing about a complete amalgamation of the various constitutions.

In the matter of federation, the real "rock ahead" lies in the differences of colonial tariffs. The power of the purse is the power which, politically, rules the world; and until the colonies can agree as to the manner in which their revenues are to be raised and expended, there will be no true federation. The tariff

of Victoria is a strictly protective one. Very few classes of articles entering the colony are exempt from duty, and, as a large proportion of the rates are fixed by weight or measurement, the duty on cheap goods is sometimes very high. Outside of the specific list, the great majority of articles are placed under a uniform duty of 25 per cent. on the value of the goods. On the other hand, New South Wales aims at having a very simple tariff, and Queensland follows her example; while South Australia, with free-trade leanings, steers a middle course. To the protectionist of Victoria the question of federation seems simple enough, if the other colonies of the group will only adopt the course taken by the Canadian colonies, and impose strongly protective duties all round. New South Wales resents such a suggestion, while the other colonies prefer to remain as they are, rather than embark upon a course to be determined solely by Victoria. The present generation of Victorians are strongly dominated by protectionist feeling. The reason for this peculiarity in the people of one colony seems to be that in the early stages of the protectionist movement they were so persistently thwarted by the Upper House, and people do not spontaneously give up what they have had to fight for in times gone by. Yet Victoria imports very largely from other countries—nearly as largely in proportion to the population as do the others of the group. All the colonies are undoubtedly fortunate in the matter of taxation, the rate of which per head varies from about £2 5*s.* in New South Wales and South Australia, to £3 10*s.* in Queensland, and £4 in Western Australia.

The two former colonies, having had so much land to dispose of, have hitherto been very lightly taxed indeed. But it is not likely that the average rate will rise above that which prevails in Victoria, namely, £2 12*s.* per head. This, no doubt, is several shillings higher than the rate per head of *Imperial* taxation in Great Britain. But it should be remembered that in Australia the central Government carries out a large number of undertakings, which in England are left to the local authorities. Tithes, poor-rates, and many other charges which in England fall very heavily upon many people, are unknown in Australia. The railway receipts, to a large extent, pay off the annual charge on the National Debt. Certainly, in the matter of taxation, few people have much to complain of at the antipodes.

CHAPTER XX.

Colonial Governors — Constitutional Monarchies — Governors' Salaries—Governors' Levées—Viceregal Balls—Expenses—Popular Governors.

COLONIAL Governors have occupied very different positions in various localities and at various times in the history of England's dependencies. It is now almost exactly 100 years since the first steps were taken for the formation of the penal settlement at Botany Bay—as the site of the future city of Sydney was then

called. The Governor of that settlement had almost absolute power over the convicts who were under him, and could, as actually happened, hang a lad of nineteen for stealing a small quantity of flour. Later on, the same arbitrary powers continued, and the free settlers who began to arrive in the colony were looked

Governor Latrobe's House, Melbourne, 1840.

upon as interlopers, and treated almost as harshly as the convicts themselves. Afterwards the Governor was partially controlled by a Council which he himself nominated ; then the elective principle was introduced for the appointment of a small proportion of the members, and finally the whole of the Legislature be-

came elective. But when, in 1855 and 1856, full rights of self-government were given to the colonies, and the double-chamber system with representative Government was adopted, the Governor accepted the position of viceroy to a strictly constitutional monarch. Since that time various inroads have been more or less successfully attempted on the privileges of Governors. To many colonists the position of a Governor now appears in scarcely any other light than that of a leader of society. Yet, when Ministerial crises occur, the duties of Her Majesty's Representative sometimes involve much trouble and anxiety. Notable instances of this occurred in New South Wales during Sir John Young's administration, which lasted from 1861 to 1867. The Ministry, in order to coerce the Upper House, advised the Governor to create a large number of new members, with the object of swamping out the Opposition; and Sir John, although it was not pointed out what other course was open to him, was taken to task by the Home Government. Again, when in Victoria, a year or two later, Sir Charles Darling assented to a series of acts designed to coerce the Upper House, the end of the matter was that he was recalled.

Still, on the whole, the life of an Australian Governor, if not altogether a sinecure, is by no means overburdened with work. Men of prudence and judgment are nearly always selected, and the salaries are decidedly good. The Governor of Victoria, besides having a large palace to live in, kept in order free of charge to himself, receives £10,000 per annum. The Governor of New South Wales, although by title the pre-eminent

viceroy, receives a lower salary, namely, £7,000 per annum. The distinction is a little awkward, owing to the difficulty of promoting a Governor to the two positions successively. Greater honour or less salary would

Government House, Melbourne.

be a trying alternative for a colonial administrator; but the Colonial Secretary is not in the habit of placing any one in such a dilemma. Recently it has

come to be recognized that the two posts at Melbourne and Sydney should be taken by noblemen who have not been required to work their way upwards on the Colonial Office List, but who have distinguished themselves either by diplomatic service or at home. In the list of other Governors one usually recognizes the names of gentlemen who, in colonial service, have lived in almost every part of the world. They receive smaller salaries than the others, although sometimes they are able to save a much larger proportion of them. In South Australia the Governor has £5,000 a year, and in Queensland the same, while in West Australia, a Crown colony with a much smaller population than either of these, he receives £3,000, of which £1,800 is drawn from England.

Governors' levées are always held on the Queen's birthday, and it is then that the representative of royalty usually performs his hardest day's work of the year. In the morning there is a review of the troops, and the best possible show is made, so that His Excellency may obtain a good impression as to the state of the defences. After one or two other ceremonies he receives his guests at Government House, shaking hands till his arm aches, or bowing till his back is almost bent with the exertion. From the earliest colonial days the occasion has always been regarded as quite a festive one, and men who scarcely ever don a dress-suit from one year's end to the other make a point of keeping one for the Governor's Levée. At one time, in the olden days, when affairs were in a very primitive condition, one of the colonial capitals is said

to have contained only one dress-coat among all the inhabitants, and each gentleman, after being received at the levée, passed the garment on to his successor. But at the present period things are done upon a very different scale, and Government House is the scene of many a brilliant assemblage. The annual ball is an affair which once witnessed is not readily forgotten. The Governor of Victoria can throw open one of the largest ball-rooms in the world, and his guests on these annual occasions are correspondingly numerous. Serious are the complaints if any family of note is overlooked in the distribution of the invitations. For months beforehand the milliners are kept in a constant state of overwork and worry. The ladies of fashion in Australia are open to the same reflection that was passed upon the Americans, that they "dearly love a lord;" and next to a lord—if he does not happen to be one—they place a Governor. The holder of the viceregal position is not expected to save much out of his salary. He must keep open house for guests with good credentials. He must entertain royally, and live like the lord of a manor. Sometimes he does not attend to these little points, and then his actions are closely scrutinized. If the daily expenses even of royalty are criticized in England, how shall those of viceroyalty escape in the colonies? Yet, among the colonials, talent and education will atone for many defects of housekeeping. If a Governor can give agood speech, and take an intelligent interest in all that goes on round him, he usually secures the support and goodwill of the colonial middle-class, and they, after all, are really the ruling order.

CHAPTER XXI.

State Railways—Their Advantages and Disadvantages—Australian Debts really Mortgages—The Stockbroker's Change of Views—Rapid Railway Construction—Telegraphs—State Exhibitions.

IN Australia the railways, with very trifling exceptions, belong to the State. All the railway officials are Government servants. Every matter of public complaint in regard to the management of the lines has some direct bearing upon politics, and produces some sensible effect upon the Ministry of the day. Private speculation in railway shares is practically unknown. The effects of this are very interesting indeed. On the one hand there is, undoubtedly, a great deal of "log-rolling," having for its object the construction of railways through land belonging to interested parties. But as a set-off against this, it should be noted that the public always have their remedy against any serious abuse of power and privilege. In each colony the Minister or the Commissioner of Railways is constantly receiving deputations, and as he is either a member of the Cabinet or directly responsible to one, he is very careful not to offend the constituents of some parliamentary representative whose vote is valuable. Throughout the whole of the continent each resident feels that he has an owner's

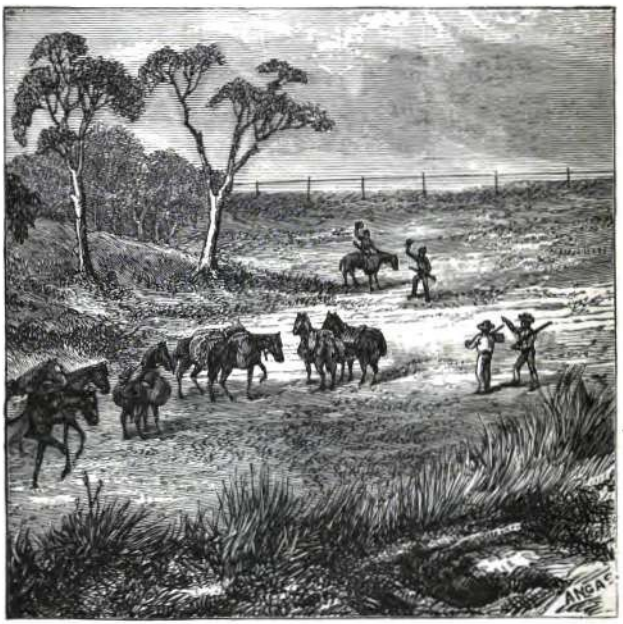
interest in the good management of the railways for the public benefit. Thus, on the whole, the advantages which accrue from the fact that the railways are public property greatly overbalance the disadvantages. There is scarcely a public man throughout the whole of Australia who would advocate a return to the railway-company system as prevailing in England. All feel that railways, like roads, are part of the soil, and that, like the land itself, they should be under the direct Government of the people's representatives.

When it is said that the railways are the property of the State in Australia, it should not, however, be forgotten that the property, though a valuable one, is very heavily mortgaged. The great bulk of what is called the "public debt" of Australia consists of loans raised with the specific object of building railways. If this fact were forgotten, the public indebtedness of the Australian people would appear to be something enormous. The total debt of all the colonies of Australia is constantly increasing, and now approaches a hundred millions sterling — one-seventh that of Great Britain, to only one-thirteenth of the population! New Zealand, with some half a million of people, has a debt of over thirty millions. Taking the Australasian colonies as a whole, their indebtedness per head of the population amounts to about £34. This, of course, seems appalling to one who neglects to reckon the assets, which are to be put against the indebtedness of the Governments. Periodically, when a new colonial loan is announced, the London financial speculator brings out into prominence this view of the

subject, with a view to buying at as low a price as possible. Then, when the utmost has been made out of the appalling indebtedness of the Australian people and the loan has been floated, he suddenly discovers that the colonies have scarcely any real debt at all. They can at any time pay twenty shillings in the pound, and are in a far better financial condition than England herself, or any other nation of the old world. This, of course, is the more correct view of the matter. The railways of Australia, if sold at the present moment, would undoubtedly bring in more than the total amount of all the debts. The railways of New South Wales yield a net return of about 4½ per cent on the total outlay incurred, and those of Victoria more than 3½ per cent. Those of the other colonies yield rather smaller percentages, but they are none the less productive on that account, because so large a proportion of the land through which the new lines run is still Government property, and the land revenue comes in to supplement that which is derived from the railways.

In proportion to the population, Australia is far ahead of any other country in the world in the matter of railway construction, with the exception perhaps of America. The total number of miles open for traffic being between 8,000 and 9,000 miles, there is no less than one mile of railway to every 375 people in Australasia. Melbourne and Sydney have for some years been connected by rail, a distance of over 550 miles; and the recent construction of the link between South Australia and Victoria enables the traveller to journey by rail all over

the south-eastern portion of the continent, and far into the interior in various directions. Of course, in long-distance rides, there is the usual difficulty as to gauges. Victorian lines are all on the standard 5 ft. 6 in.



The Overland Telegraph.

gauge ; those of New South Wales are on the narrower, 4 ft. 8½ in. South Australia has its southern railways mostly of the broader construction ; but in the North and in Queensland the narrow 3 ft. 6 in. is almost universal. The Transcontinental line, crossing

the country from south to north, will be made on this gauge for the sake of economy; but the completion of this line is still a thing of the somewhat distant future, the total distance being about 2,000 miles. The route is nearly the same as that of the Overland Telegraph line, which was finished in 1870–72, within eight or ten years of the date when the first white explorer crossed the continent. This achievement was one of which the people of South Australia were very proud indeed. Telegrams are now sent through from England in less than a couple of hours; and as the sun rises in Melbourne nine hours and thirty-eight minutes before it does in England, it is possible to send a telegram to England from Australia so that it shall get to its destination the day before it was sent.

As a matter of fact, the telegram which was sent to the Queen on the day of the opening of the Exhibition at Melbourne reached Her Majesty several hours earlier in the day than the time of its despatch. The same happened in regard to the opening of the Sydney Exhibition, a year earlier, in 1879. The rivalry of the two capitals to appear well in the eyes of the world was very significantly shown upon these occasions. With wonderful energy and alacrity the Sydney people built up a "Garden Palace," as it was called—a structure of Oriental magnificence, and got quite a year beforehand in their race with the citizens of Melbourne. The Victorians, however, although they waited until 1880, erected a specially substantial building, and opened an Exhibition which was stated to be in the matter of extent of space and appointments, almost a counter-

part of the Great Exhibition of 1851. Although very costly experiments, these Exhibitions have been productive of much benefit to the colonies in which they were held. The two great capitals were never more prosperous than in the few years succeeding the International shows; and it is a notable fact that the publicity which the Exhibitions gave to the prosperous condition of the two colonies has had a marked effect in raising the price of Victorian and New South Wales bonds. The British investor likes to know as much as possible about the people to whom he lends his money, and a few inquiries into the condition of Australia do not tend to shake his confidence. The bonds of the Australian Governments, backed up as they are by the immense assets of the colonies in railways and unalienated lands, are as sound investments as any others open to the purchaser.

CHAPTER XXII.

Church and State Separate—Position of the Church of England—A "Special Collection"—The Clergy—Ministerial Work in the Bush—A Gin-Case for a Pulpit—Privileges and Discussions—Presbyterians—Baptists—Congregationalists—Roman Catholics—Cathedrals—Religion and Education.

THERE is no State Church in Australia, and it is now over ten years since the bulk of the congregations on the continent ceased to receive anything out of the public treasury. By many colonists, the complete separation of Church and State was for long considered to be a sort of experiment. But it is now certain that the present state of affairs must continue to be permanent, for the simple reason that there is no church which can claim a numerical majority of the population. In a democratic community it would be impossible to form an established church out of a minority of the people. According to the census returns, however, the adherents of the Church of England are considerably more numerous than those of any other denomination. Roman Catholics come next; then Presbyterians, then Wesleyans, then Lutherans, then Congregationalists and Baptists, the other denominations forming only a small minority. But to whatever cause the fact may be due, whether to the removal of State support or to any other cause, it cannot be denied that, in the matter

of public worship, the Church of England is not nearly so strong as, from the census returns, one would be led to consider it. Let us take for an example the case of Victoria, the largest colony. By recent returns, it was stated that there were in that colony 311,291 Episcopalians, 203,480 Roman Catholics, 132,591 Presbyterians, 108,393 Wesleyans, but that the average attendance at places of worship stood as follows:—Roman Catholics, 78,835; Presbyterians, 73,480; Wesleyans, 66,000; Church of England, 52,052; and Congregationalists and Baptists, about 16,000 each.

There can be very little doubt that the removal of State aid has weakened the Church of England in Australia very considerably. It takes a long time to teach a man who has emigrated from England that the support of his Church depends entirely upon his voluntary exertions; and the leaders of the Church find that it is extremely difficult to sustain the interest of their congregations. It is said in one city that, on the occasion of a special service, when many of the highest in the land were assembled in the cathedral, five-sixths of the money put into the plate consisted of sixpences and threepenny pieces, and after paying the necessary expenses incidental to the service, the proceeds, which were for the building fund, amounted to fifteen shillings! In every direction the Church of England requires more support. No doubt, in Sydney, the appointment of such a Primate as Dr. Barry, the late Canon of Westminster, will help greatly to stimulate the Episcopalian cause in New South Wales; and the labours of Dr. Moorhouse, who has been recently translated to the See of Man-

chester, have already produced tangible results in the rapid construction of a cathedral worthy of the city of Melbourne. There are in Australia and New Zealand no less than twenty Dioceses of the Church of England, and seventeen of the Roman Catholic Church. A considerable proportion of the clergy are men from British Universities, but many have been educated in the Universities of Sydney or Melbourne, and some in colleges attached to the denomination to which they belong. In the outlying districts, the work of ministers of all sects is extremely difficult and trying. In the Australian "bush" a "house-to-house visitation" sometimes involves a ride of 50 or 100 miles between the two nearest places of residence. Even at the end of the long journey, it is seldom that suitable places for religious services present themselves. The minister has to conduct worship in the billiard-room at a public-house, using the billiard-table surmounted by a gin-case as a pulpit; or he has to go into a woolshed and run the risk of getting his clothes covered with grease. Most of the country ministers are expert riders. They would, indeed, require to be so, as there are few of them who have not often come within an ace of breaking every bone in their bodies.

As a rule, the ministers of the various denominations work together harmoniously in Australia. In many cases the same building is, by agreement, used for the accommodation of two altogether different congregations; joint funds are started, and Sunday School Unions prevail. But this has not always been the case in the history of Australia. The removal of Government aid to religion

was the cause of much bitter and prolonged recrimination. The special recognition of any one denomination, on any occasion, would give rise to a great deal of wordy warfare. Even to the present day there is, in several of the colonies, a periodical outburst of newspaper correspondence, prompted by the fact that some Bishop has been allowed to assume special privileges at the Governor's annual levée, or that some one has alluded to him by the title of "His Lordship." In New South Wales and Queensland there is a larger proportion of Roman Catholics than in the other colonies, and the consequence is that, at election times, the question of religion is much more ready to obtrude itself into the domain of politics than elsewhere in Australia. In Victoria, Presbyterians and Wesleyans are in considerable strength, and the preponderance of the Protestant elements in favour of complete Disestablishment has led to the adoption there of a very advanced and rather Radical programme of State education. Still the difference between the various colonies in the matter of religious denominations is very slight indeed. The census returns always show the adherents of the Church of England to be in the majority; while the religious statistics nearly always show that one of the other Protestant bodies has the greater number of churches.

Among these, the Presbyterian Church is probably the most wealthy and influential, more especially in the colony of Victoria. A very large proportion of the well-to-do squatters and graziers of the continent are either emigrants from Scotland or of Scotch extraction, and

both in Sydney and Melbourne there are congregations of Presbyterians who are well able to provide the sinews of war for any new movement that may be started. It so happens, that in Victoria, the congregation of the Scots Church, Melbourne, holding a church which is undoubtedly one of the most beautiful pieces of architecture in the Southern Hemisphere, have had serious difficulties with the Assembly, owing to their strong sympathy with a minister, the Rev. Charles Strong, accused of heterodoxy, and the fear of a schism has no doubt weakened the Presbyterian Church very considerably. But the ministers are well paid and ably supported; and, although not always successful, the Church aims at securing a high standard of education among the ranks of its teachers. In regard to the widespread nature of its influence, of course the Wesleyan Church has an immense advantage in its peculiar itinerant organization. When only two or three adherents can be gathered together, and an old bark hut can be secured for a meeting-place, the services of a visiting minister or a local preacher are nearly always available. The same is the case, to a more limited extent, with the Baptists and Congregationalists. In many small townships, one finds a Wesleyan chapel, and one of some other denomination, when, perhaps, the nearest building of the Church of England is many miles away.

Rather less than one-fourth of the people in Australia are Roman Catholics. The organization of their Church is very perfect indeed; and as for their buildings, it may almost always be said of them, that they are built, not for

years, but for centuries. St. Mary's Cathedral in Sydney, and St. Patrick's in Melbourne, will probably be the finest buildings which in future Australia will be able to show. The Church of England Cathedral in Sydney, St. Andrew's, is also a noble structure. The Roman Catholics in Sydney greatly lost ground in the race through the terrible fire by which, nearly twenty years ago, the structure involving the labour of many years was destroyed. But St. Patrick's at Melbourne is not only in size and architecture, but also in position, *the* cathedral of the city. Westminster Abbey set upon a commanding hill would give an idea of the building in its present state; and in a few years, when the high spire is added, there will be few buildings in the British Empire grander than St. Patrick's. But the Roman Catholic clergy have many difficulties to contend with in Australia. Believing that the education of the young is a matter of religion, they have never ceased to protest against the system of bringing together children of all denominations and giving them only secular instruction in the day schools. Many people point to the Sunday-school system as the true remedy for the evils resulting from purely secular education, and in Australia the Roman Catholic Church has organized its Catechism schools in a very superior manner. Indeed, throughout all the sects, the Sunday schools are remarkably well attended—so well, indeed, that in several of the colonies the returns show that there are more Sunday scholars than day scholars. But the demand is for Roman Catholic day schools, and for a separate grant for the denomination to counterbalance

the taxation imposed upon the Catholics along with other people in support of the State schools. Whether they will be successful is still a question for the future to determine. But the Roman Catholic hierarchy have given it to be distinctly understood that nothing less than a separate grant will be a satisfactory solution of the difficulty.

CHAPTER XXIII.

British Journalistic Pre-eminence—Colonial Advancement—No Halfpenny Papers—Big Weekly Budgets—Provincial and District Papers—A Serious Mishap—Telegrams from England nine Hours ahead of London.

TO understand how truly British the Australian colonies are, the visitor has only to look at a few specimens of the colonial press. The British public can fairly claim that the newspapers in common circulation among them are far ahead of any others which the world produces. Even America, so well advanced in regard to serial literature, has nothing fit to compare with the ordinary specimens of daily journalism as represented in London and the other large cities of Great Britain. In France, Germany, Italy, and elsewhere, the general get-up of the average newspaper is simply beneath contempt, and apparently it must remain a peculiarly British privilege to be able to read a neatly printed and well-

arranged newspaper. In Australia the same advantage is enjoyed, and the great majority of the newspapers are undoubtedly a credit to the people. In general appearance the leading journals, such as the *Sydney Morning Herald*, *Melbourne Argus*, *Melbourne Age*, *South Australian Register*, and *Brisbane Courier* are on a level with the best English newspapers, and some of the others are so well got up that it would be invidious to draw any hard-and-fast distinction between them and those that have been mentioned. Newspaper rivalry runs as hard a race at the antipodes as it does in London. Sydney has its *Morning Herald* and *Daily Telegraph*, and two evening papers, the *Evening News* and the *Echo*, the *Herald* being an old-established journal, the price of which is twopence. Corresponding to this, in the other colonies are the *Argus* in Melbourne, the *South Australian Register* in Adelaide, the *Courier* in Brisbane, Queensland, and the *Mercury* in Hobart, Tasmania. Melbourne has also its *Age* and *Daily Telegraph* as morning penny papers, and *Herald* a penny evening. Adelaide has its *Advertiser* and two evening papers, the *Journal* and *Express*, while Brisbane has the *Observer* and the *Telegraph*.

The halfpenny paper is unrepresented in Australia. The experiment of starting one was tried in Melbourne but failed, owing, certainly not to the lack of ability on the part of the persons connected with it, but simply to a deficiency in the currency. There were not enough of halfpence in circulation to make it worth while to run such a journal. One never sees such an article as a farthing in any of the Australian

colonies, and halfpence, although not rare, are by no means so numerous as they are in England. The consequence is that low-priced objects of commerce are never sold singly at such a price as three farthings, and seldom at a halfpenny. But although there are none of the cheapest class of newspapers in Australia, yet there is one variety of journal which is quite *sui generis*. The lonely bushman away in the wilds of Australia, or the farmer whose homestead is miles away from the nearest road, cannot indulge in the luxury of a daily newspaper, and he accordingly takes out his news weekly in as big a dose as possible. This demand, it should be understood, is not for a mere weekly newspaper of the "penny dreadful" stamp, but for a high-class journal with plenty of information on the latest literature, science, sporting, chess, and so forth; in fact, a weekly miscellany combined with a newspaper. The weeklies are issued from the offices of the dailies, and as the same reporting staff can do much of the work for both, it is profitable to issue very large weekly budgets of the kind alluded to. Anywhere else in the world it would be impossible to find so cheap a sixpenceworth of press literature as the Melbourne *Leader* or *Australasian*, the *Sydney Mail* or *Town and Country Journal*, or the *Queenslander* or Adelaide *Observer*.

Outside of the leading cities there are several very creditable provincial newspapers, the rule being that in Australia, owing to the prosperity of the bulk of the people, a town of 4,000 or 5,000 inhabitants can support a daily newspaper and several weeklies besides; and places with 20,000 or 30,000 people run sometimes

two daily newspapers in very good style. Then there are representatives of the county newspapers—the local organs of every district in the colonies; and, lastly, there are the papers of the pastoral regions, some of them printed in far-off towns, reached only by coach at intervals of days. In these outlying districts the labour and trouble of starting a newspaper are something considerable. For example, two young compositors went to start a newspaper at Wilcannia on the Darling River. They bought a second-hand Columbia hand-press of the old-fashioned heavy kind, and a lot of second-hand type. They hired a bullock dray and waggoner with team and started off. The journey was 300 miles from the nearest railway station, and it took several weeks to get to the opposite bank of the river to that on which the township stood. There was a movable punt on the stream, which was chiefly used for conveying flocks of sheep from one side to the other, but the adventurous printers essayed to take their dray and team across on this rather shaky vessel, and the natural result ensued, for bullocks and dray, and printing-press and type went clear over the side into the river. This is only one specimen of the difficulties which the pioneers of the Press have to encounter in a new country. A newspaper came out one week with several of its columns blank, and an announcement to the following effect: "Notice.—As our compositor is at present lost in the bush it is impossible for us to fill up these columns, but we hope to find him next week, and will then be able to give several articles which we are this week reluctantly compelled to hold over."

That, of course, is journalism as it exists only in the comparatively small beginnings of the towns. The existing newspapers of the cities are remarkably enterprising journals. And the amounts spent daily in telegrams are very large indeed. European news has hitherto been conveyed at the rate of 6s. 5d. per word from London; and although a reduction has recently been under discussion, the charges must always remain very high as compared with those obtaining in the older countries of the world. Yet every morning one receives with his cup of coffee a newspaper having a very complete *résumé* of the previous day's news of the world —the salient points of discussions in Parliament, remarkable casualties or offences, monetary and commercial intelligence, and so forth. A telegram sent from London at three in the afternoon will usually reach the Australian cities between two and three in the morning of the next day, and it is published and selling in the streets a couple of hours later, or just about the actual time when the special editions of the evening papers are selling in London. In actual time the Australian morning papers publish the result of the Derby race usually about eight hours before the *Times*. Truly the pulse of the world is fast-throbbing in these days of electricity!

CHAPTER XXIV.

Law, Justice, and Common Sense—Swearing on a Book of Poems—Local Justices of the Peace—Crime and Drink—Gangs of Bushrangers—Convicts of the Old Days—Courts, Civil and Criminal—Real Property Acts—Legislative Experiments.

THE pristine simplicity of the early days in Australia has had a good effect in simplifying to some extent the complications which in England are apt to render the administration of the law more tedious than is necessary. Thirty-five years ago there were few lawyers in the country whose legal knowledge was sufficient to enable them to work up cases in any but the most ordinary matter-of-fact manner. Even at the present day, in the outlying townships, while every care is taken that substantial justice is done, a free-and-easy style prevails which would seem very strange in England. In some townships of Queensland, for instance, where the weather is sometimes very hot, it is by no means unusual for the magistrate and the gentlemen learned in the law to divest themselves of coat and waistcoat, and go through their cases without being encumbered by these unnecessary habiliments. In many places the sergeant of police is the only legal luminary of the whole community, and his knowledge being rather of the practical than of the theoretical description, it often happens that justice is done with a

promptitude which would shock an English lawyer's sense of decorum. The "Great Unpaid" flourish in large numbers, and their determination to act upon principles of common sense usually secures to them the respect of the public. In times gone by, many irregularities were committed which would scarcely be tolerated at the present day. It is said in one district that, at the first opening of the Police Court at the township, after the whole court had been assembled, there was not such a thing to be found as a Bible. The neighbouring houses could not furnish one—there were only a couple of buildings in the whole place. But the sergeant in charge at last came upon a volume of Byron's Poems, and on the strength of its being exceptionally well bound he passed it off as a Bible, and no one was for a long time a whit the wiser. In the country districts it is remarkable how many of the Justices of the Peace are quite self-made men. Few men with prudence and industry have lived steadily in one district for twenty or thirty years without acquiring a somewhat substantial position, and the honour of being raised to the magisterial bench is looked forward to by many men whose educational chances have not been great. The consequence, of course, is that blunders are often committed. One Justice of the Peace recently accepted from a jury investigating the cause of a fire, a verdict to the effect that "it was the act of an incendiary, but whether wilfully or accidentally there is no evidence to prove."

It may seem strange, considering that Australia was once the country to which the convict offscourings of

the United Kingdom were transported, to say that the criminal classes are only slightly represented in Australia. In most of the colonies the professional burglar, or forger, or coiner is a very great rarity. The majority of crimes are committed either while the perpetrators are under the influence of drink, or as a remote consequence of indulgence in liquor. Native born Australians are much more temperate in the matter of drinks than those who have emigrated from older countries. But in a hot climate like that of Australia intoxication produces a more maddening effect on some constitutions than it does in England. The consequence is that a very large proportion of the police court cases are directly connected with the liquor question. Habitual criminals are not at all numerous. Large cities such as Melbourne and Sydney have, of course, their gangs of roughs and rowdies who constantly recruit the ranks of professional evil-doers. But few indeed devote their whole lives to crime. In several country districts, however, there are small settlements forming relics of the old convict days—little congregations of people more or less directly descended from "old lags," as they once were called—that is, transported felons. It was in such a village the famous Kelly Gang of four outlaws took their origin, and graduated first in cattle-lifting, then in horse-stealing, and finally in murder and wholesale robbery under arms. Not many years ago Tasmania was infested with most formidable gangs of this sort—absolute fiends, who meeting a lonely man on a country road would shoot him for the mere pleasure of seeing him

fall. Fearful stories are told of the exploits of Captain Brady, the cannibal outlaw, and to the present day one of the high mountains of the desert country is called Brady's Look-out. But the statistics of crime for Tasmania now show that the people of that island are pre-eminently law-abiding—that in fact there is less crime there than in almost any other country on the face of the earth.

Some will find in this an argument for the continuance of the practice of transportation. But the facts tell quite the other way. Convicts never did any good to Tasmania, and Tasmania never did much good to the convicts. It is now over thirty years since transportation to that island was stopped, and over forty years since the last convicts to New South Wales were admitted. The total number sent out to the antipodes since 1787 was about 120,000, and of these probably one-half found their way back again to the country from which they had started. Of the really criminal felons among the remainder, the majority certainly became chargeable to the colonists, and for a time after transportation ceased, the gaol establishments of the colonies were very expensive. Occasionally convicts continued to be sent to the isolated settlement at Western Australia up till the year 1868. But the other colonies adopted rigid precautions for barring out any stray ticket-of-leave men that might chance to go eastwards. On the whole, there is very great probability that the disappearance of the extraneous criminal element from Australia has been due rather to extirpation than to education. The few thousands of criminals or their

descendants that remained in the colonies when transportation ceased would form at the present day an only fractional proportion of a population of nearly three millions. At the present time a man might live for years in Australia and never meet with any one who had been a transported convict—or even hear of one.

The criminal laws of the Australian colonies are, in almost the minutest details, modelled upon those of England, and the system by which it is administered is as far as possible identical with that prevailing in the old country. In each colony there are from two to seven Judges, presided over by the Chief Justice. These Judges have both civil and criminal jurisdictions, and collectively they form the Supreme Court, taking cases by turns, and sitting together occasionally as a Court of Appeal. Then there are the Local or County Courts, presided over by paid magistrates, and the Police Courts, in which magistrates and Justices of the Peace both find places. Great efforts have been made to simplify the law and to lessen the expense of justice. But in every country "law is law," and in Australia, as elsewhere, the most flagrant cases of poor men being driven from the court by the vexatious litigation which money can enforce are constantly cropping up. In one respect, however, the laws of the colonies are far ahead of those administered in the mother country, and that is in regard to the great reform of the Real Property Act. The name of the late Sir Robert R. Torrens, who, from a few hints received from the Hanse Towns of Germany, worked up the whole system and applied it first to South Australia, will always be

held in respectful remembrance by the colonists. Throughout the Australian colonies, when a piece of land is under the "R. P. A.," or Real Property Act, as most of the land is, the cost of a transfer need not in any case exceed thirty shillings, no matter how large the property may be. There is only one certificate of title, and the entry of this certificate in the register of titles is sufficient evidence of its existence. The transfer of landed property from one hand to another is almost as simple as the transfer of merchantable goods. One rather unforeseen result of this has been to render speculation in land far more common in Australia than it is in England. But, at the same time, it has also encouraged the acquisition of small pieces of land by persons of limited means, and so conduced to the settlement of the people on the soil. One other innovation which Australia has made may be mentioned, and that is the legalization of marriage with a deceased wife's sister. Such marriages are now by no means uncommon, and the opinion is almost if not quite universal, that good, rather than harm, has resulted from the adoption of the new law. It is one of the advantages which England secures by having colonial dependencies that the smaller communities may sometimes be inclined to try social experiments which are at first impracticable on a larger scale. In this respect the majoriy of Englishmen do not value the colonies at their true worth; nor do they pay sufficient attention to the results of experiments carried out by their fellow-subjects in other parts of the globe.

CHAPTER XXV.

The Native Blacks—Primitive Building—The Boomerang—Climbing High Trees—Hunting—Tracking—The Gradual Extinction of the Race—Chinese Voted a Nuisance—The Poll Taxes.

THE aborigines or blacks of Australia are not at all numerous at the present day. Even when most abundant they were mere handfuls of people scattered at long intervals over the face of an enormous continent. At the approach of civilized man the wild tribes naturally retreat to the solitudes of the interior, and it is difficult to make any estimate as to their actual numbers. Probably, however, they form to the whites a proportion of not more than one in forty or fifty of the population, and they are undoubtedly a race now fast hastening to extinction. They have no idea of building houses for themselves, but live merely in half-built huts—"mia-mias," as they are called, or "whurlies"—consisting of small screens of brushwood set up with an inclination in the opposite direction to that of the prevailing wind. Underneath the half-shelter thus composed the native blacks will live for weeks or months, until they have exhausted the hunting to be found in the neighbouring woods or streams. Then they move further afield. They have no idea of settled abodes, or of agriculture. But they are remarkably expert hunters, and in their own rude way they reduce

the chase to a science. Such an instrument as the boomerang, which they use as a means of killing ducks and swans on the rivers and lagoons, should of itself mark the people as intelligent and sharp-witted in the pursuit of hunting. This crescent-shaped missile

A Queensland Native.

possesses the remarkable power of catching the air in such a way as to return almost to its owner's feet after hitting the object aimed at. In this mode the native black, when killing wild duck, saves his weapons from being lost on the surface of the waters.

To see an Australian native climbing a tall tree gives one a vivid idea of the power which training imparts to a man's muscles. He cuts a small notch on the trunk as high as he can reach with his rude flint hatchet, and slips into it a looped cord, passed round the trunk of the tree. Then drawing himself up with his hands by this cord, he places the great toe of one foot in the notch which he has made, hitches up the looped cord, so as to support himself in a further ascent; cuts another notch, and proceeds in this way till the top is reached. When Tasman and his sailors landed at Tasmania, and saw climbing-marks cut in the trees at six and seven feet intervals, they believed the island to be inhabited by giants. Sometimes the simpler method of passing the cord round both the trunk and the body is adopted, the knees being used as the means of jerking the climber upwards. In pursuit of an opossum or other animal the native black will exert wonderful patience and endurance in climbing a tree. Of course the blacks never attempt to climb the monster trees of the high forests. They do not frequent the rugged mountains, but make their camps down in the valleys where water may always, or nearly always, be found. Wild ducks and fish form a large proportion of their food, and they have many ingenious artifices for ensnaring their prey. Ducks are caught sometimes by men who patiently drift out to the middle of a stream or lagoon, having their heads covered by water-lilies. A sudden grab with the hand secures the prize at length, but not before much suffering has been undergone by the hunter. Emus, those large, ostrich-like

birds which roam over the vast interior plains, are caught by a similar device. The man covers his back with an emu-skin, sets up one arm and one hand in the air to represent the neck and head of an emu, and so gets within easy grasping distance of the unsuspecting birds. Among the forests and the "bush" the native hunter tracks the kangaroo, or its smaller relative the wallaby, with wonderful sagacity. His skill in this art seems almost superhuman, and in tracking human beings he is equally expert. Bushranger robbers have often been followed for hundreds of miles by black trackers, and brought to justice in the end.

To the white settlers in the outlying districts of Australia the blacks sometimes prove to be very useful and faithful servants. But they must always be kept at their distance, as familiarity with them breeds contempt. The cattle drovers of Queensland sometimes come to grief through placing too much reliance on native servants, but still more frequently through their own misconduct in ill-treating the aborigines. In the more settled parts of Australia a man might live for years without ever seeing a black. In Victoria, for instance, there are only about a hundred pure blacks, and a few half-castes remaining out of a black population which, fifty years ago, numbered from 6,000 to 10,000. In Tasmania there is now not a single black native remaining, the last having died four or five years ago. In the other colonies the blacks are only protected from extermination by close vigilance on the part of the authorities. If a black can get liquor, he will in almost every instance kill himself with it; and the colonial

laws make it a misdemeanour to sell alcoholic drink to a native. Nevertheless, the hapless creatures very frequently get drunk somehow or other, and their end

The Last Tasmanian Woman.

comes very rapidly. The diseases of the white man spread with fearful rapidity among the natives, and the birth-rate among them is almost nothing. Large tribes still exist in the interior, in the neighbourhood of

Cooper's Creek, where Burke and Wills the explorers died; and on the Herbert River in Queensland and the rivers which run north-west through Western Australia. But even among these numerous diseases are making sad havoc, and it is very plain that the race is fast hastening to extinction. Each colony appoints special officers, whose duty it is to watch over the interests of the natives. Asylums are built to which they can retire when the cold weather sets in. But they usually prefer to spend six or eight months of the year in the open air, hunting and fishing. Most of them who take to living indoors die of consumption from catching colds. The race, in fact, is physically incapable of civilization, and in this respect utterly unlike the Maoris of New Zealand, who still number no less than 44,000 persons. But they too, though to a large extent civilized, are rapidly succumbing to consumption and other diseases, to say nothing of drink—the most potent enemy of all. Native races in the Southern Hemisphere will, before many years are over, be quite a thing of the past.

A very different race, which is now rather strongly represented in Australia, is the Chinese. Opinions as to their usefulness differ very widely. They certainly are very careful market gardeners, and labour most assiduously at picking out grains of gold from places where Europeans would never think of finding them. A considerable number find employment as hawkers of vegetables and fancy goods, and the servant-girls, and sometimes mistresses too, very soon learn to talk to them in the "pigeon English," which they understand better than straightforward Anglo-Saxon. But, besides these occu-

pations, the Chinese have begun to seriously interfere with several of the ordinary trades of artisans, especially that of cabinet-making, and as Chinamen never bring their wives or families from China, they are able to live like rats, and thus undersell the European workmen who try to compete with them. The colonial artisan, who has to keep a wife and family, could not tolerate this, and laws were passed imposing heavy poll-taxes on all Chinese immigrants. Each of the leading colonies now enforces legislation of this sort; and although occasionally a Chinaman is smuggled into Australia, the supply is now almost completely cut off.

CHAPTER XXVI.

Work and Wages—People who are Wanted—Domestic Servants—Agricultural Labourers—Wages of Artisans—City Trades—Rents and Expenses—Savings' Bank Returns—Building Societies—Expenses of Living—Prices—Fuel—Fish.

So far as work and wages are concerned, Australia is without doubt a grand place—for some people, while for others it is exactly the reverse. Every one who has any idea of emigrating should think seriously over the question as to whether it is likely that he will be wanted in the new land. Many a man belonging to a trade which is only possible in England, France, and perhaps

the United States of America, has gone out to Australia and been greatly surprised to find that he must either suddenly change his vocation or starve. As a rule it may be said, in the first place, that any one who can go upon the land and farm it, is welcome in Australia. He need not have much money, though a little is a very great help. He need not have a very profound knowledge of scientific agriculture, for the conditions of farming where land is very abundant, and rain by no means excessive, are very different from what they are in a country like England. In Australia, one frequently finds a man and his one or two sons farming 360 acres with scarcely any assistance whatever. Wheat-growing has not been so profitable recently as it once was, and it is as well that every farmer should give some attention to the keeping of sheep or cattle, or the culture of fruit. Besides agriculturists, another class of people are specially welcome in Australia, and these are domestic servants. There are very few girls of ordinary industry who cannot easily earn ten shillings per week besides their board, and the position of a domestic in Australia is much more independent than in England. Moreover, a girl's chances of getting married in a place where so many young men have gone to make their way in the world, are very much greater than in the older countries. Each of the colonies, excepting Victoria, still pursues a policy of giving either free or assisted passages to certain classes of people, and the kinds most favoured in this respect are agricultural workers and domestic servants.

In every other calling of life the advantages of the

Australian colonies depend very much upon whether the times may happen to be good or bad. But it seldom occurs that business is dull in all the colonies at the same time. The building trades are, perhaps, more than any others affected in this way; but the normal wage in all these trades, as recognized by trades unions and societies, is 10s. per day. Frequently good or specially skilled workmen can claim 12s. per day, and in brisk times, when the demand is much greater than the supply, wages have gone considerably above that figure. Many other trades, such as the cabinet-makers, coachbuilders, &c., recognize the same standard of wages, namely 10s. per day, although there are some cabinet-makers who are glad to take 7s. daily. Among the iron-working trades, of course, wages vary much according to the skill required, and while some may take 8s. per day, others are readily employed at 12s. The disproportion between skilled and unskilled labour is sometimes not so great as it is in England. A labourer can generally command 6s. per day, and in some of the colonies can get regular work at 7s.

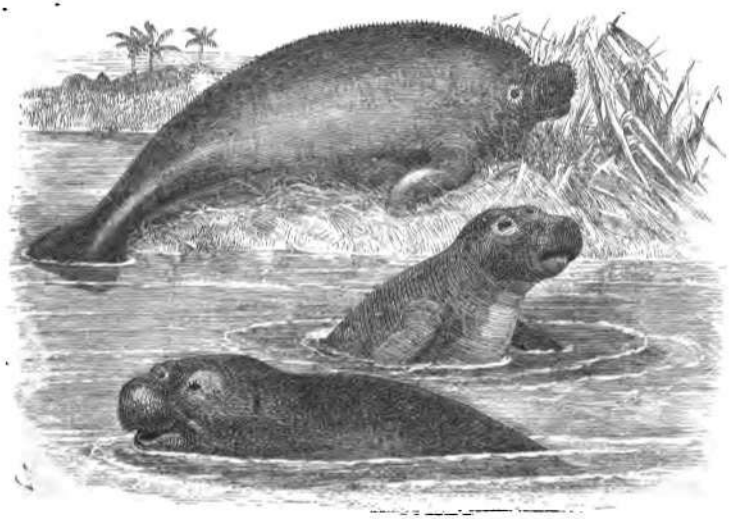
These rates are, of course, without rations. When board and residence are added, as they usually are on sheep-stations "up-country," the rate of wages is from 15s. to £1 per week, and shepherds, whose work is decidedly lonely and wearisome, have about the same rates of pay. Work on a station is divided into as many grades as in the army. Shepherds and shearers occupy about the lowest grade. The shearer is usually a roving character, who takes work wherever he can get it for a short time. He is paid by piece rates, and his duty on a station only lasts

for a short time. Stockmen with a knowledge of sheep and cattle receive from £50 to £75 per year; careful teamsters can command double that money, and drovers who are entrusted with the driving of flocks or herds across immense tracts of country are paid what might be called fancy wages. Then assistant-managers and managers are sometimes in the receipt of very good salaries. In the mining districts the standard rates are £2 per week for surface work and £2 5s. for underground. This is almost exactly the same wage that pick-and-shovel men can command in any part of Australia. Railway contractors frequently are unable to get men at 7s. and 8s. per day. In the boot and clothing trades a great deal, of course, is done by piece work, but in some cases weekly wages are given. A tailor will receive 8d., 10d., or 1s. per hour, according to the degree of his skill or the quality of the work. Drapers' assistants and shopmen of other kinds do not usually live on the premises of their employers. Their wages vary from £2 to £5 per week. Tailoresses get 12s. to begin with, up to 35s. per week. The printing trades are usually well supplied. Men can generally earn 8s. per day, but the supply of labour needs to be constantly regulated. Bakers and butchers get from 40s. to 50s. per week, or ten shillings less with rations.

On the whole, wages are considerably higher in Australia than they are in England, and not only actually so, but also in proportion to the amount of work done. The hours of labour in all the regular skilled trades are strictly limited by law to eight hours per day, and anything beyond this is paid for as "over-

time." But, on the other hand, rent is dearer. As the workman who builds a house gets more for his work, so the owner who lets it requires more return for his outlay. Few capable artisans in an Australian town would care to live in any house that could be got for less than 10s. or 12s. per week. Of course, two or three rooms may sometimes be got for 6s. or 7s. But the accommodation at that price is usually very bad. In other respects the cost of living in the colonies is very similar to that which prevails in England. . Meat is decidedly cheaper, beef being from 4d. to 8d. per pound, and mutton 3d. to 5d. Dairy produce rises and falls in price according to the season, for the summer is sometimes very dry and grass by no means plentiful. Thus butter is sometimes less than 1s. per pound, and sometimes it rises above 2s. The same is the case in regard to vegetables. Cabbages may be a halfpenny each, or they may be 2d. or 3d. each; potatoes, dried onions, and similar articles of food are steady in price, good potatoes being from 3s. 6d. to 5s. per cwt. The cost of providing a family with food is usually highest in the summer time; but a very large saving is effected in the item of fuel. Fires for heating are never required in the house for seven or eight months running, as they are in England, and seldom for more than half of that length of time. Even in the winter months the weather is frequently so mild that the fire is barely kept going. Wood is commonly used instead of coal, and it can be bought in lengths, even in the large cities, as low as 10s. per ton, or less. Coal is generally dearer than in England, and varies in proportion to the distance from

the field of supply, which is at or near the Australian Newcastle, to the north of Sydney. In the country districts firewood is almost exclusively used, and the majority of the people get it for nothing, or for the cost of chopping it up in lengths. Best bread is usually sold at 3½d. for the two-pound loaf.



The Dugong.

Fish is decidedly plentiful, but not at all so cheap as it should be. There is no fish which can be got so cheap as the herring in England. But some of the varieties, which are commonly sold at from 9d. to 1s. per dozen, make very good eating indeed, with good flavour and no bad qualities. Large fish are quite abundant, but the species vary in different localities; Murray cod, schnapper,

barracouta, and so forth, are caught in the south, while, in Queensland, that strange animal the "dugong" is plentiful. Fruit is nearly always cheap and good. On the whole, articles of food of good quality are no dearer than they are in England. There is undoubtedly some difference in regard to the cost of clothing. But the excess of price can never greatly exceed the charges incurred in importing articles from England; and when goods are taken from London to Australia at 30s. or 40s. per ton, it is evident that the item of cost of carriage cannot be a very serious one. In the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, tweed is manufactured and made up into suits at prices which compete with those of English articles. Similar local enterprise is extended to the manufacture of boots and shoes, hats, and various other articles of clothing; and though there is a protective tariff in Victoria, the same industries flourish in New South Wales, where free trade prevails; and still prices are never at all excessive.

In reviewing the cost of living, it is almost impossible to find any source of expense which is in Australia seriously greater than in England, with the single exception already referred to—namely, that of house-rent. For the bulk of the people food, as a whole, is decidedly cheaper than in England, and some kinds of food, such as fruits which are usually beyond the reach of the working classes, are, on account of their cheapness, articles of common consumption. But so high are the ordinary charges for houses that working men, who are at all steady, usually join some building society, and make an effort to buy their own houses. Immense numbers of

artisans' dwellings have been built on this principle, and the building societies have done a vast amount of good. The savings' banks in Australia, too, are well patronized. Recent figures show that the amount lying to the credit of depositors was over £16,000,000, or about £28 3*s.* to the credit of each depositor throughout the entire continent. These figures tell a tale of more than ordinary prosperity. The fact is that, as compared with older countries, Australia gives not only more payable work, but also more of it. There is plenty of room for the populations to expand, and consequently there is much less competition among workers than in the older countries, which are comparatively at a standstill.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Sports—Australian Elevens—Climate and Exercise—Hot Playing—Football in Winter—Boating—Horse-racing—The Melbourne "Cup"—The Totalizator—Volunteers or Militia—Defences.

THROUGH the visits of the Australian elevens, and the achievements of Beach and Trickett, the oarsmen, Australians are perhaps better known to the outside world for their skill in sports than for any other distinguishing feature. It is, indeed, somewhat remarkable that teams of cricketers chosen from among a

population of not one-twelfth that of England should be able to hold their own with the picked men of the old country. Probably no other people in the world has shown, in proportion to population, such remarkable aptitude for British games as the Australians—a fact which certainly argues no diminution in the physical energy of Young England abroad. But the main reason for Australian proficiency in sports is to be found in the element of climate. In most parts of Australia cricket can be played with tolerable comfort all the year round. Occasionally, in summer, there are days when the heat is unusually oppressive, and the pastime of "leather hunting" becomes somewhat tiresome. But the heat in Australia is not by any means so oppressive as from the thermometer it would seem to be. In the great majority of places on the continent the air is nearly always dry and crisp—as unlike that of India or of England as it is possible to be. As has already been remarked, a temperature of 90° in London is decidedly more oppressive than one of 100° in the southern parts of Australia. Sunstroke is in America a far more frequent occurrence than it is in the southern continent. In the dry interior people live active, open-air lives in a temperature that would to some people seem alarming. In one township, on an exceptionally hot day, when the thermometer registered 117° in the shade, the local team of cricketers, having engaged to play a cricket match, went through with it in quite a brisk style, and the players declared that they stood the heat better than if they had been merely looking on. In the places nearer to the coast, such as the capital

cities, the heat very seldom reaches to 100°. But, when it does, the cricketers do not often omit their accustomed practice.

Good cricketers are very numerous in Australia, and it would be possible at any time to pick out half a dozen really first-class teams; although, of course, it is quite a different matter to induce the men to leave their employments and travel all round the world, to the detriment of their prospects in trades or professions. In Australia the professional cricketer is not numerously represented, nor, as has been said already, is the gentleman of means, who has no serious business to employ his energies. Cricket is the game of the people, and from the Universities down to the factories there is scarcely a place in which a dozen young men or boys assemble together, that has not a cricket club and a programme of matches arranged for each season. But football is *par excellence* the game which Young Australia enjoys. It is always reserved for the bracing winter season—from April till September—when there is just sufficient cold to make quick exercise agreeable, and usually not too much water on the ground to spoil a man's power of running. All through the winter the industrious footballer attends to his matches every Saturday afternoon, and if a wet day should happen to come he makes the best of it. There is never any snow on the ground in Australia—unless, very rarely, in exceptionally elevated situations. The temperature at Melbourne seldom falls to freezing point, and then only for an hour or two at a time. But at Ballarat, which is 1,400 feet above the sea-level, there is occa-

sionally a slight fall of snow, and a thin crust of ice can be found on the water.

This, however, never interferes either with work or with play. Skating, of course, is quite unknown; but football usually makes up for its absence. The game is played with level goals, and very strict rules are enforced to prevent free-fights for the ball. No one is allowed to hold the ball for a distance of more than five yards without "bouncing" it. Tripping or swinging are strictly forbidden, and on the whole the game is very successfully freed from those rough elements which at one time made it so objectionable. At Melbourne the great matches of the season, between the two "crack" clubs contending for the championship, are often witnessed by 10,000 or 15,000 people. More popular still among the ladies is the game of lawn tennis. But, unfortunately, that game can never become very common in Australia owing to the difficulty of keeping turf in good order. The summer sun dries up the grass so completely that it soon wears into little tufts. Near the cities, where water is abundant, many houses have their lawn-tennis grounds attached. But in most parts of Australia the game can only be played under considerable disadvantages. Much more public interest is attracted by aquatic sports. Yachting on any large scale is chiefly confined to the harbours of Sydney and Melbourne, where some very good exhibitions are frequently given. But sculling is a favourite pastime wherever anything like a decent sheet of water can be found. The strength and stamina of some of the Australian scullers are really remarkable. Beach, who

won the world's championship from Hanlon, was by no means *facile princeps* among the scullers of New South Wales; and there are several belonging to Victoria who can give a very good account of themselves. The two leading colonies exhibit a very lively friendly rivalry in the matter of four-oar boat-races, and the annual Intercolonial matches are looked forward to with very great interest. Stylish rowing is usually a feature in these matches. Almost all the leading colleges and higher schools have rowing clubs, and the employés of many of the mercantile houses combine to practise the sport, and challenge others to friendly matches.

Of all the "horsey" people to be met with in a journey round the world, the people of the Australian pastoral districts are perhaps the most conspicuous for their admiration of good horseflesh. It is natural that this should be so. The breeding of sheep and cattle is with them the main art and science of their daily occupation, and horsebreeding forms the highest branch of the same subject. In the great pastoral district of Riverina, lying to the north of Victoria beyond the River Murray, the absorbing topics of public interest are the Melbourne Cup race and the Randwick Races at Sydney. For turf purposes Melbourne is the chief centre of attraction. Cup Day comes in the early part of November, and throughout Victoria it is a universal holiday. Employers protest, schoolmasters discourage, and of course ministers of religion heartily disapprove; but it is of no use. Even people who do not take much interest in horse-racing go off to the Flemington Course, for the purpose of seeing the

sight. Men who have often witnessed the glories of the Derby Day have asserted that there is no racing carnival to be compared with Melbourne Cup Day. A special feature of remark is the orderliness of the people and the comparative absence of drunkenness. Of course there is a good deal of betting, and advertised sweepstakes under the name of "consultations" are industriously pushed for months beforehand. An instrument called the "totalizator" was legalized some time ago in one or two of the colonies, and tended for a short time to popularize betting. In using this apparatus the speculator lays a pound on any horse he may choose, and when the race has been run the whole of the money, minus a small percentage, is divided equally between those who betted on the winning horse. The operation might just as well be performed without any sort of calculating machine. But under the new system betting became so popular in South Australia, that the Legislature was forced to step in and withdraw its permission for the use of the totalizator. Still horse-racing always holds its place in public favour. Another pastime much enjoyed is the Eastern game of Polo, or horseback golf, and ponies suitable for that purpose now command high prices. It need scarcely be mentioned that bicycling is as popular in Australia as it is in England. Whatever else the Australians may be backward in, they are always very alert in the adoption of good pastimes.

In every colony of Australasia the Volunteer movement has been taken up with energy and with spirit, and among the sights to be seen every Saturday

half-holiday there is usually a parade, or exercise, or sham-fight of the citizen-soldiers. It is now ten or twelve years since the British regiments stationed in Australia, and maintained partially at the expense of the colonies, were withdrawn, and since that time the professional soldier has been by no means a common sight in Australia. Each colony keeps a small permanent force—two or three hundred in the case of New South Wales and Victoria, and only a few dozens in other colonies. Then the chief officers, of course, are professional soldiers, some of them of high rank in the British Army. But the main military strength lies in the well-trained bodies of Volunteers—or rather Militia. The system, which has been in vogue for some years in South Australia, and is now adopted throughout, is that of paying the men for every drill which they perform, and placing them under strict military rule so long as they are on duty. The experiment is obviously an extremely interesting one; and, so far as can be judged at present, it is highly successful. A man who for years spends his Saturday afternoons, and one or two evenings per week, in drill, under strict military discipline, is scarcely to be looked upon as a mere amateur soldier. In fact the manner in which difficult evolutions are carried out in Australia, and the high standard of class-firing frequently attained, show at once that, in many respects, the Militia Volunteers of the colonies are quite equal to the troops of the line in England. Australia and New Zealand can number about 18,000 men under arms, and a large proportion of reserve men, who have passed through a period of

military training. War is to the dwellers in the peaceful Southern regions but as the distant echo of a sound that has never at any time come really close. All the military preparations are of a defensive character—harbour forts, artillery, infantry, and so forth. The only occasion when any exception to this rule occurred was the sending of a contingent to the Soudan by the Government of New South Wales. The difficulty with Russia, which followed so closely afterwards, brought home to the minds of the people the fact that Australia, with its immense seaboard so sparsely inhabited, will probably find, for many years to come, defensive preparations to be as much as it can successfully undertake.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

An Englishman "At Home"—Nearness and Communication—English and French Colonists—Married and Single—Chances for Success—Clerks not Wanted—Emigration of Labourers—Increase of Population.

THERE are no places to which British subjects can emigrate and feel so much at home among the people as the colonies of the south. Whether he be English, or Welsh, or Scotch, or Irish, the emigrant always finds at the end of his journey that he is still among his own compatriots; and but for the clearness of the atmosphere

and the comparative cleanness and regularity of the streets, or the grey and brown tints of the landscape in the country, he might very easily imagine himself to be still in the land of his birth. The laws are the same, the institutions are the same. His own religious community, or society, receives him just as if he had moved from one English village to another. He feels himself to be still a subject of the same Empire to which he has always been proud to belong. He finds, too, that the people, among whom he lives, look upon a trip to England as one of the most ordinary every-day occurrences. Many colonists, indeed, have performed the journey back or forwards quite a dozen times, and they like to talk of England as if it were just on the other side of a lake or a river. The consequence is that the feeling of distance and separation from home becomes sensibly diminished. Letters and newspapers arrive from England in about four or five weeks from the date of posting. Yesterday's news from England or the Continent is always to be found in the daily newspapers of Australia in very much the same form as in any part of the United Kingdom. The hardships of emigration are indeed now reduced to a minimum. Thirty years ago the emigrant took five or six months to get to his destination, and if he wrote a letter he could scarcely reckon on having the answer back in less than a year. Many of the refinements of civilized life were denied to him, and in the process of "roughing it" he often sighed for the comforts to which he had been accustomed in former years. Now all this is changed. A man is truly "at home from home" when in Australia.

Indeed the success of the Anglo-Saxon race in the matter of colonization is almost entirely due to the facility with which they can domesticate themselves in new countries. An Englishman carries his home with him wherever he goes; a Frenchman leaves it behind him, and with it almost everything that he cares for. It is not a meaningless fact that the British are almost the only nation that possess such a word as "home." To the average Englishman his own household forms by far the largest factor in the conditions of his life. To the people of continental countries too often the very reverse is the case. The conditions of successful colonization are so closely wrapped up in the home life of the people that without the one the other would be scarcely possible. Married men who emigrate with the intention of "trying what the country is like," and sending for their families afterwards, if they find that they are getting on, usually acknowledge that they have made a mistake. They seldom really begin to make much headway until they have consciously settled down and made a home for themselves. As a rule, patient effort is as much necessary for success in the colonies as anywhere else in the world. But the difference is that older countries are so over-crowded that the probability of a good chance opening out in front of a man is very small indeed; while in a new country like Australia the limits of colonization are constantly expanding, and there are dozens of opportunities opened up for the man who has sense to take advantage of them. If he takes up his residence in some country town where he has procured employment, he

finds after a time that, further on, another township has sprung up and settlement has pushed forward considerably. He has saved a little money perhaps, and, watching his opportunity, he opens an establishment of his own. His business grows with the town in which it has been established, and by-and-by he finds himself in comfortable circumstances or fairly well-to-do. Without the new settlement or the new township he would never have had such a chance. I remember a retired storekeeper showing me the shop in which he had made £40,000 in seven or eight years. An English auctioneer would have taken a bid of £200 for the whole building complete. The business had grown rapidly with the very rapid extension of population in a particular locality, and without much pushing it had made itself very valuable.

Young unmarried men who emigrate to Australia sometimes take a long time to settle down into the life that is most suitable to the country. Many of them go out under the idea that they are only going to stay for three or four, or it may be six years, and will then return to the old country. Perhaps the young man has a tender spot in his memory of old England, and there is somebody waiting until her knight-errant returns from his travels to marry her. The end of such an arrangement usually is that the young lady follows her lover; or, if she has not courage to do so, she is in time supplanted by some fair colonial. Every man who emigrates should remember that, whether young or old, he goes to make a home for himself, and that if there is a young lady in the question she should enter

into his calculations. The pity is that so many young men emigrate with very grand ideas of being gentlemen colonists, and never being called upon to soil their hands or turn to any sort of work that would be derogatory to their dignity. Australia, like England, has quite enough and to spare of poor gentlemen. Mercantile establishments find that advertisements for bookkeepers are answered by hundreds of applicants. "Clerks,—a sin to send them out," expresses very fairly the current colonial opinion on the emigration of poor gentlemen who cannot turn their hands to a trade or to shopkeeping.

For the labouring classes of people the various Governments have from time to time devised schemes of free and assisted emigration. Victoria has for many years abandoned the system entirely. New South Wales and South Australia occasionally charter sailing vessels for the conveyance of domestic servants and agricultural labourers. Queensland, Tasmania, Western Australia, and New Zealand have somewhat similar arrangements. But, in most cases, the intending emigrant requires to have friends in Australia to certify that they know him, and that he is a suitable person to be an immigrant to the new country. Of recent years there has been a disinclination on the part of the colonial Governments to spend money in assisting people to emigrate, and the policy of several colonies is constantly changing, so that it is impossible to say at any particular time what the arrangements are. But the Agents-General for the different colonies at Westminster Chambers in London make it their business to

give all sorts of information. The immense steamers that now run direct to Australia take out frequently 500 or 600 passengers in one trip, and the tide of emigration increases from year to year. Already the number of people who have taken the voyage to one or other of the colonies is about a million and a half. The total population is now over three millions, and still there is not one person for every square mile of territory in the country, while in England there are 290. The population is at present increasing more rapidly than in any other country in the world, and yet there seems to be plenty of room for more—if they are of the right sort. The British Islands will in future years send millions of people to Australia, for the young country must grow even if the old one should stand still. But those who watch the course of events with an interest in the welfare of Old England find consolation in the reflection that, both politically and commercially, the growth of the colonies in numbers and power does not diminish, but materially increases the prosperity of the great Empire to which they belong.

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