STANFORD'S EMIGRANT'S GUIDES.

AUSTRALIA:

AS A

ELD FOR CAPITAL, SKILL, AND LABOUR:

WITH USEFUL INFORMATION

FOR

EMIGRANTS OF ALL CLASSES.

BY

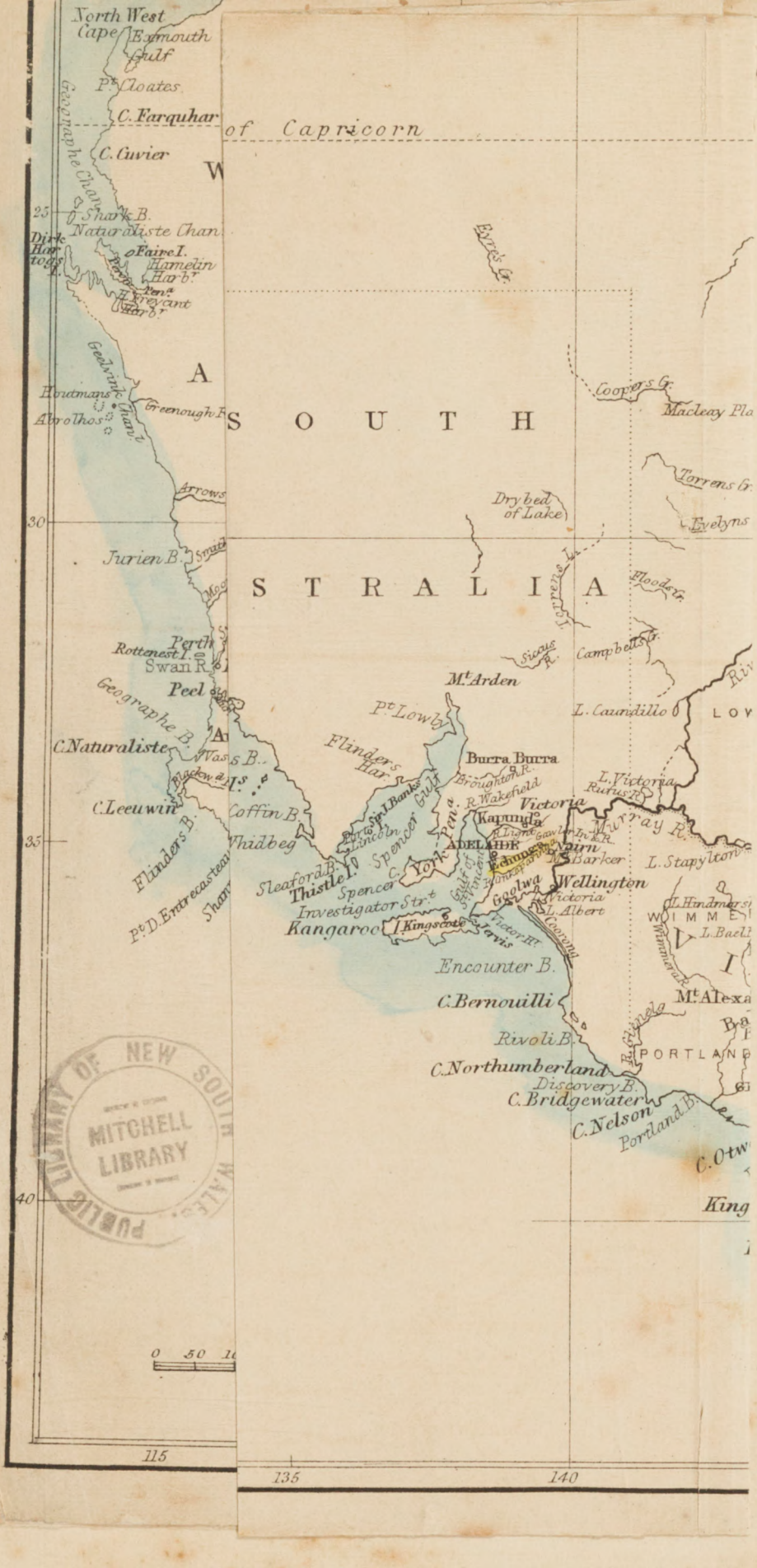
JOHN CAPPER,

LATE EDITOR OF THE "EMIGRANT'S JOURNAL," AUTHOR OF "OUR GOLD COLONIES," THE "THREE PRESIDENCIES OF INDIA," ETC.

LONDON:

EDWARD STANFORD, 6, CHARING CROSS.

1854.



MAP OF AUSTRALIA

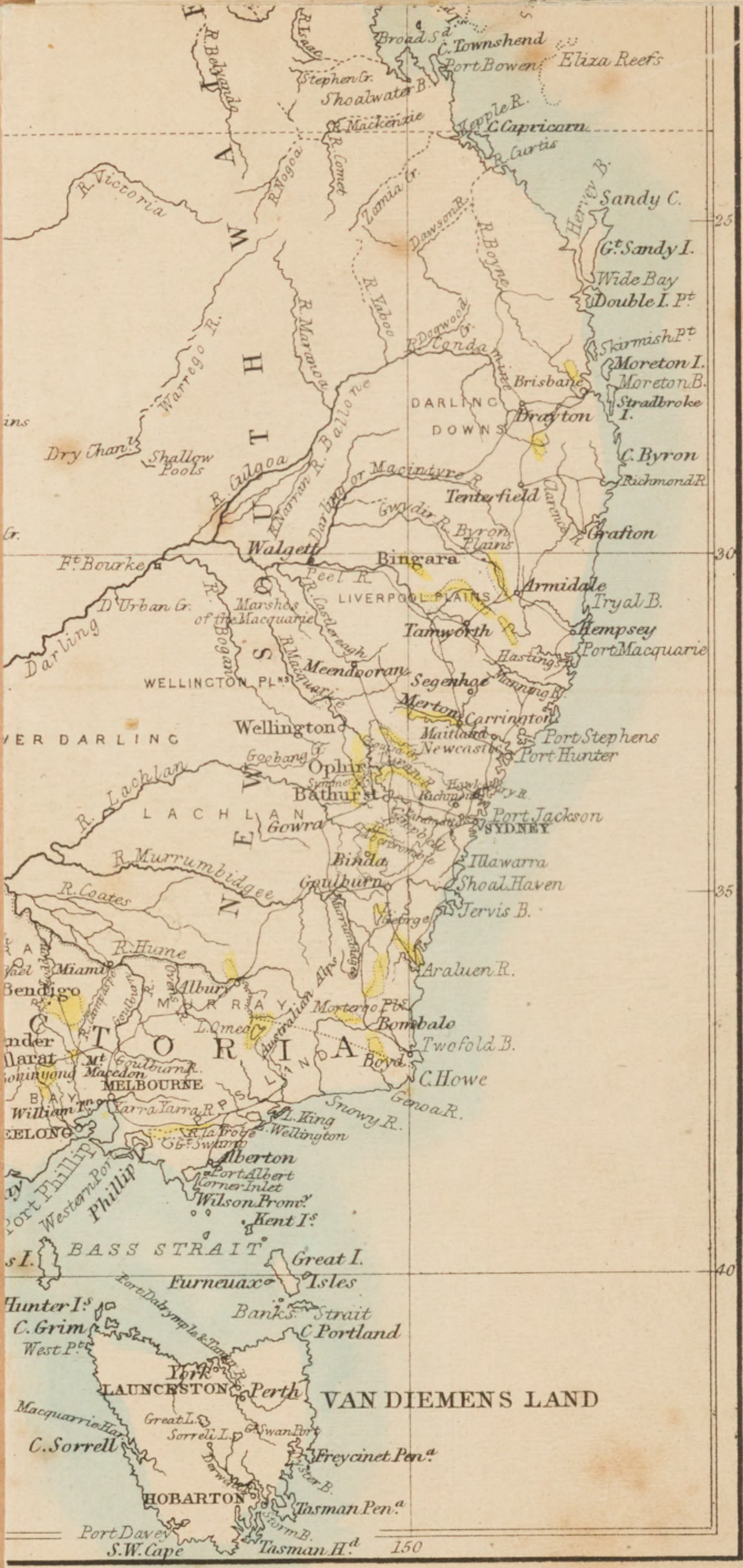
Showing the

GOLD FIELDS

Compiled from the best Authorities

London.
EDWARD STANFORD
6. Charing Cross
1854

Scale of Miles.
0 50 100 200 300 400 500


NEW SOUTH WALES
VICTORIA
VAN DIEMENS LAND
Broad Sd
C. Townshend
Port Bowen
Eliza Reefs
Shoalwater B.
Stephen Cr.
R. Mackenzie
Kepple R.
C. Capricorn
R. Curtis
R. Comet
R. Nogoa
Zamia Cr.
R. Victoria
Hervey B.
Sandy C.
Gt Sandy I.
Wide Bay
Double I. Pt
Dawson R.
R. Boyne
R. Yaboo
R. Maranoa
Warrego R.
R. Dogwood Cr.
Condamine
Skirmish Pt
Moreton I.
Moreton B.
Brisbane
Stradbroke I.
DARLING DOWNS
Drayton
Dry Chanl
Shallow Pools
R. Gulgoa
R. Balonne
R. Narran
Darling or Macintyre R.
C. Byron
Richmond R.
Tenterfield
Clarence R.
Gwydir R.
Byron Plains
Grafton
Walgett
Bingara
Ft Bourke
Peel R.
D'Urban Cr.
Marshes of the Macquarie
R. Castlereagh
LIVERPOOL PLAINS
Armidale
Tryal B.
Kempsey
Port Macquarie
Tamworth
Darling
R. Bogan
R. Macquarie
Meendooran
Hastings R.
Segenhoe
Manning R.
WELLINGTON PLNS
Merton
Carrington
Wellington
Maitland
Newcastle
Port Stephens
Port Hunter
ER DARLING
Goobang Cr.
Ophir
Bathurst
Hawkesbury R.
Richmond
R. Lachlan
LACHLAN
Gowra
Port Jackson
SYDNEY
R. Murrumbidgee
Binda
Illawarra
Goulburn
Shoal Haven
R. Coates
Jervis B.
R. Hume
Araluen R.
Miami
Bendigo
Albury
MURRAY
Australian Alps
Monaro Pl.
L. Omeo
Bombala
Twofold B.
Boyd
Mt Macedon
Goulburn R.
MELBOURNE
C. Howe
Genoa R.
Snowy R.
Yarra Yarra R.
Williamstn
L. King
L. Wellington
Gt Swamp
Alberton
Port Albert
Corner Inlet
Port Phillip
Western Port
Wilson Promy
Kent Is
BASS STRAIT
Great I.
Furneaux Isles
Hunter Is
Banks Strait
C. Grim
C. Portland
West Pt
Port Dalrymple & Tamar R.
York
LAUNCESTON
Perth
Macquarrie Har.
Great L.
Sorrell L.
Swan Port
C. Sorrell
Freycinet Pena
Oyster B.
HOBARTON
Tasman Pena
Storm B.
Port Davey
S.W. Cape
Tasman Hd
25
30
35
40
150

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CHAPTER I.

Australian Emigration—What it has been and what it should be — Outfits for all classes — Government Emigration — Family Colonization.

THE great rush which has taken place to the Australian Colonies during the past two years, unusual both in kind and extent, has naturally attracted considerable attention in this country, and raised various conjectures as to the final result. Fifty thousand persons leaving these shores for a new land within twelve months, appears a large number, yet it is but a fifth part of the emigration annually going on to the United States of America. And when we bear in mind that Australia is in extent very nearly equal to the whole of Europe, in which upwards of two hundred millions of human beings subsist, whilst even at this moment there cannot be half a million of inhabitants European and aboriginal, in the whole of the

great Australian continent, we need not fear for the ultimate welfare of the many thousands who have gone thither or are on the point of starting.

It was not to be expected, that amidst this sudden flight of persons of all classes and ages, to one or two particular localities, there would not be many who had far better have remained at home with their passage-money in their pockets. This was not more than was foreseen, and it has come to pass. Scarcely a mail arrives from Sydney or Melbourne, but brings a batch of melancholy epistles from disappointed emigrants, who because they find themselves unfitted for the Bush or the Gold Fields, and are not wanted in the town, rail at the people, the place, the guide-books which they say took them in, and the ships which took them out. According to this description of people, everything is dear and dirty, even to the nuggets. All their grapes are exceedingly sour, and they have evidently determined on having nothing to do with them. The climate is either too hot or too damp, or too dry, and not to be compared to the foggy delights of a November day at home, or the drizzling comfort of a dark January morning, to say nothing of March winds.

Strange as it may appear, however, there are other folks found who write in a precisely opposite vein, so much so that one is sometimes inclined to believe they must be writing from a different country. In their eyes everything is charming and thriving. The

climate is most enjoyable; plenty of money is being made, and good beef and mutton are only four pence a pound.

We shall not be far wrong if we abstract a *little* of the high-colouring of the latter class, and a *great deal* of the heavy shading laid on by the former, and by this process arrive at a tolerably correct estimate of the present actual position of Australia, and of its suitability as an emigration field for the labouring classes and the men of moderate means.

It may be well to mention in this place what will be more fully pointed out hereafter, that the three colonies of Australia, New South Wales, South Australia and Victoria, although agreeing in most essential points have each their peculiar claims to attention, offering as they do inducements to men of different means and capacities. At the same time there are, in spite of their local discrepancies, principles which apply with equal force in all three cases, and which therefore cannot be too strongly impressed upon the minds of such as may be turning their thoughts in that direction. To the discussion of these broad principles it is our intention to devote this opening chapter as a safe and sure foundation whereon to build our emigration structure.

In the early days of Australian colonization itwas strongly inculcated upon the public mind, that none should attempt to settle in that distant and unopened country who could not go into the Bush and rough it

alone and unaided if need be; or that only men of large means who could carry a supply of labour with them, were safe in investing capital there. This can no longer be said. The circumstances of Australia are now widely different. A large and rapidly increasing population in town and country districts, has created fresh wants, and new demands for labour and capital have arisen such as were before undreamt of. The "Bush" is no longer a necessity for the Australian emigrant. The abounding riches of the Gold Fields have created a species of barbarous civilization, a state of semi-savage luxury, a go-ahead lawless spirit of enjoyment, which must be ministered to at any cost.

But while we admit that tradesmen, commercial capitalists, brokers, contractors, bankers, accountants, and many others are likely to find a fair field for their exertions in the Gold Colonies, even such as these must be prepared to see matters carried on very differently from such things in the old country. Many disagreeables are sure to await them, and although with ample means at their command they must be prepared to "rough it" for some time after their arrival. The peculiarities of the climate, the all but total absence of domestic servants, the want of a fixed society, all these things must be encountered with many others, and therefore such persons as are not prepared to submit to and by perseverance overcome all these disagreeables, had better make up

their minds at once to have nothing to do with emigrating to Australia.

It is not, however, to the above description of persons we propose addressing this chapter, but to such as think of making the Southern Colonies their future home, either as agriculturists, cattle-rearers or miners. This class of emigrants have far greater need of asking themselves if they be fit for the voyage and the new life they will have to lead in that new country; a question which they may answer for themselves if they will read this and the following chapters with attention.

There has been a very prevalent opinion held in this country, especially since the discovery of Gold in Australia, that since labour is so dear, and food so cheap, anybody with a pair of hands cannot fail to do well in that part of the world. A greater mistake could scarcely be committed, and it therefore behoves us to put this matter right. It is to the wrong impression created in this way that so much suffering and distress in the colonies may be attributed. Thousands have undoubtedly gone out since 1851, who should never have left this country, and who would make any sacrifice to return to the homes they have left.

Persons accustomed only to a town life, clerks, shopkeepers, lawyers, schoolmasters, artists, &c., save in particular places and in limited numbers have never been in demand; yet hundred and thousands

of these have gone only to find that unless they choose to go out into the bush, or the streets, or on the wharves as day-labourers, and handle the spade, the shepherd's staff, the barrow or the whip, they had but a small chance of earning a subsistence.

This cannot be said of the other sex. So small has been the number comparatively of female emigrants, that any arriving in the Colony are sure to be caught up, no matter what her capabilities may amount to, whether comprised in the terms "knitting, netting, and crochet," whether confined to painting butterflies and singing Italian *arias*, or whether they embrace the more solid acquirements of darning stockings and making puddings. Often as we have heard of the Melbourne and Sydney markets being overdone with bottled beer, crockery and hardware, we have never been told that there was any glut of young marriageable women.

On the other hand, there is ample room for young or middle-aged men, who both *can* and *will* make themselves generally useful, and who are content to forego the prejudices and the indoor habits of the old country. When this can be done, then we may almost say that it matters but little what a man may have been brought up to. Let him have but stout limbs and a stout cheerful heart, and he cannot fail to prosper. It is not meant by this to say that the linendraper's assistant, or the lawyer's clerk, can if they choose readily become Australian ploughmen,

gold-diggers, or draymen. Some physical training must of necessity be undergone in the first instance, but there would be nothing to prevent them from at once taking up with the life of shepherd or stock-keeper, having the will to submit to the privations which must be entailed by such an occupation.

Landing in any of the three colonies, the willing labourer will meet with ready and liberal employers, only too glad to avail of his services with good pay and rations, on which he may become as fat as any yeoman of the olden time; a climate so favourable to health that medicine is all but unknown, and the death of a young person a most rare occurrence; no taxes, no rent; and with need of so few clothes as to render their cost a matter of little moment. Should the intending emigrant be married, so much the better, provided the wife be frugal and industrious: such a helper will not only be no expense, but she will actually often earn nearly as much as the husband. Children, too, which in this country are so frequently looked upon as incumbrances to the struggling man, as dead weights around his progress, are there so many valuable assistants to the farm-settler, be he in what capacity he may. In that land of promise, children, from being, as in the old world, burdens and sorrows, become truly blessings, and realise the scriptural saying, "Happy is he who hath his quiver full of them." Children of ten or eleven are of the utmost use in tending sheep, whilst a lad of

fourteen is quite as good as a man, either as shepherd, stockman, or hut-keeper.

All this may be the lot of men possessing but small experience of rural life or of worldly matters in general. It may readily be imagined therefore, that for those who combine with a willing disposition, and steady, sober, industrious habits, a running knowledge of the more practical things of the world, the prospect will be still more promising. Besides men-cooks for out-stations, who can combine the duty of butcher or baker, or both, gardeners and farm-servants, such as shepherds, grooms, cattle drivers of experience, and ploughmen, are all required. Of ordinary labourers, those in chief demand are sawyers, brickmakers, carpenters, bricklayers, masons, stone-cutters, smiths, wheelwrights, coopers, and shoe-makers. Any or all of these, of steady habits, may go out to the Australian colonies, in the fullest confidence of being able to live in the enjoyment of worldly comforts, which in this country they could hardly look for.

Besides the above whose only capital is their labour, there is the small farmer, having moderate means and a growing family, who finds himself going back in the world year by year, with small prospects for his daughters beyond the milk-pail and the poultry-yard, or for his sons beyond the plough and the hog-trough—such a man, if industrious, sober, and frugal, cannot do better than turn sheep-farmer

or corn-grower in Australia, where by a few years of attention and industry, he will be certain to place himself in an independent position.

Men of even more extensive means will of course do still better, provided they go about their business in the right mood. For such indeed there is a very wide field of operations from stock-keeping to commercial business. But this class will in all probability not care to take advice from us, though they might find it to their advantage.

Having said this much as to the class of persons who are likely to make good colonists, it will be right that our remarks are followed up by some information as to the mode of reaching the colonies. This may be done in two ways: either by the emigrant paying his own way out, or by obtaining a passage through the means of the Emigration Commissioners.

There are seldom any lack of passenger ships to the Australian colonies, many of them of first-class descriptions. But it need hardly be told the reader that there are bad as well as good vessels and captains, and our advice to those married persons who think of emigrating, is if possible to avoid what are termed steerage berths, at from £18 to £22. A few more pounds if it can be managed will be well laid out in comfort for a four months voyage. To single men this is a matter of less moment, and they will in all probability be as well in the steerage as anywhere

else. The larger the ship, provided there be not too many going in her, the more comfort will the emigrant find, especially in bad weather. Care should be taken to examine well the scale of dietary allowed by the ship, and to see that it contains a proper allowance of preserved provisions and water, two great essentials for a long voyage. Ventilation is another point that cannot be too strictly attended to, and it would be well to ascertain that every precaution is taken to secure this before the vessel quits the docks.

With regard to the choice of a good ship and a good captain, in which the emigrant cannot be too careful, the only safe mode is to go to an old established, respectable broker or ship-owner, of which there are abundance both in London and Liverpool. An emigrant cannot do wrong in securing a passage in any vessel belonging to either the Messrs. Lindsays, Wigrams, Greens, or Dunbar of London, or of the Black Ball, Eagle, or Golden Line of Liverpool Packets.

As the great bulk of emigrants leaving these shores are never overstocked with means, a few hints to enable them to economise their outfit, will no doubt prove very acceptable. Each passenger is allowed to take with him from fifteen to twenty cubic feet of baggage free of any charge. This will be placed in the hold or lower part of the ship, but in such a position as to be easily got at during the voyage, which is generally done twice a month. Pas-

sengers are allowed to have in their cabin or under their berth a box or bag, capable of holding clothes sufficient for two weeks wear; the size allowed for a box is one foot ten inches long, one foot six inches broad, and one foot two inches deep. It is far better to have a stout canvass bag painted. Every package should have the owner's name painted on it in large letters.

The following articles will be found sufficient for a married couple with management, during a voyage to any of the Australian colonies: if their means permit them to take more so much the better, but fewer could hardly suffice, for it must be remembered that it is impossible to wash during the voyage:—

For the wife:—three cotton dresses, one pair stays, four petticoats, sixteen chemises, two flannel petticoats, twelve pairs cotton stockings, four pairs black worsted ditto, six night dresses and caps, six pocket-handkerchiefs, four handkerchiefs for the neck, six caps, two bonnets, cloak and shawl, one pair boots, two pairs shoes, and eight towels.

For the husband:—two fustian jackets, waistcoats, and trousers, three pairs canvas trousers, one overcoat, two felt hats, one Scotch cap, sixteen striped shirts, two Guernsey shirts, twelve pairs cotton half-hose, four pairs worsted hose, six handkerchiefs, eight towels, two pairs boots, and one pair shoes, strong but not heavy. Children in like proportion.

The family will also require a flock mattress and

bolster, one pair blankets, one coverlet, six pairs cotton sheets, two or three tablecloths, six pounds yellow soap, three pounds marine soap, metal wash-hand basin, knives and forks, one quart tin hook-pot, one coffee pot, comb and brush, besides a supply of string, sewing materials, tape, buttons, &c. A small supply of calicoes, brown holland, camlet, fine canvas, &c., would be well added if possible; and it will always be desirable that the wife make as many of her clothes on board ship as she can, as the occupation serves to pass away many an otherwise idle, heavy hour.

Men of better means—small farmers or tradesmen for instance, would do well to take the following:—three dozen regatta shirts, common, to be used first; one dozen best regatta shirts; six best white shirts, for town; twelve pairs drawers, cotton thread; three dozen pairs socks, cotton or angola; six pairs worsted socks; six pairs shoes or boots, strong but not heavy; one cloth cap; two straw hats and two felt hats, as you generally lose one or two overboard; a south-wester; one pilot-cloth coat; two body coats, alpaca; six blouses; two pairs cloth trousers; three pairs alpaca ditto; ten pairs white ducks; a large canvas clothes bag; a horse-hair or cocoa-nut fibre mattress; a pair of 40s. blankets; eight pairs of sheets; a coverlet; a cabin wash-basin and table; a pair of ship chest of drawers; a looking-glass, combs, brushes, &c.; a ship cabin candle lamp, with 10 lbs. composite candles;

6 lbs. soap; some marine soap, all packed in chests or in the drawers; with tapes, buttons, sewing thread, needles, &c.

A useful outfit for the "Bush" or up-country, would consist of four pairs moleskin trousers; two pairs ditto, strapped inside all the way down; twelve Florentine shirts; six pairs boots, strong Wellingtons or ankle jacks; one monkey jacket; two shooting coats; one drab greatcoat, like a soldier's, loose-made; a pair or two of the best spurs, plated; twelve coarse silk pocket-handkerchiefs; a good head-stall snaffle bridle—the saddle had better be bought in the colony, also saddle-bags.

Any wearing apparel the emigrants may have by them, had better be taken for wear on the voyage, as however old they may be, they will do well enough, and help to economise their new things: this applies especially to boots and shoes, as the salt water on board ship is sure to destroy the leather no matter how strong the boots may be.

Books had better not be taken, with one or two exceptions, as they are liable to damage, and are difficult of transport. The labouring man or artificer may take with him any good and useful tools he may have, though not more than he is likely to require for his own work.

Any small spare means the emigrant may have, will be well laid out in the purchase of a few additional small stores, such as bacon, tongues, butter,

biscuits, a cheese or two, and if possible a few dozens of new eggs, dipped in grease, and packed in bran or sawdust, or better still in oatmeal, which may be used on the voyage.

The scale of dietary given below is a very common one on board most respectable ships, though some of the items vary occasionally :—

Biscuit, per week,	3 lb.	Tea, per week,	1½ oz.
Beef, do.	½ lb.	Coffee, do.	2 oz.
Pork, do.	1 lb.	Sugar, do.	¾ lb.
Preserved Meat, do.	1 lb.	Treacle, do.	½ lb.
Soup and Bouilli, do	1 lb.	Butter, do.	¼ lb.
Fish, do.	¼ lb.	Cheese, do.	¼ lb.
Flour, do.	3½ lb.	Oatmeal, do.	2 oz.
Raisins, do.	½ lb.	Lime Juice, do.	1 gill.
Preserved Fruit, do	¼ lb.	Pickles, do.	1 gill.
Suet, do.	6 oz.	Mustard, do.	½ oz.
Pease, do., two-thirds of a pint.		Salt, do.	2 oz.
Rice, do.	¾ lb.	Pepper, do.	½ oz.
Preserved Potatoes, do.	½ lb.	Water, do.	5 gals. 1 qrt.
Carrots, do.	½ lb.	Do., each Infant,	1 gal. 3 qrts.

The dietary provided by the Government in their chartered vessels is of the best kind, and on the most liberal scale. Every possible arrangement is made to secure not only the personal comfort, but the proper protection of female emigrants during the voyage, who are placed under the charge of a matron and surgeon. In this way families are cared for in a manner which cannot be looked for in private ships, and the consequence has been, that complaints of misconduct of passengers, or want of attention from the officers, are no longer heard of.

Another style of emigration is that carried on under the auspices of Mrs. Chisholm, and known

as the "Family Colonization Loan Society," the leading features of which consist in advancing a portion of the sums needed for passage-money under agreement of repayment in the colony, and the forwarding of whole families in groups, in preference to leaving any members of them behind. Full particulars on this subject, may be obtained on application to the Secretary, at No. 24, Bucklersbury, Cheapside.

Women receive the same rations as men. Children between one and fourteen years of age receive one-half.

Persons of the labouring classes, who do not possess the means of paying their passage to the colonies, may, on application to the Emigration Commissioners, at 3, Park Street, Westminister, obtain passages, provided they are of the description of persons wanted, and can furnish satisfactory testimonials as to character and qualifications. The terms and conditions on which they can thus be sent out, may be learnt by an application either personal, or in writing to the Secretary.

The Commissioners are provided with funds for this purpose by the Colonies wanting the labour, many hundreds of thousands of pounds having been thus expended for them. Formerly the passages were entirely free, but this has been so far modified as regards Sydney, that it is now determined the emigrant shall pay in this country £1, towards the cost of his passage, but nothing for his wife or children

who are under fourteen years of age; and on their arrival in the colony, he shall enter into an agreement to repay to the Colonial Government, by eight quarterly instalments, a further sum of £12. So that these payments, as they accumulate, will be again remitted to England, towards defraying the cost of a farther supply of labour, the amount actually sunk will consist of the cost of passage for the wife and children, and the difference between the actual cost of the emigrant himself, and the sum of £13, which he will eventually have paid.

CHAPTER II.

A Brief Description of Australia, with an account of the Position, Extent, Natural Features, Climate, Seasons, &c. of New South Wales, South Australia, and Victoria.

AUSTRALIA is an island lying in the South Pacific Ocean, between the parallels of 10° 45′ and 38° 45′ of south latitude, and 153° 30′ of east longitude, and is consequently at the antipodes of Great Britain, from which it is distant about 16,000 miles by ship's course. Its length is nearly 3000 miles from east to west, and its breadth 2000 miles from north to south. The area is estimated at 2,690,810 square miles, and the coast line at nearly 8000 nautical miles.

New South Wales, the oldest settlement, is situate on the east coast of this island; the present boundaries of which extend from the northern point, called Cape York, to Cape Howe, and thence in a straight line to the nearest source of the river Murray. The Colony embraces all the country from the coast to the westward (not including South Australia and Victoria), extending to the 129th degree of east longitude. The adjacent islands are also belonging to this territory.

It is 2250 miles in length from Cape York to Cape Howe, and 1740 in breadth from the boundary of South Australia, in longitude 141$_0$ east, to Moreton Bay, in latitude 27° 30′ south. The districts coming under the denomination of "settled," contain 34,505 square miles, or, 22,083,200 acres; beyond the boundaries the squatters occupy fully one hundred millions of acres. There is also a sort of natural boundary formed by a mountain range extending from Bass's Strait to York Peninsula, from 2000 to 6000 feet in height, at a distance of 50 to 100 miles from the coast. This mountain "belt" is known in different parts of the colony as the "Blue Mountains," in the vicinity of Sydney; the "Liverpool Range" in the northern, and the "Australian Alps" in the southern districts. The intervening space between the mountains and the sea is occupied by a gently undulating surface, intersected by water courses, in some places well wooded, in others covered with dense woody scrub, and gradually rising to the westward in groups of isolated hills.

These mountains divide the sources of the river Peel, in 30° south latitude from those of the Hastings, flowing towards Port Macquarie in the N. E. Again to the south, the river Manning is separated by one of its spurs from the river Hunter, after which it divides in its windings in a westerly direction—the tributaries of the Hunter from those of the Peel. This portion is called the Liverpool Range, of which

there are two remarkable elevations called Mount Oxley and Mount McArthur; to the westward of these the chain turns suddenly to the south-east, but resumes its south-westerly direction at the sources of the Colo and Cudgagong. Mounts Adine, Clarence, King George, and Tomah, crown the northern and loftier branch; Mounts Hay and King's table land, the southern. Extending to the south-west, the range gives rise to Cox's River, then takes a south-east direction, and is known as the Honeysuckle Range. There is a remarkable eminence on the southern part of this range known as the Australian Alps, within the district of New South Wales, named Mount Kosciuszko by the discoverer, Count Strzelecki. Its altitude of 6500 feet, raises it above the adjacent mountains, and the view from its summit embraces 7000 square miles.

The rivers throughout the island of Australia are considerably smaller and fewer in number than the extent of that vast island continent would lead the traveller to suppose.

The principal river of New South Wales is the Hawkesbury, which empties itself into the sea at Broken Bay. This river is exceedingly tortuous in its route, a distance of 140 miles, to the township of Windsor, built upon its banks, although in a direct line from the sea-coast only distant 35 miles, and is navigable for vessels of 100 tons four miles above the town. It flows from the base of the Blue Mountains,

and is a continuation of the Nepean river in Camden county, and is fed by numerous tributaries.

The river Hunter is formed by several small streams flowing from the Blue Mountains, and disembogues in the sea at Port Hunter, the harbour of Newcastle, 59 miles north from the entrance of Port Jackson.

The Hastings river rises in the Blue Mountains, and flows a distance of 100 miles before it falls into the sea at Port Macquarie.

The Clarence also rises in this dividing range of mountains, and falls into the sea at Shoal Bay. This river is remarkable for its great breadth, and its reaches are said to be larger and wider than those of any other river in Australia, and is navigable for steamers for upwards of 90 miles. The Brisbane rises in the dividing range, and empties itself in Moreton Bay almost in a straight line at a distance of about 60 miles from the coast.

Paramatta river is merely a continuation of Port Jackson, and is navigable a distance of 18 miles to the town of the same name. There are also of the coast rivers the *Mamines*, which flows from the eastern side of Liverpool range; the *Mac Leas*, navigable from Trial Bay, a distance of 30 miles, by vessels not more than 60 tons burthen; the *Richmond*, the *Coohalli*, the *Nambucca*, the *Boyne*, and several others of a similar description, fall into the sea on the N. E. coast.

Of the inland rivers the Lachlan, Darling, Macquarie, and the Murrumbidgee, are the most important, rising and flowing from the westward of the Blue Mountains, and, uniting with the river Murray, runs through a portion of the colony of Victoria, and thence to South Australia, and falls into the sea by way of Lake Alexandrina, in the latter colony.

The principal Harbours are Port Jackson, Botany Bay, Newcastle, Port Stephen, Port Macquarie, and Moreton Bay, with the minor ones of Hervey, Jervis, and Bateman's Bays, and some good roadsteads lying to the north-east. Port Jackson is admitted to be one of the safest havens in the world, and capable of holding every ship in the British navy. Its entrance is three-quarters of a mile wide, then expanding into a capacious basin, 15 miles long, in some places three miles wide, and navigable for ships of any burthen 15 miles from its entrance, being a distance of seven miles above Sydney, up the Paramatta river. The town of Sydney, the capital of New South Wales, being built on the side of a gentle slope extending upwards from the shores of one of the coves of Port Jackson. Newcastle Harbour, Port Hunter, is a safe haven, sufficiently capacious for vessels of 300 tons burthen 59 miles north from the entrance to Port Jackson. Port Stephen is a fine harbour, about 100 miles north from Port Jackson. It has a narrow entrance between rocky headlands, opening into an expanse about two miles in length ;

then narrowing, forms a channel, which admits vessels of considerable burthen, to a second bay perfectly land-locked. Port Macquarie is a bar harbour with about nine feet at low water, situate about 220 miles to the north-east of Port Jackson. The bar extends for 200 yards, beyond which the water deepens to two and three fathoms; within the port the soundings are five and six fathoms, which depth continues for nearly ten miles, when shoals confine the navigation to crafts drawing six or eight feet.

Further north is Moreton Bay. This is a bar harbour, the entrance to which has eighteen feet at low water. The bay is said to be sixty miles in extent.

New South Wales is divided into counties, of which there are officially described twenty-two, and also sixteen squatting districts. It has, however, been remarked that, except in Government deeds, or legal documents, the grand natural divisions of the country are the only ones known or recognized by the colonists, who accordingly speak only of the districts of the Hawkesbury, of Hunter's River, of Bathurst, of Illawarra, of Argyle, and of Port Macquarie. Irrespective of the arrangement of counties and districts, the Colony is divided into two dioceses, —viz., Sydney and Newcastle; the latter comprises the seven northern counties of Northumberland, Gloucester, Hunter, Durham, Brisbane, Bligh, and Phillip counties; the Sydney diocese comprises all the remainder of the territory.

Victoria, formerly called Port Phillip, is that portion of the island of Australia lying to the southward and westward of New South Wales, bounded on the north-east by a straight line from Cape Howe to the nearest source of the Murray, on the north by the river Murray as far as the frontier of South Australia in the west, which is defined by the meridian of 141° E., and on the south by Bass's Strait. The length of the province, from east to west, is about 500 miles; the breadth, from north to south, about 250 miles; and the coast line about 600 miles; the area is about 80,000 square miles, or 51,200,000 acres, or about equal in size to Great Britain. The Province throughout its whole extent presents great diversity of feature, from the lofty Alpine region on the east, to the low grassy plains on the west. But the peculiar characteristic of Victoria is the large proportion of fertile, accessible, and comparatively level ground comprised within its limits. Hills of moderate elevation occupy the central country, being thinly or partially wooded, and covered with the richest pasturage. The lower country, both on the northern and southern skirts of these hills, is chiefly open; and on the south undulates towards the coast. In the western portions small rivers radiate from the Grampians, an elevated and isolated mass. Towards the sea coast, on the south and adjacent to the open downs between the Grampians and Port Phillip, there is a low tract of very rich black soil, apparently the

best imaginable for the cultivation of grain in such a climate.

The mountain range of New South Wales, previously described as the dividing range, is continued through the Province of Victoria, by what is called the Australian Alps, known also as the great Warragong chain, or Snowy Mountains.

The Grampians form the leading features of the country westward of Port Phillip. They are a lofty and extensive mass, comprising three ranges, and covering a great extent of country. Thirty or forty miles to the eastward of the Grampians is a granitic range called the Pyrenees, thinly wooded with very lofty timber, and grassy to their summits.

About fifty miles to the eastward of the Pyrenees is a range called the Bunninyong, running north and south. The principal mountain in Victoria, is Mount Macedon, a peak of the range bearing that name, lying about thirty-five miles N. N. W. of Melbourne.

The rivers of this Province are generally deeper and more constant in their course than those previously named in the adjoining Colony of New South Wales. The principal river, which forms those parts of the eastern and northern boundaries of the Province is the Murray, which receives in its course the waters of the Ovens, and the Goulburn, the Campaspé, the Loddon, and various smaller tributaries, it pursues a north-easterly course to its junction with the Murrumbidgee and thence pursues its way into

its sea mouth, Lake Alexandrina, in South Australia. The Glenelg takes its rise in the Grampians, and after pursuing a general south by west direction for 300 miles discharges its waters into the sea at longitude 141° 20′ forming a natural boundary between the Province of Victoria and that of South Australia.

There are three small streams in the neighbourhood of Portland Bay, called the Fitzroy, Surrey, and Shaw. A short distance to the westward of Port Phillip is the mouth of the Barwan, taking its rise in the hilly country of the interior.

The Yarra Yarra springs from the lofty chain upon the southern coast of the continent, and empties itself into Hobson's Bay. Upon the north bank of this river about eight miles from its entrance is situate the town of Melbourne, the capital of this Province, up to which the river is navigable for vessels of about 200 tons burthen. It has a bar at its mouth with nine feet of water at high tide.

The principal harbour of Victoria is Port Phillip, by which name the Colony was formerly known. It is from its extent capable of holding any number of ships. Its entrance is extremely narrow, and in foul weather difficult of access. Within the heads shoals extend for a space of seven miles; through these however lie two channels, which will admit vessels of the heaviest burthen. Beyond the flats an open expanse of water runs inwards for thirty miles. At the northern extremity, and at the

mouth of a river which runs from the eastward is the anchorage of Hobson's Bay, where large vessels anchor and transport their cargoes by lighters and steamers to the town of Melbourne.

On the western coast of Port Phillip is a long wide arm, termed the inner harbour of Geelong, the anchorage of which is named Kohrio Bay. Port Western is a capacious harbour situate in a wide and deep inlet containing two great bays, the inner one being a circular basin of about eighteen miles across.

Port Fairy is a harbour, which forms a link in the coast between Port Phillip and Portland Bay. The entrance is open and affords but insufficient shelter for anchorage.

Portland Bay is in longitude 141° 20′ East, and affords a fine and more secure anchorage than any other part of the coast. It extends twenty-six miles from east to west, and ten from north to south. There is excellent holding ground in from four to seven fathoms, towards the western shore, where the anchorage is completely sheltered from the south-westerly winds, but exposed however to those from the south-east, which prevail during the summer months.

The numerous inland Lakes of this Province are among the most remarkable of its physical features. The waters of many of them are quite salt, much more so indeed than the waters of the ocean; and during the summer when the extensive evaporation

that always takes place at that season leaves the greater portion of the lakes nearly dry, the salt is found in large crystals in a depth of from three to six inches. It is of excellent quality, and when pounded is used by the settlers for all domestic purposes.

Victoria has lately been divided into twenty-three Counties, although the whole of the North-eastern portion of the Province is usually termed *Murray district;* the North-western, *Wimmera district;* the South-eastern, *Gipps' Lands;* the South-western, *Portland Bay district;* and the central *Western Port district.* The exact limits of these divisions are however but vaguely defined.

South Australia is situated, as its name implies, on the south coast of this great island, its limits being fixed by an Act of Parliament (4 and 5 Will. IV. cap. 95) as between the 26th degree of south latitude and the sea coast, and 132nd and 141st degrees of east longitude. The area extends over 300,000 square miles, being nearly 200,000,000 acres of land. This may be divided into three divisions; one-third good open agricultural and pastural land; one-third wooded ranges, available for pasturage, and the remainder scrub and rock. The experience of the last few years has proved that the scrub land is by far the richest portion of the colony, as all the rich mines have been discovered in such.

The sea line of this Colony is estimated at about

1500 miles, and is throughout its whole length indented with numerous deep and extensive bays, which though as yet but imperfectly known are supposed to be with few exceptions the resort of whales in some seasons.

About the centre of the sea range of coast two immense inland seas or gulfs indent the coast. Spencer's Gulf on the west, and St. Vincent's on the east, the two being separated by a long and narrow neck of land, called York's Peninsula. Immediately in front and lying across the entrance of St. Vincent's Gulf, is Kangaroo island, a large, but nearly barren tract, containing several safe and commodious harbours.

South Australia, possesses much picturesque scenery on either side of its continuous ranges of high land, the loftiest elevation of which not exceeding 3000 feet. The Mount Lofty Range stretches from Cape Jervis along the east shore of Gulf St. Vincent to the northward for about forty miles. The more western branch of the chain, sometimes called Flinders' Range, follows the eastern side of Spencer's Gulf; thence runs nearly parallel with the inner shore of Lake Torrens for a considerable distance, its most northerly extremity being Mount Hopeless.

The heights termed the Barossa Range, about thirty miles to the north-east of Adelaide, form an undulating hilly country, lightly wooded, comprising several rich and picturesque valleys.

There are but few streams in the limits of South Australia deserving the name of rivers; most of them being for the greater part of the year little else than chains of ponds. Their channels are, however, of considerable depth; and though frequently almost dry in the hot season, a mighty flood rushes along during the winter. The Province is not, however, deficient in its supply of water; for even after the streams have ceased running, abundance remain in the pools, many of which appear to be supplied by springs.

There is one striking exception to the foregoing in the river Murray, which has been before named as united with the Murrumbidgee of New South Wales. This noble river has recently been navigated by steamboats a distance of 1200 miles from its entrance at the Lake Alexandrina.

The other streams at present known in South Australia are the Inman, Hindmarsh, Sturt, Torrens, Gawler, Hutt, Bremer, and the Angus; also a few others falling into or running towards Gulf St. Vincent.

The Lakes of South Australia are few in number: the most important is Lake Alexandrina at the eastern extremity of Encounter Bay. This lake is estimated at from 50 to 60 miles in length, and from 30 to 40 in breadth.

At the head of Spencer's Gulf is another lake called Lake Torrens, said to extend, in the shape of a horse-shoe, over a circuit of at least 400 miles.

The extent of this lake has not, however, been as yet accurately defined.

Of the harbours of South Australia, the only one of importance is that of Port Adelaide, which is situate on the eastern shore of Gulf St. Vincent in 34° 51′ south lat. 138° 34′ east longitude. There are two entrances from seaward ; the northern is shallow, the southern contains deep water for about ten miles above the bar, at which there is a light-ship ; steam-tugs are employed to take vessels up to the anchorage near the wharfs, abreast which four or five ships of 600 or 700 tons can lay and discharge their cargoes.

There are several smaller bays and harbours, but not any of them of importance.

The principal located districts of the Colony, which has been divided into eight counties, are situated between St. Vincent's Gulf and the Murray, on the east and west, and between Broughton River and Encounter Bay on the north and south.

CHAPTER III.

Climate and Seasons—Temperature and prevailing Winds—General Healthiness of Australia—Forest Trees—Plants—Productiveness of the Soil—Vegetables and Fruits—Animals, Birds, Fish, and Insects—Minerals—Precious Stones—The Aborigines.

The climate of Australia is generally most congenial to Europeans. A greater proof of which cannot be adduced than the fact, that during the expeditions of Mitchell, Sturt, Eyre, Leichhardt, and other explorers, they lived for months without any other canopy than the clear blue sky so peculiar to Australia; and notwithstanding scanty and innutritious or saline food, they enjoyed wonderfully good health, such as they could not possibly have maintained under similar circumstances in any other part of the world. The position of Victoria, lying more south than any other portion of Australia, gives it a rather cooler climate than either New South Wales or South Australia. Yet the general description of the climate here given is applicable, with but slight variations, to each of the settlements. Fires are agreeable in the mornings and evenings for six months of the year. The changes of temperature are, however, very rapid; whilst the hot winds which

blow annually are of brief duration. These commence generally about the middle or end of November, and recur at intervals throughout the summer until towards the end of February. The average temperature of spring is 65° 5′, of summer 72°, of autumn 66°, and of winter 55°. At times, however, the thermometer frequently rises to 110°, and sometimes even higher, previous to the setting in of the hot winds. During the summer months a regular sea breeze sets in daily, the south wind being cool. The hot winds are invariably from the north. The westerly wind is considered the most unhealthy, and the easterly the most salubrious.

There are no endemic diseases, fevers, or agues. The dry, warm, and elastic atmosphere is, besides, peculiarly favourable to asthmatic and pulmonary complaints. It is true that the summer months are hot, and occasionally for a few days are aggravated by the prevalence of the "hot winds," which are accompanied by clouds of dust. Although the day may be very hot in the summer, the sun once sunk below the horizon a considerable change takes place in the temperature of the atmosphere. The brilliancy of the Australian sky cannot be described: it must be seen to be appreciated; the sky is almost always serene; when it rains it is overcast, but there are none of those gloomy days, with a thick murky atmosphere so common in this country. An absence of frost and snow does not however constitute an

absence of cold during the winter; as before sunrise on a sharp July morning, your fingers out of doors would soon be benumbed with cold.

Count Strzelecki, in his work on the Climate of New South Wales, says, "As to the colonial temperature, which comprehends so many different climatic effects and agencies, the reader cannot but be struck with the range and favourable thermometrical condition in which every locality, illustrated under the head of temperature, is found to be placed, when compared to other localities on the globe."

"Port Macquarie (lat. 31° 23′ south), in that comparison, is seen to possess the summer of Florence, Barcelona, Rome, or Naples. The winter of Funchal, or Benares, and a thermometrical fluctuation similar to that of Dublin; by its annual mean it may be classed with the climate of Tunis."

Port Jackson, again, is by a similar comparison found to have the summer of Constantinople, Baltimore, or Philadelphia.

Port Phillip resembles, in its summer season, Marseilles and Bordeaux; in its winter, Palermo, or Buenos Ayres.

"But what mainly illustrates the fertility and salubrity of these countries, is the healthiness of the English settlers who have taken root in the soil. No endemic disease, and seldom any epidemic of a grave character, prevails; and if individual indisposition, or even partial deterioration of the pro-

geny, is sometimes seen, it is to be traced to the pertinacity with which the English race cling to their original modes of living wherever they settle, and however different their adopted may be to their native climate."

The seasons are the opposite of those in England. The autumn months are March, April, and May; the winter June, July, and August; and the summer December, January, and February. March, April, and August, are generally considered the rainy months. The longest day in December is about fourteen hours, and the shortest in June about ten hours. As Australia is the land of contraries, it may be observed that the north breeze is the hot wind, and the south the cool, the westerly the most unhealthy, and the east the most salubrious; it is summer with the colonists when it is winter at home, and the barometer is considered to *rise before bad* weather, and to fall before fine.

Vegetable Productions.—The greatest portion of the mass of vegetation in Australia belongs to the natural orders of *Proteaceæ, Epacridæ, Myrtacea, Leguminosæ*, and *Compositæ;* but the most common genera in Australia are the Eucalyptus and Acacia, which, if taken together, nearly equal all the other plants of the country. Of the former above 100 species have been discovered, most of them trees remarkable either for their vast height or enormous dimensions; the *Eucalyptus Globulus* having been

observed to attain a height of 150 feet, with a girth near the base of 25 to 40 feet. Of the *Acacias* nearly 100 of the *leafless* species have been observed.

The *Epacridæ*, with its allied genera, are almost as numerous, and hold the same rank in Australia as the *Erica* or heaths do at the Cape of Good Hope. The *Orchideæ* are in great variety, highly curious in the intertropical parts of the country. Of Palms only six species have been discovered; of the genus Casuarina, 13 Australian species have been discovered. The Conifereæ are few in number but very fine, in particular the celebrated Norfolk Island Pine, occupies an extent of 900 miles of the coast of Australia.

Among the *Aspodeleæ*, the genus Xanthorrhea is the most remarkable: all the species yield a gum. This tree attains the size of a walnut tree, growing pretty straight for 14 or 16 feet, after which it branches out in long spiral leaves, which hang down on all sides, resembling those of the larger kinds of grass or sedge: from the centre of the leaves springs a foot-stalk 20 feet long, resembling the sugar cane, and terminating in a spiral spike not unlike an ear of wheat. This stem is used by the natives for spears, the end being hardened by fire. The tree yields a fragrant-scented yellow resin, which has been found extremely balsamic.

The Red Cedar of Australia is a valuable timber, the finer specimens of which are equal in richness

and beauty to any mahogany. It is found on the alluvial land along all the rivers of the island.

Iron-bark.—This tree grows plentifully in the forest, and is suitable for house or ship-building.

Blue-gum is a valuable hardwood timber, and well adapted for carpentry work.

Box is well suited for the manufacture of agricultural implements.

Forest-oak is suitable for tool-handles, bullock-yokes, &c.

Some of the Eucalypti attain a great size, and run up like solid columns, for sixty feet without a limb. Trees for timber purposes are usual about twelve feet in circumference. Many flowering shrubs are to be found in the woods, and a great variety of everlasting flowers. There are the castor-oil plant, the wild indigo, and the native currant and raspberry trees. The mimosa—although it sadly chokes the country—when in flower, fills the air with fragrance. Its bark is much used for tanning purposes; and the gum that exudes from the stem is of some value as an export. In the scrubs is found a tree commonly called "the nettle tree." It is often thirty feet in height, and has a large, broad, and green leaf; and the pain caused by touching the leaf is said to be worse than that occasioned by the sting of a wasp.

Most of the foregoing trees rise to an astonishing height; there are vast forests with scarcely a tree that is not from 50 to 80 feet in height without a

branch, while the entire elevations of a forest is seldom less than 120 feet.

Of the productiveness of the Australian soils there cannot be a doubt. Many farms have been annually cropped for twenty years without manuring. The eucalypti trees, by shedding their bark, annually furnish an ample supply of alkalies to the soil.

Nearly every vegetable and fruit found in England, as well as those of the tropics, grow most luxuriantly in various parts of Australia.

Australia possesses no large animals, and few varieties. Two-thirds of the Australian quadrupeds make their way by springing in the air. The principal of these are the kangaroo, of which there are several varieties—from the kangaroo rat, to the "*Forester*" —which stands from four to five feet high. The female, in common with other quadrupeds of this country, has a pouch in which she carries her young, and within which are the udder and teats. The bound of the kangaroo is prodigious, sometimes twenty paces, and this can be kept up for some time with the fleetest greyhound. The kangaroo is very timid, except when hard pressed for life, when it will set its back against a tree—boldly await the dogs—and rip them up with its hind claws, or give them a formidable squeeze with its fore-arms until the blood gushes from the hound's nostrils; sometimes the animal will take to the water, and drown every dog that comes near it.

The wallaby seldom weighs more than 30 lbs., but is like the former in appearance. The flesh is much superior in flavour to the others. The kangaroo-rat and kangaroo-mouse are two varieties of the same species; the former is about the size of a rabbit; the latter considerably smaller. They are night animals, sleeping during the day.

The flesh of every description of the kangaroo is wholesome and nutritive, very savory, and easily digested. It has no fat except a small quantity round the tail; this part makes excellent soup, and is highly esteemed in the colony. The skin makes good leather, and in New South Wales forms an article of export. This peculiar animal is, however, fast disappearing before the abodes of civilized man.

The opossum tribe, which is very numerous, and similar to those found in America, usually take up their residence in the hollows of decayed gum trees. They are perfectly harmless and inoffensive, and form a principal part of the animal food of the aborigines.

The native dog is, next to the kangaroo and opossum, the most numerous quadruped, and is the largest carnivorous animal known in Australia. It is something like the Indian jackall, about two feet high, two feet long, with head like a fox, and erect ears, is strongly made, very swift, and has a most dismal howl. It commits serious depredations amongst sheep and poultry.

The bandicoot is about the size of a common rat;

it burrows in the earth, and feeds upon roots. Its flesh is highly esteemed by the natives.

Of domestic animals, the horse, horned cattle, sheep, goats, and swine have been introduced with the greatest success. The climate and pasture are highly adapted to the production of these animals. The horned cattle are in many instances of a gigantic size, and the fleece of the sheep is greatly improved.

Birds are numerous, of great variety, and often of a beautiful plumage. Of these the emu may be justly termed the "ostrich of New Holland." When standing erect, it measures from five to six feet in height; it has no wings, but runs very swiftly, outstripping the fleetest dog, and kicking with such violence as to break a man's leg; it has no feathers, its covering being more like hair. From six to eighteen eggs have been found in the same nest, which are of stronger flavour than those of the ostrich. One portion of the emu is good eating, the flesh being like beef; but it has a large quantity of fat, which is very oily. The emu, like the kangaroo, is also fast disappearing.

The gigantic crane, a most stately bird, about six feet high, is seen on the borders of rivers, or lakes, where also the black swan is to be found.

The bustard, or native turkey, weighing from 16 to 18 lbs., is good eating. Eagles and hawks are everywhere to be met with—some white and very large, measuring nine feet from wing to wing.

There are about thirty varieties of the pigeon, among which is the crested bronze-winged.

The parrot and cockatoo are very abundant; some are of a milk-white, others black, richly variegated on the tail with red, and with superb crests. There are also numerous birds whose ornithological characters are not yet fixed. The doves, for variety and plumage, are unequalled in any part of the world. The spur-winged plover frequents the open parts of the country, and is remarkable for having a large spur upon the shoulder of each wing, with which it fights desperately. Of pheasants there are two kinds, and of magpies three. The carrion crow and swallow are everywhere found. Among the feathered tribes must be noticed a butcher-bird, called the "laughing jackass," so termed from its note resembling the coarse and boisterous laugh of a man, but louder and more dissonant. Snipes, quails, king-fishers, and coots are abundant. There are also a few *insectivorous* and numerous *suctorial* birds, and a few small finches of Indian genera.

The aquatic tribes are nearly similar to those found in other countries, such as the pelican, penguin, goose, duck, teal, widgeon, frigate-bird, noddy, petrel, gull, and other ocean birds.

The inlets, bays, and waters along the coast of Australia abound with fish, but are not so plentiful in the rivers, especially in those on the east side of the Blue Mountains, owing to the rapidity of their

currents. The cod-fish is taken in the fresh-water rivers to the westward and southward of the Blue Mountains in great quantities, and of a large size, of which the Murray cod, weighing sometimes 70 lbs., is not only the largest but the best. The mallaway, a species of cod, furnishes useful isinglass and good oil. The cod-fish of these rivers are delicious eating, as are also the eels, which are caught of the weight of 12 lbs. to 20 lbs. Perch, covered with scales and prickly fins, abound in the eastern coast rivers, and in flavour and delicacy bear an analogy to the sole. There are also the mackerel, mullet, snapper, and many varieties of other fish with which the markets are well supplied. The whale frequently come into the bays to calve; and the seal is found in different coves, especially to the southward.

The shells of the Southern ocean are highly prized, in particular the family of the *volutes;* of these the snow-spot volute, the cymbiola magnifica, the lineated volute, are extremely valuable. Fresh water muscles and shrimps are obtained in great numbers. The oysters round the Australian shores are extremely plentiful, and though generally small, of a delicate flavour.

Insects are very numerous, and of every variety, and afford a wide and entertaining field for the naturalist, many of them being extremely beautiful and curious. Locusts are common in some parts of Australia. Mosquitoes are disappearing from the

town. Flies are very abundant and troublesome, one species in particular, called the *blow-fly*, taints and putrifies any thing it touches. Fleas are also very troublesome. Butterflies are neither plentiful nor beautiful. There are three kinds of bees, and all are without stings: they form their hives in the hollows of trees and rocks, and produce a great deal of delicious wild honey. English bees, which have of late years been introduced, multiply fast. Of ants there several varieties; the "gigantic" ants are nearly one inch in length. Spiders are very large in general. Caterpillars, at times (at intervals of several years) swarm in incredible numbers, blighting the finest wheat-fields in a few hours.

The reptile tribe is not very numerous. There are guanos and lizards of various kinds. Of snakes there are several varieties, a few of which are poisonous. The diamond snake reaches 12 to 15 feet in length, but is not poisonous. Scorpions, centipedes, and tarantulas are also met with; but the sting of the former, and the bite of the two last, although painful, are seldom known to prove fatal.

Australia abounds with mineralogical treasures—gold, copper, coal, tin, iron, and lead have been discovered. Many years since Sir Roderick Murchison, the eminent geologist, predicted that gold would be extensively found in Australia; but it was not till the eventful year 1851 that the existence of gold became a matter of fact, and it now appears that the whole

country from South Australia to the East coast of New South Wales, along the great mountain range, may be termed auriferous.

Copper ore, of rich quality, is found in great abundance in South Australia, and also in New South Wales. In South Australia there are about 35 mines, of which about one-half are working. Most of these are copper, some copper and lead; five lead and silver-lead, and one copper and gold. These mines are all within 100 miles of Adelaide, except two which are close to available harbours.

In New South Wales there are beds of copper ore, in the district of Wellington, supposed to extend for miles in every direction. There is a rich vein of copper also at Bathurst. Coal exists in several districts of New South Wales, but especially in the country south of Hunter's river, which is an extensive coal-field. Coal is also abundant at Newcastle, and the beds of coal and iron may be seen along the banks of the Paramatta river, and in other places. Coal abounds in the vicinity of the burning Mount Wingan, and near the Kingdom chain of ponds also at Moreton Bay. Coal has also very recently been found in Victoria, between Port Phillip and Western Port.

Precious stones have been found in each of the colonies, though not at present of any marketable value. Amongst these are the ruby, sapphire, and amethyst.

The aboriginal population of Australia possess the thick prominent lips, sunken eyes, high cheek bones, and calveless legs of the African, differing however in the hair which is long and coarse. The colour of the skin and hair is in general black; but some tribes have been seen of a lighter colour, approaching that of a Malay, with hair of a reddish cast. They are, in general, of the middle stature; the women being small and well made, the hands and feet small, the shoulders finely rounded, but the abdomen frequently protuberant, and the arms long. As is the case with all savages, the head is the principal part for decoration; some divide the hair into small parcels, each of which is matted together with gum, and formed into lengths like the thrums of a mop; others, by means of yellow gum, fasten on to their heads the front teeth of a kangaroo, the jaw-bones of a fish, human teeth, feathers, tails of dogs, &c. Oil is used for preserving the skin from mosquitoes, &c. Most tribes have, in the males, a front tooth struck out; and the women are frequently observed with a joint of the little finger cut off. In general, it may be said, that the whole of the aborigines of this vast island are of the same stock, though it is singular that their language differs so much that tribes within short distances of each other, unless inhabiting the bank of the same river, are quite strangers to each other, while almost every large community, or family, as they may be termed,

have their own peculiar dialect. Of their numbers it is difficult to form any idea; depending, however, as they do, entirely on the chase or fishing, or on gums, grubs, or bulbous roots, and subject to the effects of long droughts, the country is very thinly peopled. The natives have no settled place of abode, and consequently no fixed habitation. When the family, either from vicinity to the grubs, or other strong inducements, determine to settle for a time upon a particular spot, they pull down some branches of trees and construct a few huts, about four feet high, and in form of a bee-hive cut in half; they are thus quite open on one side, and at night they keep a large fire. The nearest approximation to ingenuity is the fishing-net, prepared by the women from fibres, or grassy filaments. Their only cutting implements are made of stone, sometimes of jasper, fastened between a cleft stick with a hard gum. Their arms of offence or defence are simple and few in number. Their spear and throwing-stick, boomerang, several kinds of waddies, a small stone tomahawk, and a small ill-formed shield made of bark, are their only warlike implements.

The spear is about ten feet long, as thick as the finger, tapering to a point, sometimes jagged or barbed, and hardened in the fire; this they can throw from 50 to 60 feet with great precision, the impetus being greatly increased by the use of the *womera,* or throwing-stick, which acts somewhat on

the principle of the sling, enabling a powerful man to send the spear—some say—to the distance of 100 yards. The boomerang is a curious weapon—it is of a crooked form, made of a piece of hard wood, 30 to 40 inches in length, 2½ to 3 inches wide at the broadest part, and tapering away at each end nearly to a point. The concave part is from one-eighth to one-fourth of an inch thick, and the convex quite sharp: a native can throw this simple instrument 30 to 50 yards, *horizontally* skimming along the surface, not more than 3 or 4 feet from the ground, without touching which it will suddenly dart into the air to the height of 50 or 60 yards, describing a considerable curve, and finally fall at his feet! During the whole of this evolution the *boomerang* keeps turning with rapidity, like a piece of wood revolving in a pivot, and with a whizzing noise.

The waddies are clubs of different size and solidity; the tomahawk is a piece of sharpened stone, frequently quartz, fixed in a cleft stick with gum: with this they cut notches in the trees, and ascend them to the height of 60 feet, though without a branch, and far too thick to be grasped.

Of religion—no form, no ceremonial, no idol, has ever been discovered amongst them; but they possess many superstitious habits. They have scarcely any idea of futurity. Europeans are considered reanimated beings who had formerly been their ancestors. The dead are generally buried in graveyards of considerable extent, the earth elevated in an oval shape.

CHAPTER IV.

The Discovery of Australia, with a Sketch of the Rise and Progress of the three Colonies to the end of 1853.

THE magnitude of the interests involved in the progress of the Gold Colonies would seem to impart additional value to any facts bearing upon those settlements, and hence it is thought that the intending emigrant may, in addition to the present, feel a desire to glean some information respecting the past of Australia. With the view, therefore, of satisfying this wish, the following condensed summary of the discovery and settlement of the principal Australian Provinces is laid before the reader.

It was undoubtedly the Portuguese, who, under the command of Vasco de Gama, first opened the way to the East; and there is reason to believe they had visited some part of the Australian continent early in the sixteenth century. But the first authenticated discovery of Australia was made by the Dutch in 1605-6, from which period until 1627 several Dutch ships fell in with various parts of this continent, but nothing certain was known until 1644, when the Dutch Government despatched Captain

Abel Jans Tasman, who had previously discovered the west side of New Zealand, with instructions that after passing the land of Arnhem, he should "follow the coast further, as it may run westward or southward, endeavouring by all means to proceed, that we may be sure whether this land is divided from the *Great known South Land* or not." From this expression it is evident that the Dutch had acquired a knowledge of some part of the *Terra Austral*, to which they about this time gave the name of New Holland.

In 1663 Thevenot published his chart of the West Coast of the *Great South Land.*

In 1669 Dampier was sent in H. M. S. *Roebuck*, on a voyage of discovery, and visited the west and north-west coasts; after which, several commanders, English and Dutch, discovered other parts of this great continent; and in 1769 the celebrated Captain Cook, then on a voyage of discovery, made the coast of New Holland, and, to use his own words, "surveyed the east coast of that vast country which had not before been visited, and passed between its northern extremity and New Guinea," thus demonstrating beyond a doubt the fact of New Holland being an island, which was not, however, actually proved until after the formation of the British penal settlement at Port Jackson (Sydney) in 1788, when Mr. Bass, surgeon of H. M. S. *Reliance*, and Lieut. (afterwards Captain) Flinders, in a little boat called

the *Tom Thumb*, eight feet long, aided only by a boy, commenced a survey of the coast (1798), and explored the southern shores for 600 miles. He entered what Furneaux considered a "deep bay," and became satisfied that there was a strait separating Van Diemen's Land from New Holland; this is now known as Bass's Strait.

In 1802, Capt. Baudin, of the French navy, and Capt. Flinders, met in Spencer's Gulf, each being employed in a survey of New Holland. The gradual progress of Australian discovery from this period is better detailed under the heads of the respective colonies or settlements.

The first detachment of convicts and soldiers, under the command of Capt. Arthur Phillip, landed at Port Jackson on the 26th January, 1788, and on its shores laid the foundation of the present flourishing city of Sydney. The progress of the new settlement, although retarded by mismanagement and many mischances, was on the whole more rapid than under the circumstances, might have been expected.

So early as the year 1795 printing-presses were in use for printing the Government orders, and eight years later the first Australian newspaper made its appearance, with the sanction of the authorities, under the title of the "Sydney Gazette and New South Wales Advertiser."

In 1802 the foundation of the first brick church

was laid, and in 1803 the first Australian ship was built in Sydney Cove.

The colony had not long been established when explorations were made into the interior in several directions, by which means some idea was arrived at of the vast extent of pasturage of excellent quality. The banks of the Hawkesbury, richly clad with verdure, first attracted attention, and gave promise of the rich fertility which has ever since been their characteristic.

In the year 1810, Governor Macquarie made a tour of inspection through the interior, penetrating farther than any settler had yet gone. He went up the river which now bears his name across the Blue Mountains to the Plains below, and selected the site for a new town, now known far and wide as the capital of the gold country of that colony, Bathurst. Up to 1821, about 400,000 acres of land had been disposed of by Government to private parties by sale or free grants, the greater part by the latter mode.

The penal settlement of Moreton Bay was founded in 1824, and an overland journey undertaken to Port Phillip, at that time an uninhabited wild. In 1829, the first Legislative Council was established according to Royal Charter, and in that year, Trial by Jury took place. Two years later the first steamboat was launched, and the first Australian College established. At this period also, free grants of Crown land were abolished and replaced by public sales at an uniform

upset price of five shillings the acre. With this began the Colonial Land Fund, one of the first fruits of which was the importation of free emigrants as labourers at the cost of the fund.

With this period a new industrial and social era broke upon New South Wales. The breeding of sheep was becoming a pursuit of some value and extent, and already the Australian Wools were becoming known in England. Agriculture went rapidly ahead with the stimulus gained from the accession of free labour, whilst on every side new towns were springing up, and the older towns were assuming a more solid and architectural character. It would be difficult and almost impossible to follow the growth of New South Wales from this period until the present time with anything approaching to detail. It must suffice to tell that with the growth of the wealth and numbers of the colonists, free institutions were given, though not without some struggles.

The deliberations of the Legislative Council were thrown open to the public in 1838. Two years later transportation ceased, and it was found in 1841 that the population amounted to 87,200 males, and 43,500 females. The year 1842 was a disastrous period for the colony; not less than six hundred persons took the benefit of the Insolvent Act, and the whole community was on the verge of bankruptcy. In the year following, representative institutions were established in New South Wales, and the first popularly

elected members took their seats in the Legislative Council.

The opening of the Tallow trade, the exportation of horses to India and the Eastern colonies, the settlement of the land regulations, the extension of the representative institutions of the colony, and the generally improved prospects of agriculturists and traders, materially influenced the progress of New South Wales during the next seven years. The crowning event of all these was that of the discovery of gold in the early part of 1851, the treating of which belongs to another chapter. It will suffice here to remark that this promising colony has now a population of fully 120,000 males, and 85,000 females, and that its exports exceed seven millions sterling per annum.

South Australia was first regularly arranged and laid down on our maps so long since as 1802, but from that time until the year 1829 no notice seems to have been taken of it. Captain Sturt at that period visited it by an overland journey from New South Wales, and explored much more of it than had been hitherto known.

In the early part of 1836 the colony of South Australia was founded upon what were termed the self-supporting principles, as laid down by Mr. E. G. Wakefield. In the month of December of that year the first governor of the new colony, Captain Hindmarsh arrived and proceeded with the settlement of

the city of Adelaide and the details of his government. For some time all went well: the first allotments of land in town and country commanded enormous prices, so much so that the whole attention of the settlers appeared directed to land-jobbing, while agricultural and farming pursuits were utterly neglected.

So long as the money of the colonists lasted, and whilst the Governor was able to draw supplies for the support of the local establishments from the Home Government it mattered not. But confusion soon followed. A new governor was sent out in 1838 to be recalled three years later. Without internal resources the entire community found itself dependent upon others for the means of support. Provisions rose to a famine price: land fell to ruinous rates, and beggary stared them in the face. The Governor's bills on the home treasury were dishonoured, and Adelaide became insolvent. This was in 1841. At this date there were but 3000 acres under cultivation, the population being 15,000. But compelled at length to turn their attention to agriculture and sheep, there were two years later nearly 30,000 acres in hand under various grain crops, besides about 400,000 sheep, and 30,000 cattle in the colony.

Matters then began to take a turn. Trade rallied, and a little wool began to be exported, when at the very right time the existence of valuable and extensive copper mines on the Kapunda and Burra-Burra

ranges of hills turned the tide of fortune rapidly and permanently in favour of South Australia. The enormous productiveness of these mines very soon told upon the industry of the colony, and from that period prosperity has shone upon it, and made this one of the most promising settlements in Australia.

In 1850, the population amounted to 56,900 British and 7000 German settlers. The sheep numbered 1,200,000, cattle 100,000; whilst 64,728 acres were under culture chiefly with wheat and hay. The exports of the colony amounted to £453,688, and the imports to £887,423. Of the shipments to this country, £211,361 were in copper ore, and £113,259 in wool.

The extraordinary discoveries of gold in the neighbouring province of Victoria produced a second crisis in the affairs of South Australia. The rush of the greater part of the working population to the diggings not only threw the industrial resources of the colony into a state of absolute stagnation, but abstracted all the vital means of self support. Business was at a stand still, shops were closed, and the Government was for the moment powerless. But, fortunately, the resident manager of the South Australian Bank conceived a project by which ruin might be averted and prosperity restored. This was to pass a Bullion Act, declaring that gold when assayed by the Government authorities and stamped as of a certain purity and weight should pass

current in place of coin. An assay office was established; a road was opened overland to the Victoria diggings, and a gold escort formed, by means of which the Adelaide diggers were enabled to remit their earnings to the colony, which being assayed and stamped, at once passed current. Business once more flowed into its wonted channels; the banks found employment, and although the gold did not bring back the labour that was so much needed, it enabled the settlers to despatch larger supplies of provisions and other articles for the Melbourne and Geelong markets, in exchange for their gold. Agricultural and farm produce, which before threatened to be left on their hands valueless, became at once profitable investments, and this very soon produced its effect more generally. The value of landed and house property recovered to above their former position. Application for land poured in upon the Government, who sold as fast as they could complete their surveys, and the final result appears to be that South Australia will henceforth be the "Garden of Australia," whence the inhabitants of Victoria will draw their chief supplies of agricultural produce.

Of still greater importance than the event just narrated has been the recent opening up of the river Murray by Captain Cadell in a steam-boat built for the purpose. The effect of this will be to render a vast tract of fertile, but hitherto inaccessible country, available to settlers, who, finding a means of trans-

porting farm produce from a distance of 1300 miles to the sea-mouth of the river, will no longer hesitate about cultivating that fine tract of country.

Some idea may be formed of the great extent of country in South Australia alone, which will be benefited by the navigation of the Murray, when it is stated that there are, on a moderate computation, 2400 square miles, or 1,340,000 acres on the banks of this river within the South Australian boundary, the greater portion of which might be turned into fine agricultural land. The sales of crown lands in South Australia from January 1st to the end of November, 1853, amounted to 190,362 acres, realising £262,522, 9*s*. The official returns up to July of last year, show that whilst 895,553 acres of land had been disposed of in the colony since its settlement, there still remained 199,084,234 acres, of which 226,048 were surveyed and open to sale.

The copper mines, which had been thrown back by the flight of labour to the gold fields, are once more in operation, and giving promise of being more prolific than ever. The Burra-Burra mines have yielded 90,000 tons of ore since their first working, some years since.

Although first settled at about the same period as South Australia, the colony of Port Phillip, now known as Victoria, did not attract any great attention, until the discovery of gold in New South Wales led to similar results on a much more extensive scale

in that province. Owing its first development to the sheep-farmers of Van Diemen's Land, who passed the Straits and located on the fertile, grassy plains of Port Phillip, it was soon visited by hundreds of Tasmanians and New South Wales graziers, with their flocks and herds. In 1837, the site of Melbourne, the capital, was fixed, and wooden houses and stick huts rapidly rose on all sides.

Two years later, a Superintendant of the Port Phillip district, with a staff of assistants and magistrates, was appointed, but still forming a part of the Sydney executive, and receiving all their powers from the Governor of New South Wales. In 1841, this colony acquired a separate existence as regards its finance, land funds, representation, &c., but in other respects was still a dependency of the elder province, and it was not until 1852 that it was incorporated as a distinct colony, under the title of Victoria.

The discovery of gold in New South Wales induced many to go in search of the precious metal amongst the elevated ranges of Port Phillip, especially as tales were afloat of gold having been offered for sale by a shepherd a few years previously. The result was the opening of the Clunes and Ballarat gold fields, and subsequently of those at Mount Alexander, and other places. The influx of population, goods, and capital, consequent on this fresh discovery, has placed Victoria in a far more prosperous condition than any of the adjoining colonies.

The population at the close of 1851 was 95,000, at the end of 1852 it had risen to 200,000, and in May, 1853 to 230,000. At the present date we may assume the total population of the colony to be 250,000. In spite of this, however, there is still an increasing demand for labour, and useful hands are sure of finding immediate employment at high wages.

The customs returns for the nine months ending with October, shewed the total imports to have amounted to £11,557,067, of which £9,018,396, were from Great Britain, and £2,538,671 from other ports. The total exports during the same period were of the value of £9,560,851.

Town lots of land realise £8000 an acre, and rents are high in proportion, ranging from £300 a year for cottages to £2000 for banking premises.

CHAPTER V.

Stock-farming—Agreeables and Disagreeables of this pursuit—Bush life and Bush Roads—Best mode of proceeding for beginners—Cattle-branding, a scene—Horses—Money easily lost by Cattle—Instances of successful Farming—The Australian Tallow Trade.

In laying down some general rules for the guidance of those emigrants, who may be thinking of turning their attention to the rearing of cattle in Australia, we would here mention that the following observations will apply with equal force to either of the three colonies under notice, with but trifling modifications as to distance of cattle-runs from the towns, and local regulations in regard to renting of open lands.

To a recent date the rearing of cattle has been mainly confined to New South Wales and Victoria, but this is no longer the case, as the occupation is becoming an important one in the neighbouring colony of South Australia. There is one advantage in this pursuit over that of sheep-farming, which is that it may be commenced on a much smaller capital with equal chance of success. For the latter, less than £500 would scarcely suffice, whereas £250 may with judgment be made to do for a store in the stock line. These are, however, the lowest sums that it

would be prudent to make a beginning with; and it must also be borne in mind that if not more than £200 or £300 can be invested in cattle, bush-house, outfit, &c., the proprietor must be content to be his own stockman. The pay and rations of a hired overseer would quite absorb all the profits of so small an undertaking.

For a man of an independent turn, of active persevering habits, contented disposition, and not wedded to home things and home fashions, there can scarcely be a more pleasing and healthful occupation than that of an Australian stock-keeper. Located in a country the most favourable for such a mode of life, with a fine climate, no contagious disorders, no dangerous reptiles or destructive wild animals beyond the native dog, with a daily occupation, monotonous as it may appear, ever presenting some new feature of interest, the bush farmer may lead a pleasant existence, free from the annoyances of European life. A horse is a necessity to the stock-keeper, he would find it impossible to attend to his cattle without one, and a good one too, if his herd be numerous. To give your cattle proper attention, you can scarcely keep out of your saddle during the best part of the day for the first year. After that time they will have become thoroughly accustomed to each other, and to the "run," as the allotment rented for grazing is termed in the colonies.

It must not be denied at the same time that there

are disagreeables attending this bush life, though after a time even the worst of these will cease to be considered any hardship at all. In New South Wales most of the cattle-runs are fully four or five hundred miles distant from any settled district, and of course far removed from any society, save that of neighbouring stockmen or shepherds who may occasionally look in upon an out-station man. The monotonous fare, the sameness of daily occupation, varied only by the escape of some of the herd, or by the annual branding of the calves, are no doubt felt for the first twelve months or so, but seldom for longer.

The colonial high-roads leading to the principal towns, are in most cases kept in capital order, but to reach the "bush" the farmer must quit these, and strike off across country in the nearest direction without looking for any beaten track. It is fortunate for the "squatter," as the out-station man is called, that the face of the country is one continued undulating swell of open land, dotted over at irregular intervals with patches of lofty timber trees or knolls of low brushwood, with here and there a ravine, or a gully, or a water-way breaking the facility of the journey. The greater part of the Australian continent presents a series of park-like slopes, varied in the back ground by the noble ranges of hills and mountains which are to be found at some distance from the sea coast, and as in the case of the Blue

Mountains, and the Pyrenees and Alps, reaching a height of several thousand feet above the sea-level.

The ordinary conveyance used in Australia for the transport of goods of every kind is the "dray," a rude but strongly built bullock-waggon, well adapted for traversing the undulating ground. For out-stations, eight or ten bullocks are yoked to it, and the driver in charge always carries a bag of tools, so as to be able at all times to repair any damage that may arise, with the exception of the iron-work, and even in this emergency he will seldom be at a loss for some contrivance.

In nine cases out of ten the newly arrived cattle-rearer will be utterly unacquainted with the calling. Even if he have had any knowledge of cattle at home, he would do well to follow the advice here offered as to first proceedings. One of the most necessary steps to be taken is to acquire a knowledge of bush life, of the ways, habits, diseases, and value of cattle, of the best localities for them, and of the most suitable buildings for the purpose. To acquire all this the "new chum," as a fresh settler is colonially termed, cannot do better than take service as a volunteer stockman for at least one entire season.

At the end of that time a ride for a month or two over the grazing districts will not be thrown away, and then a selection of the "run" from the lands still open to fresh comers may be made. A squatting license may be had sufficient for pasturing 640 head

of cattle for £10, and for every additional 160 head for a further sum of £2 10*s*. One of the greatest essentials for a "run" is a good supply of water, and a central spot adapted for the station or bush-farm.

In the selection of cattle too much care cannot be exercised. It will be always preferable to purchase from some well-established, respectable stock-keeper, rather than at cheap town auctions, where it is common to dispose of wild unmanageable creatures, or cattle that have perhaps strayed away from their proper owners. A writer on this subject speaking from experience says:—

"Cattle soon become wild in this colony if they are not kept together and carefully managed. When a herd has been purchased and brought upon a fresh run (or new pasture) they must be *tailed* for four or six months, that is to say, one or two horsemen must follow them from sunrise to sundown. At sundown they are driven into the stock-yard for the night. After a sufficient time they are allowed to run alone both night and day, but the careful stockman, for the first year or two, musters them daily on what is called the camping ground. The camp is a place generally shaded by trees, and near water, to which the cattle resort during the heat of the day to sleep and chew the cud. Toward evening, as the sun goes off, they feed away in mobs of fifty or one hundred in summer, and in eights or tens in winter. The same cattle choosing their mates, and always keeping together."

"In order to break in cattle effectually, they must be ridden round daily, well flogged and driven in if they are found straying when they ought to be at camp. When this has been regularly practised for two years, you may leave the herd for three or four months without going near them, and very few would be found to have strayed away. I have seen an immense herd all rush into the camp at the crack of the stockman's whip." Having once brought the herd into this state of discipline, they are easily kept so, and of course all the young cattle follow the example of their elders, so that all further trouble on this herd would cease.

There are, however, other methods of making a beginning, should the "new chum" feel as yet indisposed to take the responsibility of bush-life alone. He may for instance make an arrangement with some old established squatter of reputation to herd his cattle for him for a term, taking all the trouble and expense for the consideration of one half or thereabouts of the increase. Sometimes herds are pastured for the equivalent of all the spare milk for the manufacture of butter and cheese, but this is considered objectionable as the calves are apt to be stunted in food. A third plan is for the owner to pay a monthly sum per head to a good careful herdsman having a fine "run," and who for 6*d* or 8*d* a-head will guarantee their safety and good condition.

Once a year the calves are branded, and for this

purpose the whole herd is driven into the stockyard of the station. This is an important and exciting time, and as it involves some labour and fatigue, it is usual for neighbours to join forces and help each other. At these times there will be great gatherings, and as most herdsmen are admirable riders, and there are always a number of the cattle more or less averse to leave their accustomed grazing-grounds for the yard, a good deal of sport is certain to attend the proceedings.

A scene so entirely new to dwellers in the old country and yet of such frequent occurrence in the Australian Colonies is worthy a passing notice in this place, and we cannot describe it better than in the life-like language of "Sidney" the Bush author:—

"At daybreak," says our authority, "after a most substantial breakfast, the horses being got up and saddled, the whole party, often twenty or thirty horsemen, and about one hundred dogs, start into the bush. All the cattle they can find are driven into the camping ground by 12 o'clock. In a good season (if the herd is quiet), when feed is plentiful, every head will be swept off the run by that hour; but when cattle are wild and grass scarce, they must be got in by degrees, some of the party tailing them all the time, and this will occasionally occupy weeks."

"All the cattle being on the camp, the tug of war commences. They resist being driven into the yard, knowing, by experience, how they are knocked about

when they get there. The horsemen ride at them with their formidable stockwhips, the dogs bite their heels and hang on to their tails, and what with the bellowing, barking, holloing and swearing, the riot may be heard miles off by any stray traveller riding over the silent plains and through the open forests. Every now and then a beast or calf bursts out of the herd and tries to head back to the bush. One or two horsemen are after them as quick as thought; their dogs follow. Many bullocks are so quick in this country that if they get a little start it will take a good horseman to overtake them. The men ride like madmen, taking the fallen logs and great creeks in the ground in their stride; their hats off, hanging by the string on their backs; their long hair and beards strewn on their shoulders, mixed with the gaudy fluttering handkerchiefs in which a stockman delights.

"As soon as the beast is pressed, he doubles sharp like a hare, but a good stockman and a good stockhorse doubles just as quick, round like a top. Some horses seem to spin at will on their hind or fore legs, like the loose leg of a compass round the fixed one. Crack goes the horseman's whip, as loud as a pocket pistol, drawing blood at every stroke. The beast doubles and doubles again, never turning until the horse is close alongside. Wild cattle will often gore a horse in these encounters. I knew a man who had two horses killed under him in this way by Blackman's cattle, near the Barwen. At last tired out, the

bullock is glad to make the best of his way back to the fold, his hide all covered with foam and blood, his eyes glaring, and his tongue hanging out. Some cattle break out like this fifty times between the camp and the yard, and to see a dozen horsemen after half a score of beasts at best pace is a very lively scene."

Once within the stockyard and the work proceeds more quietly, and at leisure. The sorting, counting, and branding are carried on precisely as they would be in this country.

Horsebreeding is frequently carried on by the same parties, but to do any good in this a considerable capital, and more experience is needed. Thousands of splendid animals are yearly raised in New South Wales both for sale on the spot, and for shipment to India, where from their good breed they often command from £50 to £100 each. The cavalry regiments of the East India Company's army are now mainly supplied from Australia.

There is seldom any scarcity of good useful hacks for bush-life in any part of the country, and such as those quite up to the work, may be brought unbroken at three years old, from £10 to £25, according to the locality.

The colonial mode of breaking in the young horses for bush work is from a good authority: "Drive the herd into the yard, select a promising young colt, throw a noose round his neck, and choke him till he

falls; while he is on the ground fix a cavasson and breaking tackle on him, keep the tackle on him day and night, feeding him in the stockyard with cut reeds or grass, lounge him two or three times a day for three days, then mount him, accompanied by another man on horseback, and ride after cattle; after having had fifty or sixty miles the first day, hobble him out—that is to say, confine his two fore legs with a sort of fetter, which enables him to walk but not trot or gallop. This usage repeated for a fortnight makes him quiet enough for bush use. Bush horses are very like park horses, but they can do what park horses cannot. They can travel and thrive, where park horses would starve and die."

Without due care being exercised in the selection of either cattle or horses, or either good management afterwards, capital to any amount may be lost, as indeed has but too often been the case. On the other hand, numberless cases are on record in all the colonies of ample fortunes being realised, and in the generality of instances, a comfortable competency has been the reward of care and industry, which qualities it may be well to remind the reader are far more valuable in a squatter of any degree, than downright skill.

The Tallow trade is a branch of industry that has sprung up from cattle and sheep farming, within a comparatively recent period, and from a small beginning has grown to large dimensions, the business

giving employment to many extensive boiling-down establishments, and amounting in yearly value to many thousands of pounds sterling.

This business had its origin in the panic and low prices which some ten years since nearly ruined the farming interest of the colonies. Sheep fell from twenty-five shillings each to one and six-pence, and cattle in the like proportion. Men with some means speculated in animals, and having bought more than they could well pasture, determined to slaughter the greater part of their flocks and herds, and boil down their fat for use to the tallow-melters of England. At first the operation was performed in a slovenly and imperfect manner, and the tallow sold for comparatively bad prices. Still the transaction was a paying one: the operation was repeated, and as more care was bestowed upon the boiling and packing, better prices were obtained in the London markets until at length Australian Tallow ranks amongst the best that is brought to this country. Now that more fat animals are being taken for food by the enormously increased population at the various gold fields and in the large towns at high prices, much less tallow is being sent home, which will no doubt continue to be the case until the increase in the herds and flocks of Australia shall extend a-head of the growth of the population.

CHAPTER VI.

Sheep-farming—Capital and experience needed—Shepherding in the Bush—Sheep-runs—Shearing time—Qualities of Wool—Sheep the great *starting* source of Australia's prosperity——Diseases of Sheep—Profits realised by sheep-rearing.

To attempt "Life in the Bush" as a sheep-owner, something more in the way of both capital and experience is needed than in the case of stock-keeping. The management of sheep, whether in health or disease, requires a degree of watchfulness and knowledge not so rapidly attained as in the other case. Neither would an investment of the like amount in flocks answer as in herds. No doubt small beginnings have been made, and with remarkable results, but such have been made by the hands of old practised shepherds, who have gained their experience through years of "Bush life," and by degrees invested their savings in the purchase of sheep, which, until they amounted to a number worth looking after, were "run" with the flocks of a neighbour, or perhaps with those of their own masters.

To the fresh settler, having a moderate capital to invest of from £500 and upwards, we say what has already been addressed to the intending stock-keeper. Let him place his money out at interest, on good

security, for which there are always abundant opportunities; and whilst this is accumulating at the rate of ten per cent, he will be at full liberty to travel or fix himself with some outside squatter for a year or two, and in that way gather the best and most valuable kind of information, the fruits of personal observation and practice. This time will be well spent, and the future sheep farmer will never regret the brief delay. In no other place, and in no other occupation, are the old adages more deserving of observance, which tell us to "look before we leap," and again, "not to run before we can walk."

The same caution already given in regard to the purchase of cattle will hold good as respects purchases of sheep. Sydney or other town auctions of flocks should be looked upon very suspiciously, if not altogether avoided. The best time for purchases is just before shearing, in September, though it may not often be practicable to make bargains at such a period. At any rate it would be well to examine any flock intended for purchase at this time, as any vestiges of scab will then be sure to be visible.

The shepherd's life differs in some essentials from that of the stock-keeper. He is not so much in the saddle, and has not so much ground to go over, and does not lead so exciting a life; on the other hand, far more watchfulness is needed, as sheep are more susceptible of diseases, than cattle, and are besides liable to the attacks of the *Dingoe*, or native dogs,

which, coming upon them at night in large herds, sometimes kill great numbers before their presence is suspected. These things, and the annoyance arising from indifferent servants, often keep a sheep farmer on anything but a bed of roses. Good shepherds and good dogs, the latter of the Scotch colley kind, or the Smithfield breed without a tail, should be secured at almost any price, as without them all the farmer's own fagging and anxiety will go for very little.

A great deal depends upon the settler making a judicious selection for his sheep-run, equally so whatever the extent of it may be. Water is not only needed for the use of the family in domestic ways, but it is most essential to the farmer, as giving him the means of well washing his large flocks of sheep before shearing them—a process the importance of which cannot be too highly estimated, as on the cleanliness and brightness of the wool so much of its marketable value depends. Of not less value than water is a good supply of timber, as repairs of buildings, tools, and waggons, are always being needed.

For shearing purposes, the pools are of running water, and in these the sheep are placed previous to the removal of their wool, and well hand-washed by the proper farm servants; from this they are conducted to the drying paddocks, where they remain for a few days, and then, being taken to the shearing or wool-house, their beautifully white coats are

removed with the utmost expedition, generally without being separated in the fleece. The wool is stored in a separate building, where there are large wooden or iron screw presses for compressing it into a small compact body, in bags holding from 250 to 400 lbs., in which state it is ready to be conveyed to market without any further preparation.

These operations are all necessarily conducted about the dwelling of the farmer, and under his own personal direction. Should the establishment be a large one, as is often the case, the proprietor will be aided by an overseer, and sometimes two, whose duty consists in superintending every kind of work in hand. In the shearing season there is little else going on, but at other times the distance of the flocks from the homestead renders it a laborious task to superintend the condition of the whole.

The huts of the shepherds will be scattered about at uncertain distances, according to the pasturage offering, and at each of these will be a hut-keeper, whose duty it is to take charge of all within the station, prepare the meals, and watch the flocks during the night, whilst folded about the hut.

The flocks in charge of these shepherds will range from a thousand to two thousand, and it is most usual that two such flocks with their shepherds will be located in one hut, having one hut-keeper between them, who will not unfrequently be the wife of one

of them. The Bush life at these places varies but little, with the exception of the shearing season.

The two shepherds, after an early meal, take their departure with their flocks in different directions, varying their road each day so as to come upon fresh grass as often as possible. They proceed very slowly, allowing the sheep to graze on their way, well spread over the ground ; by noon, having proceeded perhaps six miles, they will halt for the day. The shepherd then rests himself beneath the nearest tree, opens his pack-wallet, lights a "bush fire," makes tea, and proceeds to enjoy a "bush dinner" of mutton, damper, and tea; the damper consisting of a kind of plain cake baked on the embers of a wood fire, and peculiar to this part of the world. A rest being thus afforded to both animals and their conductor, the shepherd turns homewards slowly as before, and arying his path from the morning journey, generally reaches the station in good time to see them all olded before nightfall.

So much depends upon the skill and attention of the farmer, that to state any general rate of profit that he may expect is not an easy task. Some men who have entered upon the business with several thousands of pounds, and, as they imagined with a proper knowledge of their work, have lost all they possessed within a few years. These heavy losses, however, have mostly arisen from the introduction of

the scab or influenza amongst their flocks, disorders which cannot be too strictly guarded against. Others again have made rapid fortunes, and many are at this moment thriving from the dearness of provisions of all kinds, and the high prices obtained from tallow and wool, which indeed far more than compensate for the dearness of labour.

A safe calculation made by those who are allowed to be good judges in such matters gives an average annual profit of twenty to thirty-five per cent, without reckoning the gain from increase in the flocks. With regard to the latter point, the increase from breeding good ewes will commonly give more than cent per cent of their number all round; but it may be safely estimated that thirty per cent of this number will be lost in one way or the other, either by dogs, during weaning, &c., so that an annual increase of seventy per cent to reach maturity may, after all, be reckoned on, and a most favourable result it is. No doubt but that, whatever the final destiny of gold digging may be, Australian sheep-farming will ever continue a highly profitable occupation, so long as wool and tallow are needed in this country.

We have in a previous chapter alluded to the terms and conditions on which "runs" may be rented from the Crown. These vary but little in each of the three colonies. Of course a great deal of the success of farming, whether it be agricultural, sheep, or cattle, must depend on the quality and lay of the

land. For sheep more especially this is the case, as a damp soil and rank feed will soon show their effects upon your flocks.

The main source of profit for the sheep-farmer is unquestionably his wool, and this should receive his constant and best attention. Next to a healthy state of the animal is an abundant supply of water, and also expert shearers. Good men of this class are invaluable, and will always command work during the season at excellent wages. They are paid by the hundred, and for washing and shearing usually receive £1 15*s* to £2 5*s* per 100. A skilful hand will have no difficulty in turning out a hundred fleeces a day for a week together. Carelessness in the conditioning of the wool may make a difference of six pence a pound in its selling price, equal to 56*s* the cwt., the cost of cartage, packing and shipping, being alike on good and bad, so that the result of the two qualities will be very different.

With regard to the treatment of disease in sheep, that is a study that had far better be pursued in the colonies than here. The chief characteristics of the scab, the influenza or catarrh, as met with amongst the Australian flocks will be pretty nearly as they are in this country, but local circumstances will considerably modify their treatment. Six months with a good shepherd in the bush will teach all that is needed in this respect. In Victoria, influenza proves very fatal at certain times, whereas in South Aus-

tralia it is scarcely known. But the scab may be looked for in all positions, and must be carefully guarded against.

A proper sheep-farm, calculated for several thousand sheep, should consist as nearly as possible of a superintendent's house and store attached, which will generally cost from £30 to £60. Shepherds' huts as many as needed at £6 or £8 each. A roomy wool-shed, with suitable yards and wool-presses, costing together say £250, or £300 if put up in a good substantial manner, which is generally the cheapest in the long run. Besides these, you require a horse paddock railed in, as also a plot of ground fenced in for the culture of the necessary supply of wheat, maize, oats, hay, potatoes, and other vegetables—this ought to be four rails, and will cost an extra shilling a rod; a barn, £100; corn and horse sheds, £12; a steel mill, £4 10*s* each.

These are about the contract prices, but it is a common way to hire a carpenter, who with a pair of sawyers fells neighbouring trees, and with the assistance of your men, does all these works at wages. Of course, if you understand and can take a turn at such works yourself, it is so much money saved.*

To the emigrating shepherd, or indeed to any who are disposed to take up with the life, Australia offers great and lasting advantages. It really signifies but little what a man may have been previously, so long as he be content with the kind of life that a bush

* Sidney's Handbook.

shepherd leads; if he be willing to undertake the duty, there are scores of farmers who will be only too glad to secure his services as well as those of his wife, as hut keeper, if he be fortunate enough to possess one, for in that country a wife and family so far from proving burthens, are in reality comforts and supports.

That we are dealing with facts in stating this, may be learnt by quoting the words of one who spoke from his own experience of these matters, (G. B. Wilkinson.) This Australian writer says:—

"Within ten miles of the place where I lived, I remember, as shepherds, one apothecary; one lawyer's clerk; one counting house clerk; three sailors; one tailor; one Jew; one Portuguese sailor; one native of Ceylon; one Australian black; one barman; one gentleman's son, brought up to no business; one New Zealand merchant, who had been burnt out; and a second Portuguese who could not understand a word of English; one person, late a Lieutenant in the Hon. East India Company's Service; and one gypsy. These parties were all either shepherding, or hut-keeping, and the gentleman's son, the Jew, and the barman, made the best shepherds of the lot. A few miles farther off, at a friend's station, there were a black fiddler and a dancing-master. A large sheep owner told me, that he would sooner take a sailor who hardly knew the head from the stern of a sheep, or a clerk who had been in an office all his

life, than an English bred shepherd. The one class, he said, would obey orders, and be afraid of losing the sheep; the other always thought they knew better than their master."

This being the case, the reader will at once perceive how large a scope there is for emigration to the sheep-farms of our Australian colonies. The wages paid in New South Wales at the date of the latest advices (Feb. 11th), were to married couples, for shepherds and hut-keepers, £55 to £65; do., do., with young families, £50; shepherds, with rations, per annum, £35 to £40; old shepherds, £40 to £45; hutkeepers, per annum, with rations, £30 to £35; general farm servants, with rations, 35*s* per week; shearers, 45*s* per hundred, and rations; sheep washers, 30*s* per hundred; ploughmen, 35*s* per week; bullock drivers, with rations, 60*s* to 70*s* per week, on the road; horse-teams, 40*s* to 50*s*. Higher rates are quoted in some of the New South Wales papers, but the above may be depended on as safe figures, and such as are likely to be maintained for a long time to come.

The value of labour in the Victoria markets, is equally high with the above, and in steady active demand. According to the advices to hand by the "*Marco Polo*," the following were the rates then being paid at Melbourne:—Married couples, without family, per annum, with rations, £80 to £110; ditto with family, £70 to £75; married couples, for shep-

herds and hutkeepers, £60 to £70; do., do., with young families, £55; shepherds, with rations, per annum, £40; old shepherds, £45 to £52; hut-keepers, per annum, with rations, £35; general farm servants, with rations, per week, 30*s* to 35*s*; shearers, 30*s* to 36*s* per 100, and rations; sheep-washers, 30*s* per 100; ploughmen, 35*s* to 40*s* per week; haymakers, 32*s* to 36*s* per week; mowers, 8*s* to 12*s* per acre, and provisions; bullock drivers, with rations, 60*s* per week, on the road; horse-teams, 40*s* to 50*s*; labourers, 30*s* per week, with rations; day labour, from 10*s* to 12*s*, without rations; reapers, 25*s* per acre; hay-cutters and trussers, 40*s* per week, or 10*s* per ton; carpenters, 20*s* to 25*s* per day; bush carpenters, with rations, per annum, £100 to £110; stock keepers, with rations, per annum, £50 to £70; cooks, male, 30*s* to 60*s* per week; grooms, with rations, per annum, £60 to £70; gardeners, with rations, per annum, £75 to £100.

CHAPTER VII.

Agricultural Prospects in Australia—Where most successfully carried out—Fertility of the Soil—Quality of Grain—Labour —Produce Markets.

To those persons of limited means, who while they wish to lead a rural life in the New World, have no taste for tending on herds and flocks, and perhaps, possess not sufficient capital for one or the other, an excellent opportunity offers in the pursuit of agriculture. With the constantly increasing population of the gold colonies, swelled as it most assuredly will be, by new comers from the old country, with a thriving commerce, and an unlimited resource in the mineral wealth of the country, there will be a yearly increasing demand for what in America are known under the general term of "Bread Stuffs."

At present, and in all probability for many years to come, the greatest demand for food will arise in Victoria. Yet in that province scarcely any thing has been done in the way of growing corn, or other articles of vegetable food. The position of South Australia, its fine climate, and its prolific soil, point it out as the future granary and garden of that part of the Australian continent. In New South

Wales, large crops of grain have been taken off the soil for many years past, chiefly in the fertile valleys scattered along the nearest navigable rivers, where homesteads may be seen scattered through as fine a lay of country as need be wished for, and where Australian farmers dwell in as much comfort and security as in any part of England. The Agriculturists of New South Wales have long since become a class of some importance, many of them having realized handsome fortunes, and preferring the enjoyment of it in the land of their adoption, to returning to this country.

There is so little difference in the climate, seasons, and soil of New South Wales and South Australia, and the system of agriculture pursued in both colonies, so nearly resemble each other, that one general description will suffice for both. We have, in a former chapter, related how the colonists in the latter settlement turned their attention to agriculture during and after the monetary crisis which had well nigh weighed them down. By far the greater part of those who felt themselves compelled to turn growers of corn, set about it in the utmost ignorance of farming operations. But few amongst them could distinguish between a plough and a harrow, or understood their respective uses, yet so fruitful was the soil, and so favourable the climate, that soldiers, sailors, artizans, clerks, and professional men, found but little difficulty in raising large

crops of grain, which they were enabled to ship for sale to the neighbouring colony of Victoria.

The Australian system of farming, even where abundance of means are at hand, is of the most simple description. The land requires neither fallowing, dressing, nor manuring, and in place of having recourse to rotations of crops, wheat is taken from the same field year after year, without any perceptible impoverishment of the soil. This, of course, greatly simplifies the labour on a farm, and renders it an easy matter for a novice to enter upon the occupation. The following account of the ordinary method followed in South Australia is given by Mr. Wilkinson, a colonist of some standing, and considerable local experience in these matters :—

"In the first place, the land is cleared, if necessary; if not, the plough is at once put into the ground, and dragged on by a team of six good strong bullocks; one man drives, another holds the plough, and between them they break up one acre a day. The ploughing does not commence until the land has been softened by the rain, which commences in May. The rainy season is called the winter, but this name gives but a poor idea of that season to persons who have been accustomed to the frost and snow of a winter in England. There is no frost or snow, or, more strictly speaking, it is so rare an occurrence, that I only once remember having seen ice, and that was in a cold hilly district. When the

wet season has commenced, ploughing begins, and as many acres as are required are broken up; once ploughing is all the land generally gets. Seed is then sown broad-cast, and well scratched in by heavy harrows; the wheat being covered over, the work is done. By the time the blade appears above the soil, the fencing should be completed, to prevent the cattle from intruding. This is all that is done until the grain has ripened and needs cutting."

Rude as is the Australian system of grain cultivation, the returns are ample, and the produce of first-rate quality. The crop of wheat on new land, once ploughed and harrowed, ranges from 15 to 40 bushels to the acre, and frequently weighs 65 lbs. to the bushel. At the agricultural show in 1846, the prize sample weighed $66\frac{3}{4}$; the second $66\frac{1}{16}$; and the third, $66\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. to the bushel. The barley also weighed $56\frac{3}{4}$, and other produce in proportion.

At the Great Exhibition in 1851, some magnificent samples of wheat and other grains were shown, a proof that a succession of crops had had no injurious influence upon the land. In the Juror's Reports we read, that "Adelaide stands preeminent for wheat and barley. Prize medals have been awarded both to R. Hallett and Sons, and to Heath and Burrow, for wheat which may be considered as perfect as regards growth, equality of grain, colour, weight, and quality."

Such has been the progress of agriculture in this colony, that in place of the inhabitants being compelled to import considerable quantities of grain and flour for their use, those articles are now not only grown in sufficient abundance for their own consumption, but are shipped to other places to the yearly value of £50,000.

The latest advices from the Australian Colonies give the following as the rate of domestic and farm-servants' wages:—Married couples for home stations with rations per annum, £70 to £100; do. out-stations, do. do. £60 to £80; do. with two flocks, do. do. £70 to £100; shepherds, do. do. £45 to £50; hut-keepers, do. do. £40; general useful station servants, do. do. £60 to £80; stock-riders, do. do. £65 to £80; grooms, do. do. £60 to £80; gardeners, do. do. £70 to £100; waiters at hotels, do. do. £60 to £80; bullock-drivers for stations, do. do. £70 to £100; do. per week, do. 40*s* to 50*s*; do. do. on the roads, 60*s* to 70*s*; farm servants and ploughmen, 35*s* to 40*s* do. with rations; bush-carpenters, 50*s* to £1 do. do.; cooks for hotels, 30*s* to £4 do. do.; carters for town, 40*s* do. with rations, or 70*s* without rations; good house carpenters, 23*s* to 27*s* 6*d* per day, without rations; masons, plasterers, &c. 30*s* to 40*s* do. do.; labourers for town, 10*s* to 12*s* 6*d* do. do.

Female servants—Nursemaids, per annum, £20 to £30; housemaids, do. £26 to £30; cooks, do. £30

to £42; laundresses, do. £30 to £40.; general useful servants, do. £26 to £35.

The list below gives the wholesale Adelaide market prices of Dairy produce :

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Bacon, per lb.	0	8 to	0	10	
Hams . .	0	11	1	3	
Cheese . .	1	0	1	3	
Fresh Butter .	1	6	2	0	
Salt ditto . .	1	6	—		
Eggs, per doz.	2	0	—		
Onions, per lb.	0	9	1	0	

	s.	d.		s.	d.
Oats, per bush.	9	0 to	10	0	
Cape Barley, per lb.	8	6	9	0	
English do. do	none.				
Hay, per ton	£6	0 to	£7	0	
Straw, do. .	4	0	4	5	
Potatoes, do.	6	0	9	0	
Swede turnips	8	0	—		

Poultry, at the same period, was fetching the following prices:—Fowls, per pair, 4*s* to 4*s* 6*d*; pigeons, per pair, 2*s* to 3*s*; Ducks, per pair, 5*s* to 6*s*. Wild do. per brace, 3*s*; Teal, ditto, 2*s*; Quail, ditto, 1*s*; Geese, each, 5*s* to 7*s*; Turkeys, each, 9*s* to 12*s*.

The Adelaide Vegetable market list presents the current rates in the following scale :—

Potatoes, 3*d* per lb. 23*s* per bag
Cabbages, each, 3*d* to 6*d*.
Cauliflowers, 1*d* to 1*s* 6*d*
Turnips, 6*d* per dozen
Carrots, per bunch, 4*d* to 6*d*
Garlick, per lb. 1*s*
Onions, per lb. 1*s* to 1*s*. 6*d*
Green ditto, 2*d* per bunch
Lettuce, 1*d* to 1½*d* each
Celery, 6*d* to 9*d* per head
Spring Radishes, 1*d* per bunch
Chilies, 4*d* to 6*d* per dozen
Horse-radish, 6*d* to 1*s* 6*d* per stick
Parsley, 2*d* per bunch
Water-cress, per bunch, 2*d*.

Many small cultivators in the neighbourhood of

the towns, realize large profits from their garden produce, especially when instead of having to pay high colonial wages, they possess two or three stout sons to help them, and a brace of daughters able and willing to assist the wife in the charge of the dairy, as well as in the marketing of their commodities.

Butcher's meat has risen much since the late influx of population; the prices are still below what they are in this country:—Wholesale prices; beef, per lb. 6*d*; pork, 6*d* per lb. Retail prices; beef, per lb. 7*d* to 8*d*; mutton, per lb. 7*d* to 8*d*; veal, per lb. 7*d* to 8*d*; lamb, per quarter, 6*s*; pork, per lb. 6*d*.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Trading and Banking Interests of Australia—Growth of Australian Commerce—Its Attractions and Dangers—Increase in Local Banks—Their Principle and Profits—Present condition of the Chief Towns of the Three Colonies.

A natural result of the great increase in the flocks and herds of Australia, of the South Australian copper mines, and of the marvellous products of the gold fields, has been a rapid growth of traders and bankers, who to the present time appear to have reaped an abundant harvest from the new sources of wealth so suddenly and so widely presented to them. Many of our readers may have their attention directed to trade in those places, and will be glad to learn something of the present aspect of business matters in that new country.

A glance at a file of the "Sydney Empire" or the "Melbourne Herald," or the "Adelaide Register," will suffice to show an enquirer how multifarious and exclusive are the dealings of Australian "storekeepers," for that is the colonial name given to all dealers wholesale or retail, not actually importing merchants. A general "store" whether in one of the capitals, or in a rural town, or at the diggings, presents an equally motley appearance. Tin kettles, silk dresses, pickled pork, new bonnets, provisions,

fruits, and stationery, are all to be met with in strange companionship within these omnium gatherums. One principal reason for this trading jumble of articles is, that bushmen and diggers coming in from a distance are glad to purchase what they require at one place, without the trouble of running from store to store, and of opening two or three accounts. Besides this, a farmer in the bush can in this way send down his dray to his regular storekeeper, if he cannot accompany it, and by sending a list to him can depend upon receiving everything he requires, from a cask of wine to a paper of pins.

In the older cities, such as Sydney, Adelaide, and Melbourne, the traders' stores are on a large and substantial scale, built of stone, brick, or wood, and some of them containing a great amount of property. In the smaller towns they will be very humble affairs of stick and board, while at the diggings the stores for a long time consisted of mere tents of large size, and indeed many such are still to be met with dignified with high sounding names, such as the "Universal Emporium"—the "Royal Victoria Mart"—the "Great Nugget Store," &c.

Store-keeping, which previous to the gold discoveries had been always a lucrative occupation to men of active, attentive, and prudent habits, became at and after that event the means of realizing rapid fortunes—not only did the price of every article rise to fabulous prices, but as gold came pouring

in on all sides, every one suddenly felt his wants, or his fancied wants, increased fourfold. Price and quality became matters of small moment, and so long as sellers chose to ask, buyers were found to give unheard of prices.

At the diggings the cost of every necessary rose beyond the calculation of the most sanguine, for there, in addition to the abundance of gold, the heavy charges involved in transporting goods along bad roads, as well as the enormous price of draught cattle and fodder, had to be added to the current profits of the traders. But those rates will no longer be paid. The roads are improving. Competition is springing up, and profits will before long assume a more reasonable and safer feature.

The merchants of long standing conduct their business on terms generally fair enough, but prudent settlers will do well to lodge their little capital on first arrival, in one of the local Banks, of which there are several in each colony, of great respectability, and this, notwithstanding any tempting offers of high rate of interest that may be held out as a bait by the merchant. Sidney, who wrote on Australian matters from actual experience, tells us that—"Merchants are very fond of proposing an open account, where the settler has the reputation of ample resources. They are willing to supply the stores for the station, on condition of receiving all the wool for sale. At times they propose to ad-

vance 1*s*. a lb. on the wool, charging 15 per cent for the accommodation, and induce the squatter to allow it to be sent home at his own risk, for the chance of obtaining more than that price. Such arrangements generally end in the ruin of the squatter. No wool-grower with less than 100,000 sheep, and a capital sufficient to enable him to send wool home under his own controul to his own broker, should venture such an experiment. It is much better in the end to close the transactions with the merchant at the end of each year.'

"To buy for cash, and to sell for cash only—that is the golden rule."

That the commerce of Australia must be at the present moment one of great magnitude may easily be conceived when we reflect that the shipments from Victoria to this country have in one year reached the amount of £11,000,000, while the British imports amounted to £7,000,000. Of the former, the chief portion was gold and wool.

The Banking interest has progressed not less rapidly than others. The old established "Union Bank of Australia," the "Bank of Australasia," the "Bank of New South Wales," the "South Australian Bank," and one or two others, have reaped the full benefit of being already in the field. Large profits have been made with great rapidity—as much as twelve per cent interest having been in more than one case declared. Most of these Banks have establishments in London, where by lodging money and paying a trifling com-

mission, emigrants can obtain orders on the colonial Banks for the amount so paid in.

The three former banks have establishments at Sydney and Melbourne. The latter at Adelaide only; the London Branch of this bank is at 54, Old Broad Street, and other banks for similar purposes have recently been established, but the above are, by their local standing and influence, decidedly the best channels for remittances.

The following statement relative to the circulation, deposits, etc., of the Australian Banks in September last will enable the reader to form a correct opinion of their business transactions and standing:—

	Circulation of Notes.	Deposits not bearing Interest.	Total Liabilities.	Coin and Bullion.	Debts due Bank.	Total Assets.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Union Bank of Australia	446,225	1,941,286	2,424,112	380,464	901,767	2,374,532
Bank of Australasia ..	751,148	2,234,313	3,036,729	2,148,552	775,570	2,100,869
Bank of Victoria	265,789	784,007	1,104,009	521,912	620,093	1,263,821
Branch Bank N.S.W. (June statement)..	223,004	676,038	1,277,985	695,118	250,355	1,046,571
Chartered Bank of Australia	29,825	45,476	75,373	125,059	49,802	174,933
Total, Sept., 1853 .	1,715,991	5,681,165	7,918,188	4,871,102	2,597,587	7,960,725

A trade in which such large sums have been made will naturally attract many to enter upon it. But in venturing to the colonies as a dealer the emigrant must bear in mind that great risks always attend great profits. The first year after the gold discoveries was a rare exception to this rule; for then

undoubtedly it was all profit and no risk. Such, however, cannot again happen. Great quantities of all kinds of merchandise have been sent, in many cases far too much, and, as it was impossible to find store room for all that arrived, sales had to be made on the sea beach to any one who would make a bid of any figure. In this way losses have been severe, and such may happen over again, unless the state of the markets be more closely watched, and shipments only made of such things as are really wanted, or which, by their value and compactness, can afford warehouse-rent at colonial charges.

For such energetic men as intend to take out a well-selected assortment of goods, and proceed with them to the diggings, or one of the inland towns which are and will continue to be rising up in all directions, there are still abundance of openings. But in this case the trader must land with a spare hundred or two at his command, or he will never reach his destination. Having the means his best plan will be to purchase a strong dray and pair of stout teamsters, on which he can load his goods; and, having by their aid arrived at the desired spot, he will find no difficulty in reselling his conveyance at a profit.

To enter upon such an undertaking as this, the emigrant storekeeper will stand in need of an abundance of energy, activity, patience, and management. The difficulties of a bush-road are by no means

trifling, even to old settlers, though it should be borne in mind, that owing to the mildness and healthiness of the climate for ten months out of the twelve, much that would elsewhere be insupportable, is there easily encountered. Even when his final destination is reached there will be many difficulties and hardships to encounter, and which must be overcome if the settler would succeed in his new calling. The all but impossibility of procuring assistance of any kind in localities away from the principal towns, the absence of all buildings, the rough manners and habits of the diggers and bushmen, all these are novel features in the newly selected life of the recent arrival, who will surmount his difficulties precisely in proportion as he brings activity and intelligence to bear.

It is impossible to offer any advice to the settler in large towns as to the description of goods he should take with him. He must be guided by such information as he can obtain direct from the colonies. At the present moment crockery and glassware, and some description of stationery and slops are in demand and paying handsomely; but this may not be the case six months hence; such articles may then be unsaleable.

There are, however, certain descriptions of goods which, at out-stations or at the gold fields, are almost always in good demand. These it will be well for the intending bush storekeeper to bear in mind when

investing his capital here. Amongst those things most in demand in the interior of all the colonies may be named blankets, rugs, store canvas, cordage and rope of various sizes, nails—of sorts, and some simple carpenter's tools, stout boots and shoes for men and women, some of the former, if for the diggings, to come up above the knee and waterproof, felt hats, caps, waterproof capes—light and large, riding belts, whips, regatta shirts, plain ditto stout, with some finer of lighter cloth for warm weather wear, unbleached cotton hose and half hose, women's slops and stockings, Tweed shawls, Paisley ditto, canvas and duck trowsers, a few fancy waistcoats, coloured cotton ditto, Guernsey shirts, black and coloured neckhandkerchiefs, pocket ditto—silk and cotton, an assortment of ribbons, fleecy hosiery, shirts and drawers, needles, pins, tapes and threads, a roll or two of flannel, a few pieces of calico, and some cotton prints for women's dresses. If these are bought judiciously, not too many of a kind and not too expensive, the adventure cannot fail to be profitable. It would be well to add a little stationery, and a few common office books, ruled and plain, to serve as stock-books, day-books, ledgers, etc.

The progress of the principal trading-towns of Australia, viz., Sydney and Bathurst, in New South Wales; Adelaide, in South Australia; and Melbourne and Geelong, in Victoria, has fully kept pace with

the growing commerce and wealth of those colonies. The value of land in and about these cities has reached sums unknown in this country. In Adelaide, as much as £50 per foot frontage has been refused for ground plots having a considerable depth; but even if the depth were 210 feet it will be seen that the price is equivalent to £10,500 per acre; and it is even said that for some very choice spots a higher price per foot has been demanded. At the land office in Sydney, on the 24th August last, a sale of allotments on the old Barrack Square yielded upwards of £24,400. The allotments, which are said to have comprised in the aggregate a space of about an acre and a quarter, were put up at £10 per foot frontage, and sold at prices varying from £16 to £47 10*s* per foot, and at an average, presuming the calculation a correct one, very little below £20,000 per acre.

Sydney is by far the oldest city in Australia, and there the buildings, streets, and public works, have long since taken a permanent and half-English character. Indeed, a new comer, walking through one of its leading thoroughfares, seeing the omnibuses, waggons, and vans rolling past him, with the busy crowd of passengers and well-filled shops, and hearing the well-known London cry of "Cab, sir, cab?" may easily imagine himself in some part of the great metropolis. Bathurst, the capital of the New South Wales gold district, although two years

since little better than a collection of log huts, plank houses and tents of a motley description, is fast rising into importance. Substantial stores, well built dwellings and pretty villa residences, attest the accumulating wealth of the province, whilst good roads are in course of construction on several sides.

A recent letter from Melbourne thus describes the present appearance of the capital of Victoria:—

"Melbourne is built on the slope of a hill, laid out in Yankee fashion—streets wide, and at right angles to each other; none of the little twisting lanes that you see in all the great European cities. Many, in fact, most of the houses are of stone, or brick, and built in a very handsome and solid manner, and but few of the run-up wooden structures that you so often see in large American towns. I speak, of course, of the principal streets; in the outskirts of the town there are the most extraordinary-looking, half wood, half canvas, contrivances you can possibly imagine, abounding in the half horse, half alligator, genus of *homo*, that are fresh from the diggings, with lots of nuggets in their belt, and hair about their faces. The streets are crowded with drags of all kinds, carrying merchandise, omnibusses, and old-fashioned four-horsed coaches, rejoicing in names of bygone days in England, such as 'The Times,' 'Tally-ho,' &c.; carts with horses driven tandem-wise, and, in short, all sorts and kinds of conveyances. You may imagine the bustle of the place

when I tell you that it reminds me of the busiest part of Liverpool in the busiest time. The horses and oxen are splendid beasts, and as fine as you ever saw in England, and I strongly suspect that, in sending emigrants here from the old country, you have shipped the finest men you could find, and kept the lean kine at home; for a finer and more robust looking set of fellows I have never seen than the draymen, porters, masons, carpenters, &c., that one sees about the place. The wages here would frighten the 'old Protectionist party;' a common hand gets 12*s* to 14*s* a day; a mason, 25*s*, and other crafts in proportion; so you may imagine that for a labouring man it is a small, or rather a largish kind of paradise. Board and lodging, however, are frightfully dear, and the rents that are paid for houses are something quite incredible. I was to-day in a gentleman's office who rents two rooms on the first floor in one of the principal streets—one room about 16 feet by 10, the other about a third larger; for these two rooms he pays £1000 a year, and is considered to have got a very cheap bargain; in fact, money is spoken of as mere dirt. Men speak of £10,000 as you would speak of 10*s*, and the rises in fortune from the lowest depths of poverty to actual wealth before your eyes are astounding. A gentleman who came with me in the steamer, and who has friends and relations in business, told me this morning that a young fellow he had formerly

known, who had left England without a *sou* ten years ago, and who had been previously employed in some shop or other as an assistant, had recently let some land for £3500 a year, and held some more that he has been offered £30,000 for."

Within the town the demand for houses and stores of every description is excessive, and already large sums have been made by erecting buildings for dwellings or business. It is next to impossible for new comers to find any place in Melbourne unlet.

But in the outskirts of the town a vast number of the little wooden cottages that have been springing up like mushrooms in the suburbs of Collingwood and Richmond have now got bills in the windows. This is not so much because there has been anything like overbuilding, as because the owners are reluctant to reduce their rents, and still struggle hard to maintain the old scale of "a pound a week a room," for wooden shells some twelve feet square. This cannot last, however, and the happy consequence will be, that the cottages now vacant will be speedily let, and people will cease to crowd, ten or twelve together, in a place only capable of properly accommodating three or four. Some abatement of the old crowding system is, indeed, already discernible, and with the abolition of this great evil we shall get rid of that primary obstacle to domestic comfort which at present constitutes the greatest drawback to residence in Victoria.

The following picture of Melbourne life may be depended on as drawn by a writer on the spot :—

"The conversation at the dinner table, and in the various rooms of the hotels, reminds me much of America, as nothing is discussed that has not some relation or other to making money, and if you substitute the word 'pounds' for 'dollars,' you might imagine yourself in a public room in New Orleans, during the very busiest time of cotton speculations. *On dit*, that more gold is being found than ever, and, if I might judge from what I have seen of the conduct of divers diggers I have seen about the streets, they must have been singularly successful lately. These gentlemen patronize the most expensive articles that they can find, and the way I saw a digger's 'lady' dressed up yesterday would (as far as richness of material and gold chains) cast into the darkest shade the most expensively got up *belle* at Almack's or the Champs Elysées. This morning I saw several fellows with beards of huge length, and moustache and whiskers to match, dressed in corduroy 'smalls,' huge boots, and a sort of blue blouse with a belt round it, standing at the door of a public house, tossing nuggets in their hands, some of which must have weighed several pounds, just as carelessly as you see boys in England tossing stones and catching them on their way to school. I spoke to one or two of them, and they were as civil as possible, said they were better

off than they were in England, which I believed myself, and also said, which I did not believe, that they intended 'some day' to put money in a savings' bank. There are, however, many of the diggers who save their gold, but this other especial party will not leave their 'nobblers' (which is Australian for brandy and water), till their pockets are at low ebb, and they have only enough to carry them back to Ballarat or Mount Alexander."

Of Geelong almost the same may be said as of Melbourne. It is much smaller in size, containing about 20,000 inhabitants, whereas the latter numbers about 90,000. Its excellent position for water communication, and its vicinity to the Ballarat Diggings, render it of some importance, and it bids fair to be, at no distant date, a most flourishing city, inferior only to the capital.

Adelaide possesses a more solid character than Melbourne, though far smaller and less wealthy than Sydney. There are public buildings in it which show great taste and skill, and the town is well laid out, and especially adapted to the requirements of the inhabitants of such a country. It is divided into North and South Adelaide by a small stream which is spanned by a bridge of some pretensions. South Adelaide is looked upon as the business portion of the city, and contains some fine streets and noble edifices. Hindley Street is upwards of a hundred feet wide, and comprising rows of elegant

shops, may justly be termed the Oxford Street of Adelaide. The number of squares fringed with lofty trees, parks, and boulevards which adorn the city, give it a Parisian appearance, whilst the vicinity, crowded with trees and dotted at intervals with pretty English-looking villages, render it a remarkably pleasing object as seen at a distance.

There is a good road to Port Adelaide, where ships are compelled to discharge and take in cargoes, and where there is a good wharf, jetty, and other conveniences for shipping purposes, and recently a railroad has been projected to connect the city with its port.

The influx of gold into the colony after the passing of the Bullion Act, effected a sensible and beneficial change upon the trade of the place. Land and house property, which had been greatly depressed by the rush of labour to the diggings, have risen to their former high value. Mining adventure is again progressing, and the agricultural and farming resources of the colony require but a fair supply of labour for their full and permanent development. It needs but this one essential element for the future prosperity of South Australia.

CHAPTER IX.

The Gold Fields of Australia—Their position, extent, and production—Qualifications necessary for a Digger—Good and ill fortune at the Diggings—Present and future prospects of the Gold Fields—Government rules and regulations.

THE reader will scarcely need to be told in this place, what must be by this time well known to the public, of the time, manner, and circumstances of the first gold discoveries in New South Wales by Mr. Hargreaves. The excitement and derangement of ordinary business matters consequent on that extraordinary event have now to a great extent passed away and become matters of history. There may nevertheless be many of those who will open this little volume, with a desire of turning their attention to the gold fields, either as searchers for the precious metal or for some trading purpose. To such therefore a brief account of the produce, and productiveness of the many fields of treasure cannot but prove acceptable.

The first discovered gold fields are those situated in the Bathurst district of New South Wales, upon some of the many spurs and declivities of the Blue Mountain range of hills. These are known as the Ophir, Turon, Louisa Creek, Meeroo River, Wimburndale, Frederick's Valley and Campbell's River

diggings. Whilst in the southern districts of this colony there are the Major's Creek, and Bell's Creek diggings on the Araluen River, and some few other fields, more commonly known as the Braidwood diggings, less known because more difficult of access than the former, but in many instances apparently yielding fully as large return per head to the diggers engaged at them. There is one distinctive feature connected with the gold fields of New South Wales, that whilst in but few instances have any large masses or even weighty nuggets been met with, such as are constantly turned up in the Victoria diggings, the general yield is on a far more average scale, the cases of complete failure being much fewer here.

The gold taken from the Bathurst and Araluen fields are mostly in grains, whilst that from the Forest Creek and Ballarat diggings are all more or less of the nuggetty character. Most of these localities have some distinctive features which affect their working capabilities as influenced by the seasons. Some are more easily worked during the dry season from November to May, whilst others are so scantily supplied with water, necessary for washing out the ore, that they can only be attempted during or immediately after the rains.

The Bathurst district, in which are situated the chief gold fields of New South Wales, lies to the north-west of Sydney, the capital of the same name, being distant from that city about one hundred and

thirty miles. For about half this distance there is an excellent carriage road available at any period of the year for loaded vehicles. After that the road becomes steep and rugged, until, as the Blue Mountain range is approached, the labour of performing the journey even with good cattle, becomes very great, and the progress will be very slow. Bathurst, now a rising town, is situated at a considerable elevation above the sea level, and the route thence to the Ophir and Turon diggings is by a gently descending roadway.

The oldest of all those westerly gold fields is Ophir, which was first worked by five or six hundred diggers in May, June and July of 1851, whose average daily earnings were all that time never less than £1 a-day each man. The number at work here has varied from a few hundreds to several thousands, according to the state of the weather. In spite of their numbers, however, it is confidently asserted that a very extensive and rich gold field is untouched at Ophir, and that nothing but a population is required to find gold in abundance. From the operations of parties in the tributaries and adjacent streams, it is clear that there is in that quarter an immense area auriferous enough to give profitable employment to thousands; in fact, there is no doubt wherever there is a creek in that neighbourhood there is sufficient gold to pay for working. The working having been confined to the banks of

the creek alone, there has been no search made for dry diggings.

The Turon diggings were occupied in June 1851, and in the following October there were about 4000 diggers there. These all found profitable occupation, the few unsuccessful workers meeting with ready employment at 30*s.* per week and rations. The effect of this large population was soon seen in the discovery of very large, rich, and numerous deposits of gold, not only in the banks but in the higher flats, at some considerable distance from the river, and on the neighbouring hills. Above £1 per diem was the average of the earnings for some months after its occupation. Up to this time, however, the river bed has been scarcely worked; the long continuance of wet seasons made all such attempts very difficult and expensive. Whenever this has been done by parties with greater means and more system, the result has shown that the river bed is much richer than anything hitherto known in these gold fields. Parties of three and four have obtained twenty ounces a day from the bed claims. In fact there is no doubt but that a most rich and abundant gold field remains comparatively untouched in that quarter. In the adjacent hills new dry diggings of great yield are being constantly found; and though the pepulation in that locality has dwindled down to about 1500, this has arisen solely from the prevailing fashion of

rushing to Mount Alexander, and in no degree from want of a remunerative gold field on the spot.

The Meroo diggings is the most scattered of the westerly gold fields, it comprises not only the Meroo River, but various tributaries, and the table land of the high range at the foot of which the Meroo runs. In this neighbourhood, on one of the tributaries of the Meroo, namely, Louisa Creek, there is established a quartz-crushing company, on the vein where the "Kerr nugget" of 1 cwt. was discovered. Observations in this quarter prove that there is no creek for a great many miles about that part of the country that does not produce gold in abundance.

The Meroo River runs into the Cudgegong River, and the Cudgegong into Macquarie, a few miles below the junction of the former with the Cudgegong. Within a few miles of this is the Muckerwa Creek, rising from the Wellington side of the Macquarie, and running into that river. Many persons have worked at times in these different places, and in all of them gold has been found most abundantly; in fact, the great basin of the Macquarie has been only sufficiently worked to show that its production is very great, and that it may almost be called unlimited in extent.

The Tamboroura Creek, runs parallel to the Turon, and empties itself into the Macquarie about eight

miles above the junction of the two latter. It lays about midway between the Meroo and the Turon. Every portion of the table land or dry diggings, extending for twenty miles by ten miles in breadth, would appear to teem with ore, and there is no doubt ample room for many thousands of diggers for years to come.

The Abercrombie diggings are as yet comparatively unworked, although from the yield of such creeks as have been touched, the prospects would appear to be inferior to very few fields.

Major's Creek and Bell's Creek on the Araluen River was occupied by diggers in November 1851. About 100 persons have been at various times at work in the Araluen valley. The rainy season, however, which so much impeded operations in the western district, increased very much the difficulty of working on that river. There is however no doubt that the valley is a very abundant and extensive gold field, equal in extent and production to the Turon; wherever parties had the means and perseverance to sink through the opposing water to the bed rock, very large grains were invariably obtained. Thousands of persons will in some future day find employment there. The chief digging, however, has been carried on in the tributary creeks on the table land, 1500 feet above the valley, and where the water, though very abundant, could be

kept down without so much difficulty as in the valley; there, the production of gold has been hitherto very great, as great in proportion as in any other gold field.

The Mungarlow River is about fifteen miles distant from the Araluen, and runs into the Shoalhaven River. The success here has not been so decided, chiefly owing to the want of a sufficiency of labour to work the creeks and beds as they require. The report of the Gold Commissioner goes to shew that for a distance of fully fifty miles these diggings might be profitably worked.

If the general yield of gold at the Bathurst diggings has not been equal to that of the Victoria fields, the cost of subsistence has also been considerably less. Seldom has this exceeded £1 per week, and more frequently not more than fifteen shillings.

The most recent accounts from those diggings, extending to the middle of January last, represent the yield as coming up to former averages, though the full working of most of them had at that time scarcely commenced. The Government escorts of the two weeks previous to the departure of the last mails from Sydney represent the quantities brought down from Bathurst, 578 ounces; Sofala, 1076 ounces; Tamboroura, 616 ounces; Meroo, 297 ounces; Mudgee, 118 ounces; Braid-

wood, 312 ounces; Major's Creek, 63 ounces; Araluen, 400 ounces; being a total of 3460 ounces, value about £13,000. The total shipments of gold from Sydney during the year 1853, to December, amounted to 1,955,422 ounces, value at 70*s* per ounce, £6,843,977.

As the actual ownership of all ores and minerals discovered on any of those lands whether public or private is vested in the Crown, the local Government has exercised the right of taxing the produce of the diggers by issuing licenses at a monthly fee of thirty shillings each person who searches for gold by washings in the river beds; the right of searching for matrix gold in the quartz rocks is given upon other terms. The following extracts from the latest Government regulation on this subject, issued at Sydney, contain the leading features of these licenses.

Persons desirous of establishing claims to new and unoccupied ground, by working in the ordinary method for alluvial gold, may have their claims marked out on the following scale, to each person, namely:

(1.) Fifteen feet frontage to either side of a river or main creek.

(2.) Twenty feet of the bed of a tributary to a river or main creek, extending across its whole breadth.

(3.) Sixty feet of the bed of a ravine or water-course.

(4.) Twenty feet square of table land or river flats.

These claims will be secured to the parties for such time only as they may continue to hold licenses for the same; unless in case of flood, or other such unavoidable accident as shall, in the opinion of the Commissioner or Assistant Commissioner, render a suspension of the work inevitable.

The above licenses may be cancelled and the claims forfeited in consequence of the conviction of the holders in any court of competent jurisdiction of the illicit sale of spirits, or of any disorderly or riotous conduct endangering the public morals or peace.

Persons found working alluvial gold on any land, public or private, without having previously paid the license fee to the proper officer, shall pay double the amount for such license; and, in default, be proceeded against in the usual manner.

The stringent state of these rules in regard to the introduction of spirits within the diggings was needed in order to keep down any disposition to excesses of any kinds. The result has been that the general conduct of the Bathurst diggers has been most exemplary, needing scarcely any interference from the police. This orderly state may partly be

attributed to the absence of those runaway convicts of desperate character who have proved so dangerous to the peace of the Victoria gold fields, tempted as they were by their proximity to Van Diemen's Land, the hot-bed of Australian felony.

Where gold is found on private land, licenses can only by claimed by the owners, or by parties authorized by them.

Claims for working the quartz rock in search of matrix or nugget gold are given upon a bond undertaking to pay the crown a royalty of ten per cent on the gross produce. The space so granted may extend to half a mile along any vein with a quarter of a mile on each side for works, and this license will be granted for a term of three years renewable. Licenses at the usual rate are to be taken out for every person employed upon these workings. Traders setting up any erections at the diggings, are likewise bound to pay 30*s* monthly for the privilege, which may be revoked on misconduct.

In the month of August, 1851, exactly three months after the discovery of gold in New South Wales, the precious metal was found at the foot of the Clunes Hill on the banks of the Loddon, in the Port Phillip district. About the same time gold was also discovered at the Buninyong, a deep gorge in the heart of the neighbouring ranges, formed by the bed of a creek. This locality was distant about

ninety miles from Melbourne in a north-westerly direction. The gold found was of a mixed character, consisting of grains and small nuggets.

The Ballarat diggings were the next opened, and these lay still further westward, being in fact nearer to Geelong than to Melbourne. For a time this latter locality continued to attract most of the gold seekers of the district, the yield being far greater than at the Clunes or Buninyong Hill; the gold was there simply washed from the sandy soil, while at the latter named places it was mined from the rock, and of course more difficult of abstraction. By the middle of October as many as ten thousand men were at work at these new diggings, with about thirteen hundred cradles, the estimated daily earnings amongst them being £10,000. The fame of Ballarat was however soon eclipsed by a new field opened to the north-east on Mount Byng, since named Mount Alexander, where at a place called Forest Creek large nuggety pieces of gold were removed from the soil by knives, laying but a few inches below the surface. These diggings, which have since become so famous from their prodigious yield of gold, are situated a few miles from the brow of Mount Alexander. The quantity taken up in this spot by the first discoverers was so large and the extent of the gold beds appeared so unlimited, that the other diggings were at once deserted, and within a few days

eight thousand persons were assembled in the vicinity of Forest Creek.

By the middle of the following month three tons of gold lay in the Commissioner's tent waiting for transmission to Melbourne by escort, and at that period it was calculated there were fully twenty-five thousand persons at work in the immediate neighbourhood. It is in these diggings that the largest blocks or nuggets of solid gold have been found, free from any impurity or admixture of quartz, varying from 27lbs. to 88lbs. each. These diggings are incapable of being worked during the dry season, which corresponds with our winter months, since although the gold found is mostly of a nuggety character, a supply of water is absolutely necessary in order to free it from the earth. By the opening of the mining season in May the numbers congregated at the Forest Creek did not fall short of forty thousand souls, most of whom were earning twenty to thirty shillings a day, and many much more.

In January, 1852, a gold field of an entirely opposite character was discovered at the foot of the range of mountains known as the Australian Alps, and which run from the confines of New South Wales through the eastern division of this colony, being in fact a continuation of the Blue Mountain range. This locality is distant from Melbourne about two hundred and sixty miles, the way being for a great

part of the distance along a good carriage road country. These diggings are situated in the vicinity of Lake Omeo which is fed by the river Mitta Mitta, taking its rise in the Snowy mountains. The great advantage arising from this discovery was that from the great abundance of water about the gold field it could only be worked during the dry season when most of the other diggings were obliged to be abandoned for want of water.

Many other fields of gold have been opened and worked with various degrees of success, but up to the present time the Ballarat and Mount Alexander (Forest Creek) diggings continue the chief centre of attraction whence are derived the great bulk of the gold exported from the Province of Victoria. Hence it is scarcely necessary to attempt any description of the other localities, amongst which are the Ovens, the M'Ivor, the Mount Misery, the Daisy Hill, Eureka and Buckland River diggings.

The following table exhibits the quantities of gold received in Melbourne and Geelong from the various diggings of the colony by Government and private escort, as well as by the hands of single individuals. From this it will be perceived that in spite of the great increase in the number of diggers at work the yield has scarcely reached that of the previous year; there is no doubt however that a greater quantity than formerly is now brought down by the hands of diggers and others, to avoid the Government charge for escort.

	Ounces.	Ounces.
1851. Ascertained . .	145,146	
Estimated . .	200,000	
		345,146
1852. Ascertained . .	3,501,042	
Estimated . .	762,000	
		4,263,042
1853. Ascertained . .	2,472,713	
Estimated . .	617,629	
		3,090,342
Total on 31st December, 1853		7,698,530

Which, at £3 19*s* 6*d*, about the present value in the market, amounts to £30,601,681 10*s*.

This does not include the gold taken over to Adelaide, which however does not amount to many thousand ounces.

The shipment of gold to England up to the end of the year 1853 amounted to 2,497,723 ounces, which at the market value of £3 17*s* per ounce represented £8,742,030. The production of the various mines continued very steady, and amounted to about forty thousand ounces a week.

Of late the mode of working the ground has been varied in consequence of extraordinary success attending a few deep workings. The favourite plan now is rather to neglect the surface soil and mine to the depth of a hundred or a hundred and forty feet, completely down to the rock below the clay strata. According to some of the gold circular reports this new method is carried out far too indiscriminately. "An opinion is expressed by a good many," says

one of those reports, "that as far as the latter diggings are concerned, that were deep sinking and those extravagant finds unknown, and the population only working the first ten feet, success would be more general, and the total weekly yield much larger. They now labour it for the great depth, overlooking altogether the top strata, which in the same localities used to give fair wages. The first two or three weeks work is without remuneration—all risked for a large lot; the Gravel-pits amongst others show an example of the kind. There the diggers used (before they were called off by the great wonders of Mount Alexander) to nett very well with their eight and ten feet sinking; now in the same place the holes are from one hundred to one hundred and ten feet, and the top stuff rarely if ever tried."

The diggers have no doubt much to learn yet before they can be said to be thoroughly versed in the mystery of their new craft. From the last return of gold brought into Melbourne by escort it appears evident that the wonderful resources of the Mount Alexander or Forest Creek diggings are in no way impaired by the long and vigorous attacks made upon them. One week's returns shew as follows:—

		Ounces.
Forest Creek escort	March 18th	17,349
M'Ivor ditto		439
Ovens ditto		4,999
Ballarat ditto		18,770
		41,557

It will be necessary to say a few words as to the security of property at the diggings, inasmuch as a great deal of misapprehension appears to arise in this country on that score. Many cases of bushranging or highway robbery have doubtless appeared in the Victoria prints, yet these are in reality few, if we consider the vast numbers of all classes congregated in the gold districts, the temptation offered to run-away convicts from Van Diemen's Land, and the length of road and open nature of the country through which it passes. If it be borne in mind that there are not fewer than 100,000 persons at the various diggings in this one colony, the dozen cases of daring robbery which occur in a season are scarcely to be wondered at.

On the whole the conduct of the diggers has been most exemplary. Sunday has been invariably observed as a day of rest, and the vices of gaming and drinking, although not altogether unknown, are scarcely observable. The health of the diggers has been invariably good, although no doubt a large portion of them have been persons totally unaccustomed to lead a life of such hardship.

At the Forest Creek diggings a new township is being formed under the title of Castlemaine. A correspondent of the "Melbourne Morning Herald" writes of this: "The sale of suburban lands at Castlemaine on Thursday last, realized nearly £14,000, the lots being bought up at high prices. The total

amount of the town and suburban sale will therefore realize nearly £21,000. The anxiety of landlords in this instance to buy up land may well be understood to be the cause of these high prices." The town was at that time rapidly progressing: three hotels and some spacious stores being in course of erection, with many neat private houses with gardens fenced in.

Three newspapers were on the point of being started at Bendigo, and one in Melbourne, devoted to the digging interest. One of them, the "Bendigo Advertiser," is edited by Dr. Owens. When these are fairly in the field the golden interior will not be able to complain of not being fully represented by the press.

In the Bathurst district the crime of bushranging is quite unknown, and indeed it must be admitted that the dregs of Van Diemen's Land society have hitherto confined their attentions to the Victoria diggings as offering far more inducements than these.

The Echunga diggings, in the province of South Australia, were discovered and first worked in the month of August, 1852; they consisted of merely surface workings, yielding seldom more than an ounce a day to each party of fine grain gold. The spot where this discovery was made was in an undulating country, adjoining what was known as Stringy-bark Forest, about thirty-five miles to the south-westward of Adelaide and two miles from the Onkaparinga River. The excitement in Adelaide, consequent upon

this discovery was very great, and during the first week or two the number of licenses issued amounted to nearly a hundred, but it soon became evident that the gold was but thinly scattered, and did not on the whole remunerate labour so well as the ordinary occupations in the colony. By degrees the number of the diggers at Echunga decreased, and at the present time we hear nothing further about it.

At each of the gold fields a proper police force is maintained as well as a mounted escort for the conveyance of the gold to the port of shipment. This duty is performed with great regularity every week by the Government at a small charge: there is also a private escort company in Victoria for the same purpose, and evidently well supported.

It will scarcely be necessary to inform the reader that the operation of gold seeking in Australia is a most laborious and trying one. No one should think of attempting it who has not been accustomed to more or less of manual labour, for otherwise failure and probably disease will be the result. Exposed as the diggers are from morning until evening, day after day, to the inclemency of the weather, up to their knees for many hours at a time in water, and having to undergo the utmost toil if they would succeed in excavating the ground sufficiently to be successful in their search, the miner who would hope to see golden fruits must be a man of strong build, great and untiring perseverance, and able to endure priva-

tions of many kinds. Clerks, shopmen, professional men, indeed all who cannot undergo labour in the field, should not think of going to the colonies as diggers. It is owing to the disregard of these considerations that many have been disappointed at the gold fields, and there is now no doubt but that the most successful miners have been, and always will be, those men who have been accustomed to handle the spade and the pickaxe.

THE END.

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